

**Language Learner Identity and Aptitude: A Comparative Study
between Finnish and Chilean Students and Teachers of English**

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Language identity and language aptitude are individual traits closely related to the foreign language learner be it a student or a teacher. The aim of this study was to examine the relationship between these two concepts and how they vary between students and teachers respectively. A cultural component was added to ascertain whether the prevailing learning environment affects the outcome. The two subject groups either studied or taught English at an intermediate or higher level in Southwest Finland or Northern Chile. All of the participants (N = 62) were adults. A two-fold questionnaire was employed as the study method to gather data. The first part examined the subjects' self-perceived language learner identity, while the second applied parts of the Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery to obtain language aptitude scores for the subjects.

The language identity scores of the two subject groups were compared to each other using the Mann-Whitney U-test for independent samples. The same test was also used to compare the final language aptitude scores of the subjects. Spearman's rank order correlation coefficient was applied in determining the interrelationship between the subjects' language aptitude and language identity scores. All of these calculations were performed using SPSS Statistics.

The results revealed a difference between the language learner identities and language aptitudes of the subjects from the two different countries, indicating that the cultural background does have an effect. The results between students and teachers varied in relation to language identity, but not in reference to language aptitude. Similarly, a significant correlation was found between language identity and language aptitude in the case of the Finnish subjects, but not the Chilean subjects, warranting the need for further research into the interrelationship between these two concepts. Varying cultural contexts and their effect on the results should also be studied in the future.

Key words: foreign language learning, English language learning, language learner identity, language aptitude, cultural comparison, intercultural communication

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List of abbreviations

L1 = First language or native language
L2 = Second language
L2-self = Second language identity
ESL = English as a second language
EFL = English as a foreign language
PLAB = Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery
GPA = Grade point average
MLAT = Modern Language Aptitude Test
L3 = Third language
FL = Foreign language
MINEDUC = Ministry of Education in Chile
EODP = English Opens Doors Programme

1 INTRODUCTION

“In the social jungle of human existence, there is no feeling of being alive without a sense of identity.” These famous words belong to the late psychologist and psychoanalyst Erik Erikson (1968, 38), whose lifework on human development and identity remains insightful to the day. It is the work of pioneers like Erikson, Sigmund Freud, and William James that drew attention to identity, its formation, and importance in understanding individual differences (Block 2007, 3). Nevertheless, it was not until the mid 1990s and the research of Bonny Norton (e.g. 1995, 1997) that the implications of identity were examined from the second language perspective – from the perspective of the learner. Increased interest in the modified identity based on another language that the individual learned planted the seed for numerous studies and extensive research in the field of second language acquisition.

The other key concept of the present study – language aptitude – was first studied by researchers such as John Carroll (e.g. 1959, 1981) and his associates from the 1950s onwards. The “pre-programmed autonomous language learning ability”, as Peter Skehan (1989, 33) defines it, has to do with the potential and ability to learn foreign languages. Curiosity in predicting learning outcomes based on language aptitude led to the creation of language aptitude tests in the late 1950s and 1960s. One such test is the Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery, employed in the current study, created by Paul Pimsleur and his associated in 1966 (Pimsleur 1966). Early on aptitude tests were utilized for the identification and recognition of learning difficulties and possible weaknesses in learning foreign languages (Dörnyei 2005, 34). Later on, they have come to be used as indicators of success and prospects in language learning, which is how it is employed in the present study.

Research in both language identity and language aptitude has been conducted in various study settings, but their interrelation has remained unexplored. The relationship between an innate ability and an ever-developing individual difference could prove beneficial to language teachers around the world educating old and new learners. By discovering a possible link, teachers as well as learners can be motivated to pay attention to their forming language learner identity. Moreover, as the culture and the environment one is surrounded by affects one’s identity formation (Hall 1997, 226), two exceedingly different countries from the opposite ends of the OECD continuum were chosen for the study to add an intercultural

perspective to the study. The same questionnaire, used as the research method for gathering information, was conducted in Finland and Chile. The subjects were all either students or teachers of English as a foreign language at an intermediate, upper intermediate or advanced level. Besides the more researched student perspective, the current study is additionally interested in the teacher perspective and the difference between the two.

The research questions the current study aims to answer are as follows:

1. Is there a difference between Finnish and Chilean subjects' self-perceived language learner identities and aptitude scores?
2. Does a correlation exist between one's language aptitude and self-perceived language learner identity?
3. Are there differences between the students and the teachers in their self-perceived language learner identities and language aptitude?

The research questions were motivated on one hand by earlier research (Taylor et al. 2013, Torres-Rocha 2017 to mention a few), and on other hand by the growing English as a foreign language population around the world. The effect the varying cultural and environmental factors have on learning English have become more relevant as the language spreads around the globe. English is currently spoken in 136 countries by 753,359,540 second language speakers (Eberhard et al. 2019). A culturally comparative study can reveal aspects of an ideal learning environment.

The study at hand commences with the introduction of the theoretical framework of language learner identity, language aptitude and the cultural background of the study in section 2. This lays the foundation for all the subsequent parts of the study. The following section, section 3, describes the methodology of the study starting with the research questions and their hypotheses, moving on to presenting the subjects and finally introducing the questionnaire utilized and explaining the data collection procedure. Section 4 displays the results of the quantitative study conducted in Finland and Chile, while section 5 discusses the meaning and implications of the results in light of the theoretical framework presented in the beginning along with considering the possible limitations of the study. Finally, section 6 concludes the findings of the present study and proposes topics for further research to be conducted in the future.

2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In this section the theoretical background of the study is introduced by presenting key concepts and theories related to the topic. Furthermore, previous research conducted on similar matters is examined and analyzed closely to better understand the findings of this thesis. First, the concept of identity is examined in relation to language learners or more specifically foreign language learners. Secondly, language aptitude is defined and introduced along with the aptitude test used in the present study. Thirdly, the cultural background of the study is laid out along with information about the prevailing education system and language policies in the two countries involved. Finally, I will conclude the theory section with a comparison between the educational situations of learning English in the two countries and a brief section on intercultural competence and multicultural personality before moving on to the empirical part of the present study.

2.1 IDENTITY

This part of the theoretical section examines the concept of identity and how it is related to language learning. Norton (1997, 410) defines **identity** as a construction dependent on space and time, one's own view on how one relates to the world, and what is possible for one now and in the future. It is a need to be cared for, to feel safe and secure, and to be recognized by others (Kalaja et al. 2015, 18). In other words, identity is how we see ourselves and our potential in relation to others and the environment we are surrounded by (Kalaja et al. 2015, 20; Galajda 2011, 50).

However, identity is individual; it varies even within members of the same culture or group in that each individual perceives and interprets the world subjectively (Piasecka 2011, 25). As Galajda (2011, 50) puts it, it is not a fixed quality, but a "complex and multi-faceted concept negotiated and transformed by means of language." Norton and Toohey (2011, 414) further add that conflicting identities can co-occur even within a sole individual in various social contexts. For example, it could be that an individual identifies positively with a language when spoken and heard in foreign language contexts, but not as much when spoken and heard in native contexts or the other way around.

2.1.1 Language learner identity

Identity and language are intertwined concepts; when we learn a foreign language it also changes us and our identity (Csizér and Kormos 2009, 98), which brings us to the current study. The focus of this study is on the self-perceived language learner identity and the ideal L2-self. That is to say, how one views oneself as a learner of English and what aspects one associates to one's language learner identity. In addition to presenting concepts and theories related to identity, previous research conducted on language learner identity and its effects on the learning process are analyzed and evaluated in order to tie the theory into practice and give a baseline for the current study.

As stated in the introduction to this section, identities are multiple, dynamic and changing in nature, and closely related to the social aspect of language learning (Kalaja et al. 2015, 19; Darvin and Norton 2015; 36, Norton 1997, 419). Language learner identity, specifically, reflects the learners' ideas of their place and role in society along with what is expected of them as learners of the language they are learning. Moreover, it reflects what kind of a relationship they have with the language and the associated community (Darvin and Norton 2015, 45–46). Learner identity or identities are affected by the social and material resources available to the learner and the prevailing practices at home and in school in the country one lives in (Norton 2013, 12). Morgan's definition opens up the concept of language learner identity well:

But identity is not so much a map of experience—a set of fixed coordinates—as it is a guide with which ESL students negotiate their place in a new social order and, if need be, challenge it through the meaning-making activities they participate in. (Morgan 1997, 431)

Learning a foreign language causes the learners to recreate their cultural identity along with developing a completely new identity: the foreign language identity (Galajda 2011, 50). This new identity is not always perceived by the learners themselves, meaning that they may remain unaware of its existence and effect on one's sense of self (*ibid.*). To put it differently, learning a foreign language broadens one's perception of self, but the effect of this broadening may not be clear to the learner initially – or even after a while – as identity work is gradual and constantly ongoing. Furthermore, the consciousness of language learners in identity forming processes has been questioned by scholars such as Giddens (1991, 47) and Block

(2007, 22). However, this does not mean that the identity does not exist or that it does not have an influence on the learner and their behavior when in contact with the language in question. It can, for example, urge the learner to pursue more opportunities to learn and use the language or the opposite.

Besides being linked to the people and culture around the learner, language identity is also related to the **imagined communities** of the language one is learning. In other words, living and being an active participant of the target language community as one perceives it and desires it to be (Kalaja et al. 2015, 19; Norton and Toohey 2011, 415). If the imagined community has a positive connotation to the learner, one will assume a more positive and profound identity towards that language and make the learner fonder of the native speakers of that language (Block 2007, 45). The reality of an imagined community can be as powerful as the reality one is surrounded by, consequently impacting heavily on one's efforts to learn the language in question (Norton and Toohey 2011, 422).

The formation of these imagined communities and the related connotations to the learner occur when one is in contact with the language, for example during formal instruction, that is teaching, which is the most common source of the language for many language learners. This means that the teacher and the classroom activities influence the way learners identify themselves with the foreign language, which is why teachers should pay attention to how they present the language and how it is presented in the environment the learners live in, that is, the country in question (Morgan 1997, 447). Therefore, teachers' own views of the language they teach are essential in forming the identities of their students. As it follows, besides being interested in the students' language learner identities, the current study is interested in the teachers' language learner identities.

Connected to an imagined community is the **imagined identity** that one undertakes when communicating in the target language (Norton and Toohey 2011, 415). It entails how one sees and positions oneself when interacting in the foreign language. As Block (2007,20) puts it, identity is constantly positioning and repositioning oneself, which leads to new definitions of self. Stuart Hall, a cultural theorist, (1997, 226) defined identity as a process of becoming in a certain context of culture and history. He emphasized that "identity is not an essence, but a positioning": dependent on the surrounding environment and situation, but not without agency on the learner's part (ibid.). Thus, language learner identity is

essentially adjusting the language learner to the social world (Norton 2013, 11). However, the social environment and the resources available to the learner alone do not determine one's language learner identity or one's success in learning a language (Norton 2013, 12). Next, a few other concepts affecting one's language learner identity and overall success in learning will be presented.

Language learner identity is further shaped by two important notions: ambivalence and agency. **Ambivalence** here refers to the feeling of insecurity and uncertainty towards the target language and the community surrounding it, as well as towards one's own belonging or not belonging to said community (Kalaja et al. 2015, 19). Unbalanced power relations both within and between the target language culture and the L1 culture can affect the learners' opportunities to interact in the target language, thus causing feelings of ambivalence in the learners (Norton and Toohey 2011, 214). Concepts that are taken for granted, such as identity, only prompt concern when in crisis (Block 2007, 20–21), but it is precisely crises such as an identity crisis that form an integral part in shaping the learners' foreign language identity. **Agency**, on the other hand, is defined as the autonomy a learner has over his or her language learning and whether one truly aims to learn (Kalaja et al. 2015, 19). Resistance and unwillingness to learn a language affect one's learner identity and general attitudes towards learning negatively. This means that the individual does not intentionally identify with the language in question. An example of such resistance and unwillingness is Swedish in Finland for some Finnish speaking Finns due to its mandatory status in the national school curriculum.

Another essentially related concept is **investment**, that is the effort, eagerness, and inclination the learners place on learning the language, which either promotes or prevents learning (Kalaja et al. 2015, 20; Norton and Toohey 2011, 420). It aids the learner in relating one's dedication and want to learn a foreign language to one's developing identity (Norton and Toohey 2011, 420). Learners are aware that the more they invest in and commit to the language, the more resources they will gain, which in turn will add to their value and social power (Darvin and Norton 2015, 37). Because of this, investing in the target language means simultaneously investing in the language learner's own identity (Ushioda and Dörnyei 2009, 4). Therefore, investment is closely related to learner identity, but it is not equal to or mutually exclusive with motivation, which will be defined in section

2.2.2 in relation to Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery. Thus, one can invest in the language without motivation and vice versa (ibid.; Norton 2013, 12).

Finally, language identity, like all other identities, is also affected by attitudes. First and foremost, one's own attitude towards the language in question has an influence, but also the attitudes prevalent within the social groups one belongs to or wishes to be a part of. The relationship between language and attitude is both psychological and social with roots in the early research by Wallace C. Lambert and his colleagues (Lambert et al. 1960), who studied the psychological effects of attitudes on foreign language learning. It is difficult, if not impossible, to identify oneself with a language towards which one has negative attitudes. This leads to intentional avoidance on the learner's part.

Language identity has previously been studied more extensively in relation to one's first language. A case in point is a 2014 study by Saeed Rezaei and his associates studying L1 language identity among Persian-speaking English language learners in Iran. The study was conducted on English language learners from varied backgrounds and demographics. The method used to carry out the research was a questionnaire, where the participants had to self-evaluate their connection to the language, and thus answer questions about their perceived language identity. The concept of self-perceived identity will be explained in the following section 2.1.2.

The results of the study by Rezaei et al. (2014) showed moderate language identity towards the Persian L1 language in the case of the majority. There were, nonetheless, differences between certain groups of people participating in the study. One such instance was a distinction between learners of English with varying proficiency levels. A null-hypothesis was proposed, but later rejected, as the researchers found there to be a significant difference between the high English proficiency group and the low English proficiency group. This indicates that at least in this study, the learners who had a higher proficiency level in English had a lower language identity towards their L1. It cannot be concluded with certainty that it means they have started to form a language identity towards the English language, but it certainly poses a lot of questions that the present study on its part attempts to approach.

The importance of the English proficiency level in forming learner identities was also highlighted in a study by Torres-Rocha (2017) investigating Colombian

EFL (English as a foreign language) teachers' professional and language learner identities, and how they are influenced by the language requirements presented in the national language policy of Colombia. Other aspects affecting the teachers' evolving language identities were also considered (Torres-Rocha 2017, 42). The research was three-fold. First the participants filled out a survey regarding the national language policy and requirements set on English teachers. Secondly, a smaller proportion of the subjects participated in a narrative task writing their language learner autobiography. Finally, three candidates were interviewed by the researcher for the third part of the study in order to dwell deeper into the views of the teachers on the matters at hand.

The results of the study indicate that the teachers themselves emphasize the role of language proficiency in determining their language identity (Torres-Rocha 2017, 50). Notwithstanding, teachers placed higher value on language proficiency as learners of English, while their professional identity as English teachers was more determined by their intercultural competence. As it follows, in the current study, the teachers' language identity is examined from the language learner perspective as well, to allow a fairer and more equal comparison with the students' learner identities, and to see whether a noticeable difference exists. Torres-Rocha's study indicates that a separate language learner identity exists for the teachers along with their professional identity. Although, this indication is to be taken cautiously as there were only a handful of participants in the study. Moreover, although Columbia shares some commonalities with Chile, the implemented policies vary significantly from both Finland and Chile.

2.1.2 Self-perceived identity and the L2 self

Self-perceived identity refers to how one views one's own identity towards something, in this case language learning. The **L2 self** or second language self, on the other hand, is a term coined by Zoltán Dörnyei as a part of his theory, The L2 Motivational Self System, which focuses on the psychological side of motivation and the self, and is closely related to language learner identity (Dörnyei 2005, 105; Dörnyei 2009, 9). The L2 motivation is constructed of three variables: the ideal L2 self, what one wishes to be; the ought-to L2 self, what one believes one should be like; and the L2 learning experience, how one feels about learning an L2. All three variables are irrelevant unless compared to the actual L2 self or one's current L2

learner identity (Csizér and Kormos 2009, 99). Dörnyei suggests that the foreign language or L2 one is learning is so deeply integrated into one's being that it forms a significant part of one's self and identity (Dörnyei 2009, 9).

Block (2007, 113 & 137), on the other hand, is not as convinced of the emergence of a new identity or 'new subject positions' as he calls them in foreign language contexts, but he does admit that if viewed from the perspective of English as an international language or English as a medium of internet communication, new significant subject positions can arise. His stance is supported by two studies. The first by Cheiron McMahill conducted in 2001 (In Block 2007, 138–140), investigated empowering Japanese women in feminist agenda using English as a medium to become part of the international feminist community, which showed new subject positions among the participants in regard of their English language identity. The second study by Steven Thorne conducted in 2003 (In Block 2007, 140–143), focused on internet-mediated communication between language learners from different cultural backgrounds, resulting in emerging identities in the target language. Nonetheless, as Block (2007, 143) notes, it is crucial that such communication is maintained for an extended period of time for a more stable identity to form. That is, the foreign language, here English, can have an impact on the learner's sense of self and form new subject positions to the learner if exposed to for an extended period of time (Block 2007, 113). What is important, is the framing of the target language in a manner that makes it an accessible and useful resource for the learners (Block 2007, 144).

The foreign language learner identity is usually formed only after the learner reaches a certain familiarity and knowledge of the language in question (Kurtyka 2007, 69). This excludes learners that are beginners or very basic level students. In support of this, Kramersch (2009, 27) proposes that beginner level learners can be affected by underlying personal reactions towards a language they are learning that are difficult to overcome, and consequently impede the forming of a language learner identity. Furthermore, she declares that early-stage learners view the language only as such, unconnected and isolate, and regard it temporary in nature. This implicates that these learners fail to see the bigger picture and consider the effects the language might have on them and their own linguistic identity. Kurtyka (2007, 68–69) seconds Kramersch, and adds that a higher command of a foreign

language opens up the possibility for deeper understanding and awareness of culture and cultural differences, which are an integral part of a language identity.

Taylor et al. (2013) studied foreign language learner identities by comparing students' private, public, and ideal selves in English as a foreign language to the corresponding selves in mathematics by conducting a questionnaire in each subject. They also studied whether the students' perceptions of identity correlated to their academic achievement in these two school subjects and whether there was a difference between students studying in different countries and thus different cultures. In addition, teacher identities and perceptions were studied in reference to student appreciation and their own perceived competence in teaching. A total of 4409 learners from Bulgaria, Germany, the Netherlands and Spain participated in the study. All of the student subjects (aged 14-19) were questioned in their native language, while the teachers replied in English (Taylor et al. 2013, 6).

The results of the study indicated that students identify themselves stronger as English learners than as learners of mathematics, which indicates that perhaps one does not consider math to be as related to one's sense of self as English (Taylor et al. 2013, 7). Moreover, the study found out that the students' self-perceived language learner identities did not correspond to the identities they let out to their parents and teachers, which suggests that the students deemed necessary to hide their true learner identities and display different ones (Taylor et al. 2013, 9). This underlines the need for further research not on the visible learner identities but on the self-perceived true identities. This need for research is further supported by the fact that Taylor et al. (2013, 10) found a positive correlation between a supportive environment that allows the learners to evolve and prosper and higher achievement in language learning. Moreover, they concluded that learner identity perceptions affect achievement, and are closely related to the identity perceptions of their teachers. Teachers who felt appreciated by their students also perceived their competence as a teacher higher and their subjectivity in teaching more valued. The same did not apply for colleague appreciation, indicating that the student-teacher relationship is more important to teachers (Taylor et al. 2013, 16).

The comparison between learner identities from language learners of different countries yielded statistically significant differences in the study, warranting a need for more culturally comparative studies of language learner identities in various countries with differing educational systems and cultural customs (Taylor et al. 2013,

16 & 18). Furthermore, the researchers noted that since identity is dependent on the context, detailed explorations should be made on divergent learning contexts (Taylor et al. 2013, 17). To conclude on the study by Taylor et al., their research indicates a gap in research in relation to self-perceived foreign language learner identities in different cultural contexts, which is what the present study aims to fill.

2.2 APTITUDE

Another key concept in the current study is **aptitude** or the potential mental ability to do something and achieve success (Dörnyei 2005, 32). Aptitude is an individual trait that varies between people (Skehan 1998, 185). This part begins with a deeper look at language aptitude – what it is and how it affects language learning on an individual level. After conceptualizing and presenting aptitude theories, aptitude testing is briefly discussed, with special attention to Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery, which is used in the current study to measure the participants' language aptitude. Finally, previous studies related to language aptitude are presented, analyzed and evaluated to get a clearer picture of the field.

2.2.1 Language aptitude

Language aptitude is defined as the innate ability or potential facilitating the learning and acquiring of new languages (Dörnyei 2005, 31–33). It is a psychological trait closely linked to cognitive processing in the brain, and thus varies from one individual to another resulting in learner differences (Skehan 1998, 185). The term is often connected to intelligence, success, and positive achievement in acquiring languages (Dörnyei 2005, 31–33). Carroll (1981,1993) further defines language aptitude as a mixture of perceptual and cognitive abilities, which include inductive language learning, phonetic coding ability, grammatical sensitivity, and the capacity of the memory. In addition, he asserts the innateness and relative stability of these abilities, which contrasts aptitude with identity that is dynamic and evolving in nature (ibid.). Aspects of language aptitude that are dynamic and can be improved with practice seem to exist, however, they are few and not thoroughly confirmed by research (Kormos 2013, 145). This makes language aptitude an ideal individual trait, whose relationship with language identity to study, as it is something more innate to the learner. It also varies among even closely associated individuals and it can be measured separate from the language learner identity (Skehan 1998, 185).

Research has shown that language aptitude is one of the individual factors most closely related to L2 proficiency (Dörnyei 2005, 31). In fact, Granena and Long (2013, ix) suggest that according to previous research it is the second most influential factor in attaining a second language after the age of onset, that is, the age one had one's first exposure of the language in question (Abrahamsson 2012, 188). Granena (2013b, 180) even goes on to argue that a learner with high language aptitude will learn at a more rapid pace and achieve higher proficiency levels of the language than low-aptitude learners, if all other affecting factors are equal. She bases her proposition on earlier research conducted in a laboratory that provided evidence of positive effects of aptitude in an array of exposure conditions (ibid.). However, the relationship between language aptitude and ultimate attainment, meaning the final L2 proficiency level, is not as straightforward as originally thought, and more research is needed to examine which factors influence this relationship (Granena 2013b, 198).

On a different note, Põder and Kiilu (2015) studied among other things the relationship between students' musical identity and musical aptitude and the effect of the learning environment on the individual. They conducted a study on 20 students of musical pedagogy and interpretation pedagogy in an Estonian Music Academy. Despite the study being small-scale, their results can offer an indication of the interrelationship between identity, aptitude, and learning environments, which are all central concepts in the current study. Musicality and language skills have often been linked together (e.g. Milovanov 2009, 340), as the same areas in the brain are activated during both activities, making these results at least somewhat indicative of related aspects in language learning.

Mixed methods were used in gathering the data of the study by Põder and Kiilu, among them a background questionnaire, identity scale, and a musical aptitude test. The results of the study indicate that the strongest influencers on the students' musical identity were educational and environmental factors such as a positive model in the learning environment (Põder and Kiilu 2015, 1708). There was also a weak positive correlation between the educational factors of the students' musical identity and their musical aptitude (ibid.). The researchers further suggest that supportive educational curricula and teaching methods have an influence on the students' forming musical identity (Põder and Kiilu 2015, 1709-1710). What this indicates for the current study is that there is a link, even if fractional, between

aptitude and identity, and that the learning environment has an effect on the students' developing identity justifying the research agenda. What is more, this study was conducted on a rather small group of participants, making further investigation and research on the topic necessary.

A variety of previous research has linked language aptitude to the rate of learning a foreign language and the ultimate attainment level acquired (Granena and Long 2013, x), but its relation to the perceived foreign language identity has yet to be studied. In other words, this suggests a void in the research, one which the current study aims to fill at least partially by examining the two-way relationship between language aptitude and language identity. The results will also shed light onto how these features factor in the learners' proficiency level, as the participants will be asked for their self-perceived English proficiency level. Examining adult learners of English is justified by a remark made by DeKeyser (2000), who claims that teenagers and adults rely more on their language aptitude in learning foreign language than younger learners do due to their more explicit learning strategies.

2.2.2 Aptitude testing & Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery

Aptitude testing started in the early 1900s as intelligence testing to identify possible weaker performers among students, followed by similar tests specifically targeting the aptitude to learn foreign languages some twenty years later (Dörnyei 2005, 33–34). There was no research or theoretical foundation behind these tests, but equal to the ability tests today, they tested the students on two main domains: **analytical and synthetic aptitude**. Analytic aptitude refers to targeted intellectual capabilities such as verbal intelligence or knowledge of words, whereas synthetic aptitude refers to the ability to deduce and understand patterns in language (ibid.). An example of an analytic task would be recognizing synonyms in one's native language, and an example of a synthetic task would be learning grammar rules of an invented or unknown language by looking at examples.

Where the early aptitude testing focused on students' readiness or success in learning foreign languages, later research redirected the spotlight to learner capacity (Kormos 2013, 133). Followed by this change in the conceptualization, two of the most famous and extensively used aptitude tests were created: **The Modern Language Aptitude Test** or **MLAT** by John Carroll and Stanley Sapon in 1959 and **The Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery** or **PLAB** by Paul Pimsleur in 1966

(Dörnyei 2005, 35; Granena 2013b, 179). PLAB, which will be used in conducting the research for the current study will be explained more thoroughly in the following paragraph. Although these two tests are probably still the most used in research, other newer tests exist. Paul Meara created an open access aptitude test called **LLAMA** in 2005, and the University of Maryland created **Hi-LAB**, an aptitude test directed to languages more difficult to learn, in 2007, to mention a few (Granena and Long 2013, x-xi).

However, these newer tests were not chosen for the study, because Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery was found more suitable for the purposes of the current study. It was chosen as, unlike other language aptitude tests that focus only on cognitive abilities, Pimsleur's test also includes motivation (Kormos 2013, 133), which can create variation in the scores even if the analytic skills of the learners are similar or the same. It adds a different learner perspective to aptitude. Moreover, one of the pioneers of aptitude research and testing, John Carroll (1990, 27), expressed his skepticism in the likelihood of notable improvement of aptitude tests above the levels of the early tests, namely MLAT and PLAB, being possible. A previous study found a significant relationship between foreign language motivation and PLAB scores (Kipp 2017, 101), which raises the question of the existence of an equivalent relationship between foreign language identity and PLAB scores.

Hence, the language aptitude test used in the current study is a test developed by Dr. Paul Pimsleur and his associates in the 1960's called the **Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery or PLAB** (Pimsleur 1966). It is a paper-and-pencil test aiming to determine one's potential in learning foreign languages. The test consists of six parts: grade point average or GPA, interest in foreign language learning, vocabulary, language analysis, sound discrimination, and sound-symbol association (Dörnyei 2005, 38–39). Thus, it measures the majority of the central features linked to language aptitude. The only key factor currently linked to language aptitude that is missing from the PLAB test but is present in other similar tests such as the MLAT is memory (Dörnyei 2005, 40). Notwithstanding, for example Ackerman (2007, 237) argued that one's existing knowledge is a better determinant of language aptitude than the functions of working memory, because not all of the information processed in our working memory is transferred into long term memory or necessarily even understood.

The three main factors in Pimsleur's test are **verbal intelligence**, **motivation** and **auditory ability** (Pimsleur 1966, 14). The first, verbal intelligence, is defined by Pimsleur as "the knowledge of words and the ability to reason analytically in using verbal materials" (ibid.). Motivation, on the other hand, is traditionally defined as a force or process that drives the individual forward giving energy to one's behavior and enhancement in achieving set goals. It is what initiates action within an individual (Weinstein and DeHaan 2014, 3). Finally, auditory ability refers to the individual's capability or aptness in receiving and processing heard information (Pimsleur 1966, 14). According to Pimsleur, these three components are crucial in determining one's aptitude in learning foreign languages. Granena and Long (2013, x) further add that the PLAB measures skills used in foreign language teaching, focusing on the linguistic code instead of communicative acquisition of the language, making it an ideal test to be administered on students who are mainly learning foreign languages through formal classroom instruction. Since the test is quite extensive and time-consuming, for the purposes of the current study, only parts of the test were submitted to the participants. The reasoning for the parts chosen will be given in the section 3 of the current study.

Pimsleur's aptitude test has been criticized by some scholars such as John Carroll (1990, 17), who criticized the phonetic coding ability tasks of both his own aptitude test MLAT and PLAB for being inconsiderate of dyslexic people. This is a valid argument since like in most aptitude tests, the phonetic coding ability tasks would present difficulties for individuals struggling with spelling such as dyslexics, which needs to be taken into consideration when analyzing the results of the current study. Another researcher, Charles Stansfield (1988, 443), criticized PLAB mainly for the manual of how to administer the test and calculate the scores of the subjects. Despite this criticism Stansfield evaluates the test to be adequately reliable, and appropriately constructed and pre-tested. Intertest correlations gave significant results, when tested on different level students. Nonetheless, Stansfield argues that these correlation scores could be and have been lower on some cases. This needs to be taken into consideration when analyzing the results of the current study. Apart from criticizing the Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery, Stansfield additionally notes that the test is suitable for diagnosing individual strengths and weaknesses, and determining defining features or profiles for existing groups (Stansfield 1988, 442). It is exactly these possible group profiles and discovering prominent group

features that steered the researcher towards choosing Pimsleur's aptitude test for the current study.

A previous foreign language learner study by Kipp (2017) researched L2 and L3 German language aptitude in the United States using the Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery among other study methods. The study was conducted on second and sixth semester University students, making them roughly the same age as the subjects in the current study. Kipp excluded first semester students due to insufficient exposure and proficiency in the German language as was done in the present study by the exclusion of beginner and basic level students. Likewise, only parts of the PLAB were used (parts 4, 5 & 6; when the current study utilizes parts 2, 4 & 6). The most variation between students was found using part 4, which is also present in the current study, and a total of the three parts used.

Kipp's study discovered that both intermediate and advanced L2 and L3 learners are capable of achieving similar scores in the PLAB. However, the same was not true in regard of beginner level students. The intermediate proficiency level acted as a threshold for gaining comparable results. As a further matter, the study detected that the L3 learners scored generally higher in the PLAB than the L2 learners, indicating that further knowledge of an additional language raises the students' linguistic awareness and ability. Lastly, based on the results of the study, Kipp concluded that individual differences, in this case motivation, had a stronger effect on the L2 learners than the L3 learners, because of an existing negative correlation between aptitude and motivation (Kipp 2017, 115). These factors need to be taken into consideration when analyzing the results of the current study, as not all present study subjects studied a third language.

2.3 CULTURAL BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

In this section of the theoretical framework, the cultural background of the current study is explained. In other words, the cultural language learning situation and the national policies and principles governing English learning and teaching in the countries in question: Finland and Chile. The countries are but far away from each other, also very different in terms of the linguistic situation, educational systems, and amount of contact with the English language. However, there are also commonalities between the two countries in relation to second language learning. These similarities and differences are presented, discussed, and evaluated in the

following paragraphs in order to shed light onto the current situation apparent in both countries relevant to the study.

The cultural background is of importance here as one's home culture shapes the learner's forming identity in the second language. Liddicoat and Crozet (2001, 137–8) stated aptly that “learners develop an understanding that learning to speak a FL is not a matter of simply adopting foreign norms of behavior, but about finding an acceptable accommodation between one's first culture and the target culture”. It is thus vital to look closely at the differences between the cultural contexts present in the countries in question.

2.3.1 Intercultural competence and multicultural personality

A concept tightly connected to both culture and foreign language identities, **intercultural competence**, refers to a stabilized identity and ability to appropriate behavior in intercultural situations. Moreover, it refers to the establishment and maintenance of intercultural relationships (Jensen 1995, 41). In other words, how well one can adapt to an intercultural environment. The communication realized in these intercultural situations can be referred to as **tertiary socialization** (Block 2007, 118), which according to Byram (1990), refers to the induction into a second culture, its values, norms, beliefs and behavior, and consequently comprises the experience of learning a foreign language. It differs from the communication with peers from a shared cultural background, for example, in the amount of misunderstandings, miscommunications, and conversation breakdowns present (Block 2007, 119). Tertiary socialization is what foreign language teaching aims at; integrating the learner into the target language culture and values in order for them to grasp a more wholesome idea of the language and its use.

Successful intercultural communication and the emerging intercultural competence help shape one's cultural identity or **multicultural personality** as it is also referred to, and one's foreign language identity (Galajda 2011, 50–51). Some scholars believe that learning a language in a formal foreign language context obstructs the formation of a new identity or personality related to languages, but Kramsch (2009, 4) argues that these contexts are exactly what prompts ideas, dreams and aspirations in the learners, urging them to connect and communicate interculturally. She further defines “people who use more than one language in everyday life” as **multilingual subjects** (Kramsch 2009,17), something that all of

the participants in the current study are. Being a multilingual subject gives the individuals an advantage of several understandings of the social world, and different cultural perspectives on various issues (Kramsch 2009, 124). In the following subsections, the prevailing cultural settings for learning English in Finland and Chile are reviewed.

2.3.2 Learning English in Finland

Finland is a northern-European country with two official languages, part of the European Union with strong ties to its neighboring countries and with a highly ranked education system. This may sound ideal for language learning, but closer inspection is much needed here to dig deeper into the cultural learning environment present.

To begin with, the two main official languages are Finnish, a Finno-Ugric language spoken exclusively in Finland, and Swedish, a North-Germanic language spoken in Sweden and parts of Finland. In addition, there are several official minor languages such as Sami spoken in Northern Finland. The number of Swedish-speaking citizens in Finland was 289,052 out of 5,516,224 in 2017 (Statistics Finland 2017) or 5.2% of the population, making them a minority. To compare, the same number for Finnish-speaking citizens was 4,848,761 or 87.9% in 2017 (ibid.). However, Swedish is a mandatory language in school, which means that everyone should speak at least some Swedish. Children normally start learning Swedish either on the third grade or the sixth grade, depending on whether they choose to begin English or Swedish first (Finnish National Agency for Education 2014, 126 & 211). It is more common for students to start English first. In some schools it is possible to start learning a foreign language even as early as first grade. All Finnish children study at least two other languages besides their mother tongue from the sixth grade onwards.

Finland joined the European Union in 1995 and has been a member ever since. In addition, Finland has been a part of the Schengen area since 2001, which promotes free movement of citizens within its member countries (European Union 2018). According to the European Commission, “the free movement of persons is a fundamental right guaranteed by the EU to its citizens. It entitles every EU citizen to travel, work and live in any EU country without special formalities” (European Commission 2018). Furthermore, Finland has been part of the Nordic Council since 1955 along with the four other Nordic countries (Nordic Co-operation 2018). This

demonstrates the close relationship of Finland and its neighboring countries and the co-operation between them. An extensive part of all the international communication is conducted in English, which functions as the lingua franca in the area.

The education system in Finland promotes equal opportunities and access for all students. According to the recently published OECD's Education at a Glance report (2018), "Finland benefits from more upward educational mobility and lower income inequality than other countries." The newest national core curricula were introduced in 2014 by the Finnish National Agency for Education defining all the core contents and objectives of education in Finland. These core curricula are used in forming local curricula for schools and institutions (Finnish National Agency for Education 2019). One of the changes brought on by the new curricula is the earlier starting age of a second foreign language, which can be either English or Swedish or another language offered by the school (ibid.).

The average Finnish student starts learning English in the third grade, sometimes even earlier, or in a rarer case in fifth grade, if they choose to begin their Swedish studies first (Finnish National Agency for Education 2014, 126 & 211). From there on, English is a popular school subject all through comprehensive school and further on in either high school or vocational school depending on the learners' study path. It is not obligatory, as the student can choose to study any foreign language offered in their school as an A1 foreign language. However, in many schools there are no other choices than English, and despite of options the majority of students still choose English (Eurostats 2016). Universities and universities of applied sciences also require a course in both academic writing and academic speaking in a foreign language with career specific topics and vocabulary. For the majority, the choice of foreign language is English. In 2016 99.9% of Finnish upper secondary school students learned English in school making it one of the eight EU countries with the highest percentage of English students (Eurostats 2016). One cannot graduate from university without completing these courses. Attached to universities are language centers that also offer university students additional free courses in a variety of languages including English. Thus, it can be concluded that nearly all, if not all, students learn English in Finland. According to a 2016 Ethnologue census, 3,858,800 or 70% Finns speak English (Eberhard et al. 2019). Eurostats census from the same year reveal that 99% of Finnish students in upper

secondary school learn at least two or more languages besides their mother tongue (Eurostats 2016).

Qualified subject teachers of English must have a master's degree from a university with at least a minor in English language and linguistics (Finlex 2019). Elementary school teachers, who teach English in addition to other subjects, must also have master's degree from the university and several English courses completed, but not necessarily minor studies in English language and linguistics (ibid.). In the University of Turku, for example, the English subject teacher students must score a minimum of 3 out of 5 in English pronunciation, thus securing a high enough command of the language to teach it to others. Subject teachers must also complete a year of pedagogical studies during their university career to qualify as a teacher (ibid.). The year includes education studies, didactics, and several training periods, where the teacher students practice teaching with a working teacher supervising and evaluating them. Most university cities have a specific teacher training school that is owned by the university.

2.3.3 Learning English in Chile

Chile is a Latin American country situated on the west coast of the South-American continent next to Argentina, Bolivia, and Peru. The official language of the country is Spanish, a Romance language, with several minority languages such as Quechua, Aymara, and Mapudungun spoken by indigenous peoples (British Council 2015, 26). Surrounded by countries with Spanish as an official language, the need for English is more marginal than in the case of Finland and Europe, as one rarely comes into contact with the English language. However, Chile is one of the most connected South American countries with international ties to several countries and organizations. The country has strong ties to the United Nations, and it is an OECD country.

The two official government bodies that oversee educational matters are The Ministry of Education or MINEDUC that creates the compulsory curriculum for education, monitors performance in schools, gives out operating licenses for schools and issues subsidies; and The National Education Council or CNED that provides feedback and approves initiatives effectuated by the ministry, for example, the compulsory curriculum and the national standards set out to the students to achieve during each school grade (British Council 2015, 10). Furthermore, in 2012

two new educational organs were established The Agencia de Calidad de la Educación that evaluates, classifies, inspects and compares schools by their performance and achievements in learning; and the Superintendencia de Educación Escolar that supervise the compliance of laws, standards and regulations by the schools. Despite these organs, decision-making is highly decentralized, and most decisions are made on the municipal level or by individual teaching institutions (ibid.; Toledo Figueroa and Wittenberg 2014, 4). For example, teachers used to be hired by the Ministry of Education (MINEDUC), but after the reforms, municipalities were extended the power to hire their own teachers (OECD 2012, 56).

Furthermore, the goal of ongoing reforms in education in Chile is to ensure free education for everyone and expunge the tradition of student selection according to wealth, because currently a positive correlation exist between English proficiency, household income and education attainment (British Council 2015, 10)). A total of 40 % of the funds used for education in Chile come from private sources, which is a remnant from the dictatorship of Augusto Pinochet 1973-1990 and the highest percentage among the OECD countries (British Council 2015, 8 & 14). Of the public resources 80-90% of government-based educational funding goes towards teachers' salaries (OECD 2012, 57). This funding, however, is far below the OECD average, in fact, one of the lowest (Toledo Figueroa and Wittenberg 2014, 2)

According to the ICFE Monitor, the English proficiency level in Chile has gone up a few per cent from very low to low in the last four years (ICFE 2016). This is at least partly due to the Ministry of Education initiated program called The English Opens Doors Programme or EODP launched in 2003 aiming to raise the nation's English proficiency levels (British Council 2015, 8; ICFE 2016). In consequence, the program effectuated a reform for all students to start studying English already in the fifth grade instead of the seventh grade, with the aim of B1 proficiency by the time of graduation (British Council 2015, 8 & 20). Studying English continues until the 12th grade, with no further obligatory courses in English (British Council 2015, 21). Universities have language academies, but similar to the courses of other English language institutions in the country, their courses are not free to most students, causing mainly the highly motivated students to participate in them. Nonetheless, lower income students can apply for scholarships and low-interest loans to pay for the courses if they want to (British Council 2015, 30).

Regardless of the English reform, there are still a lot of people in Chile with little or no knowledge of English, which led to the larger scale aim of the EOPD program: to increase the national level of English proficiency in a way that all citizens have at the minimum some degree of understanding and fluency in English (British Council 2015, 20). Besides English proficiency levels, the biggest complaints and issues with the program have to do with unqualified teachers and insufficient resources to organize teaching (Barahona 2016, 22). There is a high shortage of qualified teachers in Chile (Toledo Figueroa and Wittenberg 2014, 1). According to a 2006 survey, merely 55% of English teachers in Chile held certified qualifications in teaching English, which led to the majority of these teachers to teach their English courses in Spanish. In response, EODP initiated an exchange program for native English speakers to teach English in Chile. Even so, they only set two requirements for prospective candidates: they need to be native English speakers and possess a university degree. The type of university degree is irrelevant, and no teaching qualifications need to be met (Barahona 2016, 22).

Historically, in 1981 during the dictatorship, teacher education was downgraded to a vocational domain, and lost its university status, which was not regained until the 1990s and the reestablishment of a democratic government in Chile (Barahona 2016, 19). Following this, in the 1990s the Chilean government raised public education spending, implemented programs to improve achievement-levels in the lowest performing schools, and appointed teacher performance enhancing incentives along with modifications to the curriculum (OECD 2012, 53). In spite of this, teaching degrees became detested in Chile, because of little professional appreciation, underpayment and challenging working conditions. It was not until the recent reforms that commenced an increasing trend in applying for teaching degrees, especially teaching foreign languages. The greater interest in teaching foreign languages (mainly English) has to do with a higher status among teaching degrees based on a Chilean view of a higher societal status achieved by foreign language learning (Barahona 2016, 23).

Today, teachers in Chile need to complete a five-year bachelor's degree program offered by a university or sometimes professional institute to graduate as a secondary school teacher (Toledo Figueroa and Wittenberg 2014, 10; Barahona 2016, 19). Primary school teachers only complete a four-year program (ibid.). A reoccurring problem for graduating teachers in Chile is insufficient knowledge on the

subject matter and teaching pedagogy (Toledo Figueroa and Wittenberg 2014, 1). Despite this, professional development is not financially supported by the government, and neither are any additional professional courses obligatory during a teacher's career (Toledo Figueroa and Wittenberg 2014, 11).

There is a special aim in furthering equity in access to quality English teaching also in public schools (British Council 2015, 20). MINEDUC recently published its own curriculum for learning English called Go For Chile, which bases its study materials on Chilean settings and experiences in an effort to integrate the English language into the national culture of Chile (British Council 2015, 20). Following the reforms, a new standard was set to prospective teachers of English; they must have a C1 command of the English language instead of the previous B2-level requirement (UNESCO Institute of Statistics 2018). Additionally, MINEDUC has put forward a proposal for supplementary practical training at schools to be build into the education of teachers (Barahona 2016, 18).

2.3.4 Comparison between Finland and Chile

Perhaps the biggest difference between English education in Finland and Chile is the equal accessibility for all students in the country; in Finland private schools are nearly non-existent and everyone has a chance for equal education, whereas in Chile private school enrolment is over 50 % of the young population, which is the fourth highest number in the world only exceeded by Belgium, The Netherlands and Ireland (British Council 2015, 8; OECD 2015). Moreover, according to a report by the British Council (2015, 9) Chile is the most unequal country in the OECD. The same report also states that the biggest obstacles for learning English in Chile are its high cost and lack of accessibility, which are not seen as barriers for learning in Finland (British council 2015, 8). As a consequence, in the latest PISA results from 2015 Finland's overall ranking in education was fifth, while Chile's was 44th out of 70 countries measured in the test (OECD 2015).

A comparison between the education systems and current educational situations from the students' perspective in the countries in question reveals that the sense of belonging at school is higher for Finland than Chile, whereas schoolwork related anxiety is higher in Chile (OECD 2015). Furthermore, the average grade repetition rate in Finland is 3% compared to 25% in Chile (ibid.). All of these statistics could be partially explained by the substantially longer schooldays in Chile than

Finland; perhaps the constant studying overwhelms the students and makes them feel less comfortable and connected to the school world. These statistics demonstrate the different effects education has on the student experience in both Finland and Chile.

Looking at the working conditions of teachers, when talking about class sizes, the student-teacher ratio is nearly double in Chile compared to Finland. In 2014 the average class size in Finland was 20 and in Chile 31 (Toledo Figueroa and Wittenberg 2014, 14). In addition, the average teaching hours per year for teachers are again nearly double in Chile (Chile 1103, Finland 589), while the income for teachers in Chile is one of the lowest among the OECD countries (OECD 2015; Toledo Figueroa and Wittenberg 2014, 14). One would assume that the better the working conditions for teachers, the better the results of said teaching. As it follows, a significant foundation for the Finnish education system's mutual trust between teachers and decisionmakers is found in teacher accountability; Finnish teachers enjoy pedagogical autonomy, which in turn obliges them with varied responsibilities (Aurén 2017, 7). Additionally, being valued in society presumably adds teacher motivation and dedication. Statistics reveal that only 33.6% of teachers in Chile believe that their profession is valued in society, compared to the 58.6% of Finnish teachers, who believe so (OECD Stats 2013).

Even more important than the working conditions of teachers in the two countries are the qualifications of said teachers. According to TALIS or Teaching and Learning International Survey conducted in 2013, 92.5% of Finnish teachers have completed teacher education or training, while only 85.7% of Chilean teachers have done so. The TALIS average for teacher education completion is 89.8% (OECD Stats 2013). Nonetheless, according to school principal reports only about 20% of Chilean teachers teaching 15-year-olds are certified, making Chile the second lowest among PISA participating countries only exceeding Colombia. Being uncertified does not mean that teachers lack a university degree, in fact, 92% of teachers in Chile hold a university degree, it is just not from teaching. The same school principal reports conducted in Finland revealed a 91.5% certification rate. (Santiago et al. 2017, 231–232). However, where a Finnish teacher holds a master's degree, a Chilean teacher holds a bachelor's degree (Toledo Figueroa and Wittenberg 2014, 10).

In regard of the English proficiency in the countries researched, Finland continues to rank higher than Chile. In the 2018 Global English Proficiency Index gathered yearly by the organization called EF or Education First, Finland ranked in eighth place “very high proficiency” whereas Chile ranked 46th “low” out of the 88 countries measured (EF Education First 2018). One explanation for the difference is the varying degree of overall L1 reading performance in the two countries, as reading is an essential skill in learning a foreign language and the knowledge of one’s L1 affects the learning of an L2. In the latest Pisa results, Finland ranked 2-5 in the students’ reading performance, while Chile ranked 41-43 (OECD 2015, 149). This is hardly the only explanation for the difference in proficiency levels. The overall education system, teaching methods, teacher qualifications, and extensiveness of English studies also need to be taken into consideration. This could be a prospective research subject for the future. Next, I move on to the empirical part of the present study, and start by introducing methodology behind the conducted research.

3 METHODOLOGY

The section at hand begins by presenting the research questions of the current study along with their initial hypotheses. Next, the subjects, who participated in the research in Finland and Chile are introduced. This is followed by a description and justification of the methodology used to conduct the study. The questionnaire used to gather the results is also explained and introduced. Furthermore, the section continues by describing the data collection process and briefly introduces the data collected before a thorough analysis and discussion of the results in the following two sections.

3.1 RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

The main motive of the study is to find answers to the following research questions:

- (1) Is there a difference between Finnish and Chilean subjects' self-perceived language learner identities and aptitude scores?
- (2) Does a correlation exist between one's language aptitude and self-perceived language learner identity?
- (3) Are there differences between the students and the teachers in their self-perceived language learner identities and language aptitude?

The hypotheses are as follows: First, due to a closer proximity and stronger connection to the English-speaking world as explained in section 2.3.2, it is hypothesized that the self-perceived language learner identities of Finnish students of English are stronger and more positive than those of Chilean students. This is related to the concept of imagined communities, and how one perceives the target culture and community (Norton and Toohey 2011, 415). As mentioned previously, learner identity or identities are affected by the social and material resources available to the learner and the prevailing practices at home and in school in the country one lives in (Norton 2013, 12). However, the researcher does not expect such a difference to be detectable in the case of the teachers from the two countries. This hypothesis can be explained by the apparent interest in the English language, which is noticeable in their choice of profession. It is further hypothesized that the language aptitude scores of the Finnish subjects are higher than the Chilean

subjects, because of a higher overall English proficiency level in Finland (EF Education First 2018). According to previous research language aptitude and L2 proficiency have a close interrelationship (Dörnyei 2005, 31). The difference in the aptitude scores is expected to be true for the teachers as well, as the Finnish teachers graduate from a master's program and the Chilean teachers from a bachelor's program making their studies less extensive (Toledo Figueroa and Wittenberg 2014, 10).

Secondly, it is hypothesized that a perceptible although not necessarily strong correlation exists between one's self-perceived language identity and one's language aptitude. The justification for this has to do with the concepts of ambivalence and investment introduced in section 2.1.1 of the current study. If one is not inclined to learn foreign languages, one might feel more insecure towards learning one, which affects the individual's language learner identity negatively (Kalaja et al. 2015, 19). Compared to highly talented language learners such individuals might obtain a lower identity score as well as a lower language aptitude score. What is more, if one is not inclined to learning languages, one might place less effort in learning one, again resulting in lower scores in both language learner identity and language aptitude (Ushioda and Dörnyei 2009, 4).

Thirdly, one more hypothesis is proposed in relation to the differences between students and teachers in their self-perceived language learner identity towards the English language and their language aptitude scores. It is expected that the teachers score higher on the language aptitude test as they are professional linguists with studies on the mechanics of languages, and generally more linguistically talented individuals seek the language teaching profession. The English proficiency level of teachers is in the majority of cases higher than that of students, as a high proficiency level is a prerequisite of teacher studies (UNESCO Institute of Statistics 2018; Finlex 2019), which in turn correlates with higher language aptitude scores (Dörnyei 2005, 31). What follows is that the teachers are also hypothesized to identify stronger towards the English language, because on top of it being an interest of theirs, it is a profession for them. They deal with the language on a daily basis – as could some students – but for many of the students they did not choose to do so unlike the teachers.

Finally, I intend to give answers to the aforementioned research questions in the following sections as well as to either confirm or reject my hypotheses. This is

done by statistically and qualitatively analyzing the collected data from both Finland and Chile, and relating the findings to the theoretical framework of the study. Next, the subjects of the study are briefly introduced.

3.2 SUBJECTS

There were altogether 66 subjects participating in the study. Four of them had to be excluded due to missing answers to several questions. Therefore, the actual number of subjects was 62. 25 of these were from Chile and 37 from Finland. 51 were students and 11 teachers. A more elaborate categorization of the subjects is presented in Table 2. Most of the subjects participating in the study were either university students or language center teachers at the university in question. The majority of the subjects were either from the University of Turku in Turku, Finland participating or teaching an English course at the Centre for Language and Communication Studies or from the University of Tarapacá in Arica, Chile participating or teaching an English course at the English Academy (Academia de Inglés). Nonetheless, some teachers from Finland were not from the Language Center, but taught English elsewhere because of a lack of responses from the language center teachers.

The student subjects from Finland were all law students, whereas the students from Chile came from varied study backgrounds, the most common of which were different types of engineering and medical students. The Chilean students all participated in either intermediate, upper intermediate or advanced English courses prepping them for the Cambridge Exams measuring English proficiency. In consequence, all of the Chilean teachers who took part in the study were teachers of said Cambridge Exam courses. The Finnish students, on the other hand, were all taking a course on legal English, and one teacher that participated in the study was their course teacher. The other teachers from Finland taught different levels of comprehensive school or high school, mostly intermediate level courses.

Table 1 Categorization of research subjects

	STUDENT	TEACHER	TOTAL
FINLAND	33	4	37
CHILE	18	7	25
TOTAL	51	11	62

The average age of the subjects in Chile was 27.6 with ages varying from 20 to 45, and 24.0 in Finland with ages varying from 19 to 50. The average time studying English was 7.9 years for the Chileans and 12.4 years for the Finns. The difference can be explained by differences in the school systems explained in section 2.3 of this study. What is important for the current study is the participants' self-evaluation of their English proficiency level, which is presented in table 3. The most common option for Chileans was Intermediate and for Finns Upper Intermediate. The number of subjects categorizing themselves as advanced was a little over double in Finland compared to Chile. One Chilean student self-evaluated to be at a beginner level regardless of the fact that they participated in an intermediate level course. The participant in question is still accepted to the study as their teacher and the Cambridge Exams put them at an Intermediate level. One student gave no answer to this question, but was a student at the upper intermediate level course in Chile.

Table 2 English proficiency level self-evaluation

	Beginner	Intermediate	Upper Intermediate	Advanced	No answer
Chile	1	11	7	5	1
Finland	0	7	23	11	0
Total	1	18	30	16	1

The subjects chosen for the study were all intermediate, upper intermediate or advanced learner of English. In Chile this was assured by only admitting participants from the groups labeled as intermediate, upper intermediate or advanced (in Chile groups are classified by the level of the students as measured by the Cambridge Exams in reference to the European Framework for Languages). In Finland no such

classification exists, but all university level students are proficient enough, as all students graduating from comprehensive school should by then already have reached a B1 or intermediate proficiency in English according to the European Framework for Languages (Finnish National Agency for Education 2014, 351). In addition, the course the students participate in has a proficiency level of B2 or upper intermediate as a requirement. The students all also self-evaluated their English proficiency to be of intermediate or higher. The teachers in both countries naturally had a proficiency level high enough to be a part of this study. This was further supported by their self-evaluations.

The reason for only admitting English learners and teachers from certain proficiency levels has to do with the forming of language learner identity only after the initial familiarization and broadened knowledge and command of the language in question mentioned in section 2.1.2 (Kramsch 2009, 27). Furthermore, the development of cultural awareness and the ability to compare different cultural settings to one another evolve with the proficiency level (Kurtyka 2007, 68–69), either strengthening or weakening the learner identity towards a certain language. Moreover, a previous study by Kipp (2017, 107) presented in section 2.2.2 discovered that the PLAB provides reliable and comparable results among the subjects if they have all achieved at least the intermediate proficiency level in the language in question. This provides the study with more reliable and generalizable data from the subjects.

All of the Chilean participants' native language was Spanish, and all of the Finnish participants' native language was Finnish. All English bilinguals and/or native speakers of English were excluded from the study (2 possible subjects). While none of the participants were bilinguals per se, a majority of them spoke a language or few in addition to English and their native language. In case of the Chilean subjects this was less common, as only 3 participants spoke a third language. All of the Finnish subjects expect for two students spoke at least Swedish in addition to English and Finnish (given that Swedish is a compulsory language to study in school, it could be argued that even these two speak it to some extent, but just left it out of the questionnaire). Many spoke an additional fourth or fifth language, for example French, German, Spanish or Russian to mention a few.

3.3 MATERIALS

An anonymous questionnaire was chosen as the source of data due to its repeatability, versatility and easy accessibility given that the study was conducted in two different countries at the opposite ends of the world (Dörnyei 2010, 6). The questionnaire can be found attached in appendix 1. The use of questionnaires on identity research has been criticized by some researchers such as Pavlenko (2002, 281 & 297), who proposes the use of longitudinal ethnographic research instead. This was not possible to execute as the researcher only spent a limited amount of time in one of the two countries in question. In order to gather comparable data from the two countries, a questionnaire was chosen in spite of this critique. Using a questionnaire as the research method with diverse subject pools in varying settings, as in the present study, is also supported by Dörnyei (2010, 6), who categorizes using a questionnaire in said situation advantageous. Dörnyei (2007, 89) also argues that quantitative cross-sectional studies are, in fact, adequate for comparing different groups of people, in this case Finns and Chileans and students and teachers.

Nonetheless, to make the material more reliable different modes were used: both open-ended and closed-ended questions, analyzing and self-evaluating, and reading and listening. Factual questions were added in the beginning, and attitudinal questions concerned with opinions and values were used in finding out about the subjects' learner identity towards the English language (Dörnyei 2010, 5). A qualitative part was added to uncover the reasons behind the subjects' answers to better evaluate them and to make the study more reliable (Dörnyei 2007, 35). According to Dörnyei (2007, 45), using mixed methods, that is both qualitative and quantitative methods, highlights the strengths of both methods, and decreases the weaknesses, thus adding to the validity of the study. He also adds that adding a qualitative part to the study can delimit the need for further research based on the difficulty of understanding or explaining what the gathered results indicate (Dörnyei 2007, 40). Adding a qualitative task to the language aptitude test would have been difficult if not impossible to execute, because of the researcher subjectivity involved in analyzing the results. However, one such task was added to the self-perceived language learner identity part of the questionnaire in order to learn more about the subjects' identities towards the English language.

To ascertain that the subjects understood each task correctly and that nothing was lost in translation, the questionnaire was translated into the subjects' native language and they were to fill it in using their mother tongue. For the Chileans this meant Spanish and for the Finns Finnish. Translating the questionnaires also decreases the intimidation of it for people suffering from anxiety of literacy problems (Dörnyei 2010, 7). The translations were made by the researcher with the help of native speakers in both cases to make sure the questionnaire asked the same things in both languages. These native speakers revised the questionnaire and the different tasks before it was conducted on the actual subjects of the study. The examples presented in section 4.2 have been translated into English by the researcher.

The first part of the questionnaire consisted of factual questions or background questions such as nationality, age, gender, languages spoken, last English grade and estimated English proficiency level. This information was collected to compare the effect different personal and environmental factors possibly have on the results. To ascertain the anonymity of the subjects no names were used or collected during the data collection process. These questions were formulated based on factors that could have an effect on the results and factors that distinguish the different participant groups in the study (student – teacher & Finnish – Chilean).

The second part of the questionnaire was about language learner identity, and it was composed of two tasks. The first task consisted of 20 English language identity related self-evaluative attitudinal statements, where the subjects were to choose which of the four Likert scale options best corresponded with their thoughts about the English language. The options were *strongly agree*, *agree*, *disagree* and *strongly disagree*. The neutral middle option was left out on purpose to get an opinion from the subjects to each statement and to avoid papers that overuse the neutral option, and thus prevent making any conclusions about their language identity. The statements were formulated based on previous studies (Khatib and Rezaei 2013; Xu and Gao 2014; Ajayi 2006; Hundt and Staicov 2018; Gao et al. 2005; Niskanen 2014; Kurikka 2013), and the concept of language identity comprising of themes such as culture, native speakers, language use, feelings and confidence. As per recommendation, the statements in the questionnaire were kept simple and straightforward to avoid misunderstandings and fatigue on the part of the subjects (Dörnyei 2010, 7–9).

The second task of the identity part was an open-ended question about the meaning and the role of the English language in the subjects' lives formulated in the basis of Niskanen's study (2014). They were to write freely about their thoughts about the language in a few sentences. Most students wrote several sentences, but some chose to write less. The answers from Chile added up to a little over two pages when written to a word document using the same font size as in the current text, and the answers from Finland added up to a little over three pages. The difference in length can be explained by the higher number of participants from Finland than Chile. The results and evaluations of this qualitative open-ended task will be presented in section 4.2.

The third and final part of the questionnaire was a language aptitude test consisting of a few tasks taken from the Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery introduced in section 2.2.2. Only parts of the test were submitted to the participants. This was mainly due to the time available for conducting the research, which also includes the identity questionnaire. For the participants, the test was conducted on a regular English class, hence the time was limited. Another reason for choosing only parts of the battery is based on argumentation and discoveries of Kipp (2017). The parts chosen for this study were parts 2 Interest in Foreign Language Learning, 4 Language Analysis and 6 Sound-Symbol Association. Three parts were chosen and slightly shortened to make the questionnaire doable duration wise.

The first part of the PLAB asked about the subjects' interest towards learning a modern foreign language. There were five options to choose from. This part was included due to the close relationship of motivation and identity (Kormos 2013, 133). The second part was a language analysis task from the PLAB, where the subjects are to internalize the formation of basic phrases in a made-up language based on a word list and some examples. They were then to choose the correct way to formulate certain phrases according to the grammar of this language. There were four options to each phrase and 10 phrases to translate all together. The part was included as, according to Carroll (1981, 109) it predicts inductive language learning ability the best out of early language aptitude tests. The final task of the third part was a sound-symbol association test, where the subjects heard 15 made-up words pronounced twice from an audio and were to choose from four possible orthographical options the written form of the word they heard. Due to some very unfortunate events the researcher was not able to get the original audio for the last task, but instead

recorded the audio herself using her own voice. The words were pronounced using English phonemes and pronunciation as in the original and as explained in the PLAB manual. Naturally, the same audio was used for all of the participants in both countries to assure the reliability of the present study. The Sound-Symbol Association test was chosen instead of the Sound Discrimination test because of criticism of the latter by John Carroll (1981, 107), and since it measures phonetic coding ability; another skill often obtained by higher aptitude learners.

Finally, to ensure the privacy and the confidentiality of the subjects' information and the data collected for the purposes of this study, the data have been stored in the private computer of the researcher and the paper questionnaires in a binder only accessible to the researcher. No copies of the data have been made. As informed to the subjects at the beginning of each data collection encounter, the material gathered will only be used for the purposes of the current study. To further impede the possibility of the data ending in wrong hands, it will be destroyed after the publication of the study (Dörnyei 2007, 69).

3.4 PROCEDURES

The data collection method was a self-administered pencil and paper questionnaire, according to questionnaire categorizations by Dörnyei (2010, 3), conducted during regular English classes using group administration, and a few individual meetings with some of the teachers. The subjects were told the purpose of the questionnaire beforehand along with instructions on how to fill it in, and why they were chosen to be a part of the sample. They were informed of the anonymity of the questionnaire, and the fact that taking part in the study was not obligatory (Dörnyei 2010, 76). All of the subjects volunteered to be a part of the study, and were willing participants. No parental permission was needed since all of the subjects were over 18 years old, but as mentioned they all gave their own permission to be regarded as study subjects in the current study.

The researcher was personally present during each data collection encounter to make sure everything went accordingly, and that the subjects could turn to the researcher in case of any uncertainties or misunderstandings. There were altogether 12 encounters, seven in Chile and five in Finland. The higher number of data collection encounters in Chile is due to smaller class sizes in more advanced groups of English. Some groups were as small as one or two students in addition to

the teacher, whereas in Finland both student groups had over 15 students. In addition to the groups, the questionnaire was conducted on several teachers on different occasions with the researcher once again present.

Each answer sheet was assigned an identification code that consisted of the country and an ordinal number to distinguish the results of each subject while maintaining the anonymity of the subjects (Dörnyei 2010, 84). All of the answers were methodically inputted to Excel for further examination. Since the study is for the most part quantitative in nature except for the one qualitative question regarding the meaning and role of the English language in each of the subjects' lives, statistical methods were used to decipher the results. The results of the qualitative question were regarded distinctively using the content analysis method for open-ended questions. The response from each individual was regarded separately looking for any emerging themes or key points, which were then color-coded. Based on these emerging themes several categories were elicited, and each answer was marked for the appearing categories to be able to compare the responses to each other (Dörnyei 2010, 99; Dörnyei 2007, 250). Overall appearances were then calculated for each country and for students and teachers separately to better understand the meaning and role of English language in the subjects' lives. Finally, percentages were calculated for each group to enable easy comparison. The qualitative results are presented separately in section 4.2.

The self-perceived language learner identity scores consisted of answers to the 20 statements with the point distribution *strongly agree* 4 points, *agree* 3 points, *disagree* 2 points and *strongly disagree* 1 point. This means that the maximum score was 80 points, and that a score of 40 or below meant little or no language learner identity towards the English language for that subject. The language aptitude scores were calculated by adding up results from the three Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery tasks. The maximum points for the first task were 5, the second task 10 and the last task 15, adding up to a total of 30. Four Finnish subjects had to be excluded, due to missing answers either by accident or on purpose. Three of these excluded subjects left the first PLAB task "Interest in Foreign Language Learning" unanswered, while the fourth failed to give any answers to the third and final PLAB task "Sound-Symbol Association".

Means, modes and medians for each statement and question were calculated and the results from the two countries compared to each other. Additionally, the

standard deviations for identity and aptitude were calculated for each of the two countries separately and together. Later on, Spearman's rank order correlations and Mann-Whitney U tests were conducted on SPSS for the two main variables of the current study: identity and aptitude, and their scores in Finland and Chile respectively (Dörnyei 2007, 230). Similarly, different results for students and teachers were statistically calculated using SPSS. Non-parametric tests were chosen since the sampling is quite small, and non-parametric tests do not assume the data follow the normal distribution (Dörnyei 2007, 227). The scores were then compared to each other in order to withdraw some answers from the data. Graphs and figures were created using both SPSS and Excel. Next, the results of the statistical analysis and qualitative analysis will be presented in their own subsections.

4 RESULTS

This section of the thesis presents the quantitative and qualitative results for the three research questions of the current study conducted in Finland and Chile. Visual aids such as graphs, figures, and tables are used to demonstrate the results. These results will then be further discussed and analyzed in the following section 5 Discussion. The section at hand begins by presenting the quantitative results, after which the qualitative language learner identity results are presented.

4.1 QUANTITATIVE IDENTITY AND APTITUDE RESULTS

The first research question was concerned with the self-perceived language learner identities and aptitude scores of Finnish and Chilean study subjects, and whether a difference exists between the participants of the two different countries. Part two of the questionnaire measured language learner identity with 20 attitudinal English language learner identity questions. The minimum score for this part was 20 and the maximum score 80. For the Chilean subjects overall, the scores ranged from 58 to 80 with the mean of 66.8, the mode of 67 and median of 67. The standard deviation for the Chileans was 5.5. For the Finnish subjects overall, the scores ranged from 39 to 74 with the mean of 57.9, the mode of 54 and the median of 57. The standard deviation for the Finns was 8.1, which means there was more variation in the scores of the Finns than the Chileans. These descriptive results for the overall country groups, students, and teachers are presented in Table 3.

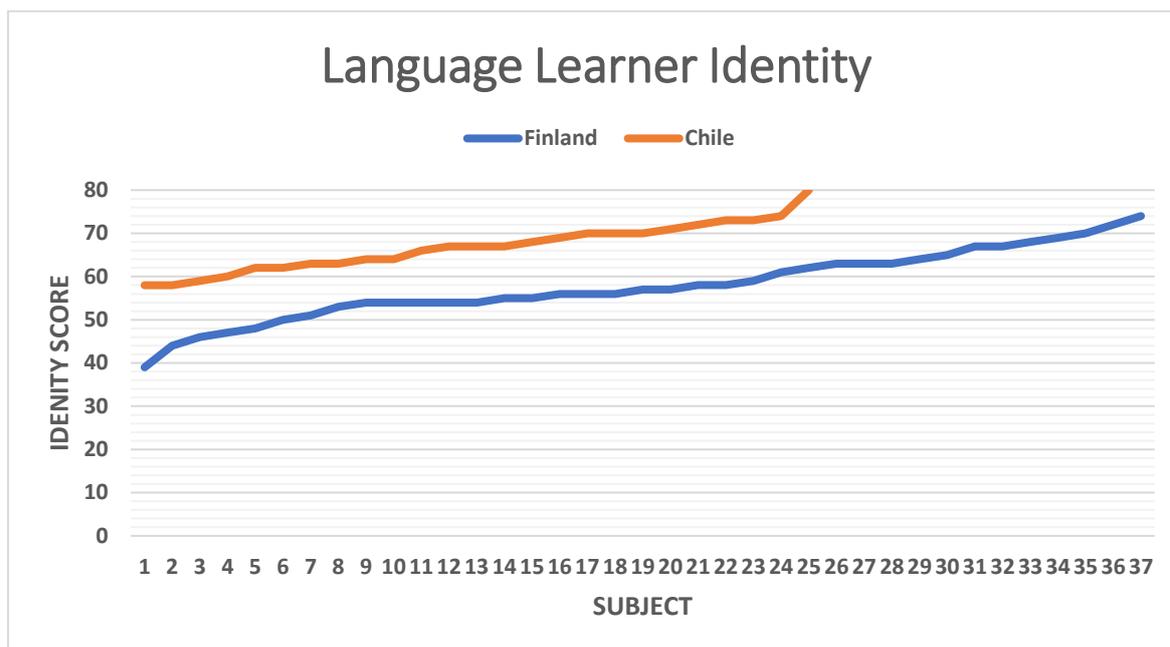
Table 3 Descriptive language learner identity results

		Minimum score	Maximum score	Mean	Mode	Median	Standard deviation
Chile	all	58	80	66.8	67	67	5.5
	students	58	74	66.2	67	67	4.7
	teachers	58	80	68.4	-	70	7.5
Finland	all	39	74	57.9	54	57	8.1
	students	39	74	56.5	54	56	7.3
	teachers	68	72	69.8	-	69.5	1.7

The most agreed statements for both were: statement number 2. "I think learning English is important" and statement number 3. "I think speaking English will help me in the future". The most disagreed statements were: statement 16 "I express myself more freely when I communicate in English" and statement 15 "I feel like a different person when I speak English". The biggest difference between the two countries was in statement 12. "I would like to hear more English in my country". The mean score for the Finnish subjects for this specific question was 2.6 in a scoring scale from 1 to 4, while the mean score for the Chilean subjects was 3.7, which is considerably higher. This suggests that the Chileans are more eager to hear more English spoken in their country than the Finns are, which might derive from the lack of English heard on the streets in Chile.

The results indicate that the self-perceived language learner identity of the Chileans is stronger than that of the Finns. Using the Mann-Whitney U-test for independent samples, a significant difference was found between the Finnish subjects (mean rank 23.59) and the Chileans subjects (mean rank 43.20), $U = 170.00$, $n_1 = 37$, $n_2 = 25$, $p = 0.000$ two tailed. Figure 1 displays the distribution of the scores for the two countries. As the figure shows, the majority of the Chilean subjects scored above 60 points, while only less than half of the Finnish subjects scored above the 60-point line. The shorter upper line (red) shows the identity scores of the Chileans and the longer bottom line (blue) the scores of Finns. The difference in line length is because of the different number of subjects in the two countries. The red line for Chilean subjects shows noticeably higher scores, and the overall highest score 80 is a part of it. On the other hand, the lowest score 39 belongs to the blue line representing the Finnish subjects.

Figure 1 English language learner identity scores in Finland and Chile



When looking at the students and teachers separately, the Mann-Whitney U-test indicates similar results for the students as for the overall comparison: $U = 74.00$, $n_1 = 33$, $n_2 = 18$, $p = 0.000$ two tailed, with the mean rank for Finnish students 19.24 and Chilean students 38.39. Simply put, the self-perceived language learner identity was greater for the Chilean students than the Finnish students. For the teachers no such difference existed. The possible explanation for this and for the results in general will be examined in section 5.

To continue, the language aptitude scores of the Finnish and Chilean subjects ranged from 13 to 30 with the minimum score being 1 and the maximum 30. The mean English language aptitude score for the subjects was 26.4 with a median of 27 and standard deviation of 2.8. The aptitude scores for the Chilean participants ranged from 21 to 28 with a mean of 25.3. For the Finnish participants the overall aptitude scores ranged from 13 to 30 with a mean of 27.0 showing more variation or possible outliers. Four Finnish participants failed to answer all parts of the study, which led to their exclusion as explained in section 3.4. It seems that the hardest aptitude task among all subjects was the sound-symbol association where scores ranged from 5 to 15 out of 15 maximum points. The aptitude scores varied significantly between the two countries: the Mann-Whitney U-test indicates that the Finnish subjects scored higher than the Chilean subjects, $U = 204.50$, $n_1 = 37$, $n_2 = 25$, $p = 0.000$ two tailed. When looking at the students and teachers separately, a

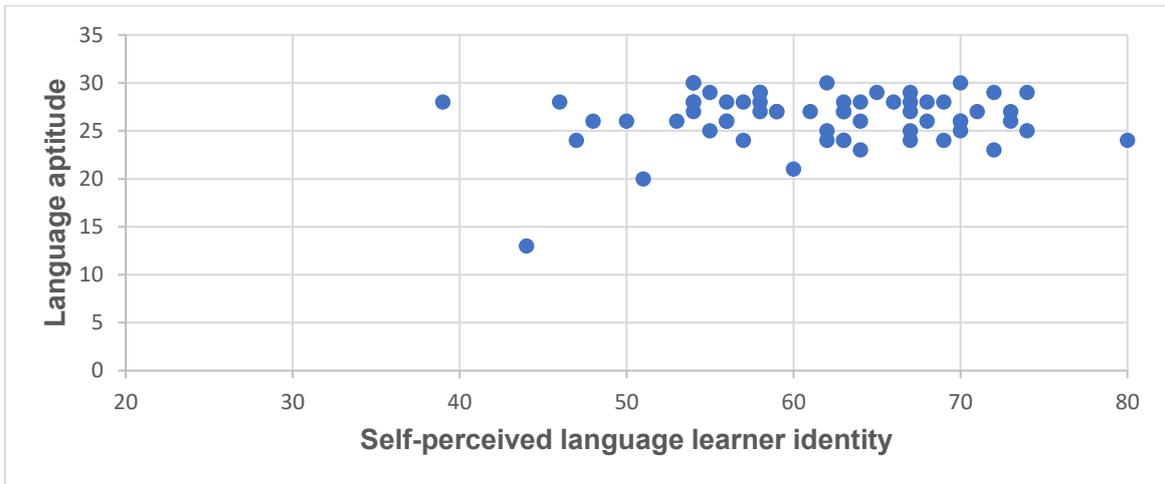
similar tendency exists: students, $U = 150.50$, $n_1 = 33$, $n_2 = 18$, $p = 0.003$ two tailed; teachers, $U = 2.5$, $n_1 = 4$, $n_2 = 7$, $p = 0.024$ two tailed. The results indicate that the difference was greater between the students of the two countries than the teachers of the two countries. These results are displayed in Table 4.

Table 4 Language aptitude scores

		Minimum score	Maximum score	Mean	Mode	Median	Standard deviation
Chile	all	21	28	25.3	24	25	1.8
	students	21	28	25.6	24	25.5	1.8
	teachers	23	27	24.9	27	24	1.8
Finland	all	13	30	27.0	28	28	3.1
	students	13	30	26.9	28	28	3.2
	teachers	26	30	28.3	-	28.5	1.7

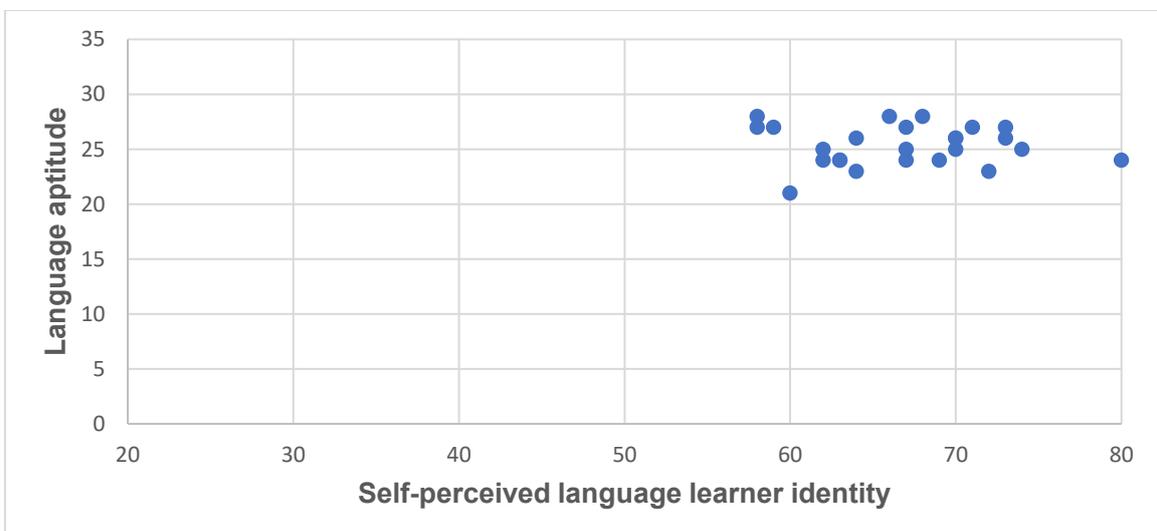
The second research question asked about the possible correlation between one's language aptitude and self-perceived language learner identity. The separate results for language aptitude and language learner identity were displayed in relation to research question one. After calculating separate scores for each country, the data from the two countries was then united on Excel and transferred to SPSS for further examination. First, the Spearman's rank correlation between the two variants language aptitude and language learner identity was calculated along with the p-value for the correlation to determine the significance of the findings. Explicit scatterplots were then created to demonstrate the linearity of the correlation or the lack of it. The test for Spearman's rank correlation revealed no significant correlation for the two variants when data from the two countries was inputted. The correlation coefficient between the two continuous variables was $\rho = -0.042$, $p = 0.748$, when looking at students alone $\rho = -0.023$, $p = 0.874$, and teachers alone $\rho = 0.078$, $p = 0.819$. No significant correlation exists between any of the groups. The overall results for students and teacher together are presented in a scatterplot in Figure 2.

Figure 2 A scatterplot of the correlation between language aptitude and self-perceived language learner identity among all subjects



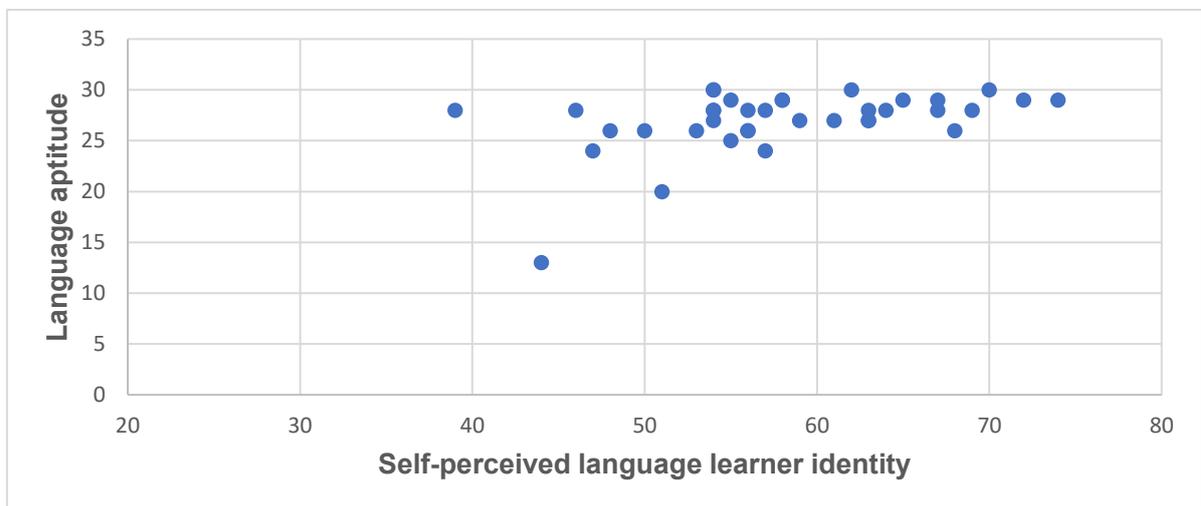
However, when the test was conducted separately for the two countries, interesting results were discovered. For the Chilean subjects, there was no significant correlation between language aptitude and self-perceived language learner identity in any of the groups, overall $\rho = -0.040$, $p = 0.850$; students separately $\rho = 0.039$, $p = 0.876$; teachers separately $\rho = -0.110$, $p = 0.814$. The overall results for the Chileans are displayed in a scatterplot in Figure 3, which shows no visible linearity indicating a non-linear relationship, where the self-perceived language learner identity does not have an effect on language aptitude and vice versa.

Figure 3 A scatterplot of the correlation between language aptitude and self-perceived language learner identity among Chilean subjects



Nonetheless, the Spearman's rank correlation coefficient showed a significant positive correlation between the two variables among the Finnish subjects, $\rho = 0.420$, $p = 0.010$, which indicates that the correlation is significant at the 0.01 level two tailed. This relationship can be seen in Figure 4. The separate results for students and teachers are as follows: students $\rho = 0.408$, $p = 0.018$, with the correlation significant at the 0.05 level two tailed; teachers $\rho = 0.800$, $p = 0.200$, with no significant correlation. The reason for the teacher correlation not being significant lies within the low sampling size; although there is a clear relationship between the identity and aptitude scores, the probability value for obtaining identical statistical results is extremely low. A larger sampling size would be needed to obtain significant results for the teachers alone. In regard of the overall results presented in Figure 4, the dots on the scatterplot are noticeably more linear in the figure for the Finnish subjects than the Chilean subjects (Figure 3), which indicates stronger correlation and connection between the two variables. Possible explanations for this anomaly between the subject groups from the two countries will be pondered in section 5 Discussion.

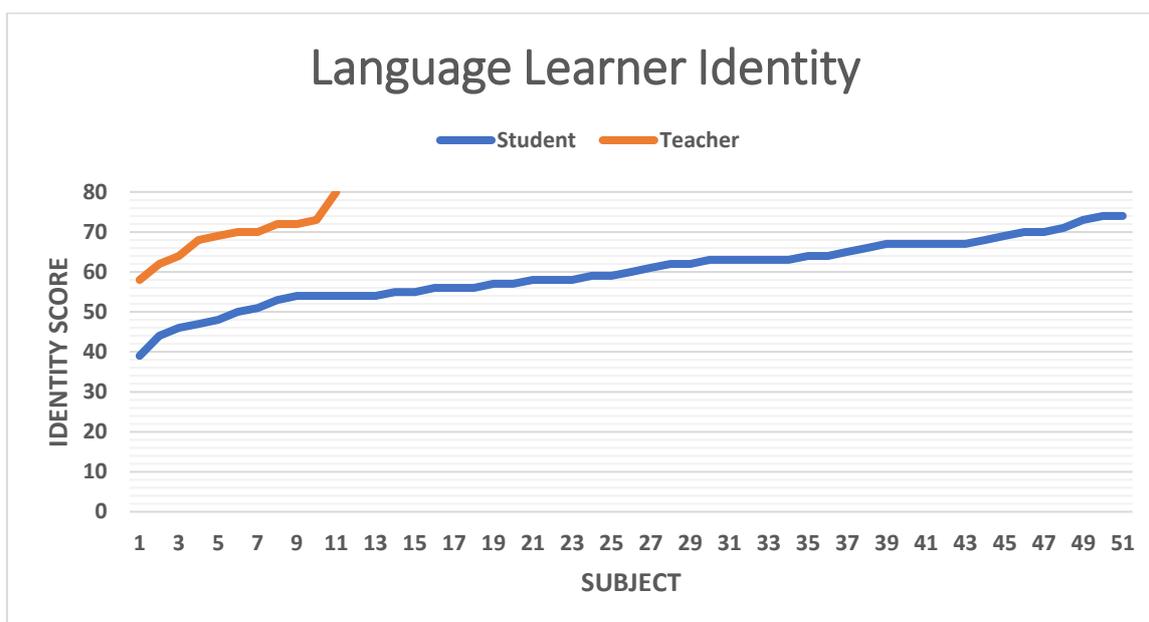
Figure 4 A scatterplot of the correlation between language aptitude and self-perceived language learner identity among Finnish subjects



The third and final research question investigated the differences between students and teachers in their self-perceived language learner identities and language aptitude. After the exclusion of four subjects, the study consisted of 51 students and 11 teachers. The mean identity score for the students was 59.9 and

for the teachers 68.9 out of 80. The student identity scores ranged from 39 to 74, and the teacher scores from 58 to 80. Using the Mann-Whitney U-test for independent samples, a significant difference was found between the students' and teachers' self-perceived learner identity ($U = 101.0, n_1 = 51, n_2 = 11, p = 0.001$). The results indicate that the teachers have a stronger identity towards the English language than the students. The results for the self-perceived language learner identity appear in Figure 5. The difference between Finnish and Chilean teachers on their self-perceived language learner identity was low, the mean for Finnish teachers was 69.8, while the mean for Chilean teachers was 68.4. As for the students, the mean for the Finnish students was 56.5, and the mean for the Chileans students was 66.1.

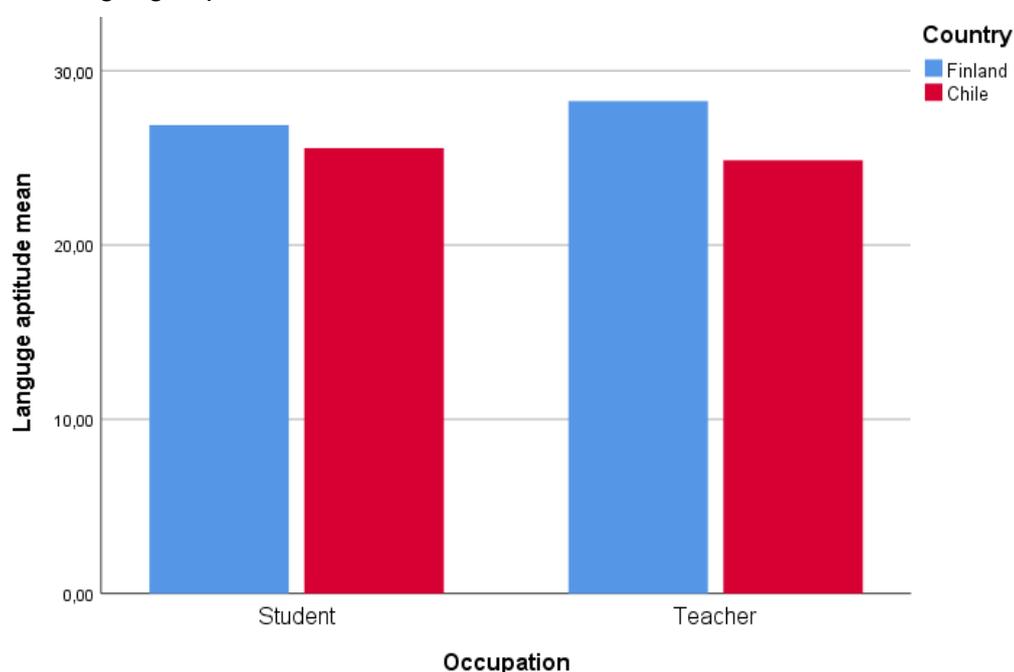
Figure 5 Self-perceived language learner identity scores of students and teachers



Looking at language aptitude, the overall aptitude mean was 26.4 out of 30 for all subjects. For the students alone the mean was 26.4 and for the teachers 26.1. The students' scores ranged from 13 to 30, and the teacher scores from 23 to 30. The results for students and teachers, and Finnish and Chileans respectively are presented in Figure 6. Using the Mann-Whitney U-test for independent samples, no significant difference was found between the students and the teachers ($U = 236,50, n_1 = 51, n_2 = 11, p = 0.412$). The results show that overall the students scored a little better, but not statistically significantly. However, there was quite a substantial

difference between the mean scores of Finnish and Chilean teachers. The mean aptitude score for Finnish teachers was 28.3 with scores ranging from 26 to 30, whereas for the Chilean teachers the mean aptitude score was 24.9 with scores ranging from 23 to 27. This suggests that the Finnish teachers had a higher English language aptitude than the Chilean teachers among the study subjects, although no significant difference was found between the students and the teachers of the two countries together. For the students the difference was smaller. The Finnish students' aptitude scores varied from 13 to 30 with a mean of 26.9, while the Chilean students' scores varied from 21 to 28 with a mean of 25.6.

Figure 6 Language aptitude scores for the students and teachers



4.2 QUALITATIVE IDENTITY RESULTS

In order to get a wider picture of the self-perceived language learner identities of the subjects, and to obtain their subjective views on the role of English language in their lives, a qualitative written task was added to the identity part of the questionnaire. The subjects were to answer the following question in a few sentences using their native language (either Finnish or Spanish):

“What does the English language mean to you, and what role does it play in your life?”

The subjects answered the question in differing lengths varying from just three words to several sentences. Two subjects from Finland left this question unanswered for an unknown reason. This was detected by the researcher only after the data collection process leading to their exclusion in the analysis. The average length of a response was three sentences.

The responses were compared to one another using content analysis and thematic categorizations. The categories utilized were gathered from emerging concepts mentioned in the subjects' answers. Four main thematic categories were formed: communication & culture, opportunities & work, free time & enjoyment, and personal growth & world view. In addition, responses were marked for positivity or pride in English language knowledge or, on the hand negativity or lack of talent. Finally, since many highlighted the importance of having knowledge in English, the instances for such mentions were also calculated. The division of categories apparent in the responses of Finnish and Chilean students and teachers are presented in Table 4 along with the number of appearances in each category and the corresponding percentage of respondents.

Table 5 Thematic categorization of the qualitative results

	Communi- cation & Culture	Opportu- nities & Work	Free time & Enjoyment	Personal Growth & World View	Positivity & Pride	Negativity & Lack of Talent	Import- ance
Chilean Students	13 (72%)	16 (89%)	8 (44%)	3 (17%)	2 (11%)	0	9 (50%)
Chilean Teachers	4 (57%)	7 (100%)	0	1 (14%)	2 (29%)	0	4 (57%)
Finnish Students	21 (60%)	28 (80%)	20 (57%)	9 (26%)	7 (20%)	7 (20%)	19 (54%)
Finnish Teachers	4 (100%)	3 (75%)	3 (75%)	2 (50%)	2 (50%)	0	4 (100%)
TOTAL	42 (66%)	54 (84%)	31 (48%)	15 (23%)	13 (20%)	7 (11%)	36 (56%)

The results indicate that the most valued aspect of English language in the subjects' lives is related to opportunities and work, making their English language learner identities opportunity or benefit driven. One Chilean student summarizes this nicely: "It [English language] opens me opportunities that would otherwise be

closed". The second most important aspect overall was communication and culture. A Finnish student expresses it in the following way: "To me the English language is a world language that allows me to communicate with people with different mother tongues. I think English is an international language". Similarly, a Chilean student states: "I have noticed that fundamentally we speak a universal language, we share interesting commonalities, and the English language brings us all closer as people beyond our linguistic boundaries". Thirdly, the subjects mentioned free time and enjoyment related aspects of the language, the Finns more so than the Chileans. Finally, a handful of study subjects' expressed ideas about personal growth and world view. A Finnish teacher wrote that: "English language knowledge has broadened my world view, and taught me about other cultures.". Meanwhile a Chilean teacher wrote that: "Chile is a very conservative country, but with knowing English I have had the opportunity to learn other points of view and opinions. Generally, it takes us years to hear about many themes, especially related to social and technological changes". A Chilean student added: "It [English language] allows me to develop socially and personally in the best possible way."

Positivity and pride were lightly present in all of the groups. One Finnish teacher wrote: "I feel that English language is an indelible part of myself", and another wrote: "It [English language] is a positive element in my everyday life and communication". A Finnish student stated: "I am proud of my good oral skills in English", while a Chilean student wrote: "The English language has affected me in a positive way". An interesting notion is the emergence of negativity or lack of talent that was only apparent among the Finnish students. They mentioned not trusting themselves to express their thoughts in English or feel they are not good enough. Many held shyness accountable for these feelings of inadequateness. One student named it a "necessary evil". The importance of English was highlighted by many, especially by teachers. Some even claimed that they could not do without having at least some knowledge of English.

The biggest differences between the groups were in free time and enjoyment, where the Finnish subjects mentioned these themes across the board, Chilean students mentioned it far less and the teachers left it out entirely. Consequently, personal growth and positivity were more common among Finnish teachers than any other groups. The results also indicate that the Chilean students value communication and culture slightly more than the Finnish students. That being said,

besides negativity and lack of talent, there were no great discrepancies in the responses from the four study groups.

Taking a closer look at the seven individuals, who mentioned negative thoughts or inadequateness in English reveals an interesting notion. Six of these subjects scored notably below the mean language learner identity score, making their English language learner identities not as strong as the others'. The last of these seven scored above the mean, but they also stated that they liked speaking in English and found it very important and useful. Similarly, the two subjects who left the open-ended question blank, got a total identity score below the mean. This raises the question whether or not they left the question unanswered on purpose. In addition, a majority of those subjects, who expressed positivity or pride obtained language learner identity scores above the mean.

5 DISCUSSION

The results presented in the previous section 4 are discussed in this section in reference to earlier studies conducted on similar topics and the theoretical background presented in section 2. The hypotheses set in the beginning of section 3.1 are addressed and either confirmed or rejected. The significance and meaning of the results are evaluated along with considering the generalizability of them. Additionally, the limitations of the current study are presented and addressed accordingly.

The first research question was concerned with possible differences in the language aptitude scores and the self-perceived language learner identities of Finnish and Chilean learners of English. The hypothesis was that the Finnish subjects score higher in language aptitude, because of a higher overall language proficiency level (EF Education First 2018), and more extensive teacher studies. Additionally, it was hypothesized that the Finnish students have a stronger and more positive language identity towards the English language than the Chilean students. The same was not expected in the case of the teachers as they have all equally chosen to study and work in the field, making the country they live in more or less irrelevant. Besides, the teachers were expected to have a more developed intercultural competence and stabilized foreign language identity with little differences among them (Jensen 1995, 41).

The results of the Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery confirmed the hypothesis in regard of language aptitude. Finnish subjects did indeed score higher than the Chilean subjects. The difference was apparent among both the students and the teachers of the two countries. The exact scores were presented earlier in Table 4. One possible reason for the outcome is the difference in the English proficiency level apparent in each country. According to a 2018 EF ranking and categorization of English proficiency, Finland had a “very high proficiency” while Chile’s proficiency level was “low” (EF Education First 2018). A difference in the proficiency levels was also visible among the subjects of the current study in their self-evaluation in the first part of the questionnaire.

Besides the language proficiency level, a further knowledge of an additional foreign language has been linked to higher PLAB scores and overall language aptitude (Kipp 2017, 115). According to a 2016 census, 99% of Finnish students in

upper secondary school learn at least two or more languages in addition to their mother tongue (Eurostats 2016). The same was also true for the subjects of the current study: 40 out of 42 participants listed at least a third language in addition to Finnish and English. Only 3 out of 25 Chilean subjects listed an additional language to Spanish and English, and not one of them was a teacher. Success in acquiring languages has been connected to language aptitude by researchers before as well (Dörnyei 2005, 31–33). The difference in the aptitude scores of Finnish and Chilean subjects could then be explained by the difference in the knowledge of languages. For the teachers a further justification might lie in the shorter study path for becoming a teacher; where a Finnish teacher holds a master's degree, a Chilean teacher holds a bachelor's degree (Toledo Figueroa and Wittenberg 2014, 10).

The results for learner identity disclosed a different outcome than expected: the Chilean subjects scored statistically significantly higher than the Finnish subjects. Additionally, the Chilean students scored higher in the self-perceived language learner identity than the Finnish students. For the teachers, no significant difference was apparent between the two groups. To sum up, the second part of the hypothesis regarding teachers was confirmed: no significant difference was discovered between the teachers of the two countries. Yet, the first part of the hypothesis related to students' language identity was rejected by the results of the study. Next, possible explanations behind this rejection will be discussed.

The motives behind the original hypothesis comprised of the closer proximity and connection of Finland to the English-speaking world, and the notion of imagined communities related to target community perceptions, prevailing home country practices, and material resources available to the learner (Norton 2013, 12; Norton and Toohey 2011, 415). One prevailing practice in Chile specifically supported the less positive imagined community by the Chilean students; the fact that many teachers lack sufficient command of the English language, and in consequence teach their English classes in Spanish instead (Barahona 2016, 22). This may be true in some schools and areas, but to the knowledge of the researcher this was not common practice in the language center the study was conducted in. At least not at the proficiency levels the students took courses in. The closer proximity and connection to the English-speaking world could also be questioned with the abundance and availability of English materials online, especially in social media.

One notable difference between the English students of Finland and the English students of Chile is that practically all of the Finnish students studied at least one additional language besides English and their mother tongue, many even two or three more languages, whereas the Chilean students generally studied only English and their mother tongue as presented in section 3.2. Three participants among the Chilean students spoke a third language. A previous study of German students by Kipp (2017, 115) discovered that individual differences tend to have a stronger effect on L2 learners than L3 learners. What this means is that those who study two languages in total are more readily influenced by individual differences, in this case language identity, than those who study more than two languages. Those who study English as their only foreign language can place more investment or effort in it, which relates closely and positively to the formation of language identity (Kalaja et al. 2015, 20; Norton and Toohey 2011, 420). This is supported by the fact that identity is dependent on space and time (Norton 1997, 410). Rezaei et al.'s study (2014) supports this notion, as their results indicated that individuals who had a higher proficiency level in English (=an additional language) had a lower language identity towards their L1.

Secondly, the course the Finnish law students participated in was mandatory to the degree that they must complete one such course in a foreign language, which in the case of many is English since the course is specifically tailored to law students. The Chilean students on the other hand participated in Cambridge English courses that were optional although beneficial to their studies. An identity related concept agency, or the autonomy the learner has over their language learning (Kalaja et al. 2015, 19), affects the identity forming process and the investment one is willing to place on the language, resulting in either stronger or weaker language learner identity towards the language in question. Given that the Chilean students chose to participate in these courses, they might be more linguistically inclined in general than the Finnish students, who participated in the course for curricular reasons.

One reason for the higher self-perceived language learner identity scores for the Chileans might be the closer relationship between the subjects and the researcher. In Chile many of the subjects had attended classes that the researcher taught, whereas in Finland the subjects had not met the researcher prior to the data collection encounter. According to Dörnyei (2007, 65), the relationship between the

researcher and the subjects could affect the results. The need to please the researcher or to give a more positive picture of one's interests towards English in the identity statement part of the questionnaire would also explain why the Spearman's rank order correlation coefficient between the subjects' identity and aptitude showed no significant relationship for the Chileans.

In order to form a more holistic image of the students' language learner identity, the qualitative results need to be taken into consideration. The first discrepancy that catches the eye is the number of mentions of negative feelings or lack of talent by the Finnish students, which is entirely absent among the Chilean students. This type of ambivalence or feeling of insecurity and uncertainty towards the target language and community (Kalaja et al. 2015, 19) influences the self-perceived language learner identity negatively, which was also evident in the identity scores of these students. These negative feelings and the true self-perceived language learner identity could be hidden from the teachers and parents and replaced by a more positive one, as was the case in the study by Taylor et al. (2013,9), perhaps to fit in or to display an identity that the students feel is expected of them. What follows is the faulty perception that Finnish students have a more positive language learner identity towards the English language.

The second research question was set out to investigate the possible correlation between the self-perceived language learner identity and language aptitude of the subjects. The hypothesis was that a perceptible, yet not necessarily strong correlation exists between the two variables. If one is not inclined to learn a foreign language and has a low language aptitude, one might not identify as strongly towards the English language, and vice versa. The results indicated that no significant correlation existed between the variables when looking at the group of subjects as a whole. However, when examined on a country basis, a significant correlation at the 0.01 level two tailed was found among the Finnish subjects. No correlation existed within the Chilean group of subjects. Therefore, the original hypothesis for the second research question was rejected in reference to the overall subject group and the Chilean subject group, but confirmed in the case of the Finnish subject group.

Identifying exact reasons for the ramification of the study results is extremely hard, if not impossible, but analyzing probable causes can help enlighten the motives behind the results. The ultimate difference between the two variables,

language identity and language aptitude, is their stability. Where identity is dynamic and changing in nature (Kalaja et al. 2015, 19; Darwin and Norton 2015; 36, Norton 1997, 419), aptitude is an innate, fairly stable ability facilitating learning (Dörnyei 2005, 31-33; Carroll 1981). The language aptitude scores of the subjects from the two countries did not vary as much as the identity scores, which is in support of the greater stableness of language aptitude. Both student groups studied, and teacher groups taught English at the same proficiency levels in a mixed group consisting of both genders, varying ages, and differing backgrounds. However, the average self-evaluated proficiency level of the Finnish subjects was 20% higher than that of the Chilean subjects. Previous research has shown that language aptitude is one of the individual factors most closely related to L2 proficiency (Dörnyei 2005, 31), which could explain for the difference between the aptitude scores of the subjects from the two countries.

The reason for the mixed correlation results must then lie within the language learner identity scores of the subjects. The identity scores of the Chilean subjects were significantly higher than the Finnish, some possible causes of which have been pondered above in relation to research question one. A further explanation for the difference could be the argued consciousness of language learners in the identity forming process, which has been questioned by a handful of scholars (e.g. Giddens 1991, 47; Block 2007, 22). Not to say that the learners are not aware they are learning a language, which affects their identity, but that they might not realize how, and on what basis their language learner identity is formed. Sometimes learners rely more on the reality of an imagined community, which can be as powerful as the reality one is surrounded by, consequently impacting heavily on one's efforts to learn a language (Norton and Toohey 2011, 422). If it affects the efforts to learn a language, it must also affect the strength of one's language learner identity towards that language. As Stuart Hall (1997, 226) highlighted, identity is always dependent on the surrounding environment and situation, be it real or imagined.

The surrounding environment most related to the present study is that of formal language teaching, and how it is organized in the two countries Finland and Chile. It has been discovered that the teacher, and the chosen classroom activities influence the way learners identify themselves with the foreign language (Morgan 1997, 447). Similarly, a previous study by Taylor et al. (2013, 16) discovered that learner identity perceptions are closely related to the identity perceptions of their

teachers. In the present study, this was true for the Chilean subjects, with the average language learner identity score of the teachers 68.4, and students 66.2. For the Finnish subjects the corresponding averages were 69.8 and 56.5, lacking said relation between the students and the teachers. Nonetheless, the same study concluded that statistically significant differences were present when comparing the language learner identities of learners from different countries, (Taylor et al. 2013, 16 & 18), which could explain the differences. Torres-Rocha's study (2017), on the other hand, indicates that a separate language learner identity exists for teachers alongside their professional identity. It could then be argued that the teachers' language learner identities vary from their professional identity they let on to their students, similar to the hidden true self-perceived language learner identities of the students discovered by Taylor et al. (2013, 9), generating incompatible results between students and teachers.

Language learner identities are further affected by the development of cultural awareness and the ability to compare different cultural settings to one another, both skills that evolve with the increasing proficiency level and successful intercultural communication (Kurtyka 2007, 68–69; Galajda 2011, 50–51). Such tertiary socialization is crucial in forming the multicultural personality of the language learner (Block 2007, 118). English is not an official language in either country, or the number of native speakers relatively high. At the same time, with the EOPD initiated teacher exchange program, more and more native English speakers teach English in Chile, developing the multicultural personality of the learners, which in turn strengthens the foreign language identity of them. The Chilean language center of the present study had at least one native teacher, whose students participated in the study. The students at the Finnish language center, on the other hand, did not have a native teacher. Furthermore, three of the Finnish teachers did not teach the subject groups in question, resulting in their identity perceptions not affecting the students' scores directly.

Previous studies examining the relationship between language identity and language aptitude could not be found, but a similar study on musical identity and aptitude exists. The study results revealed a weak positive correlation between musical identity and musical aptitude (Pöder and Kiilu 2015, 1708), indicating a possible link between the two factors. The weakness of the connection suggests variability in the relationship, which was also present in the current study in the form

of a correlation being found among the Finnish participants but not the Chilean participants. There could be many explanations for the inconsistency, only some of which have been analyzed here. In any case, further research into the relationship of language identity and language aptitude is needed to be able to generalize the results.

The third research question reviewed language identity and language aptitude differences between students and teachers of English. The first part of the hypothesis expected the teachers to score higher on the language aptitude test, because of their expertise in linguistics and language in general. The overall aptitude mean for the students was 26.4, and for the teachers 26.1, indicating no statistically significant difference in the results, and a rejection of the hypothesis. Then again, a notable difference was found between the participants of the two countries. The teachers in Finland scored significantly higher in language aptitude than the teachers in Chile. A similar difference was visible in the results of the students, but it was not as strong. This challenges the complete rejection of the original hypothesis. The second part of the hypothesis anticipated the teachers to also identify stronger towards the English language, because of their supposed interest in the language apparent in their choice of profession. The mean identity score for the students was 59.9 out of 80, and for the teachers 68.9 out of 80, confirming the second part of the hypothesis of a relatively higher learner identity on the teachers' part.

Interpreting the results warrants a closer look at the theory behind language identity and language aptitude along with an examination of previous studies. First and foremost, identity is affected by the social aspect of language learning (Kalaja et al. 2015, 19), whereas aptitude is not. Identity is also affected by the cultural aspect: learning a foreign language causes the learners to recreate their cultural identity along with developing a foreign language identity (Galajda 2011, 50). It is not insignificant where the learning takes place, and how the people within that learning context view the language and the adjacent culture. Teachers have all started to learn the language in different situations with varying stances towards it. Still, they should have all studied English with likeminded people, who are also interested in the language, affecting their language learner identity positively. Should have studied, not have studied, because recent statistics of teacher qualifications reveal an interesting notion. According to school principal reports only

about 20% of Chilean teachers teaching 15-year-olds are certified language teachers, whereas in Finland there is a 91.5% certification rate among teachers (Santiago et al. 2017, 231–232). There is a high shortage of qualified teachers in Chile (Toledo Figueroa and Wittenberg 2014, 1), which could explain the slightly higher identity scores of the Finnish teachers than the Chilean teachers.

Unqualified teachers and insufficient resources to organize teaching in Chile (Barahona 2016, 22), might equally be the reason for the lower proficiency levels. The proficiency level of teachers is usually higher than that of their students per teacher study prerequisites (UNESCO Institute of Statistics 2018; Finlex 2019). Interestingly enough, only two Chilean teachers out of seven rated their English proficiency level as advanced, whereas all of the four Finnish teachers rated their proficiency level as advanced. In fact, there were more students than teachers in Chile evaluating their English proficiency level as advanced. Likewise, the average time spent studying English was higher in Finland: 20 years for the teachers and 11.5 years for the students, compared to the 12 years of Chilean teachers and 6.3 years of Chilean students. The close relationship of L2 proficiency and language aptitude (Dörnyei 2005, 31) is visible in the results in the Finnish subjects receiving higher PLAB scores. Having said that, a previous study concluded that both intermediate and advanced foreign language learners are capable of achieving comparable PLAB scores (Kipp 2017, 115).

In their study, Taylor et al. (2013, 10) found a positive correlation between a supportive environment and higher achievement in language learning, which is often linked to higher language aptitude. Looking at the average class sizes, there is almost a third more students in the Chilean classroom than the Finnish classroom, and the teachers spend nearly double the time teaching in Chile than they do in Finland (Toledo Figueroa and Wittenberg 2014, 14). Having that many more students to attend to most likely results in less individual support offered, which makes the learning environment less favorable for the students. Equally, teachers teaching their English classes in Spanish due to insufficient knowledge in the language (Barahona 2016, 22), could make the students feel they cannot turn to the teachers with more complex language issues. All of the above mentioned could cause the learner not to live up to their full potential in acquiring languages resulting in lower aptitude scores. Next, some limitations possibly affecting the results of the study are reviewed.

One limitation of the questionnaire used in the present study is the employment of Likert scale statements in the second part, where the subjects have to choose whether they agree or disagree with a certain identity related statement, is the so-called **acquiescence bias**. This bias has to do with the aptness people generally have for agreeing with statements they are hesitant about (Dörnyei 2010, 9). Another related concept – the **halo effect** – has to do with the overgeneralization of something that the subject views mostly positive (ibid.). In the case of the current study, what this implies is that the subjects might have agreed with some statements merely because their general perception of the English language is positive. For example, there was one Chilean subject who answered “strongly agree” to all of the 20 statements, which brings their credibility to the question. Notwithstanding, this is not a problem for everyone, but it needs to be acknowledged when viewing and evaluating the results of the questionnaire. Similarly, the presence of the researcher in the data collection process might have triggered an effect called the **Hawthorne effect**, which refers to increased productivity or need to perform extremely well, leading to higher scores than normally (Dörnyei 2007, 53). The risk for this happening was acknowledged, but the researcher decided to still be present at all data collection encounters to ensure research ethics and deliver instructions and other relevant information regarding the study.

Another limitation of the questionnaire has to do with the Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery, and namely the fact that the test was not used in its entirety as a consequence of time restrictions as explained in section 3.3. It could be argued that the results are not as valid as they would be if the whole battery was administered. To avoid such claims, the parts utilized were carefully chosen to measure language aptitude as aptly as possible. In spite of the extensive deliberation, this limitation must be addressed. A further restriction related to the PLAB is the absence of the original audio tape for the final part. Granted that the substitutive audio was recorded according to the PLAB manual guidelines, and the fact that the same audio was used for all participants, it could be that some discrepancy with the original audio remains skewing the results.

The sample size and inconsistency in the group sizes (teachers vs. students & Chileans vs. Finnish) is one limitation that made the data analysis and drawing up conclusion especially hard. It would be statistically ideal to have equal group sizes with over 50 participants in each group to be able to generalize the results.

Unfortunately, this was not possible due to a low response rate, meaning that the results cannot be generalized to present the whole population. However, as a case study, the current study acts as an indicator and motivator for future studies to be conducted on the topic. The results imply that an underlining connection exists between language identity and language aptitude, and that cultural variation is a factor to be considered when examining learner identity scores.

Finally, as in the majority of cases, the similarity and comparability of the two subject groups (Chile and Finland) ought to be challenged. As presented in section 2.3.4, the educational and cultural settings are somewhat different in the two countries, resulting in the questioning of the equivalence of the groups. As for the students, they were all language center students studying English at approximately the same level, but as mentioned earlier in this section, the Chileans participated in these courses voluntarily whereas for the Finns their course was somewhat obligatory (students must complete a written and spoken course in one foreign language in addition to Swedish, which for most students is English). When it comes to the teachers, the teacher qualifications vary between the two countries as explained in section 2.3.2 and 2.3.3. Additionally, as a result of low response rate from the language center teacher in Finland, some Finnish teachers taught English elsewhere. However, they have had the same education as the language center teachers and teach similar matters. To conclude, the subject groups from Finland and Chile were not utterly homogenous, but as relatable as possible under the circumstances.

6 CONCLUSION

Finally, to conclude the present study, the findings of the study are presented here along with suggestions for further research to be conducted on the topic in the future. The aim of the study was to examine the relationship between language identity and language aptitude on English students and teachers from Finland and Chile. The cultural element, more specifically possible arising differences between the subject groups, was also of interest while conducting the research.

The questionnaire results indicated a significant difference in the self-perceived language learner identity of Finnish and Chilean students of English. The Chilean students identified stronger with the English language than the Finnish students. The same was not true for the teachers from the two countries, as no significant difference either way was found between Finnish and Chilean teachers. The results for the teachers were as expected, as they have all chosen to first study the language, and then make a career out of it. The student outcome, on the contrary, was not as predicted by the original hypothesis. Possible causes for the stronger identification on the part of the Chilean students were the sole status of English as a foreign language in most of their lives, a more positive view towards their own capabilities, and the familiarity of the researcher conducting the study.

Correlations between language identity and language aptitude were inspected in pursuit of a better understanding of the relationship between the two language related concepts. No significant correlation was apparent in the overall group of subjects or among the Chilean subjects alone, but a consideration of the Finnish subjects separately revealed a statistically significant rank order correlation. The inconsistency in the results is most likely related to the differing surrounding learning environments in the two countries. The aptitude scores showed little variation, but the identity scores differed significantly, suggesting the inconsistency to lay within the identity scores. A native English teacher, more agency because of the optionality of the courses, and a possible need to please the researcher could have affected the Chilean identity scores positively, making them appear higher than they actually are. A significant correlation within one group, suggests that the concepts are related, but as to a more elaborate description, further research is highly recommended.

Teachers and students of English have a very different relationship with the language; for the former it is an integral part of their profession and their livelihood, whereas for the latter it is an additional skill to acquire or something they were made to learn by the curriculum. As predicted, teachers identified stronger towards the English language than students, possibly because it is such an essential part of their being. The aptitude scores painted a different picture. There was no significant difference between the students and teachers, in fact, the students scored higher than the teachers overall, if only by little. Again, a closer inspection at the two nationalities enclosed a distinction. The Finnish subjects scored notably higher than the Chilean subjects, and there was detectable variance between the student and teacher scores. The discrepancy in the aptitude scores could derive from variation in the proficiency levels, lower teacher certification rates, and shorter study path of teachers in Chile leading to only partial use of the learners' full linguistic potential. Additionally, the knowledge of further languages probably increased the Finnish subjects' language aptitude.

Finally, as for the future, students and teachers from a wider variety of cultural and educational backgrounds should be studied in relation to their self-perceived language learner identity and language aptitude. The sample should preferably be larger in size to draw more generalizable results, as the results of the current study are only based on a rather small group of participants. The relationship between the two concepts in relation to the English language need to be further studied, but especially research into the interrelation of the concepts in connection to other languages are encouraged and highly recommended. Moreover, in order to fully understand the complexity of the formation of language learner identity and the affecting background variables, a study with a qualitative approach should be conducted in the future. Such a qualitative study might also shed light into the role of the cultural and social environment apparent, and how future education could be organized to maximize the positive effect on the learners' language identity.

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Appendix 1

Language identity questionnaire

This questionnaire is part of a master's thesis research examining language identity and its relation to language aptitude. The questionnaire is anonymous, and the answers cannot be traced back to you. The results will be published in the spring of 2019 at the University of Turku in Finland.

Background questions:

Country of origin: _____ Nationality: _____

Age: _____ Gender: Male Female Other

Native Language(s): _____

Other languages you speak: _____

Are you a teacher or a student , what do you study? _____

How long have you been learning English? _____ Last grade? _____

Estimated English proficiency level: Beginner Intermediate Upper intermediate Advanced

Instructions: Read the statements below and answer how you feel about the statement. The options are strongly agree, agree, disagree and strongly disagree. Mark the answer you choose with or . If you change your answer, color in the wrong answer (■) and mark the correct one with or . If you have any questions about the statements, ask the researcher.

1. I enjoy learning English
strongly agree agree disagree strongly disagree
2. I think learning English is important
strongly agree agree disagree strongly disagree
3. I think speaking English will help me in the future
strongly agree agree disagree strongly disagree
4. I find the English-speaking culture interesting
strongly agree agree disagree strongly disagree
5. I am interested in learning how to communicate in English with native speakers
strongly agree agree disagree strongly disagree
6. I am interested in learning how to communicate in English with non-native speakers
strongly agree agree disagree strongly disagree
7. I like speaking in English
strongly agree agree disagree strongly disagree
8. I like writing in English
strongly agree agree disagree strongly disagree
9. I feel comfortable expressing my feelings in English
strongly agree agree disagree strongly disagree
10. I identify myself with the English-speaking community
strongly agree agree disagree strongly disagree

Appendix 1

11. I identify myself with the culture of the English-speaking world
strongly agree agree disagree strongly disagree
12. I would like to hear more English in my country
strongly agree agree disagree strongly disagree
13. I identify myself as an English speaker
strongly agree agree disagree strongly disagree
14. My personality changes when I speak English
strongly agree agree disagree strongly disagree
15. I feel like a different person when I speak English
strongly agree agree disagree strongly disagree
16. I express myself more freely when I communicate in English
strongly agree agree disagree strongly disagree
17. I feel connected to the English language
strongly agree agree disagree strongly disagree
18. My feelings toward the English language are mostly positive
strongly agree agree disagree strongly disagree
19. My feelings toward the English-speaking community are mostly positive
strongly agree agree disagree strongly disagree
20. My country's view on the English language has positively influenced my feelings towards it
strongly agree agree disagree strongly disagree

21. What does the English language mean to you, and what role does it play in your life?

Appendix 1
PIMSLEUR LANGUAGE APTITUDE BATTERY

INTEREST

Please give an estimate of how interested you are in studying a modern foreign language (in this case English). Ask yourself how useful a foreign language will be to you, how much you enjoy it, and how interested you are in foreign languages compared with other subjects.

Rather uninterested

More or less indifferent

Mildly interested

Rather interested

Strongly interested

LANGUAGE ANALYSIS

“Directions: The list below contains words from a foreign language and the English equivalents of these words.

gade.....father, a father

shi.....horse, a horse

gade shir le.....Father sees a horse

By referring to the above list, figure out how the following statement should be expressed in this language. Do this without writing on paper.

A horse sees Father.

Do NOT read ahead until you have decided on an answer.

The answer to the problem is: **shi gader le**. Notice particularly the final “r” of “gader”; it is added to the word in the sentence which receives an action. If you have not answered correctly, look at the problem again to see if you now understand it. You may *not* ask questions.

There are 10 similar problems in the following page. Read each problem carefully and indicate your answer.

DO NOT TURN THE PAGE UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO DO SO! “

LIST OF WORDS

Appendix 1

gadefather, a father	soI, me
shihorse, a horse	woyou
gade shir leFather sees a horse.	so shir leI see a horse
gade shir laFather saw a horse.	sowleI see you
becarries	so shir lemI don't see a horse

Using the above list, figure out how to say each of the statements below. As soon as you decide how to say a statement, look at the four answers given beneath it and circle the one which agrees with yours.

1. Father carries a horse.

- [a] gade shir be [b] gade shir ba
[c] shi gader be [d] shi gader ba

2. Father carried a horse.

- [a] gade shir be [b] gade shir ba
[c] shi gader be [d] shi gader ba

3. A horse carried Father.

- [a] gade shir be [b] gade shir ba
[c] shi gader be [d] shi gader ba

4. A horse carries Father.

- [a] gade shir be [b] gade shir ba
[c] shi gader be [d] shi gader ba

5. You carry me.

- [a] sowle [b] sowbe
[c] wosle [d] wosbe

6. You saw Father.

- [a] wo gader le [b] so gader le
[c] so gader la [d] wo gader la

7. I carried you.

- [a] wosba [b] sowbe
[c] sowba [d] sowla

8. You carried Father.

- [a] wo gader ba [b] wo gader be
[c] wo gade ba [d] so gade be

9. You saw me.

- [a] sowla [b] wosba
[c] wosla [d] wosle

10. You don't carry a horse.

- [a] wo shir lem [b] wo shir bem
[c] wo shir bam [d] wo shi bem

SOUND-SYMBOL ASSOCIATION

SAMPLE traped
tarped
tarpdel
trapdel

You will hear 15 made up words on the tape. Your task is to choose the correct word from the list according to what you hear. You will hear each word twice. Mark your answer with or . If you change your answer, color in the wrong answer (■) and mark the correct one with or .

1 snosfen <input type="checkbox"/> sonsfen <input type="checkbox"/> snosnef <input type="checkbox"/> sonsnef <input type="checkbox"/>	2 thurksle <input type="checkbox"/> thruksle <input type="checkbox"/> thruskle <input type="checkbox"/> thurskle <input type="checkbox"/>	3 tiksgel <input type="checkbox"/> tigskel <input type="checkbox"/> tiskgel <input type="checkbox"/> tigksel <input type="checkbox"/>	4 nimbril <input type="checkbox"/> minbirl <input type="checkbox"/> nimbirl <input type="checkbox"/> minbril <input type="checkbox"/>	5 thorleg <input type="checkbox"/> throgle <input type="checkbox"/> thorgle <input type="checkbox"/> throleg <input type="checkbox"/>
6 rosktrag <input type="checkbox"/> rostkrag <input type="checkbox"/> roskstrag <input type="checkbox"/> rotskrag <input type="checkbox"/>	7 afrap <input type="checkbox"/> arfap <input type="checkbox"/> afpar <input type="checkbox"/> arpaf <input type="checkbox"/>	8 culther <input type="checkbox"/> cluther <input type="checkbox"/> cuthler <input type="checkbox"/> cluthler <input type="checkbox"/>	9 wotner <input type="checkbox"/> wontner <input type="checkbox"/> wonter <input type="checkbox"/> wentnor <input type="checkbox"/>	10 rielig <input type="checkbox"/> rigiel <input type="checkbox"/> riegiel <input type="checkbox"/> rieliel <input type="checkbox"/>
11 tronbleg <input type="checkbox"/> tornbleg <input type="checkbox"/> trolbneg <input type="checkbox"/> torlbneg <input type="checkbox"/>	12 clasket <input type="checkbox"/> calsket <input type="checkbox"/> clakset <input type="checkbox"/> calkset <input type="checkbox"/>	13 widnt <input type="checkbox"/> windt <input type="checkbox"/> witnd <input type="checkbox"/> wintd <input type="checkbox"/>	14 nasperdop <input type="checkbox"/> napserdop <input type="checkbox"/> napseprod <input type="checkbox"/> naspeprod <input type="checkbox"/>	15 mazordli <input type="checkbox"/> marzodle <input type="checkbox"/> madorzli <input type="checkbox"/> marodzli <input type="checkbox"/>

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION! ☺

Appendix 2

Encuesta de la Identidad Lingüística

Esta encuesta es parte del estudio de una tesis de Magíster examinando la relación entre la identidad y la aptitud lingüísticas. La encuesta es anónima, y no se puede conectar los resultados a usted. Los resultados serán publicados durante el otoño 2019 en la Universidad de Turku en Finlandia.

Información básica:

Pais de origen: _____ *Nacionalidad:* _____

Edad: _____ *Sexo:* Varón Mujer Otro

Lenguaje(s) nativo(s): _____

Otros lenguajes que habla: _____

¿Es usted profesor *o alumno?* , *¿qué estudia?* _____

¿Por cuánto tiempo ha estudiado inglés? _____ *Última nota?* _____

Estimación del nivel de competencia en inglés: Principiante Intermedio Intermedio superior Avanzado

Instrucciones: Lea las afirmaciones abajo y conteste como se siente sobre la afirmación. Las opciones son estoy muy de acuerdo, estoy de acuerdo, estoy de desacuerdo y estoy muy de desacuerdo. Marque la respuesta elegida con o . Si cambia la respuesta, coloree la respuesta equivocada (■) y marque la correcta con o . Si tiene preguntas, pregunte a la investigadora.

1. Disfruto aprender inglés

estoy muy de acuerdo estoy de acuerdo estoy de desacuerdo estoy muy de desacuerdo

2. En mi opinión es importante aprender inglés

estoy muy de acuerdo estoy de acuerdo estoy de desacuerdo estoy muy de desacuerdo

3. En mi opinión hablar inglés me ayudará en el futuro

estoy muy de acuerdo estoy de acuerdo estoy de desacuerdo estoy muy de desacuerdo

4. Encuentro la cultura del habla inglesa interesante

estoy muy de acuerdo estoy de acuerdo estoy de desacuerdo estoy muy de desacuerdo

5. Estoy interesado en aprender como comunicarme en inglés con los hablantes nativos

estoy muy de acuerdo estoy de acuerdo estoy de desacuerdo estoy muy de desacuerdo

6. Estoy interesado en aprender como comunicarme en inglés con los hablantes no nativos

estoy muy de acuerdo estoy de acuerdo estoy de desacuerdo estoy muy de desacuerdo

7. Me gusta hablar en inglés

estoy muy de acuerdo estoy de acuerdo estoy de desacuerdo estoy muy de desacuerdo

8. Me gusta escribir en inglés

estoy muy de acuerdo estoy de acuerdo estoy de desacuerdo estoy muy de desacuerdo

9. Me siento cómodo expresando mis sentimientos en inglés

estoy muy de acuerdo estoy de acuerdo estoy de desacuerdo estoy muy de desacuerdo

10. Me identifico con la comunidad del habla inglesa

estoy muy de acuerdo estoy de acuerdo estoy de desacuerdo estoy muy de desacuerdo

Appendix 2

11. Me identifico con la cultura del habla inglesa

estoy muy de acuerdo estoy de acuerdo estoy de desacuerdo estoy muy de desacuerdo

12. Me gustaría escuchar más inglés en mi país

estoy muy de acuerdo estoy de acuerdo estoy de desacuerdo estoy muy de desacuerdo

13. Me identifico como un hablante de inglés

estoy muy de acuerdo estoy de acuerdo estoy de desacuerdo estoy muy de desacuerdo

14. Mi personalidad cambia cuando hablo inglés

estoy muy de acuerdo estoy de acuerdo estoy de desacuerdo estoy muy de desacuerdo

15. Me siento como una persona distinta cuando hablo inglés

estoy muy de acuerdo estoy de acuerdo estoy de desacuerdo estoy muy de desacuerdo

16. Puedo expresarme más libremente cuando me comunico en inglés

estoy muy de acuerdo estoy de acuerdo estoy de desacuerdo estoy muy de desacuerdo

17. Me siento conectado a la lengua inglesa

estoy muy de acuerdo estoy de acuerdo estoy de desacuerdo estoy muy de desacuerdo

18. Mis sentimientos hacia la lengua inglesa son en su mayoría positivos

estoy muy de acuerdo estoy de acuerdo estoy de desacuerdo estoy muy de desacuerdo

19. Mis sentimientos hacia la comunidad del habla inglesa son en su mayoría positivos

estoy muy de acuerdo estoy de acuerdo estoy de desacuerdo estoy muy de desacuerdo

20. La opinión de mi país de la lengua inglesa ha influido positivamente mis sentimientos de la lengua

estoy muy de acuerdo estoy de acuerdo estoy de desacuerdo estoy muy de desacuerdo

21. ¿Qué significa la lengua inglesa para usted, y qué papel tiene en su vida?

Appendix 2

PIMSLEUR LANGUAGE APTITUDE BATTERY

INTERÉS

Por favor estime que interesado usted es en estudiar una lengua extranjera moderna (en este caso inglés).

Pregúntese usted mismo que útil sería una lengua extranjera para usted, cuanto la disfruta, y cuanto interés tiene por las lenguas extranjeras en comparación con os de más materias.

Bastante desinteresado

Más o menos indiferente

Un poco interesado

Bastante interesado

Muy interesado

ANALISIS DE LA LENGUA

“Instrucciones: La lista abajo contiene palabras de una lengua extranjera y sus equivalentes en español.

gade.....Padre, un Padre

shi.....caballo, un caballo

gade shir le.....Padre ve un caballo

Refiera a la lista de arriba y averigüe como se expresa la siguiente afirmación en este lenguaje. Hágalo sin escribir en papel.

Un caballo ve a Padre.

Por favor, NO lea adelante hasta que haya decidido la respuesta.

La respuesta al problema es: **shi gader le**. Note particularmente la ‘r’ final de ‘gader’, está añadido a la palabra que recibe la acción en la frase. Si no respondió correctamente, por favor vea el problema de nuevo si ahora lo entiende. No está permitido preguntar por ayuda en esta parte.

En la página que viene hay 10 problemas parecidos. Lea cada problema cuidadosamente e indica su respuesta. **POR FAVOR NO PASAR LA PÁGINA HASTA QUE SE INDIQUE QUE LA PUEDE PASAR.**

Appendix 2

LISTA DE PALABRAS

gadePadre, un Padre	soyo, me
shicaballo, un caballo	wotú, te
gade shir lePadre ve un caballo.	so shir leYo veo un caballo.
gade shir laPadre vio un caballo.	sowleYo te veo.
belleva	so shir lemNo veo un caballo.

Utilizando la lista de arriba, averigüe como se dicen las afirmaciones abajo. Cuando decides como se dice una afirmación, mire a las cuatro opciones debajo de la afirmación y circule la respuesta correspondiente.

6. Padre lleva un caballo.

- [a] gade shir be [b] gade shir ba
[c] shi gader be [d] shi gader ba

7. Padre llevó un caballo.

- [a] gade shir be [b] gade shir ba
[c] shi gader be [d] shi gader ba

8. Un caballo llevó Padre.

- [a] gade shir be [b] gade shir ba
[c] shi gader be [d] shi gader ba

9. Un caballo lleva Padre.

- [a] gade shir be [b] gade shir ba
[c] shi gader be [d] shi gader ba

10. Tú me llevas.

- [a] sowle [b] sowbe
[c] wosle [d] wosbe

6. Tú viste a Padre.

- [a] wo gader le [b] so gader le
[c] so gader la [d] wo gader la

7. Yo te llevé.

- [a] wosba [b] sowbe
[c] sowba [d] sowla

8. Tú llevaste Padre.

- [a] wo gader ba [b] wo gader be
[c] wo gade ba [d] so gade be

9. Tú me viste.

- [a] sowla [b] wosba
[c] wosla [d] wosle

10. Tú no llevas un caballo.

- [a] wo shir lem [b] wo shir bem
[c] wo shir bam [d] wo shi bem

SONIDO-SÍMBOLO ASOCIACIÓN

EJEMPLO trapled
tarpled
tarpdel
trapdel

Escuchará 15 palabras inventadas en el audio. Tiene que elegir la palabra correcta de las cuatro opciones según lo que se escucha. Escuchará cada palabra dos veces. Marque la respuesta con o . Si cambia la respuesta, coloree la respuesta equivocada (■) y marque la correcta con o .

1 snosfen <input type="checkbox"/> sonsfen <input type="checkbox"/> snosnef <input type="checkbox"/> sonsfef <input type="checkbox"/>	2 thurksle <input type="checkbox"/> thruksle <input type="checkbox"/> thruskle <input type="checkbox"/> thurskle <input type="checkbox"/>	3 tiksgel <input type="checkbox"/> tigskel <input type="checkbox"/> tiskgel <input type="checkbox"/> tigksel <input type="checkbox"/>	4 nimbril <input type="checkbox"/> minbirl <input type="checkbox"/> nimbirl <input type="checkbox"/> minbril <input type="checkbox"/>	5 thorleg <input type="checkbox"/> throgle <input type="checkbox"/> thorgle <input type="checkbox"/> throleg <input type="checkbox"/>
6 rosktrag <input type="checkbox"/> rostkrag <input type="checkbox"/> roskstrag <input type="checkbox"/> rotskrag <input type="checkbox"/>	7 arfrag <input type="checkbox"/> arfap <input type="checkbox"/> afpar <input type="checkbox"/> arpaf <input type="checkbox"/>	8 culther <input type="checkbox"/> cluther <input type="checkbox"/> cuthler <input type="checkbox"/> cluthler <input type="checkbox"/>	9 wotner <input type="checkbox"/> wontner <input type="checkbox"/> wonter <input type="checkbox"/> wentnor <input type="checkbox"/>	10 rielig <input type="checkbox"/> riegiel <input type="checkbox"/> riegiel <input type="checkbox"/> rieliel <input type="checkbox"/>
11 tronbleg <input type="checkbox"/> tornbleg <input type="checkbox"/> trolbneg <input type="checkbox"/> torlbneg <input type="checkbox"/>	12 clasket <input type="checkbox"/> calsket <input type="checkbox"/> clakset <input type="checkbox"/> calkset <input type="checkbox"/>	13 widnt <input type="checkbox"/> windt <input type="checkbox"/> witnd <input type="checkbox"/> wintd <input type="checkbox"/>	14 nasperdop <input type="checkbox"/> napserdop <input type="checkbox"/> napseprod <input type="checkbox"/> naspeprod <input type="checkbox"/>	15 mazordli <input type="checkbox"/> marzodle <input type="checkbox"/> madorzli <input type="checkbox"/> marodzli <input type="checkbox"/>

¡MUCHAS GRACIAS POR SU COOPERACION! ☺

Appendix 3

Kieli-identiteetti kysely

Tämä kysely on osa pro gradu -tutkielmaa, jossa tutkitaan kieli-identiteettiä ja sen suhdetta kielelliseen lahjakkuuteen. Kysely on täysin anonymi: vastauksiasi ei voida yhdistää takaisin sinuun. Kyselyn tulokset julkaistaan keväällä 2019 Turun yliopistossa.

Taustakysymykset:

Kotimaa: _____ Kansallisuus: _____

Ikä: _____ Sukupuoli: Mies Nainen Muu/en halua kertoa

Äidinkieli/-kielet: _____

Muut osaamasi kielet: _____

Oletko opettaja vai opiskelija , mitä opiskelet? _____

Kuinka kauan olet opiskellut englantia? _____ Viimeisin arvosana? _____

Arvioitu englannin kielen taitotaso: Aloittelija Keskitaso Ylempi keskitaso Edistynyt

Ohjeet: Lue alla olevat väittämät ja vastaa, mitä mieltä olet väittämistä. Vaihtoehdot ovat: erittäin samaa mieltä, samaa mieltä, eri mieltä ja erittäin eri mieltä. Merkitse valitsemasi vastaus joko tai . Jos vaihdat vastauksesi, värity väärä vastaus (■) ja merkitse oikea vastaus joko tai . Jos sinulla on kysyttävää väittämistä, kysy tutkijalta.

1. Nautin englannin kielen opiskelusta

erittäin samaa mieltä samaa mieltä eri mieltä erittäin eri mieltä

2. Mielestäni englannin kielen opiskelu on tärkeää

erittäin samaa mieltä samaa mieltä eri mieltä erittäin eri mieltä

3. Uskon, että englannin kielen taito hyödyttää minua tulevaisuudessa

erittäin samaa mieltä samaa mieltä eri mieltä erittäin eri mieltä

4. Minua kiinnostaa englanninkielinen kulttuuri

erittäin samaa mieltä samaa mieltä eri mieltä erittäin eri mieltä

5. Minua kiinnostaa oppia kommunikoimaan englanniksi natiivien kanssa

erittäin samaa mieltä samaa mieltä eri mieltä erittäin eri mieltä

6. Minua kiinnostaa oppia kommunikoimaan englanniksi ei-natiivien kanssa

erittäin samaa mieltä samaa mieltä eri mieltä erittäin eri mieltä

7. Tykkään puhua englanniksi

erittäin samaa mieltä samaa mieltä eri mieltä erittäin eri mieltä

8. Tykkään kirjoittaa englanniksi

erittäin samaa mieltä samaa mieltä eri mieltä erittäin eri mieltä

9. En vierasta tunteideni ilmaisemista englanniksi

erittäin samaa mieltä samaa mieltä eri mieltä erittäin eri mieltä

10. Koen kuuluvani englantia puhuvaan yhteisöön

erittäin samaa mieltä samaa mieltä eri mieltä erittäin eri mieltä

Appendix 3

11. Tunnen yhteenkuuluvuutta englantia puhuvan maailman kulttuuriin

erittäin samaa mieltä samaa mieltä eri mieltä erittäin eri mieltä

12. Haluaisin kuulla enemmän englantia maassani

erittäin samaa mieltä samaa mieltä eri mieltä erittäin eri mieltä

13. Identifioin itseni englannin kielen puhujaksi

erittäin samaa mieltä samaa mieltä eri mieltä erittäin eri mieltä

14. Persoonallisuuteni muuttuu puhuessani englantia

erittäin samaa mieltä samaa mieltä eri mieltä erittäin eri mieltä

15. Koen olevani kuin toinen henkilö puhuessani englantia

erittäin samaa mieltä samaa mieltä eri mieltä erittäin eri mieltä

16. Ilmaisen itseäni vapaammin kommunikoidessani englanniksi kuin suomeksi

erittäin samaa mieltä samaa mieltä eri mieltä erittäin eri mieltä

17. Koen olevani yhteydessä englannin kieleen

erittäin samaa mieltä samaa mieltä eri mieltä erittäin eri mieltä

18. Mielipiteeni englannin kielestä on suurimmaksi osaksi positiivinen

erittäin samaa mieltä samaa mieltä eri mieltä erittäin eri mieltä

19. Mielipiteeni englanninkielisestä yhteisöstä on suurimmaksi osaksi positiivinen

erittäin samaa mieltä samaa mieltä eri mieltä erittäin eri mieltä

20. Maani yleinen suhtautuminen englannin kieleen on vaikuttanut mielipiteeseeni siitä positiivisesti

erittäin samaa mieltä samaa mieltä eri mieltä erittäin eri mieltä

21. Mitä englannin kieli merkitsee sinulle, ja millainen rooli sillä on elämässäsi?

Appendix 3

PIMSLEUR LANGUAGE APTITUDE BATTERY

KIINNOSTUS

Ole hyvä ja arvioi, kuinka kiinnostunut olet opiskelemaan modernia vierasta kieltä (tässä tapauksessa englantia). Mieti, kuinka hyödyllinen vieras kieli tulee olemaan sinulle, kuinka paljon nautit siitä ja kuinka kiinnostunut olet vieraista kielistä verrattuna muihin aineisiin.

En ole kiinnostunut

Yhdentekevää

Hieman kiinnostunut

Melko kiinnostunut

Erittäin kiinnostunut

KIELI ANALYYSI

“Ohjeet: Alla olevassa listassa on sanoja vieraasta kielestä ja niiden suomenkieliset käännökset

gade.....isä
shi.....hevonen
gade shir le.....Isä näkee hevosen.

Mieti yllä olevaa listaa apuna käyttäen, miten seuraava lause ilmaistaisiin tällä kielellä. Älä kirjoita vastaustasi paperille.

Hevonen näkee isän.

ÄLÄ lue eteenpäin ennen kuin olet päättänyt vastauksesi.

Oikea vastaus on: **shi gader le**. Huomaa erityisesti viimeinen ‘r’-kirjain ‘gader’-sanassa; se lisätään lauseessa sen sanan loppuun, johon tekeminen kohdistuu. Jos vastasit väärin, katso lausetta uudelleen ja tarkista, ymmärrätkö sen nyt. Et voi kysyä kysymyksiä tässä kohtaa.

Seuraavalla sivulla on 10 samankaltaista lausetta. Lue kukin lause huolellisesti ja valitse vastauksesi.

ÄLÄ KÄÄNNÄ SIVUA ENNEN KUIN SAAT LUVAN!”

Appendix 3
SANALISTA

gadeisä	sominä, minua, minut
shihevonen	wosinä, sinua, sinut
gade shir leIsä näkee hevosen.	so shir leMinä näen hevosen.
gade shir laIsä näki hevosen.	sowleMinä näen sinut.
bekantaa	so shir lemMinä en näe hevosta.

Käytä yllä olevaa listaa apunasi ja päättele miten seuraavat lauseet sanottaisiin tällä kielellä. Kun tiedät, miten lause sanotaan, katso lauseen alla Olevia vastausvaihtoehtoja ja ympyröi oikea vastaus.

11. Isä kantaa hevosta.

- [a] gade shir be [b] gade shir ba
[c] shi gader be [d] shi gader ba

12. Isä kantoi hevosta.

- [a] gade shir be [b] gade shir ba
[c] shi gader be [d] shi gader ba

13. Hevonen kantoi isää.

- [a] gade shir be [b] gade shir ba
[c] shi gader be [d] shi gader ba

14. Hevonen kantaa isää.

- [a] gade shir be [b] gade shir ba
[c] shi gader be [d] shi gader ba

15. Sinä kannat minua.

- [a] sowle [b] sowbe
[c] wosle [d] wosbe

6. Sinä näit isän.

- [a] wo gader le [b] so gader le
[c] so gader la [d] wo gader la

7. Minä kannoin sinua.

- [a] wosba [b] sowbe
[c] sowba [d] sowla

8. Sinä kannoit isää.

- [a] wo gader ba [b] wo gader be
[c] wo gade ba [d] so gade be

9. Sinä näit minut.

- [a] sowla [b] wosba
[c] wosla [d] wosle

10. Sinä et kanno hevosta.

- [a] wo shir lem [b] wo shir bem
[c] wo shir bam [d] wo shi bem

KIRJAIN-ÄÄNNEVASTAAVUUS

ESIMERKKI trapled Kuulet nauhalta 15 keksittyä sanaa. Tehtäväsi on valita oikea sana listalta sen tarpled perusteella mitä kuulet. Kuulet kunkin sanan kaksi kertaa. Merkitse vastauksesi tarpdel joko tai . Jos vaihdat vastauksesi, värity väärä vastaus (■) ja merkitse oikea trapdel vastaus tai .

1 snosfen <input type="checkbox"/> sonsfen <input type="checkbox"/> snosnef <input type="checkbox"/> sonsfef <input type="checkbox"/>	2 thurksle <input type="checkbox"/> thruksle <input type="checkbox"/> thruskle <input type="checkbox"/> thurskle <input type="checkbox"/>	3 tiksgel <input type="checkbox"/> tigskel <input type="checkbox"/> tiskgel <input type="checkbox"/> tigksel <input type="checkbox"/>	4 nimbril <input type="checkbox"/> minbirl <input type="checkbox"/> nimbirl <input type="checkbox"/> minbril <input type="checkbox"/>	5 thorleg <input type="checkbox"/> throgle <input type="checkbox"/> thorgle <input type="checkbox"/> throleg <input type="checkbox"/>
6 rosktrag <input type="checkbox"/> rostkrag <input type="checkbox"/> roskstrag <input type="checkbox"/> rotskrag <input type="checkbox"/>	7 afrap <input type="checkbox"/> arfap <input type="checkbox"/> afpar <input type="checkbox"/> arpaf <input type="checkbox"/>	8 culther <input type="checkbox"/> cluther <input type="checkbox"/> cuthler <input type="checkbox"/> cluthler <input type="checkbox"/>	9 wotner <input type="checkbox"/> wontner <input type="checkbox"/> wonter <input type="checkbox"/> wentnor <input type="checkbox"/>	10 rielig <input type="checkbox"/> rigiel <input type="checkbox"/> riegiel <input type="checkbox"/> rieliel <input type="checkbox"/>
11 tronbleg <input type="checkbox"/> tornbleg <input type="checkbox"/> trolbneg <input type="checkbox"/> torlbneg <input type="checkbox"/>	12 clasket <input type="checkbox"/> calsket <input type="checkbox"/> clakset <input type="checkbox"/> calkset <input type="checkbox"/>	13 widnt <input type="checkbox"/> windt <input type="checkbox"/> witnd <input type="checkbox"/> wintd <input type="checkbox"/>	14 nasperdop <input type="checkbox"/> napserdop <input type="checkbox"/> napseprod <input type="checkbox"/> naspeprod <input type="checkbox"/>	15 mazordli <input type="checkbox"/> marzodle <input type="checkbox"/> madorzli <input type="checkbox"/> marodzli <input type="checkbox"/>

KIITOS OSALLISTUMISESTA! 😊

Finnish Summary

Kieli-identiteetti ja kielellinen kyvykkyys ovat yksilöllisiä piirteitä, jotka vaikuttavat oppijan vieraan kielen oppimiseen ja taitoon. Ei kuitenkaan ole yhdentekevää, missä ympäristössä oppija kieltä oppii ja käyttää. Tämän tutkimuksen tarkoituksena onkin tarkastella kulttuurillisen oppimisympäristön vaikutusta oppijan kieli-identiteettiin ja kielelliseen kyvykkyYTEEN sekä vertailla näiden kahden käsitteen keskinäistä suhdetta ja mahdollista korrelaatiota. Tutkimus toteutettiin vertailemalla suomalaisia ja chileläisiä opiskelijoita ja opettajia keskenään. Tutkimuksen ensisijainen tavoite on vastata seuraaviin tutkimuskysymyksiin:

- (1) Onko suomalaisten ja chileläisten tutkittavien välillä eroa itsekoetussa englannin kielen kielenoppijaidentiteetissä ja kielellisessä kyvykkydessä?
- (2) Korreloivatko yksilön kielellinen kyvykkyys ja itsekoettu kielenoppijaidentiteetti keskenään?
- (3) Onko opiskelijoiden ja opettajien välillä eroja heidän itsekoetussa kielenoppijaidentiteetissään ja kielellisessä kyvykkydessään?

Tutkimukselle asetetut hypoteesit ovat seuraavat: ensinnäkin Suomen maantieteellisen läheisyyden ja kulttuurisen yhteyden Englantia käyttäviin maihin vuoksi oletetaan, että suomalaisten opiskelijoiden itsekoettu kielenoppijaidentiteetti on vahvempi ja positiivisempi Englannin kieltä kohtaan kuin chileläisten opiskelijoiden vastaava. Tämä johtuu osittain siitä, että oppijaidentiteetti tai -identiteetit ovat sosiaalisen ja kulttuurillisen vaikutuksen alaisena siinä oppimisympäristössä ja maassa, missä yksilö asuu ja oppii kieltä (Norton 2013, 12). Samanlaista eroa ei kuitenkaan ole syytä olettaa opettajien kohdalla, sillä he ovat kaikki selvästi kiinnostuneita Englannin kielestä, mikä ilmenee heidän ammattivalinnastaan. Lisäksi oletetaan, että suomalaisten tutkittavien kielellinen kyvykkyys on korkeampi kuin chileläisten tutkittavien johtuen korkeammasta Englannin kielen taitotasosta Suomessa (EF Education First 2018), mikä puolestaan korreloi suuremman kielellisen kyvykkyuden kanssa (Dörnyei 2005, 31). Toinen hypoteesi on, että yksilön itsekoetun kielenoppijaidentiteetin ja kielellisen kyvykkyuden välillä on huomattava, mutta ei välttämättä vahva korrelaatio. Jos oppijalla ei ole taipumusta tai kyvykkyyttä oppia vieraita kieliä, hän voi kokea epävarmuutta oppimista kohtaan, mikä puolestaan

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vaikuttaa oppijan kieli-identiteettiin negatiivisesti (Kalaja et al. 2015, 19). Kolmanneksi oletetaan, että opiskelijoiden ja opettajien välillä on eroa heidän englannin kielen kieli-identiteetissään ja kielellisessä kyvykkyydessään. Olettamus on, että opettajat saavat enemmän pisteitä kummastakin osa-alueesta, sillä he ovat ammattimaisia kielitieteilijöitä ja ovat kiinnostuneita englannin kielestä.

Teoria

Identiteetti kuvaa omaa näkemystämme itsestämme ja potentiaalistamme suhteessa vallitsevaan ympäristöön ja muihin ihmisiin (Kalaja et al. 2015, 20; Galajda 2011, 50). Se on yksilöllinen ominaisuus, joka vaihtelee samankin kulttuurin edustajien välillä, sillä jokainen yksilö havaitsee ja tulkitsee maailmaa omalla tavallaan (Piasecka 2011, 25). Kieli-identiteetti tai kielenoppijaidentiteetti sen sijaan heijastaa oppijan suhdetta opittavaan kieleen ja sitä ympäröivään yhteisöön sekä sitä, mitä häneltä kyseisen kielen oppijana odotetaan (Darvin and Norton 2015, 45–46). Oppimisympäristön sosiaalinen tilanne, saatavilla olevat resurssit ja maan oppimis- ja opetuskäytännöt osaltaan vaikuttavat oppijan kieli-identiteettiin (Norton 2013, 12). Kielenoppija etsii jatkuvasti paikkaansa muuttuvassa sosiaalisessa ympäristössä suhteessa opittavaan kieleen (Morgan 1997, 431) ja luo uudelleen omaa kulttuuri-identiteettiään (Galajda 2011, 50). Itsekoettu kielenoppijaidentiteetti kuvastaa oppijan subjektiivista näkemystä omasta kieli-identiteetistään kullakin hetkellä. Tässä tutkimuksessa keskitytään nimenomaan itsekoettuun kielenoppijaidentiteettiin.

Kyvykkyydellä viitataan yleisesti potentiaaliin tehdä jotain ja menestyä siinä (Dörnyei 2005, 32). Kyvykkyys on yksilöllinen psykologinen piirre – sisäinen ominaisuus, joka vaihtelee ihmisten välillä ja luo eroja oppimiseen (Skehan 1998, 185). Kielellisellä kyvykkyydellä tarkoitetaan sisäistä taipumusta oppia uusia kieliä tavallista helpommin, ja se yhdistetäänkin usein älykkyyteen, menestykseen ja saavutuksiin kielten oppimisessa. (Dörnyei 2005, 31–33). Aikaisempien tutkimusten valossa kielellinen kyvykkyys yhdistetään yksilöllisistä tekijöistä vahvimmin vieraan kielen taitotasoon (ibid.). Oppijat, joiden kielellinen kyvykkyys on korkeampi todennäköisesti oppivat kieltä nopeammin ja saavuttavat korkeamman taitotason kuin oppijat, joiden kielellinen kyvykkyys on alhaista (Granena 2013b, 180). Kielellistä kyvykkyyttä on testattu 1900-luvun alusta saakka, mutta alkuaikoina sillä testattiin lähinnä älykkyyttä ja pyrittiin tunnistamaan heikompia oppilaita (Dörnyei 2005, 33–34). Sittemmin fokus on siirtynyt oppijan kyvykkyyteen (Kormos 2013, 133). Yksi tunnetuimpia

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kyvykkyydestejä on Paul Pimsleurin (1966) luoma Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery eli PLAB, joka mittaa yksilön potentiaalia oppia vieraita kieliä. Osia tästä testistä käytetään tämän tutkimuksen materiaalin keruussa.

Vierasta kieltä oppiessa oppijoiden tulee löytää tasapaino oman ja kohdekulttuurin välille (Liddicoat and Crozet 2001, 137–8). Taitoa käyttäytyä ja ohjata omaa käytöstä monikulttuurisissa tilanteissa kutsutaan kulttuurien väliseksi kompetenssiksi, johon liittyy tärkeänä osana vakiintunut kieli-identiteetti (Jensen 1995, 41). Käsillä olevaan tutkimukseen kerättiin materiaalia kahdesta kulttuurillisesti hyvin erilaisesta maasta, jotta voitiin tutkia vaikuttaako ympäristö kieli-identiteettiin tai kielellisen kyvykkyyteen. Suomessa oppijoilla on samanveroiset mahdollisuudet kouluttautua, ja yksityiskouluja on hyvin vähän. Chilessä sen sijaan runsaat 50% väestöstä opiskelee yksityiskouluissa (British Council 2015, 8; OECD 2015). Tämä on osaltaan saattanut vaikuttaa maiden väliseen eroon PISA-tilastoissa. Viimeisimmässä PISA-tutkimuksessa Suomen sijoitus oli viides, Chilen neljäskymmenesneljäs (OECD 2015). Vuonna 2018 kerätty kielitaitoindeksi taas osoittaa, että Suomessa englannin kielen taitotaso on erittäin korkea, ja että Chilessä vastaava taitotaso on matala (EF Education First 2018). Suomessa oppilaat aloittavat englannin kielen opiskelun tavallisesti joko kolmannella tai kuudennella luokalla riippuen siitä, aloittavatko he ruotsin kielen vai vieraan kielen ensin ja valitsevatko he vieraaksi kieleksi englannin kielen (Opetushallitus 2014, 126 & 211). Chilessä puolestaan englannin opiskelu aloitetaan nykyään viidennellä luokalla, aikaisemmin se aloitettiin vasta seitsemännellä luokalla (British Council 2015, 8 & 20). Lisäksi maat eroavat myös opettajankoulutuksessa. Suomessa kieltenopettajilla tulee olla maisterin tutkinto, mutta Chilessä opettajalle riittää kandidaatintutkinto (Toledo Figueroa and Wittenberg 2014, 10).

Metodologia

Tutkimuskohteiksi valikoitui kaksi yliopiston kielikeskusta, toinen Suomesta ja toinen Chilestä. Tutkimusjoukkoon kuului yhteensä 11 englannin kielen opettajaa ja 51 englannin kielen opiskelijaa näistä kahdesta maasta. Kaikki tutkittavat olivat yli 18 vuotiaita ja antoivat suostumuksensa tutkimukseen osallistumiseen. Tutkittavien englannin kielen taitotaso oli joko keskitasoa, ylempää keskitasoa tai edistynyttä. Tutkittavat puhuivat äidinkielenään joko suomea tai espanjaa. He opiskelivat eri aloja

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yliopistossa tai opettivat työkseen englannin kieltä. Tutkittavat olivat opiskelleet englantia Suomessa keskimäärin 12,4 vuotta ja Chilessä keskimäärin 7,9 vuotta.

Tutkimus on luonteeltaan kyselytutkimus. Se koostuu kaksiosaisesta paperisesta kyselystä, joka teetettiin tutkittavilla englannin tuntien yhteydessä. Aivan ensimmäiseksi tutkittavilta kerättiin muutamia taustatietoja tutkimuksen avuksi mutta kuitenkin niin, että tutkittavien anonymiteetti säilyi koko tutkimuksen ajan. Tutkimuksen ensimmäisessä osuudessa kerättiin tietoa tutkittavien kieli-identiteetistä englannin kieltä kohtaan ja siitä, kuinka he itse kokevat englannin kielen ja sen merkityksen elämässään. Osio koostui 20 Likert-asteikolla mitattavasta identiteettiväittämästä ja yhdestä avoimesta kysymyksestä. Toinen osuus puolestaan mittasi tutkittavien kielellistä kyvykkyyttä käyttäen apunaan Paul Pimsleurin (1966) kehittämää Pimsleur Language Aptitude Batteryä, tarkemmin ottaen sen kolmea osaa, jotka mittaavat motivaatiota, analyyttistä kielitaitoa ja auditiivista kyvykkyyttä. Kysely teetettiin englannin tunneilla muutamaa opettajapoikkeusta lukuun ottamatta. Tutkimuksen tulokset kategorisoitiin ja merkittiin Exceliin, jonka jälkeen ne siirrettiin SPSS statistiikkaohjelmaan käsittelyä ja analysointia varten.

Tulokset ja analyysi

Ensimmäinen tutkimuskysymys tarkasteli eroja itsekoetussa kielenoppijaidentiteetissä ja kielellisessä kyvykkyydessä suomalaisten ja chileläisten tutkittavien välillä. Hypoteesina oli, että suomalaiset oppijat saivat korkeimpia tuloksia sekä kieli-identiteetistä että kielellisestä kyvykkyydestä. Tutkimus osoitti, että hypoteesi oli oikea kielellisen kyvykkyyden kohdalla mutta väärä kieli-identiteettiä koskien. Chileläiset identifioituivat tilastollisesti merkittävästi vahvemmin englannin kieltä kohtaan kuin suomalaiset Mann-Whitney U-testillä tarkasteltuna. Keskiarvo chileläisille oli 66,8 ja suomalaisille 57,9 asteikolla 20-80. Eroa ei kuitenkaan löytynyt kahden maan opettajien väliltä, ainoastaan oppilaiden. Kielellisen kyvykkyyden kohdalla ero oli tilastollisesti merkittävä toisin päin: suomalaisten keskiarvo oli 27,0 ja chileläisten 25,3 asteikolla 0-30. Selitys kieli-identiteettieroille ja hypoteesin vastaiselle tulokselle saattaa löytyä siitä, että chileläiset tutkittavat, toisin kuin suomalaiset, opiskelivat suurimmaksi osaksi ainoastaan englantia toisena kielenä, heillä oli suomalaisia positiivisempi suhtautuminen omiin taitoihinsa ja tutkija oli heille entuudestaan tuttu.

Toinen tutkimuskysymys asetettiin tutkimaan mahdollista korrelaatiota oppijan kieli-identiteetin ja kielellisen kyvykkyyden välillä. Tuloksia analysoitiin käyttäen apuna

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Spearmanin järjestyskorrelaatiokerrointa. Hypoteesina oli, että korrelaatio on olemassa, joskaan se ei ole kovin vahva. Hypoteesi todettiin vääräksi koko tutkimusryhmää tarkasteltaessa ($\rho = -0,042$, $p = 0,748$) tai vain chileläisiä tarkasteltaessa ($\rho = -0,040$, $p = 0,850$), mutta se havaittiin oikeaksi, kun vertailtiin vain suomalaisten tutkittavien tuloksia ($\rho = 0,420$, $p = 0,010$). Tulokset siis osoittavat, että tutkittavilla ominaisuuksilla on jonkinlainen yhteys, mutta se vaihtelee eri ryhmiä tarkasteltaessa. Oppimisympäristöllä ja -kulttuurilla on siis mitä todennäköisemmin vaikutusta kieli-identiteetin ja kielellisen kyvykkyyden väliseen suhteeseen. Lisää tutkimusta aiheesta tarvitaan, jotta voidaan johtaa yleistettävämpiä johtopäätöksiä ja löytää mahdollisia yhteyttä edistäviä tekijöitä.

Kolmas ja viimeinen tutkimuskysymys tarkasteli eroja oppilaiden ja opettajien välillä heidän itsekoetun kielenoppijaidentiteettinsä ja kielellisen kyvykkyytensä saralla. Hypoteesina oli, että opettajat identifioituisivat vahvemmin englannin kieltä kohtaan ja olisivat kielellisesti kyvykkäämpiä ammatinvalintansa ja koulutuksensa tähden. Hypoteesin ensimmäinen osuus todettiin oikeaksi, opettajat identifioituivat tilastollisesti merkittävästi vahvemmin englannin kieltä kohtaan kuin oppijat. Ero oli huomattava kummankin maan tutkittavia tarkasteltaessa.

Opettajien kieli-identiteetin pistekeskisarvo oli 68,9, kun oppilaiden vastaava keskiarvo oli 59,9. Samaa ei voida todeta hypoteesin toisesta osasta. Oppilaiden ja opettajien kielellisessä kyvykkyydessä ei ollut merkittäviä eroja koko tutkimusryhmää tarkasteltaessa. Eroja kuitenkin löytyi, kun katsottiin maiden tuloksia erikseen. Chileläisten kohdalla opettajat saivat itseasiassa keskimäärin alemmat pisteet PLAB-testistä kuin oppilaat. Suomalaiset opettajat vuorostaan saivat selkeästi korkeammat pisteet kuin heidän oppilaansa. Erot kielellisessä kyvykkyydessä maiden opettajien ja oppilaiden välillä saattavat johtua eroista kielitaitotasoissa ja opettajien ammattikoulutuksen vaatimuksista Suomessa ja Chilessä. Lisäksi suomalaisten laajempi muiden kielten osaaminen vaikuttaa kielelliseen kyvykkyyteen positiivisesti.

Tutkimuksen ainoa laadullinen kysymys antaa tarkemman kuvan siitä, mitä englannin kieli tutkittaville merkitsee ja millainen rooli sillä on heidän elämässään. Vastausten perusteella voidaan todeta, että englannin kielen arvostetuimmat ja merkittävimmät puolet tutkittaville ovat sen tarjoamat mahdollisuudet ja työhön liittyvät seikat, mikä viittaa hyödyn ajatteluun. Toiseksi yleisimmin kieli liitettiin kommunikointiin ja kulttuuriin. Näissä kahdessa kategoriassa ei ollut kovinkaan suurta eroa maiden välillä. Mielenkiintoinen ero maiden välillä löytyy negatiivisten tunteiden tai oman

Appendix 4

osaamisen puutteiden esiin tuomisesta; suomalaisista tutkittavista seitsemän mainitsi jotakin negatiivisuuteen tai osaamattomuuteen liittyvää, kun taas chileläisistä ei yksikään. Toinen ero löytyi vapaa-ajan ja viihteen mainitsemisesta; suomalaisille näiden mainitseminen oli yleistä, chileläisille puolestaan ei.

Lopuksi

Tämä tutkimus pyrki selvittämään yhteyttä englannin kielen opiskelijoiden ja opettajien kieli-identiteetin ja kielellisen kyvykkyyden välillä sekä eri kulttuuriympäristöjen vaikutusta näihin kahteen yksilölliseen ominaisuuteen. Tutkimus osoitti opettajien identifioituvan oppilaita vahvemmin englannin kieleen ja chileläisten suomalaisia vahvemmin englannin kieleen. Suomalaiset puolestaan olivat kielellisesti kyvykkäämpiä kuin chileläiset ja Suomessa opettajat olivat kielellisesti kyvykkäämpiä kuin oppilaat. Kieli-identiteetin ja kielellisen kyvykkyyden väliltä ei löytynyt korrelaatiota koko ryhmää tarkasteltaessa, mutta suomalaisten kohdalla korrelaatio oli tilastollisesti merkittävä. Tulokset osoittavat, että kieli-identiteetin ja kielellisen kyvykkyyden välillä on yhteys, ja siihen vaikuttaa oppimisympäristö sekä oppijan kotimaan kulttuuri. Yhteyttä tulisi tutkia tulevaisuudessa lisää eri kulttuurien välillä ja isommilla tutkimusryhmillä, jotta voitaisiin saada yleistettävämpiä tuloksia, ja mahdollisesti kehittää tulevaisuuden opetusta kieli-identiteetin rakentumista tukevaksi.