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The Relationship Between Future Self-Guides and L2 Anxiety in Norwegian ESL Learners – A Quantitative Study

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Abstract

Motivation is an immensely important factor in second language acquisition (SLA), which has been researched for over 60 years. During the SLA process it then becomes natural to encounter both negative and positive emotions that influence how motivated you are.
This thesis explores the future self-guides, and the expectations they can possibly cause, which might lead to ESL learners experiencing second language (L2) anxiety in Norwegian English as a second language (ESL) classroom – a correlation which ironically becomes a hindrance of SLA. As a result of the research gap in the Norwegian English didactics field regarding L2 motivation, this thesis seeks to address the lack of ESL research material. The aim of this study is to find out which of the future self-guides is the most significant predictor of L2 anxiety in the Norwegian ESL classroom context by administering a questionnaire to 450 children living in Trøndelag, aged 10-16 years old. The questionnaire is a modified and translated version of Papi and Khajavy's (2010) questionnaire regarding the future self-guides' influence on Iranian undergraduates, and how the different types of motivation might predict L2 anxiety. The quantitative data collected was then analysed through descriptive statistics, Spearman's correlation, and a binomial logistic regression analysis. The results of the analyses reveal that the majority of Norwegian 5th to 10th graders are mostly motivated by the ideal L2 self, which is not typically a great predictor of L2 anxiety. Additionally, those learners who appear to be motivationally driven by their ought-to L2 self, are more vulnerable to experience L2 anxiety. This thesis might help teachers gain an insight into what motivates the learners towards English language proficiency and help them acknowledge the relationship between certain types of motivation and L2 anxiety in the ESL classroom.

Keywords: motivation, future self-guides, L2 anxiety, Norwegian ESL, quantitative study, questionnaire

Sammendrag

Motivasjon er en meget viktig faktor for andrespråktilegnelse som har blitt undersøkt og utforsket de siste seksti årene. Når man forsøker å tilegne seg et andrespråk er det naturlig å oppleve både negative og positive følelser, som påvirker hvor motivert man er. Denne mastergraden utforsker «future self-guides», og de forventningene de kan forårsake, som igjen kan føre til at elever opplever andrespråksangst i engelskklasserommet – en korrelasjon som ironisk nok står til hinder for andrespråkstilegning. Som et resultat av det merkbare forskningsgapet relatert til motivasjon i engelskklasserommet, forsøker denne mastergraden å tilføye mer forskning som kan gi innblikk hvordan elevenes følelser påvirker motivasjon. Målet med denne mastergraden er å finne ut hvilken «future self-guide» som viser den klareste antydningen til andrespråksangst i en norsk sammenheng. Dette gjøres ved å gjennomføre en modifisert og oversatt spørreundersøkelse av Papi og Khajavy (2021) på 450 barn, mellom 10-16 år, i Trøndelag, som vurderer hvordan «future self-guides» påvirker iranske universitetsstudenter og i hvilken grad disse antyder andrespråksangst. Kvantitativ data ble samlet inn og analysert gjennom deskriptiv analyse, Spearmans korrelasjonsanalyse og binær logistisk regresjonsanalyse. Funnene av analysen viser at flertallet av norske femte- til tiendeklassinger blir mest sannsynlig motivert av «the ideal L2 self», noe som ikke er en sterk indikator for andrespråksangst. I tillegg, de elevene som viser seg å bli mest motivert av «the ought-to L2 self» er mer sårbare for å oppleve andrespråksangst. Denne masteroppgaven kan være til nytte for lærere som vil anskaffe seg et innblikk i hva som motiverer elever mot å mestre engelsk, og belyser forholdet mellom ulike typer motivasjon og andrespråksangst i engelskklasserommet.

Nøkkelord: motivasjon, “future self-guides", andrespråksangst, ESL, kvantitativ studie, spørreundersøkelse

1.0 Introduction

Just like any other psychological phenomenon, motivation strikes learners in different ways and at varying degrees. Thus, it becomes important to observe student behaviour, as it is a great indicator of how and what kind of motivation might occur when pursuing a new target language (Higgins, 1998). Generally, the process of acquiring a new skill is tedious, multifaceted, and extremely individual, which is why one should consider exploring what keeps one going whenever one is met with an obstacle. Indeed, motivation becomes a crutch to help visualise which kind of language learner one is, which kind one ought to be, and which kind one would ideally like to be (Higgins, 1987, Markus and Nurius, 1987, Dörnyei, 2005; 2009).Various motivation researchers have investigated this notion, mostly based on behavioural underpinnings that have been present throughout second language acquisition (SLA) motivation research history (MacIntyre and Lambert, 1959, Higgins, 1987; 1998, Markus and Nurius, 1987, Dörnyei, 2005; 2009). These studies have revealed the importance of motivation, and how it influences the SLA process. Additionally, these studies have consistently found that the possible selves (Markus and Nurius, 1987), or the future self-guides (Higgins, 1987), are key elements when attempting to explain and expound on the SLA process in the context of learning English as a second language (ESL). This thesis will use the term ESL, instead of English as a foreign language (EFL), because of English's special status in Norwegian society, despite not being an official second language (Simensen, 2005)

However, one must also consider what happens when motivation becomes more distressing than helpful for L2 learners. L2 anxiety is a term used to describe "...the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language contexts, including speaking, listening, and learning", (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1994, p. 284). This feeling increases by constantly worrying about meeting the expectations others have regarding one's SLA process, as well as one's own excpecations. Some researchers have found that the ought-to L2 self is the biggest predictor of L2 anxiety (Papi and Kahjavy, 2021, Higgins, 1987), and others conclude that the ideal L2 self is the most significant predictor of L2 anxiety (Markus and Nurius, 1987). Nonetheless, none of these studies have explored the relationship between the self-guides and L2 anxiety in the Norwegian ESL classroom. By recognising this research gap, the objective of this MA thesis is to investigate the internal and external determinants affecting L2 anxiety and the learners' vigilance in the L2 classroom in Norway.

1.1 Aim and Research Questions

The aim of the following study is to investigate which of the self-guides predict second language (L2) anxiety, eagerness, and vigilance in the Norwegian ESL context, as well as explore the relationship between motivation and L2 anxiety in the Norwegian ESL context. The study is embedded in the possible selves (Markus and Nurius, 1987), Dörnyei's (2005; 2009) L2MSS, as well as the 2 X 2 Model of L2 Self Guides (Papi, et al, 2019), and as a result, we have postulated the following research questions;

- What is the relationship between motivation and English language anxiety in the Norwegian ESL context?
- Which types of motivation predict learners' English language anxiety in the Norwegian ESL context?

This thesis hypothesises that the ought-to self is the strongest self-guide, as it is common for individuals to lean on their sense of obligation or duty when pursuing a target language, as evidenced in Papi and Khajavy (2021). Additionally, this thesis will investigate what type of motivation predicts which type of behaviour, as well as how external factors impact learner motivation.

1.2 Structure of the Thesis

This thesis consists of eight parts. First, we contextualise the research questions through a thorough literature review of previous studies done by acknowledged scholars within the motivation research field, such as Higgins' self-discrepancy theory (1987) and regulatory focus theory (1998), the second language motivational self-system (L2MSS) introduced by Dörnyei (2005, 2009), Markus and Nurius' (1986) the theory of possible selves, as well as other significant work that is applicable for this thesis. Next, we discuss the methodology and research limitations found within the study. This includes mentions of translating an already administered and established questionnaire, reflecting on possible pitfalls and challenges we encountered with our chosen method, as well as our arguably conflicted stance as researchers. The fourth section presents research ethics this thesis takes into consideration, for instance, the reasoning behind our decision to exclude learners with a different L1 from our study, in addition to our dialogue with Norsk Senter for Forskningsdata (NSD). The fifth section elaborates on the research limitations we encountered when proceeding with our study. The result of the study is presented in section six, including descriptive statistics and notions of reliability and validity. The aforementioned findings and discussions are reviewed in the seventh section, followed by suggestions regarding pedagogical implications and recommended future research. Lastly, this thesis presents its conclusion in the eighth section.

2.0 Theoretical Perspectives

In this section, we will introduce and elaborate on the theories, terms, and notions that are appropriate and relevant for our study. Firstly, we will present a short historical review of the evolution of motivation in second language acquisition (SLA), due to the fact that the questionnaire is embedded in the preceding findings introduced by acknowledged researchers within the motivation field. Furthermore, we attempt to highlight the similarities between theories, and how they might be dependent on each other.

2.1 Motivation in Second Language Acquisition – A Historical Review

The study of motivation in second language acquisition (SLA) has become a highly distinguished research field in the past sixty years due to an instigation made by Gardner and Lambert (1959), wherein they claimed that the learner must like the target language's culture in order to acquire the target language. Gardner (1960) also raised questions regarding the belief that "…the acquisition of a skill in a second language depended almost completely upon linguistic aptitude," (p. 1). Further, he elaborates by stating that it is important to take other variables, such as motivation, interest, and personality into consideration when determining what is to be defined as second-language achievement (Gardner, 1960). Gardner and Lambert's (1959) thesis, presented in the early stages of the aforementioned research program, is that there are simply two key elements to successful SLA - attitude and motivation – both of which must be assumed in order to understand the language learning process in its completion (Gardner, 1960). Still, Gardner (1960) clearly underlines the impact of insufficient consideration of motivation, and the pitfalls of viewing it as the mere urge to work diligently in an English class. These two orthogonal factors, aptitude, and motivation, laid the foundation for the theory of integrative and instrumental motivation (Gardner and Lambert, 1959; Gardner and Lambert, 1979), a theory that in modern research has been mostly debunked due to its inadequate and outdated findings and implications regarding SLA. Integrative motivation, or integrativeness, refers to a "…strong drive to learn the language, favourable attitudes towards the language group, and an expressed desire to learn more about the language group and meet more of its members", (Gardner, 1959, p. 10). In contrast, instrumental motivation considers the learner’s desire to learn a language for reasons such as school credits or job opportunities, which Gardner (1959) states “…will not manifest and maintain as high a degree of motivation over extended periods of language study,” (p.13). Though this notion of integrativeness and instrumental motivation has been an important influence on motivational research for many decades, it might not apply as well to the modern acquisition of English. As English has no culture that is unique or specific to the language, this theory has been heavily criticised in contemporary research (Papi, 2010, as cited in Ushioda, 2013). Attaining the status as a *lingua franca*, English has become an international language that emerges across global cultures and societies.

The research program concluded, over a decade later, with the idea that motivation is independent of cognitive characteristics, i.e., knowledge or language aptitude (Gardner and Lambert, 1972). Ushioda (2013) elaborates on this conclusion and states that motivation research in the L2 field must address the “…unique social, psychological, behavioural, and cultural complexities that acquiring…”, (p. 1), a new language entails. This notion has caused an increase in empirical studies investigating L2 motivation as a “…dynamic interaction with the complex interplay between self-perception, social, and contextual processes,” (Ushioda, 2013, p.2). MacIntyre (2002) and Dörnyei (2005) challenge Gardner and Lambert’s (1972; Gardner, 1960) findings on aptitude and motivation, and Dörnyei (2005) explains that mixing effort (motivational intensity) with the cognitive phenomenon of motivation could possibly lead to “conceptual ambiguity”. In 1985, Gardner expounded on his original socio-educational model and argued that there are four key elements that are necessary for an individual to be perceived as motivated; a goal, the desire to achieve said goal, positive attitudes, and effort (Macintyre, 2002, p.46). In sum, the socio-educational model is dynamic in that it describes how changes in individual difference variables occur over time (MacIntyre, 2002), and has been widely considered to have two purposes; “to establish that motivation is related to language achievement and to investigate the structure of the integrative motive,” (p.49).

However, when attempting to reinterpret integrativeness in a cognitive light, as done by i.e., Dörnyei (2005) and Ushioda (2011), the cognitive-situated period occurs (Al-Hoorie, 2017). Since integrativeness was perceived as an affective factor that impacted learning behaviour, Dörnyei (2005) attempted to engrain it into a concept he called the L2 motivational self-system (L2MSS). Taking the underpinnings of integrativeness, Dörnyei (2005;2009) invokes and interprets them as the ideal L2 self, which is a key part of the L2MSS, a term coined by Higgins (1987) in his introduction of the self-discrepancy theory. This period of motivation research was highly influenced and driven by classroom processes, and with making said research field more accessible for educators, and in contrast to the previous social-psychological period, Al-Hoorie (2017, p. 3) finds it appropriate to describe this period as the "educational period". According to Dörnyei and Ryan (2015, p.3), the motivation field is currently in its third phase, and is characterised by a fundamental shift to a more socio-dynamic perspective once again, more specifically the "...dynamic nature of motivation and its temporal variation". Previously and most commonly, motivation has been perceived as "...a conscious process in which learning English - rather than other languages – (and) is examined within a relatively short duration," (Dörnyei and Ryan, 2015, as cited in Al-Hoorie, 2017, p.3). Indeed, motivation research has a growing emphasis on "…the dynamic nature of motivation and its temporal variation," (Al-Hoorie, 2017, p.3) In short, motivation has been traditionally viewed as an affective factor for language learning and has been perceived in contrast to aptitude, yet most modern motivational theories develop from cognitive research and consist heavily of cognitive components (Al-Hoorie, 2017).

2.1.1. Defining Motivation

If one investigates what the term motivation involves, as well as the vast array of definitions, one might be left somewhat dumbfounded. Ushioda (2013, p.1) mentions that the etymology of the word 'motivation' derives from the Latin verb movere, which means "to move". Markus and Nurius (1986, as cited in Dörnyei, 2009) describe motivation as how "...the self regulates behaviour by setting goals and expectations," (p. 11). Thereby, motivation becomes conceptualised by individuals reflecting on "...the complex interplay of current and imaginative self-identities and its impact on purposive behaviour," (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 11). To explain how an individual's self-knowledge and self-awareness and how one views themselves at present Markus and Nurius (1986) build on Higgins' (1987) self-discrepancy theory, Carver and Scheier (1982), Gergen (1972), and McGuire and McGuire (1982), to introduce the concept of possible selves. This concept entails "...current conceptions of self-knowledge," (Markus and Nurius, 1986, p.954) and "...represents individual's ideas of what they might become, what they would like to become, and what they are afraid of becoming," (Markus and Nurius, 1986, p.954). Additionally, Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) define motivation as "…the primary impetus to initiate L2 learning and later (becomes) the driving force to sustain the long, often tedious learning process," (p. 72).

2.2 Self-Discrepancy Theory

In 1987 E. Tory Higgins presented the theory of self-discrepancy, or rather "…how different types of discrepancies between self-state representations are related to different kinds of emotional vulnerabilities," (1987, p. 319). Further, he proposes that different types of self-discrepancies make themselves known in negative psychological situations associated with varied kinds of discomfort (Higgins, 1987, p.319). That is, individuals tend to become uncomfortable when their beliefs are inconsistent. The primary purpose of the self-discrepancy theory is to "…predict which types of incompatible beliefs will induce which kinds of negative emotions," (Higgins,1987, p. 320). Feelings often associated with discrepancies might be discouragement, dissatisfaction, pitifulness, sadness, gloominess, and misery, which tend to appear in an inexpressible cluster (Higgins, 1987). However, there has to be made a basic distinction between dejection-related emotions (similar to the ones previously mentioned) and agitation-related motions, such as guilt, anxiety, worry, fear, tension, and feeling threatened (Russel, 1980, as cited in Higgins, 1987), both of which are often linked to regulatory focus theory (see chapter below.) Another contributor to the growing discrepancies many learners might struggle with is the different facets of self and self-images that need to be identified.

2.3. Regulatory Focus Theory

Higgins (1998) investigated the hedonic principle that all individuals tend to approach pleasure and avoid pain and further states that this has been the basic foundation of all motivation research throughout the history of psychology. Within the limitations of personality and social psychology, schemas, and models have explained motivation as the drive that makes an individual move toward "…desired end states and…move away from undesired end states," (Higgins, 1998, p. 1). This hedonic principle is the basis of regulatory focus theory, wherein it operates as a focus device, either with a prevention focus or a promotion focus. That is, regulating pleasure and pain impacts individuals' feelings, thoughts, and actions, perhaps even independently from the hedonic principle (Higgins, 1998). It is most common to mention the ideal L2 self and the ought-to L2 self when discussing regulatory focus theory as self-regulation in relation to these guides has a major impact on behaviour. Where discrepancies represent the absence of positive outcomes, the actual L2 self-congruencies and self-regulation represent the presence of positive outcomes (Higgins, 1998). As aforementioned, the ought-to and the ideal L2 self are important when discussing promotion and prevention focus. Higgins (1998) claims that "…the hopes, wishes, and aspirations represented in ideal self-guides function like maximal goals," (p. 5). Quite contrary, he further elaborates that the "…duties, obligations, and responsibilities represented in ought-to self-guides function more like minimal goals," (Higgins, 1998). That is, both self-guides explain certain behaviours that will eventually lead to motivation. To best illustrate the tactics behind reducing discrepancies between current states (either actual-self and ought-to L2 self, or actual-self and ideal L2 self) and the desired end states, Higgins (1998) uses the example of a student who wants a good grade on a quiz, which is the desired end state. In order to reach the desired goal, the student must either study hard and try to recall the curriculum (aiming for a match to the desired end state) or decline an invitation to go out with their friends the night before the quiz (avoiding a mismatch with the desired end state) (Higgins, 1998, p.7). According to Higgins (1998), most individuals will approach a match to the desired end state in order to avoid negative outcomes (mismatch). This principle activates self-regulation with either a promotion or prevention focus. In short, a promotion focus is concerned with advancement, growth, and accomplishment (Higgins, 1998), in which the goals are hopes and aspirations. The strategic inclinations, or the attitude toward learning, is making progress by approaching matches to the desired end state (Higgins, 1998). In contrast, a prevention focus concerns feelings of safety, security, and responsibility, in which the goals are duties and obligations, and perhaps even requirements. In this case, the strategic inclinations are to be "…prudent, precautionary, and avoid mismatches to the desired end state," (Higgins, 1998, p. 27). To take it a step further, one would expect an individual's self-regulatory states would differ, depending on which focus one has. It is more common to show vigilance with a prevention focus, to assure safety and 'nonlosses' (Higgins, 1998). With a promotion focus, eagerness is expected in order to attain advancement and gain (Higgins, 1998).

2.4 Cognitive Dissonance Theory

When you reflect on your own response to your actions and there is an inconsistency between how you perceive yourself and expected behaviour, and the actual event or action, one can look to Aronson's (1969) interpretation of cognitive dissonance theory. According to Aronson (1969) cognitive dissonance "...is a negative drive state that occurs whenever an individual simultaneously holds two cognitions that are psychologically inconsistent," (p.2). For further and more simplistic elaboration, Aronson includes Festinger's (1957, as cited in Aronson, 1969) well-renowned example of bad habits. If one is aware smoking is terrible for your health and causes lung cancer, but still chooses to smoke cigarettes, one experiences dissonance (Festinger, 1957, as cited in Aronson, 1969, p. 3). Thereby, an individual's cognition of 'I smoke cigarettes' is inconsistent with their cognition 'smoking is bad for you' (Aronson, 1969). In a pedagogical context, for instance, one might consider the cognition of 'I don't need to study' is inconsistent with the cognition of 'I need a good mark on my test'. In short, Aronson (1969, p. 3) summarises that cognitive dissonance theory does not rely on the assumption that humans are rational, but rather it suggests that humans are rationalising creatures. Superficially, humans strive to appear rational, both to themselves and to others. Unique to this approach, according to Miller, Clark, and Jehle (2015), is "…an aversive mental state that motivates individuals to reduce the dissonance," (p. 1). There is a social aspect to cognitive dissonance theory that has been researched over the past decades, which entails social support, which imply that "…people change their attitudes when they witness someone in their group experiencing dissonance," (p.3). This can also be connected to the social desirability bias (in section 7.5.2), that can occur when motivation is concerned.

2.5 The Possible Selves

The most crucial aspect of self-discrepancy theory is the relationship between the actual self, the ideal self, and the ought-to self, terms originally coined by Higgins (1987, pp. 320-321), which explain the attributes one does possess, the attributes one desire to possess, and the attributes others expect one to possess. There is the actual self which describes "…the kind of person an individual believes he or she actually is," as well as your "…representation of the attributes that someone (yourself or another) believes you actually possess," (Higgins, 1987, p. 320). The ideal self refers to "…your representation of the attributes someone (yourself or another) would like you, ideally, to possess," (Higgins, 1987, p.320). This includes the desires, aspirations, and wants from the viewpoint of significant others. The ought-to self is the attributes others expect one to possess (Higgins, 1987, p.320). Additionally, Higgins (1987) postulates that combining each domain's basic types of self-state representations: actual/own, actual/other, ideal/own, ideal/other, ought/own, and ought/other. Incorporating the distinction between "own" and "other" as a feature for classifying these self-state representations, one is able to relate a variety of emotional/motivational conditions to different self-state conditions (Higgins, 1987). Thereby, "…discrepancies between a person's actual and future selves create emotional states, which in turn result in qualitatively different motivated behaviors," (Papi and Khajavy, 2020, p. 7).

The ought-to self relates to the less-internalised aspect of the L2 self, meaning which linguistic attributes one believes one ought to possess as a result of perceived duties, obligations, or responsibilities (Dörnyei, 2009). For instance, if a student desires to learn English as an L2 in order to meet the expectations of their teacher or parents, the ought-to L2 self-acts as the main motivator for L2 learning (Papi, 2010, p.469). Whether or not such external motivators are considered to be a positive influence might be seen in a different light depending on the socio-cultural context of the language acquisition. Papi (2010) mentions a Hungarian study where a positive relationship between parental encouragement and the ought-to self was found. However, there is a fine line between encouragement and expectations – some learners might perceive one as the other. Young minds are extremely impressionable, and they soak up a lot more of their surroundings than adults expect them to, and sometimes this is mirrored in their schoolwork (Markus and Nurius, 1987). If learners feel as though their parents or teachers expect them to excel in English, they will of course work toward this, even though they might not want to learn – they feel that it is expected of them. While the ought-to L2 self is believed to match several extrinsic constituents of L2 acquisition, one cannot deny its negative impact on student motivation. Papi (2010) also investigates the role of the L2 learning experience (Dörnyei, 2009) in his article, which concerns the attitudes the ESL learners adopt toward second language acquisition and how it can be affected by previous learning environments and experiences. This aspect of language learning is important because it entails the belief that some language learners' motivation to acquire an SL does not stem from internally or externally generated images of oneself, but is rather a product of successful engagement with the actual language learning process (Papi, 2010, p.469).

Further, Markus and Nurius (1986, p.954) state that possible selves are important because they function as incentives for behaviour as well as evaluating and interpreting the context and reasoning behind the current view of self. The possible selves work as a navigator or as a guide, either to accomplish or avoid a specific future. One might say that a desired future is the loved self, the successful self, and the athletic self (Markus and Nurius, 1986). Whereas the dreaded future is the depressed self, the alcoholic self, or the unemployed self (Markus and Nurius, 1986). All these imaginative futures steer us in any which direction and the drive behind this is motivation. For instance, one might feel motivated to study a bit harder than usual for an English test because one depends on an excellent score in order to get past admissions and attend the school one desire. That is, the possible self, the one attending a dream school, has become a cognitive manifestation of goals and aspirations (Markus and

Nurius, 1986). Explaining this further, Markus and Nurius (1986) describe this as the process of how "... an individual's repertoire of possible selves...can provide the specific self-relevant form, meaning, organisation, and direction to these dynamics." Thereby creating the essential link between self-concept and motivation. However, self-concept must not be confused with identity. A sociologist concept of identity cannot "...be used as a basis of for competent performance because it is much too stable and removed from the demands and constraints of the moment-to-moment situations" (Markus and Nurius, 1986, p. 957), and instead it is proposed that self-image is a better term for the individual characteristics of motivation. Beyond their roles as incentives, the possible selves can also provide an evaluative and interpretive function for the now or actual self (Markus and Nurius, 1986). One decides for oneself what kind of meaning one is willing to give a particular self-relevant event and the context that surrounds it. For instance, a person's failure to attend the desired university will be viewed as more than just bad luck if such an event initiates an "unsuccessful student" possible self (Markus and Nurius, 1986). Such a minuscule setback can unfold to be devastating if the possible self adopts the thought of not being competent enough and a general underlying feeling of inadequacy (Markus and Nurius, 1986). This rut is difficult to rise from because actions that require self-presentation as confident and capable are hard to negotiate when behaviour is influenced by a current self-concept that features an "unsuccessful student" possible self (Markus and Nurius, 1986). Markus and Nurius (1986) explain that the possible selves are not only purposeful for the future but can also mediate and alter the now or actual self, for the worse and for the better. In contrast to the negative actual self, achieving a desired goal, perhaps completing a challenging dissertation, is more likely to launch a set of positive possible selves, in this instance, the "successful Ph.D. student" possible self. Handing in the dissertation carries a distinctive set of meanings. Earning a Ph.D. does not only mean that one has handed in a very challenging research paper, but it also entails a possible self that might administer a research program, establish a laboratory, and have the means to travel across the globe. Markus and Nurius (1986), state that "...the individual's feelings and immediate actions are likely to be markedly influenced by the nature of this context of possibility," (p. 963).

This notion is also discussed by Higgins (1987, p. 332), where he claims that "…incompatible self-beliefs produce emotional problems." He deduces three basic types of incompatible self-beliefs: "...(a) inconsistencies between one's self-perceived attributes (or self-concept) and external behavioural feedback related to one' self-perceptions; (b) contradictions among one's self-perceived attributes that impede a coherent and unified self-concept; and (c) discrepancies between one’s self-perceived attributes and some standard self-guides,” (Higgins, 1987, p. 332). The latter self-belief is the foundation of the self-discrepancy theory. Such discrepancies between one’s self and external feedback might occur from one’s own responses or others’ (Higgins, 1987, p.332).

2.6 L2 Motivational Self-System

The L2 motivational self-system was outlined by Dörnyei (2005) during the second phase of L2 motivation research, the cognitive-situated period, though it entails “…explicit utilisation of psychological theories of the self,” (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 9), the latter which is more compatible with the third and current phase (Al-Hoorie, 2017). This is a system that explicitly “…focuses on aspects of the individual’s self is compatible with the whole-person perspective of past theorising,” (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 9). In accordance with this shift, Dörnyei (2009) saw it fit to move beyond the limitations of integrativeness and began investigating the notions and implications of possible selves’ theory (see section above). In conclusion, Dörnyei’s (2009) findings describe how a reconceptualisation of L2 motivation was appropriate and due, and the findings convinced him that future self-guides (ought-to and ideal self) are central components of this system.

However, Dörnyei (2009) felt it necessary to add a component that represents “…the direct impact of the students’ learning environment,” (p. 29). He points out that most ESL learners gain motivation from successful engagement with the target language rather than “…internally and externally generated self-images,” (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 29). As a result, the L2 Motivational Self-System (Dörnyei, 2005) is introduced, and consists of the following three components: (a) *Ideal L2 self,* which refers to if the L2-specific “…person we would like to become speaks an L2, the “ideal L2 self is a powerful motivator to learn the L2 because of the desire to reduce the discrepancy between our actual and ideal self,” (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 29). As previously mentioned, the ideal L2 self will predominantly and traditionally rely on integrative and internalised instrumental motives (Dörnyei, 2009), that is, acquiring a language as a part of social development or as a manner of showing cultural interest. The second component is (b) *Ought-to L2 Self,* “…which concerns the attributes one believes one ought to possess to meet expectations and to avoid possible negative outcomes,” (Dörnyei, 2009). This point is also applicable to the match/mismatch cognition in regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1998), as well as self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987) (see chapters above). The third and final component is the (c) *L2 Learning Experience*, which covers

"…situated, 'executive' motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience," (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 29).

In essence, the L2 Motivational Self-System is the sum of having a clear ideal L2 self, an ought-to L2 self, as well as notions of the L2 learning experience, thus creating "…a language learning vision and (…) imagery enhancement," (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 32). Though imagery and imagination are not mentioned much in this thesis, it is an important aspect of SLA. In order for the learner to find motivation, they must have a desired future self-image (Dörnyei, 2009). This is also the case for other motivation research and theories, i.e., self-discrepancy theory (the ought-to self, the actual self, and the ideal self) (Higgins, 1987), the theory of possible selves (Markus and Nurius, 1986), and regulatory focus theory (matches and mismatches regarding desired end states) (Higgins, 1998). Markus (2006) explains that regarding L2MSS it is important to convince "…other researchers not to be faint-hearted about imaginative capacities of the human mind and our abilities to invent ourselves and our worlds," (as cited in Dörnyei, 2009, p.39). That is, shying away from ESL learners' imagination could very well have a negative influence on their overall motivation and learning experience.

2.7 L2 Anxiety

Another aspect of the SLA process is L2 anxiety, which is conceived as "...the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language contexts, including speaking, listening, and learning", (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1994, p. 284). Contrary to L2 enjoyment, L2 anxiety occurs whenever there is a discrepancy between the ideal selves and the actual selves, which might result in dejection-related emotions (e.g., disappointment and sadness) (Papi and Khajavy, 2021), whereas discrepancy between the actual self and the ideal self might lead to agitation-related emotions (e.g., anger and annoyance) (Papi and Khajavy, 2021). This is also reflective of Markus and Nurius' (1987) notion that the possible selves are steered by what individuals might become, what they would like to become, and what they are afraid of becoming. The latter is most congruent with the ideas presented in the research done on L2 anxiety. Oyserman and Markus (1990) argued that in order for the ideal self to reach maximal motivational effectiveness it has to be offset or balanced by constantly counteracting the feared possible self (as cited in Dörnyei, 2009). The fear of being unsuccessful or meeting the ideal held by oneself or others is a powerful motivator to keep us going. For instance, in university, it might not always be the idea of receiving a high mark on a paper that coerces us into writing it, but rather the looming dread of missing the deadline.

Therefore, according to Markus and Oyserman (1990), an effective way of exploiting the fear of negative outcomes or consequences is to make them cognitively available to individuals, as a motivator.

According to He (2018), "…one reason for the relationship between anxiety and language learning having been a hot issue for so long a time (…) is that language courses are believed to be the most anxiety-provoking learning task for many students," (p. 14). Horowitz et.al. (1986) states that "…when anxiety is limited to the language learning situation, it falls into the category of specific anxiety reactions", (p. 125). Correlation to this idea is found in Simsek and Dörnyei's (2017) emergence of the 'anxious self', which they believe could be a viable addition to the L2MSS (Dörnyei, 2009). The 'anxious self' refers to how some L2 learners might feel like they are affected by anxiety in a fractured manner – referring to an "…anxious persona that they were not fully in control of," (Simsek & Dörnyei, 2017, p. 55). Consequently, some learners find their current state of anxiety easier to describe if allowed to discuss it as an "…outworking of a fairly independent dimension of the overall self," (Simsek & Dörnyei, 2017, p. 55). This relates to the L2MSS (Dörnyei, 2009) regarding its direct connection to the learner's self-concept. In accordance with the ideal L2 self, the actual L2 self, and the L2 learning experience, the L2 anxious self might help researchers flesh out their studies, and maybe find a missing component to fully understand the complex and multifaceted socio-cognitive underpinnings of modern SLA and learner motivation (He, 2018).

2.7.1. Facilitating Anxiety vs. Debilitating Anxiety

In the section above, the implications of situational anxiety are discussed, or rather, general anxiety versus specific anxiety. In addition to these, anxiety is also differentiated into debilitating anxiety and facilitating anxiety, depending on whether it improves or impairs performance (He, 2018, p. 16). Scovel (1978), who originally established the two dichotomies, argues that debilitating anxiety "…motivates the learner to flee the new learning task", (p. 139). The fear of performing poorly, in the eyes of oneself or others, debilitates one's cognition to the point it obstructs the acquisition of knowledge, and triggers a flight response. The latter, in contrast, argues that anxiety "…motivated the learner to 'fight' the new learning task," (p.16) and that it "…gears the learner emotionally for approach behaviour," (He, 2018, p. 16). Moreover, it is suggested that facilitating anxiety is comparable to the low-frequency state of anxiety that diverts the learners slightly from the task at hand while debilitating anxiety presents a high-anxiety state that diverts a significant amount of the learners’ attention and motivation (Williams, 1991, as cited in He, 2018, p. 16). In sum, one can say that facilitating anxiety assists performance, and can be regarded as a motivating factor of language learning. On the other hand, debilitating anxiety interferes with performance, hindering the learner from proficiently utilising their time and skills. It can be viewed as the type of anxiety that is emotionally draining and causes the learner to feel threatened (He, 2018).

2.8 L2 Enjoyment

Shifting from the negative emotions impacting L2 learning, one can consider L2 enjoyment, which is defined as “...a complex emotion, capturing interacting dimensions of the challenge and perceived ability that reflects the human drive for success in the face of difficult tasks,” (Dewaele and MacIntyre, 2016, p. 216). Furthermore, enjoyment refers to the feeling of pleasure and elation one can experience during an activity or completing a task (Tahmouresi and Papi, 2021). Teimouri (2017), defined enjoyment as “...positive emotions that language learners experience in the process of learning or using the target language either within the boundary of a specific instructional context or in authentic real-life situations,” (p. 689). It is argued whether ESL learners feel more L2 enjoyment or L2 anxiety within the classroom, however, Dewaele and MacIntyre (2014) found that most learners experience more joy than anxiety when present inside a classroom. One can reflect on whether age, sex, language repertoire, educational level, and culture have any impact on these two emotions, which Tahmouresi and Papi (2021) argue they do.

According to Dewaele and MacIntyre (2014), “…positive emotion can help dissipate the lingering effects of negative emotional arousal, helping promote personal resiliency in the face of difficulties,“ (p. 241). However, they clearly state that positive and negative emotions are different sides of the same coin and that they “…are not opposite ends of the same spectrum,” (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014, pp. 241-242). Besides, they elaborate on the fact that foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCA) and foreign language enjoyment (FLE) should be viewed as two entirely different dimensions as the influence they carry varies so vastly and impacts each other more than first anticipated and hypothesised (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014, p. 265). Negative emotions and positive emotions are not supposed to cancel each other out, but it seems that it rather should be facilitated for them to balance each other out. Conclusively, MacIntyre and Dewaele’s (2014, p. 265) findings show that the participants showed more FLE than FLCA, which suggests that the ratio of negative to positive emotion might be more crucial than the presence or absence of either type of emotion.

2.9 The 2 X 2 Model of L2 Self Guides

The L2 motivational self-system might not be applicable to every L2 learning situation. Dörnyei (2005) reframes the concept of L2 motivation as a direct result of how a learner views the relationship between their current and future concepts of self (Papi, Bondarenko, Mansouri, Feng, and Jiang, 2019, p.338). However, other studies (Dörnyei, 2013, Al-Hoorie, 2017) show that the ought-to self and motivational measures are inconsistent and barely dependable and that the ought-to self "...lacks the energising force to make a difference in actual motivated learner behaviours by themselves", (Dörnyei and Chan, 2013, p, 454). This statement might refer to younger learners' lack of discipline, learned motivational strategies, or the fact that they are "...relatively young to internalise the pressure the environment might put on them", (Csizer and Lukacs, 2010, p.6). They also mention that ESL learners are not meaningfully exposed to, nor do they interact with the target language and its cultural products, (2010, p. 350). As the L2 ought-to self is considered to be one of the two major self-guides regulating human behaviour, it seems obscure to exclude it when researching motivational potency (Papi, Bondarenko, Mansouri, Feng, and Jiang, 2019). As an attempt to resolve the issues surrounding the L2 ought-to self, Teimouri (2017) prompted a revision of the model, wherein the ought-to and ideal self were bifurcated into *other* and *own*. The first refers to the expectations others have of one's performance and achievements, and the latter entails the expectations one has for oneself. During the execution of the promising revision, there was no strong evidence for the validity and relevance of the ought-to self (Papi, Bondarenko, Mansouri, Feng, and Jiang, 2019). The premise of this rethinking of L2 motivational research, the deliberate exclusion of ought-to self, seemingly works better to capture how motivation works for language learning, especially in young children. Young learners appear to find no significant external pressure to excel, nor do they find external encouragement or expectations to have much impact on their L2 anxiety. Following these observations, one has deemed it more beneficial to focus on the positive outcomes, rather than the negative ones, leading to the slow exclusion of the ought-to self, particularly ought-to/other.

The L2MSS has been the most prominent and commonly utilised theoretical framework for researching L2 motivation in the past decades (Papi et al, 2019). Papi et al (2019) argue that as the ideal L2 self has been somewhat of a holy grail of student motivation and the ought-to L2 self has gained "…a motive with negligible motivational significance," (p. 356), their study considers the ideal L2 self and ought-to L2 self-bifurcated into own and other standpoints, and formulated based on promotion and prevention regulatory foci (respectively) (p. 356). The findings present that prevention and promotion focus (Higgins, 1997) and the self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987) might result in motivation. Further, they state that there is a lack of adequate attention to "…regulatory distinction and prevention-related motives," (Papi et al, 2019) which has resulted in "…the dominance of promotion-focused constructs in L2 motivation research," (Papi, et all, 2019). In short, the 2 x 2 model of self-guides revised the L2MSS outlined by Dörnyei (2009) by bifurcating the ideal L2 self and the ought-to L2 self by other/own viewpoints, and re-operationalising these factors based on the fundamentals of self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987) and regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1997).

3.0 Method and Research Design

This section describes the manner in which we have collected data in order to answer our research questions, presents the choice of method, as well as the implications of administering a questionnaire. To ensure the quality of the study, we have applied precautionary means, such as a piloting of the questionnaire, item analysis, and confirming an acceptable Cronbach's Alpha. Additionally, this section touches upon the appropriate approach to utilise when translating a questionnaire, as well as the advantages and disadvantages of such a decision. Firstly, we present our research questions and the aim of the study. Secondly, this section will describe and elaborate on the research design, including the choice of scientific method. Then, we will discuss how we ensured the quality of the study, as well as common pitfalls to avoid. Finally, we present our method, how we collected the data, and the considerations that were taken to best prepare the data for analysis.

3.1 Research Questions

As future teachers in Norwegian ESL classrooms, we consider this MA thesis an advantageous opportunity to obtain information regarding what motivates our future ESL learners. Additionally, we hypothesise that this study will provide us guidance to best acclimate in our roles as English teachers. The motivation behind SLA often appears to be correlated with ESL learners' attitudes toward the target language and its subsequent culture (Gardner and Lambert, 1959). It then becomes the teachers' responsibility to provide a positive and motivating classroom, due to the ought-to self and the L2 learning experience's strong impact on L2 anxiety, or the general emotional state of the learner. Trying to solidify what motivation is and how it works is "…important to determine the direction and magnitude of human behaviour, or the choice of a particular action," (Dörnyei, 2014, p.519). In our quest to acquire more knowledge about what motivates ESL learners and how motivation emerges, we have developed two research questions;

- What is the relationship between motivation and English language anxiety in the Norwegian ESL context?
- Which types of motivation predict learners' English language anxiety in the Norwegian ESL context?

These questions are based on the notions and implications of the L2MSS (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009), and the role of the possible selves, as well as imagination and imagery's (Markus and Nurius, 1986) impact on SLA.

3.2 Research Design

3.2.1 Choice of Scientific Method

When deciding which research method is most suitable, it is important to consider which method benefits us best in investigating our thesis statement. Research in the educational field is often categorised as either *quantitative research* or *qualitative research*. Qualitative research collects data in the form of "text", and is often performed through observation, interviews, or literature reviews and analysis (Høgheim, 2020). Using a qualitative method, such as an interview, might allow researchers to ask in-depth questions, and allows the participants to elaborate on their answers if needed. There is generally more room for continuous and sporadic elaboration if more empiricism is needed. However, there are several factors that make a qualitative study disadvantageous when attempting to investigate the aforementioned thesis statement. A qualitative research method's scope of research is categorised under post-positivism, as it attempts to measure and quantify the participants' level and type of motivation and search for objective causes of human behaviour (Nyeng, 2012). Whilst the aim of positivism and post-positivism is for the researcher to remain completely objective, we are aware that as researchers we have a culturally and societally shaped view of the research, which is likely to skew our objectivity (Nyeng, 2012). Though we want the research project to be reliable, representative, and generalisable, we recognise that the knowledge we are able to obtain from a questionnaire is limited - in other words, we can validate the truth of the research questions, or disprove the research questions. Using the quantitative research method questionnaire, grants us the opportunity to generalise the results, as we are able to propose multiple questions to a large number of individuals in a short period of time. It is crucial to focus on the questionnaire items and assure that the statements and questions are created to help investigate the thesis statement (Johannessen, Tufte, & Christoffersen, 2016), and not the opposite. Conclusively, while a qualitative research method would allow us to, for instance, ask in-depth questions or receive elaborations on certain answers, the research topic and the age of the participants made a quantitative research method optimal.

During the beginning stages of this MA thesis project, we entertained the thought of applying a mixed-method approach to obtain data. Tashakkori and Greswell (2007, p.4), as cited in Hashemi and Babaii (2013, p.829), defines mixed method as "…research in which the investigator collects, analyses data, integrates findings, and draws inferences using both qualitative and quantitative approaches in a single study or program of inquiry." Our biggest concern if we were to utilise this method is the *incompatibility thesis* (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, cited in Hashemi & Babaii, 2013, p.829) and *commensurability validity* (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006, cited in Hashemi & Babaii, 2013, p.829). These terms discuss whether integrating both methods might have a negative impact on the data, as it can possibly represent dissimilar epistemological and ontological stances (Hashemi & Babaii, 2013). Balancing two fundamentally different methods with opposing underpinnings and implications, as well as analysing answers given by children, both quantitative and qualitative, proved to be too extensive a task for an MA thesis. Subsequently, we reached the decision to apply a quantitative method as the sole approach in our MA project.

Administering a questionnaire allows us to collect a copious amount of data in a significantly shorter amount of time (Wright, 2005; Dewaele, 2018; Dörnyei, 2003). As a result, it might be possible to generalise the data, and through different analyses, we might be able to see connections between different variables (Johannessen, Tufte, & Christoffersen, 2016).

3.3 Ensuring the Quality of the Study

As is the case with most research projects, our research method has its strengths and weaknesses when considering *validity* and *reliability*. Validity is a term used to describe whether the acquired data is a suitable representation of the general phenomenon, which in this case is motivation and language anxiety (Høgheim, 2020). Therefore, validity is not a description of the data or method in itself, but rather the accuracy of the results and the correspondence with the researched phenomenon (Høgheim, 2020; Johannessen, Tufte, & Christoffersen, 2016). A research project's level of validity can be categorised as either high or low, depending on the strengths and weaknesses of the research project, and the research's ability to consider and present these. Bradburn et al (2004) state that one should consider the psychological states or attitudes of the learners, as they only exist in the minds of the individuals and are "…directly accessible, if at all, only to the individuals concerned," (p. 28). In accordance with this statement, psychological states, and attitudes are not available to an external observer, and therefore validity becomes slightly unclear. Arguably, the biggest strength of the project is that it utilises a questionnaire that is similar, but not identical, to other questionnaires distributed in the past (Papi & Khajavi, 2021¸ Taguchi, Magid, & Papi, 2009; Papi, Bondarenko, Mansouri, Feng, and Jiang, 2019). Keeping this in mind, the relevance of the questionnaire is somewhat secure, knowing that it can be purposefully applied to our research in order to find what we are looking for. However, because this particular questionnaire was initially administered in Iran, the societal and cultural context and implications will vastly differ from that of Norway. The different kinds of impartiality might have a great influence on the learners' answers, so the findings might also reflect this.

3.4 Method

For this study, we digitally administered Papi and Khajavy's (2021) questionnaire, translated into Norwegian, to Norwegian 5th through 10th-grade ESL learners. The questionnaire focuses primarily on three factors; the future L2 self-guides (Higgins, 1987), emotions, and strategic inclinations. This study utilises a questionnaire as the research method due to the fact that it is convenient and appropriate when collecting factual, behavioural, and attitudinal data, and allows the participants to answer questions regarding their attitudes, beliefs, interest, and opinions (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010) more easily than in a qualitative study. Since our research subjects were prepubescents and adolescents, we were compelled to conduct a quantitative study due to its precision and convenience. Dörnyei and Dewaele (2022) write that the sample size from a statistical point of view should include 30 or more participants. However, to perform different analyses such as factor analysis or structural equation modelling (SEM), the number of participants should ideally be more than 200 (Taguchi, & Dörnyei, 2009). As we have access to multiple schools through our places of employment, making the sampling a convenience sampling (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2018), we were able to gather responses from 450 participants. The response rate of the ESL learners was difficult to predict, but the method of administration was a group administration, which Dörnyei and Dewaele (2022) argue makes a 100 percent response rate possible as the learners are a "captive group". When most of the ESL learners in the classroom choose to take part in the research, those who do not wish to might feel obligated because of peer pressure.

3.4.1 Participants

The total number of participants in this study was 450 ESL learners. Almost all the participants' answers are included in the final analysis, except for three. Three answers from middle school ESL learners were redacted as the learners, who were actually in 8^{th}- 10^{th} grade, answered that they were in 5^{th}-7^{th} grade. We decided that this answer indicates that they have likely answered dishonestly in the questionnaire, and therefore their answers were excluded, making the total number of participants 447; (male: 222 (49,7%), female: 212 (47,4%), non-binary/other: 13 (2,9%)), from primary and middle schools located in Trøndelag in Norway. The number of participants from the middle school is 270, aged 12-16, whilst the total number of primary school ESL learners, aged 10-12, from three different primary schools, is 177. All Norwegian students study English from the age of 6-16, as the subject is obligatory in Norwegian schools with a varying number of allocated hours annually. The participants were informed that participation was voluntary, and the questionnaire was administered during the ESL learners' school hours. The number of participants in each grade level, which can be seen in Table 1, varies, not primarily from a lack of responses, but as a result of significant differences in the number of ESL learners at each school and in each grade level.

Table 1. *Number of Participants from each Grade and Gender.*

	Total	Female	Male	Non-Binary/Other
5th grade	56	32	24	
6th grade	26	14	10	2
7th grade	95	48	47	
8th grade	66	26	39	1
9th grade	96	41	50	5
10th grade	108	51	52	5

3.4.2 Procedures

After reaching out to the participating schools which allowed us to administer the questionnaire, we sent out an informed consent form to all the participants' parents and legal guardians. The middle school provided us with the email addresses of the parents and legal guardians, which we used to send out the form. The primary schools sent the informed consent form through "Vigilo" which is an application that aids teachers and administration in presenting information to the parents and legal guardians. The middle school, however, preferred that we sent out via email, as their application of choice, called "school link" was used to convey more important messages. As no parent or legal guardian withdrew their consent, the questionnaire was administered to all the ESL learners. We had made the conscious decision beforehand, not to be present in the classroom when the questionnaire was administered. Therefore, the teachers of the participating classes received an email, with a link to the questionnaire, which they distributed to their students. In addition, we had also included certain instructions, such as the fact that they had to remove the link after administration, and the expected time it would take to administer, which we predicted to be between 10-20 minutes depending on the ESL learners' age. The teachers notified us when they had administered the questionnaire, and the link was removed, so the learners no longer had access to it.

3.4.3 The Questionnaire

Papi and Khajavi's (2021) questionnaire contains items that measure the ESL learners' L2MSS (Dörnyei, 2005; 2009), L2 anxiety and L2 enjoyment, and L2 strategic inclinations. In addition, it asks the learners' age, gender, and grade. We chose this particular questionnaire due to its transferability to our research questions. Papi and Khajavy (2021) investigate similar questions regarding motivation in an ESL classroom, and the items within the questionnaire appeared to be applicable to what we wanted to research. Similar to the original questionnaire, the Likert scale is used to range the answers from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree), and the learners used between 2-18 minutes to answer the questionnaire items. Next, we will present which items inquire about the different types of self-guides, emotions, or strategic inclinations, and which statements were excluded from the 5th-7th grade questionnaire. The two questionnaires with the numbered items, and a document with the order of the items, can be found in Appendix 1-3.

3.4.4 L2 Selves Items

The items on L2 selves consist of four subcategories, ideal/other, ought-to/own, ideal/own, and ought-to/other. All participants answered three items on ideal other (items 1-3), which focus on what the learner believes their significant (e.g., parents, siblings) others would like them to be (e.g., I want to learn to speak English fluently to make the people who are important in life proud"). Next, the 8th to 10th -grade ESL learners had three items on ought-to/own (item 4-6), while the 5th to 7th grade had one (item 4), which focuses on what the learner believes they themselves must achieve in order to avoid negative consequences (e.g., "If I don't work on my English, I will have problems in my professional/academic life"). Thereafter, all the participants had five items (items 7-11) on ideal/own, inquiring who or what they themselves would like to ideally be or ideally achieve (e.g., "I can imagine a day when I use English effectively to communicate with people from all around the world"). Finally, the 8th to 10^{th-}grade ESL learners had four items (items 12-15) on ought-to other, while the 5th to 7th-grade had two (items 13 and 15), which focus on what the learner believes others (e.g., family, friends, teachers) expect from them (e.g., "If I don't improve my English, people who are important in my life may think poorly of me").

3.4.5 Emotions and Anxiety Items

The items on emotion were categorised as either enjoyment or anxiety and inquired into the ESL learners' level of anxiety in the English language classroom. Papi and Khajavi (2021) used the items on enjoyment from Khajavy et al.'s (2018) L2 learning enjoyment scale, and there were four items (items 16-19) on enjoyment (e.g., "I enjoy learning new English words") in total. The items on anxiety were altered in Papi and Khajavi's (2021) questionnaire from Khodadady and Khajavy (2013; adapted from Horwitz et al., 1986). There were five items (item 20-24) on anxiety (e.g., In the English class, I feel shy to answer the questions voluntarily") answered by all the participants.

3.4.6 Strategic Inclinations

Finally, the participants responded to items measuring their strategic inclinations, which were categorised as either eager or vigilant, referring to the participants' willingness to speak English. The 8th to 10th-grade ESL learners had five items (items 25-29) on eagerness, while the 5th to 7th grade had four (items 25 and 27-29), which measured the participants' eagerness to speak English (e.g., "To improve my English, I frequently ask questions and volunteer answers in my classes"). Next, the 8th to 10th-grade ESL learners had five items (items 30-34) on being vigilant to speak English, while the 5th to 7th-grade had four (items 30-33), (e.g., "I speak English in my classes only when I have to").

3.5 Translating the Questionnaire

The questionnaire was provided to the learners in Norwegian, as we took the learners' varying English levels into consideration. Its scope was limited to a multiple-choice survey due to the pressing timeline, as well as the accuracy and efficiency it provides in the data analysis process. In the beginning stages of figuring out how we wanted to proceed, we entertained the idea of conducting a more empirical means of data collection through the teachers and course instructors, but ultimately decided against it as we wanted to primarily focus on the learners' input and experiences. To ensure student comprehension, we concluded that the questionnaire would be translated into Norwegian due to the fact that it would be prepubescent children answering. In this case, clarity and precision were important, but we still attempted to keep the objective as similar to the original questionnaire as possible. The accuracy of the English translation to Norwegian might influence the study more than we can predict, and we do wonder if the questions are culture- or country-specific. Emulating a pre-written questionnaire might have created confusion and some questions would not have translated well, and thereby be futile to apply. Taguchi, Magid, and Papi (2009) discuss the pitfalls of translating a study and conducting it across country borders. The different L2 groups and their proficiency level will most likely differ vastly, subsequently, the results of the questionnaire will be determined by a number of antecedent variables. Our objective then becomes to replicate the Asian study in Norway.

Hambleton and Kanjee (1995) list three positive aspects of translating psychological and educational tests. Firstly, translating the tests allows the participants to answer in their L1, decreasing the probability of misinterpretations. Secondly, it allows for comparative studies across cultural, national, and ethnic groups. Lastly, translating an already written and piloted questionnaire is more convenient and often less time-consuming than developing a whole new questionnaire design. When translating Papi's (2010) questionnaire to Norwegian we used the back-adaption design (Hambleton & Kanjee, 1995). The questionnaire was translated from English to Norwegian by one researcher with high proficiency in both languages. Then one researcher with high proficiency in both languages attempted to back-translate the translated questionnaire back to English. By comparing the original questionnaire to the back-translated questionnaire in English, while noticing potential discrepancies, it was possible to evaluate the quality of the translated questionnaire.

There are many factors to consider when translating an English questionnaire to Norwegian as there can be many cross-cultural differences. Van de Vijer and Hambleton (1996) write about "construct bias (…), method bias (…), and item bias", in their article "Translating Tests: Some practical guidelines," (p.89), where they write about possible biases when translating cross-cultural research. As a result of these biases, a simple direct translation would be inadequate, as the translation needs to recognise and consider various sources of bias and the cultural differences. In other words, when conducting the back-adaptation design the translators need to consider cultural differences. Thus, we deliberately chose translators who we know have high competence and comprehension in both English and Norwegian, as well as being aware of the cultural implications of being Norwegian prepubescents and adolescents. After performing the back-adaptation, we also asked a peer to review all the different items and provide feedback on whether the translation was equivalent to the original item, or if there was any discrepancy. The provided feedback was discussed by us, and as a result, some of the items were slightly altered.

The ultimate step in the translation process was to perform Hambleton and Zenisky's (2011) review form on all items. Hambleton and Zenisky (2011) write in their chapter "Translating and Adapting Tests for Cross-Cultural Assessments" about the increasing amount of cross-cultural research, which has highlighted the need for a review form, where researchers can evaluate their translation. The review form consists of 25 questions that focus on different aspects of the translation, such as meaning, language difficulty, format, appearance, and cultural relevance. The review form asks questions such as “Have terms in the item in one language been suitably adapted to the cultural environment of the second language version?” (Hambleton & Zenisky, 2011, p.63) and “Does the item have the same or highly similar meaning in both languages?” (Hambleton & Zenisky, 2011, p.49). After performing the back-adaptation, and receiving feedback from a peer, we used the review form to evaluate our translation. While some of the questions were irrelevant to our questionnaire, such as questions regarding units of measurement, most forced us to evaluate each individual statement carefully, focusing not only on meaning, but on factors such as the cultural context, punctuation, and physical layout. Only small changes were made as a result of the review form, and we finally had a translated questionnaire we wanted to pilot in the classroom.

3.6 Piloting the Questionnaire

Before conducting the questionnaire in the classroom, we decided to pilot the questionnaire with a test group. There are many advantages to piloting a questionnaire that compensate for the additional work. Dörnyei and Dewaele (2022) have expounded on numerous advantages of piloting a questionnaire and conducting an item analysis. Performing a piloting of the questionnaire can highlight possible errors and provide the researchers with feedback before finalising the questionnaire. Examples of such errors could be statements that are too ambiguous, statements that are too advanced for the respondents, and questions that are revealed to not provide new or relevant information to the study (Dörnyei & Dewaele, 2022, p. 56). There are many pitfalls that can threaten the legitimacy and quality of the study, which can be avoided by simply performing a piloting of the questionnaire. Piloting a questionnaire can provide information regarding the questionnaire in itself, the scoring and the amount of time necessary to finish, and guidance towards how the questionnaire should be administered. If the pilot group struggles to understand the format of the questionnaire, this indicates the necessity of a more thorough run-through of the necessary information, before administration. Dörnyei and Dewaele (2022) believe that a sample size should not be smaller than 50 participants for statistical reasons, which will provide enough data to perform an item analysis. The test group should be similar to the target population, to best replicate the results of a finalised administration.

Before piloting the questionnaire, the different statements were reviewed, and we thoroughly discussed their appropriacy for the participants. After careful deliberation, it was decided that the regulatory focus items that entail prevention and promotion focus were to be excluded from the research project. This is because it is important to acknowledge the age difference between the participants in this study, our participants ranging from 10-16 years old, and those in the original study performed by Papi and Khajavy (2021), ranging from 18-38 years old. The older participants in the original article had the emotional maturity and life experience to reflect on statements that asked about their upbringing and their level of success in life. Douillard & Labbo (2002) emphasise that children are able to reflect, if given the time and aid, such as the opportunity to draw their thoughts, but they develop their reflecting skills at different paces. The items on regulatory focus, such as “I got on my parents’ nerves when I was growing up” (Papi & Khajavi, 2021), referred to “growing up” as a past event. However, this is not applicable to our participants. Even if the statements were altered, they would require that the learners reflect on their own past, unaided by their teachers. As a result of the participants’ young age, the items on regulatory focus, and some other items were excluded from the questionnaire as they were deemed inadequate, irrelevant, or too complicated.

When testing the questionnaire, fifty ESL learners from 5th to 9th grade were chosen to aid in the piloting. The learners were not chosen at random, but by convenience, making it a convenience sampling (Taguchi, & Dörnyei, 2009; Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2018). This is to minimise the affect the research had on the respective schools, due to the fact that the researchers chose ten learners from each grade level, when their schedule allowed for it. Ideally, the learners should have been chosen from a random class, however, efficiency and practicality outweighed the benefits of a random pick. When choosing learners, we attempted to choose an equal number of boys and girls, but as seen in Table 2, some of the groups were not evenly distributed between the genders. The learners were asked to answer the online questionnaire and take note of any statements that were difficult to understand or hard to answer. Due to the age of the participants, the older student gave mainly written feedback, whilst the younger participants gave oral feedback. The oral feedback was written down by the respective researcher present, and both the written and oral feedback was collected, and then discussed before performing an item analysis. Additionally, the learners who participated in the piloting were excluded from the final administering of the questionnaire.

Table 2. *Number of Participants in the Piloting from Each Grade and Gender.*

Grade	Female	Male
5th grade	4	6
6th Grade	4	6
7th Grade	6	4
8th Grade	5	5
9th Grade	5	5

3.6.1 Results of the Piloting

Piloting the questionnaire provided useful information that influenced the final questionnaire in big ways. Firstly, it became clear that some of the statements were too complicated for the younger respondents to reply to. When observing the 5th and 6th graders, it was clear that certain statements and concepts were difficult to comprehend. The most difficult statements for the youngest participants revolved around imagining the future, such as the statement, "If I don't work on my English, I will fail in my future career", and statements inquiring about the parents, teachers and peers' attitudes and disappointment such as, "If I don't improve my English, my family/teachers will lose confidence in me". The learners indicated that they struggled to envision themselves in the future and showed very little understanding regarding what it meant to "disappoint/criticise/look down" on someone. As a result, the questionnaire was separated into two different questionnaires, one with and one without the aforementioned questions. Whilst most of the 7th graders might have been able to answer the future-oriented statements, they were still provided with the same questionnaire as the fifth graders, which allowed us to provide the primary schools with only one version of the questionnaire, and later distinguish between data collected from primary school ESL learners and middle school ESL learners. Ultimately, the primary school learners in 5th to 7th grade were provided a questionnaire that excluded six of the original statements, compared to the one provided to the 8th to 10th grade. The excluded items were items 5, 6, 12, 14, 26, and 34, and the two versions and the order of the items in the online questionnaires can be seen in Appendix 1-3.

Secondly, some of the participants of the pilot run experienced some difficulty with the phrase, "Someone I look up to". There were learners in each pilot group who argued that this statement was hard to understand, as some interpreted it to refer to celebrities and other role models, whilst some thought of their closest family members. After considering this feedback, the phrase, which is repeated in multiple statements, was altered to “people who are important to me”. In addition, the teachers administering the questionnaire were asked to convey that the statement is used to refer to family, friends, or teachers. These altercations were made as a result of the feedback provided by the participating learners’ oral or written feedback after the piloting, without focusing on their answers to the questionnaire. Finally, we considered whether all the questions on the questionnaire should be obligatory, as none demand any personal information. On one hand, this would guarantee that all learners answer all questions, and would make the factor of missing responses irrelevant. However, this could cause learners to answer questions they do not understand, consequently affecting the research’s validity and reliability. In the piloting of the questionnaire, the 8th-10th grade participants answered a questionnaire where all the questions were obligatory, whilst the younger participants were able to skip. The older learners provided oral and written feedback that they would like the opportunity to skip questions. In addition, we considered implied research ethics, as the research should be voluntary, and even though we do not ask for confidential information, learners should not be forced to answer questions they might not understand or want to answer. The Norwegian National Research Ethics Committees (NESH) (2021) states that “…the best interest of the child is a fundamental concern in all research. Children have the right to be heard in research, and their voices are important,” (p. 20). We agreed that the participants should be able to skip questions they did not understand or did not want to answer. After receiving the results from the piloting, and keeping the children’s best interest at heart, the final questionnaire only had age, gender, and grade as obligatory questions, whilst the rest of the statements were voluntary.

3.6.2 Item Analysis

When performing an item analysis based on participants’ answers, Dörnyei and Dewaele (2022, pp. 59-60) discuss the importance of considering the missing responses, the range of responses, and the internal consistency. Firstly, missing responses could indicate that the learners did not understand the questions, that the instructions were unclear, or there could be another underlying issue. As 20 of the 30 participants were given a questionnaire where all questions were obligatory, the level of missing responses can only be found by looking at the 30 participants from 5th to 7th grade. When viewing the responses, nearly all of them were answered by all the thirty learners, except six statements which all had one missed response. While two of the missed response questions were slightly altered based on the participants’ feedback, the number of missing responses was deemed too low to make any further alterations to the statements. Dörnyei and Dewaele (2022, pp. 59-60) elaborate on the importance of analysing the range of responses, as if all participants agree on one answer it is difficult to process statistically. Therefore, when looking at the collected responses, we focused on whether the answers were distributed amongst all the possible options, or if all the participants had identical answers. The answer could show an inclination towards "strongly agree" or "strongly disagree", but the participants' answers should show a certain level of variation. When analysing the answers, most of the learners' responses showed a decent level of variation, and whilst some of the answers were more inclined one way or the other, there was still variation. The statements with the least varied student answers were, "My family will be proud of me if one day I master the English language," and "If I don't improve my English, my family/teachers will lose confidence in me". However, as these statements could highlight cultural differences, and there was some level of variation, they remain unaltered.

3.6.3 Cronbach's Alpha

We ran a Cronbach's alpha test to measure the internal consistency, or reliability, of the collected trial data from 5th -10th grade. The test measures the interrelatedness and internal consistency between the different items, indicating whether the items measure the same concept (Bland & Altman, 1997; Riazi, 2016). Therefore, we performed the Cronbach's alpha test on the different future self-guides, the enjoyment and anxiety items, and the different strategic inclinations items. We decided that the minimal value for alpha(α) had to be $\alpha > 0.7$ for the level of reliability to be acceptable (Bland & Altman, 1997; Riazi, 2016). As the learners were provided with two different pilot questionnaires depending on whether they were in 5th -7th grade or 8th-10th grade, the test was performed twice with the different data sets. Firstly, we ran the Cronbach alpha on the 5th-7th grade test participants N=30, (53.3% (16) male, 46.7% (14) female, 0 other). As seen in Table 3, all the values for Cronbach's alpha exceeded the chosen limit of $\alpha > 0.7$, with the items on the concepts of ideal/own (α=0,935) and ought-to/other (α=0.908) scoring the highest in terms of reliability. It is important to note, as Tavakol and Dennick (2011) state in their article on comprehending Cronbach's alpha, that if $\alpha > 0.9$ it is important to consider whether some of the questions are redundant because such a high score might indicate that the items are too similar. Despite these high values of α, after checking the items, we decided to maintain the two concepts as they were, seeing as the number of participants in the piloting was low, and we believe that the ultimate questionnaire might show a different result. Ultimately, the pilot test performed by 5th -7th grade indicated that the items in the different concepts measure the same concept to different degrees, all indicating an acceptable level of reliability. Next, we ran the Cronbach alpha on the 8th-10th grade test participants N=20 (50% (10) male, 50% (10) female). As seen in Table 3, most of the values for Cronbach's alpha exceeded the chosen limit of α>0.7, except for the items on ought-to/own, with the items on the concepts of ideal/own (α=0,935) and ought-to/other (α=0.908) scoring the highest in terms of reliability. Despite ought-to/own (α=0.030) scoring far beneath the set limit of α=0.7, we decided to keep the items, as we expected the ultimate result of the questionnaire to be different.

Table 3. *Cronbach's Alpha Results from Piloting.*

Concept	Number of items	5th -7th grade (N=30) α=	8th -10th grade (N=20) α=
Ideal/other	3	0,746	0,701
Ought-to/own	3	0,849	0,030
Ideal/own	5	0,935	0,944
Ought-to/other	4	0,908	0,887
Enjoyment	4	0,821	0,826
Anxiety	5	0,893	0,880
Eager	5	0,761	0,790
Vigilant	5	0,737	0,743

4.0 Research Ethics

This section describes the research ethics we considered when planning and working on our master thesis, our thoughts on applying to the NSD, and the main reason we decided not to. To ensure the quality of the study, and to confirm that we have adhered to research ethics, we discussed whether it is ethical for ESL learners with a non-Norwegian L1 to answer the questionnaire. Additionally, this section touches upon ethics in the administration, and how our roles in the respective schools discouraged us from administering the questionnaire in person.

4.1 NSD

When conducting research that involves people, one, in many instances, must submit an application to the Norwegian Centre for Research Data (NSD) to proceed beyond the planning stage. However, after reading the available information on the NSD website, and emailing their customer service, we concluded that it is not necessary for us to submit an application as the questionnaire is completely anonymous. The NSD states that research is anonymous if the participants are unidentifiable throughout the questionnaire (NSD, n.d.). This means that the participants should not be identifiable through their e-mail, IP address, or the answers they provide. The participants in our questionnaire will be asked to provide their age and gender, before answering questions to assess their motivation. As we expected between 20 -100 participants in each grade level, we would not be able to identify participants solely based on their age and gender. In addition, the questionnaire was provided through “nettskjema”, which allowed the learners to participate in the research without requesting their email addresses or an IP address. Nettskjema (2023) states that it “maintains a high level of security so that you can safely and easily store data up to confidential data (sensitive personal information, health information, etc.). Nettskjema, (…) is approved by REK and Sikt to collect strictly confidential data,”. As the site is approved by the Norwegian Agency for Shared Services in Education and Research (SIKT), we did not apply to NSD due to the fact that our questionnaire meets every requirement which allows us not to. According to the general data protection regulation, stated in the Norwegian Personal Information Act, we are not legally required to obtain parental consent as the research is anonymous (Justis- og beredskapsdepartementet, 2018). However, because of research ethics, the parents and legal guardians were sent an informed consent form, as seen in Appendix 4, notifying them of the purpose of the project, why their children were being asked to participate, what participation involved, how the data would be stored, their rights, and who to contact for more information or to retract consent. Considering that we were not legally required to obtain approval from parents or legal guardians, we did not ask for their consent, but rather informed them and notified them on how to redact their children from participating. The informed consent form was handed out a couple of weeks before the questionnaire was conducted in the classroom, and we did not receive notification from any parent or legal guardian who wanted their child withdrawn from participation in the research project.

As both researchers in this thesis are employed at the participatory schools, there have been multiple discussions on whether we should be physically present in the classroom when the questionnaire is administered. The Norwegian National Research Ethics committees highlight the importance of research being conducted without external pressure, whether intentional or unintentional, and state that “…indirect pressure is exerted for instance if participants feel obliged to participate because the consent is collected by an authority figure," (The Norwegian National Research Ethics Committees, 2022). Our presence in the classrooms, with learners who have previously had us as substitute teachers for shorter or longer periods of time, would most likely unintentionally cause external pressure, and possibly influence the participants' answers.

4.2 ESL Learners with Non-Norwegian L1 Background

Norwegian classrooms primarily consist of learners who have Norwegian as their L1, but naturally, there are exceptions. Today, Norwegian classrooms additionally consist of learners who do not have Norwegian or English in their language repertoire, mostly because of immigration status. The current war in Ukraine has increased the number of Ukrainian learners in the classroom. Obviously, they do not speak Norwegian at first, and in many instances, they have not learned English either. After conversing with the teachers who assist these new learners, Ukrainian ESL learners, and others who do not speak Norwegian, we decided to provide the questionnaire solely to learners who are capable of completing it in Norwegian without experiencing great linguistic difficulty. There are multiple reasons for this decision. Firstly, it is important to acknowledge the complex process of translating the questionnaire into different languages, as we are not capable of assessing whether the translation is acceptable. Secondly, these ESL learners, in many cases, have parents who do not understand Norwegian or English, thus, they would not be able to comprehend and recognise what their children's participation might involve. Janet Boddy (2012) highlights the importance of this issue and states that it is possible to have the consent form translated or call the respective families, as some might be illiterate. We consider it unethical to ask learners and parents who do not know Norwegian to participate in this research because we are not able to translate the questionnaire into their individual languages. Since we did not have the time or resources to have an outside source translate, we opted for excluding ESL learners who are not capable of completing a questionnaire in English. This decision was made by the researchers, as well as the respective schools involved.

4.3 Ethics in the Administration

The questionnaire was administered in three different Norwegian schools - two primary schools and one middle school. The process of being granted access to conduct research in public schools proved to be difficult, mostly because school administrations and teachers appear to view such a project as a burden or something that will take possession of their precious time. Therefore, the data gathering of this MA thesis took place at our respective places of employment. Dewaele and Dörnyei (2022) state that one must take note of and be aware of which kind of role you have to the study participants. Taking cognisance of our primary roles as their teachers, the learners would naturally have viewed us as superiors, and our attitude toward the questionnaire would most likely, in turn, have influenced their attitude. Similarly, Dewaele and Dörnyei (2022) discuss the impact of parental disposition, and how imperative it is to inform and win the support of all authority figures in advance, in order to secure an unambiguously positive attitude toward the questionnaire. To ensure ethical approval, we thought it important to ask for consent from the headteacher or the principal before administering the questionnaire. All three principals were asked in informal conversations whether they would allow us to administer the questionnaire, and all responded yes. Another issue to consider is whether a member of the research team should be present during the administration of the questionnaire, especially seeing as we are the participants' teachers. With large-scale school questionnaires (N>200), the questionnaire is often administered by the ESL learners' own teacher, which, according to Dewaele and Dörnyei (2022, p.75) is "…understandable from a logistic point of view, but not recommended from a motivational point of view". We entertained the thought of informing each other's learners to make sure the person they associate the questionnaire with is a researcher and not their own teacher but ultimately decided against it because of logistics and lack of time. Studies show (Strange et al., 2003, Dörnyei & Dewaele, 2022) that ESL learners indicate a preference for the presence of a researcher rather than a teacher. Furthermore, the same study finds that learners are more likely to give honest and unprompted answers to a researcher, as the presence of the teacher "…was a bit embarrassing," (Dörnyei & Dewaele, 2022, p.75). This would prove difficult for us to navigate since our roles as teachers intertwine with our role as researchers and questionnaire administrators, whether we want them to or not. As discussed above, it is crucial to be aware of the basic ethical principles of data collection, before making such a decision. Oppenheim (1992) and Sudman et al. (2004), cited in Dörniey & Dewaele (2022), assembled five key components when collecting data, and we decided to apply the ones relevant to this anonymous questionnaire. Maintaining the level of confidentiality that was promised to the learners at the outset of the study is the researchers' moral and professional responsibility (Dörnyei & Dewaele, 2022). Bearing this in mind, we perpetuated close contact with NSD in order to protect the learners' anonymity. Additionally, considering the participants' age, we have comprised the questionnaire accordingly, finding that administering an overly long questionnaire is unethical in its own way.

5.0 Research Limitations

In this section, we discuss the weaknesses of this study, some of which are often out of our control as researchers. This entails questions and challenges of generalisability, the limitations of using a questionnaire, how children respond to the Likert Scale, and participant motivation. These factors should be taken into consideration when presenting the results of a study as it is important to disclose any concerns that might occur when deducing meaning from the collected data.

5.1 Generalisability

When attempting to generalise ESL learners' motivation when learning English as an L2 it is important to recognise the study's limitations. One limitation present in this study is that all participants live in a Western, well-educated, industrialised, rich, and democratic (WEIRD) society (Andringa & Godfroid, 2020). Arnett (2008) highlights how samples in research are primarily drawn from the United States or European countries, consequently neglecting the rest of the world population. Many researchers generalise without considering the effect of conditions of life, such as health, income, education, on the human psychology (Arnett, 2008, p. 613). The consequences of such generalisability could be that attributes, habits or other behaviours that are attested in the research group are absent in other groups (Andringa & Godfroid, 2020, p. 139). Andringa and Godfroid (2020) emphasise how solely researching participants from WEIRD groups, might result in underestimating "…the range of variation in language learners and language learning outcomes," (p. 139). It is essential to consider this fact when deliberating and analysing the results of this research project. All participants in this study of student motivation in learning ESL are currently living in Norway, and most have lived in a WEIRD society for their entire lives. These ESL learners are constantly exposed to the same societal influences, which are likely to subconsciously affect their answers. As all participants are from a WEIRD society, the answers cannot be generalised with 100% certainty to apply to ESL learners from other groups. Recognising this sampling bias is essential. Moreover, it is important to state that the results of this research might be generalisable when speaking about a Norwegian context, but further research is necessary before generalising all young ESL learners.

5.2 Limitations of Questionnaire-Based Research

As researchers, we recognise the many disadvantages of using a questionnaire. Perhaps the biggest disadvantage of using a questionnaire is our inability to ask for in-depth answers (Bartram, 2020). When a participant has answered the questionnaire, we are unable to ask for elaborations because of the anonymity of the questionnaire, besides, our role as researchers entails a duty of confidentiality, which makes the questionnaire function as a snapshot of the participants' feelings in that exact moment without explanation. Another disadvantage is that the statements in questionnaires are rather impersonal, and some ESL learners experience "questionnaire fatigue", as they answer many questionnaires at school and in their everyday life (Bartram, 2020). As a result, some learners might have chosen to finish the questionnaire quickly and answer randomly, affecting the validity and reliability of the research project (Høgheim, 2020). While we hope that the number of participants (N=447) is high enough to reduce the impact of unreliable submissions, it remains important to recognise this significant disadvantage. Another factor to consider is that the questionnaires were administered in the classroom, causing the learners to function as "captive groups" because they were not able to leave the classroom as easily, compared to any other category of participants would. This might have resulted in some learners feeling forced or coerced into participating in the research project. As it is a group administration the answers might be "contaminated", as they might talk or copy each other's answers, or the classroom environment might be too disruptive (Dörnyei & Dewaele, 2022).

5.3 The Likert Scale and Participant Motivation

Another possible disadvantage of using a questionnaire is that the Likert scale might prove to be too complicated for young children. The Likert scale used in our questionnaire uses a six-point response format, asking the participants to answer somewhere between "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". As the participants of this study were between 10-16 years old, the usage of the Likert scale might prove too complex and advanced, especially for the youngest participants. Mellor and Moore (2014) attempted to determine the appropriateness of the Likert scale and children aged 6-12 and found that the older children in the group were, the more likely were they to use the neutral point of the scale as a way of avoiding the "extremes". This can also be seen in our questionnaire, as many of the participants answer between 3 (somewhat disagree) and 4 (somewhat agree). Using the Likert scale on young children might also affect the reliability of the data set, as younger children's cognitive abilities are different than adults. Borgers, Hox, and Sikkel (2004) emphasise that cognitive abilities, question difficulty, and participant motivation strongly affect the response quality. Firstly, the younger learners might struggle to understand how to answer using the Likert scale, due to the fact that it might be unfamiliar, and they might lack the cognitive abilities to assess the different items. Secondly, the difficulty of the questions is significant when asking young children, as too complicated answers might result in unreliable answers or several missing responses. Finally, the participants' motivation to complete the questionnaire is likely to affect the data. Unfortunately, based on our own experiences as teachers in 5^{th}-10^{th} grade, we acknowledge that answering questionnaires is not a rare occurrence in Norwegian schools, which is likely to negatively influence the ESL learners' motivation, as many do not see the value in participating and providing us researchers with nuanced answers. This might result in the learners answering the questionnaire as quickly as possible, without reading the items carefully, instead of choosing to not participate, as the questionnaires are performed in these "captive groups" and participation might feel obligatory. However, Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010) claim that the Likert scale has been successfully administered to young children as well. In these cases, a large number of the possible response options have been reduced significantly to avoid any strenuous cognitive load or confusion (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010). In our questionnaire, we chose to reduce and rewrite some of the questions, rather than the options. Ultimately, we wanted to be able to distinguish between the levels of agreement and disagreement (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010). Including too many options might lead to confusion and a feeling of being overwhelmed, but limiting the options might cause very vague answers which could be hard to differentiate during the analysis. In this research project, there are several research limitations and sources of error, as is normal in most projects. As with any other research method, utilising a questionnaire has its disadvantages, such as the inability to ask in-depth questions, unreliable answers, and lack of motivation. However, we hope that the size of our dataset might offset some of these disadvantages. Ultimately, we might not be able to generalise the results of the analysis, but we have still been able to find interesting data, which might be used at a later opportunity in a bigger research project.

6.0 Results

In the following sectionw e will attempt to analyse the data collected from both the 5^{th}-7^{th} grade questionnaire and the 8^{th}-10^{th} grade questionnaire using SPSS, as well as different analytical tests, such as a test of normality, Spearman's correlation test, and binomial logistic regression analysis. The section utilises the two questionnaires and analyses the collected data either separately, or as one full-sized data set. Firstly, we describe the questionnaire, the number of participants, and how we view missing data. Secondly, we look at the descriptive statistics, which highlight the average motivation of the self-guides, average enjoyment or anxiety, and the average eagerness or vigilance in the classroom. Thirdly, we perform a test of normality, to see whether the data is normally distributed, and a Spearman correlation test to test for correlations between the self-guides and L2 anxiety, and the strategic inclinations and L2 anxiety. Finally, we perform a binomial logistic regression analysis to further analyse the relationship between the self-guides and L2 anxiety, and the strategic inclinations and L2 anxiety.

6.1 Introduction

Chapter 3 discussed the method selected to investigate Norwegian 5^{th}-10^{th} grade motivation and language anxiety. This section reports the results found in the analysis, which attempts to answer the overarching research questions in this master thesis:

- What is the relationship between motivation and English language anxiety in the Norwegian ESL context?
- Which types of motivation predict learners' English language anxiety in the Norwegian ESL context?

Inherent in the first overarching research question, is the idea that there is a relationship between motivation and English language anxiety, which is then further explored in the second overarching research question. A total of 450 ESL learners nntributed data to this study, where 177 were from the 5^{th} to 7^{th} grade, and 273 from 8th to 10th grade. However, as previously mentioned, three answers were redacted, giving a final dataset with 447 responses, 177 from 5^{th} to 7^{th} grade, and 270 from 8^{th} to 10^{th} grade. We used SPSS, version 27, to perform the analysis on the data sets. The ESL learners were asked to answer the anonymous questionnaire online and were only able to select one answer for each item. They also had the option to skip certain items if they did not understand the question or did not want to answer. The items on the questionnaire, excluding the questions asking about their grade, age, and gender, which were all obligatory, were collected using the Likert scale, which asks the ESL learners to select an answer between strongly disagree and strongly agree. Depending on what the learners answered the item received a score, 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=somewhat disagree, 4=somewhat agree, 5=agree, and 6= strongly agree. This means that if a student answered agree to a statement, the number 5 would be used for further analysis. All the items can be read in Appendix 1-2 in English and Norwegian, and the order they appeared in the two different questionnaires can be seen in Appendix 3.

6.2 Missing Data

When analysing the collected data sets, we had to consider the number of missing responses, as the learners were able to skip questions if they felt like it. When looking at the number of missing responses in the data set from the 5th to 7^{th-}grade participants, the number of missing responses per item varied between 0-5, with an average of 1.3 missing per item. With the number of participants being 177, an average of 1.3 missing responses equals an average of 0.73% of respondents skipping each item. When looking at the number of missing responses in the data set from the 8th to 10^{th-}grade participants, the number of missing responses varied between 0-9, with an average of 5.7 responses missing per item, which amounts to an average of 2.1% of the respondents skipping each question. While missing data should not be ignored Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2018) write that missing data has a greater impact on surveys across many phases or longitudinal surveys. While we ideally would prefer to have 0% missing responses, we would argue that 0.73% and 2.1% missing per item does not have a detrimental influence on the following analyses.

6.3 Reliability and Validity

6.3.1 Cronbach's Alpha

After administering the questionnaire and collecting all the data, we decided to confirm the reliability of the different concepts by performing a Cronbach's alpha test to again ensure that the items measure the same concept. We continued to use the minimal level of $\alpha > 0.7$ (Bland & Altman, 1997; Riazi, 2016), to indicate an acceptable level of reliability. Firstly, we tested the data set collected from 5th-7th grade N=177 (53% (94) female, 45.8 % (81) male, 1.1% (2) other). As a result of the changes made during the testing stage of the research, one of the concepts, ought-to/own, only consisted of one item making it ineligible for Cronbach's alpha. The alterations were made primarily because of the ESL learners' feedback after the piloting. In addition, the concept of ought-to/other only consisted of two items, which is not ideal when performing this analysis, as there are too few items to get an accurate result on the concept reliability. As we see in Table 4, two of the concepts in the 5th-7th grade data set, ideal/other (α=0.68) and vigilant (α=0.63), did not obtain the desirable 0.7. Next, we ran Cronbach's alpha on the data set collected from the 8th-10th grade participants N=273 (43.2% (118) female, 52% (142) male, 4.7% (13) other). There were some language alterations after the piloting of the 8th-10th questionnaire, however, the number of items remained the same. As we see in table 4, all the concepts scored above the acceptable reliability of α=0.7. Finally, we performed Cronbach's alpha test on the entire data set from the 5th-10th grade. One concept scored under the desirable α=0.7, with ideal/other on α=0.68. However, all the concepts that scored less than the acceptable Cronbach's alpha were deemed reliable as they were very close to α=0.7.

Table 4. *Cronbach's Alpha Results from the Three Different Data Sets.*

Concept	**Number of items**	**5th -7th grade (N=177) α=**	**Number of items**	**8th -10th grade (N=270) α=**	**Number of items**	**5th -10th grade (N=447)**
Ideal/other	3	0,68	3	0,71	3	0,68
Ought-to/own	1		3	0,70	3	0,70
Ideal/own	5	0,87	5	0,91	5	0,90
Ought-to/other	2		5	0,77	5	0,77
Enjoyment	4	0,80	4	0,82	4	0,82
Anxiety	5	0,90	5	0,91	5	0,90
Eager	4	0,76	5	0,77	5	0,77
Vigilant	4	0,63	5	0,73	5	0,73

6.4 Descriptive Statistics

6.4.1 The L2 Self Guides

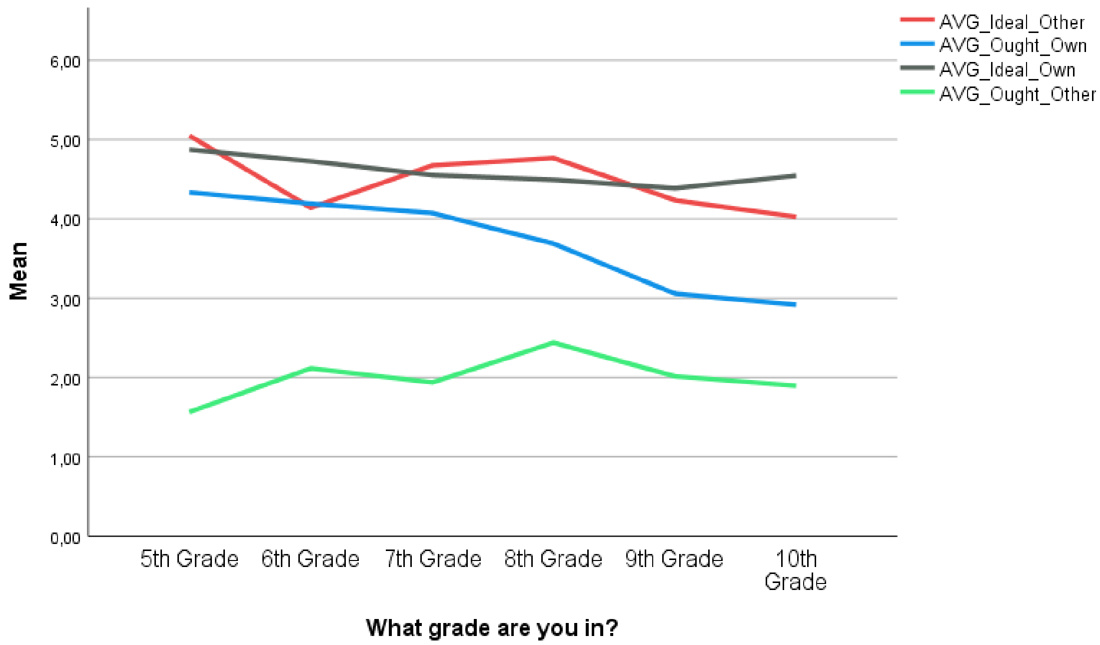
Table 5 presents the descriptive data on the L2 self-guides, emotions, and strategic inclinations in the 5th-10th grade. The table highlights different numbers calculated from the two data sets, including the mean (M), standard derivation (SD), and the median (Mdn). The analysis of the data indicated the ideal L2 selves, ideal/own and ideal/other, scored the highest of the self-guides as the mean varied between 4.0-5.0 for ideal/other, and 4.4-4.8 for ought-to/other. This means that the participants on average answered between somewhat agree (4) and agree (5) when answering items on ideal/other and ideal/own.

Table 5. *Mean, Standard Deviation, and Median for the Self-Guides, Emotions, and Strategic inclinations from 5th- 10th Grade.*

	5th grade (N=56)			6th grade (N=26)			7th grade (N=95)		
Concept	**Mean**	**SD**	**Median**	**Mean**	**SD**	**Median**	**Mean**	**SD**	**Median**
Ideal/other	5,0	0,8	5,0	4,1	0,8	4,2	4,7	0,8	4,7
Ought-to/own	4,3	1,3	4,5	4,2	1,2	4,0	4,1	1,4	4,0
Ideal/own	4,8	1,0	5.0	4,7	0,7	4,6	4,6	1,0	4,8
Ought-to/other	1,6	0,8	1,5	2,1	1,3	2,0	1,9	0,9	2,0
Enjoyment	4,7	0,9	4,8	3,9	1,1	3,9	4,1	0,9	4,3
Anxiety	2,9	1,3	3,1	3,1	1,1	2,8	3,3	1,2	3,2
Eager	4,0	1,0	4,0	2,9	1,1	2,8	3,2	0,9	3,3
Vigilant	3,1	1,0	3,0	3,5	0,9	3,6	3,5	0,9	3,5

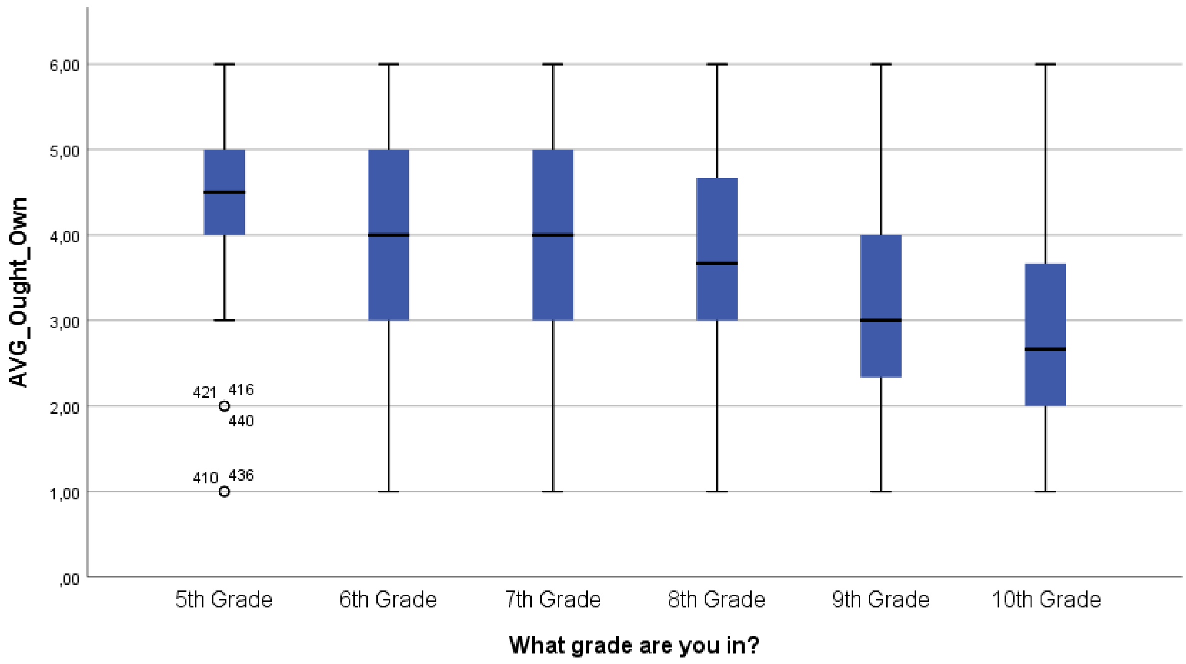
	8th grade (N=66)			9th grade (N=96)			10th grade (N=108)		
Concept	**Mean**	**SD**	**Median**	**Mean**	**SD**	**Median**	**Mean**	**SD**	**Median**
Ideal/other	4,7	1,	5,0	4,3	1,1	4,3	4,0	1,0	4,0
Ought-to/own	3,7	1,2	3,7	3,1	1,1	3,0	2,9	1,1	2,7
Ideal/own	4,4	1,1	4,6	4,4	1,3	4,6	4,5	1,2	4,7
Ought-to/other	2,4	1,1	2,3	2,1	1,1	1,8	1,9	0,8	1,8
Enjoyment	4,1	0,9	4,0	3,6	1,2	3,8	4,0	1,1	4,0
Anxiety	3,4	1,3	3,2	3,2	1,5	3,0	2,7	1,2	2,4
Eager	3,5	1,0	3,8	3,1	1,1	3,0	3,2	1,0	3,0
Vigilant	3,6	0,9	3,6	3,7	1,2	3,6	3,2	1,0	3,2

Figure 1. *Average Motivation of the Self-Guides from 5th -10th Grade.*



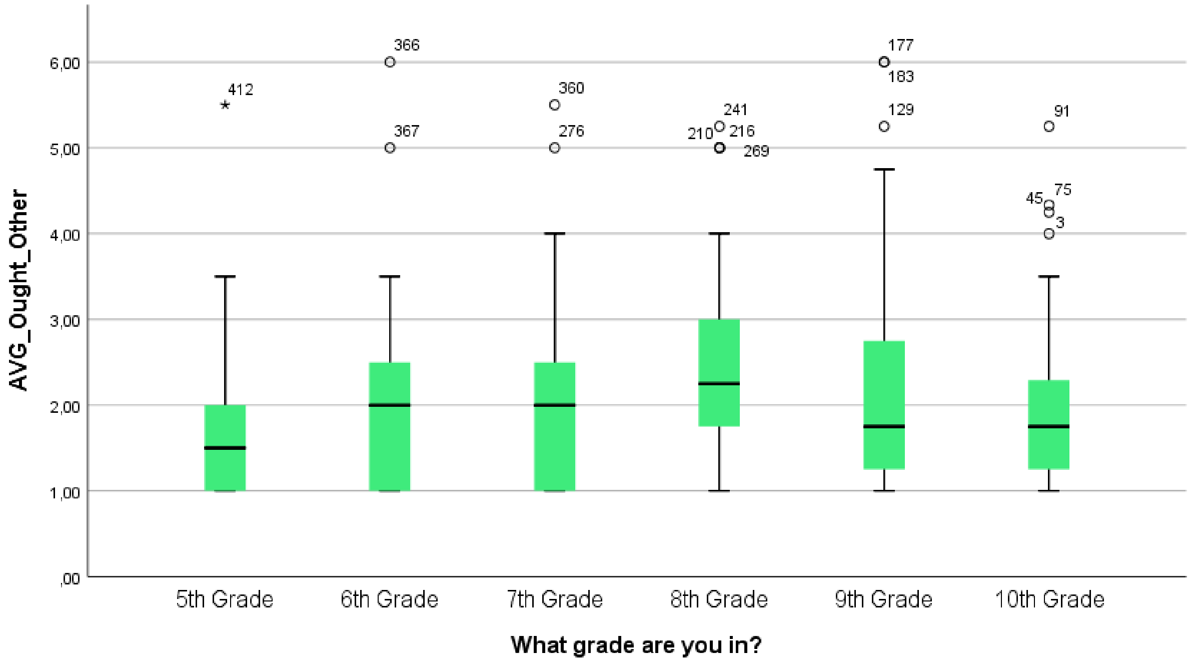
However, both Table 5 and Figure 1 show a decline in terms of the participants' ought-to/own motivation between the 5th to 10th grade, as the 5^{th-}grade average is 4.3 with an even higher median of 4.5 (SD 1.3), whilst the 10^{th-}grade average at 2.9 with a lower median of 2.7 (SD 1.1). The ought-to/other motivation is further presented in the box plot in Figure 2. A box plot indicates the different percentiles of the data, wherein each percentile includes 25 percent of the data, with the black line marking the median. The bottom black line to the closest boundary of the grey box marks the first percentile (Q1), the boundary of the box to the median marks the second percentile (Q2), the median to the other boundary of the box marks the third percentile (Q3), and the boundary of the box to the furthest black line marks the fourth percentile (Q4). The box plot might include some points outside the marked Q1-Q4 which indicate the data outliers, which are observations that are significantly different from the rest of the data set.

Figure 2. *Box Plot of Average Ought-to Other Motivation in 5th -10th Grade.*



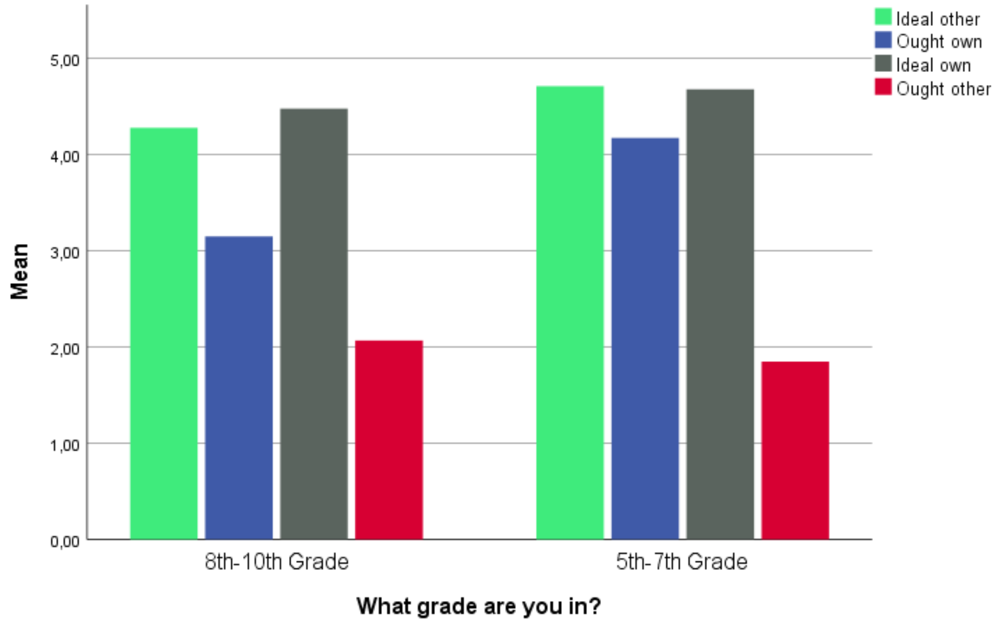
The box plot in Figure 2 indicates a decline in ought-to/own motivation between the 5th to 10^{th-}grade. The box plot for the 5th grade shows that all of the data, excluding five outliers, is between 3 and 6, with three of the percentiles between 4-6, which means that approximately 75% of the 5^{th-}grade learners averaged between "somewhat agree" and "strongly agree" when answering items on ought-to/own motivation. Next, we see that the median declines with almost each grade level and ends up at its lowest in the 10th grade. The 10th grade data set, in terms of ought-to/own motivation, ranges from 1-6, with a median of 2.7. The box plot in Figure 3 shows that over 50% of the 10th grade participants' answers on ought-to/own motivation average between 1-2.7, which means that half the ESL learners' average answer was between "somewhat disagree" and "strongly disagree". Finally, ought-to/other motivation presented the least neutral result, as both Table 5 and Figure 3 show that the average ranges between 2.6 - 1.6. The green line in Figure 1 is significantly lower than the other lines, indicating that the participants have stronger views that differ from the other future self-guides. In addition, the box plot in Figure 3 shows that many of the ESL learners disagree or strongly disagree on the different items regarding ought-to/other motivation, as the percentiles indicate that approximately half of the learners averaged between 1 (strongly disagree) and 2 (disagree) on the items regarding ought-to/other motivation. The data collected and shown in Table 5 indicates that the participants have higher motivation in terms of ideal L2 self, compared to ought-to L2 self which scored significantly lower. Interestingly the ought-to/own motivation was the only of the three that showed a decline in motivation between the 5th-10th grade, while the others were more unpredictable.

Figure 3. *Box Plot of Average Ought-to/Own Motivation in 5th -10th Grade.*



In addition to looking at the means per grade, figure 4 presents the data when looking at the average results from 5th-7th grade and 8th to 10th grade, which allows for the opportunity to compare the average answer of a primary school participant to a middle school participant. As seen in Figure 4, the participant showed a somewhat similar level of motivation as the ideal selves averaged between 4-5 for both the average primary and average middle school participant, and the ought-to/other averaged significantly lower between 1.9-2.1. The only exception is ought-to/own which is significantly higher amongst primary school participants with a mean of 4.2 (SD 1.3) compared to middle school participants who had a mean of 3.1 (SD 1.2).

Figure 4. *Average Motivation of the Self-Guides in 5th -7th Grade and 5th -10th Grade.*



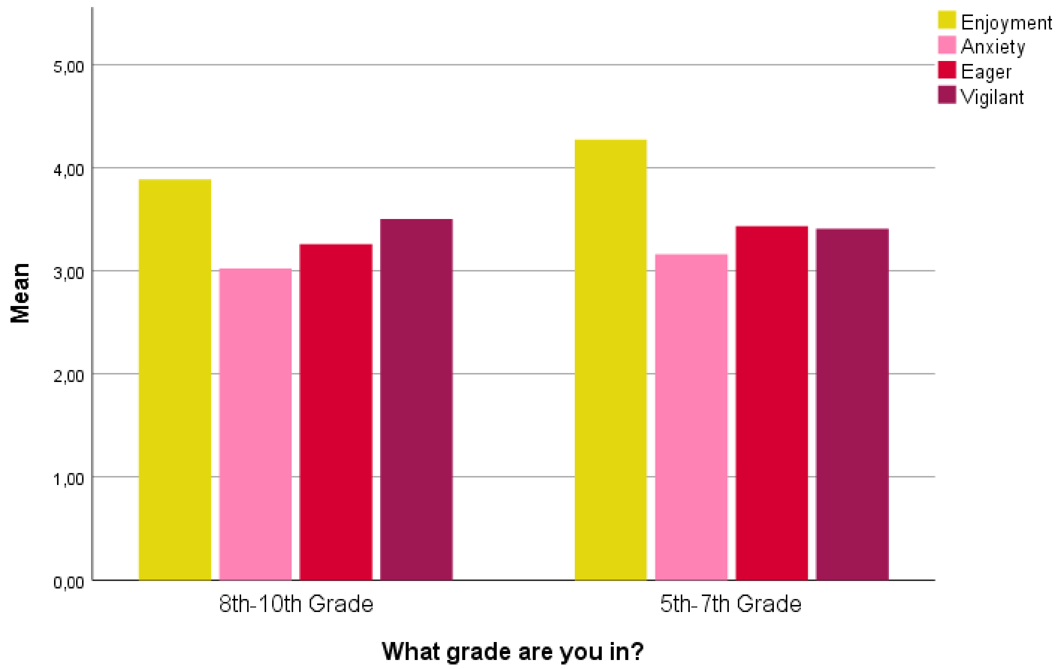
6.4.2 Emotions

Table 5 shows the participants' average level of enjoyment and anxiety in the ESL classroom. Firstly, the level of enjoyment varied between the grades without showing any clear tendency of inclination or declination. The 5th grade participants showed the highest means when compared with the other grades, with a mean of 4.7 (SD 0.9, Mdn 4.8). The 9th grade participants showed the lowest means when compared with the other grades with a mean of 3.6 (SD 1.2, Mdn 3.8). The bar graph in Figure 5 also shows that the difference between an average primary school participant (m 4,3, SD 1.0) and an average middle school participant (m 3.9, SD 1.1) is small, which can also be seen Table 5. Secondly, the level of anxiety varied between the grades. As seen in Table 5, the grade with the highest recorded means of anxiety is the 8th grade with a mean of 3.4 (SD 1.3, Mdn 3.2), whilst the 10th grade had the lowest recorded means of 2.7 (SD 1.2, Mdn 2.4). The data on anxiety, similar to the collected data on enjoyment, does not show a statistically significant difference between the average primary school participant and the average middle school participant. The average primary school participant had a mean of 3.16 (SD 1.0, Mdn 3.2), only slightly higher than the average middle school participant with a mean of 3.0 (SD 1.37, Mdn 3), which can be seen Table 5 and Figure 5.

6.4.3 Strategic Inclinations

Table 5 shows the participants recorded eager and vigilant tendencies when it comes to speaking English in and outside the ESL classroom. Similar to emotions, strategic inclinations show no clear tendency to incline or decline based on the grade. The data collected show that the mean eager and vigilant for the grades between the 5^{th} to 10^{th} grade all fall between 2.9 (somewhat disagree) - 4.0 (somewhat agree). Firstly, the 5^{th} graders show the highest recorded mean in terms of eager with 4 (SD 1.0, Mdn 4), whilst the 6^{th} grade recorded the lowest mean with 2.9 (SD 1.1, Mdn 2.8). Secondly, the 9^{th} graders show the highest recorded mean in terms of vigilance with 3.7 (SD 1.2, Mdn 3.6), whilst the 5^{th} grade recorded the lowest mean with 3.1 (SD 1.0, Mdn 3.0). Furthermore, when looking at the average middle school participant compared to the average primary school participant, which can be seen in Table 5 and Figure 5, the data collected indicate small differences in terms of eagerness and vigilance.

Figure 5. *Average Enjoyment, Anxiety, Eagerness and Vigilance in 5^{th} -7^{th} Grade and 5^{th} -10^{th} Grade.*



6.4.4 Test of Normality

A Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was performed to verify whether the collected data was normally distributed or not and to determine what statistical analysis to perform next, as some require the data to be normally distributed (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2018). The test was performed three times, first on the 5th-7th grade data set, then 8th-10th grade, and finally the entire data set 5th-10th grade. When the test of normality was performed it reported both the value for the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and the Shapiro-Wilks, but as the number of participants exceeded 50 in all three tests, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to determine normal distribution (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2018). The null hypothesis when using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality is that the data is normally distributed. This hypothesis can only be discarded if the P-value (p) is higher than 0.05, which indicates that the data is not normally distributed. The results from the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test are presented in Table 6. As can be seen from the data in Table 6, the results of the test vary, but the self-guides and enjoyment have a p-value < 0.01 in all three tests, which indicates that the data is not normally distributed. L2 anxiety and strategic inclinations have p-values higher than 0.01, however, p<0.05, which indicates that the data is not normally distributed. After performing the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test on the three data sets, the results indicate that the data is not normally distributed.

Table 6. *Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test of Normality on the Three Data Sets.*

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality		
Concept	5^{th} – 7^{th} grade P value	8^{th}-10^{th} grade P-value	5^{th}-10^{th} Grade P-value
Ideal/other	<0,001	<0,001	<0,001
Ought-to/own	<0,001	<0,001	<0,001
Ideal/own	<0,001	<0,001	<0,001
Ought-to/other	<0,001	<0,001	<0,001
Enjoyment	<0,001	<0,001	<0,001
Anxiety	0,04	<0,001	<0,001
Eager	0,02	0,01	0,01
Vigilant	0,03	0,02	0,01

6.5 Spearman's Correlation test

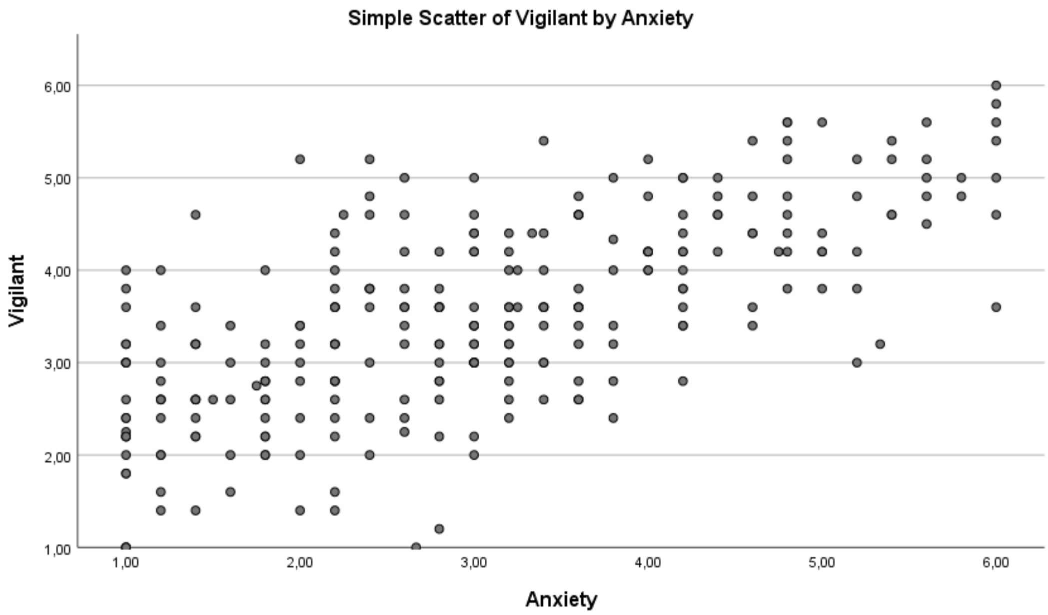
A Spearman's correlation test was performed to determine the correlation between anxiety and the self-guides, anxiety and motivation, and anxiety and strategic inclinations. Hauke and Kossowski (2011) state that "…Spearman's rank correlation coefficient is a nonparametric (distribution-free) rank statistic proposed by Charles Spearman as a measure of the strength of an association between two variables," (p. 87). As the research questions focus on the relationship between motivation and anxiety, we wanted to test whether there was a correlation between anxiety and the other continuous variables. We chose to perform Spearman's correlation test, as Pearson's' correlation coefficient test assumes the data is normally distributed, which is not the case in our data set. The data set meets all the assumptions for Spearman's correlation test, which are that the variables need to be ratio, interval or ordinal, that the variables are paired observations, and that there is a monotonic relationship. For the correlation to be deemed statistically significant it needs to be $p<0.05$. In addition, when performing a correlation test the coefficient will have a value between (-1.0)-1, with 0 indicating no correlation, 1 indicating a perfect positive correlation, and (-1) indicating a perfect negative correlation (Riazi, 2016). However, it is important to note that while the result might be statistically significant, the coefficient might be so low that it indicates a weak correlation. When performing this test both positive and negative values between 0.1-0.3 were categorised as weak, 0.4-0.6 as moderate, and 0.6-0.9 as strong correlations (Akoglu 2018). The Spearman's correlation test was performed on the 5th -7th grade data set, the 8th-10th grade dataset, and the combined 5th -10th grade dataset.

Table 7. *Spearman's Correlation for the Three Data Sets.*

Variable	**5th- 7th Grade**		**8th-10th Grade**		**5th-7th Grade**	
	Correlation Coefficient	P-value	Correlation Coefficient	P-value	Correlation Coefficient	P-value
Ideal/other	0,11	0,13	0,24	<0,001	0,2	<0,001
Ought-to/own	0,26	<0,001	0,43	<0,001	0,37	<0,001
Ideal/own	-0,38	<0,001	-0,22	<0,001	-0,28	<0,001
Ought-to/other	0,2	0,01	0,34	<0,001	0,27	<0,001
Eager	-0,28	<0,001	-0,52	0,4	-0,13	0,01
Vigilant	0,45	<0,001	0,67	<0,001	0,59	<0,001

Table 7 shows the results of Spearman's correlation test, with the correlation coefficients and p-values for the three data sets. When testing the 5th-7th grade data set, ought-to/own ($r=0.26$, $p<0.001$), Ideal/own ($r=-0.38$, $p<0.001$), ought-to/other ($r=0.2$, $p=0.01$), Eagerness ($r=-0.28$, $p<0.001$), and vigilance ($r=0,45$, $p<0.001$) all tested as statistically significant with $p<0.05$, and the correlation with L2 anxiety was found to be between weak and moderate. Ideal/other ($r=0.11$, $p=0.13$) was the only one to not indicate statistical significance with $p>0.005$. As can be seen in Table 7, the 8th-10th grade data set showed that ideal other (r=0.24, p<0.001), ought-to/own (r=0.43, p<0.001), ideal/own (r=-0.22, p<0.001), ought-to/other (r=0.34, p<0.001), and vigilance (r=0.67, p<0.001), all tested as statistically significant. All indicated a weak to moderate correlation with L2 anxiety, except vigilance, which indicated a strong correlation. Eagerness (r=-0.52, p=0.4) was the only concept to test as statistically insignificant with p>0.05. Finally, table 7 shows that ideal/other (r=0.2, p<0.001), ought-to/own (r=0.37, p<0.001), ideal/own (r=-0.28, p<0.001), eagerness (r=-0.13, p=0.01), and vigilance (r=0.59, p<0.001), which all testes statistically significant with a weak to moderate correlation to anxiety. What is interesting with this data is that anxiety and vigilance have the highest correlation in all three data sets, with the 8th-10th grade data indicating a strong correlation. The strong positive correlation found between L2 anxiety and vigilance in the 8th-10th grade data set can be seen in Figure 6, which indicates that as the average level of L2 anxiety increases, so does the average level of vigilance.

Figure 6. *Correlation Between Average Anxiety and Average Vigilance in the 8th -10th Grade.*



6.6 Binomial Logistic Regression Analysis

A binomial (often called binary) logistic regression analysis was performed to ensure the effect motivation and strategic inclinations have on the likelihood that ESL learners have L2 anxiety (Midi, Sarkar, & Rana, 2010). As our research questions inquire about the relationship between motivation and L2 anxiety, this analysis might help us understand whether factors such as motivation or strategic inclinations predict a student's level of L2 anxiety. We created a variable that categorised the ESL learners as either anxious or not anxious, which then became our dichotomous dependent variable (Riazi, 2016). Esl learners whose average level of L2 anxiety was between 1-3 were categorised as not anxious, whilst learners who averaged between 3.01-6 were categorised as anxious. We performed the analysis two times, firstly with self-guides as the independent variable, then with strategic inclinations. The analysis was performed on the 5^{th}-10^{th} grade data set.

6.6.1 Procedure, Assumptions, and Results

There are certain assumptions that need to be met before performing a binomial logistic regression analysis. Firstly, there needs to be a dichotomous dependent variable (Harris, 2021). After creating the new anxiety variable, this functioned as our dependent dichotomous variable, as there were two groups: "anxious" and "not anxious". Secondly, the independent variables have to be either continuous or categorical, which can be either nominal or ordinal (Harris, 2021). As our independent variables were the average future self-guides, and average strategic inclinations, these function as continuous variables. Thirdly, there must be independence of observation and mutually exclusive categories, which was the case with our data set, as we only had data from a questionnaire that was administered once (Harris, 2021). As a result, there was independence of observation. Finally, there needs to be a "…linear relationship between any continuous independent variables and the logit transformation of the dependent variable," (Harris, 2021), which after testing in SPSS was also deemed acceptable. The results for both the self-guides ($p=0.66$) and strategic inclinations (0.63) indicated a good model fit, as they scored >0.05. In addition, the Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients also indicated a good model fit, as all were statistically significant ($p<0.05$).

Table 8. *Binomial Logistic Regression Analyses Results on the 5th-10th Grade Data Set.*

	5th -10th Grade				95% C.I for EXP (B)		
	B	S.E.	P-value	df	Exp(B)	Lower	Upper
Ideal/ other	0,52	0,13	<0,001	1	1,69	1,31	2,12
Ought-to own	0,45	0,09	<0,001	1	1,56	1,30	1,88
Ideal/own	-0,6	0,11	<0,001	1	0,54	0,44	0,68
Ought-to other	0,4	0,11	0,001	1	1,5	1,19	1,9
Eager	0,15	0,11	0,19	1	1,16	0,93	1,45
Vigilant	1,29	0,14	<0,001	1	3,63	2,75	4,8

The results of the binomial logistic regression analysis can be seen in Table 8. firstly, we performed a binomial logistic regression analysis with L2 anxiety as the dependent variable and the future self-guides as the independent variable. The model explained 27% (Nagelkerke R^2) of the variance in anxiety, and correctly classified 70% of the cases. Increasing amounts of ideal/other (exp(B)=1.69, p<0.001), ought-to/own (exp (B) 1.56), and ought-to/other (exp(B)=1.5, p=0.001) were associated with an increased likelihood of having L2 anxiety, while ideal/own (exp(B) 0.54, p<0.001) was associated with a reduction in the likelihood of having anxiety. Secondly, we performed the analysis with anxiety as the dependent variable, and the strategic inclinations, eagerness and vigilance, as the independent variables. The model explained 32% (Nagelkerke R^2) of the variance in L2 anxiety, and correctly classified 71% of the cases. The results for eagerness (exp(B)=0.16, p=0.19) were not statistically significant as p>0.05. However, increasing amounts of vigilance (exp(B)=3.63, p<0.001) was associated with an increased likelihood of having L2 anxiety.

7.0 Discussion

In the following section, we will attempt to connect the findings of this study to the analysis and theoretical framework presented in Section 2 and 6. This section discusses the characteristics of the varying types of motivation that emerge in the Norwegian ESL classroom and their implications, as well as the theoretical and empirical perspective on L2 anxiety, L2 enjoyment, and the learning experience. Firstly, this section will delve into the average level of ought-to motivation in the Norwegian ESL classroom, followed by a discussion of the ideal self's significance. Thereafter, we will deliberate on how vigilance foresees strategic inclinations – how to approach the target language in a manner that reaches the desired goal. Next, we look at the correlation between L2 anxiety and vigilance. Then, we will describe the different future self-guides and whether they predict these to facilitate a positive or negative prediction of L2 anxiety. Lastly, this chapter will present limitations concerning the validity and generalisability of both the study and the questionnaire, as well as recommendations for future research and pedagogical implications.

7.1 The Significance of Ought-To/Other and Ought-To/Own Motivation

The possible selves are crucial for cognitive development as they serve as incentives for future behaviour, in addition, to evaluating and interpreting context for the current perception of the actual self (Markus and Nurius, 1986). However, the self that was made most prominent in this study is the *ought-to self*, which is a representation of the "…attributes that someone believes you should or ought to possess," (Higgins, 1987). In other words, it could be viewed as someone's sense of duty and responsibility that they feel they owe, whether it be to yourself or someone else. Combining the possible selves with self-state representation entails differentiating between who an individual's self-concepts derive from – either self-evaluation or an evaluation done by someone else. The results of this study imply the importance of**,** or rather lack of**,** ought-to self motivation in the Norwegian ESL classroom, specifically 5th through 10th grade. Our findings suggest that the participants do not feel any significant external pressure to acquire English language skills, and thereby feel no obligation to seriously pursue proficiency.

The theoretical section of this MA thesis refers to an empirical study conducted by Papi and Khajavy (2021), wherein the 324 participants, ranged from 18 to 38 years old, at an undergraduate level with a minimum of six years of English studies, which investigated different motivation mechanisms in an ESL classroom in Iran. It focuses on integrated regulatory focus, future self-guides, L2 anxiety and L2 enjoyment, eager and vigilant L2 use, and L2 achievement (Papi and Khajavy, 2021). Similarly to our study, Papi and Khajavy (2021) collected data from learners who are actively acquiring English as an L2, though at completely different levels. Therefore, it is only natural that the motivation is more situationally fitted.

Seemingly, the findings contradict Papi and Khajavy's (2021) study in that the average of ought-to/other is significantly lower in the adapted questionnaire, especially in middle school (5^{th} to 7^{th} grade) (see Table 5). This could be explained by the fact that our participants are children and do not experience academic pressure in the sense adult undergraduates might. Another point to be considered is that we as Norwegian researchers are not familiar with Iranian culture and are aware that we cannot make any assumptions regarding sociocultural influence on the undergraduates' answers. In contrast, we cannot be certain to which degree the sociocultural context affects the learners, either - even though we are more familiar with Norwegian culture, we should not assume that it naturally gives us knowledge about sociocultural influence (see section 5.1). Table 5 shows that the average ought-to/other in the 5^{th}-7^{th} grade varies between 1.6 to 2.1, which is slightly lower than the 8^{th}-10^{th} grade (1.9-2.4). These results suggest that the strength of this future self-guide does not change much, a finding which contradicts our original hypothesis. Before conducting any form of research, we believed that the L2 ought-to self-guide would be the strongest indicator of motivation, as that was the impression we were left with after finding similar results in Papi and Khajavy's (2021) Iranian study. However, after some consideration and careful analysis of the results, we were made aware that our findings are quite consistent with the psychological and pedagogical underpinnings of the future self-guides, which we will present in Section 7.2-7.4. Understandably, the undergraduates from Papi and Khajavy's (2021) study are expected to be accountable when pursuing a dissertation or majoring in specific fields, whereas children are not. This is also noticeable in Islam, Lamb, and Chambers' (2013) study on 1000 Pakistani university students, where the participants averaged 4.11, which is significantly higher than the averages found in this study (see Table 5). These differences might be a result of socio-cultural influences or the significant age difference between the Norwegian participants, and the Iranian, and Pakistani participants. Another quantitative study, conducted by Glory and Subekti (2021), suggests that a majority of the participants in their survey (N=190) were not motivated by their ought-to self because they "...believed that people around them did not consider their English mastery a priority," (p. 157). This appears to be the case with the present study's participants as well, due to the fact that the ought-to/other items average relatively low (1.6-2.4, see Table 5). It seems as though ESL learners do not consider expectations held by themselves or others a motivating factor in both studies. This could be explained by the suggestion made by Glory and Subekti (2021) that "...the social context in which the participants (…) lived could be less demanding," (p. 165) than originally hypothesised.

7.2 The Significance of Ideal/Own and Ideal/Other Motivation

The results of the analyses conducted in this thesis show that the L2 ideal self, both ideal self/own and ideal self/other, score significantly higher than any of the other future self-guides (see Table 5). As previously mentioned, the ideal L2 self refers to the "…imaginary picture of one's self as a fluent L2 user," and "…might act as a powerful motivator to reduce discrepancy between the here-and-now or actual self," (Papi, 2010, p. 468). As all self-states and self-guides prompt action, the ideal self/own and the self/other are great indicators of individuals' motivation. Dörnyei (2009) states that "…it is a central tenet in expectancy-value theories of motivation that the greater the perceived likelihood of goal-attainment, the higher the degree of the individual's positive motivation," (p. 36). In this case, imagining the ideal L2 self is considered to be a positive motivator. The results of the analyses might be explained by the fact that this study's participants are children aged 9-16, which means that it is only natural that their imagination is more actively utilised (Markus and Nurius, 1987), more so than with adults. Markus and Nurius (1987) further state that such mental imagery, specifically used to examine motivation, is a "…process of expanding our self by transcending our time and space and creating new images of the world and ourselves," (p. 16). With children, imagination is a powerful tool to create "…self-relevant, self-defining goals that provide incentive for action," (Markus and Nurius, 1987), which is why the results indicate that the ideal L2 self averages higher than the ought-to L2 self (see table 5 and figure 1). If one considers Papi and Khajavy's (2020) findings, one might notice a similarity to ours. Papi and Khajavy (2020) found that a chronic promotion focus, in addition to elation-related emotions, and eagerness might suggest that language learning is an "…inherently promotion-focused enterprise," (p. 29). That is, language learning is a process that is most efficient when the learner is enjoying acquiring the language and actively seeks "…growth, change, and advancement," (p. 29), which are terms often associated with those who are predominantly motivated by their ideal/own L2 self. These findings suggest a corroboration to those of our study and acknowledge the idea that language learning and emotions are highly interconnected and co-dependent. Another study, conducted by Higgins (1998), argues that the learners who hold a promotion focus are more likely to reach their goals by attempting to ensure matches – approaching desired end states, concerned with advancement, growth, and accomplishment (Higgins, 1998). Therefore, one might assume that having ideal/own L2 self driven motivation might leave a student less vulnerable to experiencing L2 anxiety, as

"…ideal strength increases, emotional evaluations related to (…) cheerfulness should be faster," (Higgins, 1998, p. 38). These predictors were analysed in our study as well, and the findings present similar results.

7.3 Anxiety and Vigilance

The results of this study indicate a significant correlation between L2 anxiety and vigilance, as both the 5th-7th grade data set and the 5th-10th grade data set suggests a moderate correlation, whilst the 8th-10th grade data set displayed a strong correlation. Furthermore, the binomial logistic regression analysis indicated that with every one unit increase in the average vigilance, the participants were 3.63 ($p<0.001$) times more likely to fall under the anxious category, averaging between 3.01-6 on the L2 anxiety items. This means that participants with a high average of vigilance were more likely to have L2 anxiety. This finding might also be connected to Higgins' (1998) regulatory focus theory, in that it is a common disposition to become vulnerable vis-à-vis feelings of L2 anxiety when the self-regulatory state is vigilance. Its primary function is to assure safety and nonlosses, however, it also contributes to heightening dejection-related and agitation-related emotions which are predictors of L2 anxiety (Higgins, 1987;1998). There are several possible explanations for these results. As stated in section 2, Gardner and MacIntyre (1994) define L2 anxiety as "...the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language contexts, including speaking, listening, and learning" (p. 284), and vigilance refers to the participants' apprehension in regard to speaking English. Firstly, the correlation between L2 anxiety and vigilance, which refers to both the inside and outside of the ESL classroom, might be because a student who experiences L2 anxiety is less likely to be eager in situations that involve English, as the tension and anxious feelings cause apprehension, which can hinder them from speaking, writing, or learning English. Secondly, focusing primarily on the ESL classroom, learners who experience feelings of L2 anxiety, tension, and possibly fear, in the English learning context, are naturally not focused on participating eagerly. They might be more focused on avoiding active participation, as they are then less likely to make a mistake. These findings are similar to those of Higgins (1998) when researching regulatory focus theory and how the hedonic principle (see section 2) influences motivation. This study shows that ESL learners who hold a prevention focus, often associated with the ought-to L2 self driven motivation, might cause them to experience agitation-related or dejection-related emotions, which are predictors of L2 anxiety (Higgins, 1998).

7.4 The Self-Guides Influence on L2 Anxiety

As mentioned in Section 3, a binomial logistic regression analysis showed that an increased amount of ideal/other, ought-to/own, and ought-to/other was associated with an increased likelihood of having L2 anxiety – which means that if a student averaged at high levels of motivation in terms of ideal/other, ought-to/own, or ought-to/other, they are more likely to average between 3.01-6 in terms of L2 anxiety. The significance of L2 anxiety is assumed to be dependent on the relation between your self-concept (actual self) and the future self-guides (Higgins, 1987), in this case, the ought-to L2 self and the ideal L2 self. One might also assume a person is more vulnerable to being exposed to L2 anxiety, heightened by dejection-related emotions such as disappointment and dissatisfaction, which is closely linked to individuals believing others or their own desires are unfulfilled (Higgins, 1987). These emotions occur whenever an individual's own standpoint or agency interferes with whichever hopes and desires they may hold (Higgins, 1987).

According to our findings, ought-to/own scores are somewhat similar to ought-to/other when predicting L2 anxiety. The binomial logistic regression analysis, as seen in Table 8, indicated that with every one increase in ought-to/own or ought-to/other motivation, the participants were 1.56 ($p<0.001$) times more likely to have L2 anxiety for ought-to/own, and 1.5 ($p=0.001$) times more likely to have L2 anxiety for ought-to/other. This means that participants who average higher in terms of ought-to/own and ought-to/other motivations are more likely to have L2 anxiety. Ought-to motivation can be described as "…the representation if the attributes that someone (yourself or another) believes you should or ought to possess," (Higgins, 1987). It then only becomes natural to feel anxious when trying to measure up to the expectations others or oneself hold of one's performance. When one feels as though they are not able to meet the established expectations, one might experience emotions such as fear – and is more specifically, "…anticipating sanctions from others for having violated their rules," (Higgins, 1987). The future self-guides, including the ought-to L2 self, represent the motives for motivation by giving it "…a specific cognitive form to the end states to the associated plans or pathways for achieving them," (Markus and Nurius, 1987, p. 961). The association might be a cause for L2 anxiety, especially if the expectations you or others hold remain unfulfilled. Similar to our findings, Glory and Subekti (2021) suggest that the higher the learner's perceived responsibility (ought-to/other) is, the more they appear to be vulnerable to L2 anxiety. This means that ESL learners have a tendency to feel more anxious when they feel like they cannot meet the expectations that are set regarding

their language performance. This statement supports our findings, in that ought-to/own motivation is a significant predictor of L2 anxiety.
Horowitz et al (1986) argue that because L2 anxiety concerns the performative aspect of academic and social contexts, it could be useful to draw parallels between L2 anxiety and three related performance anxieties; “1) communication apprehension, 2) test anxiety, and 3) fear of negative evaluation,” (p. 127). According to this notion, some learners might find it agitating or dejecting that others expect them to be or imagine them as proficient speakers of a target language, which is English in this study. Communication apprehension refers to the feeling of fear or shyness when attempting to communicate with others, additionally driven by anxiousness regarding what others expect of you (Horowitz et al, 1986). This is presented in Appendix 1, items 12 through 15. This concept might also be comparable to “stage fright”, according to Horowitz et al (1986), as some learners might feel bouts of anxiousness when having to communicate orally, or in dyads and bigger groups. However, one cannot exclude receiver anxiety, or feelings of agitation or dejection when having to listen and answer to a spoken message (Horowitz et al, 1986). When people talk, they expect to be understood to some degree. This expectation might lead to L2 anxiety in that a speaker feels as though they cannot meet the standards of communication that are expected of them (Horowitz et al, 1986, Higgins, 1987). Communication apprehension is also applicable to the classroom setting, as people who are typically anxious when speaking in groups “…are like to experience even greater difficulty speaking in an (ESL classroom) where they have little control of the communicative situation and their performance is constantly monitored,” (Horowitz et al, 1986, p. 127). The latter appears to be the main point regarding ought-to/own and ought-to/other driven motivation (Higgins, 1987). The feeling of being constantly evaluated and observed in an L2 context might cause an even bigger increase in L2 anxiety. Our ought-to items generally entail ideas of disappointing the ones you look up to because you do not meet their expectations, which not too many learners are familiar with. Whether this indicates that learners do not feel the amount of external pressure we hypothesised at the beginning of this study, or that the reason behind the pressure they do feel originates elsewhere. Our findings show that there is a likelihood of the learners developing some amount of L2 anxiety due to ought-to motivation, but not in a calibre that raises cause for concern.

Ideal/other motivation refers to what the learner believes their significant others (e.g., parents, siblings, or teachers) would ideally like them to become. The binomial logistic regression analysis indicated that with every one unit increase in the average ideal/other motivation, the participants were 1.69 ($p<0.001$) times more likely to fall under the anxious category, averaging between 3.01-6 on the anxiety items. This means that participants with a high average of ideal/other motivation were more likely to have L2 anxiety. A possible explanation for these results may be that ESL learners who are seemingly motivated by ideal/other motivation experience more dejected-related emotions when they are not able to match the ideal state that they believe a significant other or themselves (other/own) hopes they would have (Higgins, 1987). ESL learners who have a higher average of ideal/other motivation are more likely to experience feelings of disappointment and dissatisfaction with their own efforts in comparison to the ideals they or others have set for them, which might make them vulnerable to L2 anxiety (Higgins, 1987). Additionally, anxiety may rise at the thought of having "…failed to obtain some significant other's hopes and wishes," (Higgins, 1987, p. 322), and the learners might feel "…that the significant other is disappointed or dissatisfied with them," (Higgins, 1987, p. 322).

Surprisingly, ideal/own motivation was the only self-guide where a high average motivation did not signal a greater likelihood of L2 anxiety. As seen in Table 8, the binomial logistic regression analysis indicated that with every one unit increase in the average ideal/own motivation, the participants were 0.54 ($p<0.001$) times more likely to fall under the anxious category. This means that participants with a high average of ideal/own motivation were less likely to have L2 anxiety. These findings seem to be consistent with the findings of Peng (2015), which also emphasises a negative correlation between anxiety and ideal L2 self. Higgins (1998) highlights how the L2 ideal selves are related to hopes, aspirations, and wishes, and the ideal/own self guides a person's own desires, and how they envision themselves in the future. As this self-guide is not related to others' or one's own expectations of oneself, but rather hopes and aspirations for the future, there might be fewer negative associations related to this self-guide. The ideal L2 self has a promotion focus, based on hopes, aspirations, dreams, advancement, and growth, and emphasising possibilities, rather than necessities (Dörnyei, 2009). This promotion focus, compared to the ought-to self's prevention focus, displays an inclination to approach the target language concerning oneself with positive outcomes (their presence and absence) (Higgins, 1998). Higgins (1998) highlights how a promotion focus emphasises eagerness to attain goals, which are considered to be hopes and aspirations. ESL learners with a high ideal/own motivation would attempt to approach matches and work towards the desired end state. Unlike prevention focus, promotion focus does not necessarily cause L2 anxiety, as it is focused on positive possible outcomes (Higgins, 1998). The results of this study suggest that ESL learners with a high level of ideal/own motivation are less likely to have a high average L2 anxiety. It could be argued that this is because the participants have a high promotion focus, focusing more on achieving the possible positive outcomes, instead of striving to obtain what oneself or others envision one should be.

The research questions of this MA thesis inquire about the relationship between motivation and L2 anxiety, and which types of motivation predict L2 anxiety in the Norwegian ESL context. As previously mentioned, having high ought-to/other, ought-to/own, and ideal/other motivation could be considered to be a positive predictor of L2 anxiety. However, having high ideal/own motivation seemingly functions as a negative predictor of L2 anxiety. It is important to acknowledge that there are many different influences on motivation, and we as researchers cannot be sure what factors lead to having ought-to L2 self or ideal L2 self motivation, as we do not have direct insight into the participants' psyche.

7.5 Validity and Generalisability Limitations

It is important to acknowledge that as two researchers we have certain biases, which might have influenced this research project. This section discusses different biases that might be encountered in our unique situation as both researchers and the participants' teachers. A major concern with this study is social desirability bias, which explains how some of the answers might be contaminated due to participants answering what they believe is more socially acceptable rather than what is truthful. Next, we present the bias which might occur when choosing the participant pool, i.e., the reasoning behind excluding ESL learners whose L1 is not Norwegian. Finally, we present the limitations in terms of analysis, and how lack of knowledge might hinder us from discovering important information from the data set.

7.5.1 Social Desirability Bias

After administering the questionnaire in the different schools, we have considered the fact that the ESL learners might have social desirability bias, which Gordon (1987) highlights as a common error in survey research. While we as researchers were not present during the administration, the ESL learners were still aware that their response would help our master thesis. Grimm (2010) defines social desirability bias as the "…tendency of research subjects to choose responses they believe are more socially desirable or acceptable rather than choosing responses that are reflective of their true thoughts or feelings,", which we believe might have influenced the learners' responses. While we were not present in the classroom, the learners still had a relationship with one of the researchers, which might have influenced their responses. If the learners felt a social responsibility, or felt certain answers were more acceptable, they might have checked a different answer on the Likert scale. While we have no way of knowing, we hypothesise that some learners might answer that they are more motivated to learn English and that they like to learn English, just to appease us, as we in many cases have taught English in their classes. Not only might the ESL learners have been influenced by their wish to choose answers they believe desirable by the researchers, but they might also be affected by societal and cultural expectations. The fact that we were not present during the administration of the questionnaires might have minimised the influence, as Grimm (2010), and Dodou and Winter (2014) emphasise that face-to-face questionnaires are more likely to increase the amount of social desirability bias. In addition, Dodou and Winter (2014) state that there is no significant difference in social desirability bias when conducting an online questionnaire compared to a paper questionnaire. Nevertheless, it is important to acknowledge that social desirability bias is likely to have affected the reliability of the results.

7.5.2 Participant Limitation

The number of participants in the study affects the validity of the result. Despite the substantial total number of participants, 447, in this research project, the number is far from equally distributed amongst the five grades. As seen in Table 1, the number of participants from the 10^{th} grade (108) is over four times higher than the number of 6^{th} grade participants (26). Therefore, when speaking about an average 6^{th} grader and an average 10^{th} grader, the data on the 6^{th} grade is statistically weaker, as it is based on less data. Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2018) highlight the importance of acknowledging the weightings of the different sub-groups after collecting the data, as it can affect the findings. Therefore, it could be advantageous to focus on gathering an approximately even number of participants from each grade level in future research.

Another weakness in the master thesis is the exclusion of leatners with an L1 that is not Norwegian. Whilst we stand by the decision to not include ESL learners who are not capable of completing a questionnaire in Norwegian, as a result of research ethics and a lack of resources, we still view this as a limitation when considering the generalisability of our findings. As teachers working in Norwegian schools, we would argue that an average Norwegian classroom is often diverse, in terms of ethnic background, and often includes ESL learners who do not have Norwegian as their L1. As ESL learners who are incapable of answering a Norwegian questionnaire were excluded from the administration, we would argue that this affects the generalisability of our findings. This effectively limits our possibility to generalise the data collected, and make statements about the “Norwegian classroom”, because the Norwegian classroom is highly diverse.

7.5.3 Analysis Limitations

There are certain limitations to the analysis that need to be mentioned. Firstly, when we altered the 5^{th}-7^{th} grade questionnaire, the ought-to/own ultimately only included one item, and the ought-to/other concept ended up with only two items. In the analysis, we use the average of the different future self-guides to measure and compare the different grades' average motivation. As a result of the changes to the questionnaire, the average ought-to/own is calculated solely based on one item, and the average ought-to/other is calculated from two items. We would argue that the answers on one item, and even two, contribute too little data to measure an overall average on that self-guide for the 5^{th}-7^{th} grade. Ultimately this is a weakness in our dataset, which should be rectified in future research.

In addition, we find it important to acknowledge our limitations in terms of the statistical analysis. None of those involved in this master's thesis are statisticians or have any experience in running complicated statistical analyses. Therefore, there is a clear limitation in terms of what kind of statistical analyses we are capable of performing. In the results section we focus mainly on descriptive statistics, calculating average, median, and standard deviation, which we visualise using different tables, charts, and graphs. In addition, we perform a test of normality, Spearman's correlation test, and binary logistic regression analysis. We believe that in possible future research, more complicated statistical analysis should be prioritised, as this master thesis might overlook interesting findings as a result of our lack of statistical abilities.

Finally, another weakness in the dataset is that in the final analysis, we chose to divide the average anxiety data into two categories, anxious and not anxious, which we may argue is a too simplified solution. Ideally, we would have explored the level of anxiety more closely, as someone who averages 3.01, which is between “somewhat disagree” and “somewhat agree”, was in this analysis categorised as anxious. L2 anxiety is a too complex concept to be so strictly divided into two, as the level of anxiety among the student varies. However, because of our lack of statistical experience, we were not capable of performing a more nuanced analysis on the data set. A binomial logistic regression analysis assumes that there are two dichotomous variables, which in our case were *anxious* and *not anxious*, and allowed us to perform a complex analysis on a dataset, which was simplistically divided. Possible future research would ideally prioritise processing the data differently and perform different analyses, which might provide more insight, and make it possible to obtain more information regarding the future self-guides, L2 anxiety, L2 enjoyment, eagerness, and vigilance.

7.6 Implications

This section presents the research and pedagogical implications of this study. The research implications address the affordances of investigating the notions of L2 anxiety and L2 enjoyment in an ESL classroom further, particularly in Norway, and suggest considering another approach to obtain more extensive findings. Additionally, this section discusses the pedagogical implications of adjusting the L2MSS to better benefit the Norwegian ESL classroom, as well as how our findings might be of help for teachers when attempting to determine which type of motivation ESL learners have to manage the classroom in a way that is most suitable and appropriate for them.

7.6.1 Research Implications and Future Directions

So far, this particular method (Papi and Khajavy's questionnaire, 2021) has only been applied to one specific setting with culturally and socially specific restrictions. In our study, we translated and altered the already piloted and administered questionnaire to better suit our research questions and context. As previously stated, we considered applying a qualitative method or mixed method, with a view to the fact that motivation is such a multifaceted and complex phenomenon it is difficult to evaluate and describe. We thought it would be easier for children to verbally explain their thought processes and opinions regarding motivation and how they experience the L2 classroom activities. It was made clear to us after extensively discussing our dilemma, both between ourselves and with our supervisor, that children might not be able to put words to such an abstract concept, much less give explanations that would benefit our thesis. Additionally, applying a qualitative method to motivation research appeared to be much too broad a task for a MA thesis. However, it became evident that the questionnaire as a research method grants very superficial answers and we are not able to find in-depth answers or elaborations. With regard to this, it would be interesting to observe how a mixed method would apply to our specific research questions. Having the opportunity to ask questions and have the participants expound their answers would add more depth to the study, and indeed, more fleshed-out findings.

According to Dörnyei (2004), "…respondent anonymity is often undesirable in survey research, because without proper identification we cannot match survey data with other sources of information obtained about the same participants," (p. 80). In future research undertaking similar research questions, it would be beneficial to have access to the classrooms of the participants in order to observe i.e., teacher behaviours, the classroom atmosphere, teaching strategies, and the classroom materials. However, anonymity also grants the participants with a feeling of safety, which might consequently lead to less "…self-protective and presumably more accurate answers," (Dörnyei, 2004, p. 80). Keeping both of these statements in mind, we ultimately chose to administer an anonymous questionnaire due to our pressing timeline, but if one disregards temporal pressure, a mixed method would have given more subjective data that allows for more extensive research.

So, the challenge for future research then becomes to view motivation as a dynamic process rather than as a fixed set of variables (Dörnyei, 2014). The future self-guides are a great way of gaining insight into what drives learners toward gaining English proficiency. However, being motivated by the ought-to L2 self, for instance, does not necessarily mean the L2 learners are not motivated by the ideal L2 self. This study presents which future self-guide makes itself most prominent in 447 ESL learners, but does not touch much upon the delicate interplay between the different future self-guides. Indeed, as presented above, some self-guides might lead to L2 anxiety or L2 enjoyment, but the discrepancy that could possibly occur is not discussed. In section 2, we mention Higgins' (1987) self-discrepancy theory, and how this might have a negative effect on the overall L2 performance and feelings of anxiousness. In future research, it might be fruitful to look into how inconsistencies between the self-guides might lead to negative emotions (dejection-related or agitation-related emotions, Higgins, 1987), and how one might avoid this as a teacher through motivation-facilitating strategies.

This thesis has mainly focused on the future self-guides, which we believe are key components to future motivation research. Gaining a deeper understanding of what drives ESL learners to pursue a target language might be of great help when establishing motivational teaching practices. Being aware of whether one's learners hold, for instance, an ought-to L2 self or an ideal L2 self perspective might help teachers set specific learner goals, make learning stimulating and enjoyable, and present tasks in a motivating way (Dörnyei, 2014). The findings of this thesis suggest that focusing motivational strategies on the learner's future vision might prove to be beneficial.

7.6.2 Pedagogical Implications

One might also raise the question of whether ESL learners are motivated in order to approach serenity or to approach accomplishment. That is, do ESL learners strive toward target language proficiency to avoid negative consequences from external factors (i.e., teachers, parents, society), or do they work toward being proficient speakers of the target language to gain more possibilities (i.e., work, school, social status)? Answering such a question might prove to be challenging, as motivation is such an individual concept and entails a vast variety of unambiguous understandings. If one is to strip away all disagreement regarding the term, one can view motivation very simplistically as "…the fundamental question of why people behave as they do," (Dörnyei, 2014, p. 519). And thus, student behaviour determines which motivational direction that is most applicable to their attributes. A variety in motivation types is only natural when a big group of individuals is involved – one cannot expect an entire class to hold identical views of motivation. According to our findings, the majority of the learners appear to be motivated by their ideal L2 self, an imagery of what kind of L2 speaker they would like to become in the future. However, one cannot answer whether the learners strive toward serenity or accomplishment without doing more extensive research, perhaps even altering the research method altogether, as previously mentioned.

"The future self-guides are only effective if they are accompanied by a set of concrete action plans," (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 37). Dörnyei (2014) states that the language learning process is inherently social and therefore "…cannot be meaningfully separated from the social environment within which (the learner) operates," (p. 529). The findings in this study show that learners do not feel pressure from external forces, such as parents, teachers, or society to master English and become proficient English speakers (see Table 5). It then becomes natural to assume their motivation derives from their ideal perception of their future self (ideal L2 self). As learners do not appear to acquire English as a result of being fearful or anxious (debilitating and facilitating anxiety), one can wonder if they pursue it simply because they desire to. In earlier sections, we mention that English has become a global language, and having language skills might serve as an instrument for promotion in the future. According to our research (see Table 5), many learners seem to be aware of this and appear to work eagerly in English class simply because they want to become proficient.

7.7 Conclusion

The present study was designed to determine the relationship between motivation and L2 anxiety and research what types of motivation predict L2 anxiety in the Norwegian ESL context. To scrutinise this relationship, we performed an online questionnaire in three different schools in Trøndelag, with a total of 447 participants, asking 5th-10th grade learners to answer items, 28 items for 5th 7th grade and 34 items for 8th -10th grade, that measured their self-guides, emotions, and strategic inclinations. The questionnaire administered was a modified and Norwegian version of Papi and Khajavi’s (2021) questionnaire, which was adapted and translated to better fit the participants’ language, age, and emotional maturity. The evidence from this study suggests that Norwegian 5th -10th grade learners likely more motivated by their ideal L2 self than their ought-to L2 self, as especially ought-to/other averaged low across the board. Performing a binomial logistic regression analysis revealed that learners with higher levels of ought-to/own, ought-to/other, and ideal/own motivation were more likely to have L2 anxiety. Whereas learners who had a high level of ideal/own motivation were less likely to have L2 anxiety. One reason for the relationship between ought-to motivation and anxiety could be that ought-self motivation promotes a prevention focus, unlike the ideal L2 self, and ESL learners with ought-to L2 self motivation might attempt to avoid negative possible outcomes, which can cause anxiety-related emotions (Higgins, 1998). Therefore, as ideal/own has a promotion focus, and relates to one’s own hopes and aspirations, and positive possibilities, it does not generate the same anxiety-related feelings as when one attempt to live up to what others expect. The generalisability of these results is subject to certain limitations, such as limitations in terms of analysis, social desirability bias, and the number and choice of participants. However, despite its limitations, the research project extends our knowledge of motivations in the Norwegian ESL classroom, especially considering the different future self-guides and how they predict L2 anxiety. This knowledge could be advantageous for teachers to gain insight into what drives the ESL learners, and motivates them to learn English, working towards proficiency. Our findings suggest that no student is solely motivated by one future self-guide, but rather a combination of all the future self-guides, thus, the knowledge from this research project could possibly help teachers understand the reasoning behind a student’s L2 anxiety. However, more research is needed to understand the relationship between motivation and L2 anxiety, and what self-guides predict L2 anxiety in the Norwegian context. This thesis proposes to focus on the relationship between the future self-guides and motivation, and how this relationship might affect the ESL learners’ L2 anxiety. According to our findings, we can assume a correlation between the future self-guides and L2 anxiety, and how this has a direct impact on learning a second language in educational and non-educational settings. Therefore, our suggestion is that future research may investigate the complex and dynamic interplay between self-guides and L2 anxiety, and how it might negatively and positively affect motivation.

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Appendix

Appendix 1 Questionnaire Items in English

Items of 2 × 2 L2 Motivational Self System

Ideal/other

1. If I master the English language, the people who are important in my life will be proud.
2. My family will be proud of me if one day I master the English language.
3. I want to learn to speak English fluently to make the people who are important in life proud.

Ought-to/own

4. If I don't work on my English, I will have problems in my professional/academic life.
5. If I don't work on my English, it will negatively affect my social status (Only 8^{th} -10^{th} grade)
6. If I don't work on my English, I will fail in my future career (Only 8^{th} -10^{th} grade).

Ideal/own

7. On day I will be able to speak English very easily and fluently.
8. I can imagine a day when I speak English like a native speaker of English.
9. I can imagine a day when I speak English fluently with international friends/colleagues.
10. I can imagine a day when I write effectively and read fluently in English.
11. I can imagine a day when I use English effectively to communicate with people from all around the world.

Ought-to/other

12. I will disappoint those who are important to me if I fail to master the English language (Only 8^{th} -10^{th} grade).
13. If I don't improve my English, I will have to face my family's blames and criticisms.
14. If I don't improve my English, my family/teachers will lose confidence in me (Only 8^{th} -10^{th} grade).
15. If I don't improve my English, people who are important in my life may think poorly of me.

Emotions

Enjoyment

16. I enjoy learning English.
17. I enjoy the challenge of learning English materials.
18. I enjoy learning new English words.
19. I enjoy speaking in English.

Anxiety

20. I become nervous when I don't understand all the words that English teacher says.
21. I get nervous when I don't understand what teacher says in English.
22. In the English class, I feel shy to answer the questions voluntarily.
23. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class.
24. I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in English class.

Strategic inclinations

Eager

25. I communicate with different people to improve my English.
26. I put myself in situations where I can frequently use English to interact with others (Only 8^{th} -10^{th} grade).
27. I take advantage of every chance I get to use practice my English in my classes.
28. To improve my English, I frequently ask questions and volunteer answers in my classes.
29. I take advantage of every opportunity to practice my English.

Vigilant

30. I don't speak English too much to avoid making mistakes.
31. I speak English only when I have to.
32. I speak English in my classes only when I have to.
33. If I see a person from another country, I try to avoid them so that I don't have to speak English.
34. I avoid speaking in English when I feel someone is going to judge me (Only 8^{th} -10^{th} grade)..

Appendix 2 Questionnaire Items in Norwegian

Items of 2 × 2 L2 Motivational Self System

Ideal/other

1. Hvis jeg mestrer engelsk vil de som er viktige for meg bli stolte
2. Familien min vil bli stolt hvis jeg klarer å lære meg engelsk.
3. Jeg vil lære meg å snakke flytende engelsk for å gjøre de som er viktige for meg stolte

Ought-to/own

4. Hvis jeg ikke jobber med engelsken min, vil det gi meg problemer i framtiden..
5. Hvis jeg ikke jobber med engelskferdighetene mine, vil det ha negativ påvirkning på min sosiale status (Only 8^{th} – 10^{th} grade).
6. Om jeg ikke jobber med engelsken min, vil jeg ikke mestre min framtidige jobb (Only 8^{th}-10^{th} grade).

Ideal-/own

7. En dag vil jeg kunne snakke engelsk flytende og uten problemer.
8. Jeg kan se for meg at jeg en dag snakker engelsk like bra som en engelsk person.
9. Jeg kan se for meg at jeg en dag kan snakke flytende engelsk med venner som ikke snakker norsk.
10. Jeg kan se for meg at jeg en dag kan skrive og lese engelsk uten problemer.
11. Jeg kan se for meg at jeg en dag kan bruke engelsk til snakke med mennesker fra hele verden.

Ought-to/other

12. Jeg kommer til å skuffe de som er viktige for meg om jeg ikke mestrer engelsk (Only 8^{th}-10^{th} grade)
13. Hvis jeg ikke blir bedre i engelsk vil familien min mene det er min feil og kritisere meg for det.
14. Hvis jeg ikke forbedrer engelsken min, vil familien min/lærerne mine miste troen på meg (Only 8^{th}-10^{th} grade).
15. Hvis jeg ikke blir bedre i engelsk vil de som er viktige for meg se ned på meg.

Emotions
Enjoyment
16. Jeg liker å lære engelsk.
17. Jeg liker at engelsk kan være utfordrende.
18. Jeg liker å lære meg nye engelske ord.
19. Jeg liker å snakke engelsk.

Anxiety
20. Jeg blir nervøs når jeg ikke forstår alle engelskordene læreren min sier.
21. Jeg blir nervøs hvis jeg ikke forstår hva læreren min sier på engelsk.
22. I engelsktimene er jeg for nervøs til å rekke opp hånden og svare på spørsmål.
23. Jeg blir nervøs og forvirret når jeg snakker i engelsktimene.
24. Jeg kjenner hjertet mitt dunke når læreren stiller meg spørsmål i engelsktimen.

Strategic Inclinations
Eager
25. Jeg snakker med folk som snakker andre språk enn norsk for å bli bedre i engelsk
26. Jeg setter meg selv i situasjoner hvor jeg må bruke engelsk for å kommunisere med andre (Only 8th -10th grade).
27. Jeg utnytter hver sjanse jeg har til å snakke engelsk i klasserommet.
28. Jeg stiller ofte spørsmål og svarer frivillig på spørsmål for å forbedre engelsken min.
29. Jeg utnytter hver mulighet til å øve meg i engelsk.

Vigilant
30. Jeg snakker ikke engelsk ofte, fordi jeg vil unngå å si feil.
31. Jeg snakker engelsk kun når jeg må.
32. Jeg snakker engelsk i klasserommet kun når jeg må.
33. Hvis jeg møter en person som ikke snakker norsk, prøver jeg å unngå de, så jeg slipper å snakke engelsk.
34. Jeg unngår å snakke engelsk når jeg føler noen kommer til å dømme meg for det (Only 8th -10th grade).

Appendix 3: Item Order in the Two Questionnaires

Page:	**Item-number**	
	5th-7th grade	**8th-10th grade**
1	Information	Information
2	Consent	Consent
3	Grade, age, gender	Grade, age, gender
4	16, 2, 29	16, 2, 26, 29
5	7, 24, 28	7, 12, 24, 28
6	1, 9, 11, 23	1, 9, 11, 23
7	33, 19, 17,4	33, 19, 17,4
8	3, 32, 21	14, 3, 32, 21
9	30, 20, 10	30, 20, 10, 34
10	27, 25, 8	27, 5, 25, 8, 6
11	31, 22, 15, 13, 18	31, 22, 15, 13, 18

Appendix 4: Informed Consent Form

Spørreundersøkelse om motivasjon og språkangst

Dette er et informasjonsskriv til foreldre og foresatte angående en undersøkelse som vil bli gjennomført med flere mellomtrinns- og ungdomsskoleklasser ved Skatval Skole, Fosslia Skole og Verdalsøra ungdomsskole i løpet av våren 2023. Under vil vi beskrive prosjektet i detalj, samt informere om dine rettigheter og vedlegge kontaktinformasjon.

Formål

Formålet med dette forskningsprosjektet er å få økt kunnskap om hva som motiverer barne-og ungdomsskoleelever til å lære engelsk, og i hvilken grad elevene opplever at det de lærer er nyttig. Denne informasjonen er viktig for å kunne forbedre og videreutvikle nåtidens engelskundervisning og avdekke ulike fallgruver og negative sider med hvordan engelskundervisningen ser ut i dag.

Videre vil dette forskningsprosjektet bli brukt i et **masterprosjekt** ved Nord Universitet, Levanger. Det vil:

- undersøke hva som motiverer elevene til å lære seg engelsk. Dette inkluderer hvilken type motivasjon elevene allerede har.
- sammenligne hvordan motivasjonstype og motivasjonsnivå endres når femteklassinger beveger seg til et høyere nivå med større krav, da for eksempel tiende klasse.
- innebære en systematisk undersøkelse av driv og engasjement.

Undersøkelsen er **fullstendig anonym** og krever ingen personlige opplysninger av deltakerne.

Hvem er ansvarlig for dette prosjektet?

Fakultet for Lærerutdanning, Kunst og Kultur ved Nord Universitet er ansvarlig for dette prosjektet.

Hvorfor skal barnet ditt delta?

Barnet ditt får denne forespørselen om å delta i forskningsprosjektet fordi deres svar vil være med på å informere fremtidige lærere om hvilke aspekter ved engelskundervisningen som motiverer, og hvilke som demotiverer. Slike kunnskaper og slik informasjon vil være hjelpsom for nye lærere, spesielt i planleggingen av hvordan undervisningsløpet skal se ut. Samtidig er målet vårt å være en del av kvalitetssikring av engelskundervisning i den norske konteksten, og da vil det være naturlig å gå til roten av saken for innspill – nemlig elevene. Videre, er denne undersøkelsen er en del av en masteroppgave der to studenter ved Nord Universitet er forventet til å forske i forskjellige pedagogiske kontekster og samle inn data. Vi håper å rekruttere 200-500 elever for denne undersøkelsen. Alle elever oppfordres til å delta slik at vi får mest mulig data vi kan analysere.

Hva innebærer deltakelse?

Det eneste som vil bli brukt til å samle inn data er en anonym spørreundersøkelse via nettskjema. Å delta vil bety at eleven skal svare på diverse spørsmål, formulert på norsk. Undersøkelsen inkluderer spørsmål angående elevmotivasjon og språkangst. Elevene vil bli spurt om å:

- ta stilling til ulike påstander
- uttale seg om forskjellige uttalelser er sanne eller usanne

Undersøkelsen vil foregå i ca. 15-30 minutter. Svarene vil bli dokumentert og vil bli ivaretatt for senere forskning. Siden denne undersøkelsen er anonym, vil ingen annen informasjon bli innsamlet eller brukt ved senere anledning. Hvis ønskelig, kan spørreundersøkelsen bli gjort tilgjengelig for foresatte i forveien.

Deltagelse er frivillig

Det å delta i denne undersøkelsen er frivillig. All informasjon som blir samlet inn er anonym, og deltagelse påvirker ikke vurdering i fag. Som et resultat av at undersøkelsen er helt anonym så vil det ikke vær mulig å trekke seg etter man ha gjennomført undersøkelsen, da vi ikke har mulighet til å identifisere spesifikke elevsvar.

Personvern

Personopplysninger og identifiserende informasjon vil ikke bli brukt i denne undersøkelsen. Det vil heller ikke være mulig for elevene å tilføye identifiserende informasjon.

- De som vil oppbevare og ha tilgang til innsamlet data er Linn-Renate Granås Haave, Nora Kristine Pettersen, og veileder Saeed Karimi Aghdam Ordaklou
- Prosjektet vil etter planen avsluttes 15.mai 2023

- Etter prosjektslutt vil datamaterialet ikke slettes, men kunne gjenbrukes til for eksempel forskning

Hvor kan jeg få mer informasjon?

Hvis du har spørsmål angående undersøkelsen eller dine rettigheter, ta kontakt med:

- Nord Universitet via Linn-Renate Granås Haave, Nora Kristine Pettersen, and Saeed Karimi Aghdam Ordaklou.
- Vårt personvernombud: Toril Irene Kringen (personvernombud@nord.no)
- NSD- Norsk senter for forskningsdata, via e-post: (personverntjenester@nsd.no) eller telefon: +47 55 58 21 17

Trekke fra deltagelse

Hvis du ikke ønsker at ditt barn skal delta i undersøkelsen, send e-post med barnets navn og klasse til:

- Skatval Skole og Fosslia Skole til Linn-Renate Granås Haave (linnhaave99@hotmail.com)
- Verdalsøra Ungdomsskole til Nora Kristine Pettersen (norpet@verdal.kommune.no)

Trekking fra deltakelse bør vi helst informeres om innen 18.januar 2023

Med vennlig hilsen

Saeed Karimi Aghdam Ordaklou	Linn-Renate Granås Haave	Nora Kristine Pettersen
Prosjektleder	Student	Student
(Veileder)		