FINNISH COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOL PUPILS' LANGUAGE DISPOSITION
Language shower as a means of diversifying language choices

Master's Thesis
Elisa Miettinen

JYVÄSKYLÄN YLIOPISTO

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Tiivistelmä – Abstract

Kielten opiskelu on yksipuolistunut Suomessa viime vuosina. Englannilla on vahva asema lähes pakollisena ensimmäisenä kielenä, kun taas vapaaehtoisten kielten opiskelu on vähentynyt. Kehityksen suuntaa on koetettu kääntää erilaisilla projekteilla ja esimerkiksi kielisuihkuttamalla oppilaita. Tämän tutkimuksen tarkoituksena oli selvittää, miten koululaiset suhtautuvat englannin, saksan, ranskan ja venäjän kieliin sekä voisiko kielisuihkutukseen osallistuminen antaa oppilaille parempia valmiuksia valita muitakin kieliä englannin lisäksi.
Motivaatio on yksi tärkeimmistä kielivalintaan vaikuttavista tekijöistä, joten tutkimus hyödynsi motivaatiotutkimuksen perinteitä ja metodeja.

Tutkimusote oli määrällinen ja aineisto kerättiin kyselylomakkeella. Lopulliseen aineistoon kuuluivat vastaukset 239 oppilaalta, joista 103 oli osallistunut ranskan kielisuihkutukseen. Vertailuryhmässä oli 136 oppilasta. Oppilaat olivat aineistonkeruun aikaan viides-, kuudes- ja seitsemäsluokkalaisia. Analyysissä pyrittiin paitsi kuvaamaan oppilaiden suhtautumista kyselyn kieliin, myös etsimään eroja kielisuihkutettujen ja muiden oppilaiden välillä.

Tutkimuksen tulokset osoittavat, että oppilaat olivat enimmäkseen hyvin motivoituneita opiskelemaan englantia. Englanti sai kaikilla asteikoilla korkeimmat pisteet, oppilaat olivat valmiita näkemään eniten vaivaa sen oppimiseksi ja se oli myös selvästi suosituin kielivalinta. Saksa ja ranska arvioitiin varsin neutraalisti, mutta asenteet venäjää kohtaan olivat melko negatiivisia. Kielisuihkutukseen osallistuneet oppilaat suhtautuivat merkittävästi positiivisemmin ranskaa ja osittain myös saksaa kohtaan kuin vertailuryhmä. Nämä oppilaat myös ilmaisivat useammin haluavansa oppia ranskaa. Tyttöjen suhtautuminen kieliä ja niiden opiskelua kohtaan oli selvästi myönteisempi kuin poikien. Englanti, saksa, ranska ja ruotsi olivat ne kielet, joita oppilaat useimmiten haluaisivat oppia. Englannin valinnan motiivit olivat enimmäkseen instrumentaalisia, kun taas muun kielen valinnan yleisin syy oli positiivinen asenne ja kiinnostus kieltä kohtaan. Muutenkin englannin opiskelumotivaatiossa painottui instrumentaalinen orientaatio. Tulosten perusteella kielisuihkutukseen osallistuminen parantaa oppilaiden suhtautumista ainakin suihkutettavaa kieltä kohtaan. Englannin asemaan suosituimpana kielellä sillä ei ole vaikutusta. Lisätutkimusta tarvitaan siitä, monipuolistaako kielisuihkutus lopulta myös kielivalintoja.

Asiasanat – Keywords L2 learning, motivation, language disposition, language shower
Säilytyspaikka – Depository Kielten laitos
Muita tietoja – Additional information

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1 INTRODUCTION

It is often said that Finns view language study very positively, at least compared to many other nations. This is at least partly true as our national languages Finnish and Swedish are not widely used, and therefore, studying other languages is considered important. This is evident in that languages are an established part of almost all education in Finland. (Pöyhönen 2009: 145, 149; Sajavaara 2006: 223) The importance of English in international communication, working life, and travel is indisputable, but at the same time, it has become somewhat questionable whether this positive attitude still extends to other foreign languages. The number of pupils studying other languages than English and Swedish or Finnish in basic and upper secondary education has decreased substantially since the end of the 20th century (see e.g. Kumpulainen 2003, 2010).

As language choices have become more one-sided, national projects such as the Language Funfair (*Kielitivoli*) have attempted to reverse this development (see e.g. Tuokko et al. 2012). They have sought to develop language teaching and encourage pupils to choose optional languages. One recent teaching approach designed to meet the latter goal has been language showers. They are playful short-term classes that aim to give children a taste of languages and provide them with positive encounters with also other languages than English that they hear daily, for instance, on television. Methodologically, language showers resemble language immersion or Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), but on a smaller scale (Mehisto, Frigols and Marsh 2008). The underlying wish has been that the pupils who have participated in a language shower will later begin to study the language at school. In other words, it could be said that the goal has been to improve the pupils' initial language learning motivation. Motivation is one of the most important factors affecting success in foreign language learning, but it is also often a prerequisite for initiating second language (L2) studies (Dörnyei 1998: 117).

Language showers on a large scale are such a new phenomenon in Finland that there is very little research conducted on them (however, see Mela 2012, Pynnönen 2012, 2013). Furthermore, Finnish motivation studies have usually concentrated on mapping the motivation of learners already studying and L2 (see e.g. Julkunen 1998). In the

context of language showers, the present study is, however, interested in children's initial motivation before they have started to study any optional languages. Here, this initial motivation is referred to as language disposition. Language disposition deals with the attitudes and beliefs pupils have about certain languages and how positively they are disposed to study these languages.

The present study examines Finnish comprehensive school pupils' willingness to choose an additional language using the concepts of L2 motivation and language disposition. In other words, this study attempts to find out if language showers have an effect on pupils' language disposition, more precisely, whether participating in a French language shower can facilitate the pupils' readiness to choose also other languages in addition to English. On the one hand, I study pupils' motivation to study English which has become a self-evident, and in many cases compulsory, choice for the first foreign language in Finnish schools. On the other hand, this study inspects the pupils' disposition towards three other foreign languages that are rather commonly offered as free-choice languages, namely German, French, and Russian. These languages appear to have been overshadowed by English since people seem to think that it is enough to know English.

Dörnyei, Csizér and Németh's (2006) extensive study on L2 motivation and attitudes in Hungary serves as a foundation for the present study as it examined school pupils' disposition towards several languages in a context where the importance of English and other languages had been changing a great deal in connection with globalisation. The data in the present study was collected with a questionnaire and analysed quantitatively. The respondents were 239 fifth, sixth, and seventh graders who had studied English as the first foreign language. 43 % of them had taken part in a language shower before participating in this study.

This study is organised in the following way. I will begin by providing information on foreign language learning and teaching, the Finnish language education programme and pupils' contacts with foreign languages in Finland in Chapter 2. The third chapter introduces two national development projects that have attempted to support versatile language choices. In Chapter 4, I will describe language showers in more detail and portray the particular language shower that functioned as the background for this study. After clarifying this societal context of this study, I will move on to review the

theoretical background, i.e. the study on foreign language learning motivation in Chapter 5. In this chapter, I will also introduce the term language disposition as a better alternative for motivation in the context of this study. The research questions and the methods of data gathering and analysis are presented in detail in Chapter 6. The results are examined in Chapter 7, whereas discussion on these findings in the light of previous results will follow in Chapter 8. Finally, Chapter 9 concludes the study.

2   FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING IN FINNISH BASIC EDUCATION

This chapter takes a look at how foreign languages are studied in Finnish basic education. The aim is to familiarize the reader with the foreign language programme in Finnish schools, the trends in optional language education in basic education, and the role languages have in Finnish schoolchildren's everyday life.

The foreign language programme in Finnish schools has aimed at diversity since the comprehensive school system was established at the end of the 1970s (Pöyhönen 2009: 148, Tuokko, Takala & Koikkalainen 2011: 14). The language programme consists of two compulsory and from zero to two free-choice languages in comprehensive school. Studying the A-level languages begins in primary school (grades 1–6). The A1 language is a compulsory language that is most commonly started on the third grade (at c. 9 years), but can be started on the first or the second grade. The A2 language is an optional language starting either on the fourth or the fifth grade. The B-level languages are studied in secondary school (grades 7–9). The B1 language is the second compulsory language which pupils begin to study on the seventh grade (at c. 13 years). It is normally the second national language, which is either Swedish or Finnish depending on the pupil's mother tongue. The B2 is an elective language usually starting on the eighth grade. (Pöyhönen 2009: 155–156.) In other words, it is possible to study four different languages during the nine years of comprehensive school, and all pupils study at least two languages in addition to Finnish or Swedish as a mother tongue.

Overall, foreign language education appears to be doing well in Finland, yet there are also many concerns. On the one hand, Finland already achieves the European Union's goal that all EU nationals should know at least two European languages in addition to their mother tongue (Sajavaara 2006: 233). Besides, Finns tend to view foreign language education positively and value the opportunities languages offer for international communication (Pöyhönen 2009: 145). On the other hand, language study has become more and more one-sided after the 1980s. Studying other languages than English has decreased continuously in comprehensive school, and a similar trend can be seen in upper secondary schools. (Tuokko et al. 2011: 14).

English has been the most popular foreign language in Finnish schools since the 1970s (Tuokko et al. 2011: 14). Even though it is possible not to study English at all in

comprehensive school, English is widely considered to be the most important foreign language for Finns. According to Statistics Finland (2011), 99 % of secondary school pupils study it, mostly as an A1 or A2 language. It has a strong position as the first foreign language, and in 2009, a little over 90 % of third graders studied English (Kumpulainen 2010: 55). On the other hand, English is in practice a compulsory language for a significant number of pupils because it is the only language offered as the A1 language in the majority of municipalities (Pöyhönen 2009: 159, Sajavaara 2006: 236). As English is usually the first compulsory language studied in schools, studying other languages, such as German, French, and Russian, is based on voluntary language choices (Tuokko et al. 2011: 14). However, it has become more and more common to study only the minimum amount of languages, which basically means English and the second national language (Kangasvieri et al. 2011: 20). Next, I will describe the decline of optional foreign language studies in Finnish basic education in more detail.

2.1 Trends in optional language study in basic education

A major change in studying languages took place in 1994 when the A2 languages were introduced into the foreign language programme. Studying an A2 language became very popular soon after (see Figure 1). Especially the number of pupils studying German increased sharply (Sajavaara 2006: 234). The popularity of A2 languages reached its peak in 1997 when approximately 40 % of pupils studied an A2 language (Tuokko et al. 2011: 17). However, this number has been on the decline since the beginning of the 21st century, and particularly German has been losing its position. Tuokko et al. (2011: 14) suspect that the new freedom of choice encouraged pupils to choose A2 languages when it first became possible. On the other hand, one reason for the decline could be that studying two languages in primary school has turned out to be too hard for the pupils, as Pohjala (2004: 259) and Sajavaara (2006: 234) conclude. In addition, language teaching has been criticized for relying too much on the textbook with little connection to pupils' interests and their language use outside the school context (see e.g. Luukka et al. 2008).
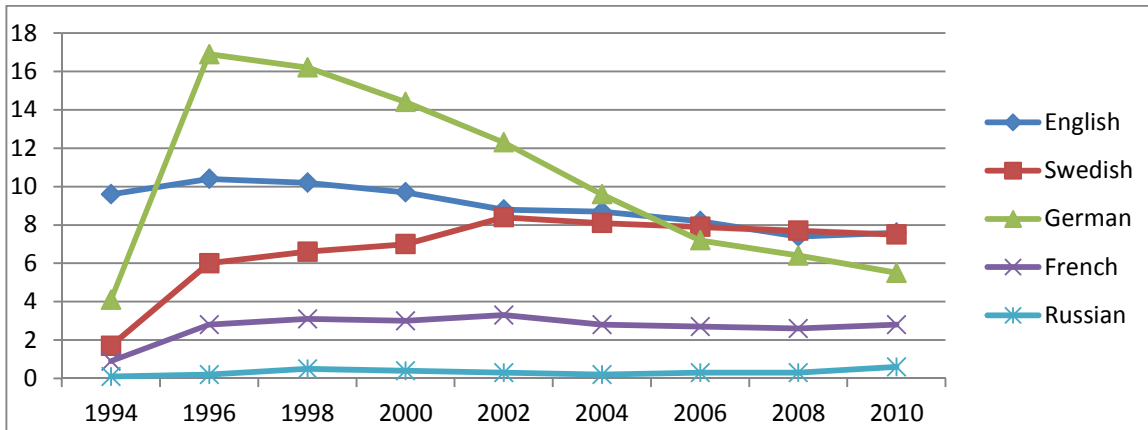
Figure 1. Percentage of pupils studying certain A2 languages on the fifth grade 1994–2010 (Kumpulainen 2003, 2010, 2012; Kumpulainen & Saari 2006)

The drop in studying an optional B2 has been even greater as the total amount of pupils studying B2 languages in the eighth and ninth grades has gone down from 42.7 % in 1996 to 14.5 % in 2010 (Kumpulainen 2003, 2012). German has remained the most popular B2 language, but it has still lost ground significantly (see Figure 2). Furthermore, the number of pupils studying French as a B2 language has been reduced by half. According to Tuokko et al. (2011), this setback is partly due to the early popularity of A2 languages which was reflected on B2 language choices. In addition, B2 language choices have been reduced as the amount of elective studies in the distribution of lesson hours was reduced in the 2004 general core curriculum. Thus, it has become more difficult to include an extra language into the study programme, and there is more competition between free-choice languages and other common elective subjects, such as music, arts, and physical education (Sajavaara 2006: 237). On the other hand, the number of pupils studying Russian as a B2 language has doubled between 2006 and 2010 (Kumpulainen 2012: 51), yet the numbers are very small. The increase in percentage has been the greatest in the ambiguous category "other language" which includes, for example, Spanish, Italian, and Japanese.
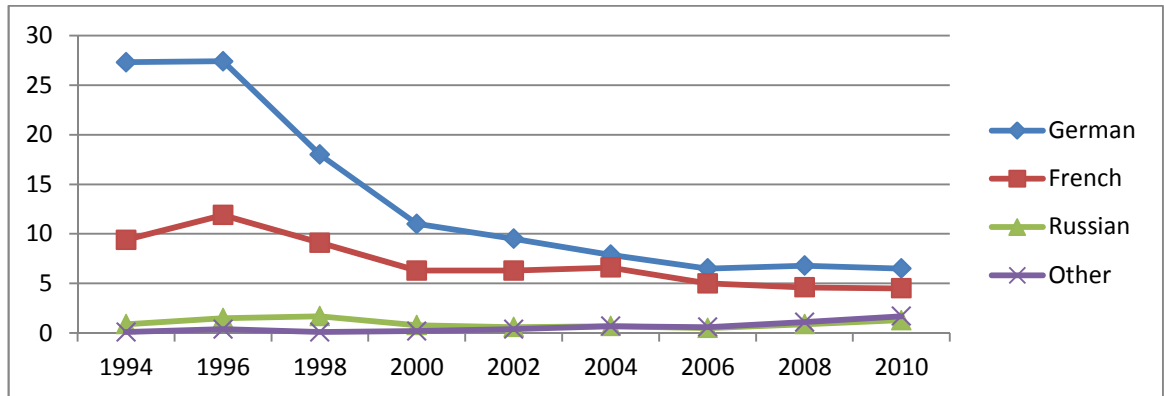
Figure 2. Percentage of pupils studying certain B2 languages on the eighth and ninth grades 1994–2010 (Kumpulainen 2003, 2010, 2012; Kumpulainen & Saari 2006)

In addition to the reasons mentioned above, the lessening interest in studying other foreign languages than English is partly a result of political decisions (Tuokko et al. 2011: 14). At the same time as the A2 language was introduced into the language programme in 1994, education providers were freed from the obligation to offer free-choice languages, i.e. A2 or B2 languages. In 1998, the Basic Education Act was changed so that large municipalities with a population of over 30,000 were no longer obliged to offer English, Finnish/Swedish, German, French, and Russian as long language courses, i.e. starting in primary school. (Tuokko et al. 2011: 15.) Combined with the worsening economic situation in municipalities, this freedom has meant that municipalities are not willing to offer a wide language programme. Very few municipalities offer anything else than English as the first foreign language (Tuokko et al. 2011: 15), and Sajavaara (2006: 234–235) points out that the number of pupils studying free-choice languages has gone down as municipalities have stopped offering A2 languages. Another response to the economic pressure has been that municipalities demand a larger number of pupils to choose a specific language in order for the teaching to begin (Sajavaara 2006: 237).

The regression in optional language study described above is problematic as it has meant privation of equality. Political decisions and economic changes have placed pupils in different parts of the country in an unequal position (Tuokko et al. 2011: 15) as, for instance, the possibility to begin optional language studies varies substantially. This is in sharp contrast with the Finnish basic education's objective to offer all pupils equal opportunities (FNBE 2011: 6). From the point of view of equality, gender differences are another significant problem in language education: Boys choose less

free-choice languages than girls and also drop out of A2 and B2 language courses more often than girls (Pohjala 2004: 259; Sajavaara 2006: 234, 241–242).

One-sided language study poses problems also for the sufficiency of people's language skills in Finland. Some great changes, such as joining the European Union, international trade and globalisation, and the development of technology and the media, have taken place and influenced the role of different languages in the Finnish society (Sajavaara 2006: 224–225, Tuokko et al. 2011: 12). Yet, these political and economic changes have had a rather small effect on Finnish language teaching and learning in Tuokko et al.'s opinion (2011: 12). Today, the knowledge of English is necessary for everyone. In addition, the economic life needs workers with a good command of Russian, Swedish, German, and French. As Asian and South American countries gain more significance, there is also a growing need of language skills in Chinese, Japanese, Spanish, and Portuguese. (EK 2010, Tuokko et al. 2011: 12.) At the moment, our school system does not meet these needs.

On the other hand, one should bear in mind that language education has also taken many steps forward during the past decades, as Pöyhönen (2009: 165) reminds. The number of pupils starting their foreign language education before the third grade has increased, teaching methods are more diverse than before, and methodologies integrating content with language teaching, such as language immersion or CLIL, have been introduced. In addition, immigration has added to the Finnish language skill reserve as well as different kinds of exchange programmes that have become more common and increased the participants' language skills. (Pöyhönen 2009: 165, Sajavaara 2006: 233.) To better understand the popularity of English as the A1 language, the next subchapter offers some insights into the role of English in Finland. Some attention is also given to pupils' contacts with other languages rather commonly offered in schools.

2.2   English vs. other languages: foreign language contacts in Finland

Julkunen (1998: 84) says that language contacts and familiarity with different languages have a positive effect on both beginning language studies and the students' persistence in studying them. In addition, it seems reasonable to assume, in line with a small study by Kolehmainen, Kuosmanen and Pietarinen (2010), that positive experiences with languages in everyday life raise interest towards language studies. There are relatively few native speakers of foreign languages in Finland (4.9 % of the population in 2012),

even though their number has been increasing rapidly in recent years (Statistics Finland 2013). Instead, internationalisation, globalisation and advancements in technology have made foreign languages a visible part of Finnish society. In this chapter, I will examine the role of English in Finnish society and contacts with foreign languages especially among Finnish children and youth.

As Leppänen et al. (2011: 20) write, English is "the foreign language most desired, needed, studied, and used by Finns". In the working life, knowledge of English is considered a basic professional skill that is expected from most workers (EK 2010). It is considered a self-evident language for international communication, and has replaced Swedish as the language of communication in Nordic cooperation to some extent (Taavitsainen & Pahta 2003). In some situations, English is used as the language of communication even among Finnish speakers, for instance, in content and language integrated learning (CLIL) classrooms (Leppänen & Nikula 2007). The role of English is prominent also in research and higher education – marked by the fact that a considerable number of dissertations are these days written in English (Taavitsainen & Pahta 2003). Yet, the use of English is not restricted to these fields, but instead, many Finns use English in their everyday life in addition to their mother tongue (Pöyhönen 2009: 147).

The media as well as information and communication technologies are in a key role in introducing languages into Finns' everyday life (Leppänen & Nikula 2007: 367). Julkunen (1998: 73, 85) asserts that the media play a role in shaping language choices: they create impressions of how useful and necessary different languages are. Traditional media, television and cinema in particular, bring foreign languages into Finnish homes as TV programmes and movies are not dubbed in Finnish. Although there are regularly programmes in the other large European languages too, English is the foreign language that dominates the Finnish media. According to a vast survey on the English language in Finland, the most common ways to encounter English are English-language music (also many Finnish artists sing in English) and TV programmes (Leppänen et al. 2011: 125).

The role of English is particularly considerable in youth culture. Sajavaara (2006: 242) points out that English is such a popular language among the young thanks to the media and the youth culture which provide plenty of input in the language. This English input is present on the Internet (blogs, fan fiction, online games, virtual communities etc.), in

electronic games, youth culture magazines, and certain hobbies and lifestyles such as skateboarding, gaming and hip hop cultures (Leppänen & Nikula 2007, Pöyhönen 2009, Taavitsainen & Pahta 2003). Leppänen et al. (2011) note that the youngest age group (15–24-year-olds) stood part from the other respondents in the national survey on the English language in Finland: English has a more prominent role in their everyday life than in the lives of older generations. Younger respondents encounter English more often especially in their free time, whereas older people mainly use it in their work. The youngest respondents also shared the most positive attitude towards the use of English in Finnish society, and were of the opinion that everybody should know English. English may still be a foreign language for many Finns, but for the young generations, it is an everyday language and a normal part of their life. For the youngest respondents, English is such an important language that in some cases it is even part of their identity. (Leppänen et al. 2011.)

If we take a look at even younger Finns, Hyytiä's (2008) MA thesis shows that fourth, fifth, and sixth graders are already active users of English. In her study, she found out that the most common form of contact with the English language was listening to music in English, which two of every three pupils did on a daily basis. Almost as many pupils watched English-language TV programmes (with Finnish subtitles) every day, and all the respondents did this every now and then. In addition, one third of the pupils told that they use English daily while playing computer games and surfing on the Internet. The results also show that many pupils practise English for fun in their free time or speak it occasionally even with their Finnish-speaking friends. (Hyytiä 2008.)

In comparison, contacts with German, French, and Russian appear to be rather infrequent and limited among pupils. Väisänen (2004: 77–78, 114–115, 153–154) studied the language contacts of ninth graders studying German, French, or Russian as an A-language. Half of the ninth graders studying German, French, or Russian said that they never speak the target language outside the language classroom. The pupils read books or newspapers and watched TV programmes or films in their respective target language once or twice a year on average, but the students of German slightly more often. Approximately half of the students of German and French and an even greater portion of those studying Russian reported that they never visit Internet sites in their target language. All in all, Väisänen's findings (2004) illustrate that, in contrast with English, students need to seek contacts with these foreign languages actively if they

want to use the language outside the language classroom. However, at least the results concerning using the Internet in the target language are probably outdated since the survey was conducted over 10 years ago. Yet, more recent studies show that the Finnish youth use the media mostly in Finnish and English (see e.g. Luukka et al. 2008).

Considering the extensive use of English and the infrequent contacts with other foreign languages, it is no wonder that English is perceived as the most useful foreign language in Finland (Sajavaara 2006: 33). Thus, it is also reasonable that it is so much more popular to study English than other foreign languages. Many researchers draw attention to how English is in some regards becoming a second language in Finland instead of a foreign language (see e.g. Leppänen & Nikula 2007, Sajavaara 2006, Taavitsainen & Pahta 2003). Leppänen and Nikula (2007: 368) predict that the role of English will become more and more important in the future, "since the importance of English has grown in domains which are socially and culturally extremely influential". The downside is that the prominent role of English seems to weaken people's motivation to strive for proficiency in any other foreign language (Pohjola 2004: 264). In addition, people apparently feel that the opportunities to encounter other foreign languages in everyday life are scarce, which seems to result in diminishing interest in FL studies (Kangasvieri et al. 2011: 44).

3   PROJECTS AIMING TO DIVERSIFY LANGUAGE TEACHING

The declining state of language education has been marked in the public administration, and there have been several development projects aiming to diversify language choices within the past 15 years or so. The overall objective has been to encourage the study of other foreign languages in addition to English. In this chapter, I will present the two largest development projects that have attempted to change the course of language study, namely KIMMOKE, 1996–2001, and the Language Funfair, 2009–2011. Most attention is given to the aims and results related to basic education.

3.1   KIMMOKE

KIMMOKE (Kielenopetuksen monipuolistamis- ja kehittämishanke), launched by the Ministry of Education and the Finnish National Board of Education, was a project aspiring to diversify and develop language teaching and learning in general and vocational education. 275 schools and other educational institutions in 39 different municipalities took part in the project. The goals related to basic education stated that 50 % of secondary school pupils should study an optional language, that there should not be remarkable differences in language study between the sexes, and that all municipalities should, if feasible, offer the possibility to study an A2 language. There were also quantitative goals for increasing the number of pupils studying certain foreign languages, especially German, French, Spanish, and Russian. The qualitative goals concentrated on improving the quality of language education, for instance by paying attention to teaching methods, to the role of culture in language education, and to improving oral communication skills. The participating schools chose their own focal points for the project and were arranged into thematic networks that got national funding for organising meetings for the participants as well as in-service training and networking opportunities for teachers. (Nyman 2004: 271–273; OPH 2001: 9-10, 13.)

The KIMMOKE project did, in fact, increase the versatility of language choices, but statistics show that the results were short-lived (Tuokko et al. 2011: 15). At the beginning of the project, studying free-choice languages and especially A2 languages increased significantly, but started to decrease even while the project was on-going (see Figures 1 and 2 above). Furthermore, the project did not reach all of its objectives as most of the quantitative goals proved to be too optimistic. Studying an A2 language, for example, was possible in two thirds of Finnish municipalities and not in all of them in

the academic year 2000–2001. It was especially difficult to promote Russian; yet, Russian and French were studied more commonly as both A2 and B2 languages in the KIMMOKE municipalities than in those outside of the project. Another bias that remained was that the majority of pupils studying other languages than English and Finnish were still girls. (Nyman 2004: 275–276; OPH 2001: 20–24.)

According to Tuokko et al. (2011: 15), it is difficult to analyse the reasons behind KIMMOKE's failure. One possible cause is that the objectives were not defined specifically enough as the municipalities could choose their own themes for development. Thus, it is possible that these themes did not support the project's main purpose. In addition, Tuokko et al. (2011: 15) suspect that the project lacked adequate funding. The project also coincided with economic problems in municipalities. Nyman (2004: 279) points out that even though most educational institutions took part in KIMMOKE willingly, there were also some that participated because of the economic benefits, because it gave a good image of the institution, or because the municipality wanted them to become involved in the project.

3.2   The Language Funfair

Despite the efforts made to diversify language choices, it is evident that language choices became rather more one-sided than versatile during the 2000's (Tuokko et al. 2011: 16). This led to a new national project that was launched in 2009 as part of a larger educational development project: Perusopetus paremmaksi, Better Basic Education [my translation] (ibid. 9, 16). The part of the project focusing on language education is called Kielitivoli. In this study, Kielitivoli will be referred to as the Language Funfair, its direct English translation. Originally, the name Language Funfair denoted a publicity campaign that was meant to support local activities and networking at schools, but the name got a wider meaning and became to stand for the whole project (ibid. 9). In this study, the term Language Funfair refers to all the activities related to the development of language education as part of the Better Basic Education project. As the Language Funfair project provides the broader context for this study, I will discuss it in more detail than KIMMOKE.

The Language Funfair was a three-year project whose main objectives were to diversify the selection of foreign languages offered to pupils as well as the language choices made by the pupils, and to improve the quality of language teaching. More precisely,

the goal was that more pupils would have an opportunity to study also other languages than English and already in primary school, if feasible. 102 providers of basic education took part in the project, and 53 of them were involved from the very beginning (later referred to as the first phase municipalities). These included mostly cities and municipalities but also, for instance, teacher training schools. In addition to the national objectives, the participating education providers made their own plans of action and chose their own focus points. These included, for example, raising interest towards language study, encouraging pupils to choose an A2 or a B2 language, ensuring continuity of language choices from primary school to secondary school and from secondary school to upper secondary school, reducing minimum group sizes in order to form more language groups, and developing distance learning. These various focus points were chosen so that they met the individual needs of the participating education providers as well as supported the project's national goals. (Tuokko et al. 2012.)

In order to help the participants reach these objectives, the Finnish National Board of Education supported education providers in diversifying their language programme, and provided them with possibilities to develop the quality of language teaching. In practice, the support meant, for example, that the Finnish National Board of Education directed government subsidies into the project from 2009 to 2011. Funds were allocated for the participating providers of education. In addition to extra funding, extensive in-service training was directed especially for teachers of languages "uncommonly" taught in Finland such as German, French, and Russian. Networking between the participants was also supported by taking advantage of Internet platforms and by arranging meetings for the project coordinators. To get the pupils' attention, media exposure was bought in some of the media common among children and youngsters. Thus, there were several national actions facilitating Language Funfair activities in municipalities. (Tuokko et al. 2011: 9, 24, 26–27.)

As the earlier development projects failed to obtain long-lasting results, the Language Funfair sought to develop and encourage actions that both succeeded in diversifying language choices and could be continued even after the financial support by the state ended. Language Funfair activities targeted all the important decision makers who influence language choices: providers of education, rectors, language teachers, and pupils as well as their parents. Compared to the previous development projects and KIMMOKE in particular, the strengths of the Language Funfair were that there was

substantially more funding allocated to education providers, and that attention was also paid to the pupils and their guardians in the form of the publicity campaign. (Tuokko et al. 2011: 5, 15, 29.)

A follow-up report shows that the project did not manage to increase the number of pupils studying other foreign languages than English or Finnish as the A1 language, and the amount stayed at 3–3.5 % of pupils[1]. Today, other A1 languages are studied only in the largest municipalities in Finland, and even in these, mostly in schools with an emphasis on language education. (Tuokko et al. 2012: 49–50, 115.) Apparently English is considered such an important language that it is extremely difficult to replace as the first foreign language.

Municipalities' goals in regard to the A2 language differed quite a bit. Some wished to secure A2 studies at the current level, some aimed to restart teaching A2 languages, while others wanted to begin A2 teaching earlier (on the fourth grade instead of the fifth) or to establish more A2 language groups in schools. When the project started, A2 studies were already much more common in the first phase Language Funfair municipalities than in other municipalities. There was an increase in the number of pupils beginning A2 language studies in 2009 compared to 2008 in the first phase municipalities, but during the subsequent year, the number dropped a little. It did, however, stay higher in 2010 than in 2008. Tuokko et al. suspect that the economic recession has probably caused this decrease. The number of pupils studying an A2 language (mostly French and German) increased a little from 2009 to 2010 in the second phase Language Funfair municipalities as well, but this even holds true to municipalities outside the project. (Tuokko et al. 2012: 51–52, 115.)

B2 languages, on the other hand, were more commonly studied in municipalities outside of the project, although this difference was rather small. In contrast to A2 languages, B2 languages are offered in virtually every municipality. During the Funfair, there was a minor increase in the number of pupils studying a B2 language in the project municipalities. It appears that the opportunity to study an A2 language has a negative impact on choosing B2 languages even in large municipalities and schools. (Tuokko et

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[1] In Swedish-speaking schools, Finnish is usually studied as the A1 language and English as the A2 language (Kangasvieri et al. 2011: 8–9).

al. 2012: 52, 116–117.)

It remains to be seen whether the positive results obtained will last longer than with previous development projects. The limited funding period bears the risk that the Funfair activities will stop at the same time as or soon after the government subsidies, especially as offering optional language studies depends on the municipalities' financial resources. The on-going recession aggravates the situation. On the other hand, the project coordinators in municipalities are optimistic according to the follow-up report. They estimate that the number of pupils choosing A2 and B2 languages will continue to rise in the Funfair municipalities (Tuokko et al 2012: 119). In some municipalities, the activities have been organised with an eye on future language choices, and thus it may take a longer time for the results to show.

As keys to success the project participants identified, for instance, government subsidies, an effective publicity campaign, different types of language showers, commitment to the project on all levels, and introducing long-distance teaching technology. On the other hand, issues that hindered education providers from reaching the project goals were recognised as well. Examples of these drawbacks were weak commitment to the project, lack of time, technical problems with long-distance teaching equipment, and negative attitudes among teachers and headmasters. (Tuokko et al. 2012: 6, 137.)

According to the project participants, a major component for success was the publicity work done to share information about language studies more effectively and diversely. Plenty of new material such as brochures, DVDs, and Internet sites were designed, and local newspapers also showed interest in the project. Organising opportunities for the pupils and their parents to familiarize themselves with new languages was the first thing done in basically all municipalities. This meant different types of events, for instance language theme days or weeks in schools, language showers for pupils, and crash courses in languages for parents. Language showers have, in fact, been one of the most common Language Funfair activities in the participating municipalities. (Tuokko et al. 2012: 137; Tuokko et al. 2011: 30–33.)

This chapter has offered an overview of the two largest projects that have encouraged versatile language study in Finland, their methods and outcomes. Next, I will move on to define and describe language showers as a way to raise interest in language studies.

4   LANGUAGE SHOWERS

One of the major challenges in the development projects illustrated in the previous chapter has been the question of how to get pupils interested in foreign languages and how to motivate them to study languages. As Pöyhönen (2009: 161) highlights, the current language education practices clearly do not advance versatile language study. Consequently, there has been a need to discover new, more encouraging methods to inspire curiosity towards foreign languages among children. This was also one of the three focus areas in the Language Funfair project. As Dörnyei (2001a: 51–53) argues, powerful learning experiences and showing pupils how enjoyable language learning can be are one way to generate their initial motivation. Many Language Funfair municipalities have attempted to reach this goal by organising language showers, playful short-term classes that aim to give pupils a taste of languages. Language showers also address the lack of contacts with other foreign languages than English that was discussed in chapter 2.2.

4.1   Defining and describing language showers

Language showers are a rather new concept and practice in Finnish foreign language education. Nikula and Marsh (1997: 24) state that the aim of language showers is to familiarize pupils with a foreign language and its use. A more recent definition by Mehisto et al. (2008: 13) asserts that the objective is to make pupils "aware of the existence of different languages" and to "develop a positive attitude towards language learning". They also say that language showers are a way of helping pupils to be better prepared for studying languages. The amount of time used to meet these goals varies, but is generally very limited. It can be, for instance, one lesson or less in a week (Nikula and Marsh 1997: 24) or from 30 to 60 minutes per day (Mehisto et al. 2008: 13). In the Language Funfair municipalities, they have also been organised as occasional, individual events (see Tuokko et al. 2012). In other words, language showers are not seen as actual language teaching, but instead as a means of raising interest towards the language, and providing pupils with positive experiences as language users (Nikula and Marsh 1997: 25). Mela (2012) stresses that the most important aspect is that the children enjoy themselves and have fun in language showers.

Both Nikula and Marsh (1997) and Mehisto et al. (2008) position language showers in the framework of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), even though the

objective is not to teach any specific non-language content to the pupils (Nikula and Marsh 1997: 25). Mehisto et al. (2008: 12–13) place language showers at the beginning of a CLIL continuum ranging from short-term, low-intensity exposure to a foreign language to high-intensity, long-term language programmes such as immersion. Language showers differ significantly from traditional language teaching since the teacher uses (almost) only the foreign language (FL) (Nikula and Marsh 1997: 25). However, since there is no official methodology for language showers, the implementation depends on the teacher. According to Bärlund's (2012) definition, language showers are a bilingual method that combines both the first language (L1) and a second language (L2). In any case, language showers are essentially communicative from the very beginning in spite of the pupils' limited command of the FL (Nikula and Marsh 1997: 25). Learning takes place through repetition and routines, and activities consist of games and songs utilizing plenty of visuals, gestures and movement, and the objects at hand such as clothing and furniture (Mehisto et al. 2008: 13–14). Formal aspects of language learning such as spelling and grammar are less important as the focus is on spoken language (Nikula and Marsh 1997: 25). This methodology relates language showers closely to CLIL.

The various ways in which language showers have been organised in the Language Funfair municipalities reflect their diversity as well as the lack of unity that concerns the term. It should also be noted that they have been called by many other names too, and language shower is used here as an umbrella term. Bärlund (2012) states that any multilingual person can give language showers, and in fact, native speakers of foreign languages, class teachers, language teachers, student teachers, and international trainees have been involved in organising the showers in the project municipalities. It seems that language showers have mostly been targeted at primary school pupils, but also at preschool and kindergarten children as well as parents. The length has varied from individual lessons to continuous activities recurring every week or every term. What all language showers share is the common goal to encourage pupils to study languages in an active and playful manner that provides pupils with positive experiences of language learning. (Tuokko et al. 2012: 35–36, 92–93, 97–98.)

4.2   Research on language showers

Language showers are not a completely new phenomenon, although they have only

recently become popular in Finland thanks to the Language Funfair. All in all, very little has been written about them thus far, and research related to them in Finland is also taking its first steps. A few master's theses have, however, been written on the topic, and next I will summarize their results.

In Mela's (2012) case study, six-year-old children took part in 20 hours of language showering in Swedish. Mela wanted to find out how much Swedish six children learned in the language shower, what their parents thought about it, and how the student teachers working as language shower teachers experienced it. Mela herself was one of these teachers. The children acquired a small vocabulary of individual words and fixed phrases but not, for instance, any syntax. The teachers felt that it had been difficult to use much Swedish when the children had no command of it, but the children's parents were pleased with the language shower. (Mela 2012: 77–78.)

Pynnönen (2012, 2013) employed the methods of action research when she planned and organised a German language shower for first and second graders and an English language shower for preschool children. As her data, she used children's drawings and interviews based on these in both studies. She notes that most children enjoyed the language showers and that children preferred activities where they had an active role and could move around. Based on Pynnönen's findings, it seems that when language showers are a positive experience for the children, they express an interest in learning the language also later on. (Pynnönen 2012, 2013.) Whether the showers actually increase the number of pupils choosing optional and elective FL studies remains an open question.

The present study did not involve organising language showers. Instead, the study took place in a municipality where language showers had been organised as part of the Language Funfair. Thus, the French language shower functions as a background variable in this study that focuses on the pupils' language disposition and the effects of the language shower on this disposition. Now that I have introduced language showers in general, I will turn to the specific context where my study took place. The next subchapter will present the Language Funfair project in the target municipality and describe how language showers were carried out there.

4.3   The Language Funfair and language showers in the target municipality

The Language Funfair project was launched in the target municipality in the autumn of 2009. The project has involved a wide variety of activities ranging from language showers to a musical dealing with internationality. All the activities share the same goal: to promote foreign languages so that pupils will choose them as electives in secondary school. Language showers have been organised in German for pre-school children and first and second graders and in French for fifth and sixth graders. These activities have also been extended to kindergartens, and in order to secure the continuity of the showers in the future, kindergarten teachers have been trained in using songs and games in foreign languages. At higher grades, local entrepreneurs have visited classes telling what kind of language skills they expect from their future employees. Ex-students have also visited schools sharing their experiences with foreign languages. The single greatest effort has probably been a school musical dealing with themes such as internationality, foreign cultures, and facing the foreign and the unfamiliar. There have also been plans of encouraging language study by rewarding pupils who have chosen languages for example by taking them on a trip to some destination related to the target language. (Autio 2010.)

Even though the Language Funfair is an interesting project involving a variety of activities and tasks, this study focuses on only one of its parts, namely the French language showering of fifth and sixth graders in the municipality in question. These showers were organised with the intention that the pupils would gain a positive attitude towards language studies, and hopefully be more inclined to choose an optional language in secondary school (B2). The realization of these language showers is presented below.

There were two teachers in each language shower. One of them was a native French teacher from the Lycée franco-finlandais d'Helsinki (the Franco-Finnish school in Helsinki). She spoke very little Finnish, which made the situation unusual for the pupils, compared to their normal English lessons that are taught by native Finnish teachers with high level of command in English. It is likely that the teacher was the only French person most of the pupils had ever met. A Finnish teacher who participated in some of the showers reported that the pupils found the situation very exciting. Mutual understanding was ensured by using plenty of pictures, gestures, facial expressions, and

repetition. (Riihinen 2011a.)

The shower started with an introduction where the teachers and the pupils learned each other's names and practiced saying 'my name is…' and 'she is a girl' or 'he is a boy' in French. Next, the pupils where shown photos and pictures from different locations, and they were supposed to guess, which pictures were from France. There were famous places such as the Eiffel tower in the photos. A similar activity was used to introduce simple phrases such as 'hello', 'thanks' and 'goodbye'. These were given in several languages and the pupils guessed which expressions were in French. Afterwards, the pupils were taught to pronounce the French phrases. Colours and numbers were taught through different games. Overall, the teacher used a variety of games and quizzes and took advantage of pictures, gestures, and movement in order to enhance the learning experience. The most demanding activity was a restaurant dialogue that all the pupils performed in pairs. The language shower ended with a real buffet with French food, for instance baguettes and blue cheese, and the pupils had to order their food in French. (Riihinen 2011b.)

These first chapters have aimed to familiarize the reader with the societal setting in which this study took place. The Finnish language teaching system was presented as well as the language study trends that show how the role of English is becoming more and more dominating while the popularity of studying other foreign languages has declined. Projects aiming at diversifying language choices were also portrayed, and finally, the language showers were defined and presented as a new method for getting pupils excited about languages. In the next chapter, I will move on to describe the theoretical background of this study.

5   MOTIVATION AND LANGUAGE DISPOSITION

Motivation plays a role both in making the decision to begin language learning and in sustaining language studies (Dörnyei 1998). According to Dörnyei (1998: 117), it even influences achievement in language learning. The study of second language learning motivation was established by Gardner and Lambert (1972) in the 1970s, and it has ever since been the target of a wide array of research. In this chapter, I will discuss motivation and introduce two prominent motivational theories, namely the socio-educational model of second language acquisition and the L2 motivational self system. In chapters 5.2 and 0, I will present results from previous motivational studies. Finally, I will consider why motivation may not be the most suitable term to describe the target of this study and why I prefer to talk about language disposition in this context.

In everyday language, basically everyone understands what I mean if I describe a student as being motivated. However, motivation has proved to be an extremely difficult term to define, and research literature underlines the complexity of motivation as a concept (see e.g. Dörnyei & Ushioda 2011, Gardner 2010). Dörnyei (2001b: 1) goes as far as to say that "Strictly speaking, *there is no such thing as 'motivation'*". What he means is that "motivation is an abstract, hypothetical concept" researchers use when they attempt to explain reasons behind people's behaviour. For this reason, it is not surprising that motivation has been a source of much debate among scholars, and it has been defined and theorized in various ways (Dörnyei & Ushioda 2011: 3, Gardner 2010: 8).

Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011: 3–4) assert that although motivation researchers agree on only few things, most of them acknowledge that motivation deals with "the *direction* and *magnitude* of human behaviour". In other words, motivation theory and research concerns "the *choice* of a particular action; the *effort* expended on it and the *persistence* with it. In other words, motivation explains *why* people decide to do something, *how hard* they are going to pursue it and *how long* they are willing to sustain the activity" (Dörnyei 2001b: 7, see also Dörnyei & Ushioda 2011: 4, Brophy 2010: 5). The reasons, for instance needs or desires, behind these choices and actions are called motives (Brophy 2010: 3).

While a number of theories have attempted to answer the *why*, *how hard*, and *how long* of motivation, Dörnyei claims that none has accomplished this goal (2001b: 7). As

Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011: 4) say, "motivation theories intend to explain nothing less than why humans think and behave as they do". It is, therefore, unlikely that an exhaustive theory of motivation or a complete description of all the possible motives could ever be written. It is necessary for the researcher to choose a focus of study. Thus, motivation has been researched from several points of view including issues such as how conscious or unconscious motivational processes are, what kinds of roles cognition and affect play in motivation, how the social context impacts motivation, and how motivation develops through different stages (for more information, see e.g. Dörnyei & Ushioda 2011). At the beginning of the 21st century, motivational psychology has been interested in mental processes, such as attitudes and beliefs, and their effect on actions (Dörnyei 2001b: 8). Even this cognitive approach comprises a vast number of different subtheories (Dörnyei 2001b: 9).

According to Dörnyei (2001b: 6), the reason for the emergence of such a wide variety of theories is that motivation psychology is concerned with identifying the causes, that is, the *antecedents* of action. Yet, the number of possible motives is overwhelming, which has led researchers to search for "a relatively small number of key variables to explain a significant proportion of the variance in people's action" (Dörnyei & Ushioda 2011: 8). In other words, researchers have attempted to reduce the number of possible antecedents and detect those motives that have more significance than others (Dörnyei 2001b: 9). It should, thus, be noted that although the field of motivation research is full of alternative or competing theories, the differences are mainly based on the researchers' selection of antecedents (Dörnyei & Ushioda 2011: 9). Consequently, these competing reductionist models may all seem sensible since they look at motivation from different perspectives. However, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011: 9) complain that the different theories generally disregard one another and treat motivation in isolation ignoring the competing activities and goals in our day-to-day lives.

Gardner (2010) has attempted to define motivation by listing characteristics a motivated individual displays:

> "Motivated individuals express effort in attaining the goal, they show persistence, and they attend to the tasks necessary to achieve their goals. They have a strong desire to attain their goal, and they enjoy the activities necessary to achieve their goal. They are aroused in seeking their goals, they have expectancies about their successes and failures, and when they are achieving some degree of success they demonstrate self-efficacy; they are self-confident about their achievements. Finally, they have reasons for their behavior" (Gardner 2010: 8)

Gardner's (2010: 9) definition emphasizes that motivation has to do with not only cognition and behaviour, but also affect. In the preceding description he requires that the learner finds learning interesting and enjoyable, which bears a close connection to intrinsic motivation. Learners are intrinsically motivated when they feel that the learning itself is rewarding. In contrast, if students are extrinsically motivated, they are after an external reward such as a good grade or want to avoid some undesirable consequence. (Brophy 2010: 7, 152–153; Dörnyei & Ushioda 2011: 23.) However, Gardner's description of a motivated individual may not be applicable in formal learning contexts. Brophy (2010: 10) emphasizes that intrinsic motivation is an unrealistic goal in classroom settings where, among other reasons, attendance is compulsory, students are not free to choose their activities, and their performance is usually graded.

Even though intrinsic motivation might be difficult to achieve in a school context, it is believed that motivation has a great impact on learning results (Dörnyei 2001b: 2). Brophy (2010: 12) argues that it is possible for students to be motivated to learn even if they find certain activities or lessons boring or uninteresting. Furthermore, when it comes to language learning which is a long-term activity that may last years, it is unrealistic to assume that the learner would find learning equally enjoyable all the time (Dörnyei & Ushioda 2011: 6). In addition to enthusiasm, Dörnyei (2001b: 5) lists commitment and persistence as major factors affecting the outcome of language learning. Moreover, motivation is not an on/off phenomenon; on the contrary, it can grow gradually. Whether motivation is the cause or the effect of learning has also been disputed. It appears that the relationship is cyclical, which means that high motivation results in good learning outcomes that in turn build up motivation. Similarly, low motivation and/or poor achievement can form a vicious circle. (Dörnyei & Ushioda 2011: 5–6.)

Researchers in the field of L2 motivation have argued that the motivation to learn a foreign language differs from the motivation to learn, for instance, history since learning a language also entails acquiring aspects of the foreign culture (see e.g. Gardner 2010). Thus, L2 motivation research has developed as a somewhat separate field from the mainstream psychological study of motivation (Dörnyei & Ushioda 2011: 39). The Canadian social psychologists Robert Gardner and Wallace Lambert (1972: 132) reasoned that intellectual capacity and language aptitude were not enough to explain

success in foreign language learning. Instead, they maintained that the learners' perceptions of and attitudes towards the target culture and the speakers of the target language as well as their general orientation towards language learning form the basis of L2 motivation. Gardner and Lambert laid the foundations for motivation research in the field of second and foreign language learning for decades. Their theory still has not lost its significance, but according to Dörnyei (2001b), a clear change has taken place in the past two decades as researchers have attempted to re-conceptualize motivation from a new, wider perspective taking into account changes such as globalisation.

Next, I will present the socio-educational model of second language learning and some of the critique this model has received in recent years. I will also take a look at previous studies on L2 motivation and a newer model proposed by Dörnyei: the L2 motivational self system.

5.1   The socio-educational model of second language acquisition

The socio-educational model of second language acquisition was the basis of the motivational research paradigm for decades. The central idea of the model is that even the basic components of a foreign language, for instance pronunciation and vocabulary, carry elements of another culture and community (Gardner 1985a: 6, Gardner 2010: 3). Thus, in order to master a language students need to be open to these cultural adjustments that may finally even change aspects of their identity (Gardner 2010: 2–3). In a school context, this signifies that language learning motivation is influenced not only by the students' attitudes towards the learning situation but also towards the target language group. Gardner underlines the importance of this attitudinal basis for sustaining motivation in the long process of language learning. (Gardner 1985a: 149, Gardner 2010: 3.)

The best-known aspect of the socio-educational model is the distinction between the integrative and the instrumental orientations. They are sometimes used synonymously with motivation even though this has not been the original meaning (Gardner 2010: 10). Gardner (1985a: 11) explains that an orientation answers the question why an individual has the goal to learn a certain language. In other words, it represents the underlying purpose or the ultimate goal of learning a language. An integrative orientation stresses a wish to learn a language in order to gain better access to the target language community and culture, even to the extent that the learner wishes to integrate into that culture. An

instrumental orientation, on the other hand, emphasizes the utilitarian value of language learning, for instance, advancing one's career or gaining social status. (Gardner & Lambert 1972: 3.) Another important concept in the model is integrativeness that represents the cultural component discussed above. Gardner (2010: 9) defines it as "the willingness or affective ability to take on characteristics of another cultural group". This concept is comprised of the integrative orientation, attitudes towards L2 speakers and community, and an interest in foreign languages, and is the key to mastering an L2, according to Gardner (1985a: 6, 149).

Even though Gardner's model has been the most influential L2 motivational theory, it has also received much critique. The most disputed element in Gardner's model is the concept of integrativeness or integrative motivation. It has been widely researched, but Dörnyei complains that it lacks an "obvious equivalent in any other theories in mainstream motivational and educational psychology" (Dörnyei 2009: 23). The different interpretations of integrativeness were under debate in the 1980s: According to the strong interpretation, integrativeness denoted "social identification and integration", whereas a weaker reading implied "sense of affiliation and interest" (Ushioda & Dörnyei 2009: 2). Dörnyei (2009: 23–24) points out that in most FL learning environments in a school context, there is seldom any possibility for actual integration with the target language community.

Gardner and his associates developed the model in bilingual settings in Canada, and it has been suggested that integrativeness does not have a similar role in many other settings. Dörnyei et al. (2006: 12–13) claim that Gardner and his associates have not paid enough attention to instrumentality that has been stressed as an important factor by researchers in other contexts. Yet, Gardner and Lambert (1972: 141) did note already in the 1970s that the instrumental orientation provided very good results, for instance, in situations where members of a linguistic minority learn the majority language. Thus, they concluded that both integrative and instrumental orientations are needed when one wishes to become proficient in an L2 that is significant nationally or internationally (Gardner & Lambert 1972: 142). According to Noels et al. (2000: 60), integrativeness does not appear to be as fundamental a part of motivation as Gardner has claimed, and motivation can be sustained by other orientations, such as travel, friendship, knowledge and instrumental orientation (Clément & Kruidenier 1983 as quoted by Noels et al. 2000: 60). Gardner (2010: 11–12) points out that different lists of orientations have been

suggested in several studies. In his opinion, these lists do not usually present possible orientations as the motives can be placed under the integrative and instrumental categories. This does not, however, undermine the finding that integrativeness appears to be connected to certain cultural contexts. Next, I will take a look at L2 motivation research in Finland and the orientations and motives that have played a role in Finnish foreign language learning.

5.2   Research on language learning motivation in Finland

In Finland, language learning motivation has been researched mainly in the 1980s and 1990s (Kangasvieri et al. 2011: 30), although Laine (1977) studied L2 motivation here already in the 1970s. The focus has been particularly on the English language (Kukkohovi 2011: 48). Recent research includes, for example, Kukkohovi's dissertation that contained a part on students' motivation to learn Italian in a university language centre and Kantelinen's examination of the motivation to learn Swedish in vocational education (Kukkohovi 2011: 48). In these studies, the respondents have obviously been much older than in the present study.

A somewhat more similar research setting is found in Julkunen's (1998) study from the middle of the 1990s. He investigated the initial motivation of 181 pupils who had recently begun to study English, Swedish, German, French, or Russian as the A2 language. He focused on the integrative, instrumental, communicative, and societal aspects of motivation. The overall motivation was highest among the pupils of English, and lowest among the learners of Swedish. German, French, and Russian were evaluated rather equally. Girls had stronger integrative, instrumental, and communicative orientations than boys. The most important motives for studying an A2 language were instrumental in nature and included, for example, travelling and using the language in communication, and work related reasons. (Julkunen 1998: 54–57.)

Plenty of theses have been written about the motivation to learn foreign languages even in recent years. They have covered a variety of motivational theories, languages and learners from primary school pupils' affective responses to English lessons to the elderly learners' motivation to study German in adult community colleges. Now I will shortly summarize some findings that have relevance for the present study. Lehikoinen and Leinonen (2010) studied motivating and demotivating factors in relation to English studies in primary, secondary and upper secondary schools. They learned, for instance,

that sixth-graders are motivated by learning new things, by a nice language teacher and lessons, and by the experience that learning English is easy. Motivating factors outside the school context included the media, travelling, contacts with English speakers, working life, speaking English at home, and the usefulness and importance of English. On the other hand, homework, examinations, and the perceived uselessness of English among other reasons demotivated them. (Lehikoinen & Leinonen 2010: 54.)

Rossi (2003) examined motivation among eighth and ninth graders who studied German as the B2 language. According to her results, the students were mostly instrumentally and communicatively motivated. The utility of German in working life, further education, and travelling motivated them. Integrative motivation, on the other hand, was rather low especially among boys. (Rossi 2003: 67.) Ruokolainen (2012) found as well that upper secondary school students' orientation to study English was clearly more utilitarian than integrative when he surveyed their motivation, attitudes, and beliefs concerning English, Swedish, German, French, Russian, and Spanish. In his study, English was the most liked and Russian the least liked language. Unsurprisingly, English was also the most used foreign language. Swedish, German, and French were not very well-liked among the students even though they were the most commonly studied languages after English. Especially Swedish and French were considered rather useless. (Ruokolainen 2012.) Next, I will present the new directions of motivation research, that is, the most extensive study on L2 motivation to this date and the changes it has brought to the theorization of motivation.

5.3   Towards a new theorization of L2 motivation

Recently, many researchers have seen a need to rethink motivation, since Gardner's model (see Chapter 5.1) has not been designed to accommodate the superdiversity of the globalized world nor the role of English as a global lingua franca (see e.g. Dörnyei et al. 2006). The major question is what there is to integrate into if there is not a single but many target language communities as in the case of English as a lingua franca (Dörnyei 2009, Ushioda & Dörnyei 2009). On the other hand, we could ponder if the concept of community could be understood in a wider sense, for example, as the global community of English speakers, and if that could be the target of integration. However, Ushioda and Dörnyei (2009: 1) wonder what the consequences for theories of L2 motivation are if people want to learn global English to acquire a global identity. Does the value of

English as a vehicle of international communication exceed any interest in native English speakers and their culture in the minds of learners? Moreover, cultures are no longer only country-specific as they can be shared online by different subgroups all around the world. We could, for instance, assume that Finnish youngsters may be interested in studying English to gain access to the Western youth culture. Considering these changes, it is no wonder that integrative motivation has been losing its position in L2 motivation research (Dörnyei 2009: 24–25). The effects of globalisation on L2 motivation became evident in Dörnyei et al.'s (2006) study which is presented next.

5.3.1 Dörnyei's extensive study on L2 motivation and attitudes

Dörnyei and his associates conducted a large longitudinal study on L2 motivation in Hungary. It involved 13.000 young teenagers, and the data were collected in three phases in 1993, 1999, and 2004, which gave a chance to see how changes in society affect the motivation to study several target languages. The five target languages included in the survey were English, German, Russian, French, and Italian. (Dörnyei et al. 2006: vii.) Their study serves as the foundation and model for the present study, which is why I will introduce the motivational and attitudinal scales as well as the results in detail.

In addition to integrative and instrumental aspects of motivation, the study included four other motivational constituents that have been commonly examined in previous studies. These were *Attitudes towards the L2 speakers/community*, *Milieu*, *Linguistic self-confidence*, and *Vitality of the L2 community*. *Attitudes towards the L2 speakers/community* was a key component in the socio-educational model, and in this study, it was linked to direct contact with the L2 community, for example, meeting people belonging to the community. *Milieu* stands for the immediate social influence of significant others such as family members and friends. Parents' support is said to increase pupils' willingness to continue language study. However, motives related to the school context, for instance teachers, are usually dealt with in connection with the learning environment, not as part of *Milieu*. These kinds of situation-specific motives were left out of the study. *Linguistic self-confidence* is related to whether or not the learners believe they have the necessary abilities to master an L2. *Vitality of the L2 community* denotes ethnolinguistic vitality that is assessed, for example, by measuring the perceived status and wealth of the community in question. (Dörnyei et al. 2006: xi,

10, 13–16.)

On top of the above-mentioned motivational constituents, emphasis was added to contact with the L2 community through cultural products, and this constituent was called *Cultural interest*. It was added since foreign languages are learnt as school subjects in Hungary and even though there is normally little direct contact with L2 speakers, the learners may be familiar with such L2 cultural products as for instance films, TV shows and music. Dörnyei et al. believe that these products are involved in forming learners' attitudes towards the L2 culture and community. The study also employed two criterion measures that seek to determine the direction and magnitude of motivated behaviour. These involved asking how much effort the students were willing to put into their language studies (*Intended effort*), and what languages they planned to study in the future (*Language choice*). (Dörnyei et al. 2006: 9–10, 15, 51.)

The findings show that English was highly endorsed on all the included scales. German is a traditional lingua franca in the area, and it was the second most popular language in the survey, but its ratings were on a decline. French and Italian were rated clearly lower than English and German. Yet, they were appraised somewhat equally to the surprise of the researchers who considered French to be a world language as opposed to Italian. Russian got very low ratings on all scales showing its lack of popularity. This order of the languages was evident in all the variables, including *Language choice* and *Intended effort*, and remained the same between 1993 and 2004. However, there was a general decline in scores especially on *Attitudes towards the L2 speakers/community*, *Cultural interest*, and *Integrativeness* (with Russian as an exception as the ratings were very low to begin with). This held true of *Instrumentality* too, excluding the English *Instrumentality* score that remained above 4.7 on a five-point scale. On the other hand, there were no major changes in the *Milieu* and the *Linguistic self-confidence* scores. According to the researchers this signifies that language studies are generally supported in Hungary. (Dörnyei et al. 2006: 42, 48, 51.)

Dörnyei et al. (2006: 55) took into account also some modifying factors, for example gender differences and what L2s the pupils were studying at the time the survey was conducted. In accordance with many other studies (see e.g. Julkunen 1998: 56, Williams, Burden & Lanvers 2002), they found that girls tended to give notably higher scores on most scales than boys (Dörnyei et al. 2006: 56). Yet, the *Language choice*

scores show that boys are more interested in studying German and Russian than girls, whereas girls valued French and Italian more. In 1999 and 2004, boys outscored girls also with regard to English, but Dörnyei et al. (2006: 56) predict that this gender difference will disappear as English will become the most favoured language choice for all students. This kind of development has also been noted in Finnish pupils' attitudes towards English (Sajavaara 2006: 242). An interesting finding is that the boys' scores fall behind when it comes to the other criterion measure, *Intended effort*. According to Dörnyei et al. (2006: 59) this suggests that "although the initial language preferences might be affected by a certain amount of gender variation, once the language choice has been made, girls show more commitment than boys regardless of what the actual L2 is".

With regard to the effects of L2 study, it was inferred that active engagement in L2 study influences learners' attitudes and motivation positively. This applied generally to all attitudinal/motivational variables related to the particular L2 as well as scores on the two criterion measures. (Dörnyei et al. 2006: 68–72.) These findings clearly contradict Gardner and Lambert's (1972: 143) early conclusion that learning experiences are not likely to affect students' attitudes significantly.

The results indicate that English is still highly endorsed by Hungarian learners whereas interest in other languages is on the decline, and this gap is widening. Dörnyei et al. had suspected that German, as the Central European lingua franca and a language of economic power and tourism in Hungary, would maintain its position in spite of the growing importance of English. In reality, this was not the case, and Dörnyei et al. conclude that in the minds of Hungarian language learners, there is only one global language, namely English. The other foreign languages in the survey are categorized as non-world languages, and the general interest towards studying them is declining. (Dörnyei et al. 2006: 49–52, 53–54.) Similar tendencies have also been observed on the European level in the analysis of Eurobarometer survey data between 1995 and 2005: English is perceived more and more useful whereas German and French have been the biggest losers (Pietiläinen 2011).

Based on their findings, Dörnyei et al. (2006: 89) conclude that studying Global English is decreasingly a motivated decision made by a student and increasingly a self-evident part of education. Moreover, they also speculate that personal motivation is becoming a more and more important factor in studying other languages. Taguchi, Magid and Papi

(2009) repeated Dörnyei et al.'s (2006) survey in three very different foreign language learning contexts (Iran, Japan, and China) and found similar patterns, which indicates that Dörnyei et al.'s findings are not only specific to Hungary. All in all, the global role of English seems to be changing motivational patterns across the world.

5.3.2 The L2 Motivational Self System

The longitudinal Hungarian study described above gave rise to a new theorization of second/foreign language learning motivation (Dörnyei et al. 2006, Ushioda & Dörnyei 2009). Dörnyei and his associates have proposed a model called the motivational self system which is related to the psychological notions of self and identity. According to the theory, our motivation is influenced by "future self-guides", that is, our conceptions of what kind of a person we would like to be, and what we ought to do to further or avoid certain outcomes. (Dörnyei 2009.)

The model consists of three dimensions: *Ideal L2 Self*, *Ought-to L2 Self*, and *L2 Learning Experience*. According to Dörnyei (2009: 29), the *ideal L2 self* is "the L2-specific facet of one's 'ideal self'". It is related to our hopes and desires as far as they concern an L2. In other words, we are motivated to learn a language if our ideal self knows that language, as it is assumed that people will strive to become more and more like their ideal self. The *Ought-to L2 Self* "concerns the attributes that one believes one *ought to* possess" (Dörnyei 2009: 29). They are related to duties and responsibilities and avoiding unwanted results such as punishments. The third dimension, *L2 Learning Experience*, is not related to the future self-guides, but instead to situated motives shaped by the immediate learning environment, the teacher, other students, and learning experiences, among other things (Dörnyei 2009, Dörnyei et al. 2006). Dörnyei (2009: 29) points out that this dimension is necessary as not only self images but also successful experiences in language learning can generate motivation.

The motivational self system builds on previous research and aims to reconceptualise foreign language learning motivation by looking at integrativeness and instrumentality from a new point of view. Dörnyei (2009: 27) states that "if our ideal self is associated with the mastery of an L2 - - we can be described in Gardner's (1985) terminology as having an integrative disposition". The theory also makes a distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic instrumental motives. Internalised instrumental motives are part of the ideal L2 self as they are related to the person we would like to become. They can deal

with, for example, developing skills that are needed to be successful in one's choice of career. More external instrumental motives, such as studying a language in order to pass an exam, are part of the ought self. This distinction can also be characterised in terms of promoting desirable outcomes (ideal self) and preventing undesirable consequences (ought self). (Dörnyei 2009, Dörnyei et al. 2006.)

In the field of psychology, Zentner and Renaud (2007) have studied adolescents' ideal selves. They found that the ideal self reaches relative stability towards the end adolescence. Based on their findings, Dörnyei (2009: 38) suspects that the self theory may not be appropriate for carrying out research on younger children, as they have not yet formed a stable ideal self. For this reason, I have not utilized the self theory in the present study that targets eleven- to thirteen-year-olds. For a study on Finnish upper secondary school students' motivational L2 selves, see Toivakka's (2010) master's thesis.

5.4   Language disposition

The present study and the questionnaire used (see Chapter 6.3 and Appendix 1) rely heavily on the traditions of motivation research in the field of second and foreign language learning. However, motivation might not be the most suitable term to describe the target of this study. According to Gardner (2010: 10), "If one is motivated, he/she has reasons (motives) for engaging in the relevant activities, persists in the activities, attends to the tasks, shows desire to achieve the goal, enjoys the activities, etc.". Most motivation research in this field has naturally targeted learners of a certain L2, and thus, the focus is on the aspects pointed out by Gardner. In Dörnyei and Ushioda's (2011: 4) words, they concentrate on the effort spent on an activity as well as the perseverance in continuing with it.

Yet in the present study, the participants had studied formally only English out of the four languages involved in the survey: English, German, French, and Russian. This means that, while the results might portray the pupils' motivation to study English, I also asked them to evaluate languages and L2 communities they were not necessarily familiar with. Therefore, their answers might be largely based on attitudes, beliefs and impressions. Had they studied the languages in question, the results could have been quite different. Furthermore, the questionnaire results lack a link to behaviour or behavioural intentions usually connected to motivation. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011: 5)

make a distinction between different stages of motivation, especially between the motivation to engage in an action and the motivation to sustain the activity. Hence, this study can be said to describe the pupils' disposition towards choosing certain languages, i.e. at the initial phase of motivation.

For the above reasons, I opt to use the term *language disposition* instead of motivation. According to the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (2009: 488), a disposition is "a tendency or willingness to behave in a particular way". Thus, language disposition is defined here as describing how willing or inclined the participants are (or are not) to pursue language study.

The present study differs from the most previous studies in Finland as it included several languages and moreover, the respondents had studied only one of the four languages that were targeted in the survey. In addition, the respondents were younger than in most studies (see Chapter 5.2). The studies on the motivation to learn other languages have logically targeted older learners since fifth and sixth graders rather seldom study other foreign languages than English these days. Furthermore, the present study also stands out with its focus on a language shower and its effects on the respondents' language disposition. The objective of the study is to examine what kind of disposition the pupils show towards foreign languages and foreign language study. The research questions, the context of the present study as well as the methodology are presented in the following chapter.

6 THE PRESENT STUDY

The goal of the present study is to examine what kind of a disposition schoolchildren express towards English and three other foreign languages and towards learning them. Furthermore, it aims to find out whether participating in a language shower has had an effect on the pupils' language disposition and their willingness to study also other languages than English. The target group of the study consists of fifth, sixth, and seventh graders in a small municipality in Central Finland. 43 % of the respondents had taken part in a French language shower.

Motivation and especially attitudes have traditionally been considered rather permanent or stable (Dörnyei 2003: 8-9). Yet, this study is based on the assumption that language disposition can be changed at least to some extent. In the Language Funfair project, it is presumed that language study can be diversified by informing pupils and parents of the possibilities and benefits of studying languages as well as offering the pupils positive learning experiences (Tuokko et al. 2012). Language showers have been used as a method to attain these goals. Thus, the main hypothesis is that language showers can affect pupils' language disposition.

The research questions are the following:

1. What kind of language disposition do the pupils express towards English, German, French and Russian in their answers to a questionnaire?
2. How do the language dispositions differ between the group that participated in a language shower and the group that did not?

I seek to answer these questions by the means of a questionnaire that is analysed quantitatively. In the following subchapters, I will first portray the research setting and the data gathering procedures. I will also discuss the pros and cons of questionnaires as a tool for collecting data. Then, I will present my version of the language disposition questionnaire, and finally, go through the methods used for analysing the data.

6.1   The research context

This study took place in a small municipality of a little over 10,000 inhabitants in Central Finland. It was chosen as the target of this study since language showers were arranged in the municipality as part of their Language Funfair project. There are nine

primary schools (grades 1–6) and one secondary school (grades 7–9) in the municipality. The secondary school and one of the primary schools are located in the town centre. The rest of the primary schools are small village schools. In the central school, there are two classes of both fifth and sixth graders. All the village schools have combined classes so that the first and the second graders form one class, the third and the fourth graders another, and the fifth and the sixth graders a third class. In the smallest schools, the third, fourth, fifth, and sixth graders are all in one class.

The language programme in the municipality includes two optional foreign language choices in addition to two compulsory languages. All pupils begin to study English on the third grade and Swedish on the seventh grade. There is a possibility to choose German as an A2 language beginning on the fourth grade. In the secondary school, it is possible to choose German, French, or Russian as a B2 language on the eighth grade. Thus, the language programme is rather versatile considering the municipality's small size, but the A2 language choice poses some problems. There have not been enough pupils choosing the A2 to form a language group in several years. It is probable that the village school pupils have not been interested in choosing an A2 language, since the lessons are held in the central school and the distances between schools are long. Thus, there has not been A2 language teaching in the municipality while the participants of this study have gone to school. (Autio 2010.)

In order to encourage pupils to choose a B2 language on the seventh grade (studies begin on the eighth grade), a language shower in French was arranged for the sixth graders in the municipality in November 2010. Since there were combined classes of fifth and sixth graders in most of the schools, also most fifth graders in the municipality took part in the language shower. Thus, the main group of study consisted of pupils who had taken part in the language shower (the LS group). This meant the sixth graders in the centre primary school and the fifth and sixth graders in the seven village schools. The shower activities were not organised in one village school for reasons unknown to the researcher. Seventh grade pupils were also included in the sample as a control group that had not participated in any language shower. This non-LS group was rather varied as it included four classes of seventh graders, two classes of fifth graders in the centre school, one combined class of fifth and sixth graders (in a village school) and all the other fifth and sixth graders who did not attend the language shower even though their class did. The study was targeted at all the pupils in this age group so that the subgroups

formed would be large enough for statistical analyses (Dörnyei 2003: 74). At the time of the data gathering, the pupils were aged 11–14.

6.2   Data gathering procedures

The data for this study was collected in February 2011 using a questionnaire. The data gathering started with contacting all the schools' headmasters to get their consent for the study and enhance a favourable attitude towards the study as suggested by Dörnyei (2003: 85). Next, I emailed the headmasters forms that were to be sent home with the pupils to inform their parents about the study (see Appendix 2). It was the schools and the teachers' responsibility to send out and collect the permission forms. The teachers controlled that only the pupils with the parents' consent filled in the questionnaire. In order to maintain total confidentiality, the teachers did not return the permits to me, as the questionnaires were analysed anonymously.

At this point, the questionnaire administration had to be done in two different ways. It was neither necessary nor possible for me to visit the village schools personally. The questionnaires were, therefore, sent by post to the eight combined classes that had fifth and sixth grade pupils with some instructions for the teachers who were in charge of the administration. The teachers filled in a form asking how many pupils there were in their class and how many of them took part in the study in addition to reporting if the pupils had any problems with the questionnaire (Appendix 3). Return envelopes and stamps were attached too.

I administered the questionnaire myself in the central primary school and the secondary school. In these schools, there were two classes of both fifth graders and sixth graders. There were also special education classes in these schools, but they were excluded from this study. There were five classes of seventh graders in the secondary school, and four classes out of these five were chosen based on convenience sampling (see Dörnyei 2003: 72): I conducted the study in those classes that happened to have an English lesson on the day I visited the school.

The questionnaire was delivered to 282 pupils, and 245 questionnaire sheets were returned to the researcher. That is, 37 pupils were either absent when the questionnaire was filled in, did not get the parental permission, or were not willing to participate in the study. The response rate was 87 %. Out of the 245 returned questionnaire sheets, 6 had

to be disqualified (for reasons, see chapter 6.5). Thus, the final sample included 239 respondents.

6.3   Questionnaire as a method for data collection

As Gall, Gall and Borg (2007: 228) and Dörnyei (2003: 1) mention, questionnaires are a widely used data gathering method in educational and second language research. They can be used to obtain data about facts, actions, and behaviour, but also about phenomena that cannot be observed such as values, attitudes, beliefs, opinions, and experiences (Gall et al. 2007: 228; Hirsjärvi, Remes & Sajavaara 2008: 192). The popularity of questionnaires is easily explained by the fact that it is somewhat effortless to gather a large set of data in a reasonably short time (Dörnyei 2003, Hirsjärvi et al. 2008). They can be used to collect data from a vast amount of people, and it is possible to ask plenty of questions (Hirsjärvi et al. 2008: 190, Valli 2001: 101). Furthermore, Dörnyei (2003: 10) emphasizes the flexibility of questionnaires stating that "they can be used successfully with a variety of people in a variety of situations targeting a variety of topics". If the questionnaire has been designed carefully, the data can be quickly converted into a form that can be readily processed with a computer (Dörnyei 2003: 9; Hirsjärvi et al. 2008: 190). The reliability of the responses is increased by the fact that the questions are presented to each respondent in the exactly same form, and thus, the data obtained is readily comparable. (Valli 2001: 101). Hirsjärvi et al. (2008: 190) also point out that planning the research schedule and estimating expenses is straightforward when using a questionnaire. Thus, efficiency has made questionnaires one of the most frequently used data gathering methods in this field (Dörnyei 2003: 1, 9).

Yet, questionnaires also pose many problems and drawbacks. Dörnyei (2003: 10) stresses that if the questionnaire has not been constructed well, the reliability and validity of the data suffer. Hirsjärvi et al. (2008: 190) underline too that creating a good questionnaire demands great effort and knowledge about questionnaire design. In addition, they warn that interpreting the results may be troublesome and that the data can be considered as superficial (Hirsjärvi et al. 2008: 190), meaning that "questionnaires cannot probe deeply into respondents' beliefs, attitudes, and inner experience" as Gall et al. (2007: 228) say. This is due to the fact that readymade response alternatives might not correspond to the respondents' opinions or experiences, the questions have to be very simple so that everybody will understand them, and that

people are usually not ready to invest much time in answering a questionnaire (Dörnyei 2003: 10). One noteworthy problem with questionnaires is a low response rate which is characteristic of postal and Internet questionnaires (Hirsjärvi et al. 2008: 191). However, this can be avoided by distributing the questionnaire in an institutional setting, for example in school (Hirsjärvi et al. 2008: 191; Valli 2001: 101), as was done in this study.

Some limitations questionnaires have are related to respondents. Misunderstanding questions is a problem reported frequently in research methodology literature (see e.g. Dörnyei 2003: 10-13, Gall et al. 2007: 228, Hirsjärvi et al. 2008: 190). Moreover, it varies how carefully and earnestly the respondents answer the questions (Hirsjärvi et al. 2008: 190). Dörnyei (2003: 10-12) states that the respondents can be unreliable because they remember something incorrectly, forget to mention something, deviate from truth intentionally to give the socially desirable answer or unconsciously because of self-deception. Dörnyei (2003: 13) also asserts that people tend to agree with statements and questions if they are not sure about their answer (the *acquiescence bias*), and to overgeneralise their overall positive/negative impression of a topic to cover also all the details related to it (the *halo effect*). According to Dörnyei (2003: 12), the results, thus, present "what the respondents *report* to feel or believe, rather than what they *actually* feel or believe".

The problems mentioned above can be reduced with well-written instructions, a well-designed questionnaire sheet, and pilot testing (Dörnyei 2003, Valli 2001). One possible solution is to use established questionnaires that have been widely tested and used, and thus shown to produce reliable results (Dörnyei et al. 2006: 27).

Another extremely popular data gathering method in educational research is interviews (Gall et al. 2007: 228). The main reason behind this is their flexibility: it is possible to adapt to new situations even in the middle of an interview. The interviewees have an active role as they can express their views freely. One important advantage is that the researcher is able to rephrase questions if necessary, ask clarifying questions or ask the interviewees to give reasons for their answers. (Gall et al. 2007: 228, Hirsjärvi et al. 2008: 199-200.) On the other hand, interviews are not problem free either. They take up a great deal of time, and the interviewer should be trained for the task. In addition, the reliability of the respondents poses similar problems in interviews as it does in

questionnaire research. (Hirsjärvi et al. 2008: 201.)

Questionnaire was chosen as the data collection instrument since it enables collecting a rather large set of data as the goal of the study to obtain a comprehensive picture of the pupils' language disposition in the target municipality. Hirsjärvi et al. (2008: 201) are doubtful about the usefulness of interviews that last less than a half an hour, and it would have been difficult to conduct longer interviews with pupils in a school setting. Hirsjärvi et al. (2008: 200) also report that interviews are particularly suited for topics that have not been researched extensively, when it might be difficult to come up with response alternatives beforehand. This can hardly be said about motivational research that is the base of this study. Thus, questionnaire was deemed to be a more suitable method for the purposes of this study.

It would have also been possible to mix these methods in order to increase the validity of the study (Hirsjärvi et al. 2008: 228). Conducting group or individual interviews after preliminary analysis of the questionnaire results was part of the research plan for some time as the interviews could have given information that could have helped to interpret the results. However, it was decided that the findings of a fairly extensive questionnaire study were so substantial that interviews were unnecessary.

6.4   Designing the questionnaire

The questionnaire I designed for this study was based on two previous and widely tested questionnaires: the Language Disposition Questionnaire used by Dörnyei et al. (2006) and one part of the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) by Gardner (1985a, b). The Language Disposition Questionnaire was developed already in the 1990's (Dörnyei et al. 2006: 27), and thus, it does not represent the newest ideas in motivational research (see Chapter 5.3.2). Yet, both the Language Disposition Questionnaire and the AMTB build on extensive research and have been shown to produce reliable results (Dörnyei et al. 2006, Gardner 1985b). The Language Disposition Questionnaire was chosen as the basis of the research instrument since the foreign language learning contexts are somewhat similar in Hungary and Finland. More specifically, languages are learned as school subjects and there is normally little direct contact with native speakers of these languages (Dörnyei et al. 2006: 9-10). Furthermore, the questionnaire was not created to measure (only) existing motivation to a language but instead the disposition towards several languages that all the respondents have not studied.

These two questionnaires were modified to suit the purposes and the context of this study. First of all, the items were translated from English to Finnish. Some questions and statements in the Language Disposition Questionnaire (Dörnyei et al. 2006) were considered unsuitable for the target group of this study as the respondents were some years younger than in the original study. Moreover, some items used in Hungary were not suitable or necessary in the Finnish context, and they were replaced with new ones in order to keep the multi-item scales long enough. Questions about the level of parents' language skills were excluded since they had not provided any significant results in the study by Dörnyei et al. (2006). Instead, a similar question was added to the background section.

The original questionnaire included questions related to both five target languages and six target language communities (Britain and the USA were treated separately). In my version, the questions were worded so that the concentration was on the language all the time instead of the L2 communities. This approach was chosen as all the languages (English, German, French, and Russian) are spoken in several countries or even in various parts of the world. This made L2 community a somewhat problematic concept for this study. As a result, one motivational dimension used by Dörnyei et al. (2006), namely *Vitality of the L2 community*, was deleted completely. Furthermore, this scale proved to be problematic in the pilot testing, and the original scale consisted of only two items, which makes it too short and unreliable a multi-item scale (Dörnyei 2003: 33–34). Thus, deleting the scale seemed an appropriate measure.

In order to avoid the most common problems with questionnaires, much time and care were put into the questionnaire design. To avoid the fatigue-effect, i.e. that the respondents become bored towards the end of the questionnaire and start to answer carelessly (Dörnyei 2003: 14), the questionnaire was constructed using a variety of question types and scales. With the fatigue-effect as well the as the respondents' age in mind, it was also important to limit the length of the questionnaire to 4–6 pages. Booklet format was adopted as it makes the questionnaire look short and compact, and turning pages is easy. The appearance is important as pupils are more motivated to fill in a questionnaire that looks enticing and compact enough. (Dörnyei 2003: 14, 18–19.)

The questionnaire included common scaling techniques such as semantic differential scales and Likert scales. Semantic differential scales consist of bipolar adjective pairs,

and the respondents mark their answer on a continuum between the bipolar adjectives (e.g. good – bad). They are useful since the researcher avoids writing statements and they require very little reading from the respondents. The Likert scale, in turn, is the most common question type in second/foreign language learning questionnaires. A Likert scale consists of several statements associated with different aspects of the same target (such as instrumentality). The respondents indicate how much they agree or disagree with a statement on a given scale, for example, from one to five. The points on each question are added up to form summative multi-item scales. Dörnyei reports that Likert scales can be used even with younger children. (Dörnyei 2003: 36-40.)

The motivational and attitudinal scales used in the questionnaire are mostly multi-item scales, since they reduce the possibility of erroneous answers on single items (Dörnyei 2003: 33-34). Dörnyei (2003: 34-35) notifies that four or more items should be used in each multi-item scale. However, very short multi-item scales were chosen because of the constraints created by the school setting. In other words, the questionnaire was only allowed to disturb normal teaching as little as possible, which meant that there was a limited time the pupils could use on filling in the questionnaire. Dörnyei et al. (2006) faced similar settings and state that to be able to take into account the complexity of motivation as a structure and the time limitations, the number of items have to be cut down. Dörnyei et al. (2006) used two to four items to form each multi-item scale. The scales used in this study include three or four items each.

Open-ended questions were used sparingly, since answering them is slow and coding the answers reliably is challenging (Dörnyei 2003: 47, Hirsjärvi et al. 2008: 196). 'Specific open questions' that can be answered shortly (Dörnyei 2003: 48) are only used in eliciting background information, and thus, the questionnaire contains only one truly open-ended question concerning the reasons for wanting to study selected languages (question 31, see Appendix 1). This question was left open-ended to make the pupils' own voice visible and to prevent limiting their answers. Yet, these answers were also treated as numerical data in the end. After this questionnaire design process, the language disposition questionnaire was pilot tested. The procedure and its results are described in the following subchapter.

6.4.1 Pilot testing

The importance of pilot testing a questionnaire is commonly stressed in order to gain

more reliable results (see e.g. Dörnyei 2003: 64; Hirsjärvi et al. 2008: 199). Pretesting gives an opportunity to see how well the formatting of the questions works by considering what kinds of questions and problems the pilot respondents have and whether there is, for example, a great deal of missing answers (Dörnyei 2003: 64). Before piloting the questionnaire with pupils, I received feedback from peer students, my instructor, and also from some friends who are not specialised in this field, as this can be a helpful way to check that there is no jargon (Dörnyei 2003: 66).

The questionnaire used in this study was piloted in January 2011. The pilot respondents were 21 sixth graders from the capital region. They had not attended any language showers and some of them had a slightly different language learning background as they had been able to choose Swedish as an A2 language. Finding pupils in a precisely similar situation as the actual respondents was deemed both unnecessary and nearly impossible. Similar settings would have been very difficult to find as language showers have been carried out in a variety of different ways in the Language Funfair municipalities (see Tuokko et al. 2012). Thus, the main reason for choosing the pilot respondents was that they belonged to the same age group as the actual respondents. This way it was possible to judge how well they understand the assignments and the formulations of the questions, statements, and instructions.

The instructions and questions seemed to be clear enough as the pilot respondents had only few questions. On the other hand, there were some pupils who had not answered all the questions. Yet, it was concluded that the wording of the instructions did not need changing. Instead, there seemed to be a need to use more visual highlighting to emphasize some of the instructions. I revised, for instance, the use of bigger font, underlining, and bold-face to draw attention to the most important pieces of instructions, which also proved to be an adequate measure as the actual respondents did not have similar problems.

More significant changes were, however, made to the motivational scales. Firstly, the ethnolinguistic vitality scale used by Dörnyei et al. (2006) was deleted as it did not seem to provide any significant information. Secondly, two multi-item scales did not seem to work, and for example, two items in the *Linguistic self-confidence* scale actually correlated negatively with the third item. It was suspected that this was due to the fact that two of the items were related to the respondents' confidence in their ability to learn

a foreign language, and the last one concerned speaking the foreign language. Another scale that did not work properly was *Milieu*, which originally included statements about "people around me", "me", and "my parents". Apparently, the pilot respondents and their parents had sometimes conflicting views on the importance of language study, and therefore the scale's Cronbach's alpha was too low. Thus, the conflicting items in these scales were replaced.

Thirdly, the pilot results gave reason to doubt that grid-format in section II invited some pupils to answer the questions carelessly, i.e. without reading the questions carefully, and answering with a fixed pattern (writing, for example, 5-2-4-1 on every row). With the intention of solving this problem, two completely new negatively worded items were added to this section (questions 9 and 14, see Appendix 1). The idea was to make sure that the respondents would have to be more careful while reading and answering the section. Furthermore, if somebody still used a fixed pattern, it could be deduced that their answers were unreliable and they should be disqualified.

The final change was cutting down the number of languages in section II from five to four. Originally, Spanish was also included in this section as it is basically the only foreign language increasing its popularity as an optional subject in Finland. However, this section seemed too time-consuming and laborious for the pupils, and consequently, Spanish was excluded as it is not offered as a free-choice language in the target municipality unlike German, French, and Russian.

6.4.2 The structure of the questionnaire

The final questionnaire (Appendix 1) included four sections that are presented in this subchapter. The first section was comprised of semantic differential scales targeting the pupils' reactions to the language learning context, i.e. their perceptions of studying English at school and participating in the French language shower. The question dealing with language shower was answered by only those pupils who had taken part in it. The ten bipolar adjective pairs in this semantic differential scale were chosen from the AMTB and they targeted the perceived difficulty and utility of language lessons as well as their general evaluation, i.e. how much pupils like them generally (Gardner 1985b).

In section II, there were 17 questions concerning the four target languages (English, German, French, and Russian) or target language communities organised in a grid

format. The questions were answered on a five-point rating scale. The questions dealt with *Integrativeness* (questions 4, 7, 12, 14), *Instrumentality* (5, 6, 8, 11), *Attitudes towards the L2 speakers/community* (9, 13, 15, 16), and *Cultural interest* (18, 19, 20). These categories were based on the modelling by Dörnyei et al. (2006) and discussed in more detail in Chapter 5.3.15.2. This section also included one question about the intended effort to study the four target languages (10) and a question mapping how much the respondents watch TV programmes and films in these languages (17).

The questions in Section III were not related to any specific languages and targeted *Milieu* (questions 22, 25, 26), *Linguistic self-confidence* (21, 23, 28), and *Interest in versatile language study* (24, 27, 29). The first two motivational aspects were also derived from Dörnyei et al. (2006), but the last one was added by the researcher to see whether the respondents think that speaking English is enough or if they see value in knowing more than one foreign language. There were nine questions answered on a five-point Likert scale. There was additionally a question in this section asking what languages the respondents were interested in studying (three languages in order of importance) and an open-ended question enquiring about the reasons behind these preferences.

The last section (IV) included eight factual questions about the respondents' background and their language contacts in the multiple-choice and open-ended formats. These were placed at the end of the questionnaire in accordance with Dörnyei's (2003: 61) recommendation.

6.4.3   Reliability and validity

In the design of a questionnaire, the concepts of reliability and validity are essential. An instrument is considered reliable if the results provided are not random. In other words, the results should be similar if the instrument was used another time on the same target group (Hirsjärvi et al. 2008: 226). The reliability of a questionnaire can be ensured, for instance, by using established questionnaires that have been proved to achieve reliable results. Validity, on the other hand, refers to the capacity of the instrument to measure the object of the study, i.e. what the instrument was created to measure. It is possible, for example, that the responses indicate that a question or a statement has been understood differently than the researcher has intended. The researcher has to take this into account in the analysis for the results to be valid. (Hirsjärvi et al. 2008: 226–227.)

Within the framework of quantitative research, methods have been developed to test the reliability of scales (Hirsjärvi et al. 2008: 226). Pallant (2005: 90) says that Cronbach's alpha coefficient is often used to check the internal consistency of multi-item scales, that is, whether the individual items in the scale actually measure the same thing. For a scale to be reliable, the value should ideally be over .7. Yet, short scales (less than ten items) tend to give rather low Cronbach alpha values (Pallant 2005: 90). In this study, the values, however, turned out to be mostly very good (Table 1). Only *Milieu* and *Linguistic self-confidence* received scores under .7 like they had in the Hungarian study as well (Dörnyei et al. 2006: 41). However, the alpha value for the *Linguistic self-confidence* is fairly close to .7, which makes is reasonably reliable. Cronbach's alpha coefficients were calculated separately for all the languages in section II.

Table 1. The composition of the multi-item scales and the Cronbach Alpha coefficients for each scale

			Cronbach Alpha
Language learning context	Easiness • easy - difficult • effortless - hard • simple – complicated	English Language shower	.878 .841
	Utility • useful - useless • necessary - unnecessary • important – unimportant	English Language shower	.847 .865
	General evaluation • interesting -boring • supportive - discouraging • nice - awful • pleasant – distressing	English Language shower	.885 .905
Integrativeness 4. How much do you like these languages? 7. How interested are you in the way people live in the countries where these languages are spoken? 12. How much would you like to become similar to the people who speak these languages? 14. How much do you hate these languages?		English German French Russian	.785 .787 .810 .760
Instrumentality 5. How much do you think knowing these languages would help you to become a more knowledgeable person? 6. How important do you think these languages are in the world these days? 8. How much do you think knowing these languages would help you when travelling abroad in the future? 11. How much do you think knowing these languages would help your future career?		English German French Russian	.760 .813 .810 .823
Attitudes Towards L2 Speakers/Community 13. How much would you like to meet foreigners who speak these languages? 15. How much would you like to travel to these countries?		English German French Russian	.810 .858 .856 .830

16. How much do you like the people who live in the countries where these languages are spoken?		
Cultural Interest 18. How much do you like TV programmes made in these countries? 19. How much do you like films made in these countries? 20. How much do you like the pop music of these countries?	English German French Russian	.831 .758 .800 .728
Milieu 22. People around me tend to think that it is a good thing to know foreign languages. 25. No one cares if I study foreign languages or not. 26. My parents do not consider foreign languages important school subjects.		.515
Linguistic Self-Confidence 21. I am sure I will be able to learn a foreign language well. 23. I feel that all the others are better language learners than I am. 28. Learning a foreign language is a difficult task for me.		.652
Interest in versatile language study 24. I think it is enough to know English (and no other foreign languages). 27. I would really like to learn many foreign languages. 29. I am definitely not interested in foreign languages.		.796

6.5 Analysis

This is a quantitative study, and the questionnaire data was analysed with the help of the computer programme PASW Statistics 18 (formerly known as SPSS for Windows). The responses were coded and fed into PASW. At this point, six of the 245 questionnaire sheets had to be disqualified. The most common reason for excluding questionnaires was that the pupil had not answered any background questions thus leaving the last page of the questionnaire empty. Two respondents were excluded because they had used values that were out of the given range when answering several questions, and one because there were strong reasons to believe that the pupil had answered all the questions in section II according to the same pattern without even reading all the questions.

Hirsjärvi et al. (2008: 217) state that no questionnaire sheet should be disqualified if the respondent has failed to answer one question but has otherwise managed to fill in the questionnaire as hoped. This guideline was followed, and therefore, some missing cases come up in the analysis of the responses. In addition to pupils leaving occasional boxes empty, some answers had to be disqualified because numbers were illegible or because the pupil had not been able to choose just one answer (e.g. writing 3–4 instead of either three or four or ticking two boxes in the same question). This is a common problem in questionnaire studies (Dörnyei 2003: 10-11).

Next, the data in PASW Statistics was double-checked manually to confirm that it had

been fed into the programme correctly. Then, the data was also screened and cleaned according to the instructions by Pallant (2005: 40): the frequencies of each variable were checked to see that there were no values outside the possible range. The following step was to add together the scores of specific items to make up multi-item scales based on the motivational structure established by Dörnyei et al. (2006). The negatively worded items were reversed and recoded before calculating total scale scores. The scores of the multi-item scales were divided by the number of the individual scales so that the values vary between one and five on each scale, which makes the results easier to interpret. (Pallant 2005: 78, 81.) The negatively worded item 9 in the *Attitudes towards L2 speakers/community* scale was left out of the analysis, because the wording had proved to be too difficult for the younger respondents. The item also affected the scale's Cronbach alpha negatively, which was an important reason for leaving it out of the scale. The responses to the open-ended question 31 were screened for common denominators and coded accordingly. In the analysis, the responses are treated as quantitative, numerical data. Some quotations from the pupils' responses are also used as illustrative examples.

Finally, I had to choose the statistical techniques most suitable for the data. This meant a choice between classic or parametric and non-parametric tests. Parametric tests place more demands on the data than nonparametric tests, which is why they are not suitable in all situations. The basic condition is that the sample has been randomly selected from a population that is normally distributed (Metsämuuronen 2010: 257, see also Pallant 2005: 197-198). On the other hand, nonparametric tests are less powerful, and Pallant (2005: 286) warns that they may "fail to detect differences between groups that actually exist". However, this problem can be avoided by using large samples, since the larger the sample, the more powerful any test is (Metsämuuronen 2010: 259). Metsämuuronen (2010: 254) points out that in human sciences test settings are often such that nonparametric tests provide more reliable results.

Likert scales that are commonly used in humanities as well as in this study are basically ordinal scales, and parametric tests require interval scales (Metsämuuronen 2010). Nevertheless, Metsämuuronen (2010: 258) asserts that Likert scales, when used as multi-item scales, can be treated as interval scales. This is a common practice in large questionnaire studies (Alanen 2011: 158), and for example, Dörnyei et al. (2006) have used parametric statistics to report the results of the Hungarian study. Therefore, I have

chosen to illustrate my results using means instead of medians that are sometimes preferred in connection with ordinal scales (Alanen 2011: 158).

On the other hand, I have a reason to believe that all the data does not meet the parametric assumption of normal distribution. For instance, some items related to the utility of English lessons or the instrumental orientation towards English are heavily skewed towards the higher scores. Based on the role of English in the Finnish society (see Chapter 2.2), I do not expect that the responses to all items would follow the normal curve even within the larger population. Metsämuuronen (2010: 155) suggests choosing nonparametric alternatives if there is any doubt of meeting the assumptions of the parametric techniques.

Thus, I have chosen to use the nonparametric Mann-Whitney U Test (instead of Independent samples t-test) and Kruskal-Wallis Test (instead of One-way between-groups analysis of variance) when Likert scales are used, as recommended by Metsämuuronen (2010). These tests are based on comparing ranks of responses between groups instead of means, and are, thus, free of distribution demands (Pallant 2005: 291, 294). The Mann-Whitney test is used to compare two groups, and the Kruskal-Wallis test is used when the categorical variable has more than two groups. To check whether two categorical variables are related to each other, I have used the Chi-square test.

All these tests are used to explore whether the observations based on the data are statistically significant or whether they can be explained by sampling error or coincidence. The tests provide a p value, and when this value is equal or less than .05, the observed differences are generally considered statistically significant (Pallant 2005). In this study, I use the following levels of significance: if $p \leq .05$ the results are statistically almost significant (marked with a *); if $p \leq .01$ the results are statistically significant (**); and if $p \leq .001$ the results are statistically very significant (***).

Because multi-item scales get many values, I have combined the values into broader categories to keep the figures simple and readable. In most cases, the values from 1.00 to 1.49 have been rounded off to one, from 1.5 to 2.49 to two, from 2.5 to 3.49 to three, from 3.5 to 4.49 to four, and from 4.5 to 5.00 to five. When I have followed a different procedure, I mention it in the Results section. These categories have been used for the figures, but the statistics and test results are based on the original values.

There are certain background variables that I have used as the basis of the analysis. In line with the research questions, the most important background variable was whether or not the pupils had participated in the French language shower, and thus, I have tested the data to see whether this affects their responses. Since previous studies show that gender has a significant effect on L2 motivation, I have searched for differences between the sexes too. Yet, these are not dealt with in much detail, unlike the differences between the LS and the non-LS groups. This chapter has introduced the reader with the context and the methodology of the present study. In the next chapter, I will portray the results.

7 PUPILS' LANGUAGE DISPOSITION

In this chapter, I will present the results of this study. First, I will introduce the respondents and their linguistic background. Next, I will discuss their reaction to the two learning contexts, i.e. their English lessons and the language shower. This is followed by an examination of, first, the language specific scales, and second, the non-language specific scales. Finally, I will look at the criterion measures, that is, the *Intended effort* and *Language choice* as well as the pupils' motives for their language preferences.

7.1 The respondents and their language contacts

As mentioned in Chapter 6.1, the respondents were divided into two groups based on the participation in the language shower. The group that had taken part in the language shower is called the LS group, and it consisted of 103 pupils. In the control group, there were 136 pupils who had not participated in any language shower (non-LS group). Unlike the control group, the LS group included only fifth and sixth graders. A little over half of the pupils in both groups were girls (for precise numbers on gender and class, please see Table 2). Thus, the distribution of gender was quite similar in both groups. There was also one pupil in both groups who did not report his or her gender. In the LS group, one pupil had not answered the question about his or her class.

Table 2. The class and gender of the pupils in the LS and the non-LS groups

Class	LS group[a]			Non-LS group[a]		
	Boy	Girl	Total	Boy	Girl	Total
5th	18	23	41	17	21	38
6th	29	32	61	12	12	24
7th	0	0	0	31	42	73
Total	**47**	**55**	**102**	**60**	**75**	**135**

a. one pupil did not mark his/her gender

All the pupils in both groups had studied English beginning from the third grade (as their A1 language) in accordance with the municipality's curriculum. It is assumed that none of the participants had studied an A2 language, as no groups for optional foreign languages had been formed for several years in the municipality (Autio 2010). At the time of the data gathering, the seventh graders had studied Swedish as the compulsory B1 language for approximately half a year. It was deemed that this would not have a

significant impact on the research results since the questionnaire did not measure their disposition towards Swedish.

46.9 % of the respondents reported that they had learned some foreign language outside the school context usually at home (either independently or with a family member), on a holiday abroad, via the media, or with relatives (question 36). The languages they had learned most commonly were German (n=33), Spanish (n=17), and Swedish (n=16). The popularity of German is probably partly due to a German Club that had been organised as an extracurricular activity at the secondary school for both primary and secondary pupils. Ten respondents said that they had attended the club. Interestingly, only eight respondents reported that that they had learned English outside the school context even though it is a very common language in the Finnish media and youth culture (see Chapter 2.2). Although all the respondents had had at least some exposure to foreign languages through the media, there were major differences in whether they recognized or considered this as language learning (see also Aro 2009). Experiences of informal FL learning seemed to be more common among girls as 57.7 % of the girls, but only 34.6 % of the boys answered this question positively.

Question 34 about what languages are spoken in the pupils' homes caused some difficulties to the respondents due to unclear formatting. The question was supposed to elicit the pupil's mother tongue(s), but some respondents understood that it meant also languages that someone in their family speaks, even if infrequently. This problem did not come up in pilot testing. 233 (97.5 %) pupils reported that Finnish is spoken in their home. Six pupils did not mention Finnish at all, even though they are likely to be native Finnish speakers as they attend school in Finnish and were able to fill in the questionnaire in Finnish. Based on the answers, three pupils lived in bilingual families, and a few more had relatives who spoke other languages than Finnish. Yet, 41 pupils named more than one language. Usually this other language was English which was mentioned by 32 respondents. Swedish was listed by seven pupils, and other languages by only one or two pupils. The respondents often indicated that the use of other languages than Finnish was only occasional, for instance, by writing "*Finnish (sometimes English just for fun)*".

English was also the most commonly known foreign language in the pupils' families (question 39). It was spoken by at least one family member in 98 % of the families.

Knowledge of Swedish was also very common in the respondents' families due to its position as the second national language and the compulsory B1 language, and 79.5 % of the pupils reported that someone in their family speaks Swedish. According to the pupils' knowledge, German was spoken in 36.8 % of the families, French in 17.6 %, Russian in 14.2 %, Spanish in 6.7 %, and some other foreign language in 5 % of the families.

7.2   Reactions to language teaching practices

The first section of the questionnaire focused on the immediate learning environment, in this case the English language classroom and the language shower. It consisted of two semantic differential scales targeting conventional English lessons and the language shower respectively.

7.2.1   Evaluation of English lessons

Figure 3 summarises the respondents' evaluation of English lessons based on three multi-item scales: easiness, utility, and general evaluation. On all scales, the responses ranged from one to five. The mean of the easiness scale was slightly on the positive side at 3.31. The most common responses were three and four, which means that most pupils found English lessons quite easy or not very easy nor difficult. Studying English was mainly a neutral or a positive experience as the general evaluation score indicates with the mean at 3.47. The utility of English lessons was rated extremely highly with 80 % of the respondents rating it positively. Thus, the mean was also very high at 4.15.
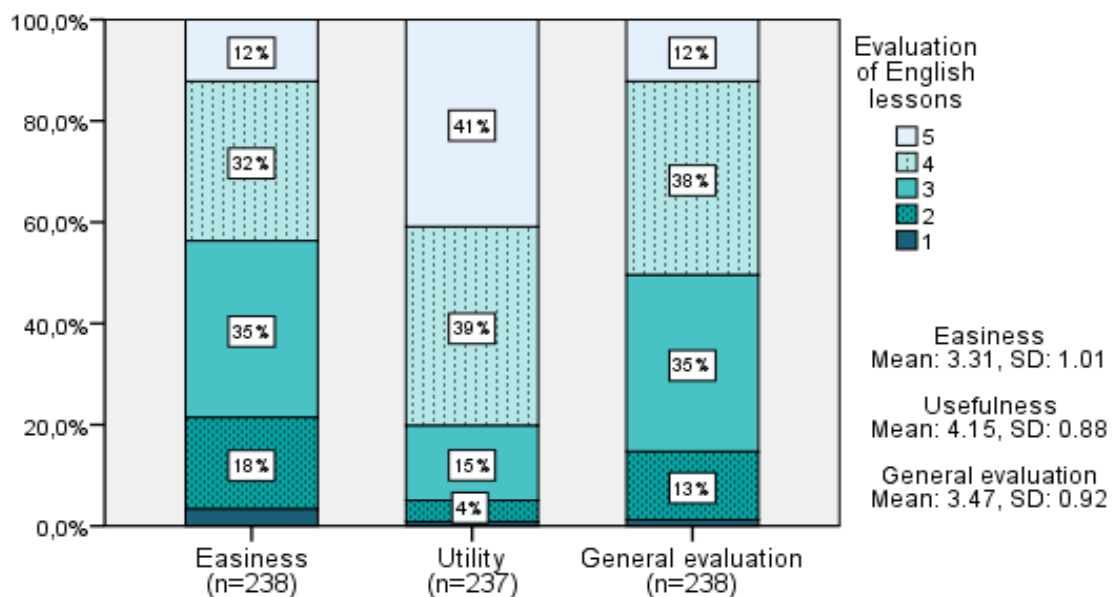

Figure 3. Evaluation of English lessons

English lessons were evaluated similarly in both the LS and the non-LS groups. The Mann-Whitney U test showed that boys considered English lessons easier than girls (U= 5882.000, Z=-1.964, p=.05), but girls thought that they were more useful than boys (U=5790.000, Z=-2.051, p=.04). There were no statistically significant differences in the girls and the boys' general evaluation of English lessons.

The Kruskal-Wallis test showed that the estimates of the easiness, utility, and pleasantness of English lessons were related to the respondents' success in English studies, and that these differences were statistically highly significant (Appendix 4, Table 1). Figure 4 illustrates clearly that the pupils who had the highest marks in English thought that English lessons were easier, more useful, and more pleasant than those pupils who had lower grades. Whether good grades enhance a positive view of English lessons or positive attitudes result in good learning outcomes in unclear. Both statements hold possibly true as discussed by Dörnyei & Ushioda (2011: 5–6). Yet, all pupils evaluated the utility of English lessons very highly, and there was no difference between the two groups with low or average marks. Still, the best pupils rated the utility of their English lessons even higher. It should be noted that the group with the lowest marks was very small compared to the other two groups.
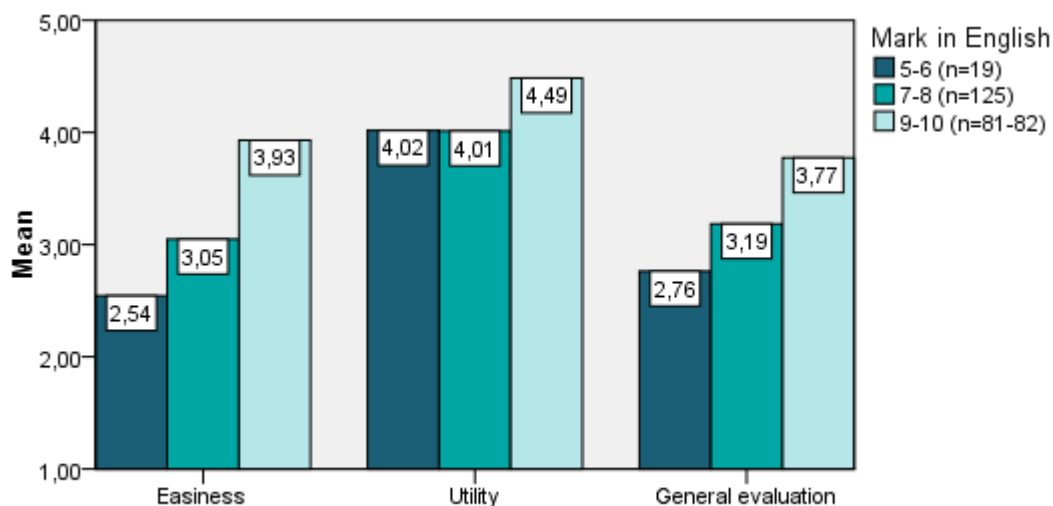

Figure 4. Evaluation of English lessons based on the most recent mark in English

7.2.2 Evaluation of the language shower

The evaluation of the French language shower, in turn, is presented in Figure 5. Even though there was variation from one to five in the easiness scores, almost half of the answers fell into the neutral range from 2.5 to 3.49. Either the pupils found the language

shower neither easy nor difficult, or it was difficult for them to evaluate this aspect. It is also possible that even though the pupils found the activities easy, the fact that the teacher used only French made the shower difficult at the same time (for more information on the language shower, see Chapter 4.3). The utility of the language shower was rated rather neutrally with the mean score of 3.32, and received clearly lower scores than the utility of English lessons. The general evaluation of the language shower was mainly positive as the most common response was four, and the mean was 3.61.
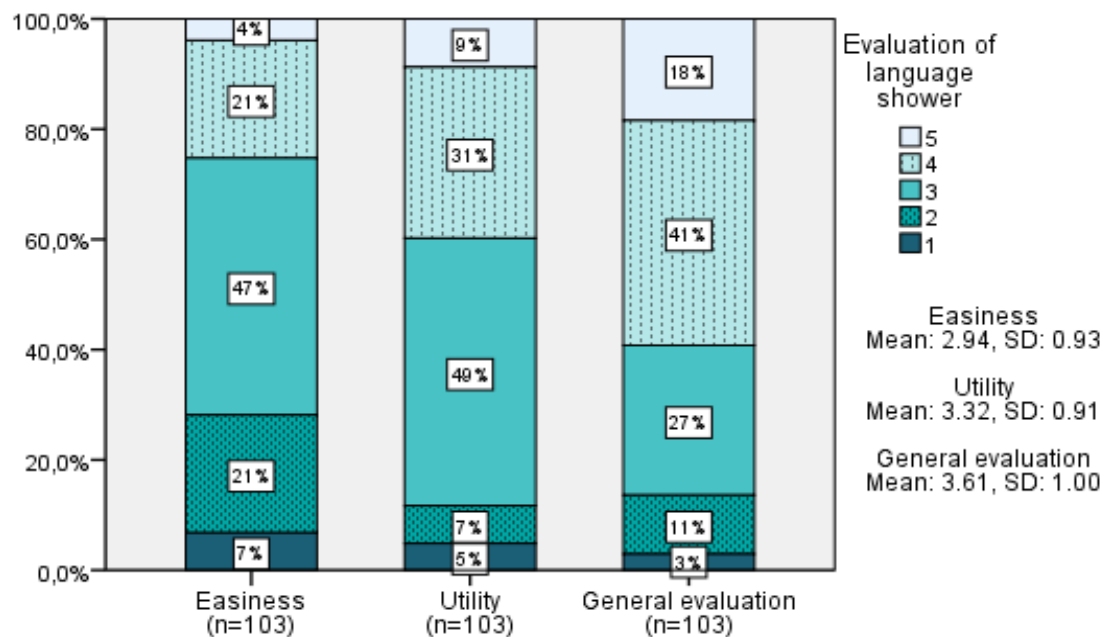

Figure 5. Evaluation of the French language shower

Gender was not a modifying factor when it came to the perceived utility or easiness of the language shower, but it did affect the general evaluation. The girls' (n=55) mean for the general evaluation was 3.87 and the boys' (n=47) mean was 3.30. According to the Mann-Whitney U test, this difference was statistically significant (U=835.000, Z=-3.085, p=.002).

7.3   Language specific dimensions of language disposition

This section presents the results of the motivational and attitudinal dimensions that are related to the four target languages and target language communities. These include *Integrativeness*, *Instrumentality*, *Attitudes towards L2 speakers/community*, and *Cultural interest*. First, I will concentrate on the three first mentioned scales, and then

on the differences between the groups. Cultural interest is dealt with separately at the end of this chapter.

Integrativeness in Figure 6 denotes an interest toward an L2 and the way of life in the L2 country to the extent that a person wishes to become similar to the speakers of the L2 (Dörnyei et al. 2006). The *Integrativeness* of English was clearly the highest. Over half of the respondents expressed a positive disposition towards the English language, its speakers, and their way of life, and the mean of the scale was 3.62. At the other end, Russian and the Russian culture evoked more negative evaluations and low levels of *Integrativeness* with a mean at 2.48. The pupils' *Integrativeness* towards French and German were divided very equally between those with a negative and a positive disposition. The mean for French was 3.03 and for German 2.97.
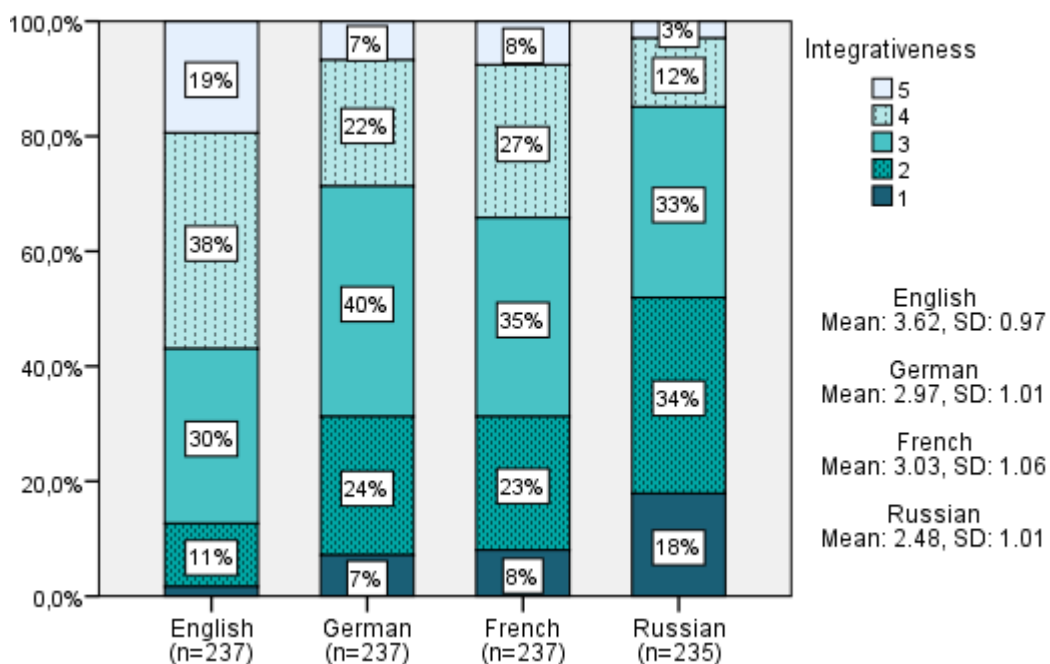

Figure 6. Integrativeness

Gender affected the level of *Integrativeness* in all four target languages. Generally, girls had a more integrative disposition than boys, which is a familiar finding from previous studies (see e.g. Julkunen 1998, Williams et al. 2002: 515). This difference was statistically significant when it came to English (U=5462.500, Z=-2.660, p=.008), and statistically highly significant with regard to German (U=5137.000, Z=-3.290, p=.001), French (U=4134.000, Z=-5.226, p=.000) and Russian (U=4769.000, Z=-3.827, p=.000).

The scores on the *Instrumentality* scale are presented in Figure 7. They indicate the

target languages' instrumental value related to career plans, travelling, becoming a knowledgeable person, and the importance of the language in the world. The English scores were heavily skewed to the upper end of the scale, which was also marked by Dörnyei et al. (2006: 43). Basically all respondents perceived the instrumental value of English very highly, and in fact, there were very few responses below four and the smallest value on the scale was two. German and French were assesses rather neutrally with means at 3.06 and 3.00 respectively. On this scale, Russian was rated only slightly lower than German and French, even though there were more very negative evaluations.
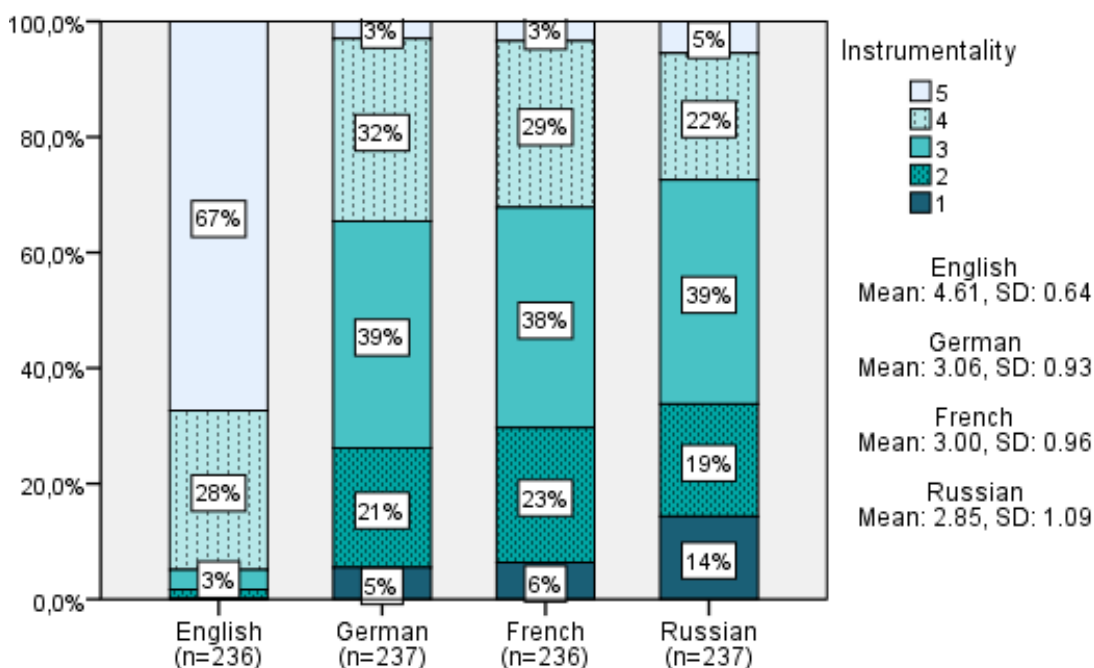

Figure 7. Instrumentality

As was the case with *Integrativeness*, *Instrumentality* scores were also affected by the respondents' gender. Girls rated the target languages' instrumentality somewhat higher than boys. This applied to all four languages, but the difference in English scores was statistically almost significant (U=5542.500, Z=-2.489, p=.013), in German significant (U=5252.500, Z=-3.086, p=.002), and in French and Russian highly significant (French U=4837.500, Z=-3.805, p=.000, Russian U=5036.000, Z=-3.502, p=.000).

Attitudes towards the L2 speakers and community scale deals with how keen the respondents are on travelling to the target language countries and meeting people from these countries. As Figure 8 shows, this scale followed the same pattern as the previous scales. The attitudes towards English speakers were the most positive (mean 3.79), and

the most negative towards Russian speakers (mean 2.44). Approximately half of the pupils had a negative attitude towards Russia and Russians. The attitudes towards German and French speakers were rather equally distributed between positive, neutral and negative evaluations. The means were 3.08 and 3.22 respectively.
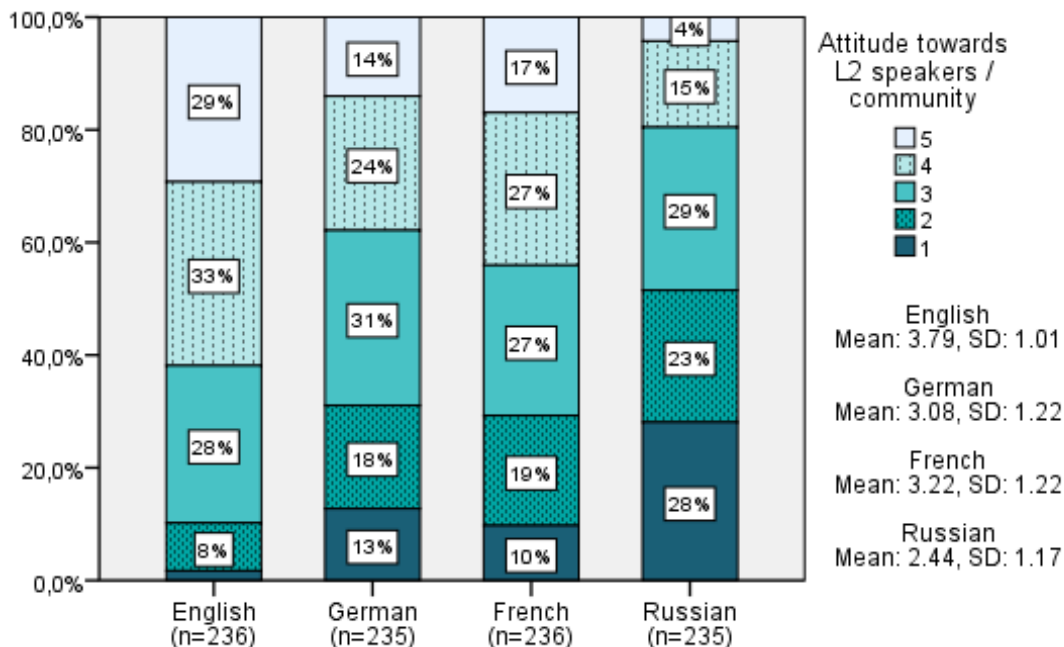

Figure 8. Attitudes towards L2 speakers/community

If we take a look at the girls' and boys' answers, we notice once again that the girls' attitudes were clearly more positive than the boys'. For instance, the girls' mean score for English was 4.03 and the corresponding score among the boys was 3.49. With regard to all language communities, the differences were statistically highly significant (Appendix 4, Table 2).

7.3.1 Comparison between the LS and the non-LS groups

The previous section presented the overall scores on the *Integrativeness*, *Instrumentality*, and *Attitudes towards L2 speakers/community* scales. This subchapter moves on to examine the differences between the LS and the non-LS groups. As can be seen in Figure 9, the group the LS group gave somewhat higher scores on almost all scales except Russian's instrumentality and the attitudes towards English speakers. Yet, the Mann-Whitney U test tells that only some of these differences were statistically significant, and those are the differences I will concentrate on.
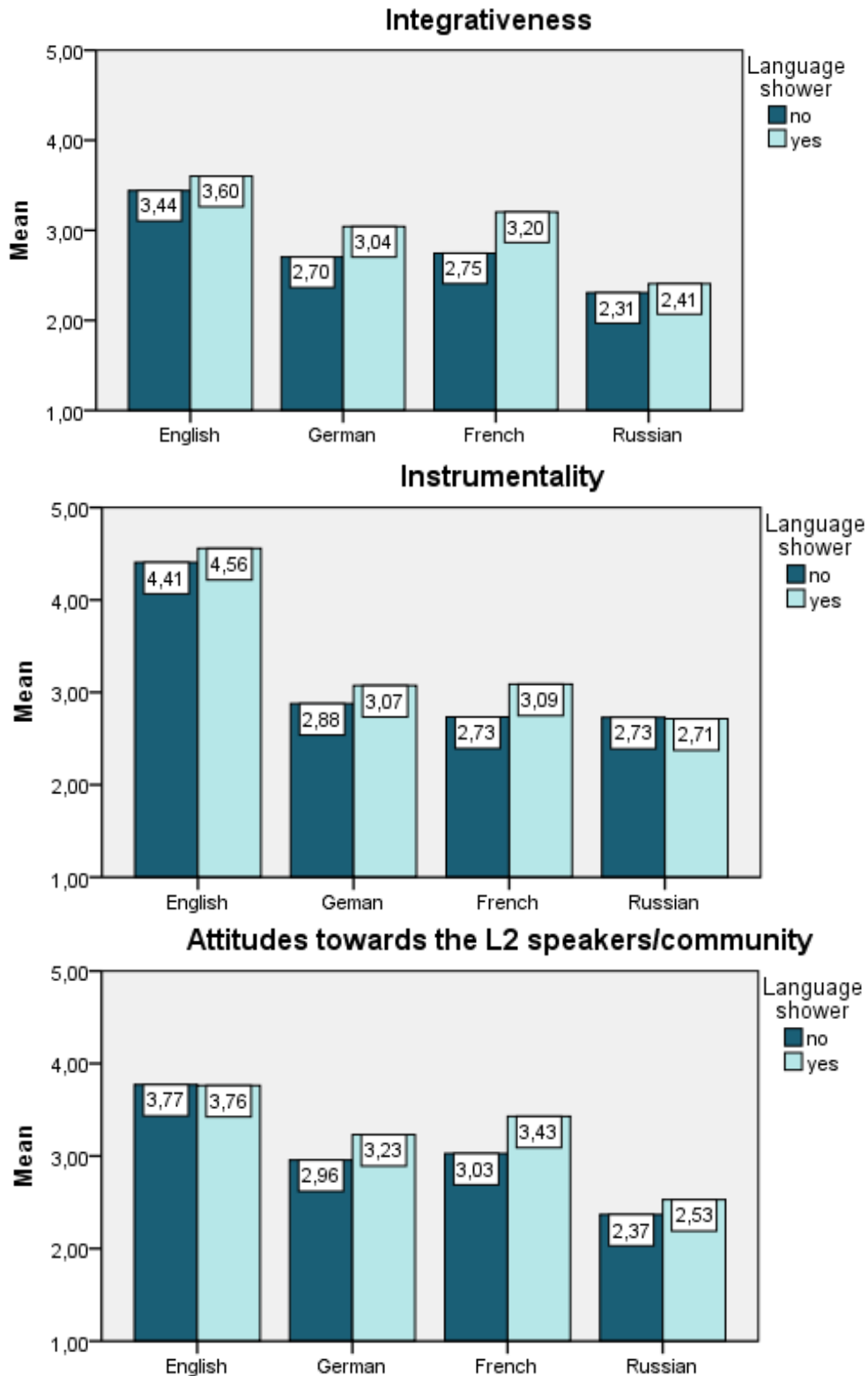
Figure 9. Comparison of Integrativeness, Instrumentality and Attitudes towards the L2 speakers/community between the LS and the non-LS groups

First of all, the LS group had a more integrative disposition towards both German (U=5360.000, Z=-2.929, p=.003) and French (U=5017.500, Z=-3.583, p=.000).

Secondly, they had a stronger instrumental disposition towards English (U=5795.000, Z=-2.050, p=.040) and French (U=5357.500, Z=-2.851, p=.004). Thirdly, the LS group had a more positive attitude towards the L2 speakers and communities of German (U=5772.500, Z=-1.963, p=.050) and French (U=5358.500, Z=-2.877, p=.004). Thus, it seems that the French language shower has, in fact, had a positive impact on these aspects of the pupils' language disposition towards French. However, the other differences in the scores were somewhat unexpected. If we take a closer look at the German scores that differed between the groups, namely *Integrativeness* and *Attitudes towards L2 speakers/community*, we notice that the difference was generated by the boys' disposition (Figure 10). The girls, on the other hand, evaluated German rather similarly in both groups. The boys' more positive disposition in the LS group could be based either on a coincidence or on a background variable that has not been controlled here, or the French language shower has somehow managed to awaken their interest towards lesser taught languages in general, in this case German. In language attitude studies, students often consider French a feminine language as opposed to German that is said to be more masculine (Dörnyei et al. 2006: 56, Williams et al. 2002).
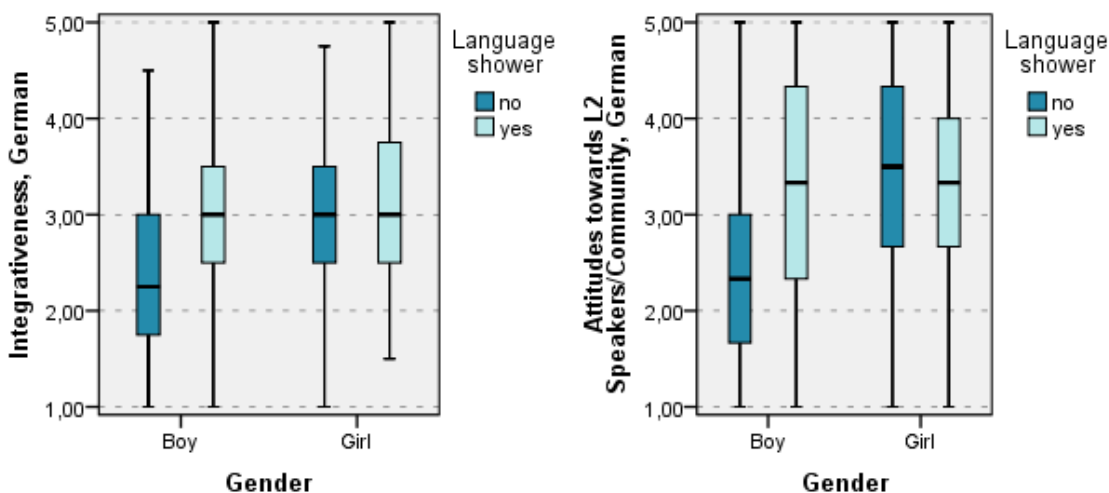

Figure 10. The effect of gender and language shower on German integrativeness and attitudes towards German speakers and community

Figure 11 presents similar box plots of the impact of gender and language shower on the French scores on the *Integrativeness*, *Instrumentality*, and *Attitudes towards L2 speakers/community* scales. It shows that boys had clearly a more negative disposition towards these aspects related to the French language and culture. Yet, the participation in the French language shower appears to have improved both the boys' and the girls'
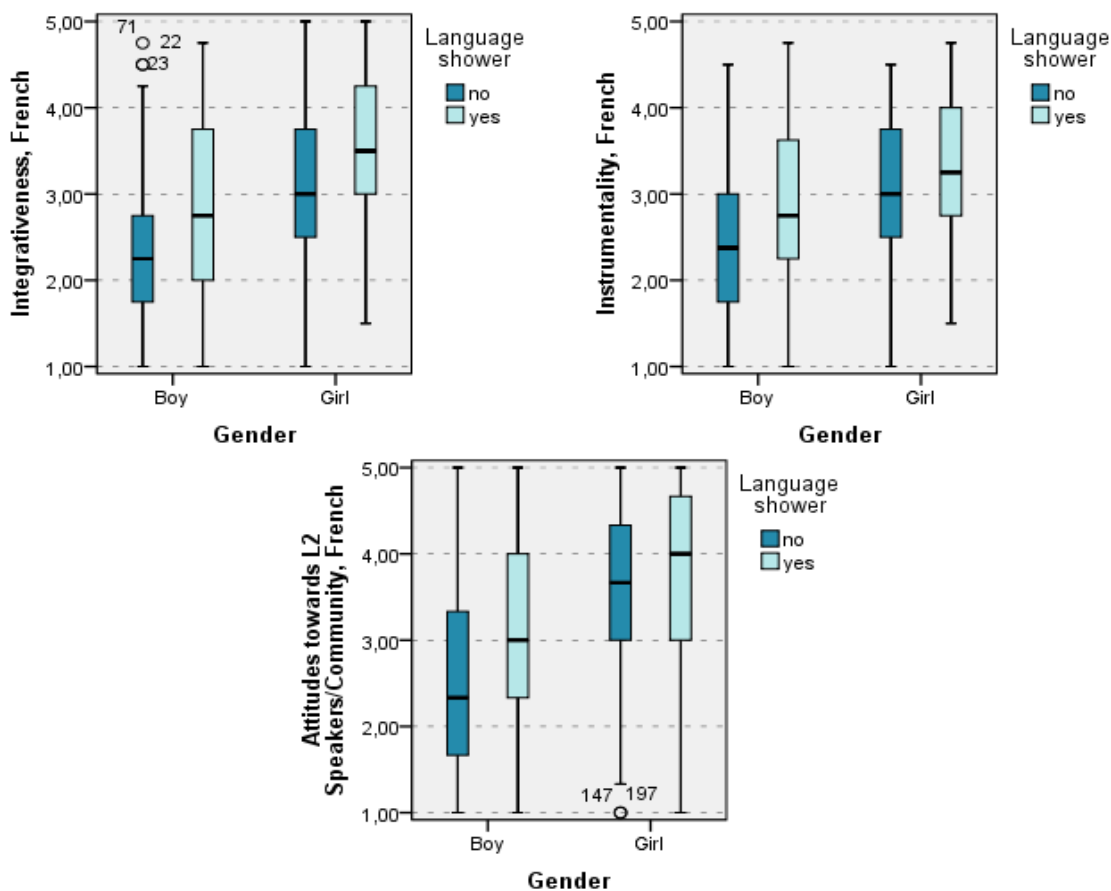
disposition.

Figure 11. The effect of gender and language shower on French integrativeness, instrumentality, and attitudes towards French speakers and community

7.3.2 Cultural interest

The previous sections examined the respondents' *integrative* and *instrumental* dispositions and their *attitudes towards the L2 speakers and community*, as well as the differences between the LS and the non-LS groups. This subchapter discusses the last language specific scale, namely *Cultural interest*. It is presented separately as the scale differed somewhat from the other language specific scales and because the number of pupils who had rated the cultural products varied substantially.

In addition to the *Cultural interest* scale, questionnaire item 17 mapped how much the respondents watch TV programmes or films in the four target languages. The results are summarized in Figure 12. The lowest scores (*do not really watch them* and *do not watch them at all*) and the highest score (*watch them quite a lot* or *very much*) have been combined in the figure. Based on the figure, it is evident that the pupils consumed

English-language programmes and films regularly, as was reported also by Leppänen et al. (2011) and Hyytiä (2008). German, French, and Russian programmes and films, on the other hand, were a rarity for the majority of the pupils. In fact, it seems that not watching TV programmes in English required an explanation. One pupil explained a low score on this item by writing *I do not watch TV at all* next to her answer. These findings resemble Finnish youngsters' contacts with foreign languages as they were described in Chapter 2.2.
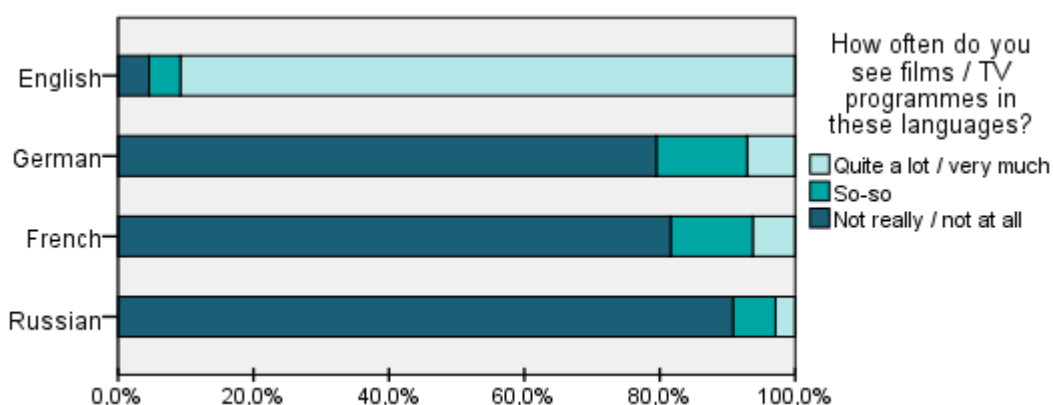

Figure 12. Familiarity with TV programmes and films in the target languages

The *Cultural interest* scale consisted of three items asking the respondents how much they like TV programmes, movies, and music in the four target languages. The respondents also had the choice to answer with a zero indicating that they are not familiar with these cultural products. Basically all the pupils knew English language cultural products, and less than 2 % marked that they are not familiar with them. Cultural products in the other three languages were much more unfamiliar to the pupils. Depending on the question, 40–51 % of the pupils reported that they do not know TV programmes, movies or music in German, and 50–56 % were unfamiliar with them in French. Russian cultural products were the strangest to the respondents as 60–70 % answered this question with a zero. It can be assumed that the pupils' unfamiliarity shows general disinterest towards cultural products in German, French, and Russian. On the other hand, one important explaining factor is that they are not as readily available as those in English, which was also noted in Chapter 2.2 on the basis of Väisänen's (2004) study.

Because of the high rate of zeros in the responses, the *Cultural interest* multi-item scales were calculated differently from the other multi-item scales to avoid missing

responses. The zeros had to be excluded before forming the multi-item scales as they are not part of the evaluative Likert scale. Since it was rather common that there was one type of cultural product the pupils were not familiar with even though they had rated the other two (TV programmes/films/music), the multi-item scales were calculated by counting the mean of the ratings if at least two of the three cultural products had been rated.

Figure 13 presents the means of the *Cultural interest* scale on a scale from one to five in the LS and the non-LS groups. Because of the limited number of valid responses, one has to be careful in drawing conclusion based on the figures for German, French, and Russian. Yet, it can be reliably said that the pupils endorsed English cultural products very highly. The products in all the other languages were rated with general dislike with means below the neutral three. The rank order of the languages was similar as in the previous attitudinal and motivational scales. The LS group rated cultural products in all languages slightly higher than the non-LS groups, but only the difference in the French scores was statistically significant (U=3,385.5, Z=-2.664, n=148, p=.008). Furthermore, the boys' evaluations of the cultural products in German, French and Russian were more negative than the girls'. A Mann-Whitney U test showed that these differences were all statistically significant or almost significant (Appendix 4, Table 3). This did not apply to English as both sexes liked cultural products in English quite much.
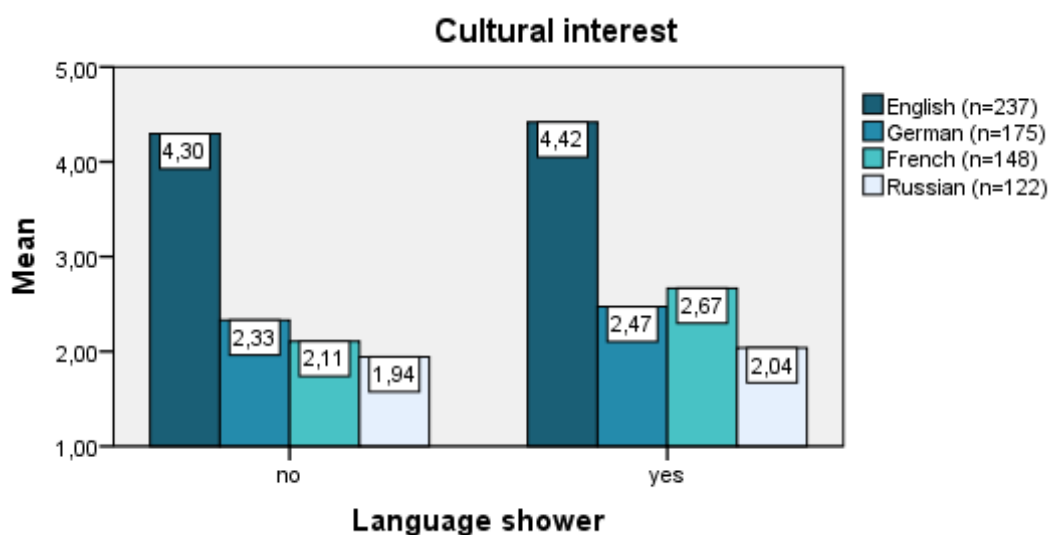

Figure 13. Mean scores on Cultural interest scale in the LS and non-LS groups

7.4   Non-language specific dimensions of language disposition

In addition to the language specific scales examined in Chapter 7.3, the questionnaire included also three motivational scales that are not related to any specific languages. These were *Linguistic self-confidence* that targeted the pupils' belief of how well they will manage learning a foreign language, *Milieu* that studied how supportive the people close to the pupil are of foreign language learning, and finally *Interest in versatile language study* that focused on how interested the pupils are in broad FL studies and whether they think knowing English is enough. The responses to these scales are mainly based on the pupils' experiences as learners of English.

The responses to the non-language specific scales are summarized in Figure 14. Most answers on the *Linguistic self-confidence* scale fell into the middle category, and the mean was 3.22, which shows that the pupils were not generally very confident of their ability to learn foreign languages well. Yet, there were a small number of both very confident and very insecure language learners. The *Milieu* scale, on the other hand, leaned towards the higher values, which illustrates that most pupils' milieu was quite supportive of language learning. This was also supported by the lack of small values. According to the Mann-Whitney U test, boys and girls are equally confident language learners (U=6729.000, Z=-.108, p=.914), but girls perceive their *Milieu* as more encouraging of language studies than boys (U=4981.000, Z=-3.435, p=.001). These two scales were rated similarly in both the LS and the non-LS groups. The *Milieu* scale received a low Cronbach's alpha value, which weakens the reliability of these results. Yet, Dörnyei et al. (2006: 58) observed too that the *Milieu* was generally supportive of language studies, but that the boys' scores were lower than the girls'.
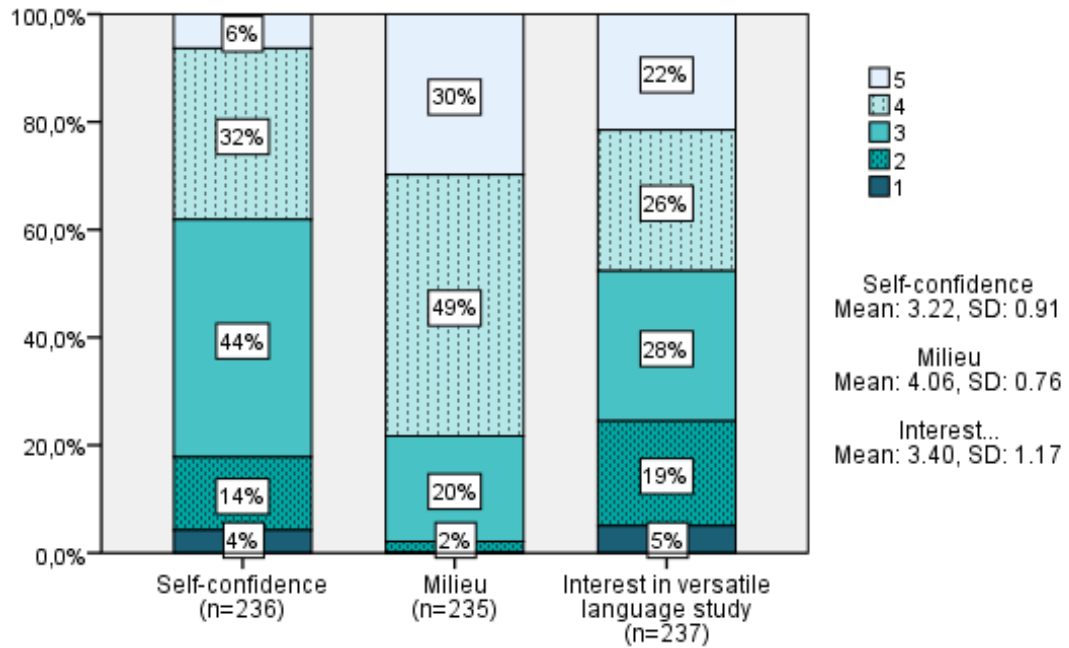
Figure 14. Linguistic self-confidence, Milieu, and Interest in versatile language study in the LS and the non-LS groups

As opposed to the *Linguistic self-confidence* and *Milieu* scales, Figure 15 shows that the LS and the non-LS groups differed in their *interest in versatile language study*. In the non-LS group, there were many pupils who had a neutral disposition to foreign language studies. The portion of pupils who were interested in studying many foreign languages was larger in the LS group. The mean for the LS group was 3.58, whereas for the non-LS group it was 3.26. This difference was statistically almost significant (U=5676.500, Z=-2.293, p=.022). Thus, it appears that language showers can raise interest towards versatile language study. Gender also influenced the responses on this scale, and girls were more interested in studying foreign languages in general (U=4920.000, Z=-3.731, p=.000).
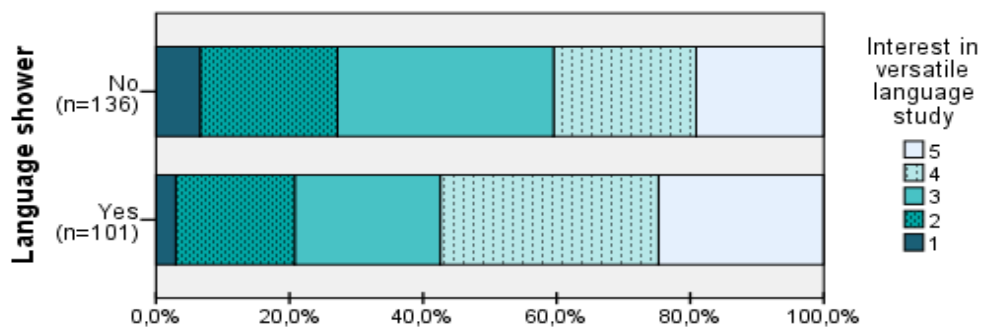

Figure 15. Interest in versatile language study in the LS and the non-LS groups

7.5 Criterion measures

The present study included two criterion measures that dealt with the direction and the magnitude of motivated behaviour (Dörnyei et al. 2006: 51). These were mapped by asking how much effort the respondents would be willing to put into language learning and which languages they would like to learn. The results are presented in the next subchapters along with the reasons the pupils gave for their language preferences.

7.5.1 Intended effort

The *Intended effort* scores are based on the answers to a single question (item 10): "How much effort are you prepared to expend in learning these languages?" (Dörnyei et al. 2006: 158). The responses are summarized in Figure 16. The positive responses four and five were combined in the figure, as was done to the negative answers one and two. As could be expected, the majority of the respondents were ready to work in order to learn English. Surprisingly, 10 % of the pupils did not see the point in investing effort into their English studies, and further 21 % were doubtful. Perhaps some of the pupils feel that they already know so much English or that learning English is so easy that there is little need to expend much effort into it. Approximately one third of the pupils would be willing to expend effort into learning German and French, but nearly 40 % were not interested in this prospect. Russian was once again the most unpopular language as over half of the respondents were not prepared to see the trouble to study the language.
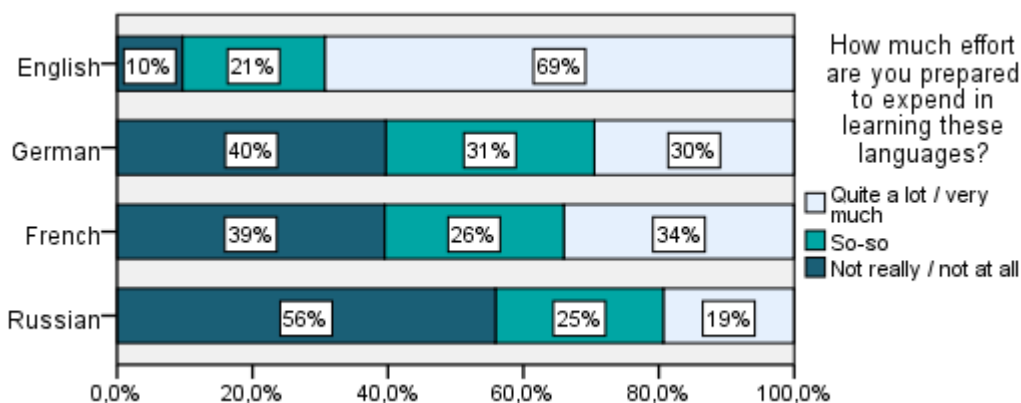

Figure 16. Intended effort

Statistically, there were no significant differences in how much effort the pupils in the LS and the non-LS groups were willing to put into learning English or Russian. Yet, the

LS group was more eager to study hard in order to learn German (U=4992.500, Z=-3.748, p=.000) and French (U=5254.000, Z=-3.310, p=.001). However, gender had an impact on the *Intended effort* scores too: boys were less enthusiastic to see the trouble to study any of these languages (Appendix 4, Table 4). This finding mirrors those of Dörnyei et al. (2006: 59).

7.5.2   Preferred language choices

The pupils were also asked to name three languages they would like to study in the order of preference (item 30). However, three pupils left the question empty, 15 chose only one language, and 17 chose two languages, which means that only 204 pupils chose all three languages that were asked for. The following analyses include only these 204 respondents in order to avoid distorting the results. The incomplete answers are dealt with shortly at the end of this subchapter.

The most common first, second, and third choices are presented in Figure 17. All in all, the respondents named 21 different languages: English, German, French, Swedish, Spanish, Russian, Japanese, Italian, Finnish, Portuguese, Estonian, Chinese, Korean, Norwegian, Greek, Arabic, Thai, Latin, Polish, Turkish, and (Finnish) sign language. Yet, only those that were chosen by at least ten pupils are listed in Figure 17. English was by far the most common first choice, even though nine other languages were also chosen as the first language preference. Altogether 175 pupils out of 204 chose English as one of the top three languages they would like to study. German and French were commonplace as the second or third language choice, and were chosen by over 80 pupils. Russian was less popular than Swedish or Spanish, although Swedish was the least common first choice among these three languages. The order of English, German, French, and Russian followed principally the same pattern as in the motivational and attitudinal scales in chapter 7.3.

Finnish is an interesting addition among the foreign languages in Figure 17. The question was meant to target foreign languages even though the formulation did not make this explicit. Most respondents have probably not thought about Finnish in this context. I presume that it would have been a considerably more common choice, had it been explicitly named in the question or as part of the instruction. Although very few pupils chose Finnish, it was more common as the first than as the second or the third choice, which reflects the importance of the mother tongue. These respondents

recognized that Finnish was the language they knew best and had most use of, which is how they motivated this choice.
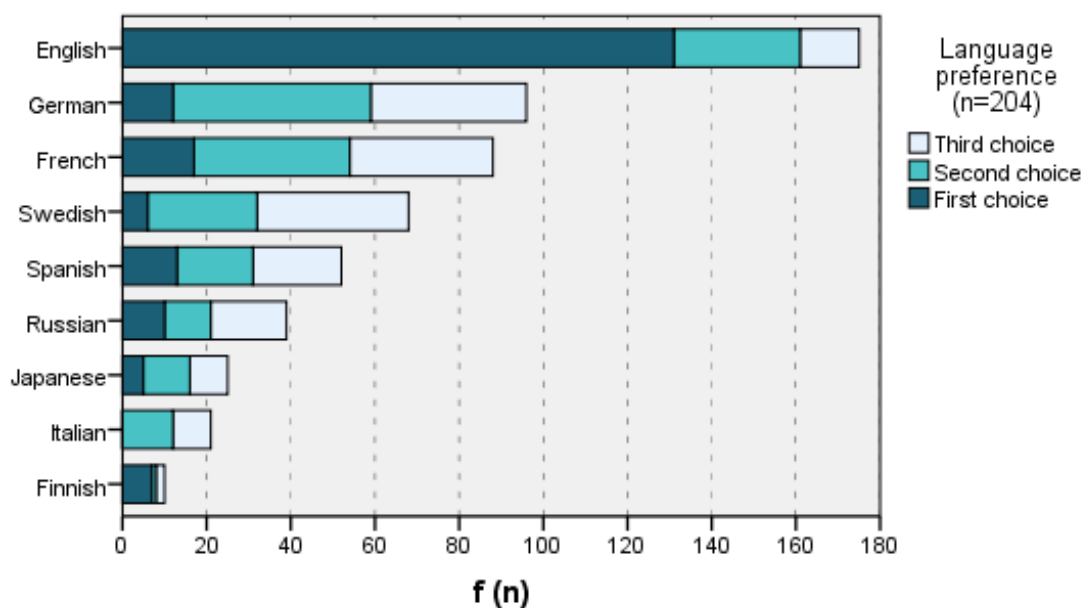
Only languages chosen by at least ten respondents are displayed.

Figure 17. Language preferences

Next, the language preferences were given scores following the example of Dörnyei et al. (2006: 51). The first choice was given three points, the second choice two points, and the last choice one point. Languages that had not been chosen by a pupil were coded with a zero. The combined scores for the six most commonly chosen languages are presented in Table 3. Since the sample sizes were not equal, the actual scores do not provide a good basis for comparison between the groups, but the mean scores can be used for this purpose.

Table 3. The pupils' language choice preferences in the LS and the non-LS groups

Language	Score Non-LS (n=113)	LS (n=91)	Mean score Non-LS (n=113)	LS (n=91)	Mann-Whitney U
English	268	199	2.37	2.19	4677.5
German	95	72	.84	.79	4930.0
French	71	88	.63	.97	4337.5*
Swedish	57	49	.50	.54	4946.5
Spanish	46	50	.41	.55	4818.5
Russian	48	22	.42	.24	4594.0

* p<.05

The mean scores showed many small differences in the language preference scores between the LS and the non-LS groups (Table 3). For example, German and Russian appeared to be more popular in the non-LS group, whereas French and Spanish received higher scores among those pupils who took part in the language shower. However, the Mann Whitney U Test showed that only the difference in the French scores reached statistical significance, which suggests that the French language shower did have a positive effect on the respondents' interest in studying French.

English was the most common language preference also among those respondents who chose only one or two languages (n=32). Nine pupils in this group did not choose English at all, and their responses were divided between several languages, including for instance German, French, Spanish, and Japanese. Now that we have taken a look at what languages the respondents wished to study, it is time to move on to examine their motives for these language preferences.

7.5.3 Motives for language choice preferences

The pupils' reasons for their language choices in the previous question were mapped with an open-ended question (31). Some respondents gave one motive that applied to all the languages they had chosen, while others mentioned separately several reasons for each language they wanted to study. Nine pupils left this question blank as they had not chosen any languages or did not give any reasons for their choices. All in all, this method provided me with over 500 reasons. Although this is a quantitative study, I employed data-driven thematic analysis (see e.g. Saaranen-Kauppinen & Puusniekka 2006) loosely to find categories in the data. After the first reading, the 500 reasons were placed into approximately 40 groups of motives, which were then, after a more detailed analysis, combined into 12 broader categories. The categories here are based on the researcher's subjective interpretation of what the respondents have meant with their answers and how these could and should be grouped. The categories are presented below.

1. **Widely spoken / World-language**. The reasons in this category state that the chosen language is spoken all over the world, or at least widely in many places and by many people. The language is regarded as useful if one wants to travel abroad.

2. **Positive attitude towards a language and interest in it**. The responses in this category express a personal interest towards a language and a wish to learn it.

3. **Usefulness and/or importance of a language**. These reasons stress the usefulness and the importance of a language or the need of a language. This category includes also a few mentions of the importance of the language in working life.

4. **Interest in a country/culture**. The respondents want to learn a language because they like or are interested in the country or area where it is spoken. In many cases, they have been to the country or wish to travel there.

5. **Contacts with FL speakers**. The respondents who gave reasons belonging to this category are interested in communicating with speakers of other languages in their mother tongue. They have usually family members, relatives or friends who have foreign roots or live in other countries.

6. **Prior knowledge of a language**. The pupils want to learn a certain language because they already know the language, study the language, or have prior experiences of learning it either in school or outside the school context.

7. **Importance in Finland**. Languages in this category are important in Finland because they are spoken here and/or in neighbouring countries. This category was used solely to explain the wish to study Swedish or Russian.

8. **Easiness.** The respondents want to learn a language because they either know from experience or assume that learning it is easy or at least not very difficult.

9. **Characteristics of a language**. The reason for choosing a language is based on a specific characteristic or use of that language, for example, on a specific kind of alphabet (e.g. Cyrillic) or similarity with some other language.

10. **General interest in language learning**.

11. **Other people's influence**. Other people have recommended the language or advocated its importance.

12. **Uncertainty or slight reluctance to study a language**.

Figure 18 displays the frequencies of these motives. A *positive attitude towards a language and an interest in it* was by far the most common reason justifying the choice of a language (n=195). This stresses the importance of the affective, intrinsic side of motivation (Dörnyei 2001a: 50–53, Gardner 2010). Often the language or what it sounds like was described with a positive adjective as in the following Example 1.

(1) Ranskaa olisi hauska oppia myös, sillä se on mahtavan kuuloista.

(1) French would also be fun to learn because it sounds wonderful.
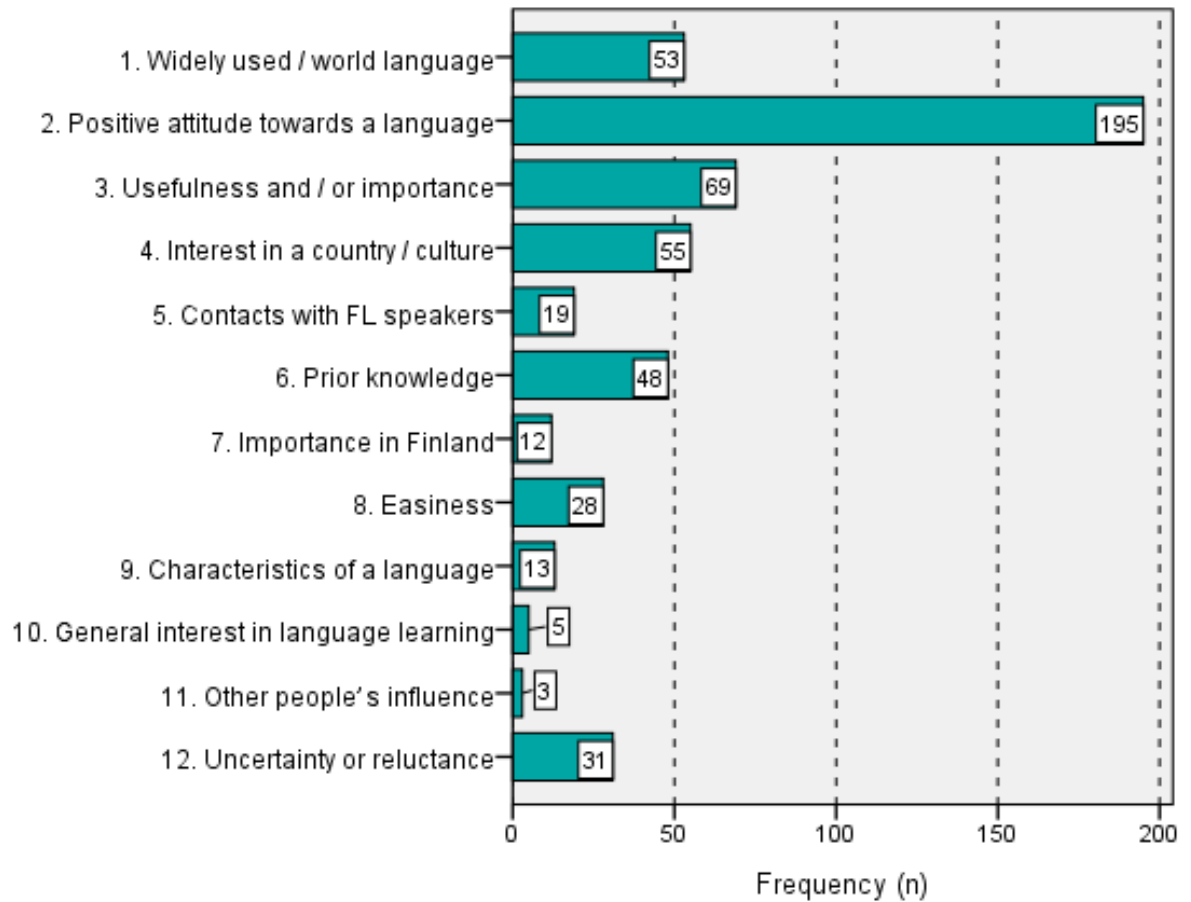

Figure 18. The frequency of different motives for language preferences

As Figure 18 shows, 69 pupils explained their language preference with the language's *importance or usefulness*, usually without specifying why it is useful, important or necessary. Rather young learners may not have the means to explain specifically why they like a language or why it may be useful. Aro (2009: 141–142) argues that they, instead, often echo views and ideas that are prevalent in the society or that they've heard from their parents, for example. Unlike in Julkunen's (1998: 57) study, career related reasons did not stand out in the present study, although a few pupils mentioned them. 53 respondents chose a language because it was a *widely used or a world language* (Example 2). This motive corresponds partly with the most common motive in Julkunen's (1998) study: travelling and communication.

(2) Koska englantia puhutaan monessa maassa ja se tunnetaan hyvin.

(2) Because English is spoken in many countries and it is [a] well-known [language].

Other common motives were an *interest in a country/culture*, and *prior knowledge* of a language. The latter motive commonly included a wish to continue studying a language or to become better in it as in Example 3.

> (3) Englantia osaan jo aika paljon mutta haluaisin oppia puhumaan sitä kunnolla.

> (3) I already know quite a lot of English but I would like to learn to speak it properly.

The sixth most popular motive was called *Uncertainty or reluctance*. Strictly speaking, all the items in the category were not motives or reasons for language choices. The most common answer in this category was "I do not know", but some wrote that they did not come up with any other languages or they chose a language because they were asked to mention three languages even if they were not really interested in that many languages. The responses were often worded negatively:

> (4) Saksa ei ole lemppari kieli.

> (4) German is not my favourite language.

A crosstabulation of the motive categories and the participation in the language shower showed that there were no significant differences between the LS and non-LS groups (X^2=9.464, df=11, p=.579). All twelve motives had been used by both groups to explain their language choice preferences. The data is not well-suited for comparing the motives used by the boys and the girls, but the girls were clearly more productive when it came to explaining their language preferences: the girls mentioned in all 357 motives, whereas the boys listed 173 motives. In other words, the girls used 2.7 different motives on average to explain their language choices, and the boys used only 1.6.

Figure 19 attempts to illustrate which categories where most commonly used to justify to choice of English, French, and any other languages. The four smallest categories have been excluded from the figure as such few pupils had mentioned them. The figure shows that the choice of English was most commonly explained by its usefulness and importance, a positive attitude towards the English language, and by its role as a world language. Many respondents also expressed a wish to continue their English studies (*Prior knowledge*). Interest in the culture of English-speaking countries, on the other hand, was a rather rare motive. Apparently, English is first and foremost seen as a world language and not connected to any specific country unlike other languages (Example 5).

(5) Englannista on hyötyä missä maassa tahansa. Espanjasta on hyötyä Espanjassa tai Kanarialla.

(5) English is useful in any country. Spanish is useful in Spain or in the Canaries.

The example also shows that pupils in this age group can have somewhat unrealistic views on how widely languages are spoken. Julkunen (1998: 57) noted the same thing about pupil' views on the usefulness of foreign languages. The motives in the present study differ somewhat from those that came up in Lehikoinen and Leinonen's (2010: 54) study. Common motives include the easiness of English, travelling, and the usefulness and importance of English. The media or using English in one's free time were not mentioned by the pupils in this study.
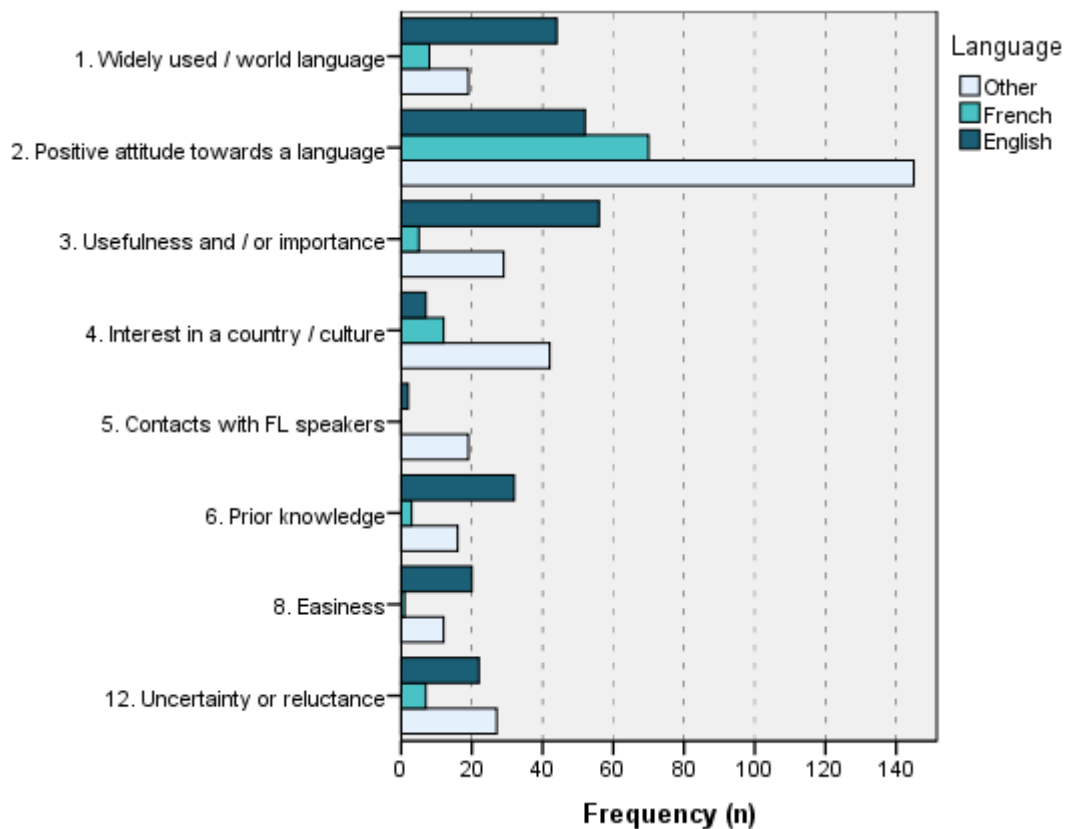
Figure 19. The frequency of each motive used to explain the choice of English, French and other languages

An overwhelming majority of the pupils who chose French explained this with a positive attitude towards the French language. Other motives were used seldom. *Positive attitude towards a language and an interest in it* was also the most used motive to explain the choice of any other languages. Compared to English, these other languages fared well also in the categories *Interest in a country/culture* and *Contacts with FL speakers*. Thus, it would seem that instrumental motives dominate the choice of

English to some extent while other languages are preferred for more integrative reasons.

This chapter has presented the respondents and their linguistic background, language specific non-language specific aspects of the language disposition, and examined the pupils' language choice preferences and their motives. The results have also been compared and contrasted with regard to gender differences and between the LS and the no-LS groups. In the next chapter, the results will be discussed in more detail and in connection with previous studies.

8 DISCUSSION

This chapter will give a closer look at the main themes of the study. In addition, the results are discussed in the light of previous studies. First, I will consider the respondents' motivation to study English, and their disposition towards German, French, and Russian. Subchapter 8.3 concentrates on the influences of the language shower on the participants' language disposition. Finally, I will ponder on the limitations of the present study and suggest topics for future research in subchapter 8.4.

8.1   Motivation to study English

According to Gardner's (2010: 10) definition, motivation is closely connected to engaging in an activity. As English was studied by all the respondents, it can be said that the questionnaire measured not only their disposition but also their motivation to study English. English was the most highly rated language on all language specific scales. The standard deviation was the smallest in the English scores as well, which indicates that the respondents were more unanimous in their disposition towards English than towards the other target languages in the survey. Julkunen (1998: 55) made similar observations concerning English in his study on the motivation to study several A2 languages. Moreover, English was almost a self-evident language choice, preferred by 85 % of the pupils. These results are in line with Dörnyei et al.'s (2006) reflections on the superior role of English in the minds of young Hungarians. Based on the three scales used to measure the reaction to the English lessons, namely easiness, utility, and general evaluation, the majority of the pupils expressed a rather positive attitude also towards their usual learning environment.

As was discussed in Chapter 2.2, English is a regular part of the pupils' everyday life. English is known in basically all families, and moreover, 32 pupils added that English is actually spoken in their home at least infrequently. A large majority of the respondents watched English-language programmes and films on TV quite much or very much, and basically everybody was also familiar with English-language music. Furthermore, the pupils liked these cultural products pretty much. These results reflect the importance of English in youth culture also noted by Leppänen and Nikula (2007) and Sajavaara (2006) among others. Despite this regular exposure to English-language media content, only eight respondents mentioned that they had learned English outside the school context. As English is practically a compulsory school subject, there is perhaps no need

to expend any conscious effort on studying it in free time. On the other hand, it could also be that the pupils do not see their usage of English in free time as language learning, as Aro noted (2009: 141–142).

The importance of the instrumental orientation came up in several sections of the results. English lessons were considered clearly more useful than easy or pleasant, and the *Instrumentality* of English received the highest mean of all scales in the survey. Moreover, many pupils justified the wish to continue their English studies with instrumental reasons such as its position as a global lingua franca and its general usefulness and importance. This suggests that the pupils' motivation to study English is very much instrumental in nature. Dörnyei et al. (2006: 48) noted as well that even though the scores on most scales declined during the study period, the English instrumentality score remained particularly high.

Although the English *Integrativeness* was rated higher than that of other languages, the score was lower than on the other language specific scales. Previous motivational studies have also noted that integrative orientation does not tend to be as strong in Finland as instrumental orientation (Julkunen 1998, Rossi 2003, Ruokolainen 2012). As was discussed in Chapter 5.1, the role of integrativeness in language learning motivation is disputed. These results support Noels et al.'s (2000) view that integrativeness is not essential for L2 motivation in all contexts. In addition to the high instrumental value attached to English, integrativeness scores may suffer because of the lack of a specific target language community. Based on the motives the pupils named for studying English, it appears that the opportunity to communicate with people all over the world is a more important aspect for learners than the opportunity to get to know native speakers of English as has been suspected by Ushioda and Dörnyei (2009). On the other hand, the respondents seem to have an overly optimistic view on the utility of English. It is not surprising, as the widespread use of English in the Finnish media reinforces this image, and they have learned that most people in Finland know English.

Languages are usually seen as "girly" school subjects as girls study more free-choice languages than boys (Sajavaara 2006: 240). Girls also obtain better learning results, but these gender differences have been decreasing with regard to English in recent years (Pohjala 2004: 260). Dörnyei et al. (2006: 56) also predict that gender differences in the motivation to study English will disappear because of its position as a global lingua

franca. The present study, however, shows that there are still many differences in girls'
and boys' motivation to study English. The girls rated the language specific scales
higher than boys with the exception of *Cultural interest*. Furthermore, girls were willing
to put more effort into studying English. Yet, these differences were usually statistically
less significant than when it came to the other three target languages. Perhaps a little
surprisingly, both genders evaluated the pleasantness of English lessons rather similarly.
Even though boys considered English lessons somewhat easier than girls, both genders
were equally confident in their ability to learn foreign languages.

All in all, the majority of the pupils were quite motivated to study English: they
generally enjoy their language lessons, like the English language, regard English
speakers positively, and are willing to put effort into their English studies. Although the
overall picture of the English motivation is very positive, there was much variation in
the scores, which indicates that a minority of the respondents are not motivated to study
English. Yet, *instrumentality* forms an exception here, and it would seem that even
those pupils who do not enjoy their English studies grasp its utility. Next, I will move
on to look at the pupils' disposition towards German, French, and Russian.

8.2   Disposition towards other languages

The disposition towards German, French, and Russian followed a rather stable pattern
throughout the questionnaire. The overall evaluations of the languages also coincide
rather well with the *Intended effort* scores. German and French were assessed rather
equally by the pupils. Approximately 30 % of the respondents had a positive disposition
and another 30 % a negative disposition towards them, but the rest were rather neutral in
their evaluations. Julkunen (1998: 55) noted also that German and French were
evaluated quite similarly in his study. The situation was different in Hungary where
German is a regional lingua franca and, therefore, valued more highly than French
(Dörnyei et al. 2006). Russian evoked negative feelings in half of the respondents of the
present study, even though its instrumental value was rated a little higher than other
scales. Ruokolainen (2012: 88) mentions too that Russian was the least liked language
in his study. The disposition towards Russian was more positive in Julkunen's (1998)
study. This can be explained by the fact that the present study's target municipality was
located much further away from the Russian border than Joensuu where Julkunen
conducted his study. On the other hand, the disposition towards Russian was even more

negative in Hungary due to historical reasons (Dörnyei et al. 2006: 4).

As was expected based on Väisänen's (2004) study, media exposure and *Cultural interest* towards German, French and Russian were minimal. The pupils were mostly unfamiliar with cultural products in these languages, watched them very little on TV and rated them with general dislike. Gender affected the disposition towards German, French, and Russian even more than the motivation to study English. The girls displayed a markedly more positive disposition on all language specific scales towards all these languages, and were more willing to put effort into learning them. Dörnyei et al. (2006: 56–59), Julkunen (1998), and Williams et al. (2002) found as well that girls tend to be more motivated than boys. All in all, these results support Dörnyei et al.'s (2006: 50–51) categorization of English as the only world language in school pupils' minds.

Although the respondents' disposition towards German and French was mostly quite neutral, these languages were the second and the third most popular language preferences after English. This reflects the reality that they are still the most common free-choice languages in comprehensive schools as pointed out in Chapter 2.1. Moreover, Ruokolainen (2012) found out that even though German and French were commonly studied by his respondents, they were not well-liked at least compared to English.

The most common motive for choosing other languages than English in the present study was *Positive attitude towards a language and an interest in it.* It seems that instrumental reasons have been in a more prominent role in studies where the respondents already study an L2 (see e.g. Julkunen 1998, Rossi 2003, Ruokolainen 2012). Perhaps an interest in a language is not alone enough for making a language choice. It could also be that language teachers try to motivate students by directing their attention to the usefulness of the target language. Julkunen (1998: 57–59) also observed that primary school pupils' views on the usefulness of different languages may not be completely realistic. Thus, the respondents in the present study might not have a clear picture of where these other languages might be useful and where they are spoken, which explains their reliance on a positive attitude towards these languages instead of instrumental motives. This implies that language showers are needed not only to offer pupils positive encounters with other languages but also to expand their worldview.

8.3   The language shower and language disposition

The results concerning the effects of the language shower on the pupils' language disposition are promising. Participation in the French language shower increased the pupils' ratings of French on all the language specific scales. Moreover, the LS group was ready to expend more effort into learning French, and chose French more often as one of the three languages they would most like to study. Yet, the boys' disposition still remained more negative than the girls' on most scales. The girls' disposition was higher than the boys' even among those girls who did not take part in the language shower. This supports pupils' generalisation of French as a feminine language (Dörnyei et al. 2006: 56, Williams et al. 2002: 520–521). On the positive side, participation in the language shower appears to have improved the boys' disposition too. Interestingly, the LS group tended to value most aspects in all languages a little higher than the non-LS group even though this difference was not usually statistically significant except when it came to French.

The easiness and the utility of the language shower were both evaluated rather neutrally, but the general evaluation was quite positive. In fact, the pupils deemed the language shower a little more pleasant than their normal English lessons. The girls enjoyed the language shower more than the boys. Because Pynnönen (2012, 2013) employed different methodology in her studies, it is difficult to compare and contrast the results. However, both studies have shown that language showers are an enjoyable experience for most children, and that after the shower, the children have expressed a positive disposition to the language in question. On the whole, the language shower appears to have fulfilled Dörnyei's (2001a: 51–55) recommendation of providing the pupils with a powerful and positive learning experience that can enhance their initial motivation.

Some results were more unexpected, as the language shower seems to have improved the boys' disposition towards some aspects of German (*Integrativeness*, *Attitudes towards the L2 speakers/community*, *Intended effort*) and English (*Instrumentality*). This study does not provide an explanation for these results. Either the boys in the LS group happened to be more positively disposed towards German to begin with, or the language shower managed to awaken their interest towards foreign languages in general. This interest could have been reflected as a more positive attitude towards German as its reputation is more "masculine" than that of the French language (Dörnyei

et al. 2006: 56).

Milieu and *Linguistic self-confidence* were rated similarly in both groups. Thus, it appears that they are shaped by the pupils' experiences as learners of English, not by a brief encounter with another foreign language. As the most common first foreign language, English plays an important role in forming young language learners' view of themselves as language learners and of the language learning process. However, the LS group expressed more interest towards studying also other foreign languages than English, which suggests that the participation in a language shower might increase also other language choices. On the other hand, language showers are not going to undermine the position of English as the most popular, used, and useful foreign language, which was discussed in Chapter 2.2. This is shown by the pupils' language preferences and their high disposition towards English.

8.4   Limitations of the study and suggestions for future research

In this chapter, I will look at the reliability and the validity of the results and make suggestions for future research. The language specific results were very consistent with English scoring highest, Russian lowest, and German and French between them. This could indicate that these aspects of language disposition closely connected with each other. On the other hand, it is possible that the results suffer from the halo effect (Dörnyei 2003: 13). In other words, the respondents' overall impression of a language has affected their responses on all items on the language specific scales. The halo effect is probably unavoidable when the responses are based on attitudes and beliefs rather than on actual experiences with the languages.

One aspect that endangers the reliability and the validity of the present study's results was the use of very short multi-item scales (Gall et al. 2007: 235). This was a question of balancing between the complexity of motivation (see e.g. Dörnyei & Ushioda 2011: 197) and the length of the questionnaire (Dörnyei 2003: 18). Secondary school pupils would be able to fill in a longer questionnaire in 30 minutes, but for the younger pupils four pages was the maximum length for the questionnaire sheet. Another potential problem was the reliance on Dörnyei et al.'s (2006) factors in analysing the results. However, the questionnaire was pilot tested, it employed mostly previously tested items, and the Cronbach's alpha coefficients were mostly good, which should ensure the validity and the reliability of the results (see e.g. Dörnyei 2003).

Analysing the results revealed some problems with the questionnaire items. Having a look at the answers, one can speculate that it should have been made clearer which questions deal with foreign languages and which with all languages including the mother tongue. This problem concerned the language choice question and some of the background questions. Yet, the latter were not used as background variables in the analysis because there was only little variation in the responses. Thus, the problem did not affect the overall results. In the language choice question, Finnish was chosen by such a small number a pupils that there was no significant effect on the other results. Another problem was that the *Milieu* scale's Cronbach's alpha was too low as it had been in the study by Dörnyei et al. (2006: 41). Therefore, I believe that this scale should be revised or used only with caution in future studies.

Overall, I believe that the results give an accurate view on how the pupils in the target municipality are disposed towards English, German, French, and Russian. However, language disposition and language learning motivation are complex phenomena, and this study merely scratches the surface. The present study relied on a structural questionnaire and simple statistical techniques such as crosstabulation and Mann Whitney U Test. The data would have allowed for more extensive examination and more thorough analysis, but it was not possible to go deeper considering the scope of this study. Future studies on the topic could employ factor analysis to see whether the pupils' motivational structure in Finland actually resembles that of the Hungarian study (Dörnyei et al. 2006) and correlation analysis to see how the different aspects of language disposition are related to each other. Furthermore, relationships between the disposition scores and other background variables than participation in the language shower and gender could be researched.

My results indicate that language showers can raise interest towards studying a certain language, but there is need for a longitudinal research to see whether they actually have an effect on language choices in schools. Furthermore, as language showers are organised in various ways (see chapter 4), it should be studied whether these different formats produce similar effects on children's language disposition. A larger study on the topic would offer a chance to expand the test setting too. If pupils' language disposition was tested both before and after a language shower, the effects could be measured more reliably. In my study, the differences are based on contrasting two groups of pupils, and there is a small chance that the LS group was even originally more positively disposed

towards French. In a larger study, the data could also be enriched with qualitative data such as interviews or a qualitative analysis of the motives for language preferences. This triangulation of data could provide deeper insights into pupils' language disposition. The researcher could, for instance, choose pupils with a very positive, an average, and a very negative disposition based on questionnaire results to gain an understanding of what affects these different dispositions.

9   CONCLUSION

The language education system in Finnish basic education is at a point where English and Swedish are studied by basically all pupils, but optional language study in on the decline. English is the self-evident choice and often the only option as the first foreign language. It is undeniably the most important foreign language for young Finns, but the narrowing language skill reserve has also caused much concern. Different projects, and new methods such as language showers, have attempted to reverse this development. The present study was a quantitative study aiming to explore comprehensive school pupils' disposition towards four target languages, namely English, German, French, and Russian. Furthermore, the study sought to establish whether participation in a language shower would have an effect on the participants' language disposition.

The results show that the motivation to study English was generally very high and the pupils emphasized the instrumental orientation (see Gardner 1985a, 2010). The disposition towards German and French was rather neutral, whereas most respondents had quite a negative disposition towards Russian. On most scales, girls outscored boys and thus appear to appreciate languages more than boys (see also Dörnyei et al. 2006, Williams et al. 2002). Participation in the French language shower had a positive effect on both girls' and boys' disposition towards French. These pupils also expressed greater interest in studying other foreign languages in addition to English.

Despite the positive impact of the language shower, the results do not tell us whether or not these pupils will choose to study free-choice languages. Several other factors in addition to language disposition impact language choices (Kangasvieri et al. 2011). It is highly unlikely that the pupils showing a negative disposition will choose optional languages, yet, they might do so, for example, under parental pressure or if their view on languages changes when they grow older. Likewise, a very positive disposition towards a language creates a good foundation for language studies, but these pupils might be even more interested in other subjects and, therefore, not choose optional languages. All in all, language showers appear to be a promising method to raise interest towards foreign languages and provide children with experiences of also other languages than English that is the prevalent foreign language in Finnish youngsters' life. More research is needed to see if language showers can actually advance diverse language choices in the Finnish language education system.

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APPENDIX 1. Language disposition questionnaire

Minä ja vieraat kielet

Hei! Olen englannin kielen opiskelija Jyväskylän yliopistosta ja olen kokoamassa materiaalia tutkielmaani varten. Toivoisin, että voisit auttaa minua vastaamalla seuraaviin kysymyksiin, jotka koskevat vieraita kieliä ja niiden opiskelua. Tämä ei ole testi, joten "oikeita" tai "vääriä" vastauksia ei ole. Vastaukset käsitellään täysin luottamuksellisesti. Sinun mielipiteesi on tärkeä, joten ole kiltti ja vastaa rehellisesti. Kiitos avustasi!

I. *Alla on vastakohtia. Kumpaa vaihtoehtoa sinun mielipiteesi on lähempänä? Merkitse rasti sille viivalle, joka parhaiten kuvaa mielipidettäsi. Lue seuraava esimerkki ennen kuin aloitat.*

Esimerkki: *Englannin opiskelu koulussa on helppoa __:__:__:__:__ vaikeaa*
Jos olet sitä mieltä, että englannin opiskelu *ei ole helppoa eikä vaikeaa*, merkitse rasti *keskimmäiselle viivalle*:
 helppoa __:__: X : __:__ vaikeaa
Jos englannin opiskelu on mielestäsi *enemmän helppoa* kuin vaikeaa, merkitse rasti sitä lähemmäs 'helppoa' -sanaa, mitä helpompana opiskelua pidät: **helppoa __: X :__:__ vaikeaa** TAI **helppoa X :__:__:__ vaikeaa**
Jos taas englannin opiskelu on *enemmän vaikeaa* kuin helppoa, niin merkitse rasti sitä lähemmäs 'vaikeaa' -sanaa, mitä vaikeampana opiskelua pidät: **helppoa __:__: X :__ vaikeaa** TAI **helppoa __:__:__: X vaikeaa**

---

1. Englannin opiskelu koulussa on

helppoa	___:___:___:___:___	vaikeaa
hyödytöntä	___:___:___:___:___	hyödyllistä
tylsää	___:___:___:___:___	kiinnostavaa
kannustavaa	___:___:___:___:___	lannistavaa
hankalaa	___:___:___:___:___	vaivatonta
tarpeellista	___:___:___:___:___	tarpeetonta
kivaa	___:___:___:___:___	kamalaa
yhdentekevää	___:___:___:___:___	tärkeää
yksinkertaista	___:___:___:___:___	monimutkaista
mukavaa	___:___:___:___:___	ahdistavaa

2. Osallistuitko marraskuussa ranskan kielisuihkutukseen? (rastita)

☐ **En** → *Siirry seuraavalle sivulle*
☐ **Kyllä** → *Vastaa alla olevaan kysymykseen 3*

3. Kielisuihkutus on

helppoa	___:___:___:___:___	vaikeaa
hyödytöntä	___:___:___:___:___	hyödyllistä
tylsää	___:___:___:___:___	kiinnostavaa
kannustavaa	___:___:___:___:___	lannistavaa
hankalaa	___:___:___:___:___	vaivatonta
tarpeellista	___:___:___:___:___	tarpeetonta
kivaa	___:___:___:___:___	kamalaa
yhdentekevää	___:___:___:___:___	tärkeää
yksinkertaista	___:___:___:___:___	monimutkaista
mukavaa	___:___:___:___:___	ahdistavaa

II. *Tässä osiossa sinun täytyy vastata kysymyksiin asteikolla 1-5.*

5= tosi paljon   4 = aika paljon   3 = ei paljon eikä vähän   2 = aika vähän   1 = ei ollenkaan

Jos esimerkiksi tykkäät hampurilaisista ja pitsasta tosi paljon, hernekeitosta aika vähän etkä pinaatista ollenkaan, kirjoita näin:

	Hampurilainen	Hernekeitto	Pinaatti	Pitsa
Kuinka paljon tykkäät näistä ruuista?	5	2	1	5

Laita jokaiseen ruutuun numero. Vastaathan, vaikka et tietäisikään varmasti.

	Englanti	Saksa	Ranska	Venäjä
4. Kuinka paljon tykkäät näistä kielistä?				
5. Kuinka paljon näiden kielten osaaminen auttaa sinua tulemaan sivistyneeksi ihmiseksi?				
6. Kuinka tärkeitä luulet näiden kielten olevan maailmassa nykyään?				
7. Kuinka paljon sinua kiinnostaa, miten eletään maissa, joissa puhutaan näitä kieliä?				
8. Kuinka paljon luulet, että näiden kielten osaamisesta on sinulle hyötyä, kun matkustat ulkomailla tulevaisuudessa?				
9. Kuinka paljon haluat *välttyä tapaamasta* ihmisiä, jotka puhuvat näitä kieliä äidinkielenään?				
10. Kuinka paljon vaivaa olet valmis näkemään, jotta oppisit nämä kielet?				
11. Kuinka paljon luulet näistä kielistä olevan sinulle hyötyä työelämässä tulevaisuudessa?				
12. Kuinka paljon haluaisit tulla näitä kieliä puhuvien ihmisten kaltaiseksi?				
13. Kuinka paljon haluaisit tutustua ihmisiin, jotka puhuvat näitä kieliä äidinkielenään?				
14. Kuinka paljon inhoat näitä kieliä?				
15. Kuinka paljon haluaisit matkustaa maihin, joissa puhutaan näitä kieliä?				
16. Kuinka paljon tykkäät ihmisistä, jotka ovat kotoisin maista, joissa puhutaan näitä kieliä?				
17. Kuinka paljon katsot elokuvia/tv-ohjelmia, joissa puhutaan näitä kieliä?				
18. Kuinka paljon tykkäät *tv-ohjelmista*, joissa puhutaan näitä kieliä? (Kirjoita 0, jos et tunne niitä.)				
19. Kuinka paljon tykkäät *elokuvista*, joissa puhutaan näitä kieliä? (Kirjoita 0, jos et tunne niitä.)				
20. Kuinka paljon tykkäät *musiikista*, joka tulee tämänkielisistä maista? (Kirjoita 0, jos et tunne sitä.)				

Oletko laittanut numeron jokaiseen ruutuun? Hyvä!

III. *Seuraavaksi saat väittämiä, joiden kanssa jotkut ovat samaa mieltä ja toiset eri mieltä. Merkitse rasti sen vaihtoehdon kohdalle, joka kuvaa sinun mielipidettäsi parhaiten.*

	Täysin eri mieltä	Osittain eri mieltä	Ei samaa eikä eri mieltä	Osittain samaa mieltä	Täysin samaa mieltä
21. Olen varma, että vieraan kielen oppiminen onnistuu minulta hyvin.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
22. Ihmiset, jotka tunnen, pitävät vieraiden kielten osaamista hyvänä asiana.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
23. Minusta tuntuu, että kaikki muut ovat parempia vieraan kielen oppijoita kuin minä.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
24. Mielestäni riittää, että osaa vain englantia eikä muita vieraita kieliä.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
25. Kukaan ei välitä, opiskelenko vieraita kieliä vai en.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
26. Minun vanhempieni mielestä vieraat kielet ovat turhia kouluaineita.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
27. Haluaisin todella oppia monia vieraita kieliä.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
28. Vieraan kielen oppiminen on minulle vaikea urakka.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
29. Minulla ei todellakaan ole kiinnostusta vieraita kieliä kohtaan.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

30. Mitä kieliä haluaisit opiskella, jos saisit valita? Voit valita mitä tahansa kieliä. Kirjoita kolme kieltä tärkeysjärjestyksessä. (*Mainitse myös sellaiset kielet, joita opiskelet jo, jos haluaisit jatkaa niiden opiskelua.*)

1)_____   2)_____
3)_____

31. Kerro lyhyesti, miksi valitsit edelliset kolme kieltä.

_____

_____

_____

_____

IV. *Kerro lopuksi hieman itsestäsi.*

32. Olen tyttö / poika. (alleviivaa)

33. Olen viidennellä / kuudennella / seitsemännellä luokalla. (alleviivaa)

34. Mitä kieltä tai kieliä kotonasi puhutaan?_____

35. Minkä arvosanan sait englannista joulutodistukseen? _____

36. Oletko opiskellut koulussa jotain kieltä englannin lisäksi?

    a. En

    b. Kyllä, mitä?_____

37. Oletko opiskellut tai muuten oppinut jotain vierasta kieltä koulun ulkopuolella?

    a. En

    b. Kyllä, mitä ja missä? _____

38. Oletko koskaan asunut yli 3 kk ulkomailla?

    a. En

    b. Kyllä, missä ja kuinka kauan?_____

39. Tiedän, että perheessäni osataan näitä kieliä (rastita):

englanti___ ruotsi___ saksa___ ranska___ venäjä___ espanja___ muu kieli___

Jos vastasit muu, mikä tai mitä kieliä?_____

Suuri kiitos vastauksistasi!

APPENDIX 2. Parental permission form

Hyvä kotiväki!   27.1.2011

Olen englannin opiskelija Jyväskylän yliopistosta ja teen tällä hetkellä pro gradu -tutkielmaani yhteistyössä kunnan Kielitivoli-hankkeen kanssa. Kerään lapsenne koulussa aineistoa tutkimukseeni, jonka aiheena on koululaisten suhtautuminen vieraisiin kieliin. Kerään tutkimusaineistoni kyselyllä, johon vastaavat kunnan viides-, kuudes- ja seitsemäsluokkalaiset. Kysely toteutetaan koulupäivän aikana viikolla 6 tai 7.

Kaikki vastaukset käsitellään nimettömästi ja täysin luottamuksellisesti. Yksittäisiä oppilaita ei voi tunnistaa lopullisesta tutkimusraportista.

Pyydän, että lapsenne saa osallistua tutkimukseeni. Palautattehan tämän paperin alaosan kouluun **7.2.2011** mennessä.

Annan mielelläni lisätietoja, mikäli Teillä on jotain kysyttävää.

Ystävällisin terveisin

Elisa Miettinen
puh.: xxxxxxxxxxxxxx
s-posti: xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx

Tutkimus koululaisten suhtautumisesta vieraisiin kieliin ja niiden opiskeluun

_____ (oppilaan nimi)

[ ]   saa osallistua tutkimukseen.

[ ]   EI saa osallistua tutkimukseen.

_____

Huoltajan allekirjoitus

APPENDIX 3. Questionnaire administration form for teachers

TIEDOT KYSELYYN VASTAAMISESTA

Ole hyvä ja postita tämä lomake kyselylomakkeiden mukana **tämän viikon aikana**.

∗ ∗ ∗

Päivämäärä, jolloin oppilaat vastasivat kyselyyn:_____

Luokalla on 5. ja/tai 6. -luokkalaisia _____

_____ oppilasta oli poissa kyselyn toteuttamisen aikana

_____ oppilasta ei vastannut, koska ei saanut huoltajilta lupaa osallistua

Ongelmia tai muita huomioita kyselyyn ja sen täyttämiseen liittyen:

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

∗ ∗ ∗

KIITOS!

APPENDIX 4. SPSS output

Table 1. Evaluation of English lessons in relation to the most recent mark in English (Kruskal-Wallis Test)

Ranks

	Mark in English	N	Mean Rank
E_easiness	5-6	19	64,00
	7-8	125	93,45
	9-10	82	155,53
	Total	226	
E_utility	5-6	19	99,74
	7-8	125	98,22
	9-10	81	138,92
	Total	225	
E_evaluation	5-6	19	70,34
	7-8	125	99,43
	9-10	82	144,95
	Total	226	

Test Statistics[a,b]

	E_easiness	E_usefulness	E_evaluation
Chi-square	57,166	20,738	33,314
df	2	2	2
Asymp. Sig.	,000***	,000***	,000***

a. Kruskal Wallis Test
b. Grouping Variable: Mark

Table 2. Girls' and boys' attitudes towards L2 speakers/community (Mann-Whitney Test)

Ranks

	Sex	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
EN_attitude	Boy	105	96,71	10154,50
	Girl	129	134,42	17340,50
	Total	234		
GE_attitude	Boy	105	96,05	10085,50
	Girl	128	134,18	17175,50
	Total	233		
FR_attitude	Boy	105	91,08	9563,50
	Girl	129	139,00	17931,50
	Total	234		
RU_attitude	Boy	105	93,07	9772,00
	Girl	128	136,63	17489,00
	Total	233		

Test Statistics[a]

	EN_attitude	GE_attitude	FR_attitude	RU_attitude
Mann-Whitney U	4589,500	4520,500	3998,500	4207,000
Wilcoxon W	10154,500	10085,500	9563,500	9772,000
Z	-4,273	-4,312	-5,407	-4,942
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,000***	,000***	,000***	,000***

a. Grouping Variable: Gender

Table 3. Cultural interest between boys and girls (Mann-Whitney Test)

Ranks

	Sex	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
EN_culture	Boy	106	111,79	11850,00
	Girl	129	123,10	15880,00
	Total	235		
GE_culture	Boy	78	77,97	6081,50
	Girl	95	94,42	8969,50
	Total	173		
FR_culture	Boy	66	62,36	4116,00
	Girl	80	82,69	6615,00
	Total	146		
RU_culture	Boy	61	53,61	3270,50
	Girl	59	67,62	3989,50
	Total	120		

Test Statistics[a]

	EN_culture	GE_culture	FR_culture	RU_culture
Mann-Whitney U	6179,000	3000,500	1905,000	1379,500
Wilcoxon W	11850,000	6081,500	4116,000	3270,500
Z	-1,344	-2,169	-2,915	-2,302
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,179	,030*	,004**	,021*

a. Grouping Variable: Gender

Table 4. Intended effort scores between boys and girls (Mann-Whitney Test)

Ranks

	Sex	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
EN_10	Boy	107	105,86	11326,50
	Girl	129	128,99	16639,50
	Total	236		
GE_10	Boy	107	106,84	11431,50
	Girl	128	127,33	16298,50
	Total	235		
FR_10	Boy	107	96,94	10373,00
	Girl	129	136,38	17593,00
	Total	236		
RU_10	Boy	107	105,99	11340,50
	Girl	129	128,88	16625,50
	Total	236		

Test Statistics[a]

	EN_10	GE_10	FR_10	RU_10
Mann-Whitney U	5548,500	5653,500	4595,000	5562,500
Wilcoxon W	11326,500	11431,500	10373,000	11340,500
Z	-2,750	-2,365	-4,532	-2,649
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,006**	,018*	,000***	,008**

a. Grouping Variable: Gender