The Relationship between Motivation and Written Performance in English as a Second Language: A Quantitative Study of Finnish Upper Secondary School Students

Oona Nurmi
MA thesis
English, Language Learning and Teaching Path
School of Languages and Translation Studies
Faculty of Humanities
University of Turku
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Learning a second language is a sum of different variables. One of the variables affecting language learning is motivation. The present study was concerned with the relationship between motivation to learn English and the quality of writing in English. Motivation in second language learning has been studied quite extensively but in addition to studying motivation itself, it is also crucial to examine its relationship with actual language proficiency. Thus, the aim of the present study was to shed more light on the relationship between motivation to learn a second language and the actual proficiency of language learners.

There were 57 participants and they were Finnish upper secondary school students, aged from 17 to 18. As a part of the study, they filled in a questionnaire with 45 statements about their motivation to learn English and wrote a text in English, approximately 150–250 words in length. The motivation questionnaire included five different categories based on Zoltán Dörnyei’s L2 Motivational Self System, and the scores from those categories were compared with the scores from the written text. The motivation questionnaire consisted of statements regarding the participants’ motivation and they were answered on a Likert scale from 1 to 6 (1 = completely disagree and 6 = completely agree). As for the assessment of the texts, a scale to evaluate texts written in a foreign language by the Matriculation Examination Board was used as a basis for scoring the texts. It was found that the categories in which the motivation to learn English comes from within the learner, rather than from outside them (e.g. from parents), had a more positive relationship with the quality of writing. A positive learning experience was also found to have a positive relationship with writing quality. In conclusion, by understanding motivation and how it relates to language proficiency, we can learn how to teach languages more effectively.

KEYWORDS: second language learning, L2 motivation, L2 writing, L2 motivational self system
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List of abbreviations

CEFR Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
EFL English as a foreign language
ESL English as a second language
L1 First language
L2 Second language
L2MSS L2 Motivational Self System
SLA Second language acquisition
TL Target language
1 Introduction

Learning a second language, commonly referred to as an L2, is a complex process which is influenced by many different factors. For example, individual differences among language learners can affect the outcome of their L2 learning (see Dörnyei 2005; Pietilä 2014). One of the most prominent of said individual differences is motivation – how motivated and willing is the L2 learner to learn the target language? Can a person learn a language at all if they have little motivation to do so? The focus of the present study is on the relationship between L2 learners’ motivation to learn the target language and their L2 writing skills. More precisely, the study is focused on Finnish upper secondary school students’ motivation to learn English and the relationship it might have with their quality of writing in English. It is essential to consider the relationship between L2 motivation and actual language proficiency since it could be helpful in developing language teaching. The reason why writing, out of the four basic language skills (i.e. reading, writing, speaking, listening), was chosen is the fact that there seemed to be little research conducted on the relationship between motivation and L2 writing. Additionally, it was the most convenient choice for a study with limited resources since writing can be quite easily measured compared to, for example, reading.

However, before going into the actual study and the theory that it is based on, some key terms in second language acquisition (SLA) research are introduced here. Some researchers differentiate between acquiring and learning a second language, even though the differentiation is not very widely used nowadays (Ortega 2009, 5). When talking about acquiring an L2, it usually refers to a natural learning environment, for example an immigrant acquiring the language of their new country in their everyday life. On the contrary, learning an L2 is more systematic and usually takes place in a classroom setting. These are also referred to as naturalistic learners and instructed learners (Ortega 2009, 6). The aim of both naturalistic and instructed L2 learners is to learn their target language (TL). Target language refers to the language, the L2, which the learner is trying to learn – or in other words, it is their target to learn that L2. Lastly, in addition to second language, first language (L1) is a central term in SLA research. L1 refers to the language learner’s mother tongue, or first language.

The focus of the present study will be on instructed learners since the participants’ L2 learning has taken place in a classroom setting. Although, learners in Finland do encounter English quite often outside the classroom as well (e.g. hearing it on television, using the internet, and listening to music) which means that they have most likely learnt, for example, some vocabulary or fixed phrases during their free time. There were 57 participants in the
present study, all of whom were Finnish upper secondary school students. They filled out a questionnaire about their motivation to learn English after which they wrote a short text (150–250 words) in English. The questionnaires and texts were then scored on particular scales (see section 3 of the present study) and the scores were compared to examine the relationship between the motivation to learn an L2 and L2 writing.

The present study was conducted to further understand the relationship between motivation and L2 proficiency. The aim of the present study is to answer the following questions:

1. Is there a relationship between the level of motivation to learn English and the quality of writing in English?
2. Is there a relationship between the type of motivation and the quality of writing in English?
3. If there is a relationship between motivation and the quality of writing in English, what type of a relationship is it?

The journey of finding answers to these questions begins with the theoretical framework, which will be introduced in section 2. Individual differences among second language learners will be briefly explored, after which the focus will be on motivation in second language learning. After examining L2 motivation in general, the *L2 Motivational Self System*, developed by Dörnyei (2009), will be examined in detail and it will serve as the main component of the motivational aspect in the present study. Writing in second language learning will also be considered in the theoretical framework since it is the other variable under scrutiny in the present study. In addition, assessing L2 writing will also be discussed as a part of the theoretical section.

In section 3, the present study will be introduced. This includes examining the research questions more thoroughly, introducing the participants of the study and the questionnaire used to collect the data, and the actual process of data collection and analysis. The results and findings of the present study will be presented in section 4. The results will be discussed in section 5 and the limitations of the study will also be acknowledged at that point. Finally, the present study will be concluded in section 6 along with suggestions for future research in the field of L2 motivation research.
2 Theoretical framework

In this section, the theoretical framework for the present study will be introduced and discussed. First, the focus will be on individual differences in second language learning. All of the individual differences that have been studied in the field of second language learning will not be discussed, but the most important ones will be introduced. The ones that were chosen to be introduced are individual differences that were most written about in the sources. The effect of these differences on L2 learning will also be looked into briefly. Individual differences are relevant to the present study not only because motivation is one of them but because some background information of differences among L2 learners in general is needed for the framework of the study to fully understand the results in later sections.

Second, the focus will shift to the significance of motivation in L2 learning. The most prominent theories of motivation related to L2 learning will be introduced, after which the focus will be on the \textit{L2 Motivational Self System} in its very own subsection. Last, writing skills in L2 learning will be examined since that is the language skill in focus in the present study. In addition to L2 writing skills in general, the assessment of L2 writing will be discussed. Motivation and L2 writing are both the main focus of the present study which is why the theoretical framework will be mostly focused on them. The assessment of L2 writing is necessary for the purposes of assessing and analysing the written tasks of the participants of the present study.

As a side note, when previous research is introduced in the theoretical framework, the methods (e.g. a questionnaire) and participants (e.g. their age) will be explained to some extent. The reason for this is the possibility of making comparisons between the methods and participants of previous research and the present study.

2.1 Individual differences in second language learning

There are some individual differences between language learners that, to some extent, affect their success in learning a second language. Such individual differences include, among others, language aptitude, learning styles, various personality traits, and motivation. Since motivation is a central aspect in the present study, it will be discussed more thoroughly in section 2.2. In addition to motivation, other individual differences might also be factors in the results of the
present study, which is why they are discussed here, even though their effects on L2 writing are not explicitly studied.

Language aptitude is usually described as the ability or talent to learn languages (Dörnyei 2005, 33). It has been debated whether language aptitude is the result of innate abilities, or the influence of the early childhood environment (i.e. often the first three years of a person’s life) (Dörnyei 2005, 45; see also Robinson 2012; Skehan 2012). According to Pietilä (2014, 49), previous research suggests that language aptitude is innate, however, she adds that this is not to say that a person with no language aptitude is unable to learn a language. On the other hand, some say that there is no such thing as language aptitude (Dörnyei 2005, 33–34). Dörnyei (ibid.) suggests that what is viewed as aptitude, is in fact a mixture of different cognitive factors (e.g. working memory, phonological coding/decoding) that comprise the learner’s overall capacity to master a foreign language. Even though the innateness of language aptitude remains under debate today, there is no need to explore it in depth for the purposes of the present study.

In addition to language aptitude, learners can have different learning styles. Dörnyei (2005, 121) defines learning styles as “a profile of the individual’s approach to learning, a blueprint of the habitual or preferred way the individual perceives, interacts with, and responds to the learning environment”. In other words, it relates to how learners view different structures of the language they are trying to learn, and how they best learn that language. Sensory preferences are possibly the best-known aspect of learning styles. These include visual learners, auditory learners, and haptic learners. Visual learners learn best with their sight, and they often prefer reading tasks and visually pleasing notes in which different colours have been used (Dörnyei 2005, 140). Visual learners also tend to benefit from reading and seeing a text in the target language (TL) (Pietilä 2014, 61). Auditory learners, on the other hand, learn best by listening which is why they might prefer lectures, discussions, and doing group work (Dörnyei 2005, 140; Pietilä 2014, 61). Haptic learners include both kinesthetic and tactile learners which are almost synonymous but not quite, since kinesthetic learners like to learn “through complete body experience” while tactile learners learn best with touching things (Dörnyei 2005, 140).

In addition to sensory preferences, there are other aspects to learning styles as well. For example, deductive and inductive learners have different approaches to language learning (Pietilä 2014, 62). A deductive learner begins with the rule and moves on to examples after that, while an inductive learner begins with the examples and concludes the rule from the examples (ibid.). In conclusion, every language learner has their own learning style, but they will have to try out different styles, especially in classroom settings where the teacher may vary between
various styles (ibid.). Depending on which styles the language teacher chooses to use in the classroom, students’ L2 skills may develop at different paces.

The last of individual differences introduced in this section, various personality traits may also be factors in second language learning. Personality has been defined as a collection of different attributes and consistent patterns of behaviour that make a person unique (Dörnyei 2005, 11). Attributes that are usually considered in research that focuses on second language acquisition (SLA) and personality include, for example, openness to experience, extraversion–introversion, and neuroticism–emotional stability (Dörnyei 2005, 15–20). Openness to experience means that the L2 learner is curious, imaginative, and untraditional which suggests that they are open to new experiences in general (ibid.). Learners who are open-minded about new experiences are most likely extraverted people, who are social and like to engage in conversations, while at the other end of the extraversion–introversion continuum introverted people are usually more reserved and quiet (ibid.). In addition to these, neurotic learners are described as anxious, self-conscious, and unstable, while emotionally stable learners are calm, comfortable, and self-satisfied (ibid.).

According to Dörnyei (2005, 30), researchers have not been able to demonstrate a strong link between personality traits and learning outcomes in second language learning. However, some links between certain personality traits and success in L2 learning have been established (Pietilä 2014, 54–55). One of such traits is the extraversion–introversion continuum. Extraverted people are social and impulsive which often leads to them getting into situations in which they can practice their language skills, which in turn might improve their communication skills over those of introverted people (ibid.). On the other hand, introverted people are often more successful in linguistic and academic tasks because they are more resilient as learners and have better memorisation skills. However, the proof of introverts’ superiority in academic tasks is not as strong as the proof of extraverts’ success in communication (ibid.).

These three individual differences (language aptitude, learning styles, and personality traits) and their effect on L2 learning have been under a lot of research and discussion but the results are varied (see for example Robinson 2012; Li 2017; Keblowska 2012). It should be kept in mind that even though the present study focuses on the relationship between motivation and L2 writing, other individual differences might have affected the learners’ writing or motivation as well.
2.2 Motivation in second language learning

In terms of the present study, motivation is the most central one of the individual differences discussed in section 2.1. Even more specifically, the focus in the present study is on motivation to learn English. However, motivation to learn any L2 will be discussed in this section and the motivation to learn English specifically will be addressed sections 3, 4 and 5.

There are differences when comparing the role of motivation in learning a first versus a second language. In fact, conscious effort for motivation is an aspect that is not present in acquiring one’s first language (L1) since children are simply living normally and learning their L1 in the process (Gardner 2010, 1), which is not exactly true for L2 learning. Skehan (1989, 49) notes that motivation is a rather powerful factor in language learning in that it can help overcome other unfavourable circumstances (e.g. the lack of language aptitude which was discussed earlier), all the while acknowledging the fact that motivation itself is a complex feature and the demonstration of the effects of motivation can be quite difficult. In other words, it might be a difficult task to prove that it is motivation and not some other factor that has influenced certain learning outcomes.

In addition to the present study, a good amount of research has been conducted on the effects of motivation on L2 learning. However, the history of L2 motivation research is something that deserves a closer look before going more deeply into what motivation is in reality and how it can affect L2 learning. Boo, Dörnyei and Ryan (2015, 146) have divided the history of L2 motivation research into three different periods. The first period extends from the beginning of L2 motivation research in the late 1950s–early 1960s until the 1990s during which a social-psychological perspective was in use (Boo, Dörnyei and Ryan 2015, 146; Al-Hoorie 2017, 1). During this time, Gardner’s (1985) Socio-Educational Model was used extensively. Al-Hoorie (2017, 1) also explains that the basis of the social-psychological perspective was “the assumption that learning an L2 is different from other school subjects because L2 learning additionally requires openness to the L2 group and willingness to adopt features from it”.

The second period is seen in the 1990s when the focus started shifting away from the social-psychological perspective into more contemporary cognitive and educational psychology (Boo, Dörnyei and Ryan 2015, 146). In this period, the basis for Dörnyei’s (2009) L2 Motivational Self System is laid as L2 motivation research begins the shift from viewing motivation as a static feature to motivation as a dynamic feature (Al-Hoorie 2017, 2). Thus, the third and, according to Boo, Dörnyei and Ryan (2015, 146), the current period focuses on the contextual and dynamic nature of motivation. This means that motivation changes over time.
within the learner instead of constantly being in a static state. Boo, Dörnyei and Ryan (2015, 148) also found a significant rise in L2 motivation research from 2005 to 2014. This is an indication that researchers have shown an increasing interest in this area of L2 research in the past decade.

The traditional definition of motivation itself includes four different features: a goal, effortful behaviour, desire to reach the goal, and favourable attitudes (Gardner 1985, 50). However, the goal is seen simply as a stimulus for motivation while the other three features influence the actual motivation to learn a second language (ibid.). For example, a learner’s goal could be the ability to speak English on a native-like level, which sparks the motivation to learn English (i.e. it is the stimulus for motivation). After the initial spark, the learner’s efforts, desire, and attitudes towards learning to speak native-like English define their level of motivation. An important factor here is the level of what Gardner (1985, 53) calls motivational intensity. The level of motivational intensity is analysed by the amount of effort the learner puts, or would be willing to put, into learning a new language. In addition, an L2 learner with high motivational intensity usually has a desire to learn the language instead of being purely motivated by an exam, for example (ibid.). In other words, the learner is actually interested in knowing a language for the sake of knowing it rather than just to pass a language exam.

The level of motivation is not the only determining factor in learning a second language since the type of motivation can also influence the learner’s language learning process. One division has been made between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation comes from within the language learner, that is to say the learner themselves wants to learn the target language simply because they enjoy it (Ortega 2009, 176). In contrast, extrinsic motivation comes from outside the L2 learner (ibid.). For example, the learner is studying a language because someone else (e.g. a parent) wants them to be fluent in it, or because knowing an additional language will help them advance in their career. Among researchers it is, at least to some extent, agreed that in terms of second language learning, intrinsic motivation most often leads to a higher level of achievement than extrinsic motivation (ibid.). However, this does not mean that L2 learners possessing extrinsic motivation are necessarily unsuccessful language learners, they are simply motivated in different ways. Additionally, closely related to intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are integrative and instrumental motivation, which will be discussed in more detail in section 2.2.1.
2.2.1 Integrative and instrumental motivation

In addition to intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, a division between integrative and instrumental motivation is also in use among L2 motivation research. They are discussed here, in their own section, due to the fact that they are a part of the questionnaire used in the present study which is why they need to be thoroughly understood. Based on the definitions used in the Socio-Educational Model by Gardner (1985, 51–52), integrative motivation is related to the L2 learner’s desire to be a part of the culture in which the target language is used. The learner wants to communicate with people of that culture and integrate into it by acquiring the language. For example, if a person moves to a foreign country and they wish to integrate into the local culture, they might possess integrative motivation to learn the official language of that country – that is if they do not know the language yet.

In contrast, instrumental motivation means that the L2 learner is studying the language to achieve a goal other than integrating into the culture of the target language (ibid.). For example, in addition to Finnish, Swedish is an official language in Finland. It is mandatory to study Swedish from comprehensive school until university which might result in situations where people study Swedish only to pass their mandatory Swedish courses, but they cannot, in reality, use the language. In a way this might be viewed as instrumental motivation since learning Swedish is helping the learner to get their degree. However, since it is mandatory to study Swedish, it is not exactly instrumental motivation if the learner has no other option. On the contrary, if the learner decides to study Swedish on their own in order to get a job that requires knowledge of the Swedish language, that can be considered as instrumental motivation. In addition, Gardner (1985, 52) points out several studies that make note of the fact that “the classification of reasons as integrative or instrumental is ambiguous, since whether a particular reason falls into either category could depend upon the interpretation put on it by the individual selecting it” (ibid.). That is to say, the categorisation of the reasons to learn a language is highly subjective, much like motivation itself.

The definitions for integrative and intrinsic motivation, as well as instrumental and extrinsic motivation, can be viewed as having many similarities – yet they are not quite synonymous. The examination of the definitions provided for the aforementioned terms will show that there are slight differences. Integrative motivation contains the notion of the L2 learner wanting to be a part of the TL speaking group, while intrinsically motivated learners are seen as getting pleasure simply from learning the language for the sake of learning it. For example, person A learns English because they want to be included in the culture of English-
speaking people, and person B learns English because they enjoy the process of learning a language. In this scenario, person A possesses integrative motivation while person B is intrinsically motivated.

Instrumental and extrinsic motivation, on the other hand, seem to be more closely related than integrative and intrinsic motivation. They both include the fact that the L2 learner is learning the language to achieve a goal that is not directly related to the language itself. However, the definition of extrinsic motivation suggests that the motivation to learn a language might come from outside the learner, while in the definition of instrumental motivation, the reasons for learning a language still come from the learner themselves. For example, person C learns English because that is what their parents and friends expect, and person D learns English to be eligible for promotions at work. Here, person C is extrinsically motivated since the idea to learn English comes from outside the learner, while person D possesses instrumental motivation. However, person D could also be extrinsically motivated since these two categories seem to be quite difficult to differentiate from one another.

Mady (2015) has studied immigrants and Canadian-born people in French immersion programmes, and her study also included examining the effect of integrative and instrumental motivation on the L2 learners’ achievement. The focus of Mady’s (2015) study is more on the participants’ cultural background compared to the present study. However, it is useful to see how integrative and instrumental motivation might influence L2 achievement, even if the focus of the study is different. Mady (2015, 303) used a questionnaire to determine the participants’ motivation and attitudes towards learning French, and a language test (Diplôme d’études en langue française, i.e. DELF) to test their French skills in listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The participants were Canadian-born English/French bilingual speakers, Canadian-born multilingual speakers (i.e. children of immigrants), and multilingual immigrants. Each group had 30 participants and they were Grade 6 French immersion students, thus they were approximately 11 years old. The number of participants in each group seems to be quite low, which might discourage making any generalisations of the findings.

Mady (2015, 306) found that the immigrant group had higher integrative motivation than either of the Canadian-born groups, and a higher instrumental motivation than the Canadian-born bilingual group. In other words, the immigrant group seemed to be the most motivated to learn French, while the Canadian-born bilingual group showed the least amount of motivation towards learning French. Based on these results it could be hypothesised that the participants in the present study might have similar results to the Canadian-born bilingual group. This is based on the fact that the participants in the present study are Finnish-born
students who have studied an L2 for several years. However, they are not compared to immigrants in Finland which means that the results will not be straightforwardly comparable with Mady’s (2015) results. Mady (ibid.) also states that integrative motivation seemed to act as a predictor of the test results, since it appears that listening achievement actually decreased when integrative motivation increased. This finding seems rather unusual since it could be expected that highly motivated L2 learners would achieve better results. However, the level of motivation did not seem to act as a predictor to any of the remaining language skills, which might mean that there was no significant relationship between integrative or instrumental motivation and L2 achievement among the participants.

Integrative and instrumental motivation together with intrinsic and extrinsic motivation have been studied by Soureshjani and Naseri (2011). They studied the relationship between these types of motivation and lexical knowledge among Persian EFL (English as a foreign language) learners. Their study included 360 Persian EFL learners studying at three different language institutes in Iran, and the average age of the participants was 20 years. The study contained separate questionnaires for intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and integrative and instrumental motivation (Soureshjani and Naseri 2011, 664). They also used a vocabulary depth test to gain information about the vocabulary knowledge of the participants. The results of Soureshjani and Naseri’s (2011, 666) study revealed a weak positive relationship between the participants’ motivation and the depth of their vocabulary. In other words, not a very significant relationship between motivation and vocabulary depth was found. They also found that the mean score for instrumental motivation was the highest and that of intrinsic motivation was the lowest among the participants of the study (Soureshjani and Naseri 2011, 665). Even though intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are not included in the present study, it is interesting to see how the results of integrative and instrumental motivation compare to the components of L2 Motivational Self System, which will be discussed in section 2.3, and whether they are similar to Soureshjani and Naseri’s (2011) findings.

The findings of Soureshjani and Naseri’s (2011) study might be considered somewhat surprising. As they themselves state, in contrast to the results of their study, a number of researchers have reported a stronger positive relationship between motivation and various aspects of L2 learning (Soureshjani and Naseri 2011, 666). Hernández (2006) is among such researchers with his study on integrative and instrumental motivation in an intermediate-level foreign language classroom. The participants of his study were North American university students attending an intermediate-level Spanish language course, and there were 130 of them. The participants completed a questionnaire on their motivation, both integrative and
In addition to the questionnaire, the participants recorded themselves on tape answering questions in Spanish.

Hernández (2006, 608) reports that the participants of his study showed a higher level of integrative motivation compared to their level of instrumental motivation. He had divided the scores in both categories to reflect low, moderate, and high levels of motivation, and states that 20.0% of the participants had a low score in integrative motivation while 33.1% had a low score in instrumental motivation (ibid.). The recordings of the participants’ oral proficiency showed that most of them, 55.5% to be exact, were categorised as ‘intermediate low’ (Hernández 2006, 609). The results of Hernández’s (2006, 610) study demonstrate that participants with a higher score in integrative motivation tended to score high on the oral proficiency test as well. However, high scores in instrumental motivation did not have a significant correlation with high scores in oral proficiency (ibid.). Thus, based on Hernández’s (2006) findings, it seems that integrative motivation might be more effective than instrumental motivation when it comes to actual L2 proficiency. These results might be used to hypothesise that integrative motivation might result in higher achievement in the present study as well. Although, it must be kept in mind that Hernández (2006) measured L2 oral proficiency while my study is focused on L2 written proficiency.

Some studies examining integrative and instrumental motivation have been introduced in this section, and they have had differing findings about the importance of motivation in terms of L2 proficiency. Mady (2015) found that integrative motivation actually had a negative correlation to listening skills, while Soureshjani and Naseri (2011) discovered that there was a very weak positive correlation between motivation and vocabulary depth. In contrast to Mady’s (2015) findings, Hernández (2006) discovered a positive correlation between integrative motivation and L2 oral proficiency. In a way, these different findings represent the difficulty of motivation research and the dynamic nature of motivation: people’s motivation towards L2 learning is ever-changing, and it is difficult to study something so subjective, which might lead to a vast variety of results in L2 motivation studies. However, the setting in which L2 learning takes place could also affect the learners’ motivation – this will be explored in the next section.
2.2.2 Motivation in a classroom setting

Since the setting for the present study is a school environment, motivation in the language classroom context will be discussed in this section. By doing this, it is easier to understand how a classroom learning environment might affect the L2 learners’ learning process and achievements. Bernaus (2010, 183) states that students beginning to learn a new language might have initial excitement which is, in some cases, likely to fade when they discover that learning a new language is quite demanding. On the other hand, students might also be more motivated to learn after discovering they are good at something – this is what happened for me personally when I started learning English at school.

Learning a second language in a classroom setting usually means that some of the students are there simply because it is compulsory (ibid.). This is most likely true for the present study as well since English is studied by the majority of students (Statistics Finland 2017a) at upper secondary school in Finland and it is often the only foreign language offered by schools. However, other students might have actual goals in terms of L2 learning (e.g. becoming bilingual) even if some students do not have such goals (Bernaus 2010, 183). These differences between students might also cause differences in their levels of motivation towards learning an L2. In other words, it is more likely that students who have actual goals in their L2 learning are more motivated than students who are learning an L2 only because it is compulsory. After all, as mentioned earlier, a goal in language learning is a spark for motivation (Gardner 1985, 50).

In a classroom setting, there are several factors beyond the teacher’s control affecting the students’ motivation and their commitment to studying the L2, for example home background, health, and personality (Bernaus 2010, 183). For instance, a student might be unmotivated during language classes because of poor living conditions at home, troubles with physical or mental health, or simply because of their personality. In other words, they might have more important problems in their life than learning an L2 which leads to them being unmotivated during classes. Personality as a factor in L2 learning was discussed in section 2.1, but it might have an influence on motivation as well. In addition to affecting the learners’ motivation, these factors might also have an influence on, among others, their overall energy and ability to concentrate. Even though these factors are not the focus of the present study, they must be acknowledged as well by keeping in mind that motivation is a sum of multiple different factors in the language learner’s life.

However, the language teacher’s own behaviour in the classroom is a factor that might influence the students’ motivation and it is something that the teacher does have control over
(Bernaus 2010, 181). At the centre of this classroom behaviour is the relationship between the teacher and the students which is easily influenced by the teacher’s personal qualities (e.g. commitment, trustworthiness and competence) (Bernaus 2010, 185). Crisfield and White (2012, 218) state that teachers do have some impact on their students’ motivation but they are often struggling with how to improve the motivation of L2 learners. In their study, Crisfield and White (2012, 227) found that the more useful students find a course to be, the more interested they are in learning. This suggests that teachers should try to keep the contents of their teaching as relevant as possible in order to keep the students motivated. However, the views on what is relevant and useful can be quite subjective: some language learners might consider grammar the most relevant aspect while others may think that being able to get the message across, perhaps even ungrammatically, is more important. That is why, in my opinion, teachers should provide explanations as to why certain aspects are studied in a language classroom in order for the learners to understand why they are important.

In addition to the content of a language class, according to Bernaus (ibid.), there are several things teachers can do to create a good relationship with their students and maintain a positive learning atmosphere in the classroom. First, the teacher must not act superior to the students, and should genuinely trust and accept the students as individuals. Second, the teacher should maintain open communication with the students and act as a leader in the classroom. Third, the teacher should always address students by their name and talk about some personal things as well. Last, the teacher should provide constructive feedback while also offering options and choices of different learning tasks. The teacher’s influence on the L2 learning environment and experience is the reason why a few statements about the teacher and the classroom environment are included in the questionnaire used in the present study. The L2 learning experience will be explained in more detail alongside the L2 Motivational Self System in section 2.3.

Considering motivation in a classroom setting, Gardner et al. (2004) have reported on changes in integrative motivation during a year-long language course of intermediate level. Their study included 197 university students who were studying French as a second language, and most of them had originally began studying French in the fourth grade. Gardner et al. (2004, 12) also used the AMTB (Attitude/Motivation Test Battery) measures in their study to examine the participants’ attitudes and motivation towards learning French. The participants were tested six times during the language course and the AMTB was used on the first and the last time. The second, third, fourth, and fifth tests included only six questions on the participants’ motivation and anxiety during the language course. The participants’ language achievement was
determined by their grades, which were based on various exams and tests, attendance in class, a written composition, language laboratory, and computer laboratory (Gardner et al. 2004, 16).

The results of Gardner et al.’s (2004, 19) study suggest that in the span of a year, the participants’ French class anxiety, French teacher evaluation, French course evaluation, and motivational intensity changed significantly. Gardner et al. (ibid.) state that the changes seen in these categories could indicate a meaningful shift in the participants’ motivation, anxiety, or attitudes in the French classroom. The participants’ attitudes towards the French teacher were found to have no relationship with their attitudes towards the course, however, attitudes towards the teacher did have a relationship with interest in foreign languages (Gardner et al. 2004, 20). What is more, Gardner et al. (2004, 24) discovered that the participants who received a grade of B or lower had a significant decrease in French course evaluation and attitudes towards learning French, which was not true for participants who received an A as their grade. However, when examining the answers from the tests between the first and the last AMTB, it was found that the participants’ motivation during answering those questions did not significantly change, while their anxiety levels did indicate some change depending on how close the final exam was, for example (Gardner et al. 2004, 27). In spite of this, in my opinion, the results of Gardner et al.’s (2004) study could be seen as an indication that the language classroom setting and the teacher does, in fact, influence the L2 learners’ motivation and attitudes towards learning an L2.

All in all, motivation in a classroom setting can be influenced by many different factors: the teacher, the students’ backgrounds, or the content of the course. It is important to note this since, as has been stated previously, the setting of the present study is a language classroom as well. Even though the setting itself is not the focus of the present study, it can be seen as influencing the L2 learners’ motivation to learn the language.

2.3 The L2 Motivational Self System

The most contemporary motivation theory is Dörnyei’s (2009) L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS). In this section, the roots of L2MSS will be briefly explored after which the theory itself will be introduced, along with relevant research. The theory is based on previous L2 motivational theories and concepts, and a psychological ‘self’ framework (Dörnyei 2009, 9). It is the inclusion of this psychological aspect of self which, according to Dörnyei (ibid.), separates L2MSS from previous theories about motivation. In addition, one of the reasons
L2MSS was created, was the growing dissatisfaction with the integrative motive to learn a language (Dörnyei 2009, 22).

Central aspects of Dörnyei’s theory are based on possible selves and future self-guides, both of which are concepts from the field of psychology. Markus and Nurius (1986, 954) introduced the concept of possible selves, which they describe as being derived “from representations of the self in the past and they include representations of the self in the future”. In other words, possible selves are people’s ideas about what they might become, what they would like to become, and what they are afraid of becoming (Dörnyei 2009, 11). A person’s ideas about what they might become are considered as the expected or likely possible selves. What a person would like to become and what they are afraid of becoming are two extreme ends of the spectrum and probably less likely to become reality (Dörnyei 2009, 12).

In contrast to possible selves, future self-guides, as their name already suggests, have more of a guiding nature. Future self-guides include two different concepts: the ideal self and the ought-to self (Dörnyei 2009, 13–14). The ideal self represents the characteristics a person would ideally want to possess, and the ought-to self represents the characteristics a person believes they should possess (ibid.). Generally, the ideal self has been interpreted as a person’s own vision for their future and the ought-to self as someone else’s vision for them (ibid.). However, there are some problems with the future self-guides as well. Since people are social creatures, they are affected by social norms most of the time. As a result, in terms of the ideal self, it can be difficult to differentiate whether a person’s ideals truly come from themselves, or if they are a result of social norms or peer pressure (ibid.).

Based on the concepts of possible selves and future self-guides, Dörnyei (2009, 29) created the three main components of L2MSS: the ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self, and the L2 learning experience. These concepts have been defined by Dörnyei:

(1) **Ideal L2 Self**, which is the L2-specific facet of one’s ‘ideal self’: if the person we would like to become speaks an L2, the ‘ideal L2 self’ is a powerful motivator to learn the L2 because of the desire to reduce the discrepancy between our actual and ideal selves. Traditional integrative and internalised instrumental motives would typically belong to this component.

(2) **Ought-to L2 Self**, which concerns the attributes that one believes one ought to possess to meet expectations and to avoid possible negative outcomes. This dimension corresponds to Higgins’s ought self and thus to the more extrinsic (i.e. less internalised) types of instrumental motives.

(3) **L2 Learning Experience**, which concerns situated, ‘executive’ motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience (e.g. the impact of the teacher, the curriculum, the peer group, the experience of success). This component is conceptualised at a different level from the two self-guides and future research will
hopefully elaborate on the self aspects of this bottom-up process. (Dörnyei 2009, 29)

In other words, the ideal L2 self is a learner’s ideal view of themselves which is driven by their own motivation to learn a language. The ought-to L2 self is the learner’s view of how they should be and it is mainly driven by the expectations of others. Then, the L2 learning experience refers to the learning environment and experience in general, for example, the quality of a language course (Dörnyei and Chan 2013, 438). Thus, it can be concluded that the learning experience can be either positive, negative, or neutral, depending on the learner’s experience of the L2 learning situation.

Possible selves and future self-guides, the psychology-related basis for L2MSS, are referred to as a *dynamic self-concept* by Henry (2015, 89). Examining the idea of possible selves being highly dynamic in their nature helps in understanding L2MSS better. Henry (2015, 86) suggests that people’s “ability to construct and […] maintain a possible self is likely to change”. These changes in possible selves can happen either during shorter or longer periods of time, and the changes occur through self-perception, social comparison, and self-appraisal (Henry 2015, 89). Social comparison might be especially noticeable in a classroom setting since students easily compare their success to the success of others. The L2 learner being aware of the distance between an actual self and an ideal self is one of the reasons possible selves might change over time (Henry 2015, 86). In other words, possible selves are altered depending on how likely the learner’s ideal L2 self seems. According to Henry (2015, 87), the reassessment can be either upward or downward: positive L2 learning experiences may lead to the enhancement of the ideal L2 self, while negative experiences may cause the adjustment of the ideal L2 self to be closer to the actual self. What is more, negative L2 learning experiences might even have a stronger effect on the motivation to learn the target language than positive learning experiences (ibid.).

The ideal L2 self and the ought-to L2 self seem to have many similarities with intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Both the ideal L2 self and intrinsic motivation are defined as motivation that comes from within the learner, while the ought-to L2 self and extrinsic motivation are seen as products of outside expectations. As stated before, even though the growing dissatisfaction with integrativeness in L2 motivation studies was one of the reasons that led to the creation of L2MSS (Dörnyei 2009, 22), there are similarities between these two concepts as well. In fact, according to Dörnyei (2009, 30), “Gardner’s motivation construct suggests, in effect, that motivated behaviour is determined by three major motivational
dimensions, Integrativeness, Instrumentality, and Attitudes toward the learning situation”. These three dimensions are quite closely related to the ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self, and the L2 learning experience, respectively.

Several studies utilising the L2 Motivational Self System have been conducted, for example Moskovsky et al.’s (2016) research on the relationship between L2MSS and L2 achievement. Their subjects were Saudi Arabian university students majoring in English, and they studied the relationship between the subjects’ motivation and their reading and writing skills in English. The study included 360 participants, 62.5% of whom were male and 37.5% female. The participants were aged from 19 to 31 and they were in their second year or higher at university. All of them were native Arabic speakers and had learned English for 6 years in high school before attending university. The study was conducted using a questionnaire regarding the subjects’ motivation, and a language proficiency test. The questionnaire featured aspects of L2MSS: the ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self, the L2 learning experience, and intended learning efforts (ILEs).

The results of Moskovsky et al.’s (2016) study suggested that high levels of the ideal L2 self and the ought-to L2 self, in addition to positive L2 learning experiences, related to high intended learning efforts. They also state that “the effect of the ideal L2 self was higher on the PL2LE [positive L2 learning experience], ILB [intended learning behaviour], and ILE than that of the ought-to L2 self, which confirms the supremacy of the ideal L2 self over the other L2MSS components” (Moskovsky et al. 2016, 649). That is, the ideal L2 self seems to have a greater effect on positive learning experience and intended learning behaviour and efforts than the ought-to L2 self does. As for the proficiency of the subjects, the results indicate that L2 learners with low ideal L2 selves, low PL2LE, and low ILEs would be more likely to score higher on L2 proficiency tasks (ibid.), which is quite a surprising result. Moskovsky et al.’s (2016) results seem rather contradictory. These results seem rather contradictory: how can the ideal L2 self have more influence on positive learning experience, ILB, and ILEs but participants with low ideal L2 selves seemed to be more proficient in English? Not much research has been conducted on how the L2MSS self-guides affect actual L2 achievement (Moskovsky et al. 2016, 650), which is one of the reasons the present study is relevant.

Partly supporting Moskovsky et al.’s (2016) findings, Dörnyei and Chan (2013, 439) summarise that previous motivation studies that have used L2MSS as a theoretical basis have found that particularly the ideal L2 self is “a strong predictor of various criterion measures related to language learning, playing a substantive role in determining motivated behavior”. In other words, learners with strong ideal L2 selves are often more motivated to learn an L2. One
example of this is Yang and Kim’s (2011, 141) study, which found that the ideal L2 self was the only meaningful factor of L2MSS in predicting L2 students’ motivated behaviour. However, Lamb (2012) had slightly differing results when he studied students’ motivation to learn English in rural and urban settings. He discovered that a positive L2 learning experience was the strongest predictor of both L2 proficiency and motivated learning behaviour, while the ideal L2 self was significant only in the urban group of participants (Lamb 2012, 997). Lamb’s (2012) study also differed from the studies mentioned before in its participants: they were 13–14-year-olds while the participants in the other aforementioned studies were university students. It is worth considering if age might have had an effect on the differing results.

Vuorinen (2018) has studied the motivation, and attitudes, towards studying English among Finnish middle school and upper secondary school students – she also utilised L2MSS in that study. In her study, she compares these two learner groups and whether or not there are differences in their motivation to study English. In contrast to the present study, the participants’ language skills were not measured in any area. Vuorinen (2018) utilised the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) to determine how motivated the participants were to study English. In short, her questionnaire contained six different categories of questions: interest in foreign languages, attitudes towards learning English, parental encouragement, English class anxiety, integrative orientation, and instrumental orientation (Vuorinen 2018, 26). As has been stated before, integrative and instrumental motivation are also included in the questionnaire used in the present study, which makes it interesting to see how the results compare to Vuorinen’s (2018). Vuorinen (2018, 33) also created a language learner motivation profile for four participants based on interviewing them.

In her study, Vuorinen (2018, 31) found that the upper secondary school students seemed to be more motivated and their attitudes were more positive towards learning English than the middle school students. However, the middle school students did receive higher scores in integrative orientation (ibid.). Even though there were some differences between these two learner groups, the mean scores in the AMTB do not seem to be very far apart. Thus, the results cannot be interpreted as definitive since the difference is such a small one that the results could be the other way around with different sets of participants. As for the language learner motivation profiles, two of the participants had clear integrative motivation (middle school and upper secondary school groups), one of them has instrumental motivation (middle school group), and the fourth one seems to be somewhere in the middle (upper secondary school group) (Vuorinen 2018, 42). These learner profiles seem to represent some of the students that can be seen in a typical classroom setting: one of them is studying English because it is needed for a
good job, two of them are studying to be fluent and communicate with their English-speaking friends, and the last one is studying to challenge himself and to make an impression on people (ibid.). Vuorinen (2018, 47) also states that the strongest predictor of L2 motivation was the ideal L2 self, used in Dörnyei’s L2 Motivational Self System. Only one of the interviewed participants had the ought-to L2 self as the strongest predictor (ibid.).

Based on research introduced in this section, the ideal L2 self seems to be the strongest predictor of success in second language learning, and positive learning experiences have also been mentioned as affecting L2 learners’ achievements. Additionally, this partly supports Ortega’s statement (2009, 176) that it is somewhat agreed among researchers that intrinsic motivation leads to higher L2 achievement than extrinsic motivation. After all, the ideal L2 self is quite similar to intrinsic motivation in that the motivation to learn an L2 comes from within the learner. In addition to motivation to learn English as an L2, writing skills in an L2 are also an integral part of the present study. Thus, writing skills in L2 learning will be thoroughly discussed in the next section.

2.4 Writing skills in second language learning

In this section, the focus will be on the development of writing skills in L2 learning. It is important to understand it in terms of the present study since L2 written production in relation to motivation is the focus. The division of language knowledge to receptive and productive skills is widely used in assessing language proficiency. Receptive skills include reading and listening, while productive skills include writing and speaking. According to Nation ([2001] 2011, 24), receptive skills contain the notion that language input is received from others, and productive skills are used to convey messages to others. Nation ([2001] 2011, 28) also states that productive language skills are more difficult and take more time to master than receptive language skills. This, in my view, suggests that L2 learners might learn to read their L2 faster and more easily than they learn to write their L2.

An aspect that is closely related to writing skills is vocabulary learning in a second language. Learners must know some vocabulary in the TL before being able to write in that language. In addition, the vocabulary must be in productive use since it is not enough to recognise a word, the learner must be able to produce it in written form (Nation [2001] 2011, 180–183). Also, the learner usually has a larger receptive vocabulary than a productive one, which means that they are able to recognise and understand more words than they are able to
produce (ibid.). This should be kept in mind when conducting studies involving productive skills in L2, including the present study as well. In relation to productive vocabulary, Leki and Carson (1994) discovered that their subjects, ESL (English as a second language) university students, felt that a lack of vocabulary was an important factor in the quality of their writing in English. That is why it is crucial to bring some vocabulary from receptive use into productive use as well if ESL learners wish to write more fluent texts.

There have been some studies tying motivation and L2 writing together, which is what the present study is concerned with as well. Raoofi and Maroofi (2017) studied the relationships between motivation, strategy use, and L2 writing performance. They had 304 undergraduate students at a Malaysian university as their participants. Their ages ranged from 19 to 24, and 226 of them were female and 78 male. They were from various fields of study and participated in an ESL writing course at the university. The study included a questionnaire about the participants’ writing self-efficacy, task value, and strategies, after which they completed two writing tasks a week later (Raoofi and Maroofi 2017, 302). It was found that “self-efficacy was the most important predictor of writing performance” (Raoofi and Maroofi 2017, 304) – in other words, if the participants believed they could succeed in writing, they most likely would. Raoofi and Maroofi (2017, 306) also report that participants who thought that L2 writing is essential and interesting seemed to perform better in the writing tasks compared to those who considered L2 writing less important. The study also reports on relationships between writing strategies and writing performance, however, they are not important in terms of the present study and are thus not discussed here.

Raoofi and Maroofi’s (2017) study suggests that motivation, or at least one aspect of motivation, does seem to have an effect on L2 learners’ written performance. These results seem promising for the present study as well. However, no major conclusions should be drawn based on a single study. The importance of self-efficacy is the most interesting part about Raoofi and Maroofi’s (2017) results. In my view, the L2 learner’s belief that they will succeed in a TL writing assignment could be closely related to their motivation to learn the language. This connection will be more thoroughly discussed in section 5, after the findings of the present study. Next, L2 writing and its assessment will be explored further in the following sections.
2.4.1 Writing-to-learn or learning-to-write?

Another important distinction in L2 writing is that between writing-to-learn and learning-to-write. Manchón (2011, 3) has defined writing-to-learn as “the engagement with L2 writing tasks and activities [which] can contribute to the development in areas other than writing itself”. In other words, writing in an L2 can help the development of other L2 language skills (e.g. reading) as well. Learning-to-write, on the other hand, is defined as “the manner in which second and foreign (L2) users learn to express themselves in writing” (Manchón 2011, 3). That is, L2 learners are simply learning to write in the L2. In the Finnish upper secondary school classroom, both writing-to-learn and learning-to-write will most likely take place. In my opinion, learning-to-write is actually a lifelong process in the realm of L2 learning, since learners are likely to face different types of situations in which they have to produce various genres of text. Additionally, languages are always developing which means acquiring new vocabulary and learning to use the language in new situations – which is true for L1 speakers as well.

Sağlamel and Kayaoğlu (2015) have studied writing among university English major students, focusing on academic writing especially while examining the aspects of writing-to-learn and learning-to-write from the students’ point of view. Their participants included 115 first-year students, out of which 90 were female and 25 were male, and they were aged from 18 to 44. They filled out a questionnaire and, in addition, seven of the students took semi-structured interviews in their mother tongue which was Turkish (Sağlamel and Kayaoğlu 2015, 43). The challenges of writing in an L2 is one of the aspects they bring up in their study (Sağlamel and Kayaoğlu 2015, 42). The challenges were named by L2 learners themselves and included, for example, self-doubt, getting ideas, lack of skills, and fear of critique, to name a few (ibid.). At least some of these challenges in writing can most likely be applied to L2 learners of all ages, not just university students.

The results of Sağlamel and Kayaoğlu’s (2015, 44) study suggest that “when learners are pushed to write on certain issues, they may not welcome such top-down imposition”. That is, L2 learners might have negative feelings towards writing if they are told what to write about, which is quite an interesting finding. They also found that one third of their participants do not like writing, and it was connected to the feeling of not having enough freedom with teacher-chosen topics (ibid.). The participants also stated that a “writing model”, usually an essay written by a native speaker, helps them improve their writing (Sağlamel and Kayaoğlu 2015,
They also felt that their L1, and their L1 writing skills, might influence their writing in an L2.

There are some differences in academic writing styles between English and Turkish, which might also influence how the participants write (Sağlamel and Kayaoğlu 2015, 47). The Turkish style of writing uses adorned language while “English and Northern European cultures […] do not tolerate uncertainty” (ibid.). Based on this, it could be argued that non-native speakers, especially from significantly different cultures, need to learn a new writing style for them to sound convincing in their L2, which is English in the case of Sağlamel and Kayaoğlu’s (2015) study. This is supported by Hyland ([2003] 2014, 45) who suggests that L2 writers’ preferences of organising ideas differ from that of L1 writers which in turn might complicate effective communication in writing. In a way, these types of learners are both learning to write academic text in their L2 while also writing to learn to sound more convincing to the L1 readers of their texts.

Hyland (2011, 159) has focused on examining writing-to-learn in a traditional learning-to-write (i.e. language classroom) context. She has done this by inspecting the effect of feedback, especially form-focused feedback, on L2 writing in a classroom setting. Hyland’s (2011, 164) study included observing two writing courses at a university in New Zealand and six of the students were chosen to participate in the actual study. Among Hyland’s (2011, 165) most relevant data was student writing and the feedback on it, class observation notes, student interviews before and after the courses, and teacher interviews. Every one of the six students received more than 50% of their feedback on form (Hyland 2011, 166). This suggests that teachers tend to focus on form when evaluating L2 writing in a classroom setting. It was also found that most of the students thought that form-focused feedback was very important in terms of their language learning (Hyland 2011, 167). They also felt that repeated form-focused feedback and correction would improve their language accuracy over time (Hyland 2011, 168).

Though form-focused feedback is important, it is also crucial, in my opinion, to focus on the text as a whole as well. One of the most important functions of language is the ability to convey a message which will be completed if the text is understandable, even if there are some errors. The Matriculation Examination Board (2017, 16) have also stated that the main focus on L2 texts in Finnish upper secondary school is on the ability to convey a message.

Even though the ability to convey a message is important, the assessment of the written texts used in the present study is more focused on form than the Matriculation Examination Board’s scale (ibid.) since the texts were more convenient to score that way. However, in this case the students did not receive the feedback and corrections themselves.
actual process of assessing the texts will be more thoroughly discussed in section 3. However, the assessment of L2 writing in general will be introduced first in the next section.

2.4.2 Assessing L2 writing

This section of will focus on the assessment of L2 writing. According to Hamp-Lyons (2016, 14), there are two main purposes for assessing language, which are achievement and proficiency. The former aims to measure what has been learned during a language course, for example, and the latter seeks to measure language skills in an L2 in general, with no relation to the content of a language course (ibid.). Diagnostic tests are also used for “diagnosing learners’ strengths and weaknesses in a foreign language” (Hamp-Lyons 2016, 20) but they are not of great importance in terms of the present study since the focus on proficiency seems more suitable here. In a classroom setting, formative assessment is used to help learning, and summative assessment to summarise learning (Hamp-Lyons 2016, 21). Formative assessment usually involves feedback for the student to help them develop their skills, while summative assessment simply summarises what the student has learnt (ibid.).

Assessment reliability and validity are major factors in evaluating L2 texts. Different types of frameworks have been created to help assess language skills, including writing, more objectively. One of these frameworks is the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR; Council of Europe 2001). In terms of writing, Eckes, Müller-Karabil, and Zimmermann have described the content of the CEFR well:

The CEFR comprises definitions and descriptions of what language learners should be able to do at a number of proficiency levels. Writing performance is described using illustrative scales for Overall Written Production, Creative Writing, and Reports and Essays. Moreover, the CEFR gives examples of writing activities and discusses production strategies, such as planning, compensating, and monitoring. (Eckes, Müller-Karabil, and Zimmermann 2016, 150)

That is to say, the CEFR contains different proficiency levels for different language skills (i.e. reading, writing, speaking, and listening), and the levels are described by what the L2 learner should be able to do at that point.

The CEFR has also been used as a basis for a scale that is used in Finnish upper secondary schools to assess the learners’ developing language skills. It uses the same levels of
language proficiency: A1–A2 or basic user, B1–B2 or independent user, and C1 or proficient user, but has more subcategories (e.g. A1.1, A1.2 etc.) (Finnish National Agency for Education 2019; Aalto University 2018). At the end of upper secondary school, the aim is for students to be at level B2.1 in level A English, which means that they should be independent users of the language (Finnish National Agency for Education 2015, 110). Level A is the highest level of English, or any other foreign language, that can be studied in Finnish comprehensive and upper secondary school. If a learner studies level A English, they have begun studying it in elementary school. In comparison, if a learner studies a level B language, they have started studying it in either middle school or upper secondary school. However, in Finland, most students study English as a level A language (Statistics Finland 2017b). The CEFR has also received some criticism, for example on its descriptors of proficiency levels being too broad and not useful in assessment at schools (Eckes, Müller-Karabil, and Zimmermann 2016, 150). That might be one of the reasons for creating a more specified framework for the purposes of assessment in Finnish upper secondary and comprehensive schools. Also, the learners’ might be more motivated to learn an L2 if there is a smaller distance between different levels of language skills. It takes a long time to get from level A1 to level A2 but it is quicker to advance from A1.1 to A1.2.

Another set of criteria used in assessing writing is that by the Matriculation Examination Board (2011) used in assessing language essays in the matriculation examination in Finnish upper secondary school. For example, in level A English the criteria are related to how easy the text is to read and understand, the content and structure of the text, and linguistic and grammatical variety and accuracy in the text (Matriculation Examination Board 2011, 40). This rating scale might best be described as a holistic one, which means that the text is given a single, overall score instead of scoring different features of the text separately, which is characteristic of an analytic rating scale (Eckes, Müller-Karabil, and Zimmermann 2016, 154). The rating scale used for assessing written performance by the Matriculation Examination Board will be discussed in more detail in section 3.3, along with the questionnaire used in the present study.

In addition to different types of frameworks and rating scales, a major factor in ensuring reliability and validity in assessing written performance is the assessor. Rater variability refers to the unwanted variability in the assessments of L2 written work (Eckes, Müller-Karabil, and Zimmermann 2016, 155). There are three aspects of rater variability which have been studied the most, as defined by Eckes, Müller-Karabil, and Zimmermann (ibid.): severity/leniency, central tendency, and rater bias. Severity/leniency refers to assessors consistently scoring texts either too high or too low compared to other assessors. Central
tendency means that assessors tend to score most of the texts around the middle of the rating scale. Last, rater bias leads to the assessors letting some situational aspect (e.g. groups of examinees) affect their assessment of the texts.

In standardised large-scale assessments rater variability can be controlled by appropriate rater training, having two or more raters assess the same text, and proving interrater reliability (Eckes, Müller-Karabil, and Zimmermann 2016, 155). However, different measures are needed in a classroom setting assessment and for studies of a smaller scale, such as the present study. In order for an assessment to be reliable, the assessor should assess the same text in the same way at different times (Hyland [2003] 2014, 217). While this is partly true, the teacher or researcher assessing the texts should also be able and willing to adjust the scoring slightly if, while reading the text again, they notice that the score should be higher or lower. Additionally, vast differences in scoring on separate occasions might indicate inconsistency in the assessment.

In conclusion, to assess language learners’ writing, several different scales or frameworks can be used: the CEFR most notably in countries that are part of the European Union and the modified scale based on the CEFR that is used in Finnish schools. When learning a language in a classroom setting, it is important to have a scale of some sort for assessment since it helps in ensuring validity and helping the learners to understand what is expected of them when they are writing in an L2. A scale for L2 writing assessment was also used in the present study, which will be introduced in the following section.
3 The present study

As has been established before, the present study focuses on the relationship between motivation to learn English and the written performance in English as an L2, the subjects being Finnish upper secondary school students. In this section, the present study will be explained in detail. First, the research questions will be established and elaborated on. Second, the participants of the present study will be introduced. Third, the questionnaire used in the present study and how it was scored will be explained. Last, the process of data collection and the statistical methods of analysing the data will be introduced.

3.1 Research questions

It is important to study how motivation affects different areas of second language learning since it can provide helpful information for language teachers and even learners themselves. The fact that not much research has been conducted on the relationship between L2MSS components and actual L2 achievement (Moskovsky et al. 2016, 650) is one of the reasons the present study is relevant. The present study differs from previous L2MSS studies in that it also incorporates instrumental and integrative motivation for comparison, thus it does not examine components of L2MSS only. In addition, the relationship between motivation to learn English and L2 writing proficiency among Finnish upper secondary school students remains somewhat unexplored. That is why the present study aims to find answers to the following research questions:

1. Is there a relationship between the level of motivation to learn English and the quality of writing in English?
2. Is there a relationship between the type of motivation and the quality of writing in English?
3. If there is a relationship between motivation and the quality of writing in English, what type of a relationship is it?

What is meant by the ‘level of motivation’ in the first question, is the impression of the overall motivation to learn English based on the questionnaire used in the present study. The ‘type of motivation’ in the second question refers to the different categories of motivation used in the questionnaire, which will be discussed in more detail in section 3.3. Each of these aspects of motivation are compared to the participants’ ‘quality of writing in English’, which refers to the
overall fluency and grammatical accuracy of the text. The precise criteria for assessing the texts will also be discussed in section 3.3. The third research question is about defining the possible relationship between motivation and the quality of writing in English: whether it is a positive or a negative relationship, or if there is a relationship between these two variables at all.

Based on previous research introduced in the theoretical framework it is hypothesised that the results will show a positive relationship between motivation and the participants’ quality of writing in English. What is more, it is also hypothesised that the ideal L2 self will be the type of motivation that has the highest correlation with the quality of writing. In addition to the ideal L2 self, based on research introduced in section 2.2.1, high scores in integrative motivation might also suggest high scores in writing proficiency.

3.2 Participants

There were 57 participants included in the present study, all of whom were upper secondary school students. The school in which the data collection took place was located in Southwestern Finland. The students were in their second or third year at upper secondary school, and 50 of them were 17-year-olds while the remaining 7 were 18 years old. Due to the fact that the majority of participants were under the age of 18, their caretakers were informed about the study and asked for their consent for the students to participate. The caretakers received the information via Wilma, which is an online platform used in Finnish schools for communication between the school, the caretakers, and the students.

In terms of gender, 73.7 % of the participants identified as female and 26.3 % as male. Most of the students listed Finnish as their native language, one listed Hungarian, and one both Finnish and Spanish. Out of all the languages the participants knew in addition to their native language, English and Swedish were the most common ones: 91.2 % of the participants said they knew English and 87.7 % said they knew Swedish. However, it is safe to say that all of the participants knew at least some English since everyone wrote something in English in the questionnaire. Since most students in Finland begin learning English during elementary school (Statistics Finland 2017b), most of the participants had studied English for nine years. Only one of the participants had lived in an English-speaking country for some time and their stay was 11 months. This participant was included in the analysis of the data since their stay was less than a year and they reported their L1 as Finnish only. With this information, it is fairly safe to say that living in an English-speaking country did not affect the results of the present study.
The majority of the students had a 9 as their latest grade for English which is quite good since the grading scale in the Finnish upper secondary school is from 4 to 10, 4 being a fail. Only one student had a 4 as their latest grade, and six students had a grade lower than a 7. At the other end of the scale, four students had a perfect grade of 10. Overall, based on their latest grades, most of the students seemed to be quite good at English. Their general proficiency level could be described as intermediate, which is coherent with the expectation that their language skills will be on level B2.1 by their graduation, as defined by the Finnish National Agency for Education (2015, 110).

3.3 Questionnaire

The motivation questionnaire was created by Google Forms and administered online. It can be viewed in Finnish in Appendix 1 and in English in Appendix 2. The questionnaire was first written in Finnish and later translated into English. It was also administered in Finnish since the participants were students in a Finnish school, and 98.2% of them reported Finnish as their native language. Thus, it was easier for the participants to answer the questionnaire in their native language.

The questionnaire was divided into three different segments: background information about the participants, 45 items on their motivation, and a short written text by them. The background information included questions such as the name, age and gender of the participant, and for how long they had been studying English, for example (see Appendix 1 and 2). The participants were asked for their names, but they were allowed to use only initials if they wished. The names were asked in case someone preferred writing their text by hand, so it would be possible to pair the participant’s questionnaire answers with the correct text. However, everyone wrote their text electronically and the names became redundant. The names were changed into numbers when analysing the data to avoid any bias.

The motivation section of the questionnaire was created based on two different motivation questionnaires from previous studies (You and Dörnyei 2016a; Laitinen 2018). Laitinen’s (2018) study included a motivation questionnaire from Moskovsky et al. (2016) but she had changed one of the statements on the questionnaire for the purposes of her own study. In addition, the questionnaire used in You and Dörnyei’s (2016a) study was not included as an appendix in the research paper itself, however, it is available on Dörnyei’s website as a PDF file (You and Dörnyei 2016b). Motivation statements were taken from both studies while also
adding some statements myself. Since both You and Dörnyei’s (2016a), and Laitinen’s (2018) studies included the L2 Motivational Self System, they had some useful aspects for the present study as well. For example, the categorisation of statements in Laitinen’s (2018) study was used in the present study, with the addition of instrumental and integrative motivation, and exclusion of intended learning efforts. Instrumental and integrative motivation were added to the questionnaire for comparison. That is, to see how the results in these categories compare to the results in the categories related to the more contemporary theory of L2MSS. As for the exclusion of intended learning efforts, the questionnaire might have become quite long if another category was added. In that case, there would have been the risk of the participants losing their interest if the questionnaire was too long (Dörnyei 2010, 12). Other reasons for modifying the questionnaires and not using one questionnaire as it is, were the type of participants and the focus of the study. The present study focuses on upper secondary school students while both You and Dörnyei’s (2016a), and Laitinen’s (2018) studies focused on university students.

The items on motivation were divided into 5 different categories: the ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self, instrumental motivation, integrative motivation, and the L2 learning experience. The first four categories included 10 statements each and the fifth one included 5 statements. The statements were not grouped by category and were placed in a randomly selected order. The categories and the numbers of statements belonging in each category can be viewed in Table 1.

Table 1 The categorisation of the motivation statements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Statement number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The ideal L2 self</td>
<td>3, 4, 8, 14, 15, 19, 21, 27, 34, 38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The ought-to L2 self</td>
<td>18, 23, 24, 28, 31, 33, 39, 40, 43, 45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instrumental motivation</td>
<td>1, 2, 5, 10, 25, 29, 35, 41, 42, 44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrative motivation</td>
<td>6, 7, 9, 11, 13, 16, 26, 30, 36, 37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L2 learning experience</td>
<td>12, 17, 20, 22, 32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, these categories were not visible in the questionnaire and the participants were not informed about them since it is relevant information only to the researcher. The items were in the form of statements (e.g. ‘I need English because I want to study or work abroad in the
future’), and the participants had to indicate to what extent they agree or disagree with the statements. For these purposes a 6-point Likert scale was used (1 = completely disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = somewhat disagree, 4 = somewhat agree, 5 = agree, and 6 = completely agree). The option for an ‘I don’t know’ response was excluded by this scale to make the participants take at least some sort of a stand on the statements. Before the data collection took place, the questionnaire was tested by one person, and as a result a few of the statements were altered a bit to make them clearer. There were no major changes, only some alterations in the wording of the statements.

As for the last segment of the questionnaire, the written text, the topic (‘My plans after high school’) was given to the participants and all of them wrote their text on the same topic. They were also given some prompt questions to help them get started with the writing. The influence of prompts has been studied, for example, by Gad S. Lim (2010 in Eckes, Müller-Karabil, and Zimmermann 2016, 153). He discovered that the topic domain was the only aspect in prompts that significantly affected the results of a written task, and that education-related topics seemed to be easier than social topics (ibid.). The topic given to the participants in the present study could perhaps be seen more as education-related than social, since they wrote about their plans for their own future and not on a socially or societally relevant topic.

Along with the topic and prompt questions, the participants were given instructions on how long the text should be, and the length (150–250 words) was based on the English level A matriculation examination essay. The Matriculation Examination Board has decided that the length of the essay should be 150–250 words, or now that the English exam has been conducted electronically since the spring of 2018, the length is 700–1,300 characters (Matriculation Examination Board 2011, 28; Matriculation Examination Board 2017, 12). Even though the students will be following the character limit in their own matriculation examination, the length was given in words because they are easier to count manually. Google Forms does not count the number of characters or the number of words, thus the participants had to count it themselves.

The participants’ answers to the motivation statements and the texts were scored afterwards. However, the participants were not aware of the scoring since it was done only for the purposes of analysing the data. In the statements that indicate positive motivation towards learning English (e.g. ‘I like reading books and magazines in English’), the points are the same as the number on the scale. If the statement is negative (e.g. ‘I don’t like English lessons’), the points are reversed, as in 1 (that is, ‘completely disagree’) on the scale equals 6 points and so
forth (Dörnyei 2010, 27). The points represent the perceived level of motivation of the students, thus the higher the points the higher the motivation level.

The written texts were scored by me based on the criteria set by the Matriculation Examination Board (2011, 40). The criteria are divided into three different categories: how well the writer is able to convey their message (i.e. how easy the text is to read and understand), the content and structure of the text, and linguistic and grammatical variety and accuracy (ibid.). However, the criteria were slightly modified for the purposes of the present study. The maximum score was changed from 99 to 100, simply for the fact that it would be an even number since the maximum scores in the motivation categories were also even numbers. As for other changes, the content of the texts was not a factor in the scoring because it has little to do with the focus of the present study. The ability to convey a message was not as important as it is in the actual matriculation examination. However, linguistic and grammatical variety and accuracy were more important in the assessment in the present study than they are in the matriculation examination. The reason behind this is the fact that the texts were simply easier to score when there were concrete errors to examine instead of simply assessing how well the participants conveyed a message.

Additionally, points were deducted if the text did not have enough words, and the scale used to deduct points was almost the same as that by the Matriculation Examination Board (2011, 31). The original scale is presented in Table 2.

**Table 2** The scale for deducting points in the essays in level A English (Matriculation Examination Board 2011, 31; my translation)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Below the given word count</th>
<th>Length of text</th>
<th>Points deducted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10–14 %</td>
<td>= 135–129 words</td>
<td>5 points</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15–19 %</td>
<td>= 128–121 words</td>
<td>10 points</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20–24 %</td>
<td>= 120–114 words</td>
<td>15 points</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25–29 %</td>
<td>= 113–106 words</td>
<td>20 points</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30–34 %</td>
<td>= 105–99 words</td>
<td>25 points</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35–39 %</td>
<td>= 98–91 words</td>
<td>30 points</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In addition to Table 2, the Matriculation Examination Board (2011, 32) states that a text with less than 90 words should receive no more than 15 points. However, this was also slightly altered for the present study and the word count was lowered to 70. The reason behind this
decision was the fact that surprisingly many students had written fewer than 90 words which might be due to the fact that the text had no effect on their course grade. Thus, texts that had 90–70 words lost 30 points of their score as well. In other words, if a participant wrote a text that contained 70 words or less, their maximum score was 15. The reason for deducting points at all was the fact that if a text is too short, it is impossible to get a realistic idea of the L2 learner’s language skills – there is simply not enough material to accurately assess the learner’s skills.

Questionnaires as data collection tools have both advantages and disadvantages, just as any other methods. Questionnaires are quite efficient because they take less than an hour to administer and creating the questionnaire does not require too much of the researcher’s time either (Dörnyei 2010, 6). Data collected by a well-structured questionnaire can also be fairly quickly processed, not to mention the fact that “they can be used successfully with a variety of people in a variety of situations targeting a variety of topics” (ibid.). That is why questionnaires can be, and are, used in a vast number of studies, especially in the behavioural and social sciences (ibid.).

Nevertheless, questionnaires do have some limitations to them as well. The main disadvantages mentioned by Dörnyei (2010, 6–9) include, for example, simplicity and superficiality of answers, unreliable and unmotivated respondents, social desirability bias, self-deception, and fatigue effects. The simplicity and superficiality of answers in questionnaires is due to the fact that the questions need to be simple enough for everyone to understand, which often facilitates superficial data. Unreliable and unmotivated respondents might affect the data collected using a questionnaire since the respondents might not be very thorough in answering the questions, or sometimes refusing to answer at all. Social desirability bias is another factor affecting the results of a questionnaire: “the results represent what the respondents report to feel or believe, rather than what they actually feel or believe (ibid.). The respondents usually know what the expected answer in a question is, and sometimes they might choose that answer even if it is not true. Related to social desirability bias, with a slight difference, is self-deception: in this case respondents do not answer truthfully but they are not aware of it, thus they are deceiving themselves. Finally, fatigue effects come into the picture when a questionnaire is simply too long, which leads to the respondents getting tired and losing interest.

All in all, a questionnaire seemed an appropriate data collection tool for the present study. There were some limitations in terms of the length of the study and the time that could be used to collect the data. In this case, the advantages outweighed the disadvantages when choosing an appropriate method for data collection. The question of whether the
disadvantageous factors might have affected the results of the present study will be discussed in sections 4 and 5.

3.4 Data collection and analysis

The process of data collection and methods used to analyse the data will be dealt with in this section. The collection of the data took place at an upper secondary school in Southwest Finland in January 2019. The participants were informed in advance about the questionnaire, and its topic, and were asked to bring their laptops to school with them that day. According to Dörnyei (2010, 73–74), informing the participants about the questionnaire a few days beforehand helps create a more positive and professional atmosphere during data collection. It can also help reduce anxiety about answering a questionnaire if the participants are not taken by surprise (ibid.). In section 3.2, it was mentioned that the students’ caretakers were asked for their consent for the students to participate in the study. In addition to this, the school required a research permit which was obtained from the city a few weeks prior to the data collection.

The questionnaire was conducted electronically with the students using either their laptops or smartphones to participate. In addition to the participants, the researcher was the only person present when the answers to the questionnaire were collected. The participants answered the questionnaire during one of their English classes which is 75 minutes. Two different groups participated in the study: one of the classes was in the morning at 10, and the other in the afternoon at half past one. The first group took approximately 45 minutes to finish the questionnaire, including the written text, although the first participant to finish spent only about 15 minutes on it. The second group spent a bit more time answering the questionnaire since it took approximately 60 minutes for the whole group to be finished. One explanation for this difference between groups might be that the first group answered the questionnaire just before lunch. They might have been eager to get to lunch, and thus took less time to finish the questionnaire than the second group. Two participants experienced some trouble with their internet connection but were eventually able to complete the questionnaire in its entirety.

Since the present study is mostly quantitative in nature, the data were analysed using both Microsoft Excel and IBM SPSS 25 (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences). Google Forms also automatically calculated some summaries of the data, for example the percentages in the background information, and the distribution of answers in each motivation statement. The scores for each motivation-related category and the written text were calculated
individually for each participant, using a calculator. The scores were then inserted into Excel category by category, after which the highest, lowest, and mean scores for each category were calculated.

The Pearson correlation coefficient was used to determine the relationship between the participants’ motivation to learn English and their written performance in English. A correlation test is useful for the present study since it is “looking for some relationship, some common variation, between two variables” (Larson-Hall 2016, 188), which is essentially the focus of the present study. The Pearson correlation coefficient calculation included all six of the motivation-related categories and the written text. The scores for each participant in each category were put in IBM SPSS 25, and the correlation between these categories was calculated by using the same programme.

The written texts were analysed by me, with the help of the criteria by the Matriculation Examination Board (2011, 40) introduced in section 3.3. All of the texts written by the participants were copied from Google Forms onto a Microsoft Word document and the participants’ names were replaced with numbers. The word count of each text was recorded, every error was marked in red font, and the texts were scored – all the while consulting the criteria, with the slight change of putting the emphasis more on form than the ability to convey a message. The errors were marked because that way it was easier to look at the text as a whole: how many errors there were overall and how they affected the readability of the text. After scoring every text, they were read again and some of the scores were revised. When a single person is assessing as many as 57 texts, the validity and reliability of the evaluation are of high importance. To ensure that the assessment was fair and followed the same criteria for each text, they were evaluated in the span of two days. On the first day, every text was read, analysed, and scored. On the following day, the texts were read again and some of the scores were slightly revised – however, there were no major changes in the scores, a change of 5 points being the highest one. The criteria for different scores were consulted on each text, again to help ensure reliability.

As can be seen here and in the previous subsections under section 3, the questionnaire was conducted as carefully and ethically as possible. The assessing of the written texts was taken into account and possible limitations to the questionnaire were considered. Now that the questionnaire and data collection procedures have been introduced and explained, it is time to focus on the results of the present study, which will be thoroughly presented in section 4 and all of its subsections.
4 Results

In this section, the results of the present study will be introduced, and they are further discussed and analysed in section 5. First, the findings of the motivation questionnaire will be examined. Second, the findings in the written texts of the participants will be introduced, and finally the correlation results between the questionnaire and the texts. The methods with which the results were obtained have been thoroughly examined in section 3.

4.1 The motivation questionnaire

The first matter at hand is the motivation of the participants which was examined using the questionnaire introduced in section 3.3. There were six different motivation-related categories under analysis: the overall level of motivation, the ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self, instrumental motivation, integrative motivation, and the L2 learning experience. The maximum score for the overall level of motivation was 270 points, which is the sum of the maximum scores of all the other categories. The maximum scores for the ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self, instrumental motivation, and integrative motivation was 60 points for each, and for the L2 learning experience the maximum was 30 points. The highest, lowest, and mean scores in each category are presented below in Table 3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Overall motivation</th>
<th>The ideal L2 self</th>
<th>The ought-to L2 self</th>
<th>Instrumental motivation</th>
<th>Integrative motivation</th>
<th>L2 learning experience</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Highest score</td>
<td>227</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lowest score</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>186.5</td>
<td>44.9</td>
<td>41.8</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>44.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 The highest, lowest, and mean scores of the motivation questionnaire
As can be seen in Table 3, the only category in which the highest possible score was obtained is the ideal L2 self – this was done by three participants. The highest scores for the ought-to L2 self and integrative motivation are also quite close to the maximum score, 55 and 56 points respectively, but the highest score for instrumental motivation is 14 points away from the maximum score of 60. While the ideal L2 self and integrative motivation have the highest of the highest scores, they also have the lowest of the lowest scores, both being only 18 points. This illustrates a rather wide range of scores especially in these two categories. The category of L2 learning experience also shows variety in scores, since the lowest score obtained was only 5 points, meaning that one particular participant scored 1 point in each statement related to this category, and the highest was only four points away from the maximum score of 30.

As with the highest scores in Table 3, the mean scores for the ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self, and integrative motivation are also quite close to each other: 44.9, 41.8, and 44.5 points respectively. The mean score for instrumental motivation (36.4 points) is not very far away from them but the difference is noticeable. The mean score for the L2 learning experience was 18.6 points which is slightly over half of the maximum of 30 points. Thus, it seems that the L2 learning experience varied quite much among the participants, especially compared to the ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self, and integrative motivation since the mean score in these categories was noticeably above half of the maximum of 60 points.

Based on Table 3, the ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self, and integrative motivation seem to be quite evenly matched in their scores, while instrumental motivation somewhat differs from them. These differences in scores in the ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self, instrumental motivation, and integrative motivation are visualised in Figure 1.
**Figure 1** Scores in the categories of the ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self, instrumental motivation, and integrative motivation

![Graph showing scores in different categories](image)

Figure 1 presents the all the scores in the aforementioned categories from lowest to highest. Here it is visually evident that the participants scored lower in the category of instrumental motivation than in the other three categories. In addition to examining the overall scores of the motivation-related categories, some of the motivation statements in the questionnaire, and especially the distribution of answers in those statements, are also worth inspecting more closely.

Observing each motivation statement separately, there are some polarizing ones and ones where the participants seem to be quite unanimous. One of the most polarizing motivation statements was statement number 19 (*I can picture myself studying at a university where all the courses are in English*). The results for this particular statement are presented in Figure 2.
The responses to statement number 19 are distributed quite evenly which suggests that the participants had differing opinions on it. The disagreement-end of the scale (1–3) received 28 responses while the agreement-end (4–6) received 29 responses. The results in this particular statement might suggest two things: many of the participants are unsure of their English language skills, or they are simply not interested in studying in English. Apart from statement number 19, not many statements were this polarizing. However, there were a few in which the participants were extremely unanimous.

Three of the motivation statements with the most unanimous results were statement number 5 (*Knowing English is important, so I can travel around the world*), statement number 6 (*I like TV programmes in English*), and statement number 35 (*I make an effort to study English because I get rewards (e.g. money) for good grades*). The distribution of responses in each of these three statements is presented in Figure 3.
In Figure 3, option number 1 and 2 on the Likert scale contain no orange or blue bars, while option number 6 has no grey bar. This means that there were zero responses for ‘completely disagree’ and ‘disagree’ in statements number 5 and 6 (Knowing English is important, so I can travel around the world, and I like TV programmes in English), while no one answered ‘completely agree’ in statement number 35 (I make an effort to study English because I get rewards (e.g. money) for good grades). Statements number 5 and 6 were quite unanimously agreed upon, and statement number 35 was almost unanimously disagreed upon. The fact that most participants disagreed with statement number 35 might just be an indication that not many upper secondary school students, in this particular school at least, get rewards for good grades. A great rate of agreement on statements number 5 and 6 might also be explained by the widespread use of English, especially in popular culture. After the motivation questions the participants wrote a short text and the findings on those texts will be presented in the next section.
4.2 The texts

In addition to the scores in the motivation-related categories, there was a short text written by the participants. The topic for the text was ‘my plans after high school’, and the maximum score for the text was 100 points, which none of the participants obtained. The participants were asked to write 150–250 words and it was stated in the instructions, which were explained in section 3.3. The highest, lowest, and mean scores for the text as well as the highest, lowest, and mean word count are presented in Table 4.

Table 4 The highest, lowest, and mean written text score and word count

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Written text score</th>
<th>Word count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Highest</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>203</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lowest</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>68.2</td>
<td>133.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 shows that the highest score was 95 points while the lowest was 0 points. There were only two texts which received less than 15 points because they were less than 70 words in length. The mean score for the written text was 68.2 points which would be approximately a 7-on the grading scale at Finnish upper secondary school. The mean of the participants’ latest grade in English was 8.0 which means that in comparison to that, the participants performed more poorly in the written text. However, in grade evaluation for a language course many other aspects of language knowledge in addition to writing are considered. In a way, the written text used in the present study would only be one aspect of a full course grade.

As is stated in Table 4, the longest text had 203 words and the shortest one had only 18 words. The mean word count was 133.2 words which is considerably less than the participants were asked to write – to be precise, it is 16.8 words less than the minimum given word count of 150 words. This might have some interesting indications of the participants’ motivation to learn English which will be discussed further in section 5. On the other hand, points were also taken away from the participants if their text was too short (see section 3.3). This means that even if the text was quite good but too short, the participants would get less points than they would have with a longer text. What this means for the validity of the results
will also be discussed in more detail in section 5. The relationship between word count and the written text score is visualised in Figure 4.

**Figure 4** A scatterplot of the written text scores and the word count of the texts

As Figure 4 indicates, another finding during the analysis of the data is that the participant who had the lowest word count also had the lowest score on the text. This result seems rather logical since the shortest text had very few words, 18 to be precise, and thus received zero points. Interestingly, the participant with the highest word count did not have the highest score since they received only 60 points on their text. This particular participant had written plenty of text but the quality of it was quite lacking. Thus, a high word count does not always mean a high score. This is a matter which will also be discussed to some extent in section 5. Now, it is time to examine the actual relationship between L2 motivation and the quality of L2 writing among the participants by comparing the findings of the motivation questionnaire to the written texts.
4.3 Correlation analysis

Moving on from the basics of the results to how various aspects are related to each other in the present study. The relationship between the participants’ motivation and the quality of their written texts was tested using the Pearson correlation coefficient, as mentioned in section 3.3. The correlation test showed a significant positive correlation between some of the variables, while other variables showed no significant correlation at all. The results are presented in Table 5 below.

Table 5 Results of the Pearson correlation coefficient

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Written text score</th>
<th>Overall motivation</th>
<th>The ideal L2 self</th>
<th>The ought-to L2 self</th>
<th>Instrumental motivation</th>
<th>Integrative motivation</th>
<th>L2 learning experience</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.569**</td>
<td>.618**</td>
<td>0.134</td>
<td>0.146</td>
<td>.569**</td>
<td>.276*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.320</td>
<td>0.279</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.038</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

In Table 5, N represents the number of participants, which was 57 for the whole study. The written text score and the overall motivation level was found to have a positive correlation significant at the 0.01 level \((r = .569)\). This means that the higher the written text score, the higher the motivation level is expected to be as well. The same is also true for the ideal L2 self and integrative motivation in relation to the written text score \((r = .618, r = .569,\) respectively). A correlation significant at the 0.05 level was found between the written text score and the L2 learning experience \((r = .276)\). In addition to these, there was no significant correlation between the written text score and the ought-to L2 self \((r = 0.134)\), or the written text score and instrumental motivation \((r = 0.146)\). This suggests that there is no relationship, either positive or negative, between the ought-to L2 self and written performance, or instrumental motivation and written performance. The fact that the significant correlations had two different levels \((0.05\ and\ 0.01)\) is most likely due to the fact that the category of L2 learning experience had fewer statements than the other categories. The relevance of these findings will be further discussed in section 5.
5 Discussion

The results of the present study, presented in section 4, will be discussed in more detail in this section. They will be compared to previous research on L2 motivation and L2 writing introduced in the theoretical framework of the present study. It is essential to see how the results and findings of the present study compare to the previous ones, in order to either strengthen or weaken some of the ideas about L2 motivation in relation to L2 achievement. The research questions and whether they have been sufficiently answered by the present study will be examined first.

1) Is there a relationship between the level of motivation to learn English and the quality of writing in English?

To sum up the answer to the first research question: yes, there seems to be a relationship between the level of motivation to learn English and the quality of writing in English. It was established in section 4.3 that there was a significant positive correlation between the participants’ overall level of motivation and their written text score. This means that the higher the participant’s motivation level, the higher their quality of writing in English. The overall level of motivation was comprised of five different factors, referred to as the types of motivation in the present study. Each of their relationship to the quality of writing in English was also examined.

2) Is there a relationship between the type of motivation and the quality of writing in English?

The short answer to the second research question is also ‘yes’. Out of the different types of motivation included in the questionnaire, the ideal L2 self and integrative motivation were found to have a significant positive correlation with the written text score. Thus, high scorers in the categories of the ideal L2 self and integrative motivation also had high scores in the written text. The L2 learning experience also seemed to influence the quality of writing among the participants. In other words, a positive learning experience correlated with a high written text score. However, the ought-to L2 self and instrumental motivation did not show significant correlation, neither negative nor positive, with the written text score. This leads to the final
research question about the type of relationship that exists between motivation and the quality of writing.

3) If there is a relationship between motivation and the quality of writing in English, what type of a relationship is it?

It has been established with the first two research questions that there is, in fact, some sort of a relationship between motivation (to learn English) and the quality of writing in English. All of the significant correlations between different variables were found to be positive ones. This means that the overall level of motivation, the ideal L2 self, integrative motivation, and the L2 learning experience were categories in which higher scores could be seen as predictors for higher scores in writing as well. Considering the remaining types of motivation, the ought-to L2 self and instrumental motivation, and their relationship with the quality of writing, it was found to be neutral – no significant correlation, either negative or positive. Since it has been established that there is a relationship between motivation and the written performance of the participants, it is time to examine the possible reasons behind these results.

At the beginning of the theoretical framework, in section 2.1, individual differences in second language learning were shortly discussed. It is worth returning to them now and briefly assess their possible impact on the results of the present study. Though they were not included in the questionnaire, it does not mean that they could not have influenced the participants’ performance. In fact, it cannot be completely proven that their L2 writing performance is strictly related to their motivation to learn English. Some of their success, or failure of success, might be related to their level of language aptitude, their learning styles, or even their personality. Several different types of studies examining the relationship between these aspects of language learning and L2 writing would have to be conducted on the same participants to get even more precise and conclusive results.

When comparing the findings of the present study to the findings of previous studies using L2 Motivational Self System, they seem to be mainly in agreement. The ideal L2 self and the L2 learning experience demonstrated significant correlation in relation to the scores of the written text, which was to be expected based on previous studies (see Dörnyei and Chan 2013; Lamb 2012; Yang and Kim 2011). Moskovsky et al. (2016, 649) found the ideal L2 self to be superior to the ought-to L2 self in terms of intended learning efforts. However, they also found that low levels of the ideal L2 self resulted in higher language proficiency (ibid.), which is in contrast with most of other L2MSS-related research introduced in the present study. In
addition, Vuorinen (2018, 47) discovered that the ideal L2 self was the most important predictor of motivation to learn an L2. The cultural setting and the participants in a study might explain some of the differences in L2 motivation research. For example, Moskovsky et al.’s (2016) participants were from the Middle East, while Vuorinen’s (2018), Dörnyei and Chan’s (2013), Lamb’s (2012), and Yang and Kim’s (2011) were East Asian and Western European. There might be some cultural differences in motivation worth exploring in the future. All in all, most of the results of research introduced in section 2.3 are supported by the findings of the present study as well. However, the present study also used instrumental and integrative motivation in the questionnaire which brings findings outside the L2MSS into the mix.

Previous research introduced in the theoretical framework was varied on the importance of integrative and instrumental motivation. Mady (2015, 306) found a negative relationship between integrative motivation and listening skills, while Hernández (2006, 610) discovered a positive relationship between integrative motivation and oral proficiency. In the present study, integrative motivation was found to have a positive relationship with the written text score, while instrumental motivation was not. The findings of the present study, and Hernández’s (2006), support previous statements that motivation coming from within the L2 learner results in higher achievements in the target language (see Ortega 2009, 176). However, based on these differing results in research, could it be possible that integrative motivation correlates more negatively with receptive language skills (i.e. listening and reading)? This might be something worth studying in the future as well.

The fact that the ideal L2 self and integrative motivation are usually found to have the strongest positive relationship with language proficiency seems to suggest that, in general, people are more motivated and willing to do things they thought of themselves. It seems that if there is pressure coming from outside the learner – be it parents or society, for example – their proficiency in an L2 seems to be lower.

The participants of the present study learnt an L2, which was English in this case, and L2 writing in a classroom setting. This particular learning environment and its relationship with motivation was discussed in section 2. The L2 learning experience was one of the categories in the questionnaire, and that experience is in turn related to the L2 learning environment. The participants’ L2 learning experience was found to have a significant positive correlation with the written text score, which might be an indication that the classroom learning environment and the participants’ English teacher might have also had an influence on their learning experience. However, again, there are so many variables in L2 learners’ motivation that it is complicated to pinpoint which factors have actually affected their motivation. Since the L2
learning experience seems to have some sort of an impact on L2 learners’ motivation, it might be interesting to study if, and how, the relationship between the teacher and their students affect motivation in L2 learning.

In terms of motivation and L2 writing, Raoofi and Maroofi (2017, 304) found that self-efficacy was the most important factor in succeeding in writing. They also discovered that participants who considered writing important in L2 learning achieved higher levels of proficiency in it (Raoofi and Maroofi 2017, 306). Their results suggest that L2 learners who believe in their own writing skills and value L2 writing as a form of learning perform better in L2 writing tasks. In my view, self-efficacy is closely related to motivation. An L2 learner’s belief that they can master their target language might increase their motivation even more. The results of the present study are along similar lines: the most proficient writers seemed to be the most motivated ones.

Sağlamel and Kayaoğlu (2015), and Hyland ([2003] 2014) both pointed out that L2 learners can be rather insecure about their writing in the target language. Even though the content of the texts was not analysed in the present study, I noticed that some of the participants mentioned their insecurities about writing in English. In addition, the shortness of the texts might also be an indication of the participants’ insecurity in writing in an L2. According to Hyland ([2003] 2014, 45), there are usually differences in writing conventions between the learners’ L1 and L2 which might lead to self-doubt in learners expressing themselves in L2 writing.

The fact that a significant number of participants did not reach the set word count for the written text might be some indication of their level of motivation as well. In other words, had they been more motivated, they might have written more text. It is worth reflecting on if they would have written more text and paid more attention to it if it had some sort of an effect on themselves (e.g. affecting their course grade). The shortness of the texts indicates a rather low level of motivation in this particular writing task, however, it would require further studies with the same participants to determine if their texts would be longer under different circumstances.
5.1 Limitations

The disadvantages of questionnaires as a data collection tool were discussed in section 3.3. Since a questionnaire was used in the present study, it is useful to reflect upon those disadvantages and how they might have affected the results. The simplicity and superficiality of answers was one of the disadvantages listed by Dörnyei (2010, 7), which partially applies to the present study. The motivation-section included only Likert-scale items and no open-ended questions, which might have denied the possibility for a more in-depth look at the participants’ motivation. Another disadvantage was possibly unreliable and unmotivated respondents. As Dörnyei (ibid.) states, “[m]ost people are not very thorough in a research sense”, which might lead to unreliable answers because questionnaires are usually not very beneficial or enjoyable for them. This was most likely true for the participants in the present study as well, since they did not gain anything from the questionnaire. Unmotivated respondents in this case might have affected the results, especially in the written text, since the topic itself is motivation. A great part of the participants wrote a text shorter than the required length, which might suggest a lack of motivation and interest in the questionnaire/study rather than in learning English.

Social desirability bias and self-deception might have also had an effect on the participants’ responses to the motivation items. However, the motivation statements included in the questionnaire were not very controversial, which might help the participants experience less social desirability bias and be more honest. Nevertheless, there is always a chance that these two factors have affected the participants’ responses, but then again there is virtually no certain way of proving that. The last of the disadvantages of questionnaires discussed are fatigue effects. The questionnaire used in the present study was hardly too long for the participants, thus they most likely did not get too tired while filling it in. Dörnyei (2010, 12–13) notes that the optimal length for a questionnaire is four to six pages, and the questionnaire used in the present study is approximately five pages long. In addition, the optimal questionnaire should not take more than 30 minutes to complete (ibid.). As stated in section 3.3, it took the first group of participants 45 minutes and the second group 60 minutes for everyone to be done with the questionnaire. Most likely the motivation statements took less than 30 minutes to complete while the writing of the text took more of the participants’ time. However, the fatigue effects, tiredness and boredom, might have influenced the written text instead of the motivation statements.

Another limitation in the present study would be the strength and significance of correlation. A significant correlation, or a relationship, has been established between some of
the motivation-related variables and the written text score. However, there are some problems when examining correlations: correlation tests are unable to identify cause and effect (Dörnyei 2007, 225). If there is a significant positive correlation between two variables, it cannot be claimed that the reason is because one of the variables influences the other (ibid.). Thus, based solely on the Pearson correlation coefficient results, it cannot be claimed that a high level of motivation influences the participants’ L2 writing or vice versa. It can only be stated that there is a positive correlation or relationship between these two variables. It seems more logical to think that a high level of motivation would result in a better performance in L2 writing but based on a correlation test there is no way to be absolutely sure about cause and effect.
6 Conclusion

Definitive conclusions in terms of the effect of motivation on L2 writing should not be drawn from the present study, due to its rather small sample of participants and other limitations discussed in section 5. However, it can be viewed as backing up some of the previous research on the relationship between L2 motivation and L2 achievement or proficiency. Along the lines of the research introduced in section 2, the present study also found that the ideal L2 self was the most important factor in achieving high scores in L2 writing. A positive learning experience, along with integrative motivation, was also discovered to have a significant positive relationship with the quality of writing. In contrast, no significant relationship was found between the ought-to L2 self, or instrumental motivation, and the quality of writing. The length of the texts written by the participants can also be viewed as an indication of their motivation. Some of the texts were very short which is why it was evident the participants in question were not extremely interested in writing.

Based on the present study, language teachers should try to keep their students motivated to learn the L2 they are teaching since it was found that a higher level of motivation does have a positive relationship with higher proficiency in L2 writing. Teachers might want to observe how their students seem to be motivated best and use teaching methods and materials that foster high motivation in the classroom. In terms of L2 writing especially, they might want to offer topics that are interesting to the students and actually give them constructive feedback on their writing. It might also be effective if the majority of written assignments had an effect on the students’ grade since, on the basis of the present study, they seem to be less motivated and focused if the text does not affect their grade at all. Although teachers can try to affect the motivation of their students by keeping their lessons interesting and useful, they cannot force a student to be motivated to learn if the student does not want to learn.

As an end note to the present study, several conclusions and suggestions for future research can be drawn from the findings here. Since the L2 Motivational Self System is the most contemporary motivational theory at the moment, many more studies utilising this theory are to be expected. However, future studies should focus more on the relationship between L2 learners’ motivation and their actual achievement, instead of their intended learning efforts. Even though motivation is a tricky aspect of L2 learning to conduct research on, they might provide some insight for future language teachers and students. Also, longitudinal studies on motivation and its relationship with L2 proficiency would be very interesting to read. It would probably shed more light on the dynamic nature of motivation and how it can change over time.
and affect the outcome of language learning. In addition, as mentioned in section 5, research on the effect of motivation on receptive vs. productive language skills should be conducted at some point in the future. It would be interesting to see if there, in fact, are differences between them. All in all, motivation is such a central and complex aspect of second language learning that there will most certainly be more studies conducted on it in the future.
References


Appendix 1: Questionnaire

Motivaatiokysely 8.1.2019
Tämä kysely on osa Turun yliopistossa suoritettavaa pro gradu -tutkielmaa. Tutkielman aiheena on motivaatio ja kirjoittaminen. Kaikki tutkimustiedot käsitellään luottamuksellisesti ja anonyymisti, kenenkään nimiä ei mainita lopullisessa tutkielmassa.

Kyselyssä ei ole oikeita eikä väärää vastauksia, joten vastaathan mahdollisimman rehellisesti. Kiitos ajastasi ja avustasi!

* Pakollinen

Osa I

Vastaathan kaikkiin tähdellä merkittyihin kysymyksiin.

1. Nimi *

2. Ikä *

3. Sukupuoli *
   ○ Nainen
   ○ Mies
   ○ Muu

4. Äidinkieli *

5. Muut kielet, joita osaat? *

6. Viimeisin arvosana englannissa *
7. Kuinka monta vuotta olet opiskellut englantia? *

8. Kuinka monta englannin kurssia olet käynyt lukiossa? *

9. Oletko asunut englanninkielisessä maassa? (esim. USA, Iso-Britannia) *
   □ Kyllä
   □ En

10. Jos vastasit edelliseen kysymykseen KYLLÄ, kuinka kauan asuit kyseisessä maassa?

Osa II

Alla näet 45 väittämää. Vastaa kaikkiin sen mukaan, kuinka hyvin väittämät kuvaavat itseäsi tai mielipiteitäs.

Asteikko on 1-6:
1 = täysin eri mieltä
2 = eri mieltä
3 = jokseenkin eri mieltä
4 = jokseenkin samaa mieltä
5 = samaa mieltä
6 = täysin samaa mieltä

1. Läheisilleni on tärkeää, että osaan englantia. *

   1 2 3 4 5 6
   Täysin eri mieltä ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Täysin samaa mieltä

2. Opiskelen englantia vain, koska on pakko. *

   1 2 3 4 5 6
   Täysin eri mieltä ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Täysin samaa mieltä
3. Tarvitsen englantia, koska haluan tulevaisuudessa opiskella tai työskennellä ulkomailla. *

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4. Osaan kuvitella itseni puhumassa englantia ulkomaalaisten kavereiden kanssa. *

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5. Englannin osaaminen on tärkeää, jotta voin matkustella ympäri maailmaa. *

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6. Pidän englanninkielsistä TV-ohjelmista. *

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7. Englanninopiskelu on mielenkiintoista. *

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8. Tulevaisuudessa kuvittelen käyttävän englantia säännöllisesti työssäni. *

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9. Tykkään lukea englanninkielsisiä lehtiä ja kirjoja. *

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10. Minun on pakko opiskella englantia, koska haluan saada hyvät arvosanat. *

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11. Käytän paljon aikaa englannin opiskeluun. *

   1  2  3  4  5  6
   Täysin eri mieltä ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ Täysin samaa mieltä

12. Viihdyn englannin tunneilla hyvin. *

   1  2  3  4  5  6
   Täysin eri mieltä ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ Täysin samaa mieltä

13. Haluaisin osata englantia paremmin ymmärtääkseni englanninkielistä kulttuuria. *

   1  2  3  4  5  6
   Täysin eri mieltä ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ Täysin samaa mieltä

14. Voisin kuvitella asuvani ulkomailla ja keskustelevani englanniksi. *

   1  2  3  4  5  6
   Täysin eri mieltä ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ Täysin samaa mieltä

15. Voin kuvitella puhuvani englantia yhtä hyvin kuin se olisi äidinkieleni. *

   1  2  3  4  5  6
   Täysin eri mieltä ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ Täysin samaa mieltä

16. Minulle on erittäin tärkeää oppia englantia. *

   1  2  3  4  5  6
   Täysin eri mieltä ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ Täysin samaa mieltä

17. Englannin tunneilla on tylsää. *

   1  2  3  4  5  6
   Täysin eri mieltä ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ Täysin samaa mieltä

18. Minun pitää osata englantia, koska kaikki muutkin osavat. *

   1  2  3  4  5  6
   Täysin eri mieltä ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ Täysin samaa mieltä

19. Voin kuvitella opiskelevani yliopistossa, jossa kaikki kurssit ovat englanniksi. *

   1  2  3  4  5  6
   Täysin eri mieltä ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ Täysin samaa mieltä
20. Pidän enemmän englannin tunneista kuin muista oppitunneista. *

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21. Voin kuvitella kirjoittavani sähköposteja sujuvasti englanniksi. *

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22. Minulla on hyvin vähän kiinnostusta englannin tunneilla. *

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23. Jos en osaa englantia, minun on vaikea löytää hyvää työpaikkaa tulevaisuudessa. *

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24. Minun pitäisi osata englantia, koska yhteiskunta odottaa sitä minulta. *

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25. Asiat, joita haluan tehdä tulevaisuudessani, vaativat englannin kielen osaamista. *

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26. Haluaisin opiskella englantia, vaikka se ei olisi pakollista. *

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27. Voin kuvitella, että minulla on useita englantia puhuvia ystäviä tulevaisuudessa. *

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28. Minun pitäisi osata englantia, etten tuota pettymystä läheisilleni. *

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29. Jos en osaa englantia, internetin sujuva käyttäminen on vaikeaa. *

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30. Minusta vierait tietää ovat tärkeitä oppiaineita. *

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31. Jokaisen suomalaisen tulisi osata englantia. *

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32. Opettajani tekee englannin tunneista mielenkiintoa. *

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33. Minun pitäisi tulevaisuudessa osata käyttää englantia, koska olen opiskellut sitä niin kauan. *

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34. Jos haaveeni toteutuvat, pystyn käyttämään englantia sujuvasti tulevaisuudessa. *

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35. Panostan englannin opiskeluun, koska saan palkinnon (esim. rahaa) hyvistä arvosanoista. *

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36. Olen kiinnostunut englanninkielisten maiden kulttuurista (esim. USA, Australia, IsoBritannia).

1 2 3 4 5 6
Täysin eri mieltä ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Täysin samaa mieltä

37. Haluaisin asua englanninkielisessä maassa.

1 2 3 4 5 6
Täysin eri mieltä ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Täysin samaa mieltä

38. Voin tulevaisuudessa kuvitella käyttäväni englantia arkielämässäni.

1 2 3 4 5 6
Täysin eri mieltä ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Täysin samaa mieltä


1 2 3 4 5 6
Täysin eri mieltä ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Täysin samaa mieltä

40. Englannin osaaminen on edellytys menestykseen elämässä.

1 2 3 4 5 6
Täysin eri mieltä ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Täysin samaa mieltä

41. Tarvitsen englantia päästäkseni haluamaani opiskelupaikkaan.

1 2 3 4 5 6
Täysin eri mieltä ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Täysin samaa mieltä

42. Opiskelen englantia ainoastaan, jotta pääsen ylioppilaaksi.

1 2 3 4 5 6
Täysin eri mieltä ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Täysin samaa mieltä

43. Haluan osata englantia, koska se on sivistyksen merkki.

1 2 3 4 5 6
Täysin eri mieltä ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ Täysin samaa mieltä
44. Unelma-ammattini vaatii englannin kielen taitoa, joten minun on pakko opiskella sitä. *

1 2 3 4 5 6
Täysin eri mieltä  0 0 0 0 0 0  Täysin samaa mieltä

45. Minun pitäisi osata englantia pysyäkseni mukana nykyajan trendeissä. *

1 2 3 4 5 6
Täysin eri mieltä 0 0 0 0 0 0  Täysin samaa mieltä

Osa III

Viimeisessä osiossa pyydän sinua kirjoittamaan lyhyen kirjoitelman englanniksi (150-250 sanaa).

Aiheena on "Suunnitelmani lukion jälkeen / My plans after high school".

Tässä on sinulle muutama kysymys avuksi kirjoittamiseen: Haluatko opiskella yliopistossa tai ammattikorkeakoulussa? Haluatko mennä suoraan töihin? Mikä on haaveammattisi? Mitä muita suunnitelmia sinulla on tulevaisuudelle?

My plans after high school *

________________________________________
________________________________________
________________________________________
________________________________________
________________________________________

Kiitos!
Suuret kiitokset vastauksistasi, niistä on valtava apu tutkimustani varten. :)
Appendix 2: Translation of the questionnaire in English

Motivation questionnaire 8.1.2019
This questionnaire is a part of an MA Thesis being written at the University of Turku. The topic of the thesis is motivation and writing. All the data will be handled confidentially and anonymously, no names will be mentioned in the final version of the thesis.

There are no right or wrong answers, so please answer as honestly as possible. Thank you for your time and help!

* Required

Part I

Please answer all questions that are marked with *.

1. Name *

2. Age *

3. Gender *
   ○ Female
   ○ Male
   ○ Other

4. Native language *

5. Other languages that you speak *

6. Latest grade in English *
7. How many years have you studied English? *

8. How many English courses have you taken in upper secondary school? *

9. Have you lived in an English-speaking country? (e.g. the USA, the UK) *
   - Yes
   - No

10. If your answer to the previous question was YES, how long did you live there?

Part II

You can see 45 statements below. Answer all statements according to how well they describe you or your opinions.

The scale is 1-6:
1 = completely disagree
2 = disagree
3 = somewhat disagree
4 = somewhat agree
5 = agree
6 = completely agree

1. It’s important to people close to me that I know English. *

2. I’m studying English only because I have to. *

3. I need English because I want to study or work abroad in the future. *

4. I can picture myself speaking English with foreign friends. *

5. Knowing English is important, so I can travel around the world. *

6. I like TV programmes in English. *
7. Studying English is interesting.
8. I picture myself using English regularly at my job in the future.
9. I like reading magazines and books in English.
10. I must study English because I want to get good grades.
11. I spend a lot of time on studying English.
12. I like English classes.
13. I would like to know English better in order to understand the culture of English-speaking people.
15. I can picture myself speaking English as well as my native language.
16. It’s very important to me to learn English.
17. I feel bored during English classes.
18. I must know English because everyone else does.
19. I can picture myself studying at a university where all the courses are in English.
20. I like English classes more than other classes.
21. I can picture myself writing emails in fluent English.
22. I’m not very interested in what goes on during English classes.
23. If I don’t know English, it’s difficult for me to find a good job in the future.
24. I should know English because society expects that from me.
25. The things I want to do in the future require English language skills.
26. I would want to study English even if it wasn’t mandatory.
27. I can picture myself having several English-speaking friends in the future.
28. I should know English, so I don’t disappoint people who are close to me.
29. If I don’t know English, using the internet effortlessly is difficult.
30. I think foreign languages are important school subjects.
31. Every Finn should know English.
32. My teacher makes English classes interesting.
33. I should be able to use English in the future because I’ve studied it for so long.
34. If my dreams come true, I can use English fluently in the future.
35. I make an effort to study English because I get rewards (e.g. money) for good grades.
36. I’m interested in the culture of English-speaking countries (e.g. the USA, Australia, the UK). *
37. I would like to live in an English-speaking country. *
38. I can picture myself using English in my everyday life in the future. *
39. I should know English because it’s used almost everywhere in the world. *
40. Knowing English is a requirement for a successful life. *
41. I need English to get into the school/university I want. *
42. I’m studying English only to graduate from upper secondary school. *
43. I want to know English because it’s a sign of sophistication. *
44. My dream job requires English language skills, so I must study English. *
45. I should know English to keep up with today’s trends. *

**Part III**

In the last part, I ask you to write a short text in English (150-250 words).

The topic is: "My plans after high school".

Here are some questions to help you with your text: Do you want to study in a university or a university of applied sciences? What is your dream job? What other plans do you have for the future?

My plans after high school *

_________________________________________________

_________________________________________________

_________________________________________________

_________________________________________________

**Thank you!**

Thank you very much for your answers, they are a great help for my study. :)
Appendix 3: Finnish summary

Johdanto


Tutkimuksen tavoitteena on löytää vastaukset seuraaviin kysymyksiin:

1. Motivaation taso englannin oppimista kohtaan ja englannin kielisen tekstin laatua: Onko näillä kahdella asialla minkäänlaista yhteyttä?
2. Motivaation tyyppi ja englannin kielisen tekstin laatua: Onko näillä kahdella asialla minkäänlaista yhteyttä?
3. Jos motivaatiolla ja englannin kielisen tekstin laatulla on jonkinlainen yhteys, millainen se on laadultaan?


Teoreettinen viitekehys

kieltä sulautuakseen sitä puhuvan väestön joukoon, esimerkiksi maahanmuuttajat ovat usein
integritiivisesti motivoituneita kielenoppijoita. Instrumentaalisesti motivoitunut oppija taas
haluaa oppia kieltä saavuttaakseen jonkin muun tavoitteen, esimerkiksi työpaikan saamisen.
Näiden lisäksi käytössä ovat termit, jotka kuvavat kielenoppijalta itseltään tulevaa
motiivaatiota (engl. intrinsic motivation) ja kielenoppijan ulkopuolelta, esimerkiksi
vanhemmilta, tulevaa motiivaatiota (engl. extrinsic motivation).

Tämän tutkimuksen pohjana on käytetty pääasiassa Zoltán Dörnyein (2009)
motiivaatioteoriaa (engl. L2 Motivational Self System tai L2MSS), joka on nykyaikaisin
motiivaatioteoria kielenoppimisen tutkimuksessa tällä hetkellä. Kyseiselle teorialle ja siinä
esiintyville termeille ei löytynyt sujuvia suomenkiläisiä käännöksiä, joten käytän
englanninkielisiä termejä selitettävästi ne suomeksi auki. L2MSS pohjautuu osittain psykologiaan,
sillä sen pohjana ovat termit possible selves ja future self-guides. Näistä ensimmäinen viittaa
kielenoppijan mahdollisiin lopputulemiin (mitä heistä voisi tulla, millaisiksi he haluaisivat tulla
ja millaisiksi he pelkäävät tulevansa) ja jälkimmäinen ajatuksin sekä kokemuksiin, jotka
ohjaavat oppijaa (Dörnyei 2009, 11).

**Future self-guides** on jaettu kolmeen eri kategoriaan, joita on käytetty myös tässä
Ensimmäinen näistä viittaa siihen millainen kielenoppijan ideaaliminä on: Osaako hänen
ideaaliminänsä esimerkiksi englantia? Toinen termi viittaa siihen millainen kielenoppijan
odotetaan olevan vai millaisia odotuksia häneen tuntuu kohdistuvan: Odottaaako yhteiskunta tai
jokin muu taho hänen osaavan englantia? Kolmas termi viittaa kielenoppijan
oppimiskokemukseen: Onko hänen oppimisympäristönsä suotuisa ja motiivaatiota lisäävä?
Valtaosa tässä tutkielmassa esitellyistä tutkimuksista on saanut tuloksekseen, että ideal L2 self
on paras indikaattori menestyksestä vieraassa kielessä (katso Dörnyei ja Chan 2013; Lamb
2012; Yang ja Kim 2011). Toisin sanon mitä enemmän ideal L2 self ohjaa kielenoppijan
motiivaatiota, sen paremmin hän pärjää esimerkiksi puhuessaan kohdekieltä. Näyttää on
kuitenkin myös tapauksista, joissa ideal L2 self on yhdistetty jopa heikompaan kielitaitoon
(katso Moskovsky et al. 2016).

Motiivaation lisäksi toinen keskeinen seikka on vieraan kielen kirjoitustaito. Kielen
osaaminen voidaan jakaa reseptiivisiin ja produktiivisiin taitoihin. Reseptiivisiin taitoihin
lukeutuvat kuunteleminen ja lukeminen, kun taas produktiivisia taitoja ovat puhuminen ja
kirjoittaminen. Reseptiivisissä taidoissa kielenoppija ottaa tietoa, eli kohdekieltä, vastaan ja
mukaan vieraan kielen kirjoittamisen laatuun vaikuttaa kielenoppijan minäpystyvyys (Raoofi


Aineisto ja menetelmät
Tutkimus toteutettiin kyselyn muodossa, jossa kerättiin aluksi tutkimuksen kannalta relevantteja taustatietoja (esim. ikä, kuinka kauan osallistuja on opiskellut englantia, osallistujan äidinkieli). Tämän jälkeen osallistujille esitettiin 45 väittämää liitetyä heidän motivaatiaonsa opiskella englantia vieraana kielenä, joihin he vastasivat asteikolla 1–6 (1 = täysin eri mieltä, 2 = eri mieltä, 3 = jokseenkin eri mieltä, 4 = jokseenkin samaa mieltä, 5 = samaa mieltä, 6 = täysin samaa mieltä). Kyseiset väittämät oli etukäteen jaoteltu viiteen eri kategoriaan, mutta osallistujat eivät olleet tietoisia jaottelusta. Kategorioihin kuuluivat integraatiivinen ja instrumentaalinen motivaatio, sekä ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self ja L2 learning experience. Kyselyn jälkeen osallistujat kirjoittivat vielä lyhyen tekstin, noin 150–250 sanaa, englanniksi. Aihe oli annettu heille valmiiksi (”suunnitelmani lukion jälkeen”), jotta ei syntyisi ongelma siitä, etteivät he keksivat aihetta tekstilleen.

Tutkimuksen aineistona käytettiin suomalaisia lukiolaisia suomalaistaulukkoita. Osallistujia oli 57 kappaletta ja he olivat 17–18-vuotiaita opiskelijoita lounaissuomalaisessa lukiopistossa. He osallistuivat tutkimukseen vapaaehtoisesti ja alakäisten osallistujien vanhemmilta kysyttiin
lupa tutkimukseen osallistumiseen. Valtaosan äidinkieli oli suomi, mutta mukana oli muutama
osallistuja, joiden äidinkieli oli jokin muu kuin suomi. Osallistujat, jotka eivät puhuneet suomea
vastasivat kyselyyn sen perusteella, miten heidän opiskelijatoverinsa olivat kääntäneet
väättämät heille. Tämän vuoksi heidät on jätetty pois tulosten analyysistä, sillä emme voi olla
varmoja ovatko he ymmärtäneet väättämät juuri niin kuin ne on tarkoitettu ymmärrettäviksi.

Tutkimus toteutettiin tammikuussa 2019 osallistujien englannin tunnin aikana.
Osallistujat tulivat kahdesta eri ryhmästä, joista toisen oppitunti oli aamupäivällä kello 10 ja
toisen ryhmän oppitunti iltapäivällä kello 13.30. Kyseessä oli 75 minuuttia kestävät oppitunnit,
mutta kummallakaan ryhmällä ei kulunut täyttä aikaa kyselyn täyttämiseen ja tekstin
kirjoittamiseen. Kysely toteutettiin sähköisesti ja osallistujat vastasivat siihen käyttämällä joko
kannettavia tietokoneita tai älypuhelimiaan. Myös teksti kirjoitettiin samasta sähköisestä
kyselystä löytyvään tekstikenttään, jotta saman osallistujan kyselyvastaukset ja teksti olisi
helpompi pitää yhdessä. Tutkimuksen tulokset saatiin pisteyttämällä kyselyn vastaukset ja
osallistujien kirjoittamat tekstit, jonka jälkeen näitä pisteitä verrattiin toisiinsa
osallistujakohtaisesti.

**Tutkimuksen tulokset**

Tutkimuksen tulokset pääasiassa vahvistivat teoreettisessa osuudessa esitelyjen tutkimusten
tuloksia. Tulokset näyttivät, että osallistujat, jotka saivat hyvät pisteet kategorioissa ideal L2
self, L2 learning experience ja integratiivinen motivaatio saivat myös hyvät pisteet
kirjoittamastaan tekstistä. Näillä kategorioilla oli siis merkittävä positiivinen korrelaatio tekstin
pisteisiin verrattuna (ideal L2 self: $r = .618$; integratiivinen motivaatio: $r = .569$; L2 learning
experience: $r = .276$). Tästä voimme päätellä, että motivaatio, joka lähtee oppijasta itsestään
seksi positiivinen oppimiskokemus saattavat johtaa parempaan tulokseen kohdekielen
oppimisessa. Kategorioilla ought-to L2 self ja instrumentaalinen motivaatio ei näyttänyt olevan
positiivista suhdetta kirjoituksen laatuun, mutta suhde ei ollut myöskään negatiivinen. Näin
ollen voimme todeta, ettei näillä kategorioilla ollut juurikaan vaikutusta englannin kielen
kirjoituksen laatuun.

Kyselyn väättämät oli jaoteltu etukäteen viiteen eri kategoriaan ja analyysivaiheessa
lisättiin kuudes kategoria: kokonaisvaltainen motivaatiotaso. Tähän kategoriaan lukeutuvat
kaikkien kategorioiden pisteet yhteenlaskettuna. Maksimipisteet kokonaisvaltaisessa
motivaatiotasona olivat 270 pistettä, kategorioissa L2 learning experience 30 pistettä ja jäljelle
jäävissä neljäässä kategorioassa maksimi oli 60 pistettä. Pisteiden keskiarvot näissä kategorioissa
olivat seuraavat: 186,5 pistettä (kokonaisvaltainen motivaatiotaso), 44,9 pistettä (ideal L2 self), 41,8 pistettä (ought-to L2 self), 36,4 pistettä (instrumentaalinen motivaatio), 44,5 pistettä (integratiivinen motivaatio) ja 18,6 pistettä (L2 learning experience). Nämä keskiarvot perusteella huomataan, että ideal L2 self ja integratiivinen motivaatio näkyivät voimakkaimpina osallistujien keskuudessa. Ought-to L2 self oli myös suhteellisen läheillä kahden edellä mainitun kategorian tasoa, mutta instrumentaalinen motivaatio jäi kauas muista.

Englanniksi kirjoitettavan tekstin maksimipistemäärä oli 100 pistettä ja sille asetettu pituus oli 150–250 sanaa. Alhaisin saavutettu pistemäärä oli 0 pistettä ja alhaisin sanamäärä oli 18 sanaa. Korkein pistemäärä oli 95 pistettä ja korkein sanamäärä oli 203 sanaa. Tekstin pisteiden keskiarvo oli 68,2 pistettä ja tekstien sanamäärän keskiarvo oli 133,2 sanaa. Sanamäärän keskiarvo oli alle ohjeissa annetun minimipituuden, mikä osaltaan kertoo jokaisen osallistujan keskiarvomäärän opiskelijoiden motivaatiosta. He eivät vaikuta olleen erityisen motivoituneita panostamaan tekstin kirjoittamiseen, mikä saattaa johtua esimerkiksi siitä, ettei se vaikuttanut millään tavalla heidän kurssiarvosanaansa. Osallistujat eivät myöskään saaneet jälkikäteen palautetta teksteistään, ne arvosteltiin ainoastaan tutkimusta varten.

Lopuksi
Voimme todeta, että tutkimuksen tulokset olivat pääasiassa sellaiset, kuin oletettiinkin. Kielenoppijoilta itseltään tuleva motivaatio näytti olevan vahvimmin yhteydessä sujuvaan ja hyvälaatuiseen englannin kielen kirjoittamiseen. Motivaation ja kielenoppimisen yhteyden tutkimista on syytä jatkaa vastaisuudessakin, sillä sen avulla voimme löytää uusia ulottuvuuksia kielenoppimiseen ja -opettamiseen. Eräs asia, jota olisi mielenkiintoista tutkia, on motivaation vaikutus reseptiivisiin ja produktiivisiin osaamisalueisiin. Tällaisessa tutkimuksessa voitaisiin tarkastella vaikuttavatko erilaiset motivaatiotyypit eri tavalla esimerkiksi lukemiseen ja kirjoittamiseen varrella kielellä.