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UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHAMPTON

FACULTY OF HUMANITIES

Modern Languages

The dynamic nature of individual experiences in study abroad: Motivational perspectives, language contact and the development of social relationships

by

Kassie Amanda Cigliana

Thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHAMPTON

ABSTRACT

FACULTY OF HUMANITIES

Department of Modern Languages

Thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

**THE DYNAMIC NATURE OF INDIVIDUAL EXPERIENCES IN STUDY ABROAD:
MOTIVATIONAL PERSPECTIVES, LANGUAGE CONTACT AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF
SOCIAL RELATIONSHIPS**

Kassie Amanda Cigliana

Drawing on a number of theoretical frameworks in second language acquisition, the current study investigates a group of American learners of Spanish (N=73) as they spend a semester in Spain, studying in either Barcelona or Granada. Individual differences such as pre-program L2 proficiency, attitudes and motivational perspectives are examined in order to determine if they have any relationship with the students' development of social relationships while abroad, with a particular focus on the students' interactions, or lack thereof, with Spanish speakers. The study also employs a longitudinal approach in order to trace any changes in these affective variables. Data from observations and informal interviews are utilised to support the analysis and uncover any emergent themes which can be seen to impact on the residence abroad.

The findings indicate that the students' experiences are extremely varied, especially when comparing those who study in Barcelona with those who study in Granada. Attitude and motivational orientations also change dramatically throughout the SA program, with most tending to decline over the period of time abroad. The results suggest that such changes are largely dictated by the individual experiences of the learners, with social interaction playing a key role in linguistic development. The results demonstrate that both cultural and linguistic motives prove key in explaining learner behaviours abroad, thus providing support for analysis of second language acquisition abroad from a Dynamic Systems Theory perspective.

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DECLARATION OF AUTHORSHIP

I, KASSIE AMANDA CIGLIANA declare that this thesis and the work presented in it are my own and has been generated by me as the result of my own original research.

THE DYNAMIC NATURE OF INDIVIDUAL EXPERIENCES IN STUDY ABROAD: MOTIVATIONAL PERSPECTIVES, LANGUAGE CONTACT AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF SOCIAL RELATIONSHIPS

I confirm that:

1. This work was done wholly or mainly while in candidature for a research degree at this University;
2. Where any part of this thesis has previously been submitted for a degree or any other qualification at this University or any other institution, this has been clearly stated;
3. Where I have consulted the published work of others, this is always clearly attributed;
4. Where I have quoted from the work of others, the source is always given. With the exception of such quotations, this thesis is entirely my own work;
5. I have acknowledged all main sources of help;
6. Where the thesis is based on work done by myself jointly with others, I have made clear exactly what was done by others and what I have contributed myself;
7. Parts of this work have been published as: Cigliana, K.A. (2015) Rethinking data collection on language contact: The language contact score. *Emergence: Humanities Postgraduate Research Journal*, 7, 7-16.

Signed:

Date:

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Abbreviations

ACTFL	American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages
ALTE	Association of Language Testers in Europe
AMTB	Attitude/Motivation Test Battery
BCN	Barcelona
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
DELE	Diploma de Español como Lengua Extranjera
ERASMUS	European Region Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students
GRA	Granada
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
LCP	Language Contact Profile
LCS	Language Contact Score
M	Mean
Md	Median
Min	Maximum Value
Max	Minimum Value
N	Indicates number of participants
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
OPI	Oral Proficiency Interview
<i>p</i>	Indicates statistical significance at $p \leq .05$
R	Range

rho	Rank Order Correlation
SA	Study Abroad
SD	Standard Deviation
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
T1	Time 1 (of data collection)
T2	Time 2 (of data collection)
T3	Time 3 (of data collection)
TELC	The European Language Certificate
US	United States of America
Z	Value that represents the critical number of standard deviations away from the mean needed to reject the null hypothesis in certain statistical tests

Definitions

- American:** Refers to an individual or entity that comes from the United States of America
- Intercambio:** A language exchange, typically held between two people who are learning languages. In this study, intercambios refer to English and Spanish exchanges
- Receptor Culture:** The receptor, or host, culture is the culture present in locations where the students aim to study. In this case, the receptor culture may be considered Spanish or Catalan
- Target Language:** The language that an individual intends to learn. For the purposes of this study, the target language is typically Spanish

Chapter 1: Overview

The practice of traveling abroad for educational purposes, and specifically for the acquisition of a second language and knowledge of other cultures is ever growing in popularity and necessity. Language skills and intercultural competence are becoming increasingly more valuable in a globalised world: as international travel is becoming more accessible, these linguistic and intercultural skills are becoming necessary, not just for tourism, but also for globalised trade practices (Block and Cameron, 2002). In the past two decades, the number of students enrolled in an educational program outside their country of citizenship has more than tripled with an increasing number of students going abroad ever year (Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development [OECD], 2013). More specifically, the practice of 'study abroad', whose primary purposes centred on becoming proficient in a second language (L2), is becoming ever more popular, particularly in the US and Europe (Farrugia *et al.*, 2012; European Commission, 2014).

Kinginger (2009, p. 11) defines 'study abroad' as "a temporary sojourn of pre-defined duration undertaken for educational purposes," and scholars have proposed a number of benefits associated with it. Perhaps most salient to the current research project is the notion that study abroad (SA) has long been seen as a useful means of achieving vital second language skills as bilingual or multilingual competency becomes an ever-increasing essential commodity. In terms of language acquisition, many believe that study abroad may be the "ultimate opportunity to practice a foreign language" (DeKeyser, 2007, p. 209) and that those who spend time abroad eventually become proficient in their chosen language of study (Freed, 1998). Valls Ferrer (2011) further comments on how the SA context exposes learners to certain L2 concepts and characteristics that cannot easily be replicated in a traditional language classroom. SA has also been found to motivate individuals to pursue new or further language study after returning home from a sojourn abroad (Allen, 2010).

Further to the linguistic benefits, a number of studies also illustrate how study abroad can help learners to develop an understanding of different cultures. Murphy *et al.* (2014), p. 1 refer to study abroad as a "vehicle for building students' global competence" and describe how spending time abroad may influence open-mindedness and cultural awareness. It is considered to be one of the most effective means through which an individual can develop

linguistic and intercultural competencies in a context which can normally not be replicated in the learner's home country (Gore, 2005; Byram and Feng, 2006; Valls Ferrer, 2011). Furthermore, a study of over 1000 US undergraduate students carried out by Vande Berg, Connor-Linton and Paige (2009) found that those who studied abroad had significantly more 'intercultural development,' or skills for dealing with cultural difference, than those who did not, therefore highlighting the importance of a sojourn abroad in developing these significant intercultural skills.

A number of further non-linguistic outcomes have also been identified in recent years, suggesting that benefits of study abroad are not simply limited to language and cultural learning. A recent study was conducted on over 6000 graduates from U.S. higher education institutions on the long-term effects of study abroad on what has been termed 'global engagement.' Paige *et al.* (2009) found that the impact of study abroad was not simply limited to linguistic skills or interests, but had a strong impact on the participants' social/professional lives, further academic choices and/or global engagement activities. Murphy *et al.* (2014) further this contribution by stating that students who have studied abroad are more likely to maintain personal relationships with individuals from other cultural backgrounds and participate in 'internationally-oriented leisure activities.' These studies demonstrate that SA has a wide impact on the lives of sojourners and therefore merits special attention, especially when considering the benefits it might have to linguistic, personal, professional and intercultural development.

Yet while the potential benefits of SA are widely recognized, the extent to which learners acquire intercultural competencies and, more specific to the current study, how the sojourners acquire language, is generally inconsistent because of the number of factors at play in any given learning context. For example, Coleman (2009) discusses a 'taxonomy' of 20 different variables which have the potential to affect the outcomes of a sojourn abroad including factors such as type of SA program, sojourn duration, potential support from a home institution and whether students travel abroad with the true intention of learning language. Factors such as cultural and educational backgrounds have also been shown affect the language-learning outcomes of a sojourn abroad (Brecht *et al.*, 1995; Freed, 1995b, 1998; Teichler, 2004; Zhang, 2007; Brown, 2009a; Coleman, 2009; Yu, 2010; Coleman and Chafer, 2011) while more recently, Dewey *et al.* (2014) considers how a group of learners with very similar cultural backgrounds can have exceptionally different

language-learning experiences depending on where they choose to study. Yet perhaps most important to the current study, other researchers have pointed out that the individual differences among the sojourners themselves and their experiences abroad are most influential, citing aspects such as pre-program L2 proficiency, attitude, motivation and social relationships developed while abroad as being particularly determinant of successful language acquisition (DeKeyser, 1991; Seigel, 1995; Freed, 1998; Kinginger, 2008; Coleman, 2009; Dörnyei, 2009a; Lord, 2010; Llanes *et al.*, 2012).

1.1 Rationale

The purpose of the current study is, therefore, to acknowledge the complexity of language learning in a SA context and to further the investigations of those individuals who choose to study abroad. More importantly, it challenges the notion that study abroad automatically leads to gains in second language ability by foremost examining these individual traits among students, how they utilise their time abroad, and how contextual factors might impact on language learning. It ultimately hopes to lead to a better understanding of to what extent these sojourners take advantage of the opportunity to immerse themselves in another culture and community.

The study draws inspiration from a number of prominent themes in second language acquisition (SLA), sharing the premise that individual differences and experiences among language learners are key to understanding their successes and possible failures abroad. Yet, because of the many inconsistencies throughout the literature, the extent to which these individual differences truly affect language learning in SA is still contested.

In order to shed light on these inconsistencies, the study takes a comprehensive, longitudinal, mixed-methods approach, based on the need for more holistic studies to examine 'whole people and whole lives' (Coleman, 2013) rather than simply measuring various areas of linguistic development after a period of time abroad. To achieve this, the study employs both quantitative and qualitative analyses drawing on linguistic proficiency exams, reflective questionnaires and observational data of students abroad over two three-month semesters; through such analysis, the limitations of utilising a single approach are revealed, highlighting the need to investigate the experiences of SA students both as a group and on an individual basis. As a result, the project reveals overall trends in student

perceptions and language development, whilst at the same time identifying which individual traits, experiences and/or external influences might facilitate or hinder integration and linguistic development.

In doing so, this approach sets the current study apart from those relying exclusively on qualitative analysis (Campbell, 1996; Isabelli-Garcia, 2006; Kinginger, 2008; Brown, 2009a; Goldoni, 2013; Jackson, 2013; Wolcott, 2013; Kinginger, 2015) and those whose primary focus is quantitative data (Gardner *et al.*, 2004; Dewey, 2008; Hernández, 2010; Dewey *et al.*, 2012; Llanes *et al.*, 2012; Serrano *et al.*, 2012; Tragant, 2012; Juan-Garau *et al.*, 2014; Watson and Wolfel, 2015) in order to provide a more holistic picture of the study-abroad experience. Moreover, the longitudinal design of the study provides an extra dimension through which the dynamic nature of the chosen variables can be examined quantitatively (Larsen-Freeman, 2002; Dörnyei, 2005; Ellis, 2007; Larsen-Freeman, 2012; Kormos and Csizér, 2014; Trenchs-Parera and Juan-Garau, 2014; Dörnyei *et al.*, 2015; Ushioda, 2015). Equally, the qualitative and observational data aim to either support, or, in some cases, reveal inconsistencies in the quantitative data as a means to gain a more comprehensive perspective on individual experiences of a largely diverse group of students. As a result, the study reaffirms Coleman's (2015) support for such comprehensive approaches, which are necessary in order to investigate language learning that takes place outside of the classroom, despite being much more demanding than traditional quantitative studies. The individual differences to be investigated are as follows:

First, linguistic proficiency upon arrival in the country of study has long been a topic of investigation with many inconsistent findings (Brecht and Davidson, 1991; Meara, 1994; Brecht *et al.*, 1995; Freed, 1995a; Magnan and Back, 2007; Coleman, 2009). While a number of studies have found that learners with initially lower L2 proficiency make the most progress (Dyson, 1988; Brecht *et al.*, 1990; Lapkin *et al.*, 1995; Milton and Meara, 1995; Coleman, 2009; Beattie *et al.*, 2014; Juan-Garau, 2014; Mora, 2014), others argue that those with a higher initial proficiency ultimately make more gains (Bialystok, 1993; Freed, 1998; Magnan and Back, 2007; Cubillos *et al.*, 2008; Llanes, 2011). The current study sheds light on these prior inconsistencies by incorporating this variable into the investigation, both by means of a proficiency exam and through observational data.

Second, affective factors such as attitude (Miller and Ginsberg, 1995; Kinginger, 2009a; Coleman and Chafer, 2011; Llanes *et al.*, 2012) and motivation (Gardner, 1985b; Isabelli-

Garcia, 2006; Dörnyei, 2009a; Hernández, 2010; Ushioda and Dörnyei, 2012) have been shown to influence sociocultural adaptation and language learning, but to differing extents in different contexts. In relation to American sojourners, pre-conceptions of what it means to study abroad might also be of particular importance in influencing behaviours conducive to language learning, especially if any initial expectations are unmet, possibly resulting in the emergence of ethnocentric perspectives (Gore, 2005; Isabelli-Garcia, 2006; Kinginger, 2008; Ogden, 2006). Furthermore, the dynamic nature of these affective factors might also impact on a learner's success or failure in acquiring a language as they evolve over a period of time (Gardner *et al.*, 2004; Dörnyei, 2005; Ellis, 2007; Kim, 2009; Ushioda, 2009; Tragant, 2012); few investigations, however, have examined the dynamic tendencies of these variables longitudinally in a SA context with a large participant group (Gardner, 1985b; Gardner *et al.*, 2004; Dörnyei *et al.*, 2006; Isabelli-Garcia, 2006; Kinginger, 2008; Dörnyei, 2009c; Llanes *et al.*, 2012; Serrano *et al.*, 2012; Tragant, 2012; Kormos and Csizér, 2014).

Thus, the current study adds to this growing body of research by investigating these two affective variables, drawing on both the qualitative and quantitative data collected throughout the participants' residence abroad. Additionally, these variables are analysed from the perspectives of two theoretical frameworks, the socio-educational model (Gardner, 1985b, 2006, 2010) and the process-oriented model (Dörnyei and Ottó, 1998; Dörnyei, 2005, 2009b, 2009c), before evidence is presented in favour of the process-oriented model as a means to understand more clearly how these affective variables impact on each other, the learners' behaviours, and how they might develop over time.

Student backgrounds, previous L2 studies and pre-program proficiency are also examined in relation to attitude and motivation, further to Coleman's (2009) taxonomy of variables affecting SA. An additional focus is placed on identifying any 'critical' moments of importance for the learners which may serve to either alter or solidify particular attitudinal or motivational perspectives. As a result, Dörnyei's (2009b) 'L2 motivational self system,' based on the process-oriented model, is determined to be the most logical and effective means through which the relationship between motivation, the learning environment and language-learning behaviour can be explained. Evidence presented also supports the need for both observational and quantitative data in the examination of motivation and attitude in order to identify overall trends as well as salient individual experiences.

Thirdly, the study considers the importance of language contact (Freed *et al.*, 2004a; Segalowitz and Freed, 2004) and social interactions (Campbell, 1996; Pellegrino, 1998; Wilkinson, 1998; Isabelli-Garcia, 2006; Duff, 2007; Kinginger, 2008; Coleman, 2015), and how the aforementioned affective variables might affect the development of social relationships while abroad. Time spent in contact with the target language has long been recognized as a major determinant of language learning success, however the extent to which learners interact with native speakers is highly unpredictable and difficult to accurately measure (Freed *et al.*, 2004a; Díaz-Campos, 2006; Magnan and Back, 2007; Dewey, 2008; Hernández, 2010; Bown *et al.*, 2015). More recently, studies have attempted to investigate student friendship groups and social relations in order to more closely understand interactions among students and host locals, but again many learners find their efforts to connect with the host community unsuccessful for a number of reasons (Isabelli-Garcia, 2006; Kinginger, 2008; Brown, 2009a; Coleman and Chafer, 2011; Dewey *et al.*, 2013a; Coleman, 2015; Mitchell *et al.*, 2015). Others have shown that SA students return home feeling disappointed with the amount of time they found to interact with native speakers wherein the reason for this lack of interaction is highly complex (Pellegrino, 1998; Wilkinson, 1998; DeKeyser, 2010).

Therefore, in order to better understand these inconsistencies in learner interaction and why many might not be connecting with the target culture in the way in which they originally envisioned, the social relationships formed by the participants abroad are likewise analysed from both qualitative and quantitative perspectives. This approach then allows for a statistical comparison between language contact and other salient affective variables, whilst equally facilitating a more in-depth analysis of individual relationship patterns through the qualitative and observation data collected.

To conduct such an analysis, the study draws inspiration from two different perspectives: social networks (Milroy, 1980; Milroy and Milroy, 1985; Dewey *et al.*, 2012; Dewey *et al.*, 2013a; Mitchell *et al.*, 2015) and communities of practice (Wenger, 1998; Eckert and Wenger, 2005; Eckert, 2006; Goldoni, 2013; Bracke and Aguerre, 2015). Subsequently, the study argues that the communities of practice framework serves as stronger foundation from which to analyse how relationships are formed among the learners and the target language community and the extent to which such relationships are facilitative of language learning. As a result, the application of the communities of practice framework furthers

the need for both qualitative and quantitative analysis, particularly in explaining why the relationships established by the learners might not match their initial expectations.

Finally, while all of the variables mentioned above have been shown to influence second language acquisition in a SA context to some extent, no single study has attempted to account for all of the variables together within one participant group. As Lord (2010) suggests, rather than a single variable contributing to linguistic development, investigating a combination of variables could be more advantageous in understanding what patterns of factors truly determine success in second language acquisition. In addition, Dörnyei (2009a) highlights the difficulties in measuring these dynamic relationships between individual differences and the learners' actions and interactions while abroad. Therefore, an important consideration in this project must be to consider not only the changes in learners' perceptions and motivations over a period of time, but also how these aspects interact for each participant and what may cause them to change.

In order to achieve this, the current study draws on a combination of analytical frameworks in order to determine which individual traits and combinations of traits, if any, are responsible for the acquisition of these learners' second language in a study abroad context. This is first undertaken by using largely quantitative methods as a means to determine patterns of learner experience, followed by the use of more qualitative methods to explore the possible reasons behind such trends, particularly among changes in affective factors. Finally, a culminating argument is presented which favours the employment of the process-oriented model of L2 motivation (Dörnyei and Ottó, 1998; Dörnyei, 2005, 2009a, 2009b) and the communities of practice framework (Wenger, 1998; Eckert and Wenger, 2005) in tandem as a more effective means to simultaneously explore learner behaviour, social interaction, and the underlying social and psychological factors influencing learners' perceptions as they navigate their receptor communities. The resulting evidence reveals an incredibly diverse range of participant experiences, influences and perceptions throughout the SA context that could not be explored using quantitative methods alone, further supporting the need to investigate language learning abroad from a multi-dimensional perspective.

1.2 Research Questions

The rationale for the study, therefore, gives rise to a number of research questions that the study hopes to address throughout the analysis and discussion:

1. To what extent do language-learning attitudes and motivations develop and change over a period of time abroad, and what reasons might cause these changes to occur?
2. To what extent do salient individual differences among participants, such as pre-program proficiency, attitude, and motivational perspectives, affect the development of social relationships and L2 acquisition in a SA context?
3. To what extent do the participants' backgrounds and the learning environment, including the program sites of Barcelona and Granada, support or hinder the development of social relationships and linguistic skills while abroad?

1.3 The Study

The current study follows a group of 73 American students who chose to study Spanish for one semester in either Barcelona or Granada, Spain. In keeping with the longitudinal approach, data was collected three times throughout the program duration on the participants' linguistic development as well as their attitudes, motivations, friendship networks and social interactions. The data collection methods include proficiency exams, questionnaires, informal interviews, and observations, and the data were analysed using both quantitative and qualitative methods. The analysis utilises such a mixed-methods approach in order to more effectively understand any relationships, or lack thereof, among the many 'individual differences' variables being studied. Key examples taken primarily from the qualitative and observational data are used to both support quantitative trends as well as to explain any inconsistencies in the data. The analysis demonstrates certain key commonalities among the participants, whilst highlighting salient individual experiences which would not be otherwise revealed without the critical combination of observational and interview-based data. Details of the participant group, the program sites and the program structure are provided as a means to contextualise the study within the wider SA and SLA literature.

1.3.1 Participants

A total of 73 American university students, ages 19-26 (Male= 32, Female= 41), participated in this study. The participants themselves were selected because of their enrolment in a particular SA program in either Barcelona or Granada with which the researcher had already pre-established a working relationship and intentions for carrying out the project. The participants chose to study for one semester in either Barcelona or Granada, Spain, and though originally from various cities and universities across the US, all participants studied through this particular program managed by a private university in the North-Eastern US, during their residences abroad. With permission and assistance from the program directors, data was gathered from individuals who studied in the Fall 2013 or Spring 2014 semesters from each program site, each of which lasted approximately 13 weeks. 42 participants partook in the Barcelona program (Fall= 18, Spring= 24), while 31 participants partook in the Granada program (Fall= 15, Spring= 16).

The choice to study American sojourners comes from the researcher's own experience as a SA student many years ago in Spain and her first-hand knowledge of just how varied the experiences for American students are, especially in terms of language acquisition. As a former SA student herself, much of the researcher's inspiration for the project developed from these experiences. Furthermore, the American student population abroad follows the world trend in that SA numbers have more than tripled in the past two decades (Farrugia *et al.*, 2012), creating an interest in its booming popularity.

It is also important to note some qualities of the American SA student population which are key in contextualising the study and its participants within the relevant literature regarding SA and SLA. Equally, such traits are essential to consider throughout the analysis and interpretation of participant data: In particular, qualities such as the initial reasons for choosing to study abroad, the students' perceptions on what it means to 'study abroad' in a different education context, the structure of 'typical' American SA programs, and the US Higher Education system itself may prove to be especially relevant, while salient examples are also provided in order to distinguish the American participants from sojourners of other cultural backgrounds.

First, the initial motives of American SA students for choosing to study abroad should be taken into account, particularly as motivation is a key theme of the present study. While

the principal focus of the current study relates to motivation for learning a language, several recent studies now suggest that the desire to know another culture is also significant for American students, particularly as they make an initial decision to study abroad (Sánchez *et al.*, 2006; Kinginger, 2008; Stroud, 2010; Luo and Jamieson-Drake, 2015). Though the present study does not gather information of motives prior to the participants' arrival in Spain, it is important to note that such cultural curiosity is a key factor for many American sojourners, and may actually serve as a predictor of whether a student more likely to study abroad (Stroud, 2010; Luo and Jamieson-Drake, 2015).

These initial motives are also key in understanding the motives of American students abroad when compared to other student sojourners. Most significantly, a study by Sánchez *et al.* (2006) found that both the desire to learn a language and the desire to gain cultural understanding were factors in determining whether American university students decided to study abroad, whereas language learning did not seem to be a significant factor in potential sojourners from France and China. In contrast, the Chinese students aimed to 'gain new experiences' whilst the French students were interested in culture, but did not cite language learning as a particular motivator (Sánchez *et al.*, 2006); such a study highlights the differences among students from different backgrounds and how language, as well as culture, could be particularly important for American students who choose to study abroad in non-English-speaking destinations.

Equally, the perceptions and expectations of American students when undertaking a residence abroad are especially relevant to the analysis. One such expectation is that host locals will openly communicate with the American sojourners, particularly in practicing target language skills (Goldoni, 2013). Similarly, Kinginger's (2008) American learners of French cite an expectation to improve their French-language abilities *and* to participate in perceived French cultural and leisure activities during their stays abroad in France. In line with Kinginger (2008), Gore (2005) would classify many of these participants as relating to the dominant discourses portraying study abroad: sojourners perceive the SA experience as a chance to explore a new culture on a type of extended 'vacation' whilst the academic commitments of the sojourn are of secondary importance. Of course, Gore's (2005) dominant discourse cannot be applied to all SA students, where students from Kinginger's (2008) study and others (Isabelli-Garcia, 2006; Whitworth, 2006; Dewey *et al.*, 2012) did indeed see the SA experience as a challenge to develop both personally and academically.

However, Gore's (2005) notion of both dominant and alternative discourses provides evidence that the perceptions of American students are key in analysing their behaviours abroad.

Additionally, these perceptions can also be compared to students from other cultural backgrounds, whose expectations of studying abroad appear to be quite different from the American perspective. For instance, Mitchell (2012) found that many European students travel abroad throughout Europe as a means to gain an international perspective and to live amongst Europeans and other nationalities. According to Mitchell (2012) very few of these students, in fact, expected to acquire proficiency in the language of their receptor culture, signalling a distinctive contrast to the American group. Moreover, students from Africa (Maringe and Carter, 2007) and China (Sánchez *et al.*, 2006; Bodycott, 2009) focus more so on the academic, and later potential economic, benefits of studying abroad. In all cases, the perceptions of SA provide a distinction for the American group that is worth noting in future analyses and in comparisons with other sojourners.

In addition to students' own expectations of a residence abroad, it is also necessary to consider the structure of the academic programs which facilitate their transition to living and studying in another country. Such programs may play a key role shaping students' experiences abroad, particularly in the case of American sojourners.

Coleman's (1997, 1998, 2009) descriptions of typical American SA programs highlight their importance in investigating US students abroad. For instance, Coleman (2009) regards many American SA programs as 'within program study abroad' wherein the students travel abroad with a pre-arranged group to complete only a small fraction of their academic degree requirements. Moreover, he claims that these typical American programs actually serve as an extension of a US-based educational curriculum: course syllabi and assessment typically reflect that found within US universities, and program staff may be trained to provide a similar level of support to what American students might expect in the US (Coleman 1997, 2009). In addition, program leaders scaffold the transition from one cultural context to the next by hosting orientational meetings, and program staff and fellow American sojourners provide a supportive environment through which the receptor culture can be explored (Coleman, 1997, 2009; Odgen, 2007).

As a result, the American SA students are very much dependent on the SA program structure to provide stability in their educational administration and pastoral support where needed (Ogden, 2006; Coleman, 2009). Coleman (1997) argues that such dependence on the part of the American sojourners actually leads to them having very little autonomy in integrating into their receptor culture, which contrasts the previous expectations of language-learning and cultural integration (Pellegrino-Aveni, 2005; Kinginger, 2008). The reliance on fellow SA participants may also impact on the group's collective perceptions of the receptor culture, possibly resulting in ethnocentric attitudes and fewer opportunities to utilise the target language (Coleman, 1997, 2009).

Coleman then distinguishes this program structure with the European model, whereby students travel to a new country of residence and enrol in university modules with little support from an overarching program. Thus, the European students are left to establish their own communities amongst the receptor culture, despite perhaps having different goals and expectations of their residence abroad (Coleman, 1997, 1998; Sánchez *et al.*, 2006; Mitchell, 2012). Whilst it must be assumed that not all US students abroad rely heavily on their program staff for support, the potential exists that the students perceive the SA program site and staff as being a source of comfort and normality when compared to the different educational and cultural norms of the receptor community.

Finally, the structure of the US Higher Education system provides further evidence in understanding the perceptions and behaviours of the American students. For the vast majority of students studying at American institutions, study abroad is not a requirement for completing a degree course; therefore, the majority of the students, in both this study and in general, have elected to pursue this optional opportunity. Additionally, it should be mentioned that this fact is true of foreign language degree courses studied at American institutions, although the exact nature of the requirements for each participants' degree program. This is a contrast from many European institutions who either require students to study in a foreign institution for an extended period of time or simply offer this opportunity through the European Community Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students (ERASMUS) which is sponsored by the European Commission (European Commission, 2016). Due to its optional nature, the vast majority of American sojourners, 96.1% in 2012, elect a SA program which lasts one academic semester or less (Farrugia *et al.*, 2012). This also signals a distinct difference from groups of sojourners

outside of the US, who may be more likely to spend a year or more abroad (Sánchez *et al.*, 2006; Maringe and Carter, 2007; Bodycott, 2009; Mitchell, 2012).

A further trend to note among American SA students, specifically among the current participants, is that many are not actively studying a foreign language as part of their degree program in the US. In 2012, only 5.6% of US students abroad were studying for a foreign language degree at their home institution. The majority of students were pursuing degrees in the Social Sciences (22.9%), Business and Management (20.5%) and other degrees in the Humanities (11.3%) (Farrugia *et al.*, 2012). While it should be noted that over 20% of total US students abroad were studying in English-speaking countries (Farrugia *et al.*, 2012), in an interview with the Barcelona associate program director S. Serra (2014), she comments on how the majority of SA students in both the Barcelona and Granada programs are not studying for a degree in Spanish. She mentions that some students are studying for minor degrees in Spanish language, but that the majority are pursuing degrees in a relatively unrelated field (Serra, 2014). While the exact figures for the degree programs pursued by all US students studying abroad in Spain are not available due to the incredibly wide range of programs available, it can be assumed that individuals studying with other institutions follow a similar pattern. This data may be particularly significant when comparing the efforts put forth by participants in their pursuit of target language learning opportunities.

In addition to the participants' wide range of degree programs, it is also necessary to mention that, despite many of the participants not pursuing degrees in Spanish, 10 of the participants (Barcelona = 5, Granada = 5) are known to attend a university which requires students to complete a 'Global Connections Experience,' which is typically fulfilled by studying abroad for one semester. This does not necessarily indicate that these individuals were required to study in either Barcelona or Granada, but rather that they selected these institutions out of a number of choices. While the details of this 'Global Connections Experience,' will be explored below, as this requirement is set by the US-based parent institution of the Barcelona and Granada programs, such a requirement indicates that 'global experiences,' rather than language, may be more important than language learning to some students.

In contrast, the majority of students (N= 63) selected this program independently as this particular SA program was not an official degree requirement for them. Many of them

attended universities also located in the North Eastern US, but others come from universities in both the Central and Western US, suggesting that the group's representation of US students abroad is quite homogenous with the US student population in Spain. It is unknown as to whether the home institutions of the remaining 63 participants also have a requirement similar to the 'Global Connections Experience', however their choice to attend such a program may also reflect their expectations.

Therefore, the initial reasons for choosing to study abroad, the expectations students may have of what it means to study abroad, and the wider American Higher Education system, including what may be considered a stereotypical American SA program, provide key evidence in understanding the motivational and attitudinal perspectives of the participants in this study. Equally, taking into account such contextual information is vital in comparing the experiences of these learners with other American sojourners and with the literature regarding SLA and residence abroad. While the project does not hope to generalise its findings to all US students, by analysing this group, it does hope to achieve a greater understanding the range of experiences held by American students and how their perceptions change over time. By doing so, further conclusions can also be made as to which learner traits and actions are most advantageous to SLA in this context.

1.3.2 SA Program Sites

Spain was chosen as the location of this project because it is the third most popular location for American SA in the world and the most popular Spanish-speaking destination (Farrugia *et al.*, 2012). As previously mentioned, the majority of students going abroad are not specifically studying for a foreign language degree (Farrugia *et al.*, 2012), thus the context provides a backdrop in which the researcher can examine students from different educational backgrounds in a non-English-speaking environment.

In order to further understand the experiences in which the participants live and study, it is essential to contextualise the program sites of Barcelona and Granada both within Spain and amongst other SA destinations.

Barcelona is the capital city of the autonomous community of Catalunya with an immense urban population of over 4,500,000 inhabitants (Ajuntament de Barcelona, 2011). It is the second largest city in Spain and is officially bilingual in Catalan and Spanish. In fact, over

80% of the population of the city report being bilingual in Catalan and Spanish; however Spanish is still reported as the most common language of everyday use throughout the city (IDESCAT, 2015). The metropolitan area is also home to over 770,000 immigrants (Instituto Nacional de Estadística, 2013a), and the city plays host to thousands of study abroad students every year through its large variety of academic program offerings (EducationDynamics, 2015).

Barcelona was chosen as a research destination because of the researcher's pre-established links with the city and universities there, and because it is one of the top choices for American SA participants in Spain with almost 150 different study programs on offer throughout the city (Study Abroad 101, 2015a). The influence of a bilingual Spanish/Catalan population in Barcelona also provides a distinctive aspect to the project which examines how learners manage to acquire language in such a diverse community.

However, in order to further contextualise this learning environment amongst other SA destinations in Spain, it is essential to note that the cultural distinctions between what is considered 'Spanish' and what is considered 'Catalan' are becoming increasingly more defined (Sant *et al.*, 2016). Whilst Spanish may be the more widely-used language in Barcelona (IDESCAT, 2015), this is not true of areas surrounding the capital city, nor of other cities within Catalunya (Ferré and Brysbaert, 2016; Sant *et al.*, 2016). Equally, the notion of Catalan identity is becoming increasingly more defined as being separate from Spain, particularly amongst younger generations and the growing population seeking independence from Spain (Sant *et al.*, 2015; Sant *et al.*, 2016). The government of Catalunya also exercises a great deal of autonomy from the wider Spanish government with regards to policy-making, particularly in relation to language and education (Generalitat de Catalunya, 2016), thus reinforcing this distinction from other parts of the country.

This growing sense of Catalan, rather than Spanish, identity may prove vital in assessing the successes and failures of participants in acquiring one of the official languages of the region. It is critical that the analyses consider the receptor community's potential perceptions on students focusing on Spanish language, rather than an equal focus on both official languages. In fact, Cigliana and Serrano (Forthcoming) have recently suggested that the wide use of both languages may contribute negatively to SA students' self-perceptions of learning only Spanish in Barcelona, despite the numerous programs within the city

promoting offers of Spanish-language classes, rather than Catalan (EducationDynamics, 2015; Study Abroad 101, 2015a).

A question may arise as to why learners might choose this destination as a means to learn Spanish; however, the diverse range of academic programs, including academic offerings in language studies, the social sciences and business studies make the city an attractive choice for students of many academic disciplines (EducationDynamics, 2015). The relatively high percentage of immigrants, mostly from other parts of Europe (Instituto Nacional de Estadística, 2013a), and the booming tourism industry (Barcelona Turisme, 2015) also contribute to the dynamic culture of the city, though such factors may also play a role in the community's reception of SA students.

Granada, on the other hand, was selected as a research destination to provide a contrast from Barcelona while still being an attractive destination offering over 40 different study programs from which American SA participants can choose (Study Abroad 101, 2015b). Granada is a much smaller city in the southern region of Andalucía, with a community of mostly Spanish natives, a population of only just over 230,000 inhabitants (Ayuntamiento de Granada, 2013), and a much smaller immigrant population of only 16,000 (Instituto Nacional de Estadística, 2013b). Granada is governed via the autonomous community of Andalucía, and is officially monolingual in Spanish (Junta de Andalucía, 2016).

In terms of the cultural context of the region, Andalusians typically express their national identity as being 'Spanish' moreso than would Catalan citizens (Epps and Fernandez Cifuentes, 2005; Sant *et al.*, 2015). Regional identity is also prominent among citizens of this southern region of Spain, however, Spanish is still undoubtedly the majority language (Epps and Fernandez Cifuentes, 2005). Like Barcelona, Granada benefits from a thriving tourism industry (Empresa Pública para la Gestión del Turismo y del Deporte de Andalucía, 2016), and each year the population grows dramatically during the academic school year due to the many SA programs and the large, public university, the Universidad de Granada (EducationDynamics, 2016).

As a result, the city of Granada provides a learning context that is quite distinct from Barcelona, both in terms of the size of the city and in terms of the language spoken and the cultural identity of the receptor community. The presence of a single community language and a national and regional identity more closely associated with that language are key in

considering the experiences of the participants, particularly in comparison to the cultural context of Barcelona. It should also be noted that many of the SA programs in Granada appear to focus more so on Spanish language, history and culture, with a narrower range of options for students of other academic disciplines (Study Abroad 101, 2015b; EducationDynamics, 2016). Indeed, such program specifics may influence the types of students who choose to study there, whilst the student population in general and the growing influx of tourists, especially within such a small city, might also play a role in the participants' ability to integrate into the host community.

It is clear that each location provides very distinct learning opportunities for the participants and that environmental factors such as population and the native languages of residents play an important role in integration and linguistic development. This distinction allows for the researcher to investigate the individual differences mentioned above within the entire participant population and between the two contrasting program locations. By doing so, the researcher hopes to highlight the presence of any environmental factors which play a part in SLA or if any traits among the individuals themselves are responsible for helping or hindering language learning.

1.3.3 Program Structure and Organisation

The SA programs themselves were selected because they were managed by the same university in the North-Eastern US, and the same academic director oversees each. While the programs were open to students from any university, the choice to use these two programs was made to establish continuity among the quality of the programs and their academic offerings. At the time of data collection, both required the students to take a Spanish-language course during their semester abroad and neither had a minimum Spanish proficiency level requirement, although some knowledge of Spanish was recommended for both programs.

Furthermore, each program follows the structure of the typical American SA programs outlined above: program staff aim to facilitate the students' transition to living in Spain by hosting orientation meetings upon arrival, pre-arranging student accommodation and assisting students with selecting modules. Both programs offer the students the opportunity to live with either a host family, other international students or other American students, and SA program leaders are also responsible for helping students get to know

their new cities of residence by hosting informational meetings and trips to visit local amenities such as pharmacies and supermarkets. The program staff further assists students with tasks such as sending post, booking medical appointments and securing visas if necessary. As a result, it is evident that the students may rely on the SA program for support and guidance, as is common amongst 'within program' SA organisation (Coleman, 2009).

It is also important to discuss the details of program curricula and how the academic offerings differ from other institutions as a means to compare the present study with similar literature in the field of SA. Importantly, the hosting institution in the US requires all of its students to complete a 'Global Connections Experience', wherein students have, "the opportunity to explore new places and cultures," and "meet people and learn about a society different from that in which you have lived previously." This is typically completed by studying with one of its satellite institutions in another country, or by studying at a partner institution in the US for one academic semester. Whilst not all of the participants are regularly enrolled with the hosting institution, these values are clearly reflected in the satellite institutions managed by the US university. The emphasis on a 'global experience' for students may therefore provide key evidence as to the motives of the students in choosing these programs and the development of the program curricula in each location.

The programs themselves also incorporate the notion of a 'global experience,' whilst offering a distinctive academic curriculum reflective of each city's character. For instance, the Barcelona program states that, "using Barcelona, Spain, as your classroom, you'll explore local, regional, national and international issues in the context of globalization." The program also highlights a focus on what they term as a 'European perspective', wherein the modules offered consider the communities of Barcelona and Catalunya within the wider setting of Europe. On the other hand, the Granada program appears to be more focused on Spanish language and culture, as their prospectus states, "If you want to experience Spain and its multi-faceted culture, while improving your Spanish language both inside and outside the classroom, this program is for you." The various module curricula also reflect this purpose by including modules related almost exclusively to Spanish culture, history, art and environment. Thus, it is clear that the program directors foresee different educational outcomes for the students residing in each city. This notion may prove critical

when analysing the experiences of the students, particularly with regards to their language learning.

The Barcelona and Granada programs also have a some variation within their wider program design, which may have an impact on the students' wider learning environment. Firstly, the Barcelona site consists of a series of classrooms, study rooms, administrative offices and a small library within the confines of a central private institution. All students enrolled in the program are required to take a Spanish-language course according to their proficiency level, determined by an entry proficiency exam, and the modules offered within the program are all coordinated and administered by local program staff. Further to this, the students are also required to take a class on Catalan history, culture and politics, with an introduction to Catalan language. Moreover, the majority of the modules taught throughout the semester consist almost exclusively of program participants and are held within the private institution.

Further to the two compulsory subjects, the students are able to select between three and four electives, which may be taught in either English or Spanish depending on the course offerings. The majority of students opt to take electives taught at the program centre, which are typically offered in English and maintain the program's focus on the city of Barcelona with a 'European perspective'. Students with an advanced proficiency in Spanish are also offered the opportunity to take modules taught in Spanish with the Hispanic and European Studies program at a local Catalan university; however, due to the differing US and European academic calendars, very few students select this option (Serra, 2014). The students are not required to take any additional courses in Spanish apart from the compulsory Spanish-language course, but are encouraged to select classes whose credits can be transferred to meet curricular requirements in their home universities.

Similarly, the Granada program also requires that students take a Spanish-language course; however, rather than courses offered in the program centre, they are coordinated and managed by the Centro de Lenguas Modernas (CLM), which is affiliated with a local Spanish university. The students are required to take a proficiency placement exam upon arrival, and the courses can be sat by students from other American SA programs or from other international exchanges. Additionally, students who place into the beginning and intermediate Spanish language levels must take both a Spanish-language course and a more specific Spanish-grammar course. Unlike Barcelona, the Granada program site does

not typically offer its own private classes, but still offers students a private space to study and consult with program staff near the CLM campus.

In terms of electives, the Granada program offers students the option of taking courses on environmental studies which are offered in English, but with a focus on Spain and the Mediterranean environment. They can also choose to take either two or three electives from the CLM, which are typically offered in Spanish, and are offered on the topics of Spanish culture, history, art, literature, economy and geography. Some subjects at the CLM are offered in English and Spanish, with the students having the option to choose one or the other. Also, unique to the Granada program is the option for students to enrol directly in courses run by individual faculties at the local Spanish university; this option is only offered to students with a superior level of Spanish. Additionally, students can opt to take a three-week intensive Spanish course prior to the beginning of the regular semester as a further means to improve their Spanish language ability.

It should be noted that both programs offer the students the opportunity to take almost all courses taught in Spanish; however, this is not a requirement and students may choose to take courses taught in English as well, especially if they have a lower entry proficiency level. Thus, variety of modules available within both programs can appeal to both language-specialists, or those interested in acquiring Spanish, and students of other academic disciplines. Equally, the focus of the Granada prospectus on Spanish language and culture, and the focus of the Barcelona prospectus on globalisation and the wider context of Europe may attract different types of students choosing to study in each location. These learning contexts are therefore critical to consider when evaluating the students' motivations, their progress in learning Spanish and their behaviours whilst abroad.

1.4 Overview Conclusion

The overall design and educational opportunities offered by these two programs, taken into account with the two very diverse regions in which the participants study, are essential to understanding the context in which the participants are learning Spanish and exploring a new receptor culture. Equally, the participant group, their expectations and their educational backgrounds must also be considered throughout the analysis, particularly

when the outcomes of the research are contextualised within the wider research area on SA and SLA.

Yet, the primary focus of the study remains as an investigation into the individual differences among these learners and their L2 learning experiences outside of the classroom. Crucially, the study combines quantitative and qualitative methods as a means to explore these individual experiences, while the selection of two very different program sites allows for conclusions to be drawn on how student perceptions and environmental factors such as linguistic diversity and cultural identity can influence integration and language-learning for these participants.

Ultimately, this study aims to delve further into the lives of these students abroad in order to more thoroughly understand their linguistic ambitions, perceptions, motivational perspectives, attitudes and personal experiences during their sojourns in Spain. As Coleman (2013, p. 22) points out, “study abroad is a multi-dimensional phenomena,” and it is necessary to recognise those who partake in the experience as more than just ‘language learners’ but as individuals with perhaps more than one expectation for their time away. Finally, this sheds light on these personal experiences and expectations, and analyses them along with data on linguistic development and other affective factors in order to investigate what really happens when students *study abroad*.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Overview

The current study draws upon a long body of literature regarding second language acquisition (SLA) and the 'study abroad' context in order to more accurately examine and analyse the experiences of the 73 chosen participants. This review of the literature begins by offering an overview of the field of study abroad (SA) before providing a detailed analysis of different trends in the research including variables tested, methodology, learning context and factors attributing to second language (L2) learning success. Emphasis is also placed on the variables of pre-program language study/proficiency, attitude, motivation, language contact, and social integration, all of which will hold a focus in this investigation. Finally, this literature review highlights the theoretical frameworks that are employed in this study with justification for their use over other possible frameworks for analysis.

Since the late 1960s, spending a period of time abroad for academic purposes has been linked to the development of a number of linguistic skills, from overall 'proficiency' to the acquisition of specific grammatical or phonological aspects of a language. While certain linguists have studied the overall linguistic benefits of a residence abroad (Carroll, 1967; Meara, 1994; Brecht *et al.*, 1995; Lapkin *et al.*, 1995; Coleman, 1996a, 1997; Vande Berg *et al.*, 2009; Pérez-Vidal, 2014; Yang, 2016), others have chosen to focus on one or two particular linguistic skills. Perhaps the most popular focus has been on L2 oral production (Magnan, 1986; Dyson, 1988; O'Connor, 1988; Milleret, 1990; Foltz, 1991; Freed, 1995b; Allen and Herron, 2003; Segalowitz and Freed, 2004; Juan-Garau and Pérez-Vidal, 2007; Serrano *et al.*, 2011; Llanes *et al.*, 2012; Serrano *et al.*, 2012; Di Silvio *et al.*, 2015) and more specifically oral fluency (Ward and Kennedy, 1993; Isabelli, 2000; Llanes and Muñoz, 2009; Valls-Ferrer and Mora, 2014), pronunciation (Díaz-Campos, 2004; Avello and Lara, 2014; Müller, 2016) and conversation style (Díaz-Campos, 2006) with the general consensus being that study abroad does indeed lead to improvements in L2 speaking skills. Communicative strategies (Lafford, 1995), vocabulary acquisition (Milton and Meara, 1995; Ife *et al.*, 2000; Dewey, 2008; Briggs, 2015), written production (Freed *et al.*, 1998; Sasaki, 2004, 2007, 2011; Serrano *et al.*, 2011; Llanes *et al.*, 2012; Serrano *et al.*, 2012; Pérez-Vidal and Barquin, 2014; Serrano *et al.*, 2016), reading skills (Dewey, 2004), listening skills (Dyson,

1988; Allen and Herron, 2003; Cubillos *et al.*, 2008; Llanes and Muñoz, 2009; Beattie *et al.*, 2014) and grammatical competencies (DeKeyser, 1991; Ryan and Lafford, 1992; Collentine, 2004; Isabelli-Garcia, 2010; Conroy, 2016) have also been studied, though with some discrepancies in their findings (e.g. DeKeyser, 1991; Freed *et al.*, 1998; Collentine, 2004; Isabelli-Garcia, 2010; Watson and Wolfel, 2015; Serrano *et al.*, 2016). Additionally, study abroad has been linked with gains in general L2 sociolinguistic competencies (Marriott, 1995; Regan, 1995; Seigel, 1995; DuFon and Churchill, 2006) and some more specific pragmatic competencies (Pinto, 2002; Duff, 2008; Bataller, 2010; Shively, 2011; Taguchi, 2011; Shively, 2013; Alcón-Soler, 2015).

The breadth of research on SA is extensive, with researchers investigating second language acquisition benefits to learners from many different parts of the world. While the bulk of the studies tend to be centred around North American learners (e.g. Hanna *et al.*, 1980; Freed, 1995b; Lapkin *et al.*, 1995; Freed *et al.*, 2004b; Segalowitz and Freed, 2004; Kinginger, 2008; Hernández, 2010; Dewey *et al.*, 2013a; Kinginger, 2015), a great focus has also been placed on British (Meara, 1994; Coleman, 1997; Ife *et al.*, 2000; Coleman and Chafer, 2011; Mitchell *et al.*, 2015) and other European learners taking part in the European inter-university exchange program ERASMUS (Teichler and Maiworm, 1997; Coleman, 1998; Teichler, 2004; Bracke and Aguerre, 2015; Teichler, 2015). Since the 2000s, other studies have been conducted more specifically on learners from China (Zhang, 2007; Gu and Maley, 2008), Taiwan (Hsieh, 2009), Hong Kong (Jackson, 2013), Japan (Sasaki, 2004; Takahashi, 2005; Sasaki, 2007, 2011; Taguchi, 2011), Spain (Juan-Garau and Pérez-Vidal, 2007; Llanes and Muñoz, 2009; Llanes *et al.*, 2012; Serrano *et al.*, 2012; Tragant, 2012; Pérez-Vidal, 2014), Turkey (Kaypak and Ortaçtepe, 2014), and other mixed groups of international students (Yu and Watkins, 2008; Brown, 2009a, 2009b; Xu *et al.*, 2009; Dewaele *et al.*, 2015).

Clearly, the nature and benefits of SA have been widely investigated across a number of different cultures and contexts. While the majority of early studies tend to point out that SA provided a unique opportunity for immersion in the target language that simply could not be replicated in the learner's home community (Gore, 2005; Valls Ferrer, 2011), others have found discrepancies within the depth of L2 linguistic development possible within this context (e.g. DeKeyser, 1991; Isabelli-Garcia, 2006; DeKeyser, 2007; Kinginger, 2008; Brown, 2009b). The question remains as to how some learners are capable of successfully

acquiring their second language while abroad while others are less successful, or possibly on par with their peers studying in a traditional foreign language classroom. DeKeyser (1991) was one of the first researchers to postulate that perhaps individual differences among the learners were responsible for this disparity. This thesis examines some of these individual differences, their relationship to each other and how they ultimately facilitate or inhibit successful language acquisition in a SA context among a group of American learners of Spanish. This research attempts to identify what characteristics a learner must possess in order to successfully take advantage of this unique immersion opportunity and what attributes or experiences may hinder them in the process.

2.2 Study abroad

Study abroad has long been a popular topic of research in the fields of applied linguistics and second language acquisition, the themes, methods, outcomes and implications of which have developed considerably over the past several decades. In addition, many linguists have attempted to quantify the benefits of this experience for second language learners through a number of empirical studies. One of the first researchers to explore this practice and its potential benefits was John B. Carroll, famous for his co-development of the Modern Language Aptitude Test (Carroll and Sapon, 1959). Carroll (1967) conducted a study of 2,782 US university students who were specializing in French, German, Italian, Russian or Spanish, focusing on their language proficiency and in what context they learned or acquired their second language. While his results pointed to language aptitude as being a major predictor of successful language acquisition, Carroll also found that even those with lower aptitude scores could become 'proficient' in their second language with an intensive and immersive learning environment such as study abroad.

This finding led the way for future research in the field of SA under the premise that those who study their second language in the host country are likely to be successful at acquiring that language. Years later Dyson (1988) confirmed this finding in a study of British students who went abroad to either France, Germany or Spain for a year's study. Though Dyson was unable to compare his results with a control group in the UK, his pre-test/post-test results on listening and speaking skills found that the students made substantial improvement in both skills. A number of other early studies including British students also support this finding (Meara, 1994; Coleman, 1996a, 1997) as well as research on American students

abroad (Freed, 1990, 1995a; Lafford, 1995) and Canadian inter-provincial exchange students (Hanna *et al.*, 1980; Lapkin *et al.*, 1995).

Richard Brecht and his colleagues conducted a particularly important study on the acquisition of Russian by American secondary school and university students. This was a multi-faceted study that included the variables of learning context, general proficiency, oral proficiency, grammar and reading skills, language aptitude, gender and other individual attributes Brecht *et al.* (1990) and Brecht and Davidson (1991) found that those who spent time in Russia were likely to become more proficient in the language than those who simply studied Russian in the classroom. Furthermore Brecht and Davidson (1991) and Brecht *et al.* (1995) found that individual attributes such as initial linguistic proficiency in Russian, knowledge of other languages and age functioned as predictors of successful language acquisition in the Russian immersion setting.

As a result of Brecht and his colleagues' work on the acquisition of Russian, emphasis started to be placed on the comparison of students learning in a traditional language classroom with those learning in an immersive context such as study abroad (Brecht and Davidson, 1991; Brecht *et al.*, 1995; Miller and Ginsberg, 1995). A number of studies uphold this new research direction (Freed, 1995b; Lafford, 2004; Sasaki, 2004; Segalowitz *et al.*, 2004; Díaz-Campos, 2006; Sasaki, 2007; Cubillos *et al.*, 2008; Vande Berg *et al.*, 2009; Hernández, 2010; Sasaki, 2011; Taguchi, 2011; Pérez-Vidal, 2014). However, other lines of research have revealed inconsistencies (DeKeyser, 1991; Freed *et al.*, 1998; Collentine, 2004; Díaz-Campos, 2004; Kinginger, 2008; Brown, 2009a; DeKeyser, 2010; Isabelli-Garcia, 2010).

More specifically, in support of Brecht's (1995) results, many studies have found that SA students make more gains in oral proficiency than their peers in the traditional 'at home' (AH) language-learning context (Freed, 1995b; Collentine, 2004; Segalowitz and Freed, 2004; Segalowitz *et al.*, 2004; Hernández, 2010; Serrano *et al.*, 2011; Juan-Garau, 2014; Valls-Ferrer and Mora, 2014; Yang, 2016). Others have identified an advantage for SA students in terms of L2 listening skills (Freed, 1995b; Allen and Herron, 2003; Cubillos *et al.*, 2008; Beattie *et al.*, 2014), reading comprehension (Dewey, 2004), written production (Sasaki, 2004, 2007; Pérez-Vidal and Juan-Garau, 2009, 2011; Sasaki, 2011; Serrano *et al.*, 2011; Pérez-Vidal and Barquin, 2014), certain areas of pragmatic competence (Kitao, 1990;

Lafford, 2004; Taguchi, 2011) and 'intercultural awareness' (Merino and Avello, 2014; Murphy *et al.*, 2014) over their AH counterparts.

Conversely, the differences between those learning in a SA context and those learning in their home countries are also disputed within other investigations. For example, Dewey (2004, 2008), Freed *et al.* (2004b) and Serrano *et al.* (2011) demonstrate that learners participating in an intensive domestic immersion program have the potential to make the same, and at times even more improvement in L2 reading comprehension, vocabulary development, oral proficiency or written production than their peers who study abroad. Additionally, in three separate studies comparing learners of Spanish at home and abroad Collentine (2004), DeKeyser (1991) and Isabelli-Garcia (2010) determine no significant difference in the acquisition of aspects of grammatical competence between the AH and SA groups. Other discrepancies have been found between AH and SA students in terms of L2 oral proficiency (DeKeyser, 1991; Vande Berg *et al.*, 2009), pronunciation (Díaz-Campos, 2004) and written fluency (Freed *et al.*, 1998).

This breadth of research and the inconsistencies that exist among many of the studies therefore give rise to the issue as to why some learners may not be able to acquire their chosen target language even when they are learning and studying in what many have considered to be the 'ideal context' (Magnan and Lafford, 2011). Some learners even report being disappointed with their language learning experiences abroad (Wilkinson, 1998; DeKeyser, 2007; Brown, 2009b; DeKeyser, 2010; Goldoni, 2013), mainly because of a distinct lack of interactions with speakers of the target languages. Perhaps then, it is simply not enough to measure linguistic gains and compare learners in different learning contexts in order to truly understand the benefits of the SA experience. By understanding more about these individuals and their backgrounds, ideologies and motivational perspectives, a more comprehensive insight might be established. Thus, these analyses pave the way for an exploration of these individual differences among learners to determine if certain characteristics are more likely to predict success within this context than others.

2.3 Individual Differences

The previous research mentioned has suggested that spending an extended period of time in an immersion context abroad provides an opportunity in which the learners can acquire

a number of linguistic skills, albeit to varying extents. However, a great number of studies have also posited that it is the individual differences among these learners which either facilitate or inhibit L2 acquisition (e.g. DeKeyser, 1991; Seigel, 1995; Freed, 1998; LoCastro, 2001; Dörnyei, 2009a; Lord, 2010; Llanes *et al.*, 2012). Again, Brecht and his colleagues were among the first to empirically test a number of these individual differences for their potential impact on SLA in a SA context, including factors such as age, gender, pre-program L2 proficiency, previous immersion experiences, aptitude, and attitudinal perspectives developed while abroad (Brecht and Davidson, 1991; Brecht *et al.*, 1995; Miller and Ginsberg, 1995). Other researchers have focused more specifically on interactional/experiential factors such as language contact and social network development (Freed, 1990; Long, 1996; Freed *et al.*, 2004a; Díaz-Campos, 2006; Isabelli-Garcia, 2006; Dewey, 2008; Kinginger, 2008; Dewey *et al.*, 2012; Dewey *et al.*, 2013a; Bown *et al.*, 2015e.g. ; Mitchell *et al.*, 2015), or on affective factors such as attitude and motivation (Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Clément, 1984; Gardner, 1985b; Clément, 1986; Huebner, 1995; Miller and Ginsberg, 1995; Masgoret and Gardner, 2003; Dörnyei, 2009b; Koga, 2010).

The current project addresses four main individual differences among the 73 participants: pre-program proficiency/previous L2 study, attitude, motivation, and language contact and social interaction. The study aims to compare these experiential and affective factors to one another and to a measure of L2 linguistic gains in order to identify if any one variable or combination of variables is related to linguistic development. Furthermore, the study takes a holistic approach, typically only found in studies with small participant numbers (Isabelli-Garcia, 2006; Kinginger, 2008; Hsieh, 2009; DeKeyser, 2010; Jackson, 2013), in order to develop a much more comprehensive picture of both the individuals and the experience. Comparisons are also made with previous research in order to confirm any major trends or point out any interesting discrepancies.

2.4 Pre-Program Proficiency/Previous L2 Study

The first main individual difference that is investigated in the current study is the participants' level of pre-program proficiency in the L2 and their amount of previous L2 study. These two factors have been topics of investigation since Carroll's (1967) study on learners of a variety of target languages found that those learners with a lower pre-

program L2 proficiency level benefited most from their time abroad. This result is subsequently supported by a number of other studies who find that weaker students generally make the most *noticeable* gains while abroad (Dyson, 1988; Brecht *et al.*, 1990; Freed, 1990; Meara, 1994; Brecht *et al.*, 1995; Freed, 1995b; Milton and Meara, 1995; Regan, 1995; Llanes and Muñoz, 2009). A large-scale longitudinal study recently completed by Carmen Pérez-Vidal (2014) and her colleagues has also found evidence to support this claim among investigations of gains in oral accuracy (Juan-Garau, 2014), oral fluency (Valls-Ferrer and Mora, 2014), perceptual phonological development (Mora, 2014), and listening skills (Beattie *et al.*, 2014).

Yet, even with the growing body of evidence to support the notion that students with a lower pre-program proficiency benefits more from SA than their more advanced peers, there is a considerable body of research that appears to contradict these findings. For example, Bialystok (1993) postulates that those with a higher pre-program proficiency in the L2 are able to pay more attention to new features in the target language than those with lower proficiency. In support of this evidence, Lafford (2004) suggests that lower-level learners tend to allocate attention simply to meaning when forming sentences while more advanced learners can focus on building complexity.

Furthermore, Collentine (2009) and Lafford and Collentine (2006) hypothesize that learners must achieve a certain 'threshold' or L2 ability level before going abroad in order to truly take advantage of the immersion experience. For example, Brecht *et al.* (1995) and Golonka (2006) propose that those learners with a more extensive pre-program knowledge of L2 vocabulary and grammar are more likely to make gains in other linguistic skills during a sojourn abroad. Additionally, Segalowitz and Freed (2004) posit that learners need a certain level of general L2 word recognition ability in order to truly make gains in oral proficiency while abroad, and Magnan and Back (2007) establish a relationship between prior study and coursework in the L2 with gains in oral performance abroad. Based on these works, it appears that pre-program proficiency does play an important role in L2 acquisition abroad, yet, because of the many discrepancies among the research, the exact nature of its impact is still unclear.

Thus, the debate continues as to whether or not learners with lower L2 proficiency make more gains in linguistic proficiency than their more advanced peers, and whether learners must begin their time abroad with a certain amount of L2 ability in order to make the most

out of their L2 learning experience. Freed (1998) and Llanes (2011) counsel that the trend for weaker students to record more linguistic gains might be because the tools used to measure improvement are unable to recognize the discrete advancements made by higher-proficiency learners. Conversely, DeKeyser (2014) points out that many of the discrepancies found among the literature may be due to the differing lengths of time spent abroad by each group of participants: those with a lower initial proficiency may display rapid improvement during a short period of time abroad, while the more advanced students may benefit more from a longer stay as the more advanced linguistic features of the target language are acquired gradually, but at a slower pace (Taguchi, 2008; DeKeyser, 2014). Alternatively, Juan-Garau (2014, p. 104) speculates that the improvements made by lower-proficiency students may be simply because they “had more room for improvement and consequently experienced more gains.”

Each view presents a very valid and empirically supported argument, and it is clear that learners of varying proficiency levels have the potential to make L2 linguistic gains while abroad. The current project adds to this growing body of research by comparing initial L2 proficiency and prior L2 study with overall linguistic gains and trends in other individual traits in the hopes of highlighting whether pre-program proficiency is indeed a predictor of linguistic gains made while abroad.

2.5 Attitude and Motivation

In addition to pre-program L2 proficiency, two of the most researched and recognised variables which affect successful language acquisition in both immersion and classroom contexts are attitude and motivation. In fact, Dörnyei and Skehan (2003) claim that attitude and motivation are the two *most* influential individual attributes which contribute to the development of social relationships with native speakers and thus facilitate language acquisition in immersion contexts. While many studies tend to group attitudinal and motivational perspectives together, for the purposes of this study they will be introduced and addressed separately. Following the introduction to the literature, details on how these variables are conceptualised in the current study are presented.

2.5.1 Attitude

Investigations into the role of language learning attitudes have been ongoing since the late 1950s, and the prominence of the social-psychological perspective was evident from the 1960s to early 1990s through the work of Robert C. Gardner and his associates (Gardner and Lambert, 1959, 1972; Clément *et al.*, 1977; Gardner *et al.*, 1978; Gardner, 1985b). While Gardner's early work postulated that 'attitude' was actually a construct of 'a motivational factor' which encompassed an individuals' ambition for learning the language, their attitudes towards the target language community, and their desire to be in contact with speakers of the target language (Gardner and Lambert, 1959), it soon became recognized as a separate perspective (Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Gardner, 1985b). Though attitude and motivation remained highly related, Gardner and his colleagues demonstrated that attitude still included the learners' perceptions towards the target speech community, otherwise referred to as their degree of 'integrativeness,' but also attitudes towards the learning situation (Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Gardner *et al.*, 1976; Gardner and Smythe, 1981; Glikzman *et al.*, 1982; Gardner, 1985b; Masgoret and Gardner, 2003; Gardner *et al.*, 2004).

Yet, despite the early recognition of language learning attitude as a sub-component of motivation and its later acknowledgement as a separate concept, the studies completed by Gardner and his associates demonstrate its irrefutable connection with language acquisition. For example, in early classroom studies Bartley (1968, 1970) and Gardner and Smythe (1975) reveal that learners with fewer positive attitudes towards the target speech community tend to drop out of language classes or withdraw from further study more often than those demonstrating positive attitudes. Additionally, a link has been found between positive attitude and increased participation in the language classroom (Naiman *et al.*, 1978; Glikzman *et al.*, 1982), a phenomena which Gardner (1991, pg. 52) later identified as an "active involvement in the learning process." Further research even posits that attitudinal perspectives influence and possibly determine subsequent language learning motivation (Lambert, 1963; Clément, 1984, 1986) or the choice for a learner to go abroad to learn rather than remain in the language classroom (Clément *et al.*, 1977).

The role of attitude in language acquisition in an immersion context has also been illustrated across a number of investigations. Huebner (1995) and Miller and Ginsberg

(1995) were some of the first to identify that attitudinal perspectives of learners abroad could affect both language acquisition and the overall SA experience. Noels *et al.* (1996) propose that either a positive or negative towards the target language community will determine the individuals' willingness to integrate and ultimately their successful establishment of social relationships with native speakers. Furthermore, a number of studies have also postulated that attitude towards the learning situation directly affects a learners' 'willingness to communicate' (MacIntyre, 1994; MacIntyre *et al.*, 1998; Léger and Storch, 2009), a perception which Dörnyei (2003) describes as essential in SLA. Alternatively, Church (1982) proposes that negative attitudes towards the host culture or inaccurate assumptions about the host culture can prove to be a 'barrier' to intercultural communication, potentially hindering opportunities for learners to use the target language.

Additional empirical studies confirm the relationship between attitude, integration and linguistic development. Further to Gardner's model of attitude, a number of studies have linked positive attitude with either successful integration or gains in linguistic skills (Masgoret and Gardner, 1999; Gardner, 2000; Masgoret and Gardner, 2003; DuFon and Churchill, 2006; Masgoret, 2006; Masgoret and Ward, 2006; Coleman and Chafer, 2011; Serrano *et al.*, 2012; Cigliana and Serrano, Forthcoming). For example, several studies suggest that positive attitudes towards the host culture can influence the development of social networks with native speakers (DuFon and Churchill, 2006; Coleman and Chafer, 2011) and sociocultural adaptation (Masgoret and Ward, 2006) during a residence abroad. More specifically, Coleman and Chafer (2011) suggest that traits such as the attitudes and personalities of British sojourners in Senegal had a significant impact on the types of social relationships developed (with host nationals or other expatriates) and subsequent linguistic gains in French. Similarly, Masgoret and Gardner (1999) demonstrate that Spanish immigrants in Canada with more positive attitudes towards their hosts had more contact with English-speaking Canadians than those with more negative attitudes, while Serrano *et al.* (2012) reveals that Spanish/Catalan learners of English who maintained certain positive attitudes towards the L2 and its native speakers made gains in written accuracy and lexical complexity after a sojourn abroad in England.

2.5.1.1 Dynamicity in Language Learning Attitudes

These studies clearly outline the impact of a positive attitude in the wider language-learning process. Yet, the development and maintenance of a positive attitude is not always guaranteed nor consistent, particularly as learners encounter new aspects of the target culture. As a result, several other studies have detailed *changes* in learners' attitudes and perceptions during a period of time abroad, and how such changes might affect language learning.

One key example is that of Kinginger (2008), who investigated a group of six American learners of French studying abroad in France. Kinginger points out all of her participants began their sojourn with a highly positive outlook; however, the attitudes and perceptions of many of the students quickly changed after spending only a short period of time abroad due to each individual's experiences. Those who maintained an open and non-judgmental attitude towards the target culture made the most improvements in linguistic skills, while those with negative or generally ambivalent attitudes, made the fewest improvements.

Similarly, Isabelli-Garcia (2006) studied four American learners in Argentina, wherein the participants began their SA program with high hopes for acquiring Spanish and generally positive attitudes towards the Argentine culture. For two of her participants, however, these attitudes quickly changed following a series of what the participants perceived as negative experiences with host locals. As a result, the two participants developed a negative view of Argentine culture, and neither developed the same degree of Spanish oral proficiency while abroad as their counterparts who maintained positive attitudes.

Thus, following the qualitative studies of Kinginger (2008) and Isabelli-Garcia (2006), the idea that attitudes are constantly changing has become an increasingly important theme in SLA research. While Gardner *et al.* (2004) demonstrates that attitudes towards the learning situation can change gradually over time in a traditional language classroom, research on SA demonstrates very different results. Hsieh (2009) and Zhang (2007) revealed that the attitudes of Taiwanese and Chinese learners of English towards both the learning context and the host community could change dramatically over a period of time abroad based on individual experiences and differing encounters with English speakers. Using a communities of practice framework, Goldoni (2013) reveals similar findings in her study of American learners of Spanish: while they initially began their SA experience with positive

attitudes, their perceptions were eventually shaped by individual occurrences, which in turn affected their investment in seeking out opportunities to utilise the target language. Moreover, Serrano *et al.* (2012) and Tragant (2012) establish that the attitudes of Spanish/Catalan learners of English in England also fluctuated, and that these changes can potentially affect linguistic development; Tragant (2012) linked an increasingly positive view of the English language itself with expected achievement in certain linguistic skills while Serrano *et al.* (2012) connected growing positive views of English people with development in written production. Alternatively, Brown and Richards (2012) and Goldoni (2013) point out that members of the host culture also exhibit changes in attitudes towards international residents, and that the attitudes held by both groups may influence cross-cultural interaction. These studies highlight a growing consensus that attitude is not a fixed, permanent construct and that its fluctuations could potentially impact noticeably on the SA experience as a whole.

The growing acknowledgement of attitude as a dynamic construct also gave rise to a number of theoretical frameworks attempting to classify the role of attitude in SLA.

Perhaps the most well-recognized frameworks to date are Zoltán Dörnyei's (2001, 2003, 2005, 2009b, 2009c) process-oriented and dynamic systems models, which include attitude as a major component in the language acquisition process. Dörnyei's process model demonstrates how attitudes towards the language itself and the target culture are important in establishment of goals and intentions, which will ultimately lead to the learner carrying out tasks or actions to meet those goals (Dörnyei and Ottó, 1998; Dörnyei, 2001, 2003). The dynamic systems model and the construction of the 'L2 Motivational Self' explain how attitude should not be conceptualised as a static concept but as a constantly changing perception that is influenced by the learners' environments, experiences and motivational perspectives (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009b, 2009c). Furthermore, Dörnyei (2009a, b) proposes that a positive attitude towards the target culture is a reflection of the learners' desire to attain the linguistic proficiency of native speakers, a concept which he refers to as the "ideal L2 self". While not all studies on language learning attitude take into account Dörnyei's framework (e.g. Masgoret and Gardner, 2003; Masgoret, 2006; Serrano *et al.*, 2012; Tragant, 2012; Goldoni, 2013), his theories provide a solid basis from which to analyse and understand how attitude fits in to the wider SLA process and how its effects interact with other individual characteristics and experiences. It should be noted that

Dörnyei's models more specifically refer to motivation, and again that attitude is a component of this motivation; details of Dörnyei's models will be discussed in depth in the Motivation section of the literature review.

The role of attitude in SLA is therefore one that seems to have an ever-increasing importance. Its impact has been found to shape the SA experience, but to also develop and change over time, thus affecting the experience in different ways. It is because of this role and its flexible impact that attitude will be examined from both Gardner's and Dörnyei's perspectives.

2.5.1.2 Ethnocentrism in SA

A further theme that has developed more recently in the study of language learning attitudes, and which warrants examination in the current study, is ethnocentrism. The investigation of learners' ethnocentric attitudes, or the typically negative judgment of another culture based on the customs and values of one's own, while studying abroad is becoming more and more prevalent among SA researchers. In fact, in one of the first studies published on attitudes, Lambert (1963, pg. 114) discussed how a learner's degree of ethnocentrism is "believed to determine his success in learning the new language." More recent studies have also support this finding, providing an important link between intercultural sensitivity and integration in SA contexts (Kim and Goldstein, 2005; Anderson *et al.*, 2006; Jackson, 2008; Lee, 2012; Caldwell and Purtzer, 2015). Furthermore, the close-knit nature of the American SA groups described by Coleman (1997, 2009) make this theme of particular importance to the current study as the students tend to rely strongly on their SA program group for support, thus forming collective attitudes.

For example, one participant in Isabelli-Garcia's (2006) investigation suggested repeatedly in his study diary that his home American culture was superior to that of Argentina and made many negative remarks about the Argentinian people (pg. 247-248). This, in turn, led the participant to develop very few relationships with native Argentinians, and he did not progress linguistically in the same manner as his more open-minded colleagues. Goldoni (2013) also points out that the ethnocentric attitudes of some of her American participants eventually resulted in several negative experiences and an ultimate failure to integrate while studying abroad in Spain: in her study, Goldoni discusses how the initial ethnocentric attitudes of three participants led them to have distinctive misunderstandings

with members of the target culture. These negative encounters then successively solidified the participants' negative ethnocentric judgments, which they maintained throughout the program, seeking refuge in co-national social groups and utilising the target language very infrequently.

And while ethnocentrism has not been exclusively examined across many studies, its prevalence is evident in the literature, particularly in the case of American students abroad. A further example is Gore's (2005) interpretation of dominant discourses related to American SA, wherein she argues that the majority of American sojourners view their semester away as a modern-day Grand Tour where experiencing a new culture was more of a leisure activity rather than an opportunity to gain cross-cultural competence. Additionally, using Gore's framework, Kinginger (2008) determined that several of her participants adhered to this dominant discourse, viewing SA again as a type of leisure activity where developing intercultural awareness or L2 ability was not a priority. The outcome of such research thus suggests that while American students may perceive cultural difference superficially, their understanding of cultural practice is still interpreted from the point of view of their own culture.

Ogden (2006) supports this notion in his work on SA ethnographies. While Ogden's examples do not imply that SA participants have a sense of national superiority in any way, he describes how they are likely to misinterpret their host culture because of a lack of intercultural awareness; they tend to interpret everyday occurrences as if they were happening in the US, rather than taking the time to understand the occurrences from the other culture's point of view, a practice which could subsequently cause serious cultural misunderstandings on the part of the sojourner. He furthers his discussion by claiming that at times "students do not consciously recognize their unwitting participation in this 'American bubble,'" which deepens their ethnocentric views of the world around them as they continue to lack exposure to the target culture (Ogden, 2006, pg. 88). Ogden proposes that educating students on cultural practice and appropriateness both before and during SA could potentially aid in the development of cross-cultural awareness and diminish ethnocentric tendencies.

Similar examples have been noted within other nationalities, whereby ethnocentric attitudes can lead to a lack of integration within the receptor community (Zhang, 2007; Hsieh, 2009; Jackson, 2013). One key example is that of Brown (2009a, b), who studied

international postgraduate students, mainly from Southeast Asia, living in England and learning English. Whilst Brown's participants did not explicitly express any discontent towards the British people, very few actually reported having friendships with British natives. Instead, Brown's (2009a, b) participants seemed to equate 'adaptation' with having developed a wider social group of exclusively compatriot friends in England: as one Chinese student states, "I met many good friends from China... I can adapt quickly" (Brown, 2009a). Brown later identified the development of ethnic 'ghettos' where each co-national group maintained their own linguistic and cultural practices whilst residing in England. The resulting lack of integration then led to very little L2 development for Brown's participants, with some even reporting instances of L2 attrition. Several admitted that this could have been avoided if they had developed social relationships with British people; however, Brown's (2009a, b) evidence revealed that students felt positively about their time in England, despite a lack of linguistic development. Though Brown does not explicitly mention that her participants demonstrated ethnocentric tendencies, their apparent separation from wider British cultural practice reflects such attitudes.

Brown's example is significant as it provides evidence of how sojourners might view their receptor culture from an ethnocentric perspective, but still report positive experiences and a degree of 'adaptation' within the host culture. Interestingly, this study also highlights a distinction between what a researcher and a sojourner might perceive as integration, despite a clear lack of interaction with host natives and the reported use of the students' L1 much more frequently than the L2.

Moreover, though Brown's work focuses primarily on Asian students, a parallel might also be made with the tendencies of American learners. Specifically, the tendency for American students to remain in co-national groups and utilise their L1 more often than an L2 could be a reflection of ethnocentrism (Wilkinson, 1997; Pellegrino-Aveni, 2005; Coleman, 2009, 2013). Equally, the positive feelings of 'adaptation' could signal a situation similar to the ethnic ghettos described by Brown (2008a, b); while many American students report incredibly positive experiences with regards to SA (Kinger, 2008; Paige *et al.*, 2009; Wolcott, 2013), the degree to which they 'adapt' to the receptor culture can be interpreted in different ways. The exploration of attitude in the current study must therefore investigate the extent to which such behaviours reflect ethnocentric attitudes and how, if at all, such attitudes develop or diminish within the SA context.

Thus, it is clear from the above-mentioned examples that ethnocentric attitudes are indeed very important in the study of SLA. As shown in the case of American learners abroad (Isabelli-Garcia, 2006; Ogden, 2006; Kinginger, 2008; Goldoni, 2013) and Asian learners abroad (Brown, 2009a, 2009b; Jackson, 2013), it is evident that ethnocentrism is related to a distinct lack of intercultural communicative competence, which can ultimately hinder integration and the development of social relationships with target language speakers. Its investigation is even more essential in the case of American learners, whose dominant discourse on SA is surprisingly self-fulfilling and void of cross-cultural communication (Gore, 2005). Hence, the current study will attempt to further the examination of ethnocentrism's relationship with other attitudinal perspectives and additional individual differences among learners through a series of qualitative, rather than quantitative, analyses. As the previous research has shown, it is likely that ethnocentric attitudes can be detrimental to true socio-cultural adaptation, and their role in SA warrants further study.

2.5.2 Motivation

Just as the distinctive and significant impact that attitude has on the language-learning experience, the role of language motivation has also been a topic of study that has been prevalent across several decades. A number of studies have determined motivation to be a major factor in predicting successful language acquisition (Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Gardner, 1985b; Dörnyei, 1990; Clément *et al.*, 1994; Niezgodá and Röver, 2001; Masgoret and Gardner, 2003; Kinginger, 2008; Yu and Watkins, 2008; Kim, 2009; Hernández, 2010) while others have highlighted its relationship with attitude (Lambert, 1963; Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Naiman *et al.*, 1978; Gardner and Smythe, 1981; Clément, 1984; Gardner, 1985b; Clément, 1986; Gardner, 1991; Coleman, 1996b; Dörnyei and Ottó, 1998; Dörnyei, 2003; Dörnyei and Skehan, 2003; Masgoret and Gardner, 2003; Yu, 2010; Llanes *et al.*, 2012) and its construct as a dynamic process whose continued investigation is paramount (Dörnyei, 2005; Shoaib and Dörnyei, 2005; Ellis, 2007; Dörnyei, 2009b, 2009c; Hiromori, 2009; Hsieh, 2009; Kim, 2009; Ushioda, 2009; Koga, 2010; Allen, 2013; Waninge *et al.*, 2014). Pérez-Vidal (2014, pg. 26) summarizes its significance, along with attitude, in SA research:

SA research needs to focus on attitude and motivation, (inter/trans) cultural development and beliefs, in order to examine, on the one hand to what extent they

are context sensitive and dynamically change when learners find themselves either at home or abroad, and, on the other hand, to what extent they shape amount of contact with the host language and culture during residence abroad.

It is therefore essential that investigations into the role of motivation in SLA continue in order to understand the dynamic interplay of this affective factor with other individual characteristics and contextual factors. As the research into motivation and language-learning has been ongoing for a number of decades, the following sections will detail some of the major milestones before highlighting how they will be used in the current project.

2.5.2.1 The Socio-cultural Model

The study of motivation in language learning began, as did attitude, with the work of Gardner and his colleagues. In their seminal work, Gardner and Lambert (1959, 1972) proposed that motivation was one of the key factors in determining language-learning success. According to their theory, motivation to learn a language had both social and psychological dimensions, distinguishing it from other types of motivation, because the learner would be expected to not only gain knowledge, but to also interact and communicate with a different speech community. They also posited the existence of two different motivational orientations: integrative and instrumental. Integrative motivation was characterized by a fondness for the target speech community and a desire to learn the language for purposes of meeting and interacting with target community members. Conversely, instrumental motivation referred to an individual's desire to learn a language for practical reasons, such as achieving high marks in school or increasing job opportunities.

Further to their theory, Gardner and Lambert (1959, 1972) hypothesized that students with an integrative orientation would be more successful at acquiring the target language than their peers with an instrumental orientation, a notion which they found to be true in their initial studies on second-language learners of French in Canada. Additional studies were also commissioned to validate their techniques (Gardner and Smythe, 1975, 1981) and re-confirm their findings from this social-psychological perspective (Gardner *et al.*, 1976; Gardner *et al.*, 1984).

Their early findings, however, lacked major impact as the results revealed positive correlations between achievement and an integrative orientation, but failed to demonstrate the process. It is therefore from these shortcomings that the socio-

educational model was born, which attempted to truly demonstrate a cause-effect relationship between motivational orientations, attitude and linguistic achievement by assessing *how* these orientations influence the behaviour of language learners (Gardner, 1985b, 1991). Early representations of the socio-educational model found that integrative motivation would, “be responsible for people choosing situations that will permit them to improve their second language” (Gardner, 1991, pg. 50). As with attitude, motivation was found to influence classroom participation (Naiman *et al.*, 1978; Gliksmann *et al.*, 1982), the choice to participate in an ‘excursion program’ abroad (Clément *et al.*, 1977), and the continuation of language study (Gardner and Smythe, 1975).

Gardner (1985, 2000) later specified that the socio-educational model recognized the existence of three major components which influenced learner behaviour and linguistic achievement. The first two components were attitudes towards the target language community, known as ‘integrativeness,’ and attitudes towards the learning situation, both of which have been discussed previously. Motivation, which referred specifically to ‘goal-directed’ behaviour (Heckhausen, 1991), was determined to be the third component, consisting of both integrative and instrumental orientations (Gardner, 1985b, 2000). In Gardner’s model each component could influence not only learner behaviour, but also the conceptualisation of the other components creating a dynamic system that greatly affected the overall learning process.

Studies completed by Gardner and his colleagues also made use of a unique tool, developed and first tested by Gardner and Smythe (1981), which was used to elicit information on learners’ attitudes and motivations. Known as the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB), it would later become one of the essential measurement tools for investigating the socio-educational model and was validated and implemented across a number of participant groups and learning contexts with results typically supporting the notion that integrative motivation was related to linguistic development (Gardner *et al.*, 1983; Lalonde and Gardner, 1984; Gardner, 1985a; Lalonde and Gardner, 1985; Gardner and MacIntyre, 1991; Gardner *et al.*, 1992; Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993; Gardner *et al.*, 1997; Gardner, 2004). A further ‘meta-analysis’ was also completed drawing on the data from a number of Gardner’s studies and analysing it under the premise of the socio-educational model: using data gathered from over 10,000 participants, Masgoret and Gardner (2003) found that a consistent relationship exists among the variables tested by the AMTB and

differences in linguistic achievement. They also found that the relationship between linguistic development and motivation was the strongest out of all the variables measured.

Since the publication of the meta-analysis (Masgoret and Gardner, 2003), Gardner has maintained that the socio-educational model provides a valid and reliable framework from which to examine language-learning motivation (Gardner 2006, 2010), despite the development of other prominent theories (Crookes and Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 2005, 2009c; Ushioda and Dörnyei, 2012). In his latest book, Gardner (2010) reaffirms quality of the socio-educational model by elaborating more on the roles that each motivational and attitudinal perspective play on each other and on the learning process. Furthermore, he combats criticism by pointing out that the inclusion of the AMTB in his model provides a means through which motivation and attitude can be empirically measured, and whose results can be compared with studies dating back almost 30 years. It is because of this consistency and the ability of the model to be adapted as further research emerges that it will be utilised as a major influence in the current study. The AMTB forms the basis for many of the research tools presented, described in detail in Chapter 3, and as a basis for the establishment and analysis of both attitude and motivation (see Section 2.6.3).

2.5.2.2 Empirical Evidence from the Socio-Cultural Model

The meta-analysis published by Masgoret and Gardner (2003) provides strong, empirical evidence for the notion that integrative orientations are a key predictor of successful second language learning. Other studies have also drawn on concepts from the socio-cultural model for analysing motivational orientations, with notable results.

For example, (Hernández, 2006, 2010) found that integrative orientations were a predictor of gains in oral proficiency of L2 Spanish among American university students in both classroom (Hernández, 2006) and SA contexts (Hernández, 2010). Additionally, integrative orientations were found to promote sociocultural adaptation among learners in immersion contexts (Noels, 2001; Masgoret and Ward, 2006; Spenader, 2011).

Interestingly, a study on American learners of Spanish in Barcelona also found positive links between integrative orientations and self-reported linguistic gains (Cigliana and Serrano, Forthcoming); however, the learners were similarly found to hold strong instrumental motivations, suggesting the importance of both orientations among many second language learners. Such examples are also highlighted in studies such as Allen (2013) and Yu (2010),

where findings suggest that learners likely exhibit both categories of motivation throughout their learning experiences.

Moreover, Cigliana and Serrano (Forthcoming) tested variables directly related to integrative and instrumental orientations as they relate to language acquisition, but also motives such as 'Traveling' and 'Having Independence' in the second-language learning context; the results highlight the importance of these more pragmatic motives for studying abroad, which are undoubtedly facilitated by becoming more proficient in the target language during a residence abroad. Because of these findings, the methodology employed by Cigliana and Serrano (Forthcoming) with a similar group of participants will be a key influence to the current study.

2.5.2.3 The 'Noticing' Hypothesis

Alongside the development of the socio-cultural model, another major framework for assessing language-learning motivation developed, based on cognitive theories in educational psychology. In the field of SLA, Richard Schmidt (1990, 1993, 1994, 2001) proposed the 'Noticing Hypothesis' which states that in order for a learner to acquire new linguistic features he/she must first *notice* them by allocating specific attention to the learning. Schmidt's hypothesis additionally explains that only by this conscious allocation of attention will a learner first observe new features in L2 input and then acquire them into his/her repertoire of linguistic abilities. His findings were successively supported by a number of other investigations (Doughty, 1991; Robinson, 1995b, 1995a; Kasper, 1996; Robinson, 1997; Niezgodna and Röver, 2001; Takahashi, 2001, 2005), and soon the concept of motivation would also be incorporated into the theory.

In a critique of Gardner's socio-educational model (Gardner, 1985b, 2000), Crookes and Schmidt (1991) point out a distinct lack of research into the cognitive processes involved in motivation and language learning. Their work draws attention to the importance of cognitive processing in language acquisition and suggests that motivation might be related to the cognitive allocation of attention in SLA. They argue that motivation is essential in the allocation of attention because the process of allocation is voluntary. Furthermore, they postulate that motivation will only be maintained if the L2 input is 'personally relevant' to the learner: the more personally relevant the L2 input, the more likely the learner will

be motivated to allocate selected attention to the linguistic features (Crookes and Schmidt, 1991).

While Schmidt (1990, 1993, 1994, 2001) and Crookes and Schmidt's work (1991) is not a main focus of the current study, it is significant to mention as a number of empirical studies have proven a relationship between attention, 'noticing' and motivation (Schmidt *et al.*, 1996; Cook, 2001; Niezgodna and Röver, 2001; Schmidt and Watanabe, 2001; Takahashi, 2001, 2005). Additionally, several studies completed by Schmidt and his associates have included aspects of integrative and instrumental motivational orientations (Gardner, 1985b), while still maintaining that motivation affects the cognitive process of attention allocation (Schmidt *et al.*, 1996; Schmidt and Watanabe, 2001). Moreover, the work of Schmidt and his colleagues served to connect aspects from Gardner's (1985b) socio-educational model with several newer theoretical frameworks concerning language acquisition and motivation (Dörnyei, 1994; Gardner and Tremblay, 1994; Oxford and Shearin, 1994), concepts from motivational psychology (Dörnyei, 1994; Williams and Burden, 1997; Noels *et al.*, 2000; Dörnyei and Clément, 2001; Noels, 2001) and ultimately the conceptualisation of motivation as a *process* (Dörnyei and Ottó, 1998; Dörnyei, 2001, 2003).

2.5.2.4 The L2 Motivational Process Model

The notion that motivation could be viewed as a *process* encompassing social, psychological and cognitive aspects was first proposed by Dörnyei and Ottó (1998), and paved the way for many new advances in this category of research. In their proposal, they pointed out that much of the past research had focused on defining motivational orientations in language learning, yet few had made reference as to *how* the learners were motivated. Furthermore, they critiqued the previous research path which simply attempted to draw a relationship between motivational orientations and achievement. Instead, they attempted to describe the nature of the motivation itself: how it develops and how it changes over a period of time; thus they proposed a process model, which conceptualises motivation as a continuously evolving process wherein the motives must be sustained indefinitely even as challenges arise in the acquisition of a particular skill.

The L2 motivational process model, focusing originally on classroom language learning, is based primarily off the works of German psychologists Heinz Heckhausen and Julius Kuhl

and their studies on the role of motivation in the psychology of volition (Heckhausen and Kuhl, 1985; Kuhl, 1987; Heckhausen, 1991). By definition, volition refers to an individual's power to make his/her own decisions (Cambridge Dictionaries Online, 2014), from which Heckhausen (1991) distinguishes two stages of motivation within the decision-making process: choice and executive. 'Choice motivation' refers to the initial decision to set a goal or course of action, while 'executive motivation,' on the other hand, refers to the actions taken henceforth in its completion (Heckhausen and Kuhl, 1985; Heckhausen, 1991). In the process model, 'choice' motivation would influence a learner's initial decision to start learning a new language; conversely, 'executive' motivation would impact on the learner's choice to pursue activities to further their own language learning, such as enrolling in a foreign language class.

Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) further suggest that their model is unique in that it incorporates both of Heckhausen's (1991) stages of motivation whereas much of the previous research has simply focused on the 'choice motivation' stage. They also develop on the previous research (Heckhausen and Kuhl, 1985; Kuhl, 1987; Heckhausen, 1991) by suggesting that both motivational stages can affect language learners' decisions and actions over the period of time in which they are learning. In order to demonstrate the method, they distinguish between two key dimensions of the L2 learning process: 'motivational influences,' which will be discussed below, and 'the action sequence' (Dörnyei and Ottó, 1998, pg. 47).

The action sequence in the L2 process model develops in tandem with the 'motivational influences' and consists of three phases: 'preactional,' 'actional' and 'postactional.' In the preactional phase, the learner establishes hopes and desires of becoming a proficient speaker of another language, which later develop into more definite goals and intentions for meeting those desires. From this initial goal-setting, the learner then conceptualises a number of actions or 'sub-tasks' which are undertaken in the actional phase in order to become more proficient in the target language. Additionally in the actional phase, upon completion of each 'sub-task' the learner then employs a self-appraisal of the effectiveness of each approach and may potentially modify these behaviours until the goal is ultimately achieved or rejected. Lastly, Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) propose a final postactional phase in which the learner reflects back on his/her goals and the actions taken to meet them in order to critically evaluate the process as a whole.

The motivational influences themselves are more closely related to Heckhausen's (1991) 'choice motivation,' which impacts on the preactional phase and his 'executive motivation,' which impacts on both actional and postactional phases (Dörnyei and Ottó, 1998). Dörnyei and Ottó refer to 'choice' motivational influences as those that will affect the learner's initial decision to take up a foreign language. These influences take into account a number of social, psychological, and contextual factors that can impact on the learner's establishment of an initial language-learning ambition and subsequent plan formation for achieving that ambition. Additionally, among the influential factors, the authors specifically refer to affective aspects such as learner beliefs, attitudes towards the target language community, and instrumental and integrative orientations (Gardner, 1985b, 2000), and how each is incorporated into the model. Moreover, they suggest that those motivational influences established during the preactional phase are incredibly important as they may impact on further motivational development.

Heckhausen's (1991) 'executive motivation' is highlighted more in the actional and postactional phases of learning. As with the influences in the preactional phase, the influences during the actional phase also take into account a number of social, psychological and contextual factors; however, rather than the factors influencing the initial decision-making process, they may now impact on the setting of 'sub-tasks' and the language-learning experience as a whole. Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) suggest that at this point in the learning, a number of external as well as internal factors are constantly interacting with each other and impacting on the learner's experience. For example, they mention that in a classroom setting, external factors such as parents, teachers and the overall cohesion of the learner group can have a large impact on whether or not the learner successfully completes his/her set actions. Equally, internal factors such as self-regulation and self-appraisal can be just as influential. Each factor plays an important role in either maintaining or damaging the learner's motivation, which will ultimately need to be sustained if he/she is expected to successfully acquire the target language (Dörnyei and Ottó, 1998; Dörnyei, 2001).

Similarly, 'executive motivation' can also be applied to the postactional phase in which the learner will either be successful in achieving his/her goal or dismiss any further intentions. Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) claim that during this phase the learner will attempt to establish a cause-effect relationship between his/her actions and the outcome, be it positive or

negative. Subsequently, the motivational influences in this case are born from a self-reflection of the processes taken, wherein the learner's self-confidence and self-efficacy is either heightened or diminished based on success or failure. This reflection may also be responsible for the learner establishing future goals and which actions he/she takes to achieve those goals.

In addition to the 'action sequence' and 'motivational influences,' the process model also proposed the unique idea that the learner's motivation itself is constantly changing not just across phases, but *during* each phase as well (Dörnyei and Ottó, 1998; Dörnyei, 2001). In order to examine this phenomena, Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) incorporated the 'Theory of Action Control,' originally proposed by Heckhausen and Kuhl (1985) and Kuhl (1987). The theory attempts to ascertain how an individual's intentions are reflected in their behaviours, and it was determined that the actions taken by individuals are not always reflected in their values and goal expectancy. This led Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) to suggest that the motivation to reach a particular language-learning goal is fluid and dynamic, influenced by not only the factors mentioned previously, but by the learner's own conceptualisation of the tasks at hand and how they deal with challenges along the way. The learner's motivational perspectives may therefore fluctuate greatly across a particular learning timeframe, a concept which would later be incorporated into the study of immersion contexts as well as the L2 classroom.

While the original model focused exclusively on language learners in a classroom setting, it was later applied to learners in an immersion or SA context, especially when attempting to describe the development of motivation and how it affects learner behaviour. Moreover, it strived to incorporate various aspects of product-oriented studies, or those relating motivation and achievement (e.g. Gardner, 1985b; Schmidt, 1990, 1993; Gardner, 2000), by assigning the different types of motivation and their influences to certain steps in the overall motivational process which could develop over time (Dörnyei and Ottó, 1998; Dörnyei, 2001, 2003). For example, 'integrativeness' (Gardner, 1985b, 2000) was found to influence the learner's language-learning intentions, a concept which may have impacted on the learner's choice to study in an immersion context. Additionally, a parallel might be drawn between external factors influencing learners in the actional phase (Dörnyei and Ottó, 1998; Dörnyei, 2001, 2003): in an immersion context these might refer more

specifically to interactions with native speakers or the development of social groups while abroad rather than the impact of teachers or other students in a classroom.

Yet perhaps most importantly, the L2 motivational process model encouraged the investigation of the actual behaviours of learners rather than simply correlating motivational orientations and linguistic development. In addition, its incorporation of a number of previous studies allows for researchers to relate initial motivational orientations, how they might develop over time and how this dynamic process affects first learners' actions and ultimately their linguistic achievements. Furthermore, its introduction and further implementation provided a pivotal step towards perhaps the most recent theory in the study of dynamic motivation: The conceptualisation of language-learning as a dynamic system (Larsen-Freeman, 2006; Ellis, 2007; De Bot, 2008; Larsen-Freeman, 2012) and Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009b, 2009c).

2.5.2.5 Dynamic Systems Theory

In the study of language-learning motivation and other affective variables which might impact on SLA, it has long been understood that the variables themselves have a number of dynamic qualities. For example, in Gardner's socio-educational model (Gardner, 1985b, 2000; Gardner *et al.*, 2004; Gardner, 2010), he describes how different affective variables, including attitudes and motivation, can influence each other and can impact the language-learning experience. He also mentions that the experience itself can, in turn, influence the affective variables. Additionally, the allocation of attention and the Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt, 1990; Crookes and Schmidt, 1991; Schmidt, 2001) include similar elements of dynamicity in which the allocation of attention to new linguistic features may fluctuate as motivation changes or as the learner becomes more proficient.

Yet, until the appearance of the L2 motivational process model, very little work had focused on both the impact of affective factors on each other and how they influence the actions of language learners across various stages of the learning process (Dörnyei and Ottó, 1998; Dörnyei, 2001, 2003). Of course, Gardner's (2006, 2010) later work did acknowledge that each affective construct in his model assumes a specific role in the language learning process, but questions still remained as to the how an aspect such as motivation relates to the system of language acquisition as a whole.

This gap in the research allowed for the application of the Dynamic Systems Theory (DST) to language acquisition which attempted to conceptualise the various constructs within a language and how a learner might piece them together. While the concept of dynamic systems was first understood as an abstract organisation of human cognition and how it developed over time (De Bot, 2008), Larsen-Freeman (1997) was perhaps the first to relate this theory to SLA. In her article, Larsen-Freeman (1997) depicts the dynamic nature of a linguistic system, including its components of syntax, lexicon, phonology, and pragmatics, as something that develops and constantly changes over time in a non-linear, sometimes chaotic fashion. This is especially true of a L2 system whose development is extremely prone to influence from various contextual factors; variables such as attitude, motivation, age, aptitude, input and first language transference all seem to have an impact on the learner's developing language that may not always be consistent. Furthermore, she points out that different cases of L2 instruction or input may lead to differences in linguistic development among language learners whereas in some cases input or instruction may have no effect whatsoever (Larsen-Freeman, 1997).

Several years later, Larsen-Freeman (2002) introduced an additional social component to her L2 dynamic system, suggesting that the cognitive and social dimensions of language-learning are interrelated and both deserving of recognition in the dynamic system; a number of subsequent studies supported her theories (Ellis and Larsen-Freeman, 2006; Larsen-Freeman, 2006; Meara, 2006; De Bot *et al.*, 2007; Ellis, 2007; De Bot, 2008; Larsen-Freeman and Cameron, 2008; Dörnyei, 2009a, 2009c; Larsen-Freeman, 2012; Dörnyei *et al.*, 2015; Ushioda, 2015). More specifically, in a study of Chinese learners of English, Larsen-Freeman (2006) suggests that differences in linguistic developments among learners are a natural part of the dynamic system which are influenced by individual orientations and social interactions. Similarly, Ellis and Larsen-Freeman (2006) and Larsen-Freeman and Cameron (2008) describe the language acquisition process not simply as the knowledge of linguistic forms, but as a system wherein learners' language is constantly changing and developing dynamically as they utilise the L2 to interact with others.

While the DST was not initially conceptualised to investigate the role of motivation and other affective variables, it became an important stepping stone to understanding how affective factors can be such an influential part of the dynamic development of the L2. In fact, using this framework, Ellis (2007) suggests that individual variability, its relationship

to contextual factors and its change over time may be much more important in studies on SLA than was previously thought. Again, Larsen-Freeman (1997, 2006) pointed out that individual orientations, including motivation, did exhibit an impact within the dynamic system; however a new line of research headed by Zoltán Dörnyei and his colleagues would soon specifically position motivation within the system and highlight its role in the dynamic L2 acquisition process.

The position of motivation, and other affective factors, within the DST framework was originally proposed by Dörnyei in 2005 when he first mentioned the influential L2 Motivational Self System, which will be discussed in the following section, and suggested the need for more longitudinal studies on the dynamics of motivation. Dörnyei (2009c) elaborates on his point of view by suggesting that affective factors such as motivation and attitudes cannot have a direct cause-effect relationship with linguistic achievement because they are constantly fluctuating and influencing one another as well as the *process* of linguistic development. He therefore proposes that motivational research continue to investigate *how* learners are motivated and how motivations might change in various learning contexts which will ultimately impact on the learning experience as a whole and not just linguistic achievement (Dörnyei, 2009b, 2009c; Ushioda and Dörnyei, 2012; Dörnyei *et al.*, 2015; Larsen-Freeman, 2015; Ushioda, 2015).

2.5.2.6 The L2 Motivational Self System

In a further attempt to investigate the *how* of motivational research, as well as the process' influence on learner behaviour and its role as a major variable in the L2 dynamic system, Dörnyei (2009b) proposed the L2 Motivational Self System as an alternative to the measurements of 'integrativeness' and instrumental/integrative orientations (Gardner, 1985b, 2010). The system itself is largely based off the works of Higgins (1987) and Markus and Nurius (1986) who posited the existence of 'possible selves' as motivational constructs, including the notions of the 'ideal self' and the 'ought self.' In both exemplifications, the 'ideal self' is a representation of all the ideal characteristics an individual hopes to possess (i.e. wealth, intelligence) which manifest themselves as hopes, desires or dreams. Conversely, the 'ought self' is a representation of the qualities an individual believes that he/she should possess (i.e. moral responsibility) which may be self-established or influenced by the characteristics that others think the individual should possess.

While both the 'ideal' and 'ought' possible selves have the potential to be motivating factors, Dörnyei (2009b), citing the works of Higgins (1987) and Markus and Nurius (1986), reveals that six main variables have the potential to increase or impede the motivational capability of these possible selves. First, he mentions that the individual's ideal image of his/herself must be clear, with established goals and desires which the individual hopes to achieve. Second, the end result must be achievable; for example, if an individual's 'ideal self' is unattainable or simply unfeasible, then the possible self will hold very little motivational power. Third, the 'ideal' and 'ought' selves must share similar values, a unity which individuals might find difficult to achieve especially if pressure from external members leads the individual's 'ought' self away from the initial hopes and dreams held by the 'ideal' self. Fourth, the idea that an individual can achieve his/her possible self must be 'activated' or brought to his/her immediate attention. Fifth, the individual must be aware of a plan of strategies and tasks that can be undertaken in pursuit of the 'ideal self'. And finally, the individual must possess an aspect of a 'feared self' in which he/she would be disappointed if the outcome of the possible-self journey did not end in a realization of the 'ideal self'.

The application of the 'possible selves' concept specifically to language-learning motivation came from what Dörnyei calls a "growing dissatisfaction with the concept of integrativeness/integrative motivation" (2009b, pg. 22). In his critique of Gardner's work, he refers to these concepts as "ambiguous" (Dörnyei, 2009b, pg. 23) and hopes to use this new self-system to incorporate Gardner's motivational concepts as well as the dynamicity and complexity of language-learning situations which he feels are excluded from Gardner's model. Dörnyei (2009b) additionally hoped to explain previous empirical findings which did not necessarily adhere to previous research (Dörnyei *et al.*, 2006), including how 'instrumentality' and attitudes towards the target language community might be incorporated into the 'ideal self' concept.

Therefore, he proposed the self-system, which incorporated the 'ideal L2 self', the 'ought-to L2 self' and the 'L2 Learning Experience.' The 'ideal L2 self' and the 'ought-to self' are clear reflections of the 'ideal self' and 'ought self' first proposed by Higgins (1987) and Markus and Nurius (1986). The first, Dörnyei (2009a, pg. 29) describes as a "powerful motivator," capable of drawing on both integrative and intrinsic practical intentions as a means of bridging the gap between the learner's actual self and how he/she conceives

his/herself as a proficient L2 speaker. Contrastingly, the 'ought-to L2 self' refers to the characteristics that the learner should possess, especially in order to avoid negative outcomes, and is particularly prone to influence from extrinsic motivators such as parents or peers. Finally, the L2 Learning Experience is a representation of all external or environmental factors which might impact on the conceptualisation of each possible self, including classroom dynamics, teachers, social groups and experiences with native speakers.

2.5.2.7 Empirical Evidence for the Motivation Self System

A number of studies published since have additionally supported the L2 Motivational Self System as an effective means through which to investigate motivation (Csizér and Kormos, 2009; Hsieh, 2009; Kim, 2009; Ryan, 2009; Taguchi *et al.*, 2009; Koga, 2010; Papi, 2010; Kormos *et al.*, 2011; Dörnyei and Chan, 2013; Kormos and Kiddle, 2013; Waninge *et al.*, 2014). For example, in order to test the validity and effectiveness of the L2 Motivational Self System, a number of investigations were completed with learners of English and incorporating very similar research tools, while the research itself was conducted across many different locations and cultures: Hungary (Dörnyei *et al.*, 2006; Kormos and Csizér, 2008; Csizér and Kormos, 2009; Csizér and Lukács, 2010), Japan (Ryan, 2009; Taguchi *et al.*, 2009), China (Taguchi *et al.*, 2009; Dörnyei and Chan, 2013), Iran (Taguchi *et al.*, 2009; Papi, 2010) and Chile (Kormos *et al.*, 2011; Kormos and Kiddle, 2013).

Some interesting findings and trends emerge from this research. Foremost is the consistent finding that the 'ideal L2 self' was found to be the most important factor relating to language-learning motivated behaviour (Kormos and Csizér, 2008; Csizér and Kormos, 2009; Ryan, 2009; Taguchi *et al.*, 2009; Csizér and Lukács, 2010; Papi, 2010; Kormos *et al.*, 2011). While factors such as age (Kormos and Csizér, 2008; Csizér and Kormos, 2009; Taguchi *et al.*, 2009; Kormos *et al.*, 2011) and even socio-economical status (Lamb, 2012; Kormos and Kiddle, 2013) tended to play a role in its formation, it seems, as Dörnyei (2009a) suggested, to be able to account for all types of motivated behaviour. Interestingly, however, the motivating 'ideal L2 self' was not necessarily related to 'integrativeness,' a result which challenged the previous notions of the socio-educational model (Gardner, 1985b, 2006, 2010); while in Ryan's (2009) study of Japanese learners of English, 'integrativeness' was found to be highly related to the 'ideal L2 self', in the Hungarian

context, Kormos and Csizér (2008) found that it was largely unrelated, especially in older learners. Kormos and Csizér (2008) point out that in contexts such as Hungary where a large English-speaking population might not exist, 'integrativeness' might have less of an effect on the 'ideal L2 self' whereas the desire to learn English because its status as an international language may be more important.

An additional finding common among the studies is that the 'ought-to L2 self', with its primarily extrinsic stimuli, has much less influence on motivated behaviour than the 'ideal L2 self' (Kormos and Csizér, 2008; Csizér and Kormos, 2009; Taguchi *et al.*, 2009; Papi, 2010; Kormos *et al.*, 2011). In fact, Kormos and Csizér (2008) and Kormos *et al.* (2011) could not establish any relationship between the 'ought-to L2 self' and motivated behaviour, while Papi (2010) found that external stimuli, such as parental pressure, affecting the 'ought-to L2 self' could actually increase language-anxiety. Papi (2010) continues by stating that those whose intentions to learn English are motivated primarily by the 'ought-to L2 self' are more anxious in learning English than those who are motivated primarily by the 'ideal L2 self'. A further interesting point was demonstrated by Taguchi *et al.* (2009), who found that those from different cultural backgrounds may be motivated to different degrees by the 'ideal' and 'ought-to L2 selves': in countries such as China and Japan where language learning is a highly important and exam-oriented academic subject, the 'ought-to L2 self' might play more of a role in motivating learners than in those from other cultural backgrounds.

While most of the previous findings from Dörnyei and the work done by his colleagues has centred around L2 classroom learners, a different line of studies has also attempted to apply the L2 Motivational Self System, or certain elements of it, to SA or immersion contexts (Yu and Watkins, 2008; Hiromori, 2009; Hsieh, 2009; Kim, 2009; Weger, 2013; Juan-Garau *et al.*, 2014; Kormos and Csizér, 2014; Trenchs-Parera and Juan-Garau, 2014; Irie and Ryan, 2015; You and Chan, 2015; Cigliana and Serrano, Forthcoming). For instance, Kim (2009) found that learners who go abroad and are primarily motivated by their 'ought-to L2 selves' must first internalize their language-learning desires into an 'ideal L2 self' before they will truly exhibit language-motivated behaviour. A relatively recent study published by Cigliana and Serrano (Forthcoming) also postulates a potential conflict between the 'ought-to self' and the 'ideal self' in a SA context. In their work with American SA students, they found that external pressures from other SA students may direct students

away from activities that might benefit SLA in favour of activities with the native-language social group. This may occur despite the learners' knowledge that such activities will not lead to language acquisition.

Alternatively, Hsieh (2009) and You and Chan (2015) revealed that an initially well-formed 'ideal L2 self' can quickly change after a learner encounters difficulties interacting within the target culture. Hsieh (2009) found that her learners reverted from a strong 'ideal L2 self' to a 'prevention-focused' ought-to motivation because of a fear that they might fail their course. You and Chan (2015), on the other hand, discovered that their participants' 'ideal L2 selves' might change upon arrival abroad after they realize that their dreams of becoming as proficient as a native speaker might be realistically unattainable; their 'ideal L2 selves' in this case shift to a more attainable goal, such as simply being able to communicate with others using English. Similarly, Irie and Ryan (2015) found that the 'ideal L2 self' may be very strong before going abroad, but its power as a motivator soon becomes very volatile once a learner arrives in their host country.

These results and others support the notion that motivation is a dynamic construct and can be easily influenced by external factors such as initially going abroad (Yu and Watkins, 2008; Hsieh, 2009; Kim, 2009; DeKeyser, 2010; Jackson, 2013) and contact/experiences with native speakers in the target community (Isabelli-Garcia, 2006; Hsieh, 2009; Kim, 2009; Goldoni, 2013; Kormos and Csizér, 2014; Trenchs-Parera and Juan-Garau, 2014).

One final finding common in several of the studies mentioned interestingly mirrors the discovery made by Kormos and Csizér (2008), who found that the desire to connect with native speakers of the target language was not as strong in some cases as the desire to learn English for its purposes as a means of global communication. Yashima (2009) describes this phenomena as 'international posture,' a combination of 'integrativeness' and instrumentality in language learning in which a learner sees the L2 as a means through which to connect to the wider international community. While Kormos and Csizér (2008) and Yashima (2009) understandably demonstrate this perception among EFL learners in situations where a native-speaker community is not readily available, both Trenchs-Parera and Juan-Garau (2014) and Weger (2013) reveal a tendency for learners to hold an international posture even when learning in SA contexts. In Trenchs-Parera and Juan-Garau's (2014) study of Spanish/Catalan learners in England, the participants showed more inclination to learn English for purposes of securing a job in an English-speaking country

than for connecting with native English speakers. Similarly in Weger's (2014) study, a mixed group of international learners of English in the US demonstrated more positive attitudes towards learning English as a means of gaining international posture and fewer positive attitudes towards the English-speaking community in which they were studying. While no studies to date have investigated the desire for international posture in already proficient or native speakers of English learning another language, this new-found combination of integrative and instrumental orientations for one common goal presents a new challenge to previous motivational theories (Gardner, 1985b, 2006, 2010) which may be worth examination in future studies.

2.5.3 The Role of Attitude and Motivation in the Current Study

Perhaps out of all of the variables investigated relating to SLA, and especially those that have been related to L2 acquisition in a SA context, motivation and attitude appear to be some of the most complex and dynamic. It is, therefore, because of this complexity that the current study examines the roles of motivation and attitude from two contrasting theoretical frameworks: the socio-educational model (Gardner, 1985b, 2006, 2010) and the L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei 2005, 2009b).

First, the project draws on Gardner's initial definition of 'integrativeness' and attitudes towards the learning situation as a means of establishing the participants' own attitudinal perspectives and compare them to a large body of literature. Then, a similar approach is taken in the analysis of motivation, where integrative and instrumental orientations are analysed separately and compared with attitudinal perspectives and linguistic achievement.

Gardner's (1985a, b, 2006, 2010) models are the basis on which motivational and attitudinal orientations are established, more specifically by using elements derived from the AMTB on a series of questionnaires as a means to collect this initial data. The choice to include several measurement items directly related to Gardner's (1985b, 1985a, 2004, 2006) research tools comes out of the realisation that much of Dörnyei's (2003, 2005; Dörnyei *et al.*, 2006; 2009a, 2009b) work still recognises the existence of many of the constructs proposed by Gardner, such as 'integrativeness' and instrumental/integrative orientations. In fact, many of the studies conducted by Dörnyei and his colleagues (Csizér and Kormos, 2009; Dörnyei, 2009b; Taguchi *et al.*, 2009; Csizér and Lukács, 2010; Papi,

2010; Kormos *et al.*, 2011; Dörnyei and Chan, 2013) utilise versions of a questionnaire developed by Stephen Ryan (2005, 2009) who initially drew inspiration from both Dörnyei (Clément *et al.*, 1994; Dörnyei and Clément, 2001; Dörnyei and Csizér, 2002) and Gardner (1985b, 1985a, 2004). Additionally, evidence from Serrano *et al.* (2012, pg. 154), whose instruments were primarily inspired by Gardner's work, suggests that data from such an instrument can be analysed from both a socio-educational perspective (Gardner, 1985b, 2006, 2010) and a dynamic systems perspective (Larsen-Freeman, 2002; De Bot *et al.*, 2007; De Bot, 2008; Larsen-Freeman and Cameron, 2008; Dörnyei *et al.*, 2015).

Additionally, data is gathered on motivational orientations and attitudinal perspectives as they relate to undertaking the residence abroad, and not necessarily to the acquisition of another language. For example, the inclusion of more instrumental motives such as 'Travelling' and 'Having independence' hopes to add insight into the reasons that the students chose to study abroad, and how they perceive their time in Europe.

To do so, the research instruments draw on these more pragmatic themes considered in Cigliana and Serrano (Forthcoming), Llanes *et al.* (2012), Serrano *et al.* (2012) and Tragant (2012) under the premise that SLA, and indeed SA, can facilitate their realisation. While it may be assumed that all of the students are motivated to some extent to learn Spanish as their selected program requires them to take Spanish language classes, the inclusion of a distinction between cultural and pragmatic reasons for studying abroad adds insight into the range of motives, and subsequent benefits, of studying abroad. Equally, the pragmatic reasons are still likely to be related to the acquisition of Spanish, which would facilitate the achievement of such aims within a new cultural context. Such statements also show contrast between those students who travel abroad mainly for integrative reasons with those who consider knowledge of the target language as a means to enable them to achieve other non-linguistic goals.

Thus, adopting this preliminary approach allows the project to include elements of pre-established tools whose outcomes can be easily deciphered on a quantitative level and the participants' perceptions and orientations can be compared both within the study and with previous research that has supported this framework. Gardner's models also allow for attitude to be recognized as a separate, but related construct to motivation; this will allow for the analysis to interpret attitude independently, whereas Dörnyei's model consistently

maintains that attitude is a sub-component and driving force for motivation (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009b; Dörnyei and Ottó, 1998).

While initial motivational and attitudinal orientations are established based on Gardner's parameters via a series of questionnaires (Gardner, 1985b, 2006, 2010), the longitudinal analysis adopts Dörnyei's (2005, 2009b) framework as it relates to the constant evolution of motivation and attitude over time. Additionally, it allows for the inclusion of qualitative and observational data as an influence to the motivational process by stepping outside of Gardner's (1985a) fixed concepts of integrative and instrumental orientations. Also, the implementation of Dörnyei's (2005, 2009b) frameworks allows for an analysis of attitudinal perspectives as they impact on motivation, and vice versa; equally, the conceptualisation of these variables as a *system* might shed light on how they evolve over time and impact on other factors, such as linguistic development.

Finally, Dörnyei's (2005, 2009b) model also considers the impact that motivational and attitudinal factors can have on learner behaviour, particularly as it relates to language learning. As such, the analysis combines the analytical framework suggested by Dörnyei with that of communities of practice (Wenger, 1998; Eckert and Wenger, 2005; Eckert, 2006), which centres primarily on the 'practice' or behaviour within social groups. The aim of this combination is to examine learner behaviours as they relate to the formation of social groups, and how motivational and attitudinal factors might promote or hinder such behaviour. The learning environment and the learning experiences are also taken into account according to Dörnyei's (2009a, 2009b) framework.

By incorporating both frameworks into the analysis, the current study hopes to provide a new perspective on motivation which could not normally be established with a quantitative approach alone. Equally, the final discussion in Chapter 9 concludes with references to the DST frameworks as a means to conceptualise all of the social, psychological and environmental factors which may impact on SA (Larsen-Freeman, 2012; Dörnyei *et al.*, 2015; Ushioda, 2015). The combination of these approaches seeks to provide a more effective method for analysis in truly understanding the experiences of students abroad and what personal and/or external factors might impact on their language acquisition in this exceptional context.

2.6 Language Contact

Another major area of study in SLA, and the final main individual difference examined in the current study, considers the amount of time learners spend in contact with the target language, particularly within a SA context. Many studies have examined the interactions between language learners and native speakers, especially in the context of SA where the opportunities for contact with the target language are typically far greater in number than they would be in a traditional AH classroom setting (Freed, 1998; Collentine, 2004; Freed *et al.*, 2004a; Lafford, 2004; Segalowitz and Freed, 2004; Dewey, 2007; Coleman, 2009; Dewey *et al.*, 2013a; Mitchell *et al.*, 2015).

Researchers have argued that language contact, and more specifically sustained interaction with native speakers in the target language, is a predictor of certain linguistic gains, especially those related with oral production (Meara, 1994; Freed, 1995b; Lapkin *et al.*, 1995; Collentine and Freed, 2004). For example, in Meara's (1994) study of linguistic gains among 586 British students who had spent a year abroad, interaction in the target language was found to be the best predictor of gains in other linguistic skills, such as listening, reading and writing. More specifically, many studies demonstrate a strong link between language contact and gains in oral proficiency (Mendelson, 2004; Segalowitz and Freed, 2004; Isabelli-Garcia, 2006; DeKeyser, 2007; Hernández, 2010; Dewey *et al.*, 2012; Hernández, 2016). Studies carried out by Collentine (2004), Dewey (2007) and Lafford (2004) have found that language contact was linked with the production of more native-like speech in learners. Furthermore, Díaz-Campos (2004, 2006) demonstrated a correlation between L2 interaction, more native-like pronunciation and 'conversation style' speech, while DeKeyser (2007) suggested that prolonged interaction with native speakers of the target language may lead to substantial improvements in oral fluency. Trends have also been shown between increased language contact and gains in vocabulary acquisition (Dewey, 2008) and written accuracy (Llanes *et al.*, 2012). Conversely, interaction using the target language within same first-language social groups or with lower-proficiency non-native speakers has been shown to negatively affect language acquisition (Magnan and Back, 2007; Brown, 2008, 2009a, 2009b).

The investigation into language contact in the study begins with an introduction to two key theories: The cognitive model and the socialisation model. Evidence is given as to why the

socialisation model comprises a key focus in this study, followed by an introduction into two key frameworks related to language socialisation research and a comprehensive review of the literature concerning language contact and L2 interaction. Finally, Section 2.6.2 discusses the analytical frameworks employed in the study.

2.6.1 The Cognitive Model

The concepts behind language contact and its benefits for SLA can be traced back to either traditional language classroom situations or first-language learning. One prominent theoretical perspective posited is that acquiring a language is a 'cognitive process' (Long, 1996) wherein a learner must be exposed to comprehensible L2 'input' in order to acquire new linguistic features (Krashen, 1981, 1982, 1985) and subsequently produce comprehensible 'output' in order to practice those features (Swain, 1985). The notion that interaction in the target language is essential for language learning was thus forefronted in subsequent research (Long, 1996; Gass, 1997). Long's (1996) 'Interactional Hypothesis,' for example, proposes that conversation in the target language was essential for SLA as it included the reception of L2 input, the production of L2 output and the negotiation of meaning between the speakers. In this cognitive model, he suggests that through conversation, the learner will be able to notice new features and successively develop his/her lexical and grammatical capacity.

Yet, the cognitive model appears to rely on the learner being scaffolded by a more expert speaker via a level of input which is neither too simple, nor too complex, as a means to introduce the learner to new features of a language (Krashen, 1985).

2.6.2 Language Socialisation

An alternative line of research stemming from linguistic anthropology suggests that interaction in the target language is essential for language acquisition because of its inherently *social* nature. Ochs and Schieffelin (1979, 1983) and Schieffelin and Ochs (1986) proposed the notion of 'language socialisation' wherein both children and other learners must be introduced to the target language by more experienced members of the community, therefore creating social relationships. It is through these relationships that a child or learner acquires the language and socio-cultural norms of the target community.

Kramsch (2002) takes this concept further by relating it specifically to second language acquisition: the learner interacts with expert speakers, and through the process of socialisation, draws on the abilities of the expert to then enhance his/her communicative capacity. Additionally, Duff (2007, 2008) points out that L2 socialisation presents an added challenge to learners as they must acquire many of the cultural aspects of the language that are inherent for native speakers; such linguistic and cultural elements of a language typically cannot be 'taught' in a classroom, and therefore must be acquired through the socialisation process.

Dewey *et al.* (2012, pg. 114) point out that this differs from the cognitive model because, "language is seen not as input, but as a tool for connecting to others socially." Kramsch (2002) does suggest, however, that there are many similarities between the cognitive and social models which make them both worth consideration. While socialisation is key for acquiring linguistic norms, a certain level of L2 lexical and grammatical ability is needed in order to appropriately interact in the target language. Alternatively, the learner will not fully develop his/her linguistic abilities without these social and cultural interactions (Kramsch, 2002).

Kramsch's (2002) social theory will therefore be utilised as an important framework in the context of the present study because of the study's focus on social *relationships*, rather than the idea of 'conversation' as mentioned by Long (1996). This distinction is made because of the growing body of research which suggests that *relationships* with target language speakers must be made before recurring negotiation of meaning and linguistic development can occur (Duff, 2007; Wang, 2010; Coleman and Chafer, 2011; Shively, 2011; Coleman, 2013). Moreover, Long's (1996) hypothesis, based on the works of Krashen (1981, 1985), relies largely on the language learner being scaffolded by a more expert speaker via mediated input. The model then specifies a level of linguistic input which is neither too simple, nor too complex in order to facilitate language acquisition, a notion which is unlikely to occur in naturalistic settings outside of a classroom.

However, Long's (1996) 'Interactional Hypothesis' will not be completely discounted, as the evidence above has shown that pre-program proficiency, likely developed via the mediated input suggested by Krashen (1985), may have a substantial impact on a learner's ability to communicate using the L2. As such, investigations into the role of pre-program L2 proficiency, as mentioned in Section 2.4, will provide a basis from which the cognitive

aspects of language acquisition might be examined, while the benefits of socialising with native speakers (Ochs and Schieffelin, 1979, 1983; Schieffelin and Ochs, 1986) inform the principal design of the research instruments, which focus on measuring language contact through various social relationships. This design seeks to encompass both elements of both the cognitive and social dimensions of language learning, whilst still maintaining a key focus on the role of relationships as facilitators of language acquisition. Evidence of the benefits of interaction are detailed in Section 2.6.3 following the introduction of two key frameworks for the analysis of language socialisation.

2.6.2.1 Social Networks

Drawing on the notion that relationships are key to linguistic development, two major theoretical frameworks have been utilised in SLA research to investigate L2 language socialisation: Social networks and communities of practice. Each framework aims to address the nature and composition of social relationships, and each has been applied successfully in a SLA context. As a result, they will both be explored in detail as potential foundations for the current study's investigation; later, evidence is given as to why the communities of practice framework is best suited to the current study, although the social networks framework will still be noted as an important reference to similar research. Both are explored as foundations on which to analyse the development of social relationship as well as subsequent linguistic achievement.

The first framework to be considered is that of the 'social network,' whose primary influences were developed originally from research on dialectology. Sociolinguists such as William Labov, among others, first attempted to describe regional dialectal variations, and later expanded their theories to describe variation among communities with different ethnic and socioeconomic backgrounds (Gumperz, 1970; Labov, 1972b, 1972a; Trudgill, 1972, 1974; Gumperz, 1977). Their theories described how the sharing of dialectal features is central to an individual's self-identification as a member of a particular social group; alternatively, distinctive dialectal features could serve as identity markers to non-group members, particularly when two communities reside in a shared geographic area.

Inspired by the works of Labov, sociolinguist Lesley Milroy also hoped to investigate the role of language variation among communities; her early conceptualisation of the social network attempts to describe the qualities of the relationships among community

members and how they affect linguistic variation (Milroy, 1980; Milroy and Milroy, 1985; Milroy and Milroy, 1992). Milroy (1980) describes a social network as a group of individuals who share a common relationship, such as friendship or kinship. The networks are then classified by investigating qualities such as the choice of language, whether or not the all of the individuals know one another and in what contexts do the members interact. In terms of second language acquisition, Milroy's research points out that social networks are key in the acquisition of the linguistic norms of a particular community: those who are successful at integrating and forming 'strong' social ties with members of the target culture tend to adopt their new linguistic norms, while those who have 'weak' social ties tend to maintain their current linguistic norms (Milroy, 1980; Milroy and Milroy, 1985; Milroy and Milroy, 1992). Conversely, linguistic distinctions between networks can be maintained or even strengthened if two 'close-knit' groups exist simultaneously in a common area, yet without any strong ties between them (Granovetter, 1973, 1983).

It is also essential to identify the different elements of the social networks framework in order to understand how they might influence language acquisition. Milroy (1980) identifies members of a social network as those who share a common relationship, and typically classifies social networks based on 'order'. First-order networks consist of anyone with whom an individual has direct contact, be they a close friend or family member, or a known acquaintance, such as a local shop clerk. Second-order networks, on the other hand, consist of those who may be known indirectly through another member, while theoretically third-order members may only have a loose connection to the wider network via a second-order individual (pg. 46-48).

The networks themselves are typically analysed based on a central individual's place in society, wherein that individual's relationships are classified based on a number of factors. The most common of these are *density*, *multiplexity* and *member closeness*, and each plays a role in determining the impact of the relationship on the central individual's sociolinguistic practices. More specifically, density is defined as the measure of individuals who know one another within a given network, while a very dense group of individuals, such as a family, may be referred to as a *cluster* (Milroy, 1980, pg. 49-51). Multiplexity, on the other hand, relates to the number of capacities in which one person knows another: a multiplex relationship indicates social interaction across a number of social contexts, while in a uniplex relationship, the social interaction is limited to typically only one social context

(Milroy, 1980, pg. 51-52). Finally, the closeness of one member to another may also be described as the intensity of the relationship; close relationships, like those found in a cluster, tend to have the strongest relationship with identity formation (Milroy, 1980, pg. 51-52).

In terms of the acquisition of defining sociolinguistic features, Milroy's research indicates that, while a dense social network can lead to the acquirement of common sociolinguistic features, the *cluster* is perhaps the strongest in shaping the central individual's sociolinguistic habits. Moreover, the presence of multiplex relationships can also have a strong impact on the individual, while a uniplex relationship does little to shape such features (Milroy, 1980; Milroy and Milroy, 1985; Milroy and Milroy, 1992). This is evidenced strongly in Milroy and Milroy's (1978) study of dialectal variation in several close-knit communities in Belfast, Northern Ireland, wherein those who had the strongest community ties tended to adopt the most salient features of the local vernacular. Alternatively, those who had weaker ties to the observed community exhibited far fewer of the defining linguistic traits, thus signalling their position as an outlier to the community in question.

Milroy's theories on the social network and its role in the development of linguistic variation were subsequently extended to examine second language acquisition in a variety of contexts. Central to this expansion was the theory that the social interaction provided by a social network with target-language speakers would foster second language development (Pellegrino, 1998; Lybeck, 2002; Kurata, 2004; Isabelli-Garcia, 2006; Dewey, 2008; Dewey *et al.*, 2012; Schartner, 2014; Gautier and Chevrot, 2015). Notably, studies completed by Isabelli-Garcia (2006, 2010) and Dewey (Dewey *et al.*, 2012; Dewey *et al.*, 2013a; Dewey *et al.*, 2013b) supported this notion, and found that certain elements in a learner's social network contributed positively to second language development.

Their findings, however, tended to differ from that of dialectal variation studies in that the social network framework could not fully determine whether L2 linguistic development would occur based solely on the existence of the appropriate network. For instance, in Isabelli-Garcia's (2006) study of U.S. students learning Spanish in Argentina, all of the participants reported having first-order relationships with speakers of Spanish; however, the existence of the network could not guarantee second language acquisition. Instead, a number of other affective factors, such as attitude and motivation, appeared to play a

further critical role, resulting in the individual being more central to his/her learning rather than the established social network.

Similarly, in studies completed by Dewey and his colleagues (Dewey, 2008; Dewey *et al.*, 2012; Dewey *et al.*, 2013a), the findings indicated that the simple existence of a social network with native speakers was not enough to guarantee linguistic development. In some cases, an individual's presence in multiple social networks appeared to be the most critical factor in determining linguistic development (Dewey, 2008; Dewey *et al.*, 2012); however, in other circumstances, the presence of a single, close friendship with a native speaker was predictive of language acquisition (Dewey *et al.*, 2013a).

Furthermore, Dewey *et al.* (2014) acknowledged that the establishment of social networks and the relationships within them varied greatly between program sites. As a result, the students' linguistic development abroad also varied, despite the first-order connections with target-language speakers reported by the majority of the participants.

Nevertheless, it is still necessary to consider the application of social network theory in the current case study, despite the limitations of applying it in the study of second language acquisition abroad.

2.6.2.2 Communities of Practice

The second framework focuses more closely on the building of identity through language and refers to social relationships as 'communities of practice' (Lave and Wenger, 1991). Etienne Wenger (1998, 2000) defines a community of practice as a group of individuals who come together for a common venture, and it is through these communities that social learning takes place. In contrast to Labov and Milroy's conceptualisation, which tends to group individuals based on social class, gender or even simple proximity, the community of practice comes together to participate in a "regular joint activity" which in turn allows the community to develop "ways of doing things, views, values, power relations, [and] ways of talking" (Eckert, 2006, pg. 1). Equally, Labov (1972b) and Milroy's (1980) model differs from the major communities of practice theories (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998; Eckert, 2000) due to the emphasis placed on *linguistic* variation: where differences in accent, vocabulary and style are central to identity-formation in the works of Labov and Milroy (Labov, 1972b; Milroy, 1980; Milroy and Milroy, 1985; Labov, 1986), the notion of a community of practice focuses more so on the characteristic from which its name is

derived: the *practice* or behaviours of the group (Wenger, 1998; Eckert, 2000; Davies, 2005).

Wenger (1998) establishes three main features within a community of practice which classify it as such: first, members hold each other accountable for maintaining the collective understanding or premise of the group in a form of 'joint enterprise.' Second, members establish 'mutual engagement' which is reflected in the consistent norms of interactions among members. Third, members jointly establish a 'shared repertoire' of resources, including styles, routines, and language utilised, which identifies them as being members of the group.

Additionally, Eckert (2000) provides a strong example of the relevance of *practice* in her examination of social groupings among high school students in suburban Detroit. In her research, Eckert identifies two salient adolescent communities within a suburban high school, each of which she classifies as belonging to a different social class. However, the notion of class in her investigation is typically not determined by the social class of the children's parents, but rather by the behaviours and linguistic variation exhibited by each community as they openly contrast the other group in the high school. These social classes, which she names *jocks* and *burnouts*, only exist within the realm of the high school, yet, they are distinctly shaped by the shared practice of the members, and not by the outside world. Such practice, and specifically the noticeable separation between the groups, lead to the development of distinct linguistic and behavioral variation, despite their close proximity (Eckert, 2000). Thus, Eckert's (2000) example demonstrates the importance of *practice*, and not necessarily proximity, in the development of sociolinguistic norms; this is particularly relevant in a context where differing social groups may exist side by side, such as the case of many American SA groups within their receptor communities (Wilkinson, 1997; Ogden, 2008; Coleman, 2013).

Moreover, authors such as Goldoni (2013) Haneda (1997), Morita (2004) and Toohey (1996) extend the communities of practice framework to describe the means through which non-native speakers are socialised into the native-speaker group. In an SLA context, this occurs first by means of peripheral membership (Lave and Wenger, 1991) before a 'new member' is allowed to fully access the group's repertoire of resources, such as colloquial use of the target language (Wenger, 1998). Swain and Deters (2007) also suggest that the outside individual must *actively* seek out these peripheral interactions and

determine his/her identity as a member of the community before this socialisation can occur, especially in second-language situations.

Also of importance to the current study is the notion of social fluidity, another facet of the communities of practice framework which acknowledges that an individual cannot be defined by membership within a single community, but by his/her participation in multiple communities (Wenger, 1998; Eckert, 2000; Davies, 2005; Eckert and Wenger, 2005). Crucially, this differs from the conceptualisation of the speech communities described by Labov (1972a, 1972b, 1986), through which an individual is analysed by comparing him/her to 'typical' speakers as a means to measure the degree of dialectal variation or similarity (Labov, 1972a; Milroy and Milroy, 1978; Eckert and Wenger, 2005). While Labov (1972a, 1972b) does acknowledge that individuals belong to multiple speech communities, his framework is limited in this comparison of a central individual to so-called typical speakers. In contrast, the communities of practice framework recognises that a research subject cannot be compared to other 'typical' members because each member's identity will have been shaped by their membership in several communities of practice (Wenger, 1998; Eckert, 2000; Davies, 2005; Eckert and Wenger, 2005).

As such, the communities of practice framework allows for research subjects to exhibit social fluidity, wherein their participation in various communities of practice will undoubtedly shape their linguistic and behavioural practice on an individual level. This is particularly relevant to the current study, wherein the participants are likely to belong to a central community of practice, the SA program group, but subsequently branch out from the group as they attempt to integrate into their new host community. It also allows for the analysis of the practice or behaviours of the students as a group, while acknowledging the differing degrees to which some individuals adhere to the new host community and the consequences of such associations.

2.6.3 Studies on Interaction

A great number of studies now support the perception that social interactions and social relationships are fundamental to successful second language acquisition, regardless of the theory or framework used for analysis. For example, an early study of child language learners found that those who developed social relationships with other native-speaker children were more likely to acquire their second language more rapidly than those who

maintained first-language social groups (Wong-Fillmore, 1976). Connections have also been established between social interactions, integration and linguistic gains based on general engagement with the target community (Lybeck, 2002; Kurata, 2004; Duff, 2007; Wang, 2010; Castañeda and Zirger, 2011; Taguchi, 2014), native-speaker friendship groups (Campbell, 1996; Coleman and Chafer, 2011; Coleman, 2015; Gautier and Chevrot, 2015), having a romantic relationship with a native speaker (de Frederico de la Rúa, 2003; Coleman and Chafer, 2011; Coleman, 2013; Goldoni, 2013; Coleman, 2015; Mitchell *et al.*, 2015) and extra-curricular or work-related activities while abroad (Fraser, 2002; Whitworth, 2006; Coleman and Chafer, 2011; Mitchell *et al.*, 2015).

Drawing specifically from the 'social networks' model (Milroy, 1980), Dan Dewey and his colleagues found that the amount of social contact with native speakers varied greatly among SA participants, and a number of factors affected successful acquisition (Dewey, 2008; Dewey *et al.*, 2012; Dewey *et al.*, 2013a; Dewey *et al.*, 2014; Bown *et al.*, 2015). For example, in two studies on American learners of Japanese, Dewey (2008) and Dewey *et al.* (2012) found that the *number* of social groups to which a learner belonged while abroad, especially those including native speakers, was a predictor of linguistic gains. Alternatively, the *intensity* of friendships with native speakers was found to be a predictor of gains in a study of American learners of Arabic (Dewey *et al.*, 2013a), rather than the number of networks. In a wider study, Dewey *et al.* (2014) demonstrate that social network formation varies greatly across different programs and locations, which may account for the differences found in the previous studies. Furthermore, their findings suggest that learners who study in locations where a higher concentration of SA programs exist (Madrid and Paris) were less likely to use the target language than learners in cities with a lower concentration of programs (Cairo and Mérida, Mexico).

In two smaller-scale studies, Isabelli-Garcia (2006) and Kinginger (2008) report similar findings, with social relationships and language contact varying greatly across participants. Isabelli-Garcia's (2006) study followed four American undergraduates on their sojourn abroad to Buenos Aires, Argentina. She determined that the participants' social network development was highly related to their initial motivations for learning Spanish, and that continued motivation for learning Spanish was subsequently determined by the participants' success in further developing the networks. These networks then fostered opportunities for meaningful interactions, which in turn led to gains in oral proficiency.

Kinginger's (2008) case study of six American undergraduates in Paris demonstrated similar trends: those individuals who maintained their motivation for learning French and positive attitudes towards the learning context, despite some challenges, were ultimately successful in making connections with locals and achieving linguistic gains. Those who could not overcome the challenges of living in a new cultural context, or those who viewed SA as merely a chance to travel and enjoy new cultural experiences, did not develop relationships with locals and made fewer linguistic gains.

It therefore appears that successful language acquisition in SA is as simple as making native-speaker friends in order to adapt to the target culture; however, it is important to recognize that the studies done by Dewey and his colleagues (Dewey *et al.*, 2012; Dewey *et al.*, 2013a; Dewey *et al.*, 2014), Isabelli-Garcia (2006) and Kinginger (2008) may not be representative of the entire learner population. While in both the Isabelli-Garcia (2006) and Kinginger (2008) studies, the researchers acknowledge stories of both success and failure in SLA, they do so with very small participant numbers, and each study investigates learners in only one SA context. And although it appears that the work by Dewey and his colleagues has succeeded in overcoming these obstacles, many of his studies draw from a participant population of students from a religiously-affiliated university with very specific religious backgrounds (Martinsen *et al.*, 2010; Dewey *et al.*, 2013a; Dewey *et al.*, 2013b; Dewey *et al.*, 2014; Bown *et al.*, 2015). Thus it is necessary to investigate a larger, more diverse participant population, such as that involved in the current study, in order to truly understand why some students are essentially more successful than others in making these native-speaker relationships.

2.6.4 Accounting for Differences in Interaction

The further question then arises as to what occurs during a sojourn abroad to foster such variability among learners' social interactions, especially as language contact has been repeatedly found to predict linguistic gains (Freed, 1990; Meara, 1994; Freed *et al.*, 2004b; Segalowitz and Freed, 2004; Dewey, 2008; Hernández, 2010). First, a number of researchers have discovered that student expectations for making contact with native speakers are not always met (Polanyi, 1995; Rivers, 1998; Wilkinson, 1998; DeKeyser, 2007; Goldoni, 2013). For example, DeKeyser (2007, 2010) found that students who go abroad are typically very motivated to use the target language and engage with native speakers,

only to quickly lose their motivation when they cannot appropriately utilise linguistic features in conversation that they have only learned in the classroom. In another study, Goldoni (2013) adopts a communities of practice framework, and found that her American participants expected their Spanish host culture to openly accept them into the community, only to withdraw from the host culture shortly thereafter when their expectations were not immediately met. Interestingly in Goldoni's study, Spanish natives who had interacted with the American learners reported that they appeared culturally insensitive at times and may have behaved in a culturally inappropriate manner in public, citing these as reasons for avoiding contact.

Learners also appear to have very mixed experiences in a homestay environment, which was traditionally thought to foster conversation and meaningful relationships between the sojourners and their host families. While a number of investigations attribute the building of strong relationships and subsequent linguistic development with their homestay abroad (Coleman and Chafer, 2011; Spenader, 2011; Tali and Kinginger, 2013; Kinginger, 2015; Shiri, 2015), other studies report mixed findings (Pellegrino, 1997, 1998; Rivers, 1998; Wilkinson, 1998; Magnan and Back, 2007; Tanaka, 2007; Dewey *et al.*, 2014; Watson and Wolfel, 2015). Dewey *et al.*'s (2014) homestay participants reported having more language contact *at home*, but not necessarily in general when compared to others who had built outside social networks. Further studies revealed no significant advantage for homestay sojourners compared with those living in other types of accommodation (Wilkinson, 1998; Segalowitz and Freed, 2004; Magnan and Back, 2007) while others report that the homestay environment was at times isolating for learners, causing them to withdraw from interactions (Rivers, 1998; Kinginger, 2008).

Yet perhaps the most influential variables for determining language contact are the perceptions and actions of the learners themselves. Several researchers have suggested that more and more students are going abroad simply for the cultural experiences it provides, even though they might indicate that they are interested in learning a language (Coleman, 1997; Engle and Engle, 1999; Coleman, 2003; Ogden, 2006; Kinginger, 2008; Coleman, 2013; Wolcott, 2013). Gore's (2005) study supports this notion, and since it refers specifically to American students abroad, it may be particularly relevant to the current study: although many of Gore's participants stated that they were motivated to

study abroad for purposes of learning a language, most viewed their sojourn as a form of leisure and entertainment, while few actually invested time in their language learning.

Furthermore, Levin (2001) reports that learners may actually avoid situations where use of the target language could prove challenging. This, in turn, leads to learners maintaining first-language social groups and even minimizing contact with host nationals (Pellegrino, 1997; Ogden, 2006; Brown, 2009a; Coleman and Chafer, 2011; Coleman, 2013; Schartner, 2014; Hernández, 2016). Some learners even reported second language attrition as a result of their inability to build relationships with target language speakers (Brown, 2009a, 2009b), while Briggs (2015) attributes a lack of L2 development to the lack of diversity among the interactions of learners due to limited contact with target-language speakers. Coleman (2013; 2015) and Coleman and Chafer (2011) suggest that when learners first go abroad they tend to have a social group of co-nationals, and may later branch out to meet other non-nationals and ultimately local people; however, Pellegrino (1998) attributes this lack of integration to poor motivation and negative attitude towards the learning situation. The two themes of attitude and motivation, developed in Pellegrino's (1998) study, are therefore the final pieces to the SA puzzle which must be examined in the current study. Their inclusion as a major impacting factor in the SA experience may prove to be the most influential out of all the individual factors assessed.

2.6.5 The Role of Social Interaction in the Current Study

The above evidence highlights the need for further investigations into the role that social relationships and social interactions play in the development of second language abilities. Of particular importance are those studies in Section 2.6.4 which discuss the great variability that learners might experience in terms of interaction time and the quality of interactions in the L2. The present study, therefore, aims to investigate such disparities in the context of SA in Spain.

Both the social networks framework and the communities of practice framework hold merits which make them useful tools with which to analyse social relationships and linguistic development. Yet, as mentioned above, the present study more closely adopts the communities of practice framework due to its basis on 'shared practice', which in this case would likely be the 'act' of studying abroad.

This method allows for an analysis of the foundations of the participants' likely first social group, their fellow classmates, followed by an exploration of those who might enter the 'periphery' of a receptor-culture group and later gain full membership (Lave and Wenger, 1991); from this point, comment can be made on the level of socialisation that occurs based on different levels of participation in a Spanish-language social group.

Moreover, the research tools employed to measure language contact in the first instance are modelled on those who favour sustained interaction with native speakers (Meara, 1994; Collentine and Freed, 2004) and friendships with native speakers (Coleman, 2015; Gautier and Chevrot, 2015) as the most effective means through which to acquire the L2 (See Sections 3.3.2-3.3.3). As a result, this approach can focus on the individuals with whom a participant has a genuine relationship, be it positive or negative, rather than those whom a participant might speak to occasionally in, for example, a service encounter.

Equally, the communities of practice framework facilitates the analysis of behaviour, which is closely linked to motivation and attitude (see Section 2.5). By adopting this framework, the researcher will be able to investigate 'practice' or behaviour, as it pertains to the social group, and how other key variables in this study might impact on this behaviour. Moreover, the idea of 'shared practice' as the foundation for a community of practice may also shed light on the role of receptor-culture communities whose day-to-day shared practice likely differs from the participants' communities. Additionally, the notion that a learner must *actively* seek participation in a receptor-culture social group is of particular interest (Swain and Deters, 2007), and may be directly related to motivational orientations (Dörnyei, 2009a, 2009b).

On the other hand, the social networks framework has been utilised by a number of researchers in investigations on SA, and studies such as Allen (2013), Dewey *et al.* (2013a), and Dewey *et al.* (2012) provide evidence specifically on the relationships established by American students abroad. Such findings are an important contribution to the field, and therefore offer a strong basis for comparison. Because of this, the social networks framework will still be referenced, but not employed directly as a framework of analysis.

The methods of gathering the data related to this project and the analytical techniques employed are detailed in Chapter 3.

Chapter 3: Methodology

The purpose of this chapter is to outline the methods and procedures used in this study. This includes an outline of the procedures used to locate participants, the ethical considerations made when working with human subjects, and all of the subsequent methods and tools used to acquire data on the subject matter. The methods used include a combination of questionnaires (see Appendix A), proficiency exams (see Appendix B), informal interviews and observations, and both qualitative and quantitative analyses were performed.

The study itself employs a longitudinal design in which data was collected in three stages. In the first stage, all participants completed an L2 proficiency exam and an initial questionnaire on their first full day as participants in the program, regardless of the date on which the program began. This method was employed as to improve the accuracy of student responses and scores, rather than gathering data before the students left home or after they had already spent several weeks abroad (Irie and Ryan, 2015).

For the second stage, the participants were asked to complete a second questionnaire intended to gather information on two key areas of research: affective variables and social interactions. The questionnaire was given to the participants once they had been in Spain for between six to eight weeks; those who had chosen to participate in the Granada pre-sessional program were asked to complete the second part of the project nine to eleven weeks after arrival in Spain.

The final stage of data collection was undertaken about one week before the participants were due to finish their courses. At this point, most participants had been in Spain for about 12 weeks, while the Granada pre-sessional group had been in Spain for about 15 weeks. The participants were asked to complete a final proficiency exam and questionnaire, although due to unforeseen complications in the research design, the Fall Semester 2013 and the Spring Semester 2014 participants were asked to complete different versions. Details of both versions are discussed in Section 3.4.

The features of the research instruments utilised in the study are presented based on the type of information they elicit in relation to the themes of linguistic proficiency, attitude, motivation and language contact; the sections describing the research tools also aim to

demonstrate the intention of each instrument as it relates to the wider project analysis. Observations and informal interviews were also conducted throughout the participants' stay, the details of which are included following the presentation of the research tools in Section 3.5. Appendix C provides further details on the questionnaire items and their corresponding variables in the study.

Additionally, in order to conduct a quantitative examination of the results of the initial linguistic proficiency exams and questionnaires, a series of statistical analyses were conducted using the software package IBM SPSS Statistics v.21 (2012), henceforth referred to as SPSS. See Appendix D for a detailed analysis of how each variable was coded for analysis in SPSS.

3.1 Ethical Considerations and Selection of Participants

As the present study relies heavily on data which is provided by young adults and international travel on the part of the researcher, a number of ethical considerations were made in order to protect the participants, the researcher and the data gathered. To begin, the researcher drafted a research protocol, a risk assessment, an informational sheet and a consent form which were approved by the Ethics Committee at the University of Southampton prior to the data collection. The agreed considerations were granted the 'Ethics Number' of 6548.

Upon receiving approval, the researcher then contacted a number of study abroad program directors with proposals of the research and an outline of the methods to be employed. Later, the researcher secured permission to visit the two potential program sites of Barcelona and Granada, where she met with program staff from each location to arrange potential contact with the students arriving at each site to begin an academic program.

Shortly thereafter, potential participants were approached after gaining official permission to begin the project from the academic SA program directors at both sites and the director of Research and Development at their governing institution in the US. Participants were made aware that participation in the study was voluntary, and that they may withdraw from the research or ask for certain information to remain undisclosed at any time they wish. The participants were given a 'Participant Information Sheet' and all signed a 'Consent Form' (see Appendix C for both) which confirmed their consent to voluntarily

participate in the study. The 'Consent Form' also outlined the data protection methods employed in the study, including student and institutional anonymity. Reference to any students in the study is made via a pseudonym.

It should be noted that the participants themselves were selected based on their enrolment in one of the two selected SA programs. No effort was made to exclude any of the students enrolled in the program from the present study. This was done in order to eliminate potential bias on the part of the researcher and to maintain diversity within the participant pool. Additionally, the project aims to investigate learners from a number of different regional, linguistic and ethnic backgrounds; although the chosen SA programs are overseen by the same institution in the US, students from any university, with an eligible Grade Point Average, are invited to enrol, thus allowing for an added diversity among those being studied. The result of this selection would be a group of participants which more closely represent the wider American SA student population in each city, in contrast to a focus on only language-specialists.

Furthermore, as mentioned in Chapter 1, the programs were originally contacted, and then selected, because of their distinctive locations within Spain, and because each is governed by the same academic director. This step was made in order to ensure continuity among the quality of the academic programs offered to each of the students; equally, the two programs offer similar orientation meetings with the students immediately upon arrival in Spain, and all accommodation is pre-arranged for all students.

Such steps were taken in order to mitigate the differences between the programs themselves, and maximise the potential for the wider learning context, either Barcelona or Granada, to be investigated.

3.2 Research Methods: Background and Linguistic Proficiency

One of the key themes addressed in this thesis is the role of SA in L2 acquisition. More specifically, the study investigates the relationship between pre-program proficiency or pre-program study and linguistic achievement, and how pre-program proficiency might relate to other affective factors examined in this study.

In order to establish pre-program proficiency and to measure any developments in proficiency, the participants were asked to complete a L2 proficiency exam on the first

official day of their SA programs in Spain and again towards the end of their residence abroad (see Appendix B).

The exam takes the form of a Cloze test, or fill-in-the-blank test, based on the previous use of Cloze tests for assessing L2 proficiency by Woolsey (2009) and Tremblay (2011) (See Appendix D). It consisted of 21 items and was divided into three sections, each of which consisted of a passage the students were asked to read and then choose from three to complete a missing word or phrase in the text (See Appendix B). Each section was adapted from either the Diploma de Español como Lengua Extranjera (DELE) exam (Instituto Cervantes, 2016) or The European Language Certificate (TELC) exam in Spanish (telc GmbH, 2014b), which have been previously validated to represent the Common European Framework Reference for Languages (CEFR) levels of A2, B2 and C1 (Council of Europe, 2001). While the exam itself was designed to represent three different CEFR levels, its intention is simply to establish a base L2 proficiency score which will then be related to other affective factors being measured and ultimately a final exam score to determine if any linguistic development has occurred.

This style test was selected for its pre-established validity and reliability and because it is typically included as a component in external, internationally recognized proficiency exams (telc GmbH, 2014b; Instituto Cervantes, 2016). For instance, the DELE is the official proficiency-level examination for non-native speakers of Spanish sponsored by the Spanish Ministry of Education, Culture and Sport in Spain. A separate exam has been designed specifically for each of the CEFR framework levels, and if an individual passes a particular exam, he/she will receive a diploma in recognition of the chosen level. In its entirety, the exam consists of several sections, including tests of listening capabilities, vocabulary, grammar, reading comprehension, written production and oral production; in the levels of A1 and A2, grammar, vocabulary and written production are assessed together in a section titled “written expression and interaction” (DELE, 2016). The B2 and C1 sections of the current exam were adapted from previously used, and now published versions of DELE exams, available on the official DELE webpages (DELE, 2016; Instituto Cervantes, 2016). The Cloze section of each exam is located in the assessment of ‘vocabulary and grammar’ and was selected and modified so that each section of the current proficiency exam would have the same number of questions. The answer options for each item on the proficiency exam were also taken directly from the answer options, and the official answer key for each

exam was used in the marking of the current proficiency exams (DELE, 2016; Instituto Cervantes, 2016).

The A2 section of the exam was adapted from a different internationally recognized proficiency exam because the A1 and A2 sections of the DELE do not include a Cloze-style assessment. The TELC exams were established independently from the DELE in partnership with the Association of Language Testers in Europe (ALTE) to also reflect the CEFR levels. They were created originally to provide certification of proficiency in a number of European languages which could be recognized internationally across Europe (telc GmbH, 2014a). While the TELC exam does not include a listening comprehension section, its original format still consists of assessments in reading comprehension, grammar, vocabulary, written production and oral production. The Cloze section of the exam was again selected from the original 'vocabulary and grammar' section of a published practice-version, available online (telc GmbH, 2014b), and the answer options were drawn directly from the exam. The section itself was also modified, much like the B2 and C1 sections of the DELE exam, in order to maintain the same number of items for each exam section.

The choice to include a multi-tiered Cloze test, rather than a production-based exam such as the ACTFL (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Language) Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) (ACTFL, 2016), was made because of the strict time constraints put on the administration of the initial assessments; as the initial proficiency exam and questionnaire had to be administered during the participants' introductory and orientational meetings for their upcoming residence abroad, the project had to include a proficiency assessment which could be completed in a short period of time by all of the participants at once. As suggested by Tremblay (2011), the Cloze test model provides such an option, especially when extended exam resources, such as the OPI are not typically available for researchers.

Furthermore, Cloze tests are capable of assessing many features of language (i.e. lexicon, morphology, syntax) in a single, short exam and is ideal for *distinguishing* learner levels rather than determining whether they have attained a specified level (Brown, 1980, 1983; Bachman, 1985; Chapelle and Abraham, 1990; Tremblay, 2011). Their results have also traditionally been found to correlate strongly with more comprehensive measures of proficiency (Oller, 1973; Heilenman, 1983; Bachman, 1985; Tremblay and Garrison, 2010; Tremblay, 2011), and their flexible design allows them to measure both lower-level linguistic constructs as well as more advanced grammar and vocabulary (Oller, 1973;

Brown, 1980, 1983; Chapelle and Abraham, 1990; Brown, 2002; Tremblay, 2011). Finally, Tremblay (2011) argues that Cloze testing can actually be a more valid and accessible method of distinguishing learners' proficiencies than the OPI because it does not rely heavily on the establishment of inter-rater reliability. She additionally mentions that its use in linguistics research is especially practical because it allows for the transparency of proficiency level determination and for others to easily replicate or compare findings.

Thus, the Cloze test, with its pre-validated sections from standardized proficiency exams (telc GmbH, 2014b; Instituto Cervantes, 2016), was chosen as the primary method of Spanish proficiency assessment for the current study. The three distinct levels were chosen in order to present a challenge for learners of Spanish of varying proficiency levels, and the results would be used to represent the participants' pre-program proficiency. The students were also advised that they should only attempt to complete the parts of the exam which they felt they could complete without too much difficulty; this strategy was used to help prevent the students from guessing correct answers in hopes of obtaining a more accurate measurement of their entry proficiency level. The results of the initial exam scores and the establishment of pre-program proficiency are shown in Chapter 4.

The final L2 proficiency exam taken by the participants is identical to the first proficiency exam (See Appendix B). This choice was made so that a direct comparison could be made with the first exam, and its three-tiered design. This design allows for the researcher to not only compare base scores with post-SA scores, but also to compare the scores from each section. Using the same exam twice does risk the participants remembering certain test items; however, this risk was minimised by not allowing the students to see any of their specific errors on either of the exams until after they had completed all aspects of the project. It should also be noted that the students were not allowed the opportunity to see which items they answered correctly and incorrectly. This was done to ensure that the final proficiency exam would be more accurate in demonstrating any gains in proficiency rather than the students simply correcting their previous errors.

In addition to the exam scores, background information was gathered on any pre-program study or exposure to the Spanish language. Students were asked to indicate the amount of time they spent previously studying Spanish prior to coming abroad and to list any time they had previously spent in a Spanish-speaking country on the initial questionnaire (see

Appendix A). This information was utilised as a secondary measure of pre-program proficiency.

The results of the final exam scores are detailed in Chapter 5, wherein the overall proficiency results are examined and compared with the base scores. Most significantly, the difference between the first and final exam scores was calculated as a means to demonstrate the participants' linguistic development. The Barcelona and Granada groups were also statistically compared with one another, and the exam scores were investigated for any statistical relationship to the affective variables being investigated.

Additionally, on the final questionnaire, the participants were asked to rank their capabilities in various areas of Spanish language (Listening, Speaking, Reading, Writing, Grammar, and Pronunciation) on a scale of 1-10 both before they came abroad and after having spent time abroad. This information was used to triangulate the data from the proficiency exams with other qualitative and observational data about the participants' linguistic progression.

3.3 Research Methods: Attitude and Motivation

In order to investigate the attitudinal and motivational perspectives of the participants, three questionnaires were created based on tools developed by a number of researchers (Gardner, 1985a; Hernández, 2010; Llanes *et al.*, 2012; Serrano *et al.*, 2012; Tragant, 2012; Cigliana and Serrano, Forthcoming) (see Appendix A). The types of questions relating to these affective factors can be divided into two types: Likert scale items and open-ended questions.

As detailed in Chapter 2, all of the questions were adapted from the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (Gardner, 1985a) or the instruments developed by Cigliana and Serrano (Forthcoming), Llanes *et al.* (2012), Serrano *et al.* (2012) and Tragant (2012). The aim of this approach is to provide a foundation from which initial attitudinal and motivational perspectives can be analysed for any significant changes over time. Equally, as suggested by Serrano *et al.* (2012), the data could be applied across both key analytical frameworks highlighted in Section 2.5.3 utilising both qualitative and quantitative methods. These data were also analysed on the participant group as a whole and then separated into groups by program site, in order to discern any major distinctions between the two groups.

3.3.1 Likert Scale Items

To collect quantitative data on the participants' motivational orientations and attitudinal perceptions, a series of likert scale questions were created. Likert scale items were selected in order to conduct statistical comparisons among the affective variables, linguistic development and language contact. They can also be compared across the SA and SLA literature, and scale items can be mathematically combined to represent more general perceptions of attitude and motivational orientations.

Each questionnaire contained a total of 29 items: 18 items consisted of a statement in which the participant was asked to rank his/her agreement on a scale of 1-10. The other 11 items related specifically to motivation, in which the participant was asked to rank his/her perception of importance with each motive listed on a scale of 1-10. Nine of the items, all belonging to the group of 18 statements, were related to attitude, while the 20 remaining items were split evenly to represent integrative and instrumental orientations. The order of the questions relating to attitudes and motivational orientations was random as to not draw attention to a particular element of the questionnaire.

The formatting and order of the statements remained the same throughout the three questionnaires, whilst the phrasing of each statement was altered slightly to indicate progression and then finality on the second and third questionnaires. The number of the questions remained the same for each set of items, apart from the measures of instrumental orientation, in which one item was removed from the second and third questionnaires: the motive "Gaining other life skills" was removed because of its ambiguity of interpretation.

With regards to the analysis, each of the likert scale items was coded ordinally, and three separate scale variables were devised using the corresponding combinations of statements related to attitude, integrative orientations and instrumental orientations. Descriptive statistics were utilised in order to identify any superficial trends in the data, whilst Wilcoxon Signed Rank Tests were conducted in order to establish any significant changes in these variables throughout the residence abroad. Correlational analyses were employed in order to determine any linear relationships among the variables reflecting attitudes, motivations, L2 proficiency and language contact.

Descriptions of each questionnaire item and of the representative variable scales are found in Appendix A. Details on the statistical coding of each variable are found in Appendix B.

3.3.1 Open-ended Questions

A series of open-ended questions were also included across the three questionnaires as a means of gathering additional data on the participants' attitudes and motivational orientations. The data were coded nominally based on trends in the responses as a means to contribute to the quantitative analysis. The data were also utilised separately in the qualitative analyses in order to provide key examples of specific attitudinal or motivational perceptions.

In total, seven open-ended questions were devised, and each questionnaire contained a different set of questions. The initial questionnaire asked participants about their desires and anxieties related to the residence abroad. These were utilised in the analysis in order to illustrate initial motives, or to point out any potential causes for apprehension among the participants upon their arrival in Spain.

In contrast, the second questionnaire asked the participants about any feelings of culture shock and any obstacles the students may have encountered in terms of learning Spanish thus far as a means to discern any changes in motives or attitudes. Specific to the Barcelona questionnaire, a question about encounters with the Catalan language was included in order to elicit information about Barcelona's co-official language; this element was not included in the Granada questionnaire because it is purely a Spanish-speaking community.

Finally, the third questionnaire asked students to point out any obstacles or challenges to learning Spanish, but also any experiences which the students found helpful. These questions were included in order to determine any key experiences which may have altered the students attitudes or motivations during the residence abroad. Additionally, a further question was included for the Barcelona group on their experiences with Catalan in order to gain further insight into its impact on L2 learning in this context.

3.4 Research Methods: Language Contact

Another unique aspect of this study and its research design is its innovative approach to eliciting information on language contact, and more specifically contact via social

interactions. Based on the very recent designs of several other prominent research projects (Dewey *et al.*, 2012; Llanes *et al.*, 2012; Serrano *et al.*, 2012; Dewey *et al.*, 2013a; Dewey *et al.*, 2014; Mitchell *et al.*, 2015; Cigliana and Serrano, Forthcoming), the second questionnaire asked the participants to list a number of individuals with whom they interacted in four separate contexts: home, school, free time and virtual interactions. The participants then indicated which language they used with each individual and the frequency with which they interacted on a weekly basis. A combination of qualitative and quantitative analyses were then conducted in order to assess both the quality and amount of L2 interaction.

The choice to measure language contact via social interactions, and to some extent by looking at class schedules, comes from the premise that interactions with members of the target language community appear to be the most effective means through which an individual can acquire the L2 (see Section 2.6). The approach also comes as a challenge to the traditional Language Contact Profile (LCP) (Freed *et al.*, 2004a), whose original time-on-task approach is now being questioned (Pellegrino-Aveni, 2005; Magnan and Back, 2007; Kinginger, 2009a; Coleman, 2013). Additionally, the LCP does not take into consideration the differences between active and passive input, where active input is most beneficial for language acquisition (DeKeyser, 2010). Though some current studies still utilise a modified version of the LCP (Hernández, 2010; Dewey *et al.*, 2012; Watson and Wolfel, 2015; Hernández, 2016), Magnan and Back (2007) were among the first to explicitly question its accuracy, suggesting that participants might inaccurately recall the exact amount of time spent doing a given activity in the L2.

Furthermore, other authors contend that it is the *nature* of the language contact which is more important than the amount of time spent (Pellegrino-Aveni, 2005; Kinginger, 2008, 2009a; Coleman and Chafer, 2011; Coleman, 2013; Kinginger, 2013; Coleman, 2015); they argue in favour of an ethnographic or substantially more flexible approach in which both the quality and quantity of contact can be observed.

Thus, the current study, attempts to overcome this challenge by quantifying meaningful language contact in an innovative way. Data were collected on language contact through the second and third questionnaires, with details included in the following sections.

3.4.1 The Language Contact Score

The approach used to calculate language contact in a quantitative sense is original to this study, and attempts to measure both quality and quantity in a single calculative measure: The Language Contact Score. Rather than simply adding the number of hours per week that an individual would spend 'in contact' with the L2, the current the Language Contact Score (LSC) favours prolonged interactions by employing a weighted, exponential scale rather than a simple linear scale. The methods are best illustrated by example, and a further explanation of the calculation is found in Appendix C. It should be noted that an earlier version of the Language Contact Score methodology has been published by Cigliana (2015) without its accompanying empirical data.

To begin, Table 3-1 and 3-2 are taken directly from the second questionnaire (see Appendix A) and demonstrate the elicitation methods for language contact in the 'At Home' context. Participants are asked to list those with whom they have a good relationship in each given social context. Then, they indicate what language or languages they use with each person, and the relative frequency of their interactions.

Table 3-1: 'At Home' Elicitation, Part 1

With whom do you live? Use the following chart to describe those you live with (if any):

Nationality	Native Language	Age	Language(s) you use with this person
1.			
2.			
3.			
4.			

Table 3-2: 'At Home' Elicitation, Part 2

Describe how often you interact with each person with whom you live (Mark your answers with an [X]):

Person	Everyday	Several Times a Week	A Few Times a Week	A Few Times a Month	Rarely
1					
2					
3					
4					

Next, the answers are entered into the calculation, as the following example demonstrates:

Table 3-3: Mary's LSC in the 'At Home' context (unweighted approach)

Housemates	Language Used	Frequency of Interactions	Language x Frequency	Interaction Score
Person 1	0	5	0	$(0+12+12)/3$ housemates = 8
Person 2	4	3	12	
Person 3	4	3	12	

As seen in Table 3-3, Mary, a Barcelona participant, has three housemates. With Person 1, she speaks exclusively English, and she speaks to this person on a very frequent basis. With Persons 2 and 3 she speaks exclusively Spanish; however, she only interacts with these individuals 'a few times a week.' The 'Language Used' value gives Mary a score of 0 for Person 1 as to ensure that interactions in English are not awarded any value in terms of L2 contact, while Persons 2 and 3 are awarded a 'Language Used' value of 4, the maximum score possible, because the interactions are exclusively in Spanish. In other examples, the participants might indicate that they speak both Spanish and English to another individual, therefore the 0-4 scale is able to account for such use. It should be noted that interactions in any language other than Spanish or English are also assigned a 0 value in order to maintain consistency and ensure that Spanish is the only language measured by the LCS.

In terms of 'Frequency,' interactions with Person 1 are very frequent, therefore receiving the highest score of 5, while interactions with Persons 2 and 3 are given scores of 3 because the interactions are less frequent. This relates directly to the frequency questions on the second questionnaire: interactions everyday receive the maximum score of 5 while rare interactions are given the minimum score of 1.

In order to determine Mary's LCS, the language of interaction, on its 0-4 scale, is multiplied by the frequency of the interaction, on its 1-5 scale. The maximum score possible per person could, therefore, be 20, while in Mary's case, Person 1 still receives a value of 0 for his/her interactions in English, while Persons 2 and 3 are awarded values of 12 each for their moderately frequent interactions in Spanish.

Next, it is necessary to take into account all of Mary's interactions while at home with all of her housemates, which would be measured by combining all of her housemates'

individual scores, 0, 12 and 12 in this case, and dividing them by the total number of housemates (see Table 3-3): $(0 + 12 + 12)/3 = 8$.

Using a linear, unweighted scale, Mary would receive a score of 8 out of a total 20 for her L2 interaction score; however, this type of calculation would assume that the frequent interactions with Person 1 in English have no effect on the total amount of time Mary has available for possible social interaction with her housemates.

Therefore, it is essential that a weighting factor is introduced to incorporate the amount of time that Person 1 is occupying Mary in non-Spanish interaction. This will ensure that frequent interactions in Spanish are given a much higher value than infrequent interactions, because of the quality of language utilised in sustained conversation; additionally, it will also take into account that frequent interactions in English may detract from the amount of time a participant could be speaking in Spanish.

Table 3-4: Mary's LSC in the 'At Home' context (weighted approach)

Housemates	Language Used	Frequency of Interactions	Language x Frequency	Score Ratio	Corrected Value	True LCS
Person 1	0	5	0	0		
Person 2	4	3	12	60%	7.2	$(0+7.2+7.2)/3$ housemates = 4.8
Person 3	4	3	12	60%	7.2	

Table 3-4 demonstrates the weighting factor involved: the 'Score Ratio' is each housemate's 'Language x Frequency' score divided by the maximum language points available, 20, and then multiplied by 100 to indicate the percentage of their total possible impact on Mary's social interaction time out of 100%. This then accounts for each housemate's impact relative to the entire group. Hypothetically, if Mary spoke Spanish as frequently with Persons 2 and 3 as she does with Person 1 in English, then they would receive the maximum 'Score Ratio' of 100%; however, as she only speaks with them with moderate frequency, their 'Language x Frequency' scores are only weighted at 60% of the entire possible impact.

Their 'Language x Frequency' scores are then multiplied by their impact ratio in order to calculate a 'Corrected Value' which represents each housemate's interaction points relative to their potential impact on Mary's L2 use and their impact relative to the other housemates. By making this extra calculation, Mary now receives a LCS of 4.8 rather than 8. We can see that, while Mary does appear to have meaningful interactions in Spanish with Persons 2 and 3, the amount of time she spends speaking in English with Person 1 significantly detracts from her total social interaction time at home.

Table 3-5 provides another example to illustrate how the LCS can account for both the quantity and quality of interactions, offset by the use of English as a detracting factor. In this example, Gemma, a Granada participant, has four housemates. Based on qualitative data, we know that Persons 1 and 2 are other SA students, while persons 3 and 4 are Spanish. Gemma interacts very frequently with her other SA housemates, mostly in English, but at times in Spanish when all of her housemates are interacting together. Hence, she receives a score of 1 for Persons 1 and 2. She receives the maximum score for Persons 3 and 4 because their interactions are exclusively in Spanish. In terms of the frequency of interactions, Gemma speaks with Persons 1, 2 and 4 everyday, hence receiving a frequency score of 5, and Person 3 'a few times a week,' hence the frequency score of 3.

Table 3-5: Gemma's LSC in the 'At Home' context (weighted approach)

Housemates	Language Used	Frequency of Interactions	Language x Frequency	Score Ratio	Corrected Value	True LCS
Person 1	1	5	5	25%	1.25	
Person 2	1	5	5	25%	1.25	(1.25+1.25+7.2+20)/
Person 3	4	3	12	60%	7.2	4 housemates = 7.43
Person 4	4	5	20	100%	20	

Next, it is necessary to take into account that Gemma's interactions with Person 4 are going to be the most meaningful to her Spanish development, while Persons 1 and 2 are not as beneficial for Gemma in terms of Spanish practice because she mainly speaks to them in English. This is not to say that her interactions with Persons 1 and 2 are not beneficial to

any extent, but simply that her frequent interactions with Person 4 are more beneficial. Therefore, Persons 1 and 2 receive a 'Score Ratio' of 25%, meaning that only 25% of their possible 'Language x Frequency' score will be counted towards Gemma's total LCS. Conversely, Person 4 is given a 'Score Ratio' of 100%, meaning that all of his/her 'Language x Frequency' points will be counted towards Gemma's total LCS.

This method ensures that frequent interactions are favoured when compared to infrequent interactions. Based on informal interviews with Gemma, we know that she had lunch every day with her host mother (Person 4), with whom she had a good relationship and spoke frequently. During the lunchtime meal, her other housemates may have been present, but as two of them were also SA students and learners of Spanish, the conversation in Spanish was driven mainly by the host mother. Gemma may have asked simple questions to her other housemates in Spanish, but based on Gemma's descriptions of her home life, the conversations mainly involved the host mother asking questions to all of the students. Thus, the host mother in this example is clearly the most important Spanish influence in the house, an aspect which the LCS will acknowledge.

The calculation also provides a means through which interactions in English can be taken into account when investigating a participant's total possible time available for social interactions. For instance, based on observational data, we know that Mary had a much stronger friendship with her English-speaking housemate than with her Spanish-speaking housemates. While these moderately frequent interactions in Spanish are beneficial for Mary as a learner, it is clear that the majority of her interactions, at home and in other social contexts, were in English. If Mary is constantly interacting with her English-speaking close friends, this leaves less time for Mary to be interacting in Spanish in her various social experiences; the LCS will, therefore, take into account the total amount of interaction time and how much is spent using English rather than Spanish.

The LCS presents an original means through which the language contact, and more specifically the types of social interactions, of SA participants can be examined and compared across a group of many participants. Furthermore, while it could never assume to be a replacement for true ethnographic data due to potential discrepancies in self-reporting, it presents a means through which information about social groups and social interactions can be elicited, via this unique style of questionnaire, and then compared across other participant groups. The formula itself could also, in theory, provide a LCS

calculation for a participants' interactions with many individuals across all social contexts to truly illustrate the impact of the L2 on that participant comparative to its impact on others and how sustained use of the L1 might detract from the impact of L2 conversations.

3.4.2 Further Data on Language Contact

The most salient data on language contact were collected using the LCS methodology and calculation; however, further data were also gathered to add to this theme within the project. First, additional data related to language contact was collected in relation to the students' choice of classes. On the second questionnaire, students were asked to list their modules and to indicate the language that was used to teach each module. The data were then calculated separately from the LCS data as a means to differentiate language contact inside and outside of the classroom. Additionally, students were asked if they had joined an extracurricular activity during which Spanish was spoken. This information was primarily used during the qualitative analysis as social interactions were explored more in depth. A final section was also included in the second questionnaire which asked the learners to rate their overall language use, "Always Spanish" to "Always English," across various different mentioned contexts. These data were used as a tool for triangulation of the LCS scores.

It should be noted that researcher originally intended to gather further LCS data by including its related sections on the final questionnaire in addition to the second. Unfortunately, during the final visit with the Barcelona participants in December, 2013, many of the participants were reluctant to complete the final questionnaire, likely due to the concurrence of exams and final project due dates with the researcher's final visit. As a result, the researcher attempted to prioritise sections of the final questionnaire to maintain as much continuity as possible within the quantitative data. The researcher urged students to complete all sections; however many of the participants indicated that they had made no new friends since the second questionnaire, and, therefore, the information on language contact would be the same. Thus, the researcher reluctantly asked the participants to focus on the open-ended questions, the items relating to motivation and attitude, and the self-ranking of their Spanish language skills. By changing the design in this way, the researcher still maintained a longitudinal design for measuring attitude and motivation, and gather qualitative information about the whole student experience.

Following the visit with the Barcelona participants, the Granada participants were also reluctant to complete this version of the questionnaire; thus, to maintain continuity, the researcher asked them to focus on the same areas which she had specified to the Barcelona participants. This was an unfortunate setback in the research design, however, the change was necessary in order to retain participant numbers and maintain some kind of continuous data collection at both program sites.

A second version of the final questionnaire was developed for the Spring, 2014 groups in order to mitigate these issues and maintain many of the sections which could facilitate a longitudinal analysis. Whilst pure LCS data was not collected for a second time, the students were asked again to indicate their main language usage across various social contexts, and the data were compared to those collected in the second questionnaire as a means to measure any changes in language contact.

3.5 Research Methods: Observations and Informal Interviews

In addition to the proficiency exams and questionnaires, observations and informal interviews were also conducted by the researcher at each program site. These took place at either the academic program centre or in social settings, where the researcher took note of student interactions with their peers and with the public. The observations and informal interviews took place in conjunction with the distribution of the other research tools. In most cases, the preliminary observations were made within the first three days of the participants' arrival in Spain. Those students who participated in the Granada pre-session program were initially observed three weeks after their arrival in Spain. All data collected during observations and informal interviews was recorded by hand and subsequently transcribed along with contextual information.

In order to conduct the observations and informal interviews, the researcher attended many of introductory sessions held by the SA program directors. Later, with advice and permission from program directors, the researcher visited the program centers at designated times throughout the semesters when the students were likely to visit the program centre due to a particular meeting or exam. The researcher also asked the students if she could accompany them on various outings. On other occasions, she suggested that the students meet her at a particular location outside of the program

centre, such as a bar, pub, café or restaurant, in order to continue the research. The aim of such encounters with the students was to observe them as they begin to interact with each other and the local community.

The choice to utilise observations and informal interviews within this project had two objectives. On one hand, gathering this type of data served to triangulate the self-reported data and to observe whether learner responses in self-reporting were actually reflected in their behaviours (Kinging, 2008; Coleman, 2013; Kinginger, 2013; Coleman, 2015). On the other hand, the observations and interviews also served as a means through which distinctive or unanticipated instances could be experienced and recorded. Importantly, Coleman (2015, p. 37) reminds that, “aggregation conceals heterogeneity”; thus, it was essential to investigate the behaviours of individuals *without* the intention of identifying trends or verifying results, only to later determine if trends, or indeed, unfamiliar cases, emerge from the data.

Because of this twofold purpose, the researcher approached the observations and interviews from two perspectives. First, the researcher planned questions to ask to the students in conjunction with the pre-established themes surrounding the project. These questions were typically asked whilst at the program centre as to facilitate one-to-one conversations with the students wherever possible. For instance, during her initial meetings with the students, the researcher would frequently ask questions such as, “why did you choose Barcelona/Granada?” and, “what are you hoping to get out of your time here?” These questions were asked in order to gain insight into the initial perceptions and expectations of the students, which could then be used as a basis to examine any changes in such perceptions later on.

The questions asked during the second visit aimed to elicit information on any changes from their initial perceptions and on any friendships they may have made with local residents. Examples included, “How are you finding Barcelona/Granada so far?”, “Have you been able to meet any [locals] since you’ve been here?”, and “Have you been able to practice your Spanish much since I was here last?”. Questions asked during the final visit included, “Has there been any particular experience that’s really helped you to learn Spanish while in Barcelona/Granada?”, “Has there been anything that has made it difficult to learn Spanish?”, and “Have you had any particularly positive or negative experiences

since you've been here?", as a means to gain final insight into the participants' experiences and perspectives abroad.

Also, during the final visit, a short interview was conducted with the associate program director in Barcelona, Ms. S. Serra. Ms. Serra oversaw many of the daily activities at the Barcelona program centre, and worked closely with program leaders to monitor intake and daily activities in Granada as well. She was interviewed in order to learn more about the types of students that chose each program site. Questions asked to Ms. Serra include, "What are some of the major motivations for your students to choose Barcelona for their study abroad semester?", and "As you have contact with both the Barcelona and Granada students, do you notice any differences in the types of students who choose each city?". This information was used to contextualise the participants and the programs studied with the wider literature regarding SA.

The second perspective taken by the researcher with regards to the interviews and observations fulfils the need to witness learner behaviour from a more ethnographic perspective (Kinging, 2013; Coleman, 2015). In order to do so, the researcher observed students in group social settings outside of the program centre whilst attempting to forego the preconceptions of the project. In these cases, little attempt was made to question or interact with the participants as to observe their more natural behaviours with each other and local residents. On occasion, the students were asked more vague questions such as, 'How are you?', or 'How are things going?' as a means to stimulate conversation within the group. The data collected were then utilised primarily in the exploration of individual experiences, rather than as a means to verify the quantitative data.

Subsequently, it is important to note some of the original intentions of employing this methodology, and how its application changed throughout the project. For instance, the researcher originally hoped to hold semi-structured interviews with each participant, or with a selection of participants; however, due to her status as a visitor within a private institution, these could not be pre-arranged. The researcher had also originally hoped to use a dictaphone to record conversations, yet due to the variable availability of the students and collection of data within social gatherings, this was not practical; instead, the choice to take thorough written notes was maintained.

Moreover, each visit typically coincided with an event at the program centre to ensure that all students would be in attendance; however, due to academic commitments, activities hosted by program staff, or pre-scheduled holidays, many of the students were unavailable or had limited availability to meet with the researcher. As a result, the researcher aimed to speak to as many students as possible during each visit whilst minimising her impact on the students' prior commitments. The researcher was successful in speaking to almost every participant individually, though the length of each conversation varied.

Finally, the researcher had also intended to interview other program staff, but most were unavailable due to the busy nature of the program, particularly within the final weeks. Future studies would certainly benefit from gaining insight from both SA program staff and students, and the researcher recognises many of these changes as limitations to her study.

One advancement to the methodology of this project developed following the first semester of data collection, after several initial analyses had been completed. It was at this point that the unanticipated individual differences recorded by the researcher were recognised as being significant contributors to either the students' positive or negative perceptions of their receptor culture and their SA experience. As a result, the researcher took measures to collect more such data by spending more time at each program site during the second semester.

The data collected during the second semester is, therefore, much richer in terms of the variety of experiences recorded. Making this adjustment then allowed the researcher to conduct a much more thorough exploration of the students' individual differences, which is reflected in analysis chapters of the thesis. Equally, this two-perspective approach allows for a much more flexible analysis of the data. This is especially relevant with regards to the qualitative analysis.

3.6 Data Analysis and Research Questions

The previous sections address the methods utilised for collecting the data and the purposes of each tool or technique as it pertains to the investigation as a whole. In addition to the qualitative approaches detailed above, a number of statistical techniques were also employed in order to establish relationships among the data where possible. Table 3-6 provides details on each of the statistical techniques utilised throughout the text.

It should be noted that in all cases, non-parametric measures were used because much of the data was coded ordinally and did not meet the criteria for related parametric measures as specified by Pallant (2011). In order to determine the strength of correlations, the criteria established by Cohen (1988) were implemented, whereby $\rho = .10-.30$ is a small correlation, $\rho = .30-.50$ is a moderate correlation, and $\rho > .50$ is a strong correlation. As mentioned previously, all of the statistical coding and analysis for this project was conducted using SPSS (IBM, 2010).

Finally, Table 3-7 provides a detailed description of how each tool or method is used to address the research questions provided in Chapter 1. Throughout the analytical chapters, the themes behind each question are addressed, while the questions are specifically revisited in the conclusion of the thesis.

As a whole, this mixed-methods approach provides comprehensive look at the experiences of these learners abroad. The quantitative elements of the project are beneficial because they can be measured longitudinally, and may also be replicated in future studies. The qualitative elements, on the other hand, provide detail that simply cannot be discerned using numerical data alone. The combination of such techniques ultimately proves effective in analysing the individual differences of these students over time and identifying critical experiences which impact on language learning abroad.

Table 3-6: Statistical Analysis Techniques

Test	Description	Purpose in Study
Cronbach's Alpha	A test of internal consistency, measuring the 'closeness' of a group of variables. Acceptable alpha coefficients for social sciences research are established at $\alpha \geq .750$ (Nunnally, 1978; DeVellis, 2003).	To determine the internal consistency of the representative scale variables utilised in this study: Integrative Motivation, Instrumental Motivation and Attitudes/Perceptions
Descriptive Statistics	A group of measures that describe the main features of a set of data. They include, for example, Mean, Median, Range, Standard Deviation, and Minimum and Maximum values.	To compare the descriptive features of variables, such as within the set of variables all measuring Integrative Motivation. Also, to compare data sets where other statistical techniques cannot be conducted because of small sample size.
Mann-Whitney U	A non-parametric test to determine if two groups (i.e. men and women) from the same sample vary significantly on a selected continuous variable. Statistical significance is established at $p \leq .05$.	To demonstrate any statistically significant differences between the Barcelona and Granada groups in, for example, motivational orientations, attitudinal perspectives, linguistic proficiency or language contact scores.
Spearman's Rank Order Correlation (Rho)	A non-parametric test to determine if two variables share a linear relationship. Statistical significance is established at $p \leq .05$.	To determine if variables such as attitude, motivation, language contact and linguistic proficiency share a linear relationship.
Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test	A non-parametric test to determine if change has occurred between two recurring measures (i.e. Time 1 to Time 2) within the same sample. Statistical significance is established at $p \leq .05$.	To determine whether the variables measured longitudinally demonstrate any significant changes throughout the participants' residence abroad.

Adapted from Pallant (2011)

Table 3-7: Research Tools and Research Questions

Research Question	Research Tools Used	Research Methods Used	Predicted Outcome
RQ1: To what extent do language-learning attitudes and motivations develop and change over a period of time abroad, and what reasons might cause these changes to occur?	Observations and interviews; Qualitative data from Questionnaires 1, 2 and 3	Longitudinal statistical analysis of affective variables; Qualitative analysis of observations; Attention paid to 'critical' moments as dictated by students	Attitudes and motivations will change to some extent; Positive changes positively affect learning, while negative changes hinder learning; Experiences will be very personal and the experience will differ by individual
RQ2: To what extent do salient individual differences among participants, such as pre-program proficiency, attitude, and motivational perspectives, affect the development of social relationships and L2 acquisition in a SA context?	Questionnaires 1, 2 and 3, first proficiency exam, observations/interviews; Language Contact Scores	Statistical comparison of affective variables and LCS data; Qualitative analysis of Questionnaire 2 data on social relationships; Analysis of interview data; Correlational analyses with both exam scores	Some effect predicted, pre-program proficiency, or the amount of pre-program study will influence initial attitudes and motivational orientations; Those with higher pre-program proficiency, more positive attitudes and higher motivation will be more successful at building social relationships
RQ3: To what extent do the participants backgrounds and the learning environment, including the program sites of Barcelona and Granada, support or hinder the development of social relationships and linguistic skills while abroad?	Open-ended questions in questionnaires; Interviews and observations; Questionnaire data separated by program site	Case studies of individual participants; Qualitative analysis of questionnaire data; Focus on both positive and negative experiences; Statistical comparison of data by program site	Environmental and personal factors could potentially have a major effect on affective variables and the experience as a whole. Experiences will vary by individual but trends will emerge based on program site.

Chapter 4: Background and Linguistic Proficiency

In order to begin the analysis of individual differences among the SA participants, an in depth investigation into their their educational and linguistic background was conducted with regards to L2 proficiency. Using data collected from the first questionnaire (see Appendix A) and the initial proficiency exam (see Appendix B), it investigates aspects such as prior study of the target language, Spanish, initial L2 proficiency, and any previous travel to a Spanish-speaking country. The information is later used as a basis from which linguistic development is measured. Additionally, the data are separated by program site in order to discern any significant differences among the linguistic backgrounds of the students residing in each city.

4.1 Pre-program Proficiency: All Participants

This section details the analyses that were conducted on the participant group as a whole as a means to determine their pre-program proficiency. Descriptive statistics and non-parametric tests were used to calculate the quantitative results; non-parametric measures were chosen because many data points were coded ordinally, and in some cases, the data did not meet the criteria of normality required for parametric tests as discussed by Pallant (2011). Relative qualitative analyses from observations and open-ended questions are included in the discussion in order to comment further on the findings of the quantitative analyses. Details of the variable coding are found in Appendices C and D.

4.1.1 Background

Information was collected from all 73 participants regarding their language backgrounds and previous experience with the Spanish language. 64 students reported that English was their first language, while two students from the Barcelona program reported speaking both English and Spanish as their native languages. Seven other students reported having English and another language as their native languages, which include Italian, Mandarin, Polish, Portuguese, Russian, Serbian, and Vietnamese.

Furthermore, students were asked about their previous experiences in studying Spanish and any previous travel to a Spanish-speaking country. Following descriptive data from the

variable 'Years of Prior Study', 70 students reported having previously studied Spanish with most students having studied the target language between four to six years prior to their residence abroad (N= 41). Three students, all from the Barcelona program, reported having no previous experience in studying Spanish. Also, marked by the variable 'Previous Travels', many students (N= 42) reported that they had previously travelled to a Spanish-speaking country, yet most had only spent between one and two weeks abroad (N= 21); only two students reported having spent more than five months in a Spanish-speaking country prior to their residence abroad.

It should be noted here that the students were also asked about their adherence to an academic program path, a variable which was also specified in the work of Cigliana and Serrano (Forthcoming). However, the majority of the students who responded to the question (N= 56/68) did not state having a program path. Other responses included 'Liberal arts' (N= 4), 'International studies' (N= 3), and 'Spanish culture' (N=2), while only five students specified 'Spanish language' as their academic program path. As a result, statistical differences among these groups cannot be calculated; however the significance of this variable is revisited in later qualitative analyses.

4.1.2 Initial Proficiency Exam Results

Table 4-1 shows the results of each individual section of the proficiency exam and the total number of correct results on the exam. The increasing Means, beginning with the A2 section (M= 4.34), followed by the B2 section (M= 3.36) and finally the C1 section (M= 2.08), demonstrate that the exam had distinct levels of difficulty, as described in Chapter 3, and that while most students did well on the A2 section, the C1 section was the most difficult. While this exam does not provide an indication of the students' level of proficiency according to the CEFR, these scores will be used as a basis on which to judge initial proficiency level.

Table 4-1: Descriptive Statistics for Initial Proficiency Exam Scores

	N	Range	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD
A2 Section of 1st Exam	73	7	0	7	4.34	1.812
B2 Section of 1st Exam	73	6	0	6	3.36	1.703
C1 Section of 1st Exam	73	6	0	6	2.08	1.714
1st Exam Score	73	19	0	19	9.78	4.214

Furthermore, bivariate correlative analyses were performed in order to demonstrate any relationships between the variables ‘Years of Prior Study’ and ‘Previous Travels’, and the initial proficiency exam scores, denoted by the variable ‘1st Exam Score’. The non-parametric correlative evaluation, Spearman Rank Order Correlation (ρ), was selected for these analyses because the data did not meet the criteria for the parametric alternative, the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, as described by (Pallant, 2011). The results determine that a statistically significant, positive relationship does exist between ‘Years of Prior Study’ and the proficiency exam scores ($\rho = .289$, $n = 73$, $p = .013$). A statistically significant relationship also exists between ‘Previous Travels’ and the proficiency exam scores ($\rho = .310$, $N = 73$, $p = .008$). Though the significance of the correlation is relatively small based on the criteria set forth by Cohen (1988), the data suggest that those who have studied Spanish for longer and those who have spent more time in a Spanish-speaking country also tended to score higher on the initial proficiency exam as would be expected.

4.2 Pre-program Proficiency: Barcelona and Granada Programs

The second part of this chapter investigates the differences between those students studying in Barcelona and those studying in Granada in terms of their pre-program proficiency. This initial background data is used to gain an overall representation of each group in order to compare them with one another and hypothesise whether the linguistic backgrounds within each group might lead to more or less success in adapting to a distinct culture and acquiring Spanish. First, a comparison is made between the Granada ‘pre-

sessional' students and those studying during the regular semester, followed by a comparison of the Barcelona and Granada groups.

4.2.1 Granada Pre-sessional and Semester Programs

The students in Granada had the option to attend a pre-sessional course before the regular semester program began. Those students who did choose this option (N= 14) arrived in Granada about three weeks prior to the beginning of the regular semester program, while those who chose not to take the pre-sessional course arrived on time to begin the semester program. Because the Granada program houses two groups who will have spent different amounts of time in their host communities, it is important to make a distinction between them unless comparative analyses reveal that the differences in the data from these groups are not statistically significant.

In order to determine whether or not the two groups can be analysed as one main 'Granada' group to be compared with the Barcelona group, a Mann-Whitney U Test was performed which compared the data from several distinct variables between the pre-sessional students and the regular semester program students. The Mann-Whitney U Test took into account the following variables, which were selected as they were the principal variables from this analysis: 'Years of Prior Study', '1st Exam Score', 'Total Attitudes and Perceptions Time 1', 'Total Integrative Motivation Time 1', 'Total Instrumental Motivation Time 1'¹. The results reveal that the only statistically significant difference is found in the variable 'Years of Prior Study' with the pre-sessional group ($Md= 5$, $N= 14$) having fewer years of prior study when compared to the regular semester group ($Md= 6$, $N= 17$, $Z= -2.043$, $p= .041$). This might be expected as those with fewer years of study might be interested in an intensive Spanish course prior to the beginning of the regular semester. The other variables tested reveal no statistical significance between the two groups with significance levels of $p= .093$, $p= .826$, $p= .765$, $p= .126$ respectively where statistical significance is established when $p \leq .05$ (Pallant, 2011). Therefore, because only one small difference could be established between the Granada groups, in further statistical analyses these participants are combined into a single 'Granada' group which will be compared with

¹ The variables 'Total Attitudes and Perceptions Time1', 'Total Integrative Motivation Time 1' and 'Total Instrumental Motivation Time 1' are further discussed in Chapters 6 and 7.

those from Barcelona. Distinctions are made between the Granada groups as they arise in the qualitative analyses.

4.2.2 Prior Study of Spanish

While it has already been mentioned that three students in the Barcelona program reported not having previously studied Spanish and two others reported that Spanish is their first language, it is important to examine the differences in the language-learning backgrounds of these students as this factor has previously been determined to have a profound impact on the ability to acquire a language in a SA context (Brecht *et al.*, 1995; Lapkin *et al.*, 1995; Magnan and Back, 2007; Coleman, 2009; Pérez-Vidal, 2014). Descriptive statistics reveal that the Barcelona group has a wider Range ($R= 15$) in terms of prior years of study than the Granada group ($R= 13$); however, the Granada group has more prior years of study than the Barcelona group on average with Means of 6.00 and 5.21 respectively.

When the data is split further to account for the significant difference in the number of years of study between the two distinct Granada program participants, the discrepancies are even clearer. While the Barcelona group's data remains the same ($M= 5.21$, $R= 15$), the differences between the two Granada groups become apparent with the pre-session group demonstrating a much smaller Range ($R= 7$) but similar Mean ($M= 5.07$) to the Barcelona group, and the semester group maintaining a high Range ($R= 13$) but a much higher Mean ($M= 6.76$). This data, as illustrated in Figure 4-1, suggests that the Barcelona participants have the most varied language-learning backgrounds, and that while the Granada pre-session group has a similar Mean score for 'Years of Prior Study', they generally exhibit less variation in this field. Furthermore, the Granada semester participants generally have more years of prior study when compared to the other groups; however, though a significant difference has already been established between the Granada semester and pre-session groups ($Z= -2.043$, $p= .041$), statistical significance could not be established by means of a Mann-Whitney U Test between the Barcelona group and the Granada semester group ($Z= -1.904$, $p= .057$).

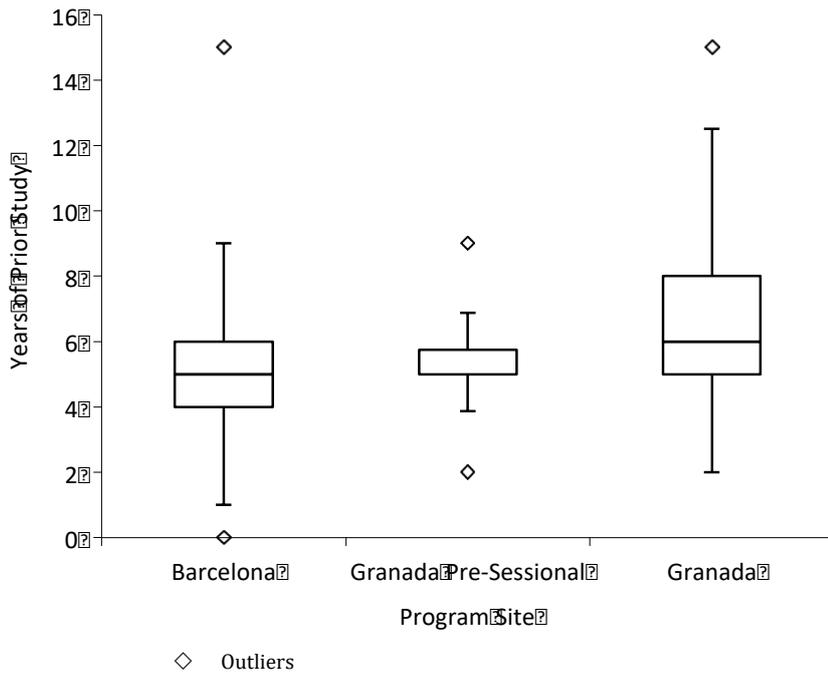


Figure 4-1: Years of Prior Study (BCN and GRA)

4.2.3 Initial Proficiency Exam Results

All of the participants were asked to complete a preliminary Spanish proficiency exam on the second official day of their study abroad programs in Spain, regardless of the date in which the program began. The results of these were analysed using descriptive statistics and non-parametric measures in order to examine any significant differences between the groups in regards to the participants' exam scores and initial Spanish proficiency levels.

The results of the descriptive statistics show that the participants in Barcelona have a slightly larger Range (R= 19) of exam scores than those in Granada (R= 16), yet again, the Granada group had higher scores on average than the Barcelona group with Means of 11.10 and 8.81 respectively. Figure 4-2 provides a visual representation of the scores from each group. The 'Barcelona' box plot reflects the differences in the number of years of prior study as previously discussed, while the 'Granada' plot suggests that less variation in initial Spanish proficiency exists among the participants despite their different language-learning experiences.

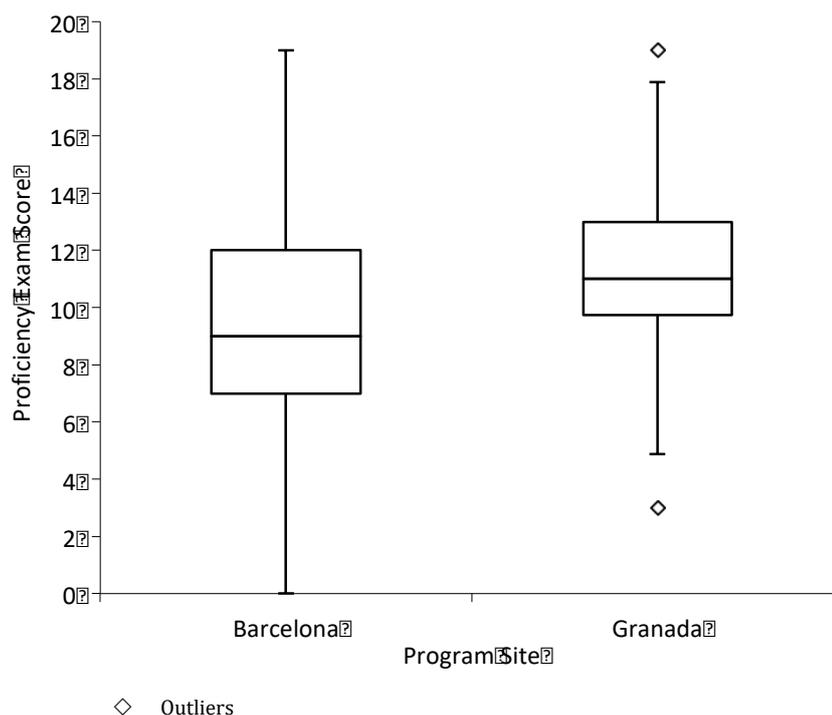


Figure 4-2: Initial Proficiency Exam Scores (BCN and GRA)

As mentioned before, while these proficiency exams were not designed to indicate each participants' specific level of proficiency according to the CEFR proficiency strata, they are important in determining an initial skill level which can be compared across the groups and used in future research to measure improvement. The plots in Figure 4-2 give the impression that the Granada group had a generally higher level of Spanish proficiency upon beginning their residences abroad. Nevertheless, in order to test the statistical significance of this difference in scores, a Mann-Whitney U Test was performed. Results of the test reveal that there is a statistically significant difference between the two groups in terms of preliminary exam scores ($Z = -2.372$, $p = .018$, $r = .28$) which suggest that the Granada group did indeed begin their study abroad programs with a generally higher level of proficiency overall.

4.3 Discussion and Conclusion

In order to begin the analysis on linguistic development during SA, a level of linguistic proficiency must first be established. The data collected and analysed from all participants as a whole reveal that these students have extremely varied backgrounds in language

learning. Though neither program specifies a minimum language requirement, most students reported having studied Spanish for several years prior to beginning their stay abroad, while others reported no previous study of Spanish. Additionally, many students reported having previously traveled to a Spanish-speaking country, though most have only been abroad for a short period of time. This disparity in language learning backgrounds is reflected in the initial Spanish proficiency exams; with a Mean score of 10 (rounded) and a Range of 0-19 correct answers out of a total 21, the results suggest that these students have a wide range of L2 proficiency levels.

When the data are separated based on program site, several interesting trends also emerge. Foremost is the finding that the Barcelona group tend to have a much wider range of experiences with the target language, including some students with no prior knowledge of Spanish. In contrast, the Granada group tend to be much more homogenous in terms of their knowledge of Spanish. Of course, some disparity still exists, but the difference is much less significant when compared to the Barcelona group.

While it may be hypothesised that either less proficient (Meara, 1994; Freed, 1995b; Llanes and Muñoz, 2009) or more proficient (Bialystock, 1993; Lafford, 2004; Golonka, 2006) learners have the potential to make more gains, the data in the present study serve as a basis from which to such gains. The data on pre-program proficiency are also later compared with other affective factors as a means to determine whether pre-program knowledge of Spanish relates to the participants' attitudes, motivations and subsequent social interactions.

Chapter 5: Evaluating Progress

As discussed in Chapter 1, one of the aims of this project is to investigate the individual experiences of students during a residence abroad. Inevitably, some of those experiences lead to the acquisition of Spanish, the language that all of the participants are required to study during their sojourn in Spain. Of course, the literature agrees, on the whole, that students who study their language in immersion contexts will make some gains in their L2 linguistic abilities (Meara, 1994; Brecht *et al.*, 1995; Duperron and Overstreet, 2009; Pérez-Vidal, 2014; Cigliana and Serrano, Forthcoming). However, some studies have been inconclusive (Pellegrino, 1998; Magnan and Back, 2007; Kinginger, 2008; Brown, 2009a; Vande Berg *et al.*, 2009), thus warranting an independent exploration of the participants' linguistic development.

Thus, the data that are presented in this chapter are the results from the final proficiency exam as an indication of how much the participants may have improved, or not improved, their Spanish linguistic proficiency. As mentioned in Chapter 3, the initial and final proficiency exams were identical; however, due to participant absence at the time of the distribution of the final exams, only 53 exams were completed. The intention of the exam was not as a means to classify the participants according to the CEFR, but to simply gather an indication of each individual's linguistic progression. The analysis presented in this chapter focuses exclusively on this topic, while comparisons with other individual differences are made in subsequent chapters.

The data are first presented as a whole, and then separated by program site. In this chapter, the data are later compared with the other individual differences that are relevant to study abroad research, but are not a key focus of the current study.

5.1 All Participants

Table 5-1 provides the results of the final proficiency exam, including the total scores on the second exam and the scores from each of the individual sections. Compared with Table 4-1 containing the preliminary exam results, it appears that the students did make some improvements on the whole, based on the increased Mean scores for each section, and

particularly based on the increased Mean score for the entire exam, rising from M= 9.78 at T1 to M= 12.01 at T2.

Table 5-1: Descriptive Statistics for Final Exam Scores

	N	Range	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD
A2 Section of 2nd Exam	53	5	2	7	5.31	1.286
B2 Section of 2nd Exam	53	7	0	7	3.87	1.401
C1 Section of 2nd Exam	53	7	0	7	2.80	1.763
Total Score 2nd Exam	53	16	4	20	12.01	3.604

In order to measure whether this change was statistically significant, a non-parametric Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test was implemented. The results, displayed in Table 5-2, demonstrate that majority of the students did score more points on the second exam after a period of time abroad. The Wilcoxon test shows that the difference between the two test scores is statistically significant ($Z = -4.459, p \leq .0005$). Interestingly, the results show that seven individuals actually scored lower on the second exam, while seven achieved the same score.

Table 5-2: Significance of Exam Score Differences (Time 1 to Time 2)

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	p
	Negative Ranks	7	19.36	135.50	-4.459	.000
Exam Score	Positive Ranks	39	24.24	945.50		
Difference	Ties	7				
	Total	53				

Additionally, Table 5-3 provides data on the differences in the exam scores, including the Mean scores of improvement for each section and the exam scores as a whole.

Table 5-3: Descriptive Statistics for Exam Score Differences

	N	Range	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD
A2 Exam Score Difference	53	5	-1	4	.83	1.397
B2 Exam Score Difference	53	7	-4	3	.32	1.516
C1 Exam Score Difference	53	7	-2	5	.60	1.633
Total Exam Score Difference	53	12	-4	8	1.83	2.351

The data seem to indicate that while the majority of the participants did appear to make linguistic gains, some made no overall gains, and others actually scored less on the second proficiency exam. Equally, the students who scored between 5-8 points higher appear to demonstrate a significant improvement in linguistic skills.

It should be noted that there are a number of limitations associated with this type of exam, which are clearly stated in the methodology (see Chapter 3). Because of this, it would be unreasonable to claim that all of the participants who scored lower on their second exam exhibited no linguistic development; rather, it was likely that other factors, such as upcoming exams, or possibly the relative reluctance of the participants to complete the final phases of the research project, which affected this outcome. Equally, the data cannot confirm that those who scored between 5-8 points higher on the second exam made 'significant' progress, because the range of their linguistic skills was not comprehensively tested.

In either case, these results demonstrate a number of interesting trends. Some students likely made significant progress in their linguistic skills, while others likely made little to no progress. Moreover, it appears that most of the students only made modest gains of between 1-2 points, according to the Mean score difference (M= 1.83).

5.2 Barcelona and Granada Participants

The same series of analyses were conducted on the final proficiency exam results for the participants separated by program site. The results of the final exam scores are highlighted

in Table 5-4. The subsequent Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test, shown in Table 5-5, determines whether the changes from Time 1 to Time 2 are statistically significant.

Table 5-4: Descriptive Statistics for Final Exam Scores (BCN and GRA)

City		N	Range	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD
Barcelona	A2 Section of 2nd Exam	28	5	2	7	5.07	1.562
	B2 Section of 2nd Exam	28	7	0	6	3.03	1.399
	C1 Section of 2nd Exam	28	7	0	6	2.07	1.562
	Total Score 2nd Exam	28	16	4	19	10.62	3.631
Granada	A2 Section of 2nd Exam	25	5	4	7	5.60	.866
	B2 Section of 2nd Exam	25	7	1	7	4.36	1.287
	C1 Section of 2nd Exam	25	7	1	7	3.60	1.683
	Total Score 2nd Exam	25	16	8	20	13.56	3.015

Table 5-5: Significance of Exam Score Differences (BCN and GRA)

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	p
Barcelona	Negative Ranks	6	10.75	64.50	-2.463	.013
	Positive Ranks	18	13.08	235.50		
	Ties	4				
	Total	28				
Granada	Negative Ranks	1	12.00	12.00	-3.745	.000
	Positive Ranks	21	11.48	241.00		
	Ties	3				
	Total	25				

Table 5-5 shows that the majority of the students at each program site did score higher on the second proficiency exam; however, six students from the Barcelona group scored

lower on the second exam, while only one student from Granada scored lower on the second exam. Additionally, the results of the Wilcoxon test demonstrate that the exam scores are statistically significantly different from Time 1 to Time 2 for both sets of participants. Yet, the Granada group demonstrates a greater level of statistical significance ($Z = -3.745$, $p \leq .0005$) than the Barcelona group ($Z = -2.463$, $p = .013$), suggesting that the Granada group generally made more gains than the Barcelona group according to the exam scores.

Table 5-6: Descriptive Statistics for Exam Score Differences (BCN and GRA)

City		N	Range	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD
Barcelona	A2 Exam Score Difference	28	5	-1	4	.89	1.397
	B2 Exam Score Difference	28	6	-3	3	.32	1.516
	C1 Exam Score Difference	28	5	-2	3	.11	1.633
	Total Exam Score Difference	28	12	-4	8	1.39	2.351
Granada	A2 Exam Score Difference	25	5	-1	4	.76	1.397
	B2 Exam Score Difference	25	7	-4	3	.32	1.516
	C1 Exam Score Difference	25	7	-2	5	1.16	1.633
	Total Exam Score Difference	25	9	-3	6	2.32	2.351

Table 5-6 reconfirms this notion by showing the differences in the exam scores from Time 1 to Time 2. The Granada group has a higher Mean gain in exam scores ($M = 2.32$) than the Barcelona group ($M = 1.390$), but a student from the Barcelona program actually made the most gains out of any student according to his/her score improvement of 8 points. Again, due to the limitations in the proficiency exam itself, it is difficult to conclude whether one group actually made more progress than the other in terms of linguistic development. What is clear, with some certainty, is that it is likely that the majority of the participants did make progress in their Spanish language skills in some way.

5.3 L2 Linguistic Development and Initial Qualities

As stated in the thesis overview and in the literature review, the main goals of the analyses within this project were to uncover how affective factors such as attitude and motivation change over time, and to explore why such changes might occur. Equally, the project hopes to examine how these changing factors impact on the overall SA experience, which includes aspects of linguistic development, but also the social relationships that students form while abroad and the way in which they use their L2 in interaction.

The subsequent chapters in this thesis explore these elements in depth, and linguistic achievement, based on the proficiency exam scores, is examined as a potential consequence of different qualities and experiences. However, independent of the other chapters, it is also necessary to explore whether any of the other initial qualities of the students may be related to their linguistic development. This includes pre-program study of Spanish, prior visits to a Spanish-speaking country, pre-program proficiency, and the program path chosen by the students.

To begin, both the independent scores on the second proficiency exam and difference from in scores from the first to second proficiency exam were analysed for any correlational relationships with 'Years of Prior Study'. As with other analyses conducted, non-parametric measures were implemented. The results of the analysis reveal that a statistically significant relationship does exist between 'Years of Prior Study' and the final exam scores ($\rho = .367$, $N = 53$, $p = .007$). 'Years of Prior Study' was also analysed for a relationship with the exam score differences; however, no statistical relationship could be established ($\rho = -.154$, $N = 53$, $p = .271$).

These would indicate that those who studied Spanish for longer prior to coming abroad tended to score higher on their final proficiency exam than those who studied for a shorter period of time prior to coming abroad. This result is largely to be expected as a similar result was revealed between 'Years of Prior Study' and the initial exam scores. In contrast, the amount of time spent studying Spanish prior to coming abroad was not statistically related to the *amount* of improvement made, according to the exam scores.

Similar analyses were conducted between 'Previous Travels', the second exam scores and the score differences. A statistically significant relationship was also established ($\rho = .328$,

$N= 53, p= .016$) between the tested variable and the second exam scores; however, as above, no relationship could be established between 'Previous Travels' and the exam score differences ($\rho= -.079, N= 53, p= .572$).

Again, this would indicate that those who had spent a longer period of time in a Spanish-speaking country tended to score higher on their second exam scores, as was the case with the initial exam scores. However, as with 'Years of Prior Study', no statistical relationship could be established with the exam score difference, suggesting again that prior time spent in a Spanish-speaking country was not related with the amount of linguistic improvement made, based on the exam scores.

A third area of interest is the relationship between pre-program proficiency and the exam score differences; pre-program proficiency differs from 'Years of Prior Study' in that it is measured by the initial exam scores, rather than number of years of study. In order to test this relationship, a Spearman correlation was conducted on the initial exam scores and the exam score differences; however, a statistically significant relationship could not be found between the two variables ($\rho= -.261, N= 53, p= .060$). Therefore, as with the above measures, pre-program proficiency does not seem to relate significantly to the amount of gains made, according to the exam scores.

The analysis also hoped to take into account the idea of Program Path, a variable that was also investigated among a similar group of students in Cigliana and Serrano (Forthcoming). Unfortunately, the majority of students ($N= 52/68$) did not report following a particular course-path as they selected their classes, and as a result statistical analyses could not be conducted. Instead, such data is taken into account in later chapters as it pertains to individual examples and experiences.

Additionally, it should be noted that correlational analyses were conducted on the Barcelona and Granada groups separately for the three previous variables tested; however, no significant differences were found when compared to the analysis of the participants as a whole.

5.4 Discussion and Conclusion

The above results presented in this chapter reveal a number of findings with regards to the participants' linguistic development abroad. First and foremost is the finding that the

majority of the participants did appear to make linguistic gains, based on higher final exam scores for most participants. Such a result is expected, considering that all of the students were required to take classes on Spanish language and grammar as part of their SA program. Moreover, this is reflected in the literature, as noted throughout Chapter 2, wherein most students who study their L2 in an immersion context do make linguistic gains to some extent.

A second interesting finding is that none of the variables relating to pre-program experience with the Spanish language, 'Years of Prior Study', 'Previous Travels', and pre-program proficiency, demonstrated a statistically significant relationship with the difference in the exam scores. This would seem to suggest that those participants with much experience studying and using Spanish, and those with very little experience with this L2, are able to make gains in their L2 abilities regardless of such experience. Such a finding therefore supports those who suggest that learners with a relatively low L2 proficiency are likely to make noticeable gains (Carroll, 1967; Freed, 1995a, 1998; Llanes and Muñoz, 2009). Equally, those with a higher pre-program proficiency may also make similar gains (Lafford, 2004; Collentine, 2009); however, the possibility still exists that such proficiency exams may be limited in their ability to measure higher-level skills (Freed, 1998; Llanes, 2011). Yet, despite the limitations of the proficiency exam itself, much variability in linguistic gains still exists. Further investigations of the individual experiences of the students hope to shed light on why this might be the case.

A final point of significance is that those from Granada tended to make more gains than those from Barcelona. Such a result then suggests the question as to what extent the *participants* are responsible for such development, and how the learning context itself may have played a role. Dewey *et al.* (2014) note that program site may have a profound impact on the experiences of a student abroad; however, as detailed in Section 2.3, individual differences among the participants are likewise influential (Dörnyei, 2009a; Coleman and Chafer, 2011; Serrano *et al.*, 2012). The results therefore point to the need for further analysis as to why such disparity exists, particularly among students at a single SA program site and between those studying at two different sites within the same country. As such, these issues are investigated in depth in subsequent chapters.

Chapter 6: Attitude

As previously mentioned in Section 2.5, attitude has been closely linked with learners' sociocultural adaptation and subsequent language acquisition in a SA context (Miller and Ginsberg, 1995; Masgoret and Gardner, 1999; Masgoret and Ward, 2006; Coleman and Chafer, 2011). And, while early research associated positive attitudes and perceptions with gains in linguistic ability (Church, 1982; Clément, 1986; Huebner, 1995; Miller and Ginsberg, 1995), later investigations highlighted its unstable nature, particularly when learners' experiences abroad are constantly affecting their perceptions of those around them in this distinctive learning context (Gardner *et al.*, 2004; Isabelli-Garcia, 2006; Kinginger, 2008; Tragant, 2012; Irie and Ryan, 2015).

More specifically, these changes appear to be amplified among American SA students, as demonstrated in the studies of Isabelli-Garcia (2006), Kinginger (2008) and Goldoni (2013) (See Section 2.5.1). These works clearly demonstrate the strong influences of initial encounters with a receptor culture and warn of the difficulties students may have in adapting to their temporary homes if they adopt ethnocentric perspectives or remain within their co-national friendship group. A further point to note is that the American students may not even recognise such behaviours as they are surrounded by fellow American sojourners within the confines of an American educational program (Ogden, 2006; also see Section 1.3). Therefore, in the current study, it is necessary to not only examine the participants' attitudes and perceptions upon their arrival in Spain, but to consider how they change and develop during their residences abroad and how the participants' cultural traits can affect them.

This chapter addresses the participants' attitudes and perceptions as they relate to language learning and the wider experience of residence abroad. In order to do so, the initial attitudes of the participants are determined based on results from the first questionnaire and initial observational data. Then, a series of quantitative and qualitative analyses are conducted in order to demonstrate any significant changes in attitudes throughout the participants' time in Spain. Later, the significance of attitude as it relates to linguistic proficiency and linguistic gains is determined

In keeping with the rationale of this project, the chapter concludes by identifying some of the critical learner characteristics and experiences that come to light with regards to attitude as a result of the questionnaire data analysis. Specifically, the discussion highlights a number of emerging themes which warrant further investigation, thereby fostering the need for a more person-centered approach in the analysis of attitude and SA.

6.1 Initial Attitudes and Perceptions

6.1.1 All Participants

In order to examine the attitudes and perceptions of the students upon their arrival in Spain, data from the initial questionnaire was first analysed. The participants were asked to rank their agreement with nine different statements regarding their attitudes and perceptions towards the SA experience and their new host community. Table 4-2 provides details on the participants' agreement with each statement while the variable 'Total Attitudes and Perceptions (A/P) Time 1' demonstrates the participants' overall positive attitudes and perceptions on a 10-point scale. All variables in the scale were tested for reliability and reveal a good internal consistency with a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of .759 as denoted by DeVellis (2003) and Pallant (2011).

As shown in Table 6-1, Opinion 16, "I am looking forward to having a positive personal experience in Barcelona/Granada" (M= 9.70, SD= .749), Opinion 15, "I find learning Spanish and attending Spanish classes interesting" (M= 9.49, SD= .959) and Opinion 3, "I want to learn Spanish" (M= 9.46, SD= 1.369), were those statements about which the most students felt positively. Conversely, Opinion 17, "I am confident in my ability to communicate effectively with others using Spanish" (M= 6.26, SD= 2.454) and Opinion 18, "I think it will be relatively easy to meet native speakers with whom I can practice my Spanish while abroad" (M= 6.96 SD= 1.715) were those items ranked lowest in terms of Attitudes and Perceptions. While some participants ranked their agreement with some statements as (1), which would indicate that they highly disagreed with the statement, in general the data reveals that the students had positive attitudes and perceptions at the beginning of their time abroad. The variable 'Total A/P Time 1' (M= 8.45, SD= .954) reinforces this trend, and no statement had a Mean response of below (6). Nevertheless, even though the participants reported a very strong desire to learn and a strong interest in the target

language, they appear to be most hesitant about general communication using the target language and meeting native speakers in their new host community.

Table 6-1: Descriptive Statistics for Initial Attitudes and Perceptions

	N	Range	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD
Opinion 1: A/P (T1)	70	9	1	10	7.83	2.126
Opinion 3: A/P (T1)	70	9	1	10	9.46	1.369
Opinion 4: A/P (T1)	70	9	1	10	8.04	1.892
Opinion 6: A/P (T1)	70	4	6	10	9.11	1.043
Opinion 14: A/P (T1)	70	9	1	10	9.20	1.621
Opinion 15: A/P (T1)	70	4	6	10	9.49	.959
Opinion 16: A/P (T1)	70	4	6	10	9.70	.749
Opinion 17: A/P (T1)	70	9	1	10	6.27	2.419
Opinion 18: A/P (T1)	70	7	3	10	6.96	1.715
Total A/P Time 1	70	4.78	5.22	10	8.4508	.95373

A bivariate correlative analysis was also conducted in order to highlight any potential relationship between the variable 'Total A/P Time 1' and the variables relating to prior study of Spanish and initial proficiency exam scores. Again, the non-parametric Spearman's Rho correlation was selected and the results reveal a moderately strong relationship between 'Total A/P Time 1' and 'Years of Prior Study' ($\rho = .407$, $n = 70$, $p < .0005$) and a strong relationship between 'Total A/P Time 1' and '1st Exam Score' ($\rho = .513$, $n = 70$, $p < .0005$) according to the parameters suggested by Cohen (1988). These outcomes indicate that those who studied Spanish for longer and those who scored higher on the proficiency exam tend to have more positive initial attitudes and perceptions than those who have less experience studying Spanish or scored lower on the proficiency exam.

As a further measure of initial attitudes and perceptions, the participants were asked two open-ended questions about their upcoming study abroad experiences, and were asked to give either one or two topics for each question. The first question asked the students to

describe to what they are most looking forward during their time abroad. Answers were coded nominally based on trends in the data, and two answers per student were represented in the data. The two most popular answers were 'Getting to experience a new culture' (N= 52) and 'Learning/improving Spanish' (N= 37). Note again that each student is represented twice in this data; some students may have given both items in their answer and some neither.

The second open-ended question asked students if they were nervous or apprehensive about any part of their study abroad experience. The answers were coded nominally based on trends in the data though a much wider range of answers were provided than for the previous question. The data reflects one answer per participant as the majority of the participants either did not respond at all to this question or only provided one example. The two most common responses were 'Communicating with locals' (N= 22) and 'Living situation' (N= 9), referring to living with new flat mates or in a homestay. Nine participants did not provide a response while 16 others provided responses that were not coded into a majority category, and were labeled as 'Other.' The responses to these items thus serve as an indicator of what factors may impact negatively on the participants' experiences throughout the residence abroad.

6.1.2 Barcelona and Granada

Statistical analyses were also conducted on the participants as separated by program site in order to indicate any distinctions among the groups relating to attitude. In the analyses of the variable 'Total A/P Time 1', the participants as a whole reported having mostly positive attitudes and perceptions at the beginning of their time abroad (M= 8.45, SD= .954). Descriptive statistics reveal that this trend remains almost constant amongst the groups, with the Granada participants having only slightly more positive responses on average than those in Barcelona (M= 8.79, SD= .543; M= 8.18, SD= 1.119). Conversely, when the data is represented visually in Figure 6-1, it reveals that the Granada responses are much more concentrated into one area of the graph, while the Barcelona responses are much more diverse. This disparity is illustrated further by the results from a Mann-Whitney U Test, which confirm a statistically significant difference between the groups ($Z = -2.617, p = .009$); both groups still report having positive attitudes towards the SA experience and host culture, yet the Granada group is shown to generally have more

positive attitudes, despite the relatively similar Mean scores.

Analyses of the individual variables relating to attitudes and perceptions reveal that there is a great disparity amongst some of the responses from the Barcelona participants, while the Granada participants remain consistently more positive. Some examples of this include Opinion 1, “I like to study Spanish” (Barcelona: $R= 9$, $M= 7.21$, $SD= 2.515$; Granada: $R= 3$, $M= 8.61$, $SD= 1.116$), and Opinion 4, “I find learning Spanish and attending Spanish classes interesting” (Barcelona: $R= 9$, $M= 7.46$, $SD= 2.175$; Granada: $R= 4$, $M= 8.77$, $SD= 1.117$), wherein both results show a statistically significant difference ($Z= -2.289$, $p= .022$; $Z= -2.777$, $p= .005$).

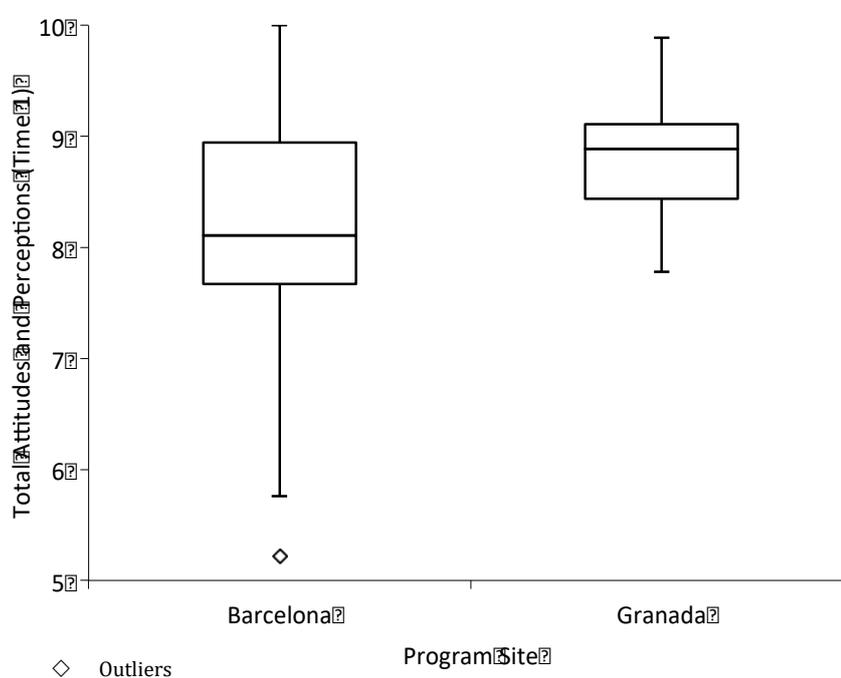


Figure 6-1: Total Attitudes and Perceptions (BCN and GRA)

The open-ended questions were also analysed by group, and tend to reinforce this disparity among the desire to learn and study Spanish: for example, though ‘Experiencing a new culture’ and ‘Learning/improving Spanish’ were the two most common responses among all participants in both groups, the Barcelona group reported most looking forward to ‘Experiencing a new culture’ ($N= 30$, 71.4%) while the Granada group reported most looking forward to ‘Learning/improving Spanish’ ($N= 24$, 77.4%). Other common answers remained largely similar among the groups: 23.8% ($N= 10$) of Barcelona students and 16.1% ($N= 5$)

of Granada students reported looking forward to ‘Socialising or making social connections,’ while another 23.8% (N= 10) of Barcelona students and 16.1% (N= 5) of Granada students reported looking forward to ‘Traveling around Europe or Spain.’

Conversely, when asked whether or not they felt nervous about any aspects of the SA experiences, the groups tended to respond more uniformly. The most common anxieties expressed by participants from both groups involve the ability to communicate successfully with locals in the community (Barcelona, N=12, 28.6%; Granada N= 10, 32.3%). Other common concerns included the participants living arrangements during their time abroad (Barcelona, N= 4, 9.5%; Granada, N=5, 16.1%) and the ability to adapt to cultural norms (Barcelona, N= 3, 7.1%; Granada, N= 5, 16.1%). Again, two answers per student were represented in the data for the open-ended question about initial hopes and desires while only answer per participant is represented in the question about anxieties.

6.1.3 Observational Examples and Discussion

Despite the great disparity in the initial Spanish proficiency scores and language-learning backgrounds of these students, most reported having very positive initial attitudes towards the host culture and SA experience. The analyses of the Attitudes and Perceptions variables illustrate this general positivity, and bivariate correlational analyses also reveal that those with either a higher proficiency level or more years of previous Spanish study may be more likely to have more positive attitudes and perceptions fewer years of prior study or a lower entry proficiency level. This data is supported by qualitative responses from open-ended questions, which reveal that the students are most looking forward to learning Spanish or improving their linguistic skills and experiencing a new culture in the beginning days of their residences abroad. This finding also reflects the ethos of the program sites as described in Section 1.3.3, whereby the program aims to promote learning of both cultural traits and language in Spain.

In support of the quantitative data, feelings of what might be considered positivity to practice the language and explore the receptor culture are highlighted in observations made by the researcher in the first few days of the participants’ stay abroad. For instance, one female student in Barcelona approached the researcher using Spanish to ask for directions to a major tourist attraction in the city, while one male student in Barcelona attempted to speak to native Spanish/Catalan speakers whom he had just met in order to

immediately begin practicing his language skills. Similarly in Granada, two female students discussed how they wanted to speak Spanish in their shared home in order to continuously practice, while one male student in Granada spoke continuously in Spanish with program coordinators, even when they were addressing others in English.

Equally, examples of the potential anxieties reported by the participants were also observed, particularly reflecting the students' apprehension about communicating using the target language. In Barcelona, a group of four friends were observed ignoring a request for directions in Spanish from a local driver by walking away quickly and avoiding eye contact. Similarly, group of six students were observed in Granada avoiding speaking to server at a potential restaurant choice by turning their backs and maintaining conversation in English even after being directly approached.

While these feelings of initial excitement or anxiety may simply be due to the students' arrival in an new city or their initial adjustment to a new culture, they reflect two key points in the SA literature. On one hand, the first set of examples demonstrate a genuine positivity with regards to SA during their first few days abroad (Isabelli-Garcia, 2006; Kinginger, 2008; DeKeyser, 2010). On the other hand, the latter examples may reflect the creation of collective perspectives towards the target culture, a practice which can lead to the development of ethnocentric perspectives (Coleman, 1997, 2009), regardless of the participants' originally positive outlooks.

Again, such examples may simply illustrate the participants' initial reactions, yet they serve as an interesting contrast to the largely homogenous quantitative data. Crucially, these preliminary desires and potential anxieties may serve as predictors of which experiences cause attitudes and perceptions to change, thus warranting a longitudinal investigation.

6.2 Changes in Attitude Over Time

6.2.1 Quantitative Analysis

Thus, in order to determine what changes in attitudes and perceptions occurred, if any, and how this may have impacted on language acquisition abroad, a series of longitudinal statistical analyses were conducted on the data that was collected throughout the study

period. The results of these statistical analyses are presented in whole, followed by a discussion of the outcome.

The first collection of analyses relating to attitudes and perceptions considered how these aspects may have changed since the participants' arrival in Spain (Time 1) to after the participants had been living in Spain for between six to eight weeks, or after nine to eleven weeks for the Granada pre-sessional students (Time 2). The participants' data was first analysed as a whole by implementing a series of Wilcoxon Signed Rank Tests on each individual variable relating to attitude and the overall scale variable 'Total Attitudes/Perceptions (A/P)' (see Appendix A for calculations). The results of the tests are represented in Table 6-2.

As seen in Table 6-2, the 'Total A/P' scale variable created to represent general positivity among attitudes and perceptions does not illustrate any statistically significant change from Time 1 (T1) to Time 2 (T2) ($Z = -.184$, $p = .854$); however, many of the individual statements representing attitudes and perceptions do demonstrate a significant change. For example, the most positive, statistically significant changes in attitudes and perceptions corresponded with Opinion 17, "I am confident in my ability to communicate effectively with others using Spanish," ($Z = -4.988$, $p < .001$) and Opinion 1, "I like to study Spanish," ($Z = -2.640$, $p = .008$). Conversely, the most negative, statistically significant changes corresponded with Opinion 18, "I am finding it relatively easy to meet native speakers with whom I can practice my Spanish while abroad," ($Z = -3.689$, $p < .001$), Opinion 15, "So far, I am having a positive academic experience in Barcelona/Granada," ($Z = -2.974$, $p = .003$) Opinion 6, "So far, I like the Spanish people" ($Z = -2.437$, $p = .015$), and Opinion 16, "So far, I am having a positive personal experience in Barcelona/Granada" ($Z = -2.185$, $p = .029$).

Next, in order to measure further changes among the participants' attitudinal perspectives from the T2 data collection to the end of their academic programs abroad, or Time 3 (T3), Wilcoxon Signed Rank Tests were again implemented. Table 6-3 presents the results from the Wilcoxon tests on all attitudinal variables from the T2 and T3 data collections. While fewer participants were available for T3 data collection, the results demonstrate a marked difference from those presented in Table 6-2: change in attitudinal factors has certainly occurred, but with fewer overall trends than before.

Table 6-2: Attitudes/Perceptions Time 1 to Time 2

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	p
Opinion 1: A/P (T1) - Opinion 1: A/P (T2)	Negative Ranks	9	13.83	124.50	-2.640	.008
	Positive Ranks	23	17.54	403.50		
	Ties	33				
	Total	65				
Opinion 3: A/P (T1) - Opinion 3: A/P (T2)	Negative Ranks	13	12.12	157.50	-.603	.546
	Positive Ranks	10	11.85	118.50		
	Ties	42				
	Total	65				
Opinion 4: A/P (T1) - Opinion 4: A/P (T2)	Negative Ranks	15	20.03	300.50	-1.729	.084
	Positive Ranks	26	21.56	560.50		
	Ties	24				
	Total	65				
Opinion 6: A/P (T1) - Opinion 6: A/P (T2)	Negative Ranks	25	20.34	508.50	-2.437	.015
	Positive Ranks	12	16.21	194.50		
	Ties	28				
	Total	65				
Opinion 14: A/P (T1) - Opinion 14: A/P (T2)	Negative Ranks	11	13.45	148.00	-.396	.692
	Positive Ranks	14	12.64	177.00		
	Ties	40				
	Total	65				
Opinion 15: A/P (T1) - Opinion 15: A/P (T2)	Negative Ranks	23	15.35	353.00	-2.974	.003
	Positive Ranks	6	13.67	82.00		
	Ties	36				
	Total	65				
Opinion 16: A/P (T1) - Opinion 16: A/P (T2)	Negative Ranks	20	13.88	277.50	-2.185	.029
	Positive Ranks	7	14.36	100.50		
	Ties	38				
	Total	65				
Opinion 17: A/P (T1) - Opinion 17: A/P (T2)	Negative Ranks	8	18.38	147.00	-4.988	.000
	Positive Ranks	44	27.98	1231.00		
	Ties	13				
	Total	65				
Opinion 18: A/P (T1) - Opinion 18: A/P (T1)	Negative Ranks	35	24.01	840.50	-3.689	.000
	Positive Ranks	10	19.45	194.50		
	Ties	20				
	Total	65				
Total A/P Time 1 - Total A/P Time 2	Negative Ranks	26	31.56	820.50	-.184	.854
	Positive Ranks	30	25.85	775.50		
	Ties	9				
	Total	65				

Table 6-3: Attitudes/Perceptions Time 2 to Time 3

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	p
Opinion 1: A/P (T2) - Opinion 1: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	8	8.38	67.00	-.403	.687
	Positive Ranks	7	7.57	53.00		
	Ties	19				
	Total	34				
Opinion 3: A/P (T2) - Opinion 3: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	11	9.27	102.00	-1.797	.072
	Positive Ranks	5	6.80	34.00		
	Ties	18				
	Total	34				
Opinion 4: A/P (T2) - Opinion 4: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	13	13.65	177.50	-1.226	.220
	Positive Ranks	10	9.85	98.50		
	Ties	11				
	Total	34				
Opinion 6: A/P (T2) - Opinion 6: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	12	14.00	168.00	-1.414	.157
	Positive Ranks	10	8.50	85.00		
	Ties	12				
	Total	34				
Opinion 14: A/P (T2) - Opinion 14: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	10	9.35	93.50	-.814	.416
	Positive Ranks	7	8.50	59.50		
	Ties	8				
	Total	34				
Opinion 15: A/P (T2) - Opinion 15: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	19	13.39	254.50	-2.029	.042
	Positive Ranks	7	13.79	96.50		
	Ties	8				
	Total	34				
Opinion 16: A/P (T2) - Opinion 16: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	9	10.22	92.00	-.288	.773
	Positive Ranks	9	8.78	79.00		
	Ties	16				
	Total	34				
Opinion 17: A/P (T2) - Opinion 17: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	7	12.39	93.00	-1.411	.158
	Positive Ranks	16	11.44	183.00		
	Ties	11				
	Total	34				
Opinion 18: A/P (T2) - Opinion 18: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	11	13.23	145.50	-.131	.896
	Positive Ranks	13	11.88	154.50		
	Ties	10				
	Total	34				
Total A/P Time 2 - Total A/P Time 3	Negative Ranks	16	20.06	321.00	-.726	.468
	Positive Ranks	17	14.12	240.00		
	Ties	1				
	Total	34				

Table 6-4: Attitudes/Perceptions Time 1 to Time 3

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	p
Opinion 1: A/P (T1) - Opinion 1: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	7	10.43	73.00	-.169	.886
	Positive Ranks	10	8.00	80.00		
	Ties	17				
	Total	34				
Opinion 3: A/P (T1) - Opinion 3: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	13	9.00	117.00	-2.576	.010
	Positive Ranks	3	6.33	19.00		
	Ties	18				
	Total	34				
Opinion 4: A/P (T1) - Opinion 4: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	13	11.31	147.00	-1.112	.266
	Positive Ranks	8	10.50	84.00		
	Ties	13				
	Total	34				
Opinion 6: A/P (T1) - Opinion 6: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	18	10.83	195.00	-2.805	.005
	Positive Ranks	3	12.00	36.00		
	Ties	13				
	Total	34				
Opinion 14: A/P (T1) - Opinion 14: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	11	10.32	113.50	-2.401	.016
	Positive Ranks	5	4.50	22.50		
	Ties	18				
	Total	34				
Opinion 15: A/P (T1) - Opinion 15: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	23	12.89	296.50	-4.222	.000
	Positive Ranks	1	3.50	3.50		
	Ties	10				
	Total	34				
Opinion 16: A/P (T1) - Opinion 16: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	13	7.77	101.00	-3.115	.002
	Positive Ranks	1	4.00	4.00		
	Ties	20				
	Total	34				
Opinion 17: A/P (T1) - Opinion 17: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	5	15.90	79.50	-3.187	.001
	Positive Ranks	25	15.42	385.50		
	Ties	4				
	Total	34				
Opinion 18: A/P (T1) - Opinion 18: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	21	15.60	327.50	-2.878	.004
	Positive Ranks	7	11.21	78.50		
	Ties	6				
	Total	34				
Total A/P Time 1 - Total A/P Time 3	Negative Ranks	24	18.19	436.50	-3.236	.001
	Positive Ranks	8	11.44	91.50		
	Ties	2				
	Total	34				

The only statistically significant change has occurred in Opinion 15, "I had a positive academic experience in Barcelona/Granada," ($Z = -2.029$, $p = .042$) which follows the previous trends from T1 to T2. It may suggest that either the students were unsatisfied with their academic experiences while abroad or simply that their academic curriculum did not adhere to student expectations. The remaining attitudinal factors, on the other hand, remain largely ambiguous, with nearly half of the participants ($N = 16$) reporting a more negative overall perspective according to the 'Total A/P' scale and half reporting a more positive perspective ($N = 17$) towards the end of their SA program.

Therefore, by examining Tables 6-2 and 6-3, the dynamic qualities of attitude are evident, though the data suggest that the most dramatic changes occurred within the first few weeks of the participants' stay abroad. In order to test this assumption, Wilcoxon Signed Rank Tests were used to compare attitudinal variables between T1 and T3, the results of which are presented in Table 6-4.

Similar to those in Table 6-2 and somewhat to those in Table 6-3, the positive and negative trends from T1 to T3 are generally maintained when examining the attitudinal variables separately. For example, changes in Opinion 17 are increasingly positive ($Z = -3.187$, $p = .001$), suggesting that many participants may have continued to gain confidence in their abilities to communicate using Spanish over the course of their SA program. Positivity is also generally increased or maintained with regards to studying Spanish, according to the data from Opinion 1 ($Z = -.169$, $p = .886$). Yet, despite these positive aspects in attitudinal perspectives, negative trends among some perceptions are also maintained or worsened.

For instance, the students' attitudes towards their educational experiences (Opinion 15: $Z = -4.222$, $p = .000$), their personal experiences (Opinion 16: $Z = -3.115$, $p = .002$), their ability to meet native L2 speakers (Opinion 18: $Z = -2.878$, $p = .004$) and their opinion of the Spanish people themselves (Opinion 6: $Z = -2.805$, $p = .005$) have all become generally more negative over the course of the SA program. Unique to the T1/T3 analysis, Opinion 14, "I feel that I have acquired Spanish more easily in Spain than in my regular Spanish classroom," ($Z = -2.401$, $p = .016$) also showed a slight negative tendency between the beginning and end of the SA program. Perhaps most interesting, though, is the strong negative shift in attitudinal perspectives from T1 to T3 as illustrated by the 'Total A/P' scale variable results ($Z = -3.236$, $p = .001$) which was not generally present in Tables 6-2 and 6-3. While the results are difficult to interpret as only 34 participants completed the final questionnaire, this trend

might suggest again that many aspects of the stay abroad did not meet with student expectations, and will be explored in more detail below. The attitudes towards the Spanish people may also indicate instances of ethnocentrism among the students, as suggested previously by the initial observational data.

6.2.2 Analyses by Program Site

Despite these interesting trends, however, a great variability still exists among the data suggesting that changing perceptions may vary more extensively on a case-by-case basis. As such, further exploration was needed in order to better understand these attitudinal changes. A second collection of analyses regarding attitudes and perceptions was therefore also completed by separately examining the questionnaire responses from the Barcelona and Granada participants in order to determine in program site could be seen as a contributing factor to these changes in attitude. Wilcoxon Signed Rank Tests were used to analyse changes among the same previous group of statements, and the results from the Barcelona and Granada groups are demonstrated in separately in Tables 6-5, 6-6, 6-7 (BCN) 6-8, 6-9 and 6-10 (GRA).

By examining the two groups separately, a number of interesting differences emerge regarding the participants' changes in attitudes and perceptions. For example, between T1 and T2, as seen in Tables 6-5 and 6-8, the only significant positive change within the Granada group relates to Opinion 17: "I am confident in my ability to communicate effectively with others using Spanish" ($Z = -1.196, p = .019$). Conversely, within the Barcelona group, L2 communicative confidence also increased ($Z = -4.564, p < .001$), but as did positivity towards Opinion 1, "I like to study Spanish," ($Z = -2.624, p = .009$) and Opinion 4, "I find learning Spanish and attending Spanish classes interesting" ($Z = -2.557, p = .011$).

Table 6-5: Attitudes/Perceptions Time 1 to Time 2 (Barcelona)

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	p
Opinion 1: A/P (T1) - Opinion 1: A/P (T2)	Negative Ranks	5	11.80	59.00	-2.624	.009
	Positive Ranks	19	12.68	241.00		
	Ties	15				
	Total	39				
Opinion 3: A/P (T1) - Opinion 3: A/P (T2)	Negative Ranks	6	8.83	53.00	-.788	.431
	Positive Ranks	10	8.30	83.00		
	Ties	23				
	Total	39				
Opinion 4: A/P (T1) - Opinion 4: A/P (T2)	Negative Ranks	6	11.58	69.50	-2.557	.011
	Positive Ranks	19	13.45	255.50		
	Ties	14				
	Total	39				
Opinion 6: A/P (T1) - Opinion 6: A/P (T2)	Negative Ranks	16	13.56	217.00	-2.464	.014
	Positive Ranks	7	8.43	59.00		
	Ties	16				
	Total	39				
Opinion 14: A/P (T1) - Opinion 14: A/P (T2)	Negative Ranks	8	10.94	87.50	-.660	.510
	Positive Ranks	12	10.21	122.50		
	Ties	19				
	Total	39				
Opinion 15: A/P (T1) - Opinion 15: A/P (T2)	Negative Ranks	14	9.75	136.50	-2.870	.004
	Positive Ranks	3	5.50	16.50		
	Ties	22				
	Total	39				
Opinion 16: A/P (T1) - Opinion 16: A/P (T2)	Negative Ranks	12	8.21	98.50	-2.246	.025
	Positive Ranks	3	7.17	21.50		
	Ties	24				
	Total	39				
Opinion 17: A/P (T1) - Opinion 17: A/P (T2)	Negative Ranks	2	6.50	13.00	-4.564	.000
	Positive Ranks	28	16.14	452.00		
	Ties	9				
	Total	39				
Opinion 18: A/P (T1) - Opinion 18: A/P (T2)	Negative Ranks	23	14.78	340.00	-3.662	.000
	Positive Ranks	4	9.50	38.00		
	Ties	12				
	Total	39				
Total A/P Time 1- Total A/P Time 2	Negative Ranks	14	19.89	278.50	-.325	.745
	Positive Ranks	20	15.83	316.50		
	Ties	5				
	Total	39				

Table 6-6: Attitudes/Perceptions Time 2 to Time 3 (Barcelona)

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	p
Opinion 1: A/P (T2) - Opinion 1: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	6	5.25	31.50	-1.077	.282
	Positive Ranks	3	4.50	13.50		
	Ties	10				
	Total	19				
Opinion 3: A/P (T2) - Opinion 3: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	6	5.00	30.00	-1.723	.085
	Positive Ranks	2	3.00	6.00		
	Ties	11				
	Total	19				
Opinion 4: A/P (T2) - Opinion 4: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	6	8.42	50.50	-.356	.772
	Positive Ranks	7	5.79	40.50		
	Ties	6				
	Total	19				
Opinion 6: A/P (T2) - Opinion 6: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	8	9.00	72.00	-1.281	.200
	Positive Ranks	6	6.50	33.00		
	Ties	5				
	Total	19				
Opinion 14: A/P (T2) - Opinion 14: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	7	5.93	41.50	-.199	.842
	Positive Ranks	5	7.30	36.50		
	Ties	7				
	Total	19				
Opinion 15: A/P (T2) - Opinion 15: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	9	8.33	75.00	-1.423	.155
	Positive Ranks	5	6.00	30.00		
	Ties	5				
	Total	19				
Opinion 16: A/P (T2) - Opinion 16: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	5	6.80	34.00	-.091	.928
	Positive Ranks	6	5.33	32.00		
	Ties	8				
	Total	19				
Opinion 17: A/P (T2) - Opinion 17: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	7	7.57	53.00	-.539	.590
	Positive Ranks	6	6.33	38.00		
	Ties	6				
	Total	19				
Opinion 18: A/P (T2) - Opinion 18: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	6	6.83	41.00	-.320	.749
	Positive Ranks	7	7.14	50.00		
	Ties	6				
	Total	19				
Total A/P Time 2 – Total A/P Time 3	Negative Ranks	9	12.22	110.00	-1.069	.285
	Positive Ranks	9	6.78	61.00		
	Ties	1				
	Total	19				

Table 6-7: Attitudes/Perceptions Time 1 to Time 3 (Barcelona)

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	p
Opinion 1: A/P (T1) - Opinion 1: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	4	6.50	26.00	-.418	.676
	Positive Ranks	5	8.30	19.00		
	Ties	9				
	Total	18				
Opinion 3: A/P (T1) - Opinion 3: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	7	5.86	41.00	-1.409	.159
	Positive Ranks	3	4.67	14.00		
	Ties	8				
	Total	18				
Opinion 4: A/P (T1) - Opinion 4: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	5	7.20	36.00	-.272	.786
	Positive Ranks	6	5.00	30.00		
	Ties	7				
	Total	18				
Opinion 6: A/P (T1) - Opinion 6: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	12	6.50	78.00	-3.133	.002
	Positive Ranks	0	0	0		
	Ties	6				
	Total	34				
Opinion 14: A/P (T1) - Opinion 14: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	8	6.94	55.50	-2.057	.040
	Positive Ranks	3	3.50	10.50		
	Ties	7				
	Total	18				
Opinion 15: A/P (T1) - Opinion 15: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	13	7.00	91.00	-3.192	.001
	Positive Ranks	0	0	0		
	Ties	5				
	Total	18				
Opinion 16: A/P (T1) - Opinion 16: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	8	4.50	36.00	-2.565	.010
	Positive Ranks	0	0	0		
	Ties	10				
	Total	18				
Opinion 17: A/P (T1) - Opinion 17: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	3	8.83	26.50	-1.922	.055
	Positive Ranks	12	7.79	93.50		
	Ties	3				
	Total	18				
Opinion 18: A/P (T1) - Opinion 18: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	13	8.69	113.00	-3.045	.002
	Positive Ranks	2	3.50	7.00		
	Ties	3				
	Total	18				
Total A/P Time 1 – Total A/P Time 3	Negative Ranks	14	9.57	134.00	-2.727	.006
	Positive Ranks	3	6.33	19.00		
	Ties	1				
	Total	18				

Table 6-8: Attitudes/Perceptions Time 1 to Time 2 (Granada)

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	p
Opinion 1: A/P (T1) - Opinion 1: A/P (T2)	Negative Ranks	4	3.5	14.00	-.574	.566
	Positive Ranks	4	5.50	22.00		
	Ties	18				
	Total	26				
Opinion 3: A/P (T1) - Opinion 3: A/P (T2)	Negative Ranks	7	4.00	28.00	-2.401	.016
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00		
	Ties	19				
	Total	26				
Opinion 4: A/P (T1) - Opinion 4: A/P (T2)	Negative Ranks	9	8.94	80.50	-.666	.505
	Positive Ranks	7	7.93	55.50		
	Ties	10				
	Total	26				
Opinion 6: A/P (T1) - Opinion 6: A/P (T2)	Negative Ranks	9	7.33	66.00	-.875	.382
	Positive Ranks	5	7.80	39.00		
	Ties	12				
	Total	26				
Opinion 14: A/P (T1) - Opinion 14: A/P (T2)	Negative Ranks	3	3.33	10.00	-.707	.480
	Positive Ranks	2	2.50	5.00		
	Ties	21				
	Total	26				
Opinion 15: A/P (T1) - Opinion 15: A/P (T2)	Negative Ranks	9	5.94	53.50	-1.165	.244
	Positive Ranks	3	8.17	24.50		
	Ties	14				
	Total	26				
Opinion 16: A/P (T1) - Opinion 16: A/P (T2)	Negative Ranks	8	6.13	49.00	-.803	.422
	Positive Ranks	4	7.25	29.00		
	Ties	14				
	Total	26				
Opinion 17: A/P (T1) - Opinion 17: A/P (T2)	Negative Ranks	6	9.17	55.00	-2.345	.019
	Positive Ranks	16	12.38	198.00		
	Ties	4				
	Total	26				
Opinion 18: A/P (T1) - Opinion 18: A/P (T2)	Negative Ranks	12	9.38	112.50	-1.196	.232
	Positive Ranks	6	9.75	58.50		
	Ties	8				
	Total	26				
Total A/P Time 1 – Total A/P Time 2	Negative Ranks	12	13.21	158.50	-1.043	.297
	Positive Ranks	10	9.45	94.50		
	Ties	4				
	Total	26				

Table 6-9: Attitudes/Perceptions Time 2 to Time 3 (Granada)

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	p
Opinion 1: A/P (T2) - Opinion 1: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	2	3.25	6.50	-.850	.395
	Positive Ranks	4	3.62	14.50		
	Ties	9				
	Total	15				
Opinion 3: A/P (T2) - Opinion 3: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	5	4.70	23.50	-.782	.434
	Positive Ranks	3	4.17	12.50		
	Ties	7				
	Total	15				
Opinion 4: A/P (T2) - Opinion 4: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	7	5.93	41.50	-1.456	.145
	Positive Ranks	3	4.50	13.50		
	Ties	5				
	Total	15				
Opinion 6: A/P (T2) - Opinion 6: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	4	5.50	22.00	-.586	.558
	Positive Ranks	4	3.50	14.00		
	Ties	7				
	Total	15				
Opinion 14: A/P (T2) - Opinion 14: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	3	3.83	11.50	-1.084	.279
	Positive Ranks	2	1.75	3.50		
	Ties	10				
	Total	15				
Opinion 15: A/P (T2) - Opinion 15: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	10	6.25	62.50	-1.888	.059
	Positive Ranks	2	7.75	15.50		
	Ties	3				
	Total	15				
Opinion 16: A/P (T2) - Opinion 16: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	4	4.00	16.00	-.343	.732
	Positive Ranks	3	4.00	12.00		
	Ties	8				
	Total	15				
Opinion 17: A/P (T2) - Opinion 17: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	0	0	0	-2.889	.004
	Positive Ranks	10	5.50	55.00		
	Ties	5				
	Total	15				
Opinion 18: A/P (T2) - Opinion 18: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	5	6.90	34.50	-.135	.892
	Positive Ranks	6	5.25	31.50		
	Ties	4				
	Total	15				
Total A/P Time 2 – Total A/P Time 3	Negative Ranks	7	9.00	63.00	-.173	.863
	Positive Ranks	8	7.13	57.00		
	Ties	0				
	Total	15				

Table 6-10: Attitudes/Perceptions Time 1 to Time 3 (Granada)

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	p
Opinion 1: A/P (T1) - Opinion 1: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	3	4.33	13.00	-.722	.470
	Positive Ranks	5	4.60	23.00		
	Ties	8				
	Total	16				
Opinion 3: A/P (T1) - Opinion 3: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	6	3.50	21.00	-2.220	.026
	Positive Ranks	0	0	0		
	Ties	10				
	Total	16				
Opinion 4: A/P (T1) - Opinion 4: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	8	5.31	42.50	-1.554	.120
	Positive Ranks	2	6.25	12.50		
	Ties	6				
	Total	16				
Opinion 6: A/P (T1) - Opinion 6: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	6	5.08	30.50	-.955	.339
	Positive Ranks	3	4.83	14.50		
	Ties	7				
	Total	16				
Opinion 14: A/P (T1) - Opinion 14: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	3	4.00	12.00	-1.219	.223
	Positive Ranks	2	1.50	3.00		
	Ties	11				
	Total	16				
Opinion 15: A/P (T1) - Opinion 15: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	10	6.35	18.50	-2.754	.006
	Positive Ranks	1	2.50	2.50		
	Ties	5				
	Total	16				
Opinion 16: A/P (T1) - Opinion 16: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	5	3.70	18.50	-1.730	.084
	Positive Ranks	1	2.50	2.50		
	Ties	10				
	Total	16				
Opinion 17: A/P (T1) - Opinion 17: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	3	6.74	13.50	-2.691	.007
	Positive Ranks	13	8.19	106.50		
	Ties	1				
	Total	16				
Opinion 18: A/P (T1) - Opinion 18: A/P (T3)	Negative Ranks	8	7.13	57.00	-.818	.414
	Positive Ranks	5	6.80	34.00		
	Ties	3				
	Total	16				
Total A/P Time 1 – Total A/P Time 3	Negative Ranks	10	9.00	90.00	-1.718	.086
	Positive Ranks	5	6.00	30.00		
	Ties	1				
	Total	16				

In contrast, the statements towards which the students responded more negatively vary between the two groups. Among the Granada participants, the only significant change relates to Opinion 3, "I actually want to learn Spanish" ($Z = -2.401, p = .016$); however, the Barcelona responses show a much more erratic pattern of more negative responses. Significant negative changes were found for Opinion 18, "I am finding it relatively easy to meet native speakers with whom I can practice my Spanish while abroad," ($Z = -3.662, p < .001$) Opinion 6, "So far, I like the Spanish people," ($Z = -2.464, p = .014$) Opinion 15, "So far, I am having a positive academic experience in Barcelona/Granada," ($Z = -2.870, p = .004$) and Opinion 16, "So far, I am having a positive personal experience in Barcelona/Granada" ($Z = -2.246, p = .025$).

These preliminary results suggest that environmental factors specific to each program site may have impacted on attitudinal changes, and perhaps that the students' experiences in each location may have differed greatly. Thus, Wilcoxon Signed Rank Tests were subsequently run on the T2/T3 data and T1/T3 data for each group in order to further test the assumption. It should be noted that due to the low numbers of participants who completed Questionnaire 3, the results of the Wilcoxon tests may not be considered as robust as the analyses containing more participant data. However, the results, as represented in Tables 6-6 and 6-7 (Barcelona) and Tables 6-9 and 6-10 (Granada), can help to add detail to the above data.

As seen in Tables 6-6 and 6-9, the Wilcoxon tests reveal results similar to those found across the participants as a whole with regards to the T2/T3 results. Though no new trends emerge, it is evident that experiences abroad continued to shape the perceptions of the students in each location throughout the program. Furthermore, the separated data confirm that the greatest changes tend to be occurring within the first few weeks of each SA program, as illustrated in the T1 to T2 results.

Other differences are illustrated, however, in the T1/T3 results for each group, as seen in Tables 6-7 and 6-10. While little significant change occurred among the Granada participants as a whole between T1 and T2, new patterns emerge which suggest that negativity may have developed more gradually for some participants over the course of their stay abroad. For instance, while some negativity towards learning Spanish still exists (Opinion 3: $Z = -2.220, p = .026$), new negative trends are revealed for attitudes towards educational experiences (Opinion 15: $Z = -2.754, p = .006$) and somewhat in the 'Total A/P'

scale ($Z = -1.718$, $p = .086$). Communicative confidence, on the other hand, continues to remain positive (Opinion 17: $Z = -2.691$, $p = .007$).

In contrast, the Barcelona group appear to have many more pronounced trends in diminishing positivity, apart from some general gains in communicative confidence (Opinion 17: $Z = -1.922$, $p = .055$). Attitudes towards both academic (Opinion 15: $Z = -3.192$, $p = .002$) and personal experiences (Opinion 16: $Z = -2.565$, $p = .010$) were generally more negative than as reported at T1, and unique to the Barcelona T1/T3 analysis is a significantly less positive attitude towards Opinion 14 regarding learning Spanish outside of the classroom ($Z = -2.057$, $p = .040$). Negativity also appears to be present in Opinion 6 ($Z = -3.133$, $p = .002$) regarding the Spanish people, Opinion 18 ($Z = -3.045$, $p = .002$) regarding meeting native speakers and in the 'Total A/P' score ($Z = -2.727$, $p = .006$). This is not to say that positive attitudes were not recorded among some Barcelona participants, but the data suggest that many may have developed more negative perceptions towards certain aspects of the SA experience.

6.2.3 Qualitative Analysis and Reasons for Change

While the quantitative data varies greatly among the participants as a whole and between the two program sites, the question still remains as to why such a change has occurred in participant attitudes. Thus, some of the qualitative responses from the questionnaires and interviews were analysed in order to shed light some of the reasons for these changes.

Firstly, one of the most evident changes in attitude was the positive shift towards students in both groups becoming more confident in their abilities to communicate using Spanish, the evidence of which can be seen in both the questionnaire and observation data.

One prominent example is found in a comparison of the results relating to culture shock as gathered in the second questionnaire. 47 out of 67 participants who replied to the second questionnaire indicated that they had experienced some kind of culture shock, but the data suggest that many have since become accustomed to Spanish life. For instance, on the second questionnaire Krystal, a Fall Barcelona participant, explained her feelings of nervousness on when she first arrived: "The language barrier made me feel like not my usual self because I wasn't as confident to speak." However, she later ranks her confidence as increasing from an initial 7/10 to 10/10 after only six weeks abroad.

Likewise on the second questionnaire, George, a Fall Granada participant described an, “assault of language” upon arrival, but later ranked his confidence as increasing from 5/10 to 8/10 after nine weeks abroad. Spring Barcelona participant Allen also confirmed this account by describing his positive turn on the second questionnaire, “The language barrier was such a problem when I first arrived, but now I’m speaking only Spanish,” indicating that while the initial integration period was difficult for some, became increasingly more positive.

Further examples from informal interviews support also these assumptions. For instance, Dave and Benjamin, two sociable students from the Barcelona Fall group, described how talking to bar staff who are used to international clientele had helped to boost their confidence in conducting conversations. Equally, Aria, a Spring Barcelona participant, spoke about her positive experiences in shopping and conversing with local shopkeepers. Similarly, Esme and Amy, Spring Granada participants, had established a good relationship with their local bakery owner with whom they spoke daily, while housemates George and Eric from the Fall Granada group spoke highly of their host mother’s hospitality and her constant patience in helping them to use their Spanish in daily conversation.

Yet, despite this trend, some participants continued to encounter difficulties. For example, Fall Barcelona participant Kate indicated her continuing, “frustration with simple differences,” on the second questionnaire and only reported a small increase in confidence from 1/10 to 2/10 after six weeks abroad. Similarly, Spring Granada participant Andy described how, “I was in such shock that I couldn’t function even when ordering in a bar,” on his second questionnaire and ranked a decrease in confidence from 7/10 to 6/10 after six weeks abroad.

Others reported similar experiences of frustration in informal interviews; when asked about his experiences meeting Spanish/Catalans, Dave, a Fall Barcelona participant, mentioned that he exercises with a Spanish-speaking wrestling team at a local gym, but later commented on how he still felt limited in his capacity to casually converse with other team members. Similarly, George, a Fall Granada participant, stated that he had joined a bible study group, but mentioned that many times he, “couldn’t think fast enough about what I wanted to say in Spanish,” in order to fully participate in the discussion.

These examples of triumphs and frustrations indicate that many of the participants did indeed become more confident in their ability to communicate using Spanish, as suggested by the quantitative data, even if they did still encounter difficulties in communicating in certain circumstances. Furthermore, the data point to this building of confidence being the strongest within the first months of the SA programs, perhaps as many are overcoming the initial feelings of culture shock as reported in the second questionnaire.

Also revealed in the quantitative data was the premise that many of the students struggled to establish relationships with native speakers. This experience may also be a contributing factor to the students' reporting more negative personal experiences. For example, during a group social outing, when asked about their opinions of Barcelona after having been there for six weeks, Fall Barcelona participants Harrison and Mick, expressed positive comments about the city itself, but had yet to make any Spanish-speaking friends. Harrison mentioned that, "I really love the city, but it's kinda hard to meet people, you know. Like, we always do things together and then we have class all the time so we don't get to go out much." Likewise, Mick commented, "Barcelona is awesome, but yeah, I wish we had more time to go out and do things here." Further comments revealed that many participants felt that they lacked vocabulary and conversational skills, such as Dave's situation with the wrestling team, which contributed to them being unable to make many friends while abroad.

Here it should also be noted that Mick and Harrison both cited a lack of time as an issue affecting their ability to make native-speaker acquaintances, but both men also revealed that they spent most of their free-time with their program friends and most of their weekends traveling to other European destinations. These trends in friendship circles and interactional patterns are discussed further in Chapter 8. Unique to the Barcelona program, many participants cited the presence of Catalan as being an issue in their integration; this topic is further developed in Chapter 9.

Similar difficulties in meeting native speakers were reported in Granada. For example, in an informal interview, Spring participant Ivan described how the amount of fellow U.S. students in the city lead to English being spoken frequently in his university classes while Spring participant Joe commented that, "I feel like I've met a lot of other European [students], but it's difficult to meet actual Spanish students." Likewise, Fall participant George expressed his initial difficulties in making friends on his second questionnaire, while

Fall participant Martin admitted on his second questionnaire that spending time with his fellow program friends, “distracted me from meeting Spanish people.” As with examples from the Barcelona group, these social relationships and their implications are discussed in detail in Chapter 8.

Interestingly, while both groups expressed difficulty to some extent in finding native speakers with whom to converse, only the Barcelona responses demonstrated a similar negative shift towards the Spanish people themselves. One possible explanation for this trend is the common complaint among the Barcelona students that their potential interlocutors frequently switched from using Spanish to English upon hearing any hesitation in Spanish from the students, though this was also reported to a lesser extent in Granada. For instance, Spring Barcelona participant Allen spoke about his discouraging experience in an internet café during an informal interview:

Allen: I went into this place to [put credit on] my phone and I’ve always spoken Spanish to the guy working there. But today the owner of the place just said ‘Why don’t you just speak in English?’ It was like he was telling me, ‘Why don’t you just give up?’

His classmate Anna made a similar claim:

Anna: Yeah, the same thing happened to me. When I went to go get my film developed, the guy started speaking to me in English and I had to insist several times that he talk to me in Spanish.

Though the reason for this switch on the part of the Spanish-speaking interlocutors can only be speculated, several of the students reported similar negative or disheartening experiences of this occurrence which could have led to this change in perceptions. Allen later commented that, “I don’t think most of them do it to be rude,” but it certainly appeared to affect his attitude towards the SA experience as a whole. Other Barcelona students reported encounters with their non-American housemates which could explain the trend in diminished positivity towards host locals; in this case, such examples may provide further indication of an ethnocentric perspective on the part of the American students (Coleman, 1997, 2009; Gore, 2005). This lack of productive encounters with local Barcelona residents may also explain why many felt less positive about learning Spanish outside of the formal classroom, as denoted by changes in Opinion 14.

A further link is also seen between some participants' diminished positivity regarding their academic experiences and this lack of communicative opportunities with native speakers. For instance, during an informal conversation at a small tapas restaurant, Barcelona Fall semester participants Benjamin, Dave and Susan all mentioned how their class schedules were much more demanding than they had previously expected. Susan commented that, "we just don't have time to go out and meet people," and expressed her displeasure with the amount of time she needed to dedicate to her studies while abroad. Similarly, when asked about her opportunities to practice Spanish by the researcher, Anna, a Spring Barcelona participant stated that, "because we have class all the time, we don't have a lot of time to go out and meet people." As such, these examples suggest that some students blamed their academic commitments for lack of interaction opportunities, possibly causing attitudes towards both to be increasingly less positive.

A final explanation for the diminished positivity with regards to personal and academic experiences might be found by reflecting back on the participants' initial desires as determined by the first questionnaire: Gaining further cultural experiences. This notion also featured prominently within the program prospectuses, thus shaping the expectations of the students and reinforcing its central importance to them. As a result, if the students reported difficulty in meeting or interacting with native speakers, it likely diminished the quality of their academic and personal experiences while abroad. As this aspect was an opportunity to which they were particularly looking forward, it is probable that some the students' initial high expectations for this stay abroad were not met.

On the other hand, despite these negative tendencies in the data, interest in learning Spanish grew significantly, particularly among the Barcelona students, perhaps because of student apprehension towards learning Spanish at the beginning of the semester (see Section 4.3) and the overcoming of initial culture shock as reported by many students on the second questionnaire. In contrast, positivity in these categories was generally maintained among the Granada students or little change occurred, possibly because the Granada participants generally demonstrated more positive attitudes than their colleagues in Barcelona at the beginning of their stay abroad.

In sum, both the qualitative and quantitative data suggest that while many of the students began their semester abroad with positive attitudes, some of their expectations were not met. This discrepancy then leads to a number of changes in attitudes and perceptions over

the course of the SA program, with a number of attitudinal factors being ranked as significantly less positive than when the students first arrived. This is not to say, however, that all students share these perceptions, and an examination of attitude's relationship with linguistic progress provide further insight.

6.3 Attitude and Linguistic Gains

In order to measure attitude's relationship with linguistic gains, the variables measuring attitudes and perceptions over the course of the SA program were compared with linguistic proficiency exam scores and self-reported perceived gains in linguistic skills noted on the final questionnaire. Again, the non-parametric Spearman's Rank Order Correlation was selected for the analysis, and Table 6-11 contains the results among the 'Total A/P' scores, the proficiency assessments and the self-assessments.

As discussed in Section 6.1, a significant correlation exists between 'Total A/P, Time 1' and the overall scores from the first exam ($\rho = .513$, $N = 70$, $p \leq .0005$), signifying that those with the highest initial pre-program proficiency tended to have the most positive attitudes and perceptions at the beginning of the program. This relationship is subsequently carried on in relationships with 'Total A/P, Time 2' ($\rho = .369$, $N = 68$, $p = .002$) and 'Total A/P, Time 3' ($\rho = .498$, $N = 35$, $p = .002$), wherein the data suggest that those with higher pre-program proficiency typically maintained a more positive attitude than those with a lower pre-program proficiency. The trend is not carried on, however, when the attitude and perceptions variables are compared with the final proficiency exam results, as only 'Total A/P, Time 1' has a significant relationship with the final exam scores ($\rho = .294$, $N = 52$, $p = .034$). This data indicate that attitude's relationship with proficiency becomes more ambiguous as the program goes on.

Table 6-11: Attitudes and Linguistic Gains Spearman's Correlations

		1st Exam Score	2nd Exam Score	Score Difference	Total A/P Time 1	Total A/P Time 2	Total A/P Time 3
1st Exam Score	Rho	1.000	.730**	-.261	.513**	.369**	.498**
	<i>p</i>		.000	.060	.000	.002	.002
	N	73	53	53	70	68	35
2nd Exam Score	Rho	.730**	1.000	.363**	.294*	.173	.216
	<i>p</i>	.000		.008	.034	.229	.207
	N	53	54	53	52	50	36
Score Difference	Rho	-.261	.363**	1.000	-.394**	-.474**	-.349*
	<i>p</i>	.060	.008		.004	.001	.040
	N	53	53	53	52	50	35
Total A/P Time 1	Rho	.513**	.294*	-.394**	1.000	.708**	.717**
	<i>p</i>	.000	.034	.004		.000	.000
	N	70	52	52	70	65	34
Total A/P Time 2	Rho	.369**	.173	-.474**	.708**	1.000	.717**
	<i>p</i>	.002	.229	.001	.000		.000
	N	68	50	50	65	68	34
Total A/P Time 3	Rho	.498**	.216	-.349*	.717**	.717**	1.000
	<i>p</i>	.002	.207	.040	.000	.000	
	N	35	36	35	34	34	36
Perceived Listening Gains	Rho	-.406**	-.218	.249	-.431**	-.419**	-.098
	<i>p</i>	.005	.155	.103	.003	.005	.594
	N	46	44	44	45	43	32
Perceived Speaking Gains	Rho	-.274	-.248	.071	-.302*	-.354*	-.012
	<i>p</i>	.066	.105	.645	.043	.020	.949
	N	46	44	44	45	43	32
Perceived Reading Gains	Rho	-.021	-.042	-.057	-.158	-.123	.042
	<i>p</i>	.889	.788	.712	.299	.433	.819
	N	46	44	44	45	43	32
Perceived Writing Gains	Rho	-.232	-.130	.011	-.271	-.329*	-.299
	<i>p</i>	.121	.401	.943	.071	.031	.096
	N	46	44	44	45	43	32
Perceived Grammar Gains	Rho	.144	.197	.015	.016	-.018	.106
	<i>p</i>	.339	.201	.923	.915	.908	.564
	N	46	44	44	45	43	32
Perceived Pronunciation Gains	Rho	-.281	-.080	.230	-.190	-.246	-.093
	<i>p</i>	.059	.607	.133	.211	.112	.614
	N	46	44	44	45	43	32

Table 6-12: Attitudes and Linguistic Gains Correlations (Barcelona)

		1st Exam Score	2nd Exam Score	Score Difference	Total A/P Time 1	Total A/P Time 2	Total A/P Time 3
1st Exam Score	Rho	1.000	.706**	-.462*	.512**	.347*	.654**
	<i>p</i>		.000	.013	.001	.024	.002
	N	42	28	28	39	42	19
2nd Exam Score	Rho	.706**	1.000	.197	.252	.140	.294
	<i>p</i>	.000		.315	.205	.479	.222
	N	28	28	28	27	28	19
Score Difference	Rho	-.462*	.197	1.000	-.603**	-.626**	-.450
	<i>p</i>	.013	.315		.001	.000	.053
	N	28	28	28	27	28	19
Total A/P Time 1	Rho	.512**	.252	-.603**	1.000	.700**	.699**
	<i>p</i>	.001	.205	.001		.000	.001
	N	39	27	27	39	39	18
Total A/P Time 2	Rho	.347*	.140	-.626**	.700**	1.000	.714**
	<i>p</i>	.024	.479	.000	.000		.001
	N	42	28	28	39	42	19
Total A/P Time 3	Rho	.654**	.294	-.450	.699**	.714**	1.000
	<i>p</i>	.002	.222	.053	.001	.001	
	N	19	19	19	18	19	19
Perceived Listening Gains	Rho	-.541*	-.124	.588**	-.498*	-.520*	-.237
	<i>p</i>	.011	.612	.008	.025	.016	.376
	N	21	19	19	20	21	16
Perceived Speaking Gains	Rho	-.465*	-.293	.297	-.430	-.432	.019
	<i>p</i>	.033	.224	.216	.058	.051	.945
	N	21	19	19	20	21	16
Perceived Reading Gains	Rho	-.197	-.355	-.179	-.140	-.147	.215
	<i>p</i>	.392	.136	.465	.556	.525	.425
	N	21	19	19	20	21	16
Perceived Writing Gains	Rho	-.498*	-.288	.103	-.234	-.376	-.377
	<i>p</i>	.022	.233	.676	.321	.093	.150
	N	21	19	19	20	21	16
Perceived Grammar Gains	Rho	.181	.291	-.008	.193	-.040	.205
	<i>p</i>	.433	.227	.974	.415	.864	.446
	N	21	19	19	20	21	16
Perceived Pronunciation Gains	Rho	-.449*	-.180	.368	-.244	-.486*	-.328
	<i>p</i>	.041	.461	.121	.300	.025	.216
	N	21	19	19	20	21	16

Table 6-13: Attitudes and Linguistic Gains Correlations (Granada)

		1st Exam Score	2nd Exam Score	Score Difference	Total A/P Time 1	Total A/P Time 2	Total A/P Time 3
1st Exam Score	Rho	1.000	.703**	-.114	.257	.227	.130
	<i>p</i>		.000	.586	.163	.264	.632
	N	31	25	25	31	26	16
2nd Exam Score	Rho	.703**	1.000	.522**	.157	-.153	-.034
	<i>p</i>	.000		.007	.453	.496	.900
	N	25	25	25	25	22	16
Score Difference	Rho	-.114	.522**	1.000	-.340	-.473*	-.314
	<i>p</i>	.586	.007		.096	.026	.236
	N	25	25	25	25	22	16
Total A/P Time 1	Rho	.257	.157	-.340	1.000	.559**	.557*
	<i>p</i>	.163	.453	.096		.003	.025
	N	31	25	25	31	26	16
Total A/P Time 2	Rho	.227	-.153	-.473*	.559**	1.000	.652**
	<i>p</i>	.264	.496	.026	.003		.008
	N	26	22	22	26	26	15
Total A/P Time 3	Rho	.130	-.034	-.314	.557*	.652**	1.000
	<i>p</i>	.632	.900	.236	.025	.008	
	N	16	16	16	16	15	16
Perceived Listening Gains	Rho	-.295	-.394	-.121	-.474*	-.360	-.034
	<i>p</i>	.152	.051	.565	.017	.100	.902
	N	25	25	25	25	22	16
Perceived Speaking Gains	Rho	-.098	-.325	-.299	-.318	-.342	-.079
	<i>p</i>	.643	.113	.146	.122	.120	.770
	N	25	25	25	25	22	16
Perceived Reading Gains	Rho	.100	-.103	-.181	-.347	-.284	-.242
	<i>p</i>	.633	.626	.386	.089	.201	.366
	N	25	25	25	25	22	16
Perceived Writing Gains	Rho	0.000	-.154	-.199	-.360	-.379	-.264
	<i>p</i>	1.000	.463	.340	.077	.082	.324
	N	25	25	25	25	22	16
Perceived Grammar Gains	Rho	.107	.094	-.017	-.260	-.158	.072
	<i>p</i>	.611	.656	.937	.209	.482	.790
	N	25	25	25	25	22	16
Perceived Pronunciation Gains	Rho	-.162	-.250	-.027	-.205	-.072	.159
	<i>p</i>	.440	.229	.899	.325	.751	.557
	N	25	25	25	25	22	16

Further conclusions can be drawn from comparing the 'Total A/P' variables with the differences between the two exam scores, which indicate how much the students have improved over the course of the SA program. All three 'Total A/P' variables demonstrate a significant negative relationship with the differences between the two exam scores, and some of them demonstrate a significant negative relationship between 'Total A/P' and certain perceived gains in linguistic skills. These results indicate that, while those with higher pre-program proficiency tended to be the most positive, those who reported being the most positive actually made fewer linguistic gains than those with lower indications of positivity.

Similar tendencies are found in Tables 6-12 and 6-13, which reflect the correlational analyses of the Barcelona and Granada groups independently. The data generally indicate that those with higher pre-program proficiency tended to maintain more positive attitudes than their peers with lower pre-program proficiency, but those with fewer positive attitudes ultimately made the most improvement based on the second proficiency exam results. The same is also true of the relationship between linguistic development and the individual statements related to attitude and perceptions, as shown in Appendix F, Tables F-1, F-2 and F-3.

Based on these results, it is clear that attitude has a complex relationship with linguistic development, particularly as the data suggest that those with fewer positive attitudes may be more likely to make more linguistic gains. The results do not indicate, however, that those with more positivity made no linguistic gains, but rather that they made fewer gains. This is likely a limitation of the proficiency exam's ability to measure gains in more proficient learners, or it may reflect the fact that, with only 21 questions, the exam itself may leave little room for improvement. Alternatively, as suggested by DeKeyser (2014), this could be a reflection of lower-level learners progressing faster in a shorter period of time, while more advanced learners progress more slowly. It could also be a result of the great variability exhibited among all of the learners with regards to attitude; as stated above, the expectations of many students may not have matched their actual experiences abroad, resulting in a loss of positivity, but still some gains in linguistic skill.

6.4 Discussion and Conclusion: Attitude in SA

Finally, while it is difficult to generalise about attitudinal changes within the SA students, it is also necessary to examine commonalities among the groups and the data and compare them to previous findings within the literature. The discussion in this section will also aid in responding to Research Question 1, which considers how attitudes might change over time and the reasons for such changes.

To begin, confidence in communicating using Spanish tended to increase among participants from both groups. The relationship between SA and self-confidence in communication is well documented, and researchers have pointed out a number of factors which can affect this aspect of second language acquisition. For instance, positive experiences interacting with target-language speakers in both SA and immersion contexts have been linked with gains in self-confidence (Dewey, 2004; Cubillos *et al.*, 2008; Amuzie and Winke, 2009; Hsieh, 2009; Allen, 2013; Kormos *et al.*, 2013; Kormos and Csizér, 2014). (Clément (1984, 1986) even goes so far as to claim that learner self-confidence is a major determinant of overall language-learning attitudes. The opposite is also true, however, in that negative experiences with interlocutors can be responsible for damaging self-confidence and instilling negative attitudes towards the SA experience (Brown, 2008; Kinginger, 2008; Brown, 2009a; Jackson, 2013; Kormos *et al.*, 2013). Kormos *et al.* (2013) highlight this dichotomy with examples from learners of English studying in the UK: those who had positive encounters with native English speakers reported feeling confidence in their communicative abilities and typically went on to have friendship groups consisting of some British students. On the other hand, those who struggled to converse with or understand their British interlocutors tended to retreat to L1 social groups and minimize further contact.

The outcomes of these encounters are not purely based on the communicative abilities of the learners: as Brown and Richards (2012) point out that patience and open-mindedness on the part of the host community are also key for these positive experiences to occur. Therefore, the experiences of both the Barcelona and Granada participants were likely deeply affected by any reportedly negative occurrences, perhaps explaining why attitudes towards the Spanish people became more negative while general communicative confidence became more positive.

This clash of positive and negative experiences may also help to explain why so much variability exists among the participants' responses, especially when examining the individual statements relating to attitude. For instance, the quantitative data suggested that interest in the Spanish language itself grew, particularly among the Barcelona group, despite many of those same individuals reporting difficulty in meeting Spanish-speakers. These results are similar to those of (Allen (2010, 2013), whose participants also reported communicative difficulties, but were still very interested in learning the L2, even after their studies in the U. had resumed.

Furthermore, though a decline is observed in positivity regarding personal experiences, this item still retains the highest mean value in terms of the attitudinal variables (Mean= 9.14/10). This suggests that the students generally enjoyed their personal experiences in Spain, regardless of any setbacks in academics or social integration.

Yet, perhaps one of the broadest conclusions that can be drawn from this data is that for the majority of participants, the SA experience as a whole did not match many of their initial expectations, resorting in diminishing attitudinal perspectives over the course of their stay in Spain. This is particularly relevant considering the wider expectations held by American students of mastering the target language and becoming fully immersed in the receptor culture (Kinging, 2008; Goldoni, 2013) appear to exist even before students leave the US (See Section 1.3.1).

This conclusion may also help to explain why those with the most positive attitudes made fewer gains in linguistic skills than their counterparts with lower positivity: both Kinginger (2008) and Pellegrino-Aveni (2005) comment on how unrealistic expectations can be particularly damaging to the overall experiences of sojourners. In a number of other studies, positive attitudes towards both the target language community and the learning situation have traditionally been linked with linguistic gains (Clément, 1986; Huebner, 1995; Gardner, 2000; Masgoret and Gardner, 2003; Isabelli-Garcia, 2006; Zhang, 2007; Kinginger, 2008; Serrano *et al.*, 2012) and sociocultural adaptation (Noels *et al.*, 1996; DuFon and Churchill, 2006; Masgoret and Ward, 2006; Coleman and Chafer, 2011). However, in the case of the present study, the opposite appears to be true, possibly highlighting the effects of these unmet expectations (Kinging, 2008); if attitudes were conceptualised as expectations, particularly with regards to 'Total A/P, Time 1,' a conclusion could be drawn that those with the highest, and possibly unrealistic

expectations, actually make the fewest gains in linguistic skills, while those with 'average,' or more realistic expectations, make more gains.

Finally, the qualitative data highlights a number of factors which appear to impact strongly on the SA experience, particularly with regards to attitude. More specifically, the individual experiences reported by the participants demonstrate a remarkable range of aspects which affect attitudinal perspectives, including participants' friendship groups, their living situation, service encounters with host locals, and academic commitments. The development of some ethnocentric tendencies likely also had an impact on the overall SA experience as revealed by the informal interviews. Likewise, the data also suggest that attitude may have an influence on, or possibly be influenced by, other individual differences such as motivation and social relationship development. As a result, it is clear that the quantitative data is limited in its capacity to identify such trends, thus meriting a more person-centered approach to investigating these factors.

To conclude, it is clear that attitudinal perspectives are dynamic, and that their relationship with other affective variables, such as motivation, is highly complex. Moreover, it is evident that these perspectives, and particularly those in relation to the receptor culture, are interrelated with the social interactions of the participants whilst abroad. As a result, it cannot be concluded that positive attitudes lead to successful sociocultural integration, nor can it be assumed that successful sociocultural adaptation increases positive attitudes. Instead, the two factors, and perhaps linguistic achievement as well, might be considered under the framework proposed by Dörnyei, wherein such individual differences function as a system, rather than a series of causes and effects (Shoaib and Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei, 2009b; Waninge *et al.*, 2014; Ushioda, 2015). Thus, this theory is explored in detail along with the other affective variables addressed in this thesis (See Chapter 9).

Chapter 7: Motivation

Whilst the previous chapter explored the diverse range of attitudes harboured by the participants, a further affective factor relating to SA is motivation. Motivation has long been considered to be one of the most influential aspects in linguistic development, and its importance has been recognized, along with attitudes and perceptions, within a number of theoretical models (Gardner, 1985b; Masgoret and Gardner, 2003; Dörnyei, 2009b, 2009c; Gardner, 2010; Ushioda and Dörnyei, 2012; Dörnyei *et al.*, 2015). Furthermore, as mentioned in Section 2.5, high motivation has been linked with a greater involvement in the language-learning process (Oxford and Ehrman, 1992; Oxford and Shearin, 1994) and ultimately linguistic development (Masgoret and Gardner, 2003; Allen, 2010; Hernández, 2010; Yu, 2010; Spenader, 2011).

Yet, a number of inconsistencies exist with regards to motivation in immersion or SA contexts, particularly as contextual factors such as the linguistic and cultural backgrounds of the receptor community impact upon learner perceptions (Kinging, 2008; Martinsen, 2010; Spenader, 2011; Irie and Ryan, 2015). Moreover, the development and maintenance of motivation may prove even more challenging for the American learners as their expectations of what they will learn and experience during a residence abroad may not match the reality of the learning context (Pellegrino-Aveni, 2005; Kinginger, 2008; Goldoni, 2013; also see Section 6.4). This would include the critical goal of experiencing another culture (See Section 1.3.1), though the extent to which a learner perceives attaining this goal may or may not require immersion in the eyes of the sojourners (Wolcott, 2013). Regardless, it is essential to keep these motives and cultural perceptions in mind throughout the analysis, particularly as they relate to American sojourners.

Thus, in order to shed light on the role of motivation with regards to SA, this chapter determines the initial motivational orientations of the students, and later presents a series of analyses in order to measure changes in motivation. Comparative analyses were conducted between the Barcelona and Granada groups in order to mark any distinctions in motivations, and qualitative data from the questionnaires, informal interviews and observations are produced as a means to indicate the causes of any variations in motivational orientations. Statistical analyses were also made in order to measure motivation's relationship to attitude and linguistic achievement.

It should be noted that the distinction between integrative and instrumental orientations initially serves as the basis for this analysis as it likewise served in the development of the research instruments (See Section 3.3). Equally, attitude is also first conceptualised as a separate, but related, affective factor to motivational orientations (Gardner, 1985; 2010; Masgoret and Gardner, 2003), and an argument is later presented in the chapter which supports considering motivation's interrelationship with attitudes and the L2 learning environment as a means to more fully understand SLA in this context (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009b). Finally, individual examples are highlighted in order to indicate possible catalysts of changes in motivation, thereby forefronting the importance of both a whole-group and individual analysis in SA research.

7.1 Initial Motivations

7.1.1 Integrative Orientations

Data from the first questionnaire were analysed in order to establish the initial motivational orientations of the participants. In terms of integrative orientations, they were asked to rank their agreement with ten different statements regarding their integrative motivation. As mentioned previously, this type of motivation expresses the desire to learn a language in order to become a part of a certain speech community and be able to interact socially with its members (Gardner and Lambert, 1959, 1972; Gardner, 1985b). Table 7-1 provides details on the participants' agreement with each statement while the variable 'Total Integrative Motivation Time 1' demonstrates the participants' overall level of integrative motivation on a 10-point scale. All variables in the scale were tested for reliability and reveal a good internal consistency with a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of .794 as denoted by DeVellis (2003) and Pallant (2011).

As shown in Table 7-1, Motive 8, "Getting to experience a different culture" (M= 9.50, SD= .776), Opinion 10, "I want to immerse myself in the Spanish way of life while abroad" (M= 9.33, SD= .989), and Motive 1, "Increase the level of my Spanish language skills" (M= 9.09, SD= 1.640) were those integrative motivations for which the participants felt strongest. Conversely, Opinion 13, "I want to take classes taught in Spanish" (M= 6.46, SD= 3.304) was ranked the lowest in regards to integrative motivation.

Overall, the participants appeared to initially have very high integrative motivation, which is demonstrated by the variable 'Total Integrative Motivation Time 1' (M= 8.72, SD= 1.013). The only results which suggest otherwise are responses to Opinion 13, which suggests that the participants had apprehension about integration by means of taking classes which were taught in the target language.

Table 7-1: Descriptive Statistics for Initial Integrative Motivation

	N	Range	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD
Opinion 2: Integrative (T1)	70	5	5	10	8.64	1.494
Opinion 5: Integrative (T1)	70	5	5	10	9.00	1.285
Opinion 8: Integrative (T1)	70	5	5	10	8.93	1.333
Opinion 9: Integrative (T1)	70	6	4	10	8.97	1.474
Opinion 10: Integrative (T1)	70	3	7	10	9.33	.989
Opinion 11: Integrative (T1)	70	9	1	10	8.46	2.158
Opinion 13: Integrative (T1)	70	9	1	10	6.47	3.278
Motivation 1: Integrative (T1)	70	9	1	10	9.09	1.640
Motivation 7: Integrative (T1)	70	6	4	10	8.83	1.351
Motivation 8: Integrative (T1)	70	3	7	10	9.50	.776
Total Integrative Motivation Time 1	70	3.60	6.40	10	8.7200	1.01262

In addition, the Spearman's Rho bivariate correlative analysis demonstrated some interesting relationships between the integrative motivation scale variable, 'Years of Prior Study' and '1st Exam Score'. Analysis of the latter variables and 'Total Integrative Motivation Time 1' show that both prior study of Spanish ($\rho = .385$, $n = 70$, $p = .001$) and initial proficiency exam scores ($\rho = .396$, $n = 70$, $p = .001$) exhibit moderate, positive and statistically significant correlations with overall integrative motivation, thus suggesting that those who have more experience with the Spanish language tend to be more integratively motivated.

The data on initial integrative orientations were also divided based on program site as a means to determine any significant differences among the participant groups. While the data representing the whole participant group demonstrate a relatively high degree of integrative orientations, descriptive statistics of the individual group analysis reveal that the Granada group have a higher tendency of integrative motivation than the Barcelona group ($M= 9.25$, $SD= .563$; $M= 8.30$, $SD= 1.094$), and a Mann-Whitney U Test reveals that this difference is statistically significant ($Z= -3.668$, $p< .0005$). Figure 7-1 illustrates a similar pattern to that seen in the responses for attitudes and perceptions, with the Barcelona group having a great disparity of responses regarding integrative motivation.

Analysis of the individual variables related to integrative motivation reveals some interesting trends in the data including in which features of integration do the Barcelona and Granada students differ. Some key examples include Opinion 11, “Learning Spanish is an important reason why I chose to study abroad” (Barcelona: $R= 9$, $M= 7.87$, $SD= 2.557$; Granada: $R= 3$, $M= 9.19$, $SD= 1.195$) and Opinion 13, “I want to take classes taught in Spanish” (Barcelona: $R= 9$, $M= 4.72$, $SD= 3.292$; Granada: $R= 5$, $M= 8.68$, $SD= 1.400$), both of which were shown to have a statistically significant difference after the employment of the Mann-Whitney U Test ($Z= -2.166$, $p= .030$; $Z= -4.799$, $p< .0005$).

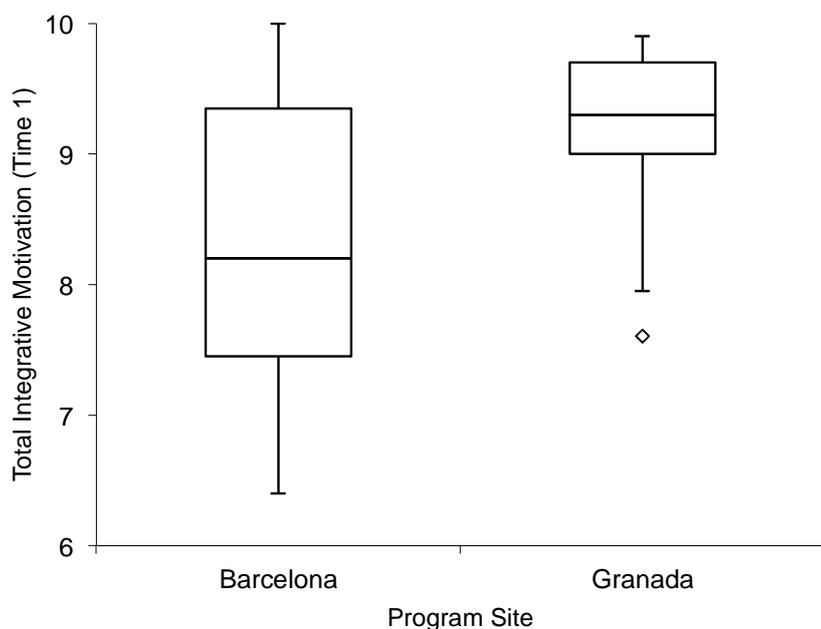


Figure 7-1: Total Integrative Motivation (BCN and GRA)

7.1.2 Instrumental Orientations

The participants were asked to rank their agreement with ten different statements regarding their instrumental motivation. Again, this type of motivation expresses the desire to learn a language for practical purposes, such as for a potential job or the necessity for foreign travel (Gardner and Lambert, 1959, 1972; Gardner, 1985b). Additionally, several of these elements relate to pragmatic benefits of SA, which are facilitated by acquisition of the target language (Cigliana and Serrano, Forthcoming). Table 4-4 provides details on the participants' agreement with each statement while the variable 'Total Instrumental Motivation Time1' demonstrates the participants' overall level of instrumental motivation on a 10-point scale. All variables in the scale were tested for reliability and reveal a good internal consistency with a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of .837 as denoted by DeVellis (2003) and Pallant (2011).

Table 7-2: Descriptive Statistics for Initial Instrumental Motivation

	N	Range	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD
Opinion 7: Instrumental (T1)	70	5	5	10	9.03	1.404
Opinion 12: Instrumental (T1)	70	9	1	10	6.50	2.707
Motivation 2: Instrumental (T1)	70	8	2	10	8.76	1.756
Motivation 3: Instrumental (T1)	70	8	2	10	8.23	1.920
Motivation 4: Instrumental (T1)	70	5	5	10	9.30	1.108
Motivation 5: Instrumental (T1)	70	5	5	10	9.06	1.238
Motivation 6: Instrumental (T1)	70	8	2	10	8.30	1.929
Motivation 9: Instrumental (T1)	70	6	4	10	8.76	1.408
Motivation 10: Instrumental (T1)	70	9	1	10	6.20	2.748
Motivation 11: Instrumental (T1)	70	9	1	10	7.79	2.443
Total Instrumental Motivation Time 1	70	4.80	5.20	10	8.1914	1.24187

As demonstrated in Table 4-4, Motive 4, "Traveling" (M= 9.30, SD= 1.108) and Motive 5, "Having fun and having a good time" (M= 9.06, SD= 1.238) were those instrumental

motivations for which the participants felt strongest. Opinion 12, “Improving my résumé is an important reason why I chose to study abroad” (M= 6.20, SD= 2.748) and Motive 10, “Making my résumé look better” (M= 6.50, SD= 2.707) were ranked the lowest in terms of instrumental motivation.

Much like the results from the integrative motivation items, the participants seem to have relatively high instrumental motivation as well. This is reflected in the results from the variable ‘Total Instrumental Motivation Time 1’ (M= 8.19, SD= 1.242), while no item has a Mean below (6).

Interestingly, both items which were ranked lowest in terms of instrumental motivation refer to learning Spanish and studying abroad as means of improving the content of their CVs; however, Opinion 7, “I think that Spanish would be helpful for my future career” (M= 9.03, SD= 1.404) is ranked the third highest in terms of agreement.

Finally, a bivariate correlative analysis was conducted to investigate any relationships between instrumental motivation and either initial proficiency exam scores or previous years studying Spanish. The Spearman’s Rho analysis revealed no significant correlations between neither ‘Total Instrumental Motivation Time 1’ and ‘1st Exam Score’ (rho= .040, n= 70, p= .743) nor between ‘Instrumental Motivation Time 1’ and ‘Years of Prior Study’ (rho= -.115, n= 70, p= .343). Therefore, instrumental motivation tends to remain consistent among students of varying proficiency levels and language-learning backgrounds.

As with integrative orientations, the data were also divided by program site in order to determine any differences in initial instrumental motives. The group analyses reflected the trends revealed by the data as a whole, as both groups maintained a similar level of instrumental motivation on average (Barcelona: M= 8.19, SD= 1.380; Granada: M= 8.19, SD= 1.066) as illustrated in Figure 7-2. Analyses of individual variables regarding instrumental motivation found no significant differences among the Barcelona and Granada participants’ responses.

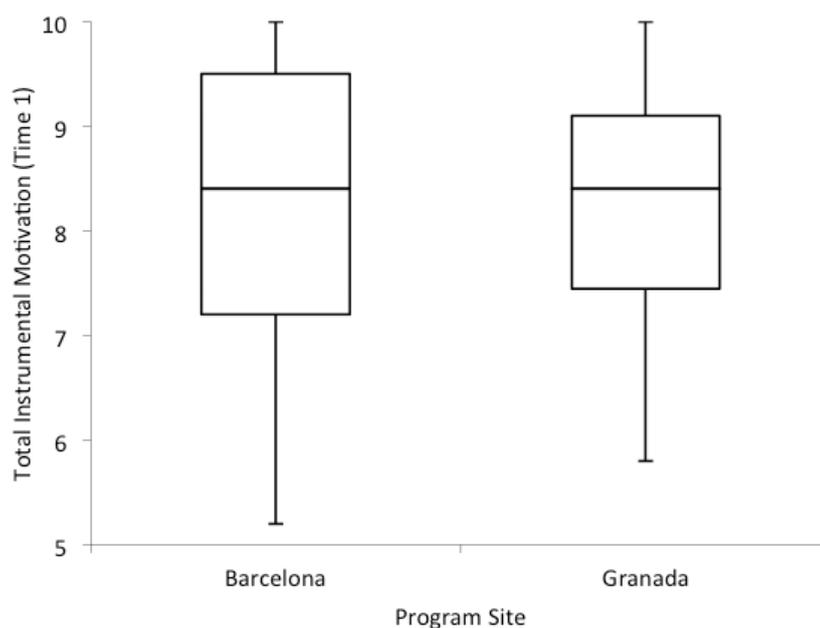


Figure 7-2: Total Instrumental Motivation (BCN and GRA)

7.1.3 Observational Examples and Discussion

The results from the analyses of the data as a whole reveal that the participants displayed a high level of both integrative and instrumental orientations from the outset of the residence abroad, despite their varied linguistic and educational backgrounds. The quantitative data also suggest that the Granada group was initially more integratively motivated than the Barcelona group, while the Barcelona students expressed a more varied range of both instrumental and integrative orientations. Examples of these distinctions are found within some of the reasons the students gave for choosing each program site.

The Barcelona students, for instance, stated a wide range of reasons for choosing their SA destination. In an informal conversation between the researcher and two male students in Barcelona, the men revealed why they chose to study in Barcelona:

Researcher: So, what made you choose Barcelona then?

James: I mean, I want to learn Spanish, but I also want to travel and make new friends and go out, and I've never been to Europe before.

Researcher: And what about you?

Greg: I came here before, like, four years ago, and I had so much fun walking around and going out all night. This city is so beautiful and I love the architecture, so I wanted to come back.

On the other hand, Barcelona participant Casey stated an alternative reason for choosing the city:

Researcher: Why did you choose to come to Barcelona?

Casey: So, I really wanted to come somewhere in Europe, and a guy at my university is from Barcelona, so he promised to introduce me to his Spanish friends. And there are loads of Colombians in Barcelona and I spent last summer in Colombia, so I'd love to check out the salsa clubs.

It should be noted that James had no previous experience studying the language while Greg had studied Spanish for several years. Yet, both men cited "going out" as a reason why they chose Barcelona for their semester abroad. On the other hand, the response from Casey, who had studied Spanish for many years, demonstrated a largely different view from those of James and Greg. While she did not explicitly state wanting to learn Spanish in this example, she was clearly motivated to integrate into the wider community.

Conversely, the Granada students stated a more homogenous range of reasons for choosing to study in Granada. In an informal social outing, the researcher asked a group of male and female students from the Fall Granada group why they chose Granada for their semester abroad:

Researcher: So what made you all pick Granada?

Sean: Because it has the best of Spain. A mixture of the Moorish and Spanish culture and history. This is everything that Spain is about.

Researcher: And you?

Esme: I wanted to go to a smaller city 'cause all of my friends and people from my school were going to Madrid, so I wanted to go somewhere where I wouldn't be speaking English with them all the time.

In a separate conversation during a social outing, Spring Granada participants gave similar responses:

Researcher: Is there a particular reason why you chose Granada for your semester abroad?

Dylan: I came to Granada because I actually wanted to learn Spanish and meet Spanish people. I'm here to challenge myself.

Amanda: I really wanted to study in Toledo, but my Spanish [level] wasn't high enough, so I thought that Granada would be the best place.

Furthermore, after learning about the research project, several Granada participants offered their thoughts about Barcelona and why they did not choose the Barcelona program that was similarly offered by the same American university

Ivan: I originally wanted to go to Barcelona, but I stopped myself. I thought, 'they speak Catalan and everyone speaks English there,' so I wouldn't learn Spanish.

Amy: Yeah (in agreement with Ivan's statement), my advisor at home told me that if I want to learn Spanish, don't go to Barcelona.

These statements suggest that the Granada students seemed to focus more so on linguistic development or learning about Spanish culture, whereas the Barcelona students expressed both linguistic motives, and more pragmatic motives, such as traveling and extended tourism, for selecting their city. Moreover, several of the Granada students expressed reservations about studying in Barcelona simply because it is a much larger, touristic city, while those who chose to study in Barcelona, particularly Greg and James, appeared to value these traits of the city. Reasons for these distinctions could be attributed to the different program prospectuses for each site (See Section 1.3), or the more diverse language learning backgrounds of the Barcelona participants (See Section 4.2). Also of note is the potential adherence to Gore's (2005) dominant (James and Greg) and alternative discourses (Ivan and Amy), a trend which has been previously identified within American SA research.

Other data serve as further evidence for the motives of learning and practicing Spanish while abroad which reflect the data revealed in the quantitative analysis. For instance,

Granada participants Alice and Gemma both commented that learning Spanish was their main priority while in Granada during a social outing at the beginning of the program; the women, who lived in the same homestay, discussed how they planned to, “try to speak Spanish at home, even when we could speak English” as a means to practice their language skills. Furthermore, Granada participant Holly was observed refusing to respond in English during an informal meeting with Granada program coordinators on her second day in the city, even when asked questions by her classmates in English. When asked why she chose to maintain Spanish, she responded, “I might as well [speak Spanish] while I’m here!”

Other examples were observed in Barcelona during a conversation with two students outside of the program centre on the second day of their program:

Researcher: What do you hope to get out of your semester abroad?

Krystal: Definitely becoming more proficiency in Spanish. This is my main goal.

Dave: Yeah, I feel like I know Spanish pretty well, but now I want to learn how to actually speak it.

On the other hand, it is also necessary to mention those observations that may not conform to this trend, as to illustrate any potential inconsistencies. The two examples of avoiding contact with local residents as seen in Section 6.1.3 can certainly serve as examples of student actions not necessarily reflecting their stated motivations, while a further example concerns Barcelona participants James and Greg, who cited “going out” as one of their key motives for choosing to study in Barcelona: whilst at a local pub with several other program participants, the sociable men addressed everyone they encountered in English, despite meeting two ERASMUS students from France and ordering drinks from the native Spanish/Catalan bar staff. Following their lead, the other students also spoke with the bar staff in English. As a result, no students in the group attempted to use Spanish throughout the course of the evening.

Though it would be unreasonable to assume that avoidance of certain interactions with local residents or the use of English on social outings are behaviours that occur in every social context, they do serve to highlight instances where the students had an opportunity to utilise their linguistic skills, but chose not to do so. In contrast, the example of James and Greg is particularly significant as it may demonstrate an instance of what Ogden (2006)

considers the 'American bubble'; if the American students are together, then they tend to adopt their home-culture norms, where they unknowingly practice these norms amongst the receptor culture. In either case, the examples highlight a number of key differences among the groups and instances where listed motives may not reflect student behaviour. These motives thus serve as a foundation from which changes or further inconsistencies can be measured in order to determine if any such traits have an impact on language learning in this context.

7.2 Changes in Motivation Over Time

7.2.1 Quantitative Analysis

Thus, after establishing the initial motivational orientations of the participants, it is then necessary to measure how they change over time. In order to measure motivation's dynamic tendencies, a series of non-parametric Wilcoxon Signed Rank Tests were conducted in order to measure changes in motivational perspectives across the course of the participants' semester abroad. Again, non-parametric measure were selected because the data was coded ordinally and in some cases did not meet the criteria for parametric measures as stated by DeVellis (2003) and Pallant (2011). As with the analysis of attitude, the quantitative data will be presented first, followed by a discussion of the relevant qualitative data.

The first set of Wilcoxon tests were performed on the data gathered at the beginning of the semester abroad (Time 1/T1) and the data gathered at the mid-point in the semester (Time 2/T2). The tests were administered on each individual statement relating to the two motivational orientations, integrative and instrumental, and on a combined scale variable for each orientation, labelled "Total Integrative Motivation" and "Total Instrumental Motivation." Initial tests also considered the group as a whole in order to compare initial motivational perceptions with how they may have changed after a brief time abroad. The results of the two sets of analyses are presented separately beginning with the results for integrative motivation.

Analyses relating to integrative motivation between T1 and T2 are displayed in Table 7-3, and in general, the results point to a distinct decline in reported motivation. Foremost, the results for the "Total Integrative Motivation" scale variable demonstrate a statistically

significant decline in overall integrative motivation as only 13 out of the 65 participants surveyed reported an increase in this orientation ($Z = -4.389, p \leq .0005$).

Results of the differences between the individual statements regarding integrative orientations show similar tendencies. Agreement with Opinion 2, "I plan to participate/am participating in extracurricular activities that will help me to meet native speakers" ($Z = -3.541, p \leq .0005$), Opinion 5, "I am interested in Spanish culture and history" ($Z = -2.711, p = .007$), Opinion 8, "I will make/am making an effort to make Spanish-speaking friends" ($Z = -6.199, p \leq .0005$), Opinion 10, "I want to immerse/am immersing myself in the Spanish way of life while abroad" ($Z = -5.350, p \leq .0005$), and Motive 8, "Getting to experience a different culture" ($Z = -2.877, p = .004$) tended to either decline or be maintained. In contrast, only agreement with Opinion 13, "I want to/am taking classes taught in Spanish" ($Z = -2.961, p = .003$) appeared to rise.

Changes in integrative orientations were also analysed using the data collected from T2 and that collected at the end of the participants' semester abroad (Time 3/T3), however the results of which, displayed in Table 7-4, are less salient. Further significant declines were reported for agreement with Opinion 2, "I am participating in extracurricular activities that will help me to meet native speakers" ($Z = -2.524, p = .012$), while new significant declines were reported for Opinion 9, "I want to practice my Spanish with native speakers" ($Z = -2.558, p = .011$) and Opinion 11, "Learning Spanish is an important reason why I chose to study abroad" ($Z = -2., p \leq .0005$). Furthermore, 19 out of 33 respondents signalled a decline in overall integrative motivation; however the result was not statistically significant ($Z = -1.883, p = .060$).

Table 7-3: Integrative Motivation Time 1 to Time 2

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	p
Opinion 2: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 2: Integrative (T2)	Negative Ranks	30	25.45	763.50	-3.541	.000
	Positive Ranks	13	14.04	182.50		
	Ties	22				
	Total	65				
Opinion 5: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 5: Integrative (T2)	Negative Ranks	26	20.27	527.00	-2.711	.007
	Positive Ranks	11	16.00	176.00		
	Ties	28				
	Total	65				
Opinion 8: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 8: Integrative (T2)	Negative Ranks	50	27.32	1366.00	-6.199	.000
	Positive Ranks	2	6.00	12.00		
	Ties	13				
	Total	65				
Opinion 9: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 9: Integrative (T2)	Negative Ranks	20	18.00	360.00	-1.817	.069
	Positive Ranks	12	14.00	168.00		
	Ties	33				
	Total	65				
Opinion 10: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 10: Integrative (T2)	Negative Ranks	44	27.00	1188.00	-5.350	.000
	Positive Ranks	6	14.50	87.00		
	Ties	15				
	Total	65				
Opinion 11: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 11: Integrative (T2)	Negative Ranks	14	14.50	203.00	-.893	.372
	Positive Ranks	17	17.24	293.00		
	Ties	34				
	Total	65				
Opinion 13: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 13: Integrative (T2)	Negative Ranks	9	24.00	216.00	-2.961	.003
	Positive Ranks	33	20.82	687.00		
	Ties	23				
	Total	65				
Motive 1: Integrative (T1) - Motive 1: Integrative (T2)	Negative Ranks	14	13.71	192.00	-.074	.941
	Positive Ranks	13	14.31	186.00		
	Ties	23				
	Total	65				
Motive 7: Integrative (T1) - Motive 7: Integrative (T2)	Negative Ranks	28	17.88	500.50	-1.932	.053
	Positive Ranks	10	24.05	240.50		
	Ties	27				
	Total	65				
Motive 8: Integrative (T1) - Motive 8: Integrative (T2)	Negative Ranks	21	16.50	346.50	-2.877	.004
	Positive Ranks	8	11.06	88.50		
	Ties	36				
	Total	65				
Total Integrative (T1) - Total Integrative (T2)	Negative Ranks	48	32.42	1556.00	-4.389	.000
	Positive Ranks	13	25.77	335.00		
	Ties	4				
	Total	65				

Table 7-4: Integrative Motivation Time 2 to Time 3

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	p
Opinion 2: Integrative (T2) - Opinion 2: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	19	13.45	255.50	-2.524	.012
	Positive Ranks	6	11.58	69.50		
	Ties	9				
	Total	34				
Opinion 5: Integrative (T2) - Opinion 5: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	11	11.68	128.50	-.463	.644
	Positive Ranks	10	10.25	102.50		
	Ties	13				
	Total	34				
Opinion 8: Integrative (T2) - Opinion 8: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	12	11.92	143.00	-.550	.583
	Positive Ranks	13	14.00	182.00		
	Ties	9				
	Total	34				
Opinion 9: Integrative (T2) - Opinion 9: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	18	13.22	238.00	-2.558	.011
	Positive Ranks	6	10.33	62.00		
	Ties	10				
	Total	34				
Opinion 10: Integrative (T2) - Opinion 10: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	12	12.75	153.00	-.468	.640
	Positive Ranks	11	11.18	123.00		
	Ties	11				
	Total	34				
Opinion 11: Integrative (T2) - Opinion 11: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	14	8.43	118.00	-2.665	.008
	Positive Ranks	2	9.00	18.00		
	Ties	18				
	Total	34				
Opinion 13: Integrative (T2) - Opinion 13: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	7	9.29	65.00	-.156	.876
	Positive Ranks	9	7.89	71.00		
	Ties	17				
	Total	33				
Motive 1: Integrative (T2) - Motive 1: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	8	6.75	54.00	-1.198	.231
	Positive Ranks	4	6.00	24.00		
	Ties	23				
	Total	34				
Motive 7: Integrative (T2) - Motive 7: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	7	8.79	61.50	-.724	.469
	Positive Ranks	10	9.15	91.50		
	Ties	18				
	Total	35				
Motive 8: Integrative (T2) - Motive 8: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	4	6.13	24.50	-1.805	.071
	Positive Ranks	10	8.05	80.50		
	Ties	21				
	Total	35				
Total Integrative (T2) - Total Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	19	16.03	304.50	-1.883	.060
	Positive Ranks	10	13.05	130.50		
	Ties	4				
	Total	33				

Table 7-5: Integrative Motivation Time 1 to Time 3

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	p
Opinion 2: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 2: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	23	15.33	352.50	-3.945	.000
	Positive Ranks	4	6.38	25.50		
	Ties	7				
	Total	34				
Opinion 5: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 5: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	15	11.77	176.50	-2.705	.007
	Positive Ranks	5	6.70	33.50		
	Ties	14				
	Total	34				
Opinion 8: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 8: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	25	14.76	369.00	-4.349	.000
	Positive Ranks	3	4.50	9.00		
	Ties	6				
	Total	34				
Opinion 9: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 9: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	18	11.72	211.00	-2.765	.006
	Positive Ranks	4	10.50	42.00		
	Ties	12				
	Total	34				
Opinion 10: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 10: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	25	15.38	384.50	-4.167	.000
	Positive Ranks	3	7.17	21.50		
	Ties	6				
	Total	34				
Opinion 11: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 11: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	14	11.18	156.50	-1.958	.050
	Positive Ranks	6	8.92	53.50		
	Ties	14				
	Total	34				
Opinion 13: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 13: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	7	12.43	87.00	-.677	.498
	Positive Ranks	13	9.46	123.00		
	Ties	13				
	Total	33				
Motive 1: Integrative (T1) - Motive 1: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	11	7.00	77.00	-1.575	.115
	Positive Ranks	3	9.33	28.00		
	Ties	20				
	Total	34				
Motive 7: Integrative (T1) - Motive 7: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	17	11.79	200.50	-2.463	.014
	Positive Ranks	5	10.50	52.50		
	Ties	12				
	Total	34				
Motive 8: Integrative (T1) - Motive 8: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	13	9.08	118.00	-2.696	.007
	Positive Ranks	3	6.00	18.00		
	Ties	18				
	Total	34				
Total Integrative (T1) - Total Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	26	16.92	440.00	-4.274	.000
	Positive Ranks	4	6.25	25.00		
	Ties	3				
	Total	33				

Therefore, as was the case with attitude, perceptions of integrative orientations appeared change and decline more notably in the beginning of the residence abroad, while fewer changes occurred towards the end. Yet, the tendency for an overall decline in integrative motivation is even further highlighted when the changes are analysed between the T1 and T3 responses.

As shown in Table 7-5, a significant decrease in reported integrative orientations is found for every statement apart from Opinion 13 ($Z = -.677, p = .498$) and Motive 1, "Increase the level of my Spanish skills" ($Z = -1.575, p = .115$), whose changes were not statistically significant. Moreover, only four out of the 33 participants surveyed on both occasions reported a general increase in integrative motivation, as demonstrated in the results of the scale variable, "Total Integrative Motivation" ($Z = -4.274, p \leq .0005$).

Overall, these results appear to point to a noticeable decline in perceptions of integrative orientations, particularly regarding the participants' desires to improve in their Spanish-language abilities. This is also marked by a clear decline in the students' attempts to connect with native speakers, despite their initially strong desires to meet host locals. While the data does not indicate that the participants became unmotivated, the results may also be a reflection of unmet expectations, as appeared to be the case with the significant changes in attitude.

Instrumental orientations were also analysed in the same manner as integrative orientations, yet the results appear to be far more varied. Firstly, as shown in Table 7-6, the changes in agreement with the instrumental motivation statements between T1 and T2 appear to differ greatly for each statement, with significant declines only found for Motive 4, "Traveling" ($Z = -2.777, p = .005$), and Motive 6, "Having independence" ($Z = -3.889, p \leq .0005$). Moreover, for each of these statements many students reported actually maintaining motivation, rather than it declining. An analysis of the combined scale variable "Total Instrumental Motivation" also demonstrates an overall decline in motivation ($Z = -2.247, p = .025$); however, the trend is much less pronounced than that found for integrative orientations.

Additionally, the differences between T2 and T3, as seen in Table 7-7, seem to be even more ambiguous, as only the agreement with one statement has changed significantly. Interestingly, agreement with Motive 6 increases dramatically from T2 to T3 ($Z = -3.227,$

$p = .001$), which is a notable contrast from its decrease after T1. This result indicates that perhaps the importance of having independence abroad has become more valuable to the participants as other motives more closely related to language acquisition may be becoming less prominent.

Despite the lack of statistically significant changes in instrumental orientations, it should not be assumed that instrumentality remains static. A closer examination of the positive and negative ranks for each statement shows that the participants are indeed changing their motivational perspectives.

The trend is further illustrated by the analyses of each statement from T1 to T3, as seen in Table 7-8. For instance, in the T1/T3 analyses, a further set of negative tendencies emerge for Opinion 7, "I think that Spanish would be helpful for my future career" ($Z = -2.653$, $p = .008$), Motive 4, "Travelling" ($Z = -2.887$, $p = .004$), Motive 5, "Having fun and having a good time" ($Z = -2.022$, $p = .043$), and Motive 11, "Getting Experience which could help my future career" ($Z = -2.069$, $p = .039$). Additionally, "Total Instrumental Motivation" decreases significantly from T1 to T3 ($Z = -2.712$, $p = .007$), though the decline is much less salient than the "Total Integrative Motivation" results. In contrast, agreement with Motive 6, whose responses were both negative and later positive, demonstrates no significant change from T1 to T3 ($Z = -1.237$, $p = .216$).

Table 7-6: Instrumental Motivation Time 1 to Time 2

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	p
Opinion 7: Instrumental (T1) - Opinion 7: Instrumental (T2)	Negative Ranks	17	13.44	228.50	-.243	.808
	Positive Ranks	12	17.21	206.50		
	Ties	36				
	Total	65				
Opinion 12: Instrumental (T1) - Opinion 12: Instrumental (T2)	Negative Ranks	21	18.86	396.00	-.451	.652
	Positive Ranks	20	23.25	465.00		
	Ties	24				
	Total	65				
Motive 2: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 2: Instrumental (T2)	Negative Ranks	16	16.69	267.00	-.057	.954
	Positive Ranks	16	16.31	261.00		
	Ties	33				
	Total	65				
Motive 3: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 3: Instrumental (T2)	Negative Ranks	22	22.80	501.50	-.929	.353
	Positive Ranks	19	18.92	359.50		
	Ties	24				
	Total	65				
Motive 4: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 4: Instrumental (T2)	Negative Ranks	22	14.61	321.50	-2.777	.005
	Positive Ranks	6	14.08	84.50		
	Ties	37				
	Total	65				
Motive 5: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 5: Instrumental (T2)	Negative Ranks	16	14.78	236.50	-1.174	.240
	Positive Ranks	11	12.86	141.50		
	Ties	38				
	Total	65				
Motive 6: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 6: Instrumental (T2)	Negative Ranks	36	26.71	961.50	-3.889	.000
	Positive Ranks	12	17.88	214.50		
	Ties	17				
	Total	65				
Motive 10: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 10: Instrumental (T2)	Negative Ranks	20	25.13	502.50	-.172	.864
	Positive Ranks	25	21.30	532.50		
	Ties	20				
	Total	65				
Motive 11: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 11: Instrumental (T2)	Negative Ranks	21	22.36	469.50	-.512	.609
	Positive Ranks	20	19.58	391.50		
	Ties	24				
	Total	65				
Total Instrumental (T1) - Total Instrumental (T2)	Negative Ranks	41	31.63	1297.00	-2.247	.025
	Positive Ranks	21	31.24	656.00		
	Ties	3				
	Total	65				

Table 7-7: Instrumental Motivation Time 2 to Time 3

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	p
Opinion 7: Instrumental (T2) - Opinion 7: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	10	8.85	88.50	-1.076	.282
	Positive Ranks	6	7.92	47.50		
	Ties	18				
	Total	34				
Opinion 12: Instrumental (T2) - Opinion 12: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	13	11.88	154.50	-.511	.609
	Positive Ranks	10	12.15	121.50		
	Ties	11				
	Total	34				
Motive 2: Instrumental (T2) - Motive 2: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	7	7.50	52.50	-.434	.664
	Positive Ranks	8	8.44	67.50		
	Ties	20				
	Total	35				
Motive 3: Instrumental (T2) - Motive 3: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	16	12.78	204.50	-.755	.450
	Positive Ranks	10	14.65	146.50		
	Ties	9				
	Total	35				
Motive 4: Instrumental (T2) - Motive 4: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	11	10.41	114.50	-1.292	.196
	Positive Ranks	7	8.07	56.50		
	Ties	17				
	Total	35				
Motive 5: Instrumental (T2) - Motive 5: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	12	8.08	97.00	-1.003	.316
	Positive Ranks	5	11.20	56.00		
	Ties	18				
	Total	35				
Motive 6: Instrumental (T2) - Motive 6: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	4	8.50	34.00	-3.227	.001
	Positive Ranks	19	12.74	242.00		
	Ties	18				
	Total	35				
Motive 10: Instrumental (T2) - Motive 10: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	8	12.00	96.00	-1.008	.314
	Positive Ranks	14	11.21	157.00		
	Ties	13				
	Total	35				
Motive 11: Instrumental (T3) - Motive 11: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	14	14.46	202.50	-.330	.742
	Positive Ranks	13	13.50	175.50		
	Ties	8				
	Total	35				
Total Instrumental (T2) - Total Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	14	16.50	231.00	-.031	.975
	Positive Ranks	16	14.63	234.00		
	Ties	4				
	Total	34				

Table 7-8: Instrumental Motivation Time 1 to Time 3

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	p
Opinion 7: Instrumental (T1) - Opinion 7: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	14	9.39	131.50	-2.653	.008
	Positive Ranks	3	7.17	21.50		
	Ties	17				
	Total	34				
Opinion 12: Instrumental (T1) - Opinion 12: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	13	12.77	166.00	-.866	.387
	Positive Ranks	10	11.00	110.00		
	Ties	11				
	Total	34				
Motive 2: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 2: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	12	9.50	114.00	-.054	.957
	Positive Ranks	9	13.00	117.00		
	Ties	13				
	Total	34				
Motive 3: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 3: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	19	13.84	263.00	-1.802	.072
	Positive Ranks	8	14.38	115.00		
	Ties	7				
	Total	34				
Motive 4: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 4: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	13	8.50	110.50	-2.887	.004
	Positive Ranks	2	14.75	9.50		
	Ties	19				
	Total	34				
Motive 5: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 5: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	14	10.29	144.00	-2.022	.043
	Positive Ranks	5	9.20	46.00		
	Ties	15				
	Total	34				
Motive 6: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 6: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	10	9.85	98.50	-1.237	.216
	Positive Ranks	13	12.65	177.50		
	Ties	11				
	Total	34				
Motive 10: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 10: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	11	13.95	153.50	-.480	.631
	Positive Ranks	12	10.21	122.50		
	Ties	11				
	Total	34				
Motive 11: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 11: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	16	10.91	174.50	-2.069	.039
	Positive Ranks	5	11.30	56.50		
	Ties	13				
	Total	23				
Total Instrumental (T1) - Total Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	22	18.59	409.00	-2.712	.007
	Positive Ranks	10	11.90	119.00		
	Ties	2				
	Total	34				

7.2.2 Changes in Motivation by Program Site (Integrative Motivation)

Changes in motivational perceptions were also further examined on the data separated by program site. As many responses towards motivation were variable and tended to change throughout the participants' time abroad, this separation hoped to specify any tendencies within each program site. A separation was also maintained for integrative and instrumental orientations within each program. As with the previous analyses and those for attitude, further Wilcoxon Signed Rank Tests were implemented in order to uncover any significant changes in motivational perceptions over the course of the participants' time abroad. The results from the Barcelona and Granada analyses are illustrated in Tables 7-9 to 7-14.

In terms of integrative orientations, the Barcelona group's responses reveal a number of significant changes, most prominent in the differences between T1 and T2, as seen in Table 7-9. The majority of these changes highlight a decrease in reported integrative motivation; for instance, agreement with Opinion 2, "I plan to participate/am participating in extracurricular activities that will help me to meet native speakers" ($Z = -2.420, p = .016$), Opinion 5, "I am interested in Spanish culture and history" ($Z = -2.085, p = .037$), Motive 7, "Getting to know people from other countries" ($Z = -1.985, p = .047$), and Motive 8, "Getting to experience a different culture" ($Z = -2.650, p = .008$) tended to either decline or remain constant, with very few instances of increases in motivation. Furthermore, agreement with Opinion 8, "I will make/am making an effort to make Spanish-speaking friends" ($Z = -4.746, p \leq .0005$) and Opinion 10, "I want to immerse/am immersing myself in the Spanish way of life while abroad" ($Z = -3.982, p \leq .0005$) declined significantly for the majority of participants. "Total Integrative Motivation" scores also showed a noticeable decrease from T1 to T2 for many Barcelona participants ($Z = -2.705, p = .007$), while responses to Opinion 13, "I want to/am taking classes taught in Spanish" ($Z = -2.156, p = .031$), represented the group's only notable increase.

Table 7-9: Integrative Motivation Time 1 to Time 2 (Barcelona)

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	p
Opinion 2: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 2: Integrative (T2)	Negative Ranks	17	17.00	289.00	-2.420	.016
	Positive Ranks	10	8.90	89.00		
	Ties	12				
	Total	39				
Opinion 5: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 5: Integrative (T2)	Negative Ranks	16	13.84	221.50	-2.085	.037
	Positive Ranks	8	9.81	78.50		
	Ties	15				
	Total	39				
Opinion 8: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 8: Integrative (T2)	Negative Ranks	29	16.86	489.00	-4.746	.000
	Positive Ranks	2	3.50	7.00		
	Ties	8				
	Total	39				
Opinion 9: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 9: Integrative (T2)	Negative Ranks	13	12.77	166.00	-1.771	.077
	Positive Ranks	8	8.13	65.00		
	Ties	18				
	Total	39				
Opinion 10: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 10: Integrative (T2)	Negative Ranks	26	16.35	425.00	-3.982	.000
	Positive Ranks	4	10.00	40.00		
	Ties	19				
	Total	39				
Opinion 11: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 11: Integrative (T2)	Negative Ranks	26	11.07	77.50	-.710	.478
	Positive Ranks	4	9.38	112.50		
	Ties	9				
	Total	39				
Opinion 13: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 13: Integrative (T2)	Negative Ranks	6	16.58	99.50	-2.156	.031
	Positive Ranks	21	13.26	278.50		
	Ties	12				
	Total	39				
Motive 1: Integrative (T1) - Motive 1: Integrative (T2)	Negative Ranks	7	11.14	78.00	-.332	.740
	Positive Ranks	11	8.45	93.00		
	Ties	21				
	Total	39				
Motive 7: Integrative (T1) - Motive 7: Integrative (T2)	Negative Ranks	16	10.72	171.50	-1.985	.047
	Positive Ranks	5	11.90	59.50		
	Ties	18				
	Total	39				
Motive 8: Integrative (T1) - Motive 8: Integrative (T2)	Negative Ranks	13	10.08	131.00	-2.650	.008
	Positive Ranks	4	5.50	22.00		
	Ties	22				
	Total	39				
Total Integrative (T1) - Total Integrative (T2)	Negative Ranks	24	20.00	480.00	-2.705	.007
	Positive Ranks	11	13.64	150.00		
	Ties	4				
	Total	39				

Table 7-10: Integrative Motivation Time 2 to Time 3 (Barcelona)

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	p
Opinion 2: Integrative (T2) - Opinion 2: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	11	7.23	79.50	-2.405	.016
	Positive Ranks	2	5.57	11.50		
	Ties	6				
	Total	19				
Opinion 5: Integrative (T2) - Opinion 5: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	6	5.83	35.00	-.182	.856
	Positive Ranks	5	6.20	31.00		
	Ties	8				
	Total	19				
Opinion 8: Integrative (T2) - Opinion 8: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	5	6.00	30.00	-1.114	.265
	Positive Ranks	8	7.63	61.00		
	Ties	6				
	Total	19				
Opinion 9: Integrative (T2) - Opinion 9: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	12	7.25	87.00	-2.970	.003
	Positive Ranks	1	4.00	4.00		
	Ties	6				
	Total	19				
Opinion 10: Integrative (T2) - Opinion 10: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	5	12.75	153.00	-.162	.871
	Positive Ranks	7	11.18	123.00		
	Ties	7				
	Total	19				
Opinion 11: Integrative (T2) - Opinion 11: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	6	4.33	26.00	-2.050	.040
	Positive Ranks	1	2.00	2.00		
	Ties	12				
	Total	19				
Opinion 13: Integrative (T2) - Opinion 13: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	4	5.38	21.50	-.617	.537
	Positive Ranks	6	5.58	33.50		
	Ties	8				
	Total	19				
Motive 1: Integrative (T2) - Motive 1: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	5	5.10	25.50	-1.065	.287
	Positive Ranks	3	3.50	10.50		
	Ties	11				
	Total	19				
Motive 7: Integrative (T2) - Motive 7: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	3	3.67	11.00	-.997	.319
	Positive Ranks	5	5.00	25.00		
	Ties	11				
	Total	19				
Motive 8: Integrative (T2) - Motive 8: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	3	3.50	10.50	-1.473	.141
	Positive Ranks	6	5.75	34.50		
	Ties	10				
	Total	19				
Total Integrative (T2) - Total Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	10	7.80	78.00	-1.603	.109
	Positive Ranks	4	6.75	27.00		
	Ties	4				
	Total	18				

Table 7-11: Integrative Motivation Time 1 to Time 3 (Barcelona)

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	p
Opinion 2: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 2: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	11	7.64	84.00	-2.702	.007
	Positive Ranks	2	3.50	7.00		
	Ties	5				
	Total	18				
Opinion 5: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 5: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	8	6.50	52.00	-1.713	.087
	Positive Ranks	3	4.67	14.00		
	Ties	7				
	Total	18				
Opinion 8: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 8: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	13	7.88	102.50	-3.152	.002
	Positive Ranks	1	2.50	6.50		
	Ties	4				
	Total	18				
Opinion 9: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 9: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	11	6.50	71.50	-2.571	.010
	Positive Ranks	1	6.50	6.50		
	Ties	6				
	Total	18				
Opinion 10: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 10: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	13	7.92	103.00	-3.185	.001
	Positive Ranks	1	2.00	2.00		
	Ties	4				
	Total	18				
Opinion 11: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 11: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	5	5.40	27.00	-1.292	.196
	Positive Ranks	3	3.00	9.00		
	Ties	10				
	Total	18				
Opinion 13: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 13: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	5	5.90	29.50	-.752	.452
	Positive Ranks	7	6.93	48.50		
	Ties	5				
	Total	17				
Motive 1: Integrative (T1) - Motive 1: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	6	4.42	26.50	-1.207	.228
	Positive Ranks	2	4.75	9.50		
	Ties	10				
	Total	18				
Motive 7: Integrative (T1) - Motive 7: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	10	6.30	63.00	-1.955	.051
	Positive Ranks	2	7.50	15.00		
	Ties	6				
	Total	18				
Motive 8: Integrative (T1) - Motive 8: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	9	7.33	66.00	-2.183	.029
	Positive Ranks	3	4.00	12.00		
	Ties	6				
	Total	18				
Total Integrative (T1) - Total Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	12	9.08	109.00	-2.786	.005
	Positive Ranks	3	3.67	11.00		
	Ties	2				
	Total	17				

Table 7-12: Integrative Motivation Time 1 to Time 2 (Granada)

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	p
Opinion 2: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 2: Integrative (T2)	Negative Ranks	13	9.42	122.50	-2.862	.004
	Positive Ranks	3	4.50	13.50		
	Ties	10				
	Total	26				
Opinion 5: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 5: Integrative (T2)	Negative Ranks	10	7.05	70.50	-1.795	.073
	Positive Ranks	3	6.83	20.50		
	Ties	13				
	Total	16				
Opinion 8: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 8: Integrative (T2)	Negative Ranks	21	11.00	231.00	-4.078	.000
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00		
	Ties	5				
	Total	26				
Opinion 9: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 9: Integrative (T2)	Negative Ranks	7	5.79	40.50	-.680	.496
	Positive Ranks	4	6.38	25.50		
	Ties	15				
	Total	26				
Opinion 10: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 10: Integrative (T2)	Negative Ranks	18	11.22	202.00	-3.657	.000
	Positive Ranks	2	4.00	8.00		
	Ties	6				
	Total	26				
Opinion 11: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 11: Integrative (T2)	Negative Ranks	7	4.79	33.50	-.443	.658
	Positive Ranks	5	8.90	44.50		
	Ties	14				
	Total	26				
Opinion 13: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 13: Integrative (T2)	Negative Ranks	3	7.33	22.00	-2.222	.026
	Positive Ranks	12	8.17	98.00		
	Ties	11				
	Total	26				
Motive 1: Integrative (T1) - Motive 1: Integrative (T2)	Negative Ranks	7	4.14	29.00	-.798	.425
	Positive Ranks	2	8.00	16.00		
	Ties	17				
	Total	26				
Motive 7: Integrative (T1) - Motive 7: Integrative (T2)	Negative Ranks	12	7.50	90.00	-.658	.511
	Positive Ranks	5	12.60	63.00		
	Ties	9				
	Total	26				
Motive 8: Integrative (T1) - Motive 8: Integrative (T2)	Negative Ranks	8	6.88	55.00	-1.298	.194
	Positive Ranks	4	5.75	23.00		
	Ties	14				
	Total	26				
Total Integrative (T1) - Total Integrative (T2)	Negative Ranks	24	13.71	329.00	-3.903	.000
	Positive Ranks	2	11.00	22.00		
	Ties	0				
	Total	26				

Table 7-13: Integrative Motivation Time 2 to Time 3 (Granada)

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	p
Opinion 2: Integrative (T2) - Opinion 2: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	8	6.94	55.50	-1.304	.192
	Positive Ranks	4	5.63	22.50		
	Ties	3				
	Total	15				
Opinion 5: Integrative (T2) - Opinion 5: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	5	6.10	30.50	-.318	.751
	Positive Ranks	5	4.90	24.50		
	Ties	5				
	Total	15				
Opinion 8: Integrative (T2) - Opinion 8: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	7	6.43	45.00	-.504	.614
	Positive Ranks	5	6.60	33.00		
	Ties	3				
	Total	15				
Opinion 9: Integrative (T2) - Opinion 9: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	6	7.08	42.50	-.857	.391
	Positive Ranks	5	4.70	23.50		
	Ties	4				
	Total	15				
Opinion 10: Integrative (T2) - Opinion 10: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	7	5.29	37.00	-.361	.718
	Positive Ranks	4	7.25	29.00		
	Ties	4				
	Total	15				
Opinion 11: Integrative (T2) - Opinion 11: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	8	4.56	36.50	-1.748	.080
	Positive Ranks	1	8.50	8.50		
	Ties	6				
	Total	15				
Opinion 13: Integrative (T2) - Opinion 13: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	3	4.17	12.50	-.420	.674
	Positive Ranks	3	2.83	8.50		
	Ties	9				
	Total	15				
Motive 1: Integrative (T2) - Motive 1: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	3	2.17	6.50	-.557	.577
	Positive Ranks	1	3.50	3.50		
	Ties	11				
	Total	15				
Motive 7: Integrative (T2) - Motive 7: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	4	5.50	22.00	-.061	.952
	Positive Ranks	5	4.60	23.00		
	Ties	6				
	Total	15				
Motive 8: Integrative (T2) - Motive 8: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	4	3.50	3.50	-1.089	.276
	Positive Ranks	10	2.88	11.50		
	Ties	21				
	Total	35				
Total Integrative (T2) - Total Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	19	8.56	77.00	-.967	.334
	Positive Ranks	10	7.17	43.00		
	Ties	4				
	Total	33				

Table 7-14: Integrative Motivation Time 1 to Time 3 (Granada)

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	p
Opinion 2: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 2: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	12	8.21	98.50	-2.906	.004
	Positive Ranks	2	3.25	6.50		
	Ties	2				
	Total	16				
Opinion 5: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 5: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	7	5.71	40.00	-2.099	.036
	Positive Ranks	2	2.50	5.00		
	Ties	7				
	Total	16				
Opinion 8: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 8: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	12	7.38	88.50	-3.025	.002
	Positive Ranks	1	2.50	2.50		
	Ties	3				
	Total	16				
Opinion 9: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 9: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	7	5.71	40.00	-1.284	.199
	Positive Ranks	3	5.00	15.00		
	Ties	6				
	Total	16				
Opinion 10: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 10: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	12	7.88	94.50	-2.670	.008
	Positive Ranks	2	5.25	10.50		
	Ties	2				
	Total	16				
Opinion 11: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 11: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	9	6.17	55.50	-1.315	.188
	Positive Ranks	3	7.50	22.50		
	Ties	4				
	Total	16				
Opinion 13: Integrative (T1) - Opinion 13: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	2	7.50	15.00	-.423	.673
	Positive Ranks	6	3.50	21.00		
	Ties	8				
	Total	16				
Motive 1: Integrative (T1) - Motive 1: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	5	3.10	15.50	-1.081	.098
	Positive Ranks	1	5.50	5.50		
	Ties	10				
	Total	16				
Motive 7: Integrative (T1) - Motive 7: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	7	6.21	43.50	-1.654	.046
	Positive Ranks	3	3.83	11.50		
	Ties	6				
	Total	16				
Motive 8: Integrative (T1) - Motive 8: Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	4	2.50	10.00	-2.000	.046
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00		
	Ties	12				
	Total	16				
Total Integrative (T1) - Total Integrative (T3)	Negative Ranks	14	8.43	118.00	-3.301	.001
	Positive Ranks	1	2.00	2.00		
	Ties	1				
	Total	16				

Further negative trends are also revealed in the analyses of responses between T2 and T3 for the Barcelona group, as seen in Table 7-10. During this period, agreement with many of integrative orientations statements varied; however, most of the results revealed few or no changes. Nevertheless, those that did reveal a significant change furthered the negative trend. The responses for Opinion 2 showed a secondary significant decline ($Z = -2.405$, $p = .016$), and new negative tendencies were revealed for Opinion 9, "I want to practice/am practicing my Spanish with native speakers" ($Z = -2.970$, $p = .003$) and Opinion 11, "Learning Spanish is an important reason why I chose to study abroad" ($Z = -2.050$, $p = .040$).

The findings therefore tend to indicate a general decline in almost all integrative orientations throughout the participants' period of time abroad. This tendency is further supported in the analyses of the T1/T3 responses for this group, as shown in Table 7-11, wherein only three of the participants surveyed at both T1 and T3 demonstrated an overall increase in integrative orientations, as revealed in the results of the "Total Integrative Motivation" analysis ($Z = -2.786$, $p = .005$). While not all of the Barcelona participants were available to be surveyed on both occasions, several trends found in the T1/T3 results also support this claim. For example, overall agreement with Opinion 2 ($Z = -2.702$, $p = .007$), Opinion 8 ($Z = -3.152$, $p = .003$), Opinion 9 ($Z = -2.571$, $p = .010$), Opinion 10 ($Z = -3.185$, $p = .001$) and Motive 8 ($Z = -2.183$, $p = .029$) tended to decline despite the lower participant numbers for this part of the analysis. Furthermore, no significant positive tendencies were revealed by the data from the beginning to the end of the participants' time abroad.

Similarities are also found among the Granada participants in terms of integrative orientations, despite the initial differences among the participant groups. For instance, the T1/T2 analyses for the Granada participants, as shown in Table 7-12, revealed a moderate negative tendency for Opinion 2, "I plan to participate/am participating in extracurricular activities that will help me to meet native speakers" ($Z = -2.862$, $p = .004$) and stronger negative tendencies for Opinion 8, "I will make/am making an effort to make Spanish-speaking friends" ($Z = -4.078$, $p \leq .0005$) and Opinion 10, "I want to immerse/am immersing myself in the Spanish way of life while abroad" ($Z = -3.657$, $p \leq .0005$). A significant decline in "Total Integrative Motivation" was also observed ($Z = -3.903$, $p \leq .0005$), while the only positive change occurred for the results of Opinion 13, "I want to/am taking classes taught in Spanish" ($Z = -2.222$, $p = .026$).

Moreover, though no statistically significant changes occurred from T2 to T3 (See Table 7-13), the trend was maintained in the T1/T3 findings, as seen in Table 7-14. The results of the Wilcoxon Signed Rank Tests reveal a statistically significant decline in reported integrative orientations for Opinion 2 ($Z = -2.906, p = .004$), Opinion 5, "I am interested in Spanish culture and history" ($Z = -2.099, p = .036$), Opinion 8 ($Z = -3.025, p = .002$), Opinion 10 ($Z = -2.670, p = .008$), Motive 7, "Getting to know people from other countries" ($Z = -1.654, p = .046$) and Motive 8, "Getting to experience a different culture" ($Z = -2.000, p = .046$). A significant decrease was also revealed for "Total Integrative Motivation" ($Z = -3.301, p = .001$), and only one Granada student surveyed at both T1 and T3 reported an overall increase in integrative orientations.

The results of the integrative orientations analyses therefore reveal a number of similarities between the Barcelona and Granada groups in terms of changes in integrative motivation. Primarily, responses from both groups indicate a decline in overall integrative orientations. More specifically, statements referring to immersion (Opinion 10) and proactively seeking native-speaker interlocutors (Opinions 2 and 8) seem to be those with the most negative tendencies within each group.

7.2.3 Changes in Motivation by Program Site (Instrumental Motivation)

The results of the instrumental orientations analyses revealed fewer similarities between the groups and a much more varied range of responses. In the analyses for the Barcelona group, only two significant trends were revealed in the T1/T2 analyses for instrumental orientations, as seen in Table 7-15: Motive 4, "Traveling" ($Z = -2.300, p = .021$) and Motive 6, "Having independence" ($Z = -2.739, p = .006$). However, as mentioned in the overall analyses of instrumental orientations, this does not indicate that instrumental motivation is static, and many of responses towards each statement have similar numbers of both positive and negative changes.

The T2/T3 analyses for the Barcelona group show a similar trend, as seen in Table 7-16. Many of the responses still tended to fluctuate; however, a significant trend was only uncovered for Motive 6, which switches from a negative tendency to a much more positive one ($Z = -3.008, p = .003$). This is reflected in the overall analyses of instrumental orientations, wherein having independence appeared to become much more important to the participants after having spent several weeks abroad.

Table 7-15: Instrumental Motivation Time 1 to Time 2 (Barcelona)

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	p
Opinion 7: Instrumental (T1) - Opinion 7: Instrumental (T2)	Negative Ranks	11	9.82	108.00	-.534	.593
	Positive Ranks	8	10.25	82.00		
	Ties	20				
	Total	39				
Opinion 12: Instrumental (T1) - Opinion 12: Instrumental (T2)	Negative Ranks	14	12.14	170.00	-.141	.888
	Positive Ranks	12	15.08	181.00		
	Ties	13				
	Total	39				
Motive 2: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 2: Instrumental (T2)	Negative Ranks	9	8.94	80.50	-.223	.824
	Positive Ranks	9	10.06	90.50		
	Ties	21				
	Total	39				
Motive 3: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 3: Instrumental (T2)	Negative Ranks	15	15.13	227.00	-.920	.357
	Positive Ranks	12	12.58	151.00		
	Ties	12				
	Total	39				
Motive 4: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 4: Instrumental (T2)	Negative Ranks	10	7.75	77.50	-2.300	.021
	Positive Ranks	3	4.50	13.50		
	Ties	26				
	Total	39				
Motive 5: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 5: Instrumental (T2)	Negative Ranks	5	6.00	30.00	-.265	.791
	Positive Ranks	5	5.00	25.00		
	Ties	29				
	Total	39				
Motive 6: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 6: Instrumental (T2)	Negative Ranks	18	15.58	280.50	-2.739	.006
	Positive Ranks	8	8.81	70.50		
	Ties	13				
	Total	39				
Motive 10: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 10: Instrumental (T2)	Negative Ranks	10	13.35	133.50	-.138	.890
	Positive Ranks	13	10.96	142.50		
	Ties	16				
	Total	39				
Motive 11: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 11: Instrumental (T2)	Negative Ranks	12	12.50	150.00	-.370	.711
	Positive Ranks	11	11.45	126.00		
	Ties	16				
	Total	39				
Total Instrumental (T1) - Total Instrumental (T2)	Negative Ranks	22	19.20	422.50	-1.406	.160
	Positive Ranks	14	17.39	243.50		
	Ties	3				
	Total	39				

Table 7-16: Instrumental Motivation Time 2 to Time 3 (Barcelona)

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	p
Opinion 7: Instrumental (T2) - Opinion 7: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	8	5.63	45.00	-1.089	.276
	Positive Ranks	3	7.00	21.00		
	Ties	8				
	Total	19				
Opinion 12: Instrumental (T2) - Opinion 12: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	6	6.83	41.00	-.159	.873
	Positive Ranks	6	6.17	37.00		
	Ties	7				
	Total	19				
Motive 2: Instrumental (T2) - Motive 2: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	2	4.25	8.50	-.954	.340
	Positive Ranks	5	3.90	19.50		
	Ties	12				
	Total	19				
Motive 3: Instrumental (T2) - Motive 3: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	9	5.44	49.00	-.248	.804
	Positive Ranks	4	10.50	42.00		
	Ties	6				
	Total	19				
Motive 4: Instrumental (T2) - Motive 4: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	7	4.79	33.50	-1.316	.188
	Positive Ranks	2	5.75	11.50		
	Ties	10				
	Total	19				
Motive 5: Instrumental (T2) - Motive 5: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	8	5.44	43.50	-1.674	.094
	Positive Ranks	2	5.75	11.50		
	Ties	9				
	Total	19				
Motive 6: Instrumental (T2) - Motive 6: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	1	3.00	3.00	-3.008	.003
	Positive Ranks	12	7.33	88.00		
	Ties	6				
	Total	19				
Motive 10: Instrumental (T2) - Motive 10: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	4	8.00	32.00	-.092	.927
	Positive Ranks	7	4.86	34.00		
	Ties	8				
	Total	19				
Motive 11: Instrumental (T3) - Motive 11: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	8	6.88	55.00	-.677	.499
	Positive Ranks	5	7.20	36.00		
	Ties	6				
	Total	19				
Total Instrumental (T2) - Total Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	7	10.79	75.50	-.047	.962
	Positive Ranks	10	7.75	77.50		
	Ties	2				
	Total	19				

Table 7-17: Instrumental Motivation Time 1 to Time 3 (Barcelona)

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	p
Opinion 7: Instrumental (T1) - Opinion 7: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	9	5.83	52.50	-2.573	.010
	Positive Ranks	1	2.50	2.50		
	Ties	8				
	Total	18				
Opinion 12: Instrumental (T1) - Opinion 12: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	6	5.42	32.50	-1.224	.221
	Positive Ranks	3	4.17	12.50		
	Ties	9				
	Total	18				
Motive 2: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 2: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	5	4.40	22.00	-.061	.951
	Positive Ranks	4	5.75	23.00		
	Ties	9				
	Total	18				
Motive 3: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 3: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	11	7.64	84.00	-2.016	.044
	Positive Ranks	3	7.00	21.00		
	Ties	4				
	Total	18				
Motive 4: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 4: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	6	5.42	32.50	-2.035	.042
	Positive Ranks	2	1.75	3.50		
	Ties	10				
	Total	18				
Motive 5: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 5: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	6	5.00	30.00	-1.725	.084
	Positive Ranks	2	3.00	6.00		
	Ties	10				
	Total	18				
Motive 6: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 6: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	3	4.00	12.00	-1.925	.054
	Positive Ranks	8	6.75	54.00		
	Ties	7				
	Total	18				
Motive 10: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 10: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	5	6.20	31.00	-1.039	.299
	Positive Ranks	4	3.50	14.00		
	Ties	9				
	Total	18				
Motive 11: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 11: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	7	5.07	35.50	-1.552	.121
	Positive Ranks	2	4.75	9.50		
	Ties	9				
	Total	18				
Total Instrumental (T1) - Total Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	11	9.95	109.50	-2.146	.032
	Positive Ranks	5	5.30	26.50		
	Ties	2				
	Total	18				

Table 7-18: Instrumental Motivation Time 1 to Time 2 (Granada)

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	p
Opinion 7: Instrumental (T1) - Opinion 7: Instrumental (T2)	Negative Ranks	6	4.25	25.50	-.209	.834
	Positive Ranks	4	7.38	29.50		
	Ties	16				
	Total	26				
Opinion 12: Instrumental (T1) - Opinion 12: Instrumental (T2)	Negative Ranks	7	7.57	53.00	-.412	.680
	Positive Ranks	8	8.38	67.00		
	Ties	11				
	Total	26				
Motive 2: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 2: Instrumental (T2)	Negative Ranks	7	8.29	58.00	-.354	.724
	Positive Ranks	7	6.71	47.00		
	Ties	12				
	Total	26				
Motive 3: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 3: Instrumental (T2)	Negative Ranks	7	8.00	56.00	-.222	.824
	Positive Ranks	7	7.00	49.00		
	Ties	12				
	Total	26				
Motive 4: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 4: Instrumental (T2)	Negative Ranks	12	7.42	89.00	-1.690	.091
	Positive Ranks	3	10.33	31.00		
	Ties	11				
	Total	26				
Motive 5: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 5: Instrumental (T2)	Negative Ranks	11	9.27	102.00	-1.232	.218
	Positive Ranks	6	8.50	51.00		
	Ties	9				
	Total	26				
Motive 6: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 6: Instrumental (T2)	Negative Ranks	18	11.75	211.50	-2.785	.005
	Positive Ranks	4	10.38	41.50		
	Ties	4				
	Total	26				
Motive 10: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 10: Instrumental (T2)	Negative Ranks	10	12.40	124.00	-.083	.934
	Positive Ranks	12	10.75	129.00		
	Ties	4				
	Total	26				
Motive 11: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 11: Instrumental (T2)	Negative Ranks	9	10.28	92.50	-.309	.758
	Positive Ranks	9	8.72	78.50		
	Ties	8				
	Total	26				
Total Instrumental (T1) - Total Instrumental (T2)	Negative Ranks	19	13.05	248.00	-1.842	.066
	Positive Ranks	7	14.71	103.00		
	Ties	0				
	Total	26				

Table 7-19: Instrumental Motivation Time 2 to Time 3 (Granada)

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	p
Opinion 7: Instrumental (T2) - Opinion 7: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	2	3.50	7.00	-.137	.891
	Positive Ranks	3	2.67	8.00		
	Ties	10				
	Total	15				
Opinion 12: Instrumental (T2) - Opinion 12: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	7	5.71	40.00	-.634	.526
	Positive Ranks	4	6.50	26.00		
	Ties	4				
	Total	15				
Motive 2: Instrumental (T2) - Motive 2: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	5	3.80	19.00	-.142	.887
	Positive Ranks	3	5.67	17.00		
	Ties	7				
	Total	15				
Motive 3: Instrumental (T2) - Motive 3: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	7	7.21	50.50	-.934	.351
	Positive Ranks	5	5.50	27.50		
	Ties	3				
	Total	15				
Motive 4: Instrumental (T2) - Motive 4: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	4	5.63	22.50	.000	1.000
	Positive Ranks	5	4.50	22.50		
	Ties	6				
	Total	15				
Motive 5: Instrumental (T2) - Motive 5: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	4	3.00	12.00	-.351	.726
	Positive Ranks	3	5.33	16.00		
	Ties	8				
	Total	15				
Motive 6: Instrumental (T2) - Motive 6: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	3	5.17	15.50	-1.261	.207
	Positive Ranks	7	5.64	39.50		
	Ties	5				
	Total	15				
Motive 10: Instrumental (T2) - Motive 10: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	4	4.38	17.50	-1.033	.302
	Positive Ranks	6	6.25	37.50		
	Ties	5				
	Total	15				
Motive 11: Instrumental (T3) - Motive 11: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	6	7.83	47.00	-.107	.915
	Positive Ranks	7	6.29	44.00		
	Ties	2				
	Total	15				
Total Instrumental (T2) - Total Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	7	6.29	44.00	-.105	.916
	Positive Ranks	6	7.83	47.00		
	Ties	2				
	Total	15				

Table 7-20: Instrumental Motivation Time 1 to Time 3 (Granada)

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	p
Opinion 7: Instrumental (T1) - Opinion 7: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	5	3.80	19.00	-.877	.380
	Positive Ranks	2	4.50	9.00		
	Ties	9				
	Total	16				
Opinion 12: Instrumental (T1) - Opinion 12: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	7	7.86	55.00	-.159	.874
	Positive Ranks	7	7.14	50.00		
	Ties	2				
	Total	16				
Motive 2: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 2: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	7	5.57	39.00	-.000	1.000
	Positive Ranks	5	7.80	39.00		
	Ties	4				
	Total	16				
Motive 3: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 3: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	8	6.94	55.50	-.708	.479
	Positive Ranks	5	7.10	35.50		
	Ties	3				
	Total	16				
Motive 4: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 4: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	7	4.00	28.00	-2.401	.016
	Positive Ranks	0	.00	.00		
	Ties	9				
	Total	16				
Motive 5: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 5: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	8	5.69	45.50	-1.137	.256
	Positive Ranks	3	6.83	20.50		
	Ties	5				
	Total	16				
Motive 6: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 6: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	7	5.71	40.00	-.080	.936
	Positive Ranks	5	7.60	38.00		
	Ties	4				
	Total	16				
Motive 10: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 10: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	6	8.25	49.50	-.191	.849
	Positive Ranks	8	6.94	55.50		
	Ties	2				
	Total	16				
Motive 11: Instrumental (T1) - Motive 11: Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	9	6.50	58.50	-1.548	.122
	Positive Ranks	3	6.50	19.50		
	Ties	4				
	Total	16				
Total Instrumental (T1) - Total Instrumental (T3)	Negative Ranks	11	8.95	98.50	-1.548	.115
	Positive Ranks	5	7.50	37.50		
	Ties	0				
	Total	16				

In contrast, the T1/T3 analyses are less uniform, as seen in Table 7-17. A number of new negative trends emerged, especially for Opinion 7, “I think that Spanish would be helpful for my future career” ($Z = -2.573, p = .010$), Motive 3, “Having a worthwhile academic experience” ($Z = -2.016, p = .044$), and again for Motive 4 ($Z = -2.035, p = .042$). The T1/T3 analyses for the Barcelona group also showed a significant decline in “Total Instrumental Motivation” ($Z = -2.146, p = .032$), which was not present in the T1/T2 results; however, as with the overall analyses, the change was much less salient than that for integrative motivation.

A similar variety of responses for instrumental orientations was found in the data for the Granada participants. For instance, a number of changes emerged in the T1/T2 results, yet only the negative shift for Motive 6, “Having independence” ($Z = -2.785, p = .005$) was statistically significant (see Table 7-18). Conversely, no significant changes were identified in the Granada T2/T3 data; however the negative to positive shift in agreement towards Motive 6 was still evident, though not statistically significant ($Z = -1.261, p = .207$; see Table 7-19). The T1/T3 data for the Granada participants also revealed only one significant decline, as seen in Table 7-20 (Motive 4, “Traveling,” $Z = -2.401, p = .016$), in contrast to the overall decline in instrumental orientations found for the Barcelona participants.

The results therefore suggest that while integrative orientations tended to become less prominent for the participants during the residents abroad, the more pragmatic benefits of SA appeared to vary on a more individual basis. This result is also curious as the more integrative motives for choosing to study abroad and learn Spanish tended to be stronger for both groups than instrumental ones upon arrival in Spain (See Section 7.1). The analyses also confirm a number of previous findings which discuss the ever-changing nature of motivation (Shoaib and Dörnyei, 2005; Amuzie and Winke, 2009; Gardner, 2010; Kormos *et al.*, 2013; Waninge *et al.*, 2014; Irie and Ryan, 2015). While fewer differences between program sites were uncovered in terms of motivation when compared with attitude, the exact nature of this overall decline is still unclear. Thus, an examination of the qualitative data provides some insight into the reasons behind the students’ general decrease in integrative orientations, particularly in relation to their motivations to integrate into their host communities.

7.2.4 Qualitative Analysis and Reasons for Change

The quantitative data reveal a number of interesting trends in the development and/or loss of motivation throughout the participants' time abroad. Most salient is the revelation that reported motivation appeared to decrease significantly for participants from both program sites, particularly within the first few weeks abroad. Yet, this pattern was not true for all participants, and an analysis of the qualitative data brings to light a number of different motivational perspectives which contradict some of the quantitative findings. A closer look at these examples then allows for assumptions to be made as to why motivation appears to change dramatically.

First, it should be noted that several examples of the maintenance of motivation were observed during the visits to each city. For instance, the topic of practicing Spanish featured heavily during an informal meeting between the newly arrived Fall 2013 Granada participants and several of their pre-sessional colleagues. Pre-sessional student George mentioned his success with intercambio (language exchange) partners, and suggested to the cohort join in the local university's tandem-learning program. In addition, Granada pre-sessional participant Jacob stated that he originally found it difficult to meet native Granada residents, but "now that I know [my intercambio partner], I try to go out with him and his friends as much as possible, even if it's just for a coffee." Also in Granada, Spring participant Holly was observed having a lengthy conversation in Spanish with the two program directors while Spring participant Esme demonstrated confidence on two social outings by asking questions to servers in a local restaurant and to attendants at a local bakery.

Other examples of continued motivation were observed in Barcelona. For instance, Fall Barcelona participants Casey and Lloyd, both of whom ranked the motive 'Improving the level of my Spanish skills' very highly, were observed communicating in Spanish on three separate occasions with the Barcelona student services coordinator, despite knowing that she spoke English fluently. Spring Barcelona participants Alyssa and Jamie also showed particular enthusiasm for learning Spanish as they enrolled in only Spanish-medium classes and were observed asking program coordinators about some of the pragmatic features of Spanish during the second visit to Barcelona. In addition, Fall Barcelona participant Dave was observed speaking to bar-staff in Spanish during a social outing to a local bar on the

final visit to Barcelona, whilst other clients (non-participants) were observed using English with the same staff.

These examples highlight the initiative of many of the students to use Spanish wherever possible, even when the opportunity to use English was evident. They also emphasise the interest that many students had in interacting native Spanish-speakers throughout the residence abroad, despite all of them apart from Lloyd and Jamie reporting a loss of motivation throughout the duration of the program.

Yet, despite these examples of continued motivation to practice Spanish, other observations reveal hesitance or avoidance of using the target language. For instance, a further example of avoidance was observed in local café in Barcelona during a second visit to the city. A group of six female students had entered to eat lunch, yet, rather than attempt to interact with the service staff at the café, in either English or Spanish, the group appeared to elect the most proficient Spanish speaker in the group, Jamie, to communicate on their behalf. Jamie succeeded in asking questions on behalf of the group; however, all subsequent interactions among the group were in English, and even Jamie's contact with the service staff was limited to simply asking and answering yes/no questions.

Furthermore, this trend was witnessed among both Barcelona and Granada students as they were observed avoiding using Spanish with service staff during four separate outings, two to a local bar, one to a local café and one to a tapas restaurant. Rather, the participants chose to ask their fellow classmates any questions they had about the menu before only utilising Spanish to place an order. While it is difficult to classify changes in motivation from these examples alone, they do show evidence that the students were hesitant to use the target language in some contexts during later visits to each program site. Moreover, these examples appear to contrast the excitement and positivity first observed during the early stages of the residence abroad, thus signalling a possible change in behaviour. It should also be mentioned that these behaviours were observed with three or more students present at each location, and such actions may be a reflection of Ogden's (2006) 'American bubble' or Coleman's (1997; 2009) formation of collective attitudes.

A further trend that was witnessed among the American students which may signal a decline in integrative motivation was the reported increase in travel. As travel may not necessarily be related to language acquisition, this trend might be seen to reflect an

ambiguous attitude towards immersion, wherein these trips might simply be for pleasure, rather than to experience culture or language. Of course, it is reasonable to assume that the students aim to enjoy their time abroad; yet, frequent travel by the students might also indicate that sightseeing takes precedence over getting to know their host culture (Gore, 2005; Kinginger, 2008). Equally, this finding is particularly interesting as 'Traveling' was one of the instrumental orientations which was shown to decline over time; however, every student with whom the researcher spoke during the second and third visits (N= 51) had planned at least one trip outside of Spain, with several having planned in excess of five weekend trips outside of their host city. While it is quite possible that travel to other parts of Spain can facilitate language learning, or indeed that language learning can facilitate travel, it can also be an indication of diminishing or ambivalent integrative motives. In either case, such examples clearly demonstrate the changing motives of the students, and several of these examples might highlight a discrepancy between stated motives and actions (Engle and Engle, 1999).

It is clear that motivational orientations were not static during the participants' stays abroad, and it is also necessary to consider why such changes occurred. Perhaps the most likely explanation is that motivation appeared to change as a result of individual experiences, as demonstrated in the multiple examples related to changing attitudes during SA (See Section 6.2.3). Positive experiences, such as gains in communicative confidence or target language practice within a homestay were likely catalysts for maintenance or gains in motivation, while negative encounters, such as Allen's negative experience at the internet café could be seen to diminish motivations, much as they did with positive attitudes.

A further explanation could be related to the particular decline of Opinion 18, which asked participants if they found it relatively easy to meet local residents with whom they could practice Spanish. As meeting interlocutors appeared to pose an unexpected challenge to students, it is likely that motivation to make acquaintances and utilise Spanish in social situations diminished over time due to these unmet expectations. Likewise, the tendency of interlocutors to use English rather than Spanish (See Section 6.2.3) likely added to this decline in motivation.

Moreover, this repetition of examples as stimuli of change among motivation and attitude suggests that the analysis of attitude and motivation ought to be conducted simultaneously. Therefore, Section 7.3 addresses this relationship.

7.3 Motivation and Attitude

The connection between motivational and attitudinal perspectives has long been recognized throughout the literature (Gardner, 1985b; Clément, 1986; Isabelli-Garcia, 2006; Coleman and Chafer, 2011; Dewey *et al.*, 2012; Llanes *et al.*, 2012; Kormos and Csizér, 2014; Coleman, 2015), and through an exploration of the qualitative data, it is clear that such a relationship existed for the participants of this study. Therefore, a final collection of statistical analyses was conducted in order to identify any further significant relationships among the attitudinal and motivational variables.

As shown in Table 7-21, significant, and, in most cases, strong, positive relationships can be observed between the overall measures of positive attitude and reported motivation for choosing to study abroad and learn Spanish. This result is to be expected as previous theories developed by both Gardner (Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Gardner, 1985b; Masgoret and Gardner, 2003; Gardner, 2004, 2010) and Dörnyei (Dörnyei, 2003, 2005; Shoaib and Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei, 2009b; Ushioda and Dörnyei, 2012) establish that both attitude and motivation are central to understanding learner behaviour, particular in relation to language acquisition.

Yet, the interrelationship of these two affective factors appears to be complex, particularly in the analysis of changing attitudes and motivations over time. Equally, it is essential to take into account the individual experiences of the participants which might change attitudes and motivations in addition to the overall trends in the data. As a result, the findings present evidence in favour of conceptualising attitude and motivation as parts of a system (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009b) rather than as two separate, but related, affective factors (Gardner, 1985b, 2010).

Table 7-21: Attitude and Motivation Correlations

		Total A/P Time 1	Total A/P Time 2	Total A/P Time 3
Total Integrative Motivation Time 1	Rho	.787**	.711**	.753**
	<i>p</i>	.000	.000	.000
	N	70	65	34
Total Integrative Motivation Time 2	Rho	.664**	.804**	.555**
	<i>p</i>	.000	.000	.001
	N	65	68	34
Total Integrative Motivation Time 3	Rho	.689**	.838**	.730**
	<i>p</i>	.000	.000	.000
	N	33	33	35
Total Instrumental Motivation Time 1	Rho	.295*	.219	.257
	<i>p</i>	.013	.080	.143
	N	70	65	34
Total Instrumental Motivation Time 2	Rho	.335**	.401**	.502**
	<i>p</i>	.006	.001	.003
	N	65	68	34
Total Instrumental Motivation Time 3	Rho	.514**	.340*	.547**
	<i>p</i>	.002	.049	.001
	N	34	34	36

7.4 Motivation and Linguistic Gains

Finally, despite the general decline in motivational orientations throughout the semester, it is necessary to compare the findings on motivation to the data on linguistic gains. As with the analyses of attitude, Spearman's Rank Order Correlations (Rho) were selected in order to conduct the comparison, while each type of motivational orientation is compared with the proficiency exam scores and with perceived gains in listening, speaking, reading, writing, grammar and pronunciation determined using the final proficiency exam.

Data from Section 7.1 revealed a significant positive correlation between the initial exam scores and the scores for "Total Integrative Motivation, Time 1" ($\rho = .396$, $N = 70$, $p = .001$), suggesting that those with higher entry proficiency levels tended to be those with the strongest integrative orientations. In addition, further correlational analyses revealed a similar trend with pre-program proficiency and "Total Integrative Motivation, Time 2"

($\rho = .307$, $N = 68$, $p = .011$) and “Total Integrative Motivation, Time 3” ($\rho = .546$, $N = 34$, $p = .001$), indicating that those with a higher pre-program proficiency tended to maintain these orientations, as seen in Table 7-22.

The pattern ceases, however, when the second exam scores are analysed along with integrative orientations and after the difference in the first and second exam scores is taken into account. For example, those who had initially reported high levels of integrative orientations tended to score higher on the second proficiency exam than those who did not ($\rho = .289$, $N = 52$, $p = .038$); however, the same cannot be demonstrated for “Total Integrative Motivation, Time 2” and “Total Integrative Motivation, Time 3,” which do not significantly correlate with the second exam scores ($\rho = .170$, $N = 50$, $p = .238$; $\rho = .254$, $N = 35$, $p = .141$). Furthermore, those who reported having strong integrative orientations at T2 and T3 actually improved less than those who had fewer integrative orientations, according to the differences between the first and second exam scores ($\rho = -.367$, $N = 50$, $p = .007$; $\rho = -.370$, $N = 34$, $p = .031$).

Negative correlations were also observed between some perceived linguistic gains and integrative orientations as reported at T1 and T2. Those who reported stronger instrumental orientations at T1 tended to report fewer perceived gains in listening ($\rho = -.299$, $N = 45$, $p = .046$) and writing ($\rho = -.356$, $N = 45$, $p = .016$) than their classmates who reported fewer integrative orientations at the beginning of their residence abroad. Interestingly, those who reported stronger integrative orientations at T2 also reported fewer writing gains ($\rho = -.307$, $N = 43$, $p = .045$) as well as fewer perceived gains in speaking ($\rho = -.307$, $N = 43$, $p = .031$).

Similar trends are revealed in the separate Barcelona and Granada analyses. More specifically, those Barcelona participants who reported the strongest integrative orientations at T1, T2 and T2 tended to make the least amount of improvement in terms of the differences in proficiency exam scores, as seen in Table 7-23 (T1: $\rho = -.438$, $N = 27$, $p = .022$; T2: $\rho = -.548$, $N = 28$, $p = .003$; T3: $\rho = -.488$, $N = 18$, $p = .040$). Alternatively, the analysis of integrative motivation and linguistic development among the Granada participants, as determined by the proficiency exam scores, reveals no statistically significant relationships between integrative orientations and linguistic development, as shown in Table 7-24.

Table 7-22: Integrative Motivation and Linguistic Gains Spearman's Correlations

		1st Exam Score	2nd Exam Score	Score Difference	Total Integrative Motivation Time 1	Total Integrative Motivation Time 2	Total Integrative Motivation Time 3
1st Exam Score	Rho	1.000	.730**	-.261	.396**	.307*	.546**
	<i>p</i>		.000	.060	.001	.011	.001
	N	73	53	53	70	68	34
2nd Exam Score	Rho	.730**	1.000	.363**	.289*	.170	.254
	<i>p</i>	.000		.008	.038	.238	.141
	N	53	54	53	52	50	35
Score Difference	Rho	-.261	.363**	1.000	-.193	-.376**	-.370*
	<i>p</i>	.060	.008		.170	.007	.031
	N	53	53	53	52	50	34
Total Integrative Motivation Time 1	Rho	.396**	.289*	-.193	1.000	.790**	.762**
	<i>p</i>	.001	.038	.170		.000	.000
	N	70	52	52	70	65	33
Total Integrative Motivation Time 2	Rho	.307*	.170	-.376**	.790**	1.000	.812**
	<i>p</i>	.011	.238	.007	.000		.000
	N	68	50	50	65	68	33
Total Integrative Motivation Time 3	Rho	.546**	.254	-.370*	.762**	.812**	1.000
	<i>p</i>	.001	.141	.031	.000	.000	
	N	34	35	34	33	33	35
Perceived Listening Gains	Rho	-.406**	-.218	.249	-.299*	-.289	-.041
	<i>p</i>	.005	.155	.103	.046	.060	.825
	N	46	44	44	45	43	31
Perceived Speaking Gains	Rho	-.274	-.248	.071	-.254	-.329*	-.021
	<i>p</i>	.066	.105	.645	.092	.031	.909
	N	46	44	44	45	43	31
Perceived Reading Gains	Rho	-.021	-.042	-.057	-.076	-.108	-.001
	<i>p</i>	.889	.788	.712	.620	.491	.997
	N	46	44	44	45	43	31
Perceived Writing Gains	Rho	-.232	-.130	.011	-.356*	-.307*	-.315
	<i>p</i>	.121	.401	.943	.016	.045	.084
	N	46	44	44	45	43	31
Perceived Grammar Gains	Rho	.144	.197	.015	.020	.063	.223
	<i>p</i>	.339	.201	.923	.894	.688	.228
	N	46	44	44	45	43	31
Perceived Pronunciation Gains	Rho	-.281	-.080	.230	-.067	-.205	-.188
	<i>p</i>	.059	.607	.133	.664	.187	.312
	N	46	44	44	45	43	31

Table 7-23: Integrative Motivation and Linguistic Gains Correlations (Barcelona)

		1st Exam Score	2nd Exam Score	Score Difference	Total Integrative Motivation Time 1	Total Integrative Motivation Time 2	Total Integrative Motivation Time 3
1st Exam Score	Rho	1.000	.706**	-.462*	.301	.293	.500*
	<i>p</i>		.000	.013	.062	.060	.034
	N	42	28	28	39	42	18
2nd Exam Score	Rho	.706**	1.000	.197	.164	.115	.131
	<i>p</i>	.000		.315	.415	.560	.604
	N	28	28	28	27	28	18
Score Difference	Rho	-.462*	.197	1.000	-.438*	-.548**	-.488*
	<i>p</i>	.013	.315		.022	.003	.040
	N	28	28	28	27	28	18
Total Integrative Motivation Time 1	Rho	.301	.164	-.438*	1.000	.750**	.847**
	<i>p</i>	.062	.415	.022		.000	.000
	N	39	27	27	39	39	17
Total Integrative Motivation Time 2	Rho	.293	.115	-.548**	.750**	1.000	.954**
	<i>p</i>	.060	.560	.003	.000		.000
	N	42	28	28	39	42	18
Total Integrative Motivation Time 3	Rho	.500*	.131	-.488*	.847**	.954**	1.000
	<i>p</i>	.034	.604	.040	.000	.000	
	N	18	18	18	17	18	18
Perceived Listening Gains	Rho	-.541*	-.124	.588**	-.288	-.326	-.032
	<i>p</i>	.011	.612	.008	.218	.150	.909
	N	21	19	19	20	21	15
Perceived Speaking Gains	Rho	-.465*	-.293	.297	-.236	-.369	-.052
	<i>p</i>	.033	.224	.216	.317	.100	.853
	N	21	19	19	20	21	15
Perceived Reading Gains	Rho	-.197	-.355	-.179	.030	-.148	.174
	<i>p</i>	.392	.136	.465	.900	.521	.535
	N	21	19	19	20	21	15
Perceived Writing Gains	Rho	-.498*	-.288	.103	-.341	-.401	-.475
	<i>p</i>	.022	.233	.676	.142	.072	.073
	N	21	19	19	20	21	15
Perceived Grammar Gains	Rho	.181	.291	-.008	.143	.049	.147
	<i>p</i>	.433	.227	.974	.548	.833	.600
	N	21	19	19	20	21	15
Perceived Pronunciation Gains	Rho	-.449*	-.180	.368	-.238	-.364	-.353
	<i>p</i>	.041	.461	.121	.313	.104	.197
	N	21	19	19	20	21	15

Table 7-24: Integrative Motivation and Linguistic Gains Correlations (Granada)

		1st Exam Score	2nd Exam Score	Score Difference	Total Integrative Motivation Time 1	Total Integrative Motivation Time 2	Total Integrative Motivation Time 3
1st Exam Score	Rho	1.000	.703**	-.114	.019	-.105	.567*
	<i>p</i>		.000	.586	.918	.611	.022
	N	31	25	25	31	26	16
2nd Exam Score	Rho	.703**	1.000	.522**	-.063	-.342	.332
	<i>p</i>	.000		.007	.764	.119	.209
	N	25	25	25	25	22	16
Score Difference	Rho	-.114	.522**	1.000	-.091	-.313	-.243
	<i>p</i>	.586	.007		.666	.156	.364
	N	25	25	25	25	22	16
Total Integrative Motivation Time 1	Rho	.019	-.063	-.091	1.000	.600**	.500*
	<i>p</i>	.918	.764	.666		.001	.049
	N	31	25	25	31	26	16
Total Integrative Motivation Time 2	Rho	-.105	-.342	-.313	.600**	1.000	.261
	<i>p</i>	.611	.119	.156	.001		.347
	N	26	22	22	26	26	15
Total Integrative Motivation Time 3	Rho	.567*	.332	-.243	.500*	.261	1.000
	<i>p</i>	.022	.209	.364	.049	.347	
	N	16	16	16	16	15	16
Perceived Listening Gains	Rho	-.295	-.394	-.121	-.336	-.214	-.027
	<i>p</i>	.152	.051	.565	.100	.338	.920
	N	25	25	25	25	22	16
Perceived Speaking Gains	Rho	-.098	-.325	-.299	-.384	-.361	.025
	<i>p</i>	.643	.113	.146	.058	.099	.926
	N	25	25	25	25	22	16
Perceived Reading Gains	Rho	.100	-.103	-.181	-.387	-.167	-.105
	<i>p</i>	.633	.626	.386	.056	.459	.700
	N	25	25	25	25	22	16
Perceived Writing Gains	Rho	0.000	-.154	-.199	-.582**	-.313	-.101
	<i>p</i>	1.000	.463	.340	.002	.157	.710
	N	25	25	25	25	22	16
Perceived Grammar Gains	Rho	.107	.094	-.017	-.196	-.036	.345
	<i>p</i>	.611	.656	.937	.348	.873	.191
	N	25	25	25	25	22	16
Perceived Pronunciation Gains	Rho	-.162	-.250	-.027	-.049	.001	.072
	<i>p</i>	.440	.229	.899	.815	.997	.790
	N	25	25	25	25	22	16

Comparable patterns were also found when the final exam score and the exam score difference were compared with each individual statement relating to integrative motivation. The results of the Spearman's rho correlations for T1, T2 and T3 are found in Appendix G, in Tables G-1, G-2 and G-3. For the purposes of these analyses, the two participant groups were combined because of the smaller number of responses for T2 and T3.

Therefore, particularly for the Barcelona participants, it appears that those who had fewer integrative orientations tended to make more linguistic gains than those with stronger integrative orientations, a finding which is contradictory to a number of previous investigations (Masgoret and Gardner, 2003; Gardner *et al.*, 2004; Yu and Watkins, 2008; Hernández, 2010; Spenader, 2011). These results do not, however, suggest that those with high integrative motivation did not make linguistic gains, a notion which is further explored below.

A parallel set of analyses was also conducted on the instrumental motivation results in order to establish any correlational relationships between instrumental orientations and linguistic development. Again, Spearman's Rho Correlations were selected for the analysis, and both exam scores and perceived linguistic development were analysed along with instrumental motivation. The results of the correlational analyses are depicted in Table 7-25 for the participants as a whole and in Tables 7-26 and 7-27 for the Barcelona and Granada groups respectively.

The analyses of the participants as a whole reveal that instrumental motivation appeared to have a connection with linguistic development similar to that of integrative motivation, wherein those who are reportedly more motivated tended to make fewer gains. The only statistically significant relationship is found to be between "Total Instrumental Motivation, Time 2" and the exam score differences ($\rho = -.517$, $N = 50$, $p \leq .0005$); however similar, but non-significant relationships are also found between "Total Instrumental Motivation, Time 1" and "Total Instrumental Motivation, Time 3," and the scores relating to linguistic development ($\rho = -.248$, $N = 52$, $p = .076$; $\rho = -.296$, $N = 35$, $p = .084$). In contrast, no statistically significant relationships were found between instrumental orientations and perceived linguistic development.

Table 7-25: Instrumental Motivation and Linguistic Gains Spearman's Correlations

		1st Exam Score	2nd Exam Score	Score Difference	Total Instrumental Motivation Time 1	Total Instrumental Motivation Time 2	Total Instrumental Motivation Time 3
1st Exam Score	Rho	1.000	.730**	-.261	.040	.077	.203
	<i>p</i>		.000	.060	.743	.535	.243
	N	73	53	53	70	68	35
2nd Exam Score	Rho	.730**	1.000	.363**	.026	-.128	.027
	<i>p</i>	.000		.008	.853	.376	.874
	N	53	54	53	52	50	36
Score Difference	Rho	-.261	.363**	1.000	-.248	-.517**	-.296
	<i>p</i>	.060	.008		.076	.000	.084
	N	53	53	53	52	50	35
Total Instrumental Motivation Time 1	Rho	.040	.026	-.248	1.000	.794**	.773**
	<i>p</i>	.743	.853	.076		.000	.000
	N	70	52	52	70	65	34
Total Instrumental Motivation Time 2	Rho	.077	-.128	-.517**	.794**	1.000	.832**
	<i>p</i>	.535	.376	.000	.000		.000
	N	68	50	50	65	68	34
Total Instrumental Motivation Time 3	Rho	.203	.027	-.296	.773**	.832**	1.000
	<i>p</i>	.243	.874	.084	.000	.000	
	N	35	36	35	34	34	36
Perceived Listening Gains	Rho	-.406**	-.218	.249	-.063	-.263	-.166
	<i>p</i>	.005	.155	.103	.679	.088	.364
	N	46	44	44	45	43	32
Perceived Speaking Gains	Rho	-.274	-.248	.071	.013	-.090	.087
	<i>p</i>	.066	.105	.645	.934	.567	.637
	N	46	44	44	45	43	32
Perceived Reading Gains	Rho	-.021	-.042	-.057	.183	.019	.099
	<i>p</i>	.889	.788	.712	.228	.904	.590
	N	46	44	44	45	43	32
Perceived Writing Gains	Rho	-.232	-.130	.011	-.064	-.204	-.063
	<i>p</i>	.121	.401	.943	.674	.190	.734
	N	46	44	44	45	43	32
Perceived Grammar Gains	Rho	.144	.197	.015	.070	.001	.011
	<i>p</i>	.339	.201	.923	.646	.992	.952
	N	46	44	44	45	43	32
Perceived Pronunciation Gains	Rho	-.281	-.080	.230	.097	-.217	-.007
	<i>p</i>	.059	.607	.133	.527	.163	.972
	N	46	44	44	45	43	32

Table 7-26: Instrumental Motivation and Linguistic Gains Correlations (Barcelona)

		1st Exam Score	2nd Exam Score	Score Difference	Total Instrumental Motivation Time 1	Total Instrumental Motivation Time 2	Total Instrumental Motivation Time 3
1st Exam Score	Rho	1.000	.706**	-.462*	-.108	.131	.313
	<i>p</i>		.000	.013	.512	.409	.192
	N	42	28	28	39	42	19
2nd Exam Score	Rho	.706**	1.000	.197	-.095	-.115	.011
	<i>p</i>	.000		.315	.638	.561	.964
	N	28	28	28	27	28	19
Score Difference	Rho	-.462*	.197	1.000	-.359	-.620**	-.485*
	<i>p</i>	.013	.315		.066	.000	.035
	N	28	28	28	27	28	19
Total Instrumental Motivation Time 1	Rho	-.108	-.095	-.359	1.000	.813**	.905**
	<i>p</i>	.512	.638	.066		.000	.000
	N	39	27	27	39	39	18
Total Instrumental Motivation Time 2	Rho	.131	-.115	-.620**	.813**	1.000	.886**
	<i>p</i>	.409	.561	.000	.000		.000
	N	42	28	28	39	42	19
Total Instrumental Motivation Time 3	Rho	.313	.011	-.485*	.905**	.886**	1.000
	<i>p</i>	.192	.964	.035	.000	.000	
	N	19	19	19	18	19	19
Perceived Listening Gains	Rho	-.541*	-.124	.588**	.089	-.237	.069
	<i>p</i>	.011	.612	.008	.710	.301	.800
	N	21	19	19	20	21	16
Perceived Speaking Gains	Rho	-.465*	-.293	.297	.042	-.090	.209
	<i>p</i>	.033	.224	.216	.862	.699	.438
	N	21	19	19	20	21	16
Perceived Reading Gains	Rho	-.197	-.355	-.179	.189	.040	.112
	<i>p</i>	.392	.136	.465	.425	.864	.681
	N	21	19	19	20	21	16
Perceived Writing Gains	Rho	-.498*	-.288	.103	-.108	-.375	-.099
	<i>p</i>	.022	.233	.676	.651	.094	.715
	N	21	19	19	20	21	16
Perceived Grammar Gains	Rho	.181	.291	-.008	.186	.102	.201
	<i>p</i>	.433	.227	.974	.433	.660	.455
	N	21	19	19	20	21	16
Perceived Pronunciation Gains	Rho	-.449*	-.180	.368	.259	-.214	.093
	<i>p</i>	.041	.461	.121	.269	.352	.732
	N	21	19	19	20	21	16

Table 7-27: Instrumental Motivation and Linguistic Gains Correlations (Granada)

		1st Exam Score	2nd Exam Score	Score Difference	Total Instrumental Motivation Time 1	Total Instrumental Motivation Time 2	Total Instrumental Motivation Time 3
1st Exam Score	Rho	1.000	.703**	-.114	.213	-.011	-.006
	<i>p</i>		.000	.586	.249	.957	.983
	N	31	25	25	31	26	16
2nd Exam Score	Rho	.703**	1.000	.522**	.103	-.097	-.056
	<i>p</i>	.000		.007	.624	.668	.838
	N	25	25	25	25	22	16
Score Difference	Rho	-.114	.522**	1.000	-.146	-.311	-.016
	<i>p</i>	.586	.007		.486	.159	.954
	N	25	25	25	25	22	16
Total Instrumental Motivation Time 1	Rho	.213	.103	-.146	1.000	.765**	.489
	<i>p</i>	.249	.624	.486		.000	.055
	N	31	25	25	31	26	16
Total Instrumental Motivation Time 2	Rho	-.011	-.097	-.311	.765**	1.000	.727**
	<i>p</i>	.957	.668	.159	.000		.002
	N	26	22	22	26	26	15
Total Instrumental Motivation Time 3	Rho	-.006	-.056	-.016	.489	.727**	1.000
	<i>p</i>	.983	.838	.954	.055	.002	
	N	16	16	16	16	15	16
Perceived Listening Gains	Rho	-.295	-.394	-.121	-.197	-.324	-.476
	<i>p</i>	.152	.051	.565	.345	.142	.062
	N	25	25	25	25	22	16
Perceived Speaking Gains	Rho	-.098	-.325	-.299	.001	-.045	-.117
	<i>p</i>	.643	.113	.146	.996	.843	.666
	N	25	25	25	25	22	16
Perceived Reading Gains	Rho	.100	-.103	-.181	.230	.056	-.002
	<i>p</i>	.633	.626	.386	.269	.804	.995
	N	25	25	25	25	22	16
Perceived Writing Gains	Rho	0.000	-.154	-.199	-.046	.005	-.103
	<i>p</i>	1.000	.463	.340	.826	.982	.703
	N	25	25	25	25	22	16
Perceived Grammar Gains	Rho	.107	.094	-.017	-.005	-.029	-.295
	<i>p</i>	.611	.656	.937	.983	.898	.268
	N	25	25	25	25	22	16
Perceived Pronunciation Gains	Rho	-.162	-.250	-.027	-.094	-.208	-.232
	<i>p</i>	.440	.229	.899	.654	.353	.388
	N	25	25	25	25	22	16

The analyses of the Barcelona and Granada groups separately, on the other hand, reveal different relationships between instrumental motivation and linguistic development. As seen in Table 7-27, the correlational analyses revealed no statistically significant relationships between instrumental orientations and the exam scores for the Granada group. In contrast, the analyses conducted on the Barcelona data, seen in Table 7-26 revealed patterns similar to those for instrumental orientations and linguistic development for the participants as a whole. Two negative, statistically significant relationships were found between linguistic gains, as measured by the exam score differences, and overall instrumental orientations, measured at T2 and T3 ($\rho = -.620$, $N = 28$, $p \leq .0005$; $\rho = -.485$, $N = 19$, $p = .035$).

As with integrative motivation, correlational analyses between the individual statements reflecting instrumental motivation, the exam scores and the score difference were comparable to the relationships among the exam data and the instrumental motivation scale variables. The results are highlighted in Appendix G, in Tables G-4, G-5 and G-6.

Similar to the results for integrative motivation, it appears that those who are most motivated make fewer linguistic gains than those who are less motivated. Furthermore, the trend is most salient among the Barcelona participants, suggesting that motivational dynamics differed between the two groups, particularly in relation to instrumental orientations. This could be a result, as stated in the Chapter 6, of the fact that those with higher entry proficiency levels, and subsequent high integrative motivation, progress more slowly than their less proficient colleagues (DeKeyser, 2014). Alternatively, reported motivation may not have translated into motivated behaviour, a theory which is further developed in Chapter 9. A further explanation is that the proficiency exam scores are limited in their capacity to measure linguistic development among the more proficient users of Spanish.

Regardless, the data regarding the statistical relationships between motivation, attitude and linguistic development appear to contrast results found in many other works (Gardner, 1985b; Masgoret and Gardner, 2003; Isabelli-Garcia, 2006; Kinginger, 2008; Yu, 2010; Llanes *et al.*, 2012; Kormos *et al.*, 2013); as a result, it appears that their relationship with learner behaviour may be even more complex as these affective factors evolve during a residence abroad (Coleman, 2013; Kormos *et al.*, 2013; Wolcott, 2013; DeKeyser, 2014).

7.5 Discussion and Conclusion: Motivation in SA

In order to begin an investigation into the complexities of motivation and SLA, motivational orientations must first be examined from the perspective of the socio-cultural model (Gardner, 1985b, 2010). As the model and the AMTB (Gardner, 1985a) serve as the key inspirations for the development of the research tools, it is necessary to examine to what extent they explain the data and any limitations in their application.

The first step to examine the data based on the socio-cultural model is to compare attitudinal perspectives and motivational orientations. Gardner and his colleagues famously established a correlation between these variables, particularly as they relate to language learning in the classroom (Masgoret and Gardner, 2003). Yet, very few studies have focused exclusively on the socio-cultural model for SA-context analyses. One such example is that of Hernández (2010); however, he does not take attitude into account. As such, the integrative and instrumental scale variables were compared with the scale measuring Attitudes and Perceptions, which includes elements of both types of relevant attitudes specified by Gardner: 'integrativeness' and attitudes towards the learning situation (Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Gardner, 1985b, 1985a).

As expected, the A/P scale variables correlated positively and strongly with almost all of the measures of motivation, including both orientations and their subsequent measurements at T1, T2 and T3. This evidence therefore supports Gardner's hypotheses that attitude and motivation are likely very closely linked. This is further reflected in the strength of the correlations between the A/P scale and integrative orientations, as Gardner's work originally conceptualised these two elements as a single affective factor (Gardner and Lambert, 1959, 1972). Such a finding therefore supports the application of this focus in Gardner's theory in a SA context.

However, the correlations between motivational orientations and linguistic achievement are less clear. Specifically, those who made the most improvements in their proficiency exam scores actually tended to have fewer integrative orientations, as per the questionnaire data. The same is true to some extent for instrumental orientations; however, the data reveal fewer negative statistically significant relationships. These findings are in direct contrast to much of what has been postulated by Gardner, where particularly integrative orientations have been traditionally linked, statistically, to further

linguistic achievement (Gardner, 1985b, 2000; Masgoret and Gardner, 2003; Gardner, 2010).

Interestingly though, these negative statistical relationships only apply to the exam score difference, but not to the proficiency exam scores themselves. As stated in Section 7.1.1, integrative orientations, as measured by the scale variable, correlated positively with pre-program proficiency, as determined by the exam score. These correlational trends in T1, T2 and T3 are likewise maintained with the second exam score; however, the T2 and T3 results are not statistically significant. In contrast, no statistically significant correlations are revealed between the exam scores and instrumental orientations. As such, this may be a result of those integratively oriented students studying Spanish for longer prior to coming abroad, while students of all proficiency levels maintained similar instrumental orientations.

Unfortunately, due to the nature of correlations, causal relationships could not be determined between neither the exam scores nor the score differences and motivational orientations. However, two likely explanations are provided: on one hand, this anomaly is most likely explained by limitations in the measurement of linguistic proficiency, especially among more advanced speakers, as suggested in the Chapter 6 (Freed, 1998; Llanes, 2011), and a more comprehensive measurement of linguistic proficiency, such as that utilised by Hernández (2010), would likely yield results resemblant of Gardner's (Gardner and Masgoret, 2003). The other explanation, also suggested in the previous chapter, is that those who ranked their motivational orientations as very high were perhaps unrealistic in their expectations for SA. This possibility then echoes the sentiments of Kinginger (2008) and Pellegrino-Aveni (2005), who discuss how unrealistic expectations can impact negatively on SA experiences.

As a result, it is clear that the link between motivation, attitude and linguistic gains is likely much more complex than the dichotomous relationship originally suggested by Gardner (Gardner and Lambert, 1959; Gardner, 1985b, 2000; Masgoret and Gardner, 2003). Moreover, Dörnyei (2009b, 2015) argues that the conceptualisation of a linear statistical relationship among motivation, attitude and linguistic gains, such as that in the socio-cultural model, leaves little room for the interpretation of variation and whether one variable can cause another to change.

Consequently, it is difficult to explain inconsistencies among the data by drawing on this framework alone. Additionally, many of the statements given by the participants include themes relating to meeting target-language speakers, thus adding to the likelihood of a relationship between motivation and language contact. Because of this, such themes are further explored in the coming chapters in order to gain a more comprehensive understanding of these factors. More specifically, the analysis focuses on the L2 Motivational Self System proposed by (Dörnyei (2005, 2009b) as to integrate the analysis of motivation and attitude to examine learner behaviour.

Further to the application of the socio-cultural model, the quantitative and qualitative data also reveal a number of interesting trends regarding motivation and SA, which aid in addressing Research Question 1 on the dynamic qualities of motivation in SA. Most notable is that motivation certainly evolved over time, and it appears as if certain experiences throughout the residence abroad may have negatively affected integrative orientations. Equally, this could reflect unmet expectations, such as those considered in the Chapter 6.

However, not all of the experiences observed were negative, as the qualitative data revealed a number of positive moments which may have served to boost motivation. Examples include Granada participant Jacob who felt positively about his language exchange partner, and Barcelona participants Jamie and Alyssa, who enrolled in Spanish-medium content classes. This points to there being a great variability in motivation among the individual students, thus highlighting the benefits of the qualitative analysis.

Furthermore, these fluctuations in motivations reflect several examples within the literature on American SA. More specifically, several of the American participants in the studies conducted by Isabelli-Garcia (2006) and Kinginger (2008) were also seen to withdraw from receptor-culture interaction in favour of spending time with fellow SA compatriots. Both authors cite a diminished motivation and certain unmet expectations as possible reasons for this withdrawal. Equally, other participants in their studies who did successfully integrate into their receptor-cultures also reported changes in what may be classed as attitudinal or motivational orientations throughout their residences abroad. Thus, the evidence supports the notion that these changes are typical for American SA students (See above), though the proportion of those students who maintain motivation and those who lose motivation is still largely unknown.

The theories presented by Wolcott (2013) regarding the 'cultural experiences' desired by American sojourners are also relevant to the current findings. The case study of Lola, for example, an American student in France, demonstrates how Americans might perceive cultural learning whilst following an American-style curricula abroad and exhibiting little effort to practice the target language. Throughout the case study, Lola stated that her primary goal for studying abroad in Paris was to experience French culture, yet Lola interacted rather infrequently with French interlocutors. Where one might assume that getting to know a receptor culture would involve language-learning and cultural integration, in Lola's story, this was not the case. Rather, she seemed to value her independence in exploring Paris, and was happy with the outcome of her experiences abroad without such integration or language-learning focus, according to Wolcott's (2013) discussion.

Wolcott's (2013) case study may also be useful in explaining why integrative orientations declined for many of the current participants: if 'cultural experiences' were a primary goal, which could be achieved without a great deal of L2 interaction or cultural integration, then perhaps these integrative motives may have diminished over time. This would also coincide with the T2 to T3 increase of 'Having Independence' as a motive, which reflects Lola's preference for independence to explore her host city, whilst participating in an American educational curriculum.

On the other hand, this result does not seem to match the decline in two motives directly relating to 'culture' (Motives 7 and 8) throughout the participants' residence abroad, adding even further complexities. Yet, here another parallel might be drawn with Wolcott's case study (2013), where Lola appeared to experience her receptor culture more as a spectator than as a member: if students can 'experience' a receptor culture as a spectator, without any means of interaction, then perhaps the efforts made to meet host locals may be unnecessary in order to achieve this goal from the perspective of the American students.

In either case, the notion that motivation is constantly fluctuating during a residence abroad is evident. Further studies conducted on learners from a variety of linguistic and cultural backgrounds echo this finding (Yu and Watkins, 2008; Koga, 2010; Papi, 2010; Allen, 2013; Kormos and Csizér, 2014), and many have linked this lack of integratively-oriented behaviours to a lack of linguistic development (Magnan and Back, 2007; Brown, 2009a; Allen, 2013; Jackson, 2013). Moreover, the analysis of the qualitative data also

reveals that changes in motivation tend to vary on an individual basis, thus limiting the number of conclusions that can be drawn from the quantitative data alone. As with the analysis of attitude, it appears that aspects of SA such as social contacts, service encounters, interactions with program staff and the academic program itself warrant specific investigation for their impact on individual learning experiences. It is therefore likely that the analysis of motivation, attitude and experiential data as a system (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009b) is more effective at explaining why such individual variation occurs in SA.

Chapter 8: Language Contact

As highlighted in previous chapters, many of the participants arrived in Spain with a positive attitude towards the SA experience and high motivation, particularly for integrating into the Spanish way of life in their respective program sites. Yet, in contrast to a number of previous studies (Gardner, 1985b; Masgoret and Gardner, 2003; Isabelli-Garcia, 2006; Coleman and Chafer, 2011; Llanes *et al.*, 2012; Coleman, 2015), neither affective factor was closely linked with linguistic gains; rather, the data suggested that a number of initial student expectations were not met, resulting in less positivity towards the residence abroad and a decline in integrative orientations. While the majority of the students did appear to make gains in their Spanish linguistic ability, neither attitude nor motivation appeared to relate statistically to these gains.

As positivity and integrative orientations tended to decline for the majority of students across both program sites, a focus was then placed on the participants' contact with the Spanish language while abroad. Along with motivation and attitude, language contact has also been established as one of the key factors contributing to linguistic development, as discussed in Section 2.6. As such, the exploration of this final individual difference uncovers any relationships between language contact, attitude and motivation. It also aims to disclose any connections between time spent interacting or studying in Spanish and subsequent linguistic gains.

Thus, the present investigation of language contact utilises both quantitative and qualitative methods to investigate this aspect of SA. Moreover, it deviates from more traditional data collection methods which focused principally on either the time spent interacting with the target language in any capacity or those investigating 'social networks' as defined by Milroy (1980) and Milroy and Milroy (1992). For more information on studies focusing on language contact and time-on-task data collection, and language contact as measured through social networks, see Chapters 2 and 3, and works such as Dewey *et al.* (2012), Freed *et al.* (2004a), Hernández (2010) and Watson and Wolfel (2015).

Instead, the collection and analysis of data regarding language contact in the current study focus primarily on the participants' relationships and language use across a number of different contexts. This method seeks to provide a more accurate overview of the

participants' target language use, particularly as it compares with first language use (Llanes *et al.*, 2012; Serrano *et al.*, 2012; Cigliana and Serrano, Forthcoming). It also aims to minimise potential inaccuracies in participants' self-reporting of time spent engaging with the target language (Magnan and Back, 2007; Amuzie and Winke, 2009; Cigliana, 2015; Cigliana and Serrano, Forthcoming). Furthermore, the observation and interview data were analysed in order to provide supplementary evidence of participant relationships and interactions in Spanish. These elements, along with analyses of motivation and attitude are used in further discussions of the participant group as a 'community of practice' (Wenger, 1998; Eckert, 2000; Eckert and Wenger, 2005) and how this might influence their target language use and relationship establishment while abroad (see Chapter 9).

The research tools used in the study have also been designed to highlight this methodology, as data collected regarding language contact can be analysed both qualitatively and quantitatively. Qualitative data is gathered by identifying key relationships among individuals based on questionnaire results as well as through the aforementioned observations and informal interviews. At the same time, quantitative data is also gathered using questionnaire results, as detailed in the methodology (See Section 3.4), which are analysed and calculated into a Language Contact Score (LCS) (Cigliana, 2015). This score accounts for both the frequency and intensity of interactions in the target language, and can be used as a means to compare language contact among groups or individuals as well as with other affective variables explored in the study.

This chapter therefore focuses primarily on the results of the LCS and how these scores relate to student experiences as documented through the questionnaire results, informal interviews and observations. It begins by examining the quantitative findings followed by an investigation of the qualitative results and a later discussion on any emerging trends in language contact and participant interactional patterns. It also explores any statistical relationship among language contact, attitude and motivation, and how these affective factors relate to student perceptions.

8.1 Quantitative Analysis

8.1.1 The Language Contact Score

As previously detailed in Section 3.4, the LCS incorporates data gathered from the second questionnaire by examining the participants' relationships with other individuals across four main contexts: At home, in institution or university settings, during free time and virtual interactions. The score itself takes into account the frequency of the interactions and the language used in interactions, and, by way of a weighted scale, places the highest numerical values on interactions which are frequent and exclusively in Spanish. In contrast, the scale also accounts for Spanish interactions which are infrequent by allotting them a lower value, whilst interactions exclusively in English receive a score of zero (Cigliana, 2015).

By assigning interactions a value in this way, the score not only accounts for the time spent interacting in Spanish, but also the potential benefits of the interactions to the participants' linguistic development. Such a distinction is important as Briggs (2015) comments on how many short interactions do not allow students to exercise more complex linguistic structures, thus limiting their potential benefits to L2 acquisition. Therefore, those receiving a low score are likely to have engaged in few meaningful interactions which may have benefited their linguistic development. On the other hand, those receiving relatively higher scores have engaged in many meaningful interactions which may have advanced their linguistic skills.

For each context, the maximum score any participant can achieve is 20, while the total LCS value incorporates all four contexts and thus has a maximum possible score of 80. The ratio of points scored out of a total possible 20 points, or 80 points in the case of the total LCS, thus indicates the amount of meaningful interactions a participant was likely to have during their residence abroad in each context. This can subsequently be compared with scores of other participants or across different contexts. The scores of the participants as a whole are first represented by context and then using the combined LCS results. Separate Barcelona and Granada group analyses follow.

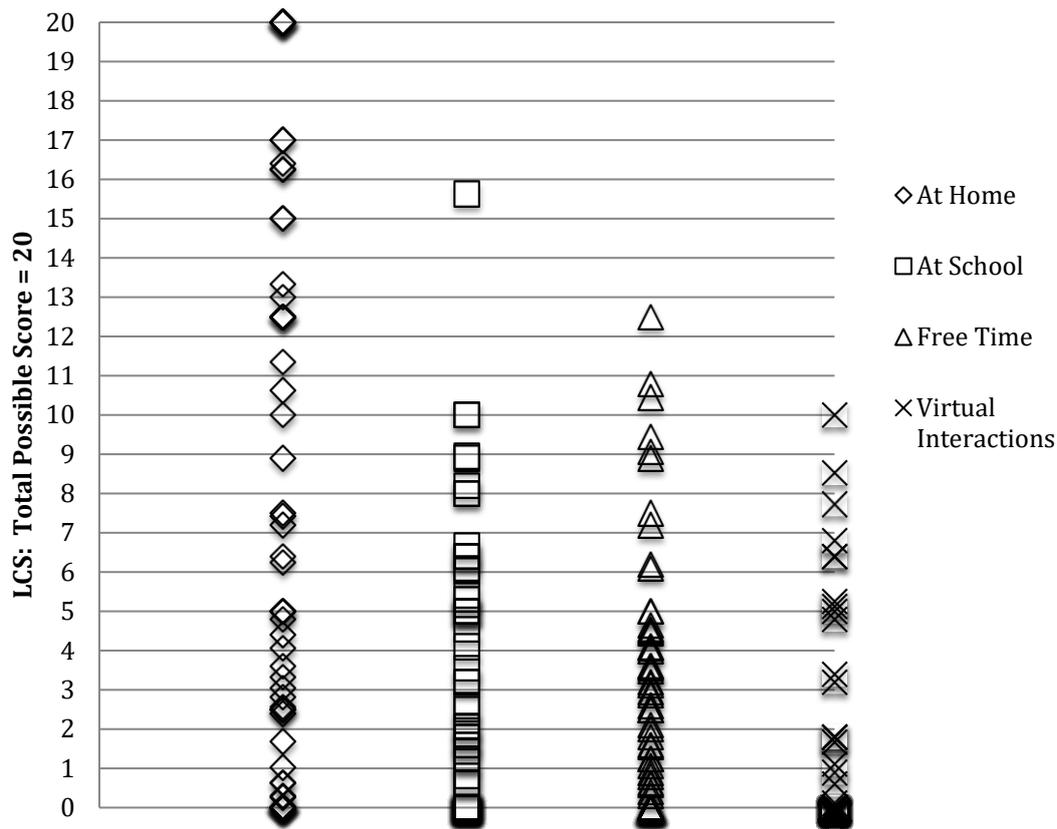


Figure 8-1: Language Contact Scores by Interactional Context

Table 8-1: Descriptive Statistics for Language Contact Scores

Context of Use	Mean Score	Median Score	Participants with and LCS <10	Participants with an LCS ≥10
At Home/20	7.09	4.60	42	26
At School/20	2.83	1.43	65	3
Free Time/20	2.56	1.41	65	3
Virtual/20	1.12	0	67	1

N= 68

Figure 8-1 provides a visual representation of the LCS score results for all participants and across all four contexts while Table 8-1 provides the numerical data for each score group, including mean and median scores. As indicated by both Figure 8-1 and Table 8-1, it is clear that most meaningful Spanish-language interactions took place in the participants' residences, which include homestays, share flats and halls of residence. In contrast, very few meaningful interactions in Spanish appeared to take place outside of the participants'

homes, with the fewest interactions occurring virtually. Surprisingly, very few students appear to be interacting in Spanish more frequently than they do in English, while Figure 8-2 demonstrates that some participants had almost no contact with the Spanish language across all of the contexts examined.

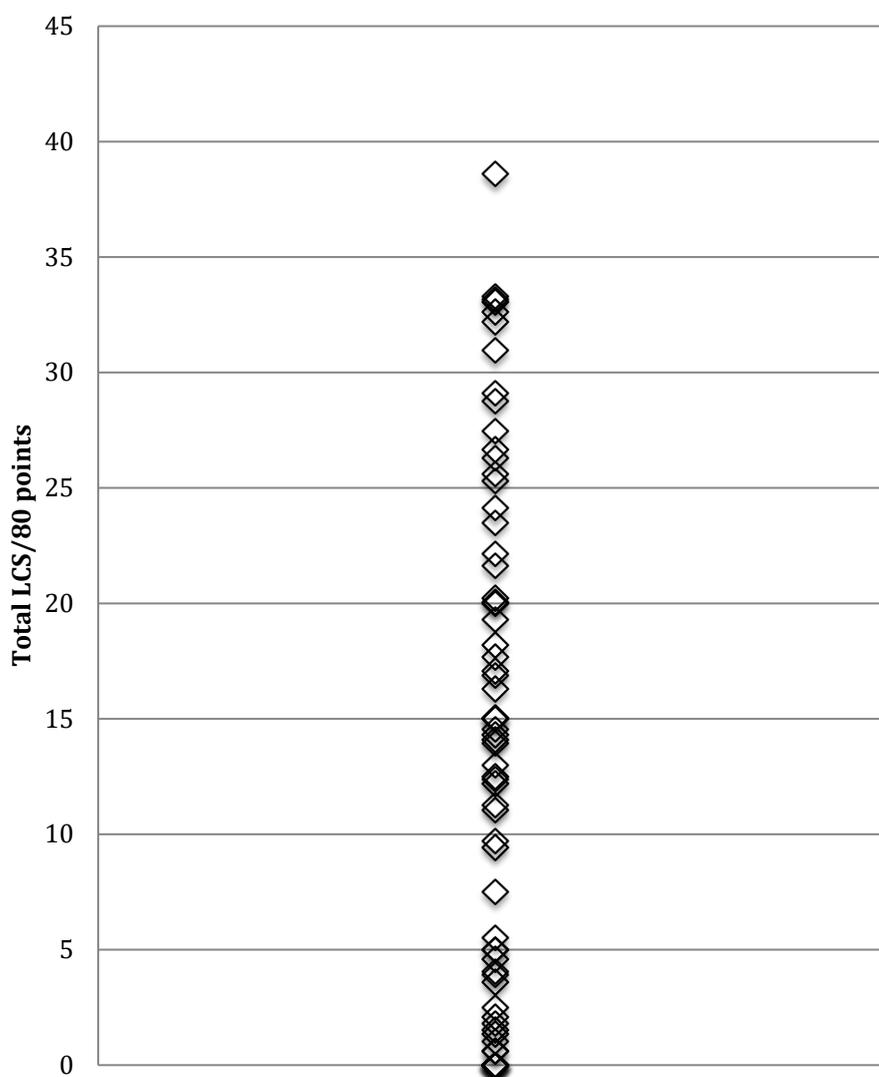


Figure 8-2: Total Language Contact Score Results

Figure 8-2 represents the total LCS for all participants, which was calculated by combining the separate LCS scores from each examined context (N= 68; Mean= 13.59; Median= 13.47). Furthermore, the data reveal that no single participant received a LCS greater than 40, suggesting that English was still the predominant language for the majority of the participants across all social contexts examined. A number of participants (N= 10) were

also determined to have no regular contact with Spanish across any of the aforementioned contexts.

The results of the LCS analyses as separated by program site also reveal a number of interesting trends. Table 8-2 provides the LCS data from the Barcelona and Granada groups separately. Corresponding figures are found in Appendix H. As demonstrated by the data, the Granada group appears to have noticeably higher Language Contact Scores on average, apart from those in the ‘Virtual Interactions’ category. Also, the trend of most meaningful interactions occurring within the participants’ residences is maintained, though with generally few interactions occurring within the residences of the Barcelona participants.

Table 8-2: Descriptive Statistics for Language Contact Scores (BCN and GRA)

Context of Use	Program Site	Mean Score	Median Score	Participants with and LCS <10	Participants with an LCS ≥10
At Home/20	Barcelona	3.53	0.83	38	4
	Granada	12.84	12.50	6	20
At School/20	Barcelona	1.19	0	40	2
	Granada	4.32	4.28	25	1
Free Time/20	Barcelona	2.03	0.46	41	1
	Granada	3.40	2.78	25	1
Virtual/20	Barcelona	1.12	0	41	1
	Granada	1.12	0	26	0

Barcelona: N= 42; Granada: N= 26

These assumptions were further tested using the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U Test, which was employed to test the statistical significance between the scores of the two groups. The results of the test are shown in Table 8-3, and the differences in meaningful language contact between the two groups are statistically significant, with the Granada group having significantly more contact than the Barcelona group in all contexts apart from ‘Virtual Interactions.’

Table 8-3: Significance of Differences in Language Contact Scores by Context

Context of Use	Program Site	N	Mean Rank	Z	p
At Home/20	Barcelona	42	24.50	-5.348	.000
	Granada	26	50.65		
At School/20	Barcelona	42	28.29	-3.403	.001
	Granada	26	44.54		
Free Time/20	Barcelona	42	30.52	-2.220	.026
	Granada	26	41.10		
Virtual/20	Barcelona	42	34.07	-.287	.774
	Granada	26	35.19		

Barcelona: N= 42; Granada: N= 26

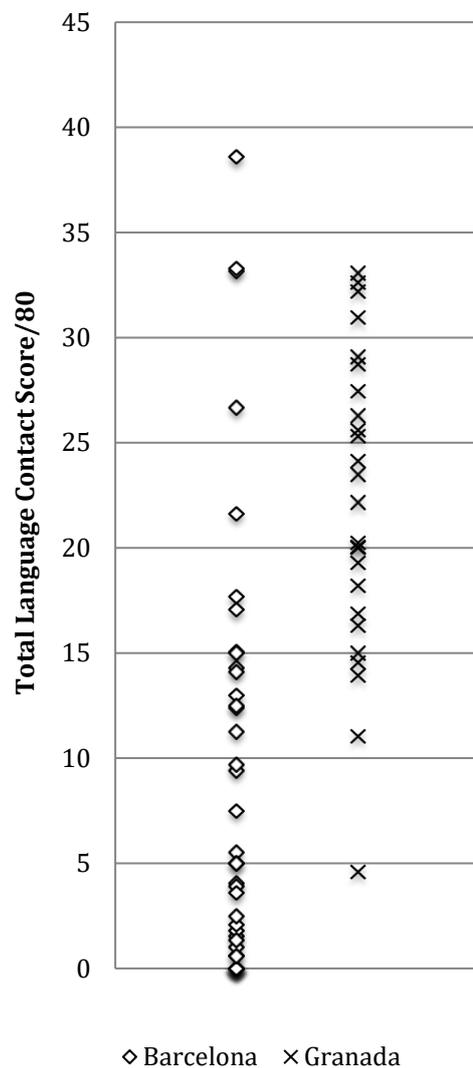
**Figure 8-3: Total Language Contact Score Results (BCN and GRA)**

Table 8-4: Total Language Contact Score Results (BCN v. GRA)

	Program Site	Mean Score	Median Score
Total Language	Barcelona	8.59	4.53
Contact Score/80	Granada	21.67	21.20

Similar analyses were also conducted by comparing the total LCS data between the two groups. As with the individual components, Figure 8-3 highlights the differences between the two groups' overall language contact while Table 8-4 provides the mean and median scores for each. Figure 8-3 also demonstrates that all of the Granada participants had some kind of regular language contact, while some Barcelona participants had little to no language contact across the examined social contexts.

Furthermore, Table 8-5 provides the results of another Mann-Whitney U Test, which confirms that the Granada group had more overall language contact than the Barcelona group, and that the result is statistically significant.

Table 8-5: Significance of Differences in Total Language Contact Scores

	Program Site	N	Mean Rank	Z	p
Total Language	Barcelona	42	25.37	-4.847	.000
Contact Score	Granada	26	49.25		

Finally, it is necessary to establish whether language contact, as measured by the LCS, has any statistical relationships with overall proficiency or linguistic gains. These assumptions were tested by employing a series of Spearman's Rank Order (Rho) Correlations, which were again selected as some of the data did not meet the criteria for normality required for the implementation of parametric measures. The participants are first analysed as a whole and later separated into groups based on program site.

Table 8-6: LCS Results and Correlations with Linguistic Proficiency

		1st Exam Score	2nd Exam Score	Score Difference	A2 Section Score Difference	B2 Section Score Difference	C1 Section Score Difference
At Home LCS	Rho	.238	.219	-.011	-.103	-.049	.023
	p	.050	.126	.937	.478	.737	.877
	N	68	50	50	50	50	50
At School LCS	Rho	.293*	.537**	.165	-.004	-.023	.184
	p	.015	.000	.251	.975	.876	.200
	N	68	50	50	50	50	50
Free Time LCS	Rho	.313**	.243	-.118	-.144	-.206	.086
	p	.009	.088	.413	.319	.152	.552
	N	68	50	50	50	50	50
Virtual Interactions LCS	Rho	.232	.289*	-.012	-.052	-.073	.087
	p	.057	.042	.936	.718	.612	.546
	N	68	50	50	50	50	50
Total Language Contact Score	Rho	.418**	.390**	-.040	-.125	-.101	.070
	p	.000	.005	.781	.386	.484	.630
	N	68	50	50	50	50	50

Table 8-6 demonstrates the results of the LCS correlational analyses, including the first proficiency exam scores, final proficiency exam scores and the differences between them. As seen in Table 8-6, very few statistically significant relationships were revealed by the Spearman's Rho measures, and no significant relationships were established between linguistic development, as measured by the exam score differences, and Language Contact Scores. Interestingly, however, the initial proficiency exam scores did correlate with certain measures of language contact, particularly language contact during free time (N= 68, rho= .313, p = .009), at school or in academic settings (N= 68, rho= .293, p = .015) and a near correlation with language contact at home (N= 68, rho= .238, p = .050). Similar results were also revealed for language contact and final proficiency exam scores, wherein language contact at school (N= 50, rho= .537, p ≤ .0005) and in virtual interactions (N= 50, rho= .289, p = .042) was statistically related to higher final exam scores.

Perhaps the most notable relationship is found between the combined LCS and both initial (N= 68, rho= .418, p ≤ .0005) and final proficiency exam scores (N= 50, rho= .390, p = .005). While these results cannot determine that an initial pre-program proficiency will automatically lead to increased language contact, they suggest that those with a higher initial proficiency may be more successful at utilising their Spanish more often outside of

the classroom. The results also indicate that language contact may be related to higher final proficiency exam scores, though the exact nature of language contact's role in linguistic development is likely much more complex, and a causal relationship cannot be established using correlation alone.

Correlation analyses conducted on the separate Barcelona and Granada groups provide even further insight. For instance, Table 8-7 provides the Spearman's Rho results for the Barcelona group wherein only one statistically significant relationship was revealed. Higher initial proficiency exam scores were significantly correlated with language contact in virtual interactions (N= 42, rho= .383, $p = .012$); however this appears to be the only statistical relationship between language contact and linguistic proficiency or development. This connection with virtual interactions in Spanish may be a result of the few heritage speakers among the Barcelona group, who reported communicating with family members in the US and elsewhere abroad. On the other hand, the nonexistence of other statistical relationships among these participants may be explained by the overall lack of language contact experienced by the Barcelona group.

Table 8-7: LCS Results and Correlations with Linguistic Proficiency (Barcelona)

		1st Exam Score	2nd Exam Score	Score Difference	A2 Section Score Difference	B2 Section Score Difference	C1 Section Score Difference
At Home LCS	Rho	-.046	-.214	-.273	-.070	-.035	-.319
	p	.771	.273	.159	.722	.860	.097
	N	42	28	28	28	28	28
At School LCS	Rho	.217	.309	-.081	-.025	-.129	.002
	p	.168	.110	.683	.898	.513	.990
	N	42	28	28	28	28	28
Free Time LCS	Rho	.263	.175	-.086	-.252	.005	.004
	p	.092	.373	.665	.197	.980	.986
	N	42	28	28	28	28	28
Virtual Interactions LCS	Rho	.383*	.352	-.161	-.165	-.154	.062
	p	.012	.066	.412	.401	.433	.754
	N	42	28	28	28	28	28
Total Language Contact Score	Rho	.270	.158	-.234	-.241	-.042	-.051
	p	.084	.423	.231	.217	.834	.796
	N	42	28	28	28	28	28

Table 8-8: LCS Results and Linguistic Proficiency (Granada)

		1st Exam Score	2nd Exam Score	Score Differenc e	A2 Section Score Difference	B2 Section Score Difference	C1 Section Score Difference
At Home LCS	Rho	.303	.300	-.062	-.091	-.070	.066
	<i>p</i>	.132	.175	.785	.687	.758	.771
	N	26	22	22	22	22	22
At School LCS	Rho	.263	.489*	.095	.209	-.136	.064
	<i>p</i>	.195	.021	.674	.349	.547	.778
	N	26	22	22	22	22	22
Free Time LCS	Rho	.223	-.023	-.365	-.028	-.509*	-.037
	<i>p</i>	.274	.918	.095	.900	.016	.868
	N	26	22	22	22	22	22
Virtual Interactions LCS	Rho	-.053	.250	.191	.111	.039	.124
	<i>p</i>	.798	.262	.393	.624	.863	.581
	N	26	22	22	22	22	22
Total Language Contact Score	Rho	.484*	.491*	-.151	.051	-.274	.025
	<i>p</i>	.012	.020	.503	.821	.217	.911
	N	26	22	22	22	22	22

The findings for the Granada participants are similarly non-significant in most cases, as seen in Table 8-8, wherein one of the only few significant correlations was found between final exam scores and language contact at school or in academic settings ($N= 22$, $\rho= .489$, $p= .021$). The most notable difference, however, is seen between the proficiency exam scores and the combined LCS as both higher initial ($N= 26$, $\rho= .484$, $p= .012$) and higher final scores ($N= 22$, $\rho= .491$, $p= .020$) were positively correlated with higher Language Contact Scores. Again, this marked difference may be a result of the Granada group reporting more language contact overall while the Barcelona group reported less contact, yet these relatively strong correlations certainly draw a connection between linguistic proficiency and social interactions in Spanish that warrants further investigation.

In summary, though these results cannot establish a causal relationship between language contact and increased linguistic development or overall proficiency, they do indicate that those participants with higher initial proficiency levels tended to have more meaningful interactions in Spanish than those with lower initial proficiency levels. This is most likely due to limitations in the design of the proficiency exam, as previously noted in Chapters 6 and 7. These findings also suggest that a higher frequency of meaningful contact, such as was common among the Granada participants, may actually be determinant of reaching a

more advanced proficiency level, a trend which was not demonstrated among the Barcelona participants who had significantly less contact. However, as a positive correlation already exists between initial and final proficiency exam scores, further exploration is indeed needed in order to identify the benefits of social interactions in Spanish for these participants.

8.1.2 Language Contact, Attitude and Motivation

The previous analyses have suggested that language contact, as represented by the comprehensive LCS, does appear to have a statistical relationship with pre-program proficiency. In addition, it appears that those with a higher LCS tend to achieve higher scores on their final proficiency exams. However, a causal link between language contact and linguistic gains cannot be established, thus suggesting that other affective factors may be impacting on the learners' experiences and subsequent linguistic development abroad. As mentioned in the introductory section of this chapter, language contact has long been considered key to making linguistic gains while abroad (Freed, 1990; Byram and Feng, 2006; DuFon and Churchill, 2006; Dewey, 2008); yet, it has also been argued that factors such as attitude and motivation can actually encourage L2 social interaction (Noels *et al.*, 1996; Dörnyei and Skehan, 2003; Masgoret, 2006; Coleman and Chafer, 2011; Kormos *et al.*, 2013), and as such, their relationship with language contact should be explored.

In order to investigate any potential relationships between language contact, attitude and motivation, a series of Spearman's Rho Correlations were again implemented. The participants are first analysed as a group and subsequently divided according to program site. Also, as this is only an exploratory quantitative analysis, only the main scale variables were selected for correlation; in depth analyses of the interrelationships of language contact, attitude and motivation are discussed in Chapter 9.

Correlational analyses were first conducted in order to uncover any relationships between language contact and attitude. The results, as shown in Table 8-9, reveal a number of positive relationships between positive attitude and language contact; however, the strength of the correlations diminished over time, possibly due to overall positivity diminishing over the course of the participants' time abroad (see Chapter 6). Only language contact at school or in academic contexts maintained its statistical relationship with

attitude as it changes over the course of the semester abroad, while no significant relationship was established between language contact in virtual interactions and attitude.

Table 8-9: LSC Results and Correlations with Attitude

		Total A/P Time 1	Total A/P Time 2	Total A/P Time 3
Total Language Contact Score	Rho	.484**	.379**	.304
	<i>p</i>	.000	.001	.080
	N	65	68	34
At Home LCS	Rho	.336**	.291*	.098
	<i>p</i>	.006	.016	.582
	N	65	68	34
At School LCS	Rho	.492**	.312**	.413*
	<i>p</i>	.000	.010	.015
	N	65	68	34
Free Time LCS	Rho	.366**	.334**	.277
	<i>p</i>	.003	.005	.113
	N	65	68	34
Virtual Interactions LCS	Rho	.130	.086	.274
	<i>p</i>	.301	.486	.117
	N	65	68	34

The correlative relationship between language contact and integrative motivation, however, appears to demonstrate the opposite trend, as shown in Table 8-10. Where the correlation between attitude and language contact became less significant over time, the correlation between ‘Total Integrative Motivation’ and language contact actually became stronger. This trend may be expected insofar as integrative orientations reflect an individual’s desire to connect with the receptor culture; yet, this result is particularly noteworthy as the ‘Total Integrative Motivation’ scores decreased significantly over the course of the semester abroad (see Chapter 7).

Table 8-10: LCS Results and Correlations with Motivation

		Total Integrative Motivation Time 1	Total Integrative Motivation Time 2	Total Integrative Motivation Time 3	Total Instrum. Motivation Time 1	Total Instrum. Motivation Time 2	Total Instrum. Motivation Time 3
Total Language Contact Score	Rho	.461**	.417**	.019	.006	.008	.553**
	<i>p</i>	.000	.000	.881	.961	.963	.001
	N	65	68	65	68	34	33
At Home LCS	Rho	.333**	.302*	-.008	-.053	-.122	.349*
	<i>p</i>	.007	.012	.949	.666	.494	.047
	N	65	68	65	68	34	33
At School LCS	Rho	.410**	.316**	-.039	-.030	.159	.458**
	<i>p</i>	.001	.009	.759	.809	.368	.007
	N	65	68	65	68	34	33
Free Time LCS	Rho	.328**	.367**	.048	.066	.015	.476**
	<i>p</i>	.008	.002	.704	.595	.932	.005
	N	65	68	65	68	34	33
Virtual Interactions LCS	Rho	.183	.176	.130	.139	.058	.267
	<i>p</i>	.145	.151	.302	.258	.743	.133
	N	65	68	65	68	34	33

Thus, these results indicate that those who maintained their integrative motivation were actually those with the highest Language Contact Scores. Again, a causal relationship cannot be established through correlation alone, but the data reveal a strong connection between these two variables, despite integrative orientations decreasing for most of the participants. While data was only collected for the LCS on one occasion, the increasing strength of the statistical relationship suggests that this connection is not coincidental and that further analyses of qualitative data may be necessary in order to investigate this trend.

In contrast, no significant relationships were revealed between language contact and instrumental motivation (see Table 8-10), suggesting that perhaps instrumental motivations have a less salient link with language contact when compared to integrative orientations. This is a notion which is highly contested in SLA literature (Gardner, 1985b; Dörnyei, 2009b; Gardner, 2010; Ushioda and Dörnyei, 2012; Allen, 2013; Trenchs-Parera and Juan-Garau, 2014); however, a lack of statistical significance should not automatically discount role of instrumental orientations in SA. As such, further exploration of this

assumption is given in Chapter 9, wherein the role of motivation as a whole within this SLA context will be examined.

The results of the correlations for the participants as a whole reveal significant relationships between language contact, and attitude and integrative motivation. However, as the participants are divided by program site a number of differences emerge.

Firstly, the statistical relationships between attitude and language contact differed greatly between the two groups: attitude significantly correlated with language contact for the Barcelona group, but this was not the case for the Granada group (see Table 8-11). More specifically, positive attitude among the Barcelona participants positively correlated with the total LCS as well as with language contact at school and during free time. Again, the statistical significance of the correlations diminished for the final measures of attitude; however, as no statistically significant relationships exist between the LCS and attitude for the Granada group, the results are particularly noteworthy. Such a lack of significant relationships between the variables may be a reflection of the already higher reported measures of attitude and language contact for the Granada participants, resulting in fewer statistical relationships because of such homogenous data. For the Barcelona participants, on the other hand, this connection may suggest that those who maintained their positive attitude, despite the challenges of adjusting to a new culture, were those who successfully established relationships with Spanish-speakers.

Table 8-11: LCS Results and Correlations with Attitude (BCN and GRA)

Barcelona or Granada			Total A/P Time 1	Total A/P Time 2	Total A/P Time 3	
Barcelona	Total Language Contact Score	Rho	.385*	.403**	.234	
		<i>p</i>	.015	.008	.336	
		N	39	42	19	
	At Home LCS	Rho	.137	.233	-.107	
		<i>p</i>	.406	.137	.664	
		N	39	42	19	
	At School LCS	Rho	.455**	.477**	.455	
		<i>p</i>	.004	.001	.051	
		N	39	42	19	
	Free Time LCS	Rho	.329*	.362*	.320	
		<i>p</i>	.041	.019	.181	
		N	39	42	19	
	Virtual Interactions LCS	Rho	.200	.124	.364	
		<i>p</i>	.222	.436	.126	
		N	39	42	19	
	Granada	Total Language Contact Score	Rho	.353	.005	.305
			<i>p</i>	.077	.980	.269
			N	26	26	15
At Home LCS		Rho	.122	.005	.200	
		<i>p</i>	.553	.982	.474	
		N	26	26	15	
At School LCS		Rho	.334	-.180	.175	
		<i>p</i>	.095	.379	.533	
		N	26	26	15	
Free Time LCS		Rho	.165	.095	.025	
		<i>p</i>	.421	.643	.929	
		N	26	26	15	
Virtual Interactions LCS		Rho	-.133	-.154	.097	
		<i>p</i>	.518	.451	.730	
		N	26	26	15	

Table 8-12: LCS Results and Correlations with Integrative Motivation (BCN and GRA)

Barcelona or Granada			Total	Total	Total
			Integrative Motivation Time 1	Integrative Motivation Time 2	Integrative Motivation Time 3
Barcelona	Total Language Contact Score	Rho	.395*	.362*	.505*
		<i>p</i>	.013	.018	.032
		N	39	42	18
	At Home LCS	Rho	.144	.145	.156
		<i>p</i>	.381	.361	.537
		N	39	42	18
	At School LCS	Rho	.393*	.391*	.511*
		<i>p</i>	.013	.010	.030
		N	39	42	18
Free Time LCS	Rho	.369*	.409**	.495*	
	<i>p</i>	.021	.007	.037	
	N	39	42	18	
Virtual Interactions LCS	Rho	.238	.220	.339	
	<i>p</i>	.145	.162	.169	
	N	39	42	18	
Granada	Total Language Contact Score	Rho	.018	-.062	.569*
		<i>p</i>	.931	.765	.027
		N	26	26	15
	At Home LCS	Rho	-.059	-.137	.410
		<i>p</i>	.773	.506	.129
		N	26	26	15
	At School LCS	Rho	.026	-.266	.242
		<i>p</i>	.901	.189	.385
		N	26	26	15
	Free Time LCS	Rho	-.128	.056	.259
		<i>p</i>	.534	.785	.352
		N	26	26	15
	Virtual Interactions LCS	Rho	.051	.024	.059
		<i>p</i>	.805	.909	.836
		N	26	26	15

Table 8-13: LCS Results and Correlations with Instrumental Motivation (BCN and GRA)

Barcelona or Granada			Total	Total	Total
			Instrumental Motivation Time 1	Instrumental Motivation Time 2	Instrumental Motivation Time 3
Barcelona	Total Language Contact Score	Rho	.042	.105	-.048
		<i>p</i>	.799	.509	.844
		N	39	42	19
	At Home LCS	Rho	.028	.018	-.258
		<i>p</i>	.866	.910	.286
		N	39	42	19
	At School LCS	Rho	-.013	.063	.152
		<i>p</i>	.936	.693	.535
		N	39	42	19
Free Time LCS	Rho	.106	.206	.176	
	<i>p</i>	.523	.191	.472	
	N	39	42	19	
Virtual Interactions LCS	Rho	.253	.248	.161	
	<i>p</i>	.120	.113	.511	
	N	39	42	19	
Granada	Total Language Contact Score	Rho	.111	.084	.106
		<i>p</i>	.590	.685	.708
		N	26	26	15
	At Home LCS	Rho	.046	-.014	.058
		<i>p</i>	.822	.946	.839
		N	26	26	15
	At School LCS	Rho	.148	.107	.277
		<i>p</i>	.470	.602	.318
		N	26	26	15
	Free Time LCS	Rho	-.003	-.057	-.289
		<i>p</i>	.988	.781	.296
		N	26	26	15
	Virtual Interactions LCS	Rho	-.088	-.107	-.157
		<i>p</i>	.670	.603	.575
		N	26	26	15

A similar trend was noted in the correlation results for language contact and integrative motivation, as shown in Table 8-12. Again, the Barcelona results show a positive correlation between language contact and integrative motivation as measured throughout the participants' stay abroad. The Granada results, on the other hand, show a similar lack of statistical relationships; however, a strong, positive relationship was established between the final measures of integrative motivation and the total Language Contact Scores ($N= 15$, $\rho= .569$, $p= .027$), reflecting their counterparts in Barcelona in this instance. As mentioned previously, this result may be expected for the Granada participants whose range of responses towards integrative orientations and language contact across the three questionnaires was much smaller than that of the Barcelona group. Alternatively, these findings may also reinforce the notion that those in Barcelona who maintained their integrative orientations were those who most often socialised with Spanish-speakers, while those who reported fewer integrative orientations over time had fewer social relationships with Spanish-speakers.

Finally, a series of Spearman's Rho Correlations was conducted in order to establish any relationships between language contact and measures of instrumental motivation, and, as with the whole-group analysis, no significant relationships were revealed (see Table 8-13). While these results cannot wholly discount the role of instrumental orientations in Spanish-language acquisition, again, they suggest that instrumental motivation perhaps plays a less significant role in the establishment of social relationships while abroad. As this dichotomy of instrumental and integrative orientations is often deliberated throughout SLA literature (Gardner, 1985b; Dörnyei, 2009b; Gardner, 2010; Ushioda and Dörnyei, 2012; Allen, 2013; Trenchs-Parera and Juan-Garau, 2014), further considerations to these aspects of motivation are given in Chapter 9.

8.1.3 Language Contact in the Classroom

Though not a principal focus of the present study, another measure of language contact involves the amount of time participants spend taking classes in which Spanish is the medium of instruction. As this measure does not deal specifically with social interactions, it is analysed separately from the LCS. Furthermore, because the exact nature of the language used in the classroom was unknown and whether, if at all, the content was supported using English, or potentially Catalan for the Barcelona group, the analysis of

Spanish in the classroom is used as a secondary source of information to support the LCS data. See Section 1.3 for more details on the participants' academic program structure.

Table 8-14: Classroom Hours Taught in Spanish and English

	Mean Class Hours/Week: Spanish	Mean Class Hours/ Week: English	Mean Rank: Spanish Class Hours	Z	p
All Participants	7.58	10.39			
Barcelona Only	4.57	12.83	23.40	-5.851	.000
Granada Only	14.12	3.88	51.17		

All Participants: N= 66; Barcelona: N= 42; Granada: N= 24

Table 8-14 reveals the number of hours per week that the participants reported spending in both Spanish-medium and English-medium classes. The table also highlights the differences between the number of hours of Spanish-language instruction between the two groups, and a Mann-Whitney U Test confirms that the Granada group had significantly more class hours in Spanish than their peers in Barcelona. Further analyses reveal that the majority of Granada participants also enrolled in regular content modules taught in Spanish (N= 19/24) while only six Barcelona participants out of a total 42 enrolled in such modules.

This finding is significant as Vande Berg *et al.* (2009) have noted that U.S. students who enrolled in target-language-medium content modules while abroad tended to make more linguistic gains than their classmates who studied English-medium content modules. Cigliana and Serrano (Forthcoming) also found links between Spanish-medium classes and linguistic gains for American students in Spain. While, again, the link between language contact within the classroom and linguistic gains was not a focus of the study, this assumption is worth exploration.

A series of Spearman's Rho Correlations was subsequently conducted in order to establish any relationship between linguistic gains, as measured by the proficiency exam scores, and the number of hours per week of classes where Spanish was the official medium of instruction. Because very few Barcelona participants had enrolled in Spanish-medium content modules apart from their obligatory Spanish-language classes, the Barcelona and Granada groups were examined as a whole for these analyses.

First, the Spearman's Rho correlations established a positive relationship between pre-program proficiency, as measured by the first proficiency exam, and enrolment in optional Spanish-medium content modules (N= 66, $\rho = .489$, $p \leq .0005$). This suggests that those who opted to enrol in Spanish-medium content modules typically had a higher pre-program proficiency when compared to their classmates; however, this was not the case for all students with such higher proficiency as some still chose English-medium modules. Next, the number of Spanish-class hours was analysed along with the differences between the first and second proficiency exam scores; however, no significant relationship could be found (N= 48, $\rho = .162$, $p = .272$).

Yet, upon further investigation, the number of Spanish-class hours was found to be positively correlated with improvement in the most challenging section of the proficiency exam, corresponding to CEFR level C1 (N= 48, $\rho = .352$, $p = .014$), suggesting that those who studied content modules in Spanish actually made more gains in these more advanced skills. In addition, a positive relationship was also found between Spanish-class hours and the final proficiency exam scores (N= 48, $\rho = .613$, $p \leq .0005$), a correlation that was actually stronger than that between initial exam scores and Spanish-content module enrolment.

While these findings cannot determine a causal link between time spent in a classroom where Spanish is the medium of instruction and linguistic gains, the results do point to enrollment in L2-medium modules as yet another variable which may impact on linguistic development abroad (Coleman, 2009). As this very preliminary study into the effects of L2-medium content modules on linguistic development has revealed a number of interesting trends, this area of study certainly warrants future investigation.

8.1.4 Other Trends in Language Contact

The aforementioned findings have established that the Barcelona group tended to have fewer interactions in Spanish than their counterparts in Granada. They also suggest that affective factors such as attitude and integrative orientations had a stronger connection to language contact for the Barcelona participants when compared to the Granada group. Yet, the data reveal additional aspects of the SA context which may be related to language contact. These factors include the students' type of residence while abroad and their interactions in Spanish with native English speakers; while, again, these elements were not

intended as a main focus of the present study, they may provide supplementary evidence in the analysis of language contact.

Foremost in this supplementary analysis is residence type, which has been a key subject within a number of previous investigations regarding SA (Pellegrino, 1997; Wilkinson, 1997; Rivers, 1998; Allen, 2013; Tali and Kinginger, 2013; Dewey *et al.*, 2014; Di Silvio *et al.*, 2015; Kinginger, 2015). More specifically, some studies have shown significant benefits for accommodation abroad in homestays with a target-language-speaking family or individual (Castañeda and Zirger, 2011; Coleman and Chafer, 2011; Spenader, 2011; Allen, 2013; Tali and Kinginger, 2013; Kinginger, 2015; Shiri, 2015), while others have reported that homestays do not necessarily provide an advantage for students abroad in terms of language acquisition (Rivers, 1998; Tanaka, 2007; Martinsen, 2010; Dewey *et al.*, 2014; Conroy, 2016).

As such, a series of Mann-Whitney U Tests was conducted in order to recognize any differences in terms of language contact and language acquisition based on residence type. As only one participant in the study resided in a university hall of residence, quantitative analyses were focused on homestays and shared apartments. The Barcelona and Granada participants were also analysed as a whole in this instance as only 20 total participants resided in a homestay. It should again be noted that all apartments were shared with at least one other non-participant; however, the ethnic and linguistic backgrounds of these housemates varied across both program sites. In total, 39 of the Barcelona participants and eight of the Granada participants surveyed resided in shared apartments. Three of the Barcelona participants and 17 of the Granada participants surveyed resided in homestays.

Table 8-15: LCS Results and Residence Type

Residence Type Abroad		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	p
Total Language Contact Score	Apartment	47	25.65	1205.50	-5.387	.000
	Homestay	20	53.63	1072.50		
	Total	67				
At Home LCS	Apartment	47	24.95	1172.50	-5.885	.000
	Homestay	20	55.28	1105.50		
	Total	67				
At School LCS	Apartment	47	29.36	1380.00	-3.091	.002
	Homestay	20	44.90	898.00		
	Total	67				
Free Time LCS	Apartment	47	31.32	1472.00	-1.773	.076
	Homestay	20	40.30	806.00		
	Total	67				
Virtual Interactions LCS	Apartment	47	34.74	1633.00	-.615	.539
	Homestay	20	32.25	645.00		
	Total	67				

Table 8-16: Residence Type, Pre-program Proficiency and Linguistic Gains

Residence Type Abroad		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	p
1st Exam Score	Apartment	47	30.03	1411.50	-2.568	.010
	Homestay	20	43.33	866.50		
	Total	67				
2nd Exam Score	Apartment	31	21.05	652.50	-2.554	.011
	Homestay	18	31.81	572.50		
	Total	49				
Score Difference	Apartment	31	24.08	746.50	-.600	.548
	Homestay	18	26.58	478.50		
	Total	49				

Tables 8-15 and 8-16 provide the results of the Mann-Whitney U Tests measuring both language contact and linguistic gains respectively. As seen in Table 8-15, those in homestays did appear to have more social contact with Spanish than those residing in shared apartments. This trend is true of the total LCS, as well as language contact specifically in the home and at school or in academic environments. In contrast, no significant difference was found for language contact during free time or in virtual interactions.

As such, these results appear to support the notion that homestays may lead to more contact within the home environment and, interestingly, more contact in social encounters at school. However, as supported in Table 8-15, it should be noted that the majority of homestay participants were studying in Granada and were typically those with an already higher pre-program proficiency. Being that the Granada participants typically began their stay abroad with higher pre-program proficiency levels and were already found to have higher Language Contact Scores, the above statistics are more difficult to interpret.

Where statistical analyses could not be conducted because of the limited number of participants in each residence category, a comparison of mean Language Contact Scores provides some insight (See Table 8-17). For instance, all three Barcelona participants reported speaking with their host families daily and spoke exclusively Spanish at home. In contrast, many Granada participants lived in a homestay with another program participant or other student, which resulted in their mean 'At Home' LCS being slightly less than their Barcelona counterparts because they spoke in English with their other homestay housemate(s). The mean total LCS was also higher for the three Barcelona homestay participants, which may be a reflection of the language contact/integrative orientations connection shown in Table 8-12.

Interestingly, these results also reflect a conclusion made by Dewey *et al.* (2014), who found that homestay participants did tend to have more contact with the L2 at home, but not necessarily in other social contexts. While the Barcelona homestay participants did appear to have more L2 contact in other social situations when compared to those in shared apartments, the difference is much less defined among the more homogenous Granada participants. It is also important to note that two of the Barcelona participants had no contact with Spanish in one or more other social contexts as denoted by the minimum scores of zero for the other Language Contact Scores.

Table 8-17: Descriptive Statistics for Residence Type and Language Contact

Barcelona or Granada		N	Range	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD	
Barcelona	Apartment	At Home LCS	39	20.00	0.00	20.00	2.27	3.714
		At School LCS	39	10.00	0.00	10.00	1.82	2.969
		Free Time LCS	39	9.07	0.00	9.07	1.79	2.604
		Virtual Interactions LCS	39	10.00	0.00	10.00	.98	2.284
		Total Language Contact Score	39	38.60	0.00	38.60	6.87	8.219
	Homestay	At Home LCS	3	0.00	20.00	20.00	20.00	0.000
		At School LCS	3	6.67	0.00	6.67	3.06	3.370
		Free Time LCS	3	10.80	0.00	10.80	5.15	5.418
		Virtual Interactions LCS	3	8.53	0.00	8.53	2.84	4.925
		Total Language Contact Score	3	6.63	26.67	33.30	31.05	3.791
Granada	Apartment	At Home LCS	8	14.56	1.69	16.25	9.06	5.464
		At School LCS	8	5.40	0.00	5.40	2.74	2.073
		Free Time LCS	8	10.45	0.00	10.45	4.23	4.089
		Virtual Interactions LCS	8	5.25	0.00	5.25	1.24	1.949
		Total Language Contact Score	8	24.16	4.59	28.75	17.27	7.872
	Homestay	At Home LCS	17	10.00	10.00	20.00	14.99	3.523
		At School LCS	17	15.63	0.00	15.63	4.95	4.130
		Free Time LCS	17	12.50	0.00	12.50	3.06	3.131
		Virtual Interactions LCS	17	7.73	0.00	7.73	.84	2.147
		Total Language Contact Score	17	19.12	13.95	33.07	23.84	6.614

Thus, it is impossible to conclude whether the homestay truly impacted positively on the participants' acquisition of Spanish. More likely, a combination of factors is responsible for these trends that cannot be identified through quantitative analysis alone. Further qualitative analyses must therefore be conducted in order to truly analyse the homestay and shared-apartment environments for their influence on second language acquisition.

The second aspect to be considered when analysing language contact is interaction using the L2, but with non-native speakers. While contact and interactions in immersive

environments with other learners have proven beneficial for L2 acquisition (Freed *et al.*, 2004b; Dewey, 2008), Magnan and Back (2007) found that the American learners of French in their study who engaged in L2 conversation with compatriot classmates while abroad actually made fewer improvements than those who interacted in the L2 with native speakers. As the participants in Magnan and Back's (2007) study are similar to the group studied in the present investigation, similar interactions among the present group were investigated in hopes of uncovering any trends.

In order to do so, the typical interactions of students first had to be analysed for evidence of interactions using the L2, but with native speakers of English. The decision to not include other non-native speaker interlocutors in this particular area of analysis was made as to reflect the distinction made by Magnan and Back (2007). Data from Questionnaire 2 was thus examined, and students were identified as either having no L2 contact with native English-speakers or as having 'some' L2 contact with native English-speakers. Unfortunately further distinctions regarding the quality of these interactions could not be made as some interactions were infrequent and possibly conducted as practice for in-class assessments while others consisted of dialog where a native-Spanish-speaker may have also been present.

In addition, the English speakers with whom the participants interacted consisted mainly of their American classmates, though contact in Spanish with other native English-speakers was included in this category. The English-speaking interlocutors who were not fellow classmates typically included the participants' British housemates or other American friends.

The results of the analysis found that the majority of participants (N= 42) actually did engage in Spanish conversation with native-English speakers to some extent in certain social contexts. Far fewer participants (N= 25) did not use Spanish with their English-speaking peers; though many of these individuals still acknowledged that their English-speaking peers were central to their social groups. Interestingly, the data also reveal that six participants, all from the Barcelona group, reported that their only Spanish contact was with other Americans.

The significance of these L2 interactions with native speakers of English was further explored through statistical analysis. A series of Mann-Whitney U Tests was conducted in

order to demonstrate any possible distinctions between proficiency exam scores and linguistic achievement as a result of such contact with non-native speakers; however, contrary to the findings of Magnan and Back (2007), no statistically significant difference in linguistic development could be established as a result of L2 conversation with English-speakers. While such a result is not unexpected due to the small numbers of participants in each category, the descriptive results do highlight the overall lack of contact with the Spanish language experienced by these individuals. As no statistically significant differences could be established, further qualitative data is explored in order to further understand such interactional patterns.

8.2 Qualitative Analysis: Language Contact, Attitude and Motivation

The quantitative exploration and analysis of the data regarding language contact highlights a number of interesting trends. First is the notion that the majority of contact with Spanish occurred during social encounters at the participants' residences, while secondly, a clear connection was established between pre-program proficiency and the development of social relationships abroad. Also, the Granada group tended to have much more contact than the Barcelona participants, and across both groups, the students tended to converse with each other in Spanish as well as with native speakers in their social encounters.

Though perhaps the most salient feature of the analysis is the overall lack of contact experienced by these individuals, despite displaying a strong desire to connect with target culture and language. Wherein a positive attitude, particularly towards the Spanish people, and a strong motivation to integrate into the receptor society were present at the beginning of the residence abroad, their relationship with language contact became much less defined over time.

The following section explores some of the qualitative trends found in the data, including the types of relationships established by the participants and how language was likely used outside of the classroom. It draws on a combination of questionnaire, observational and interview data in order to highlight such instances. As affective factors such as attitude and motivation have been shown to be inherently linked with language contact, these elements are also discussed along with the analysis of social encounters. The data gathered from the Barcelona participants is discussed first, followed by that of the Granada group.

Some of the most prominent data gathered regarding language contact comes from the second questionnaire, in which the students were asked to list a number of individuals with whom they interact in a number of social contexts. They were also asked to list the nationality and age of each individual, as well as what language(s) they typically used with that person. In addition to this, information regarding attitude and motivation will also be analysed, though data from multiple sources will be included.

8.2.1 Language Contact: Barcelona

The analyses reveal a number of interesting findings: though the participants desire language contact, many of them had very limited social relationships with Spanish-speakers. For example, data from the second questionnaire revealed that, Krystal, a Barcelona participant spent a significant amount of time speaking English in her shared apartment as she had housemates from several other European countries. She reported speaking Spanish with an Italian housemate, though it appeared this time is limited as English was the primary language spoken in the apartment. Krystal also reported having one native Spanish/Catalan contact with whom she interacted occasionally during her free time; but as her social contacts appeared to be dominated by English-interaction, Krystal stated on the second questionnaire that, "I'm probably not practicing [Spanish] as much as I should." Krystal also expressed her frustration as, "the language barrier made me feel like not my usual, open self because I was not confident to speak." In an interview, she commented on how insecure she felt interacting in Spanish, despite having studied it for many years. Krystal surprisingly maintained much of her positivity according to the questionnaire data, though it is clear that her expectations of socialising with native speakers were not met.

Maeve and Norman, both Barcelona participants, shared similar patterns of interactions, where their social encounters abroad were almost exclusively in English despite strong integrative orientations. Though Maeve reported speaking occasional Spanish with a German housemate on the second questionnaire, both students reported having no regular social contact outside with Spanish-speakers outside of the classroom. In the final questionnaire, Maeve blamed herself for many of her failed interactions: "I get really shy when I try [to speak Spanish], and I want to be perfect and I get mad when it's not, so I just don't talk sometimes." Norman, on the other hand, attributed this lack of interactions

more so to his interlocutors in his final questionnaire: “People just don’t understand me, even when I thought I was speaking good Spanish.” In both cases, the participants expressed a desire to practice Spanish outside of the language classroom; however, it appeared that their efforts diminished over time after these negative experiences.

Another interesting case among the Barcelona participants was Susan, who reported rather mixed feelings towards her experiences abroad. Susan began her residence abroad with a relatively low level of Spanish; however, the initial questionnaire data suggests that she was incredibly positive about living in Barcelona and integrating into the receptor culture. Nevertheless, in an informal interview, she recounted that she struggled to make acquaintances with native Spanish speakers as, “I try to speak to them and they immediately go to English.” She also mentioned that, “we just don’t have time to go out and meet people,” which is curious as she later mentioned that she “often” goes to restaurants, nightclubs and on other social outings with her fellow American classmates. Additionally, Susan recounted almost all of her experiences in Barcelona during the interview using the pronouns ‘we’ and ‘our,’ an indication that despite Susan’s complaints about not interacting with native speakers, she rarely took such action on her own.

Based on the observations of the Barcelona participants throughout their residence abroad, Susan’s experiences tended to be the norm rather than the exception. Though many Barcelona students reported a strong desire to integrate into the local community, no student was observed interacting with Spanish-speakers on his/her own throughout the length of the study, and very few students reported taking such autonomous action in order to make new local acquaintances. This lack of observations regarding student interactions in Spanish may be due to the limited number of observations recorded for these participants; yet, the informal interview and questionnaire data gathered indicate that, on the whole, the group was unsuccessful at establishing strong social connections with host community members.

Many of the students openly recognized this trend. As mentioned in Section 6.2.3, students such as Susan, Mick and Harrison blamed their lack of interactions on time spent during academic commitments. Other students, including Krystal, Maeve and Norman, simply admitted that they often spent their free time with other American classmates. In addition, almost the entire Barcelona cohort reported spending many of their weekends traveling to other European cities or hosting American friends who were visiting from other SA

institutions in other countries. Such a trend suggests that perhaps learning and using Spanish was not as great a priority as indicated by the participants' questionnaire data.

Another common issue discussed, as mentioned in Chapter 6, was the tendency of Spanish-speaking interlocutors switching to English during conversations. Barcelona Fall participant Benjamin admitted in an informal interview that having very limited contact with Spanish and stated that, "their English is so much better than my Spanish, so a lot of times I just give up and speak in English." Spring participant Alicia gave a similar account: "I [would] rather Spanish people be patient with my Spanish than switch to English... it's so frustrating." Spring participant, Allen, on the other hand, described how at times conversation in English with Spanish-speakers could have a positive outcome:

Allen: I don't think they do it to be rude. Sometimes I try to speak in Spanish and I don't know what to say. It's like I hit a wall. And it's nice to be able to switch to English to make the situation more comfortable.

Yet, despite these challenges and many accounts of participants socialising almost exclusively in English, this was not always the case. Those who did report seeking social interactions with Spanish-speakers tended to be very positive in their descriptions of such encounters.

One such example is Barcelona participant Dave, who began his stay abroad with a relatively moderate level of Spanish when compared to his peers. Dave also indicated a strong desire to interact with native Spanish-speakers in the initial questionnaire, though he openly admitted in the second questionnaire that he struggled with daily interactions: "It's so hard to get someone to keep talking to you in Spanish especially when they see you struggling with it."

However, despite his struggles, Dave recounted a number of instances in an informal interview where he used his Spanish independently. First, he mentioned that:

Dave: I needed to get my hair cut, so I went to a barbershop and just talked to the guy there [in Spanish] while he cut my hair. And after that, I kept going to the same guy 'cause he knew me, so it was easy to talk to him.

He also began frequenting a local pub, where he would often speak to barstaff and regular patrons. He specifically mentioned his conversations with a particular bartender where,

“it’s like a boost of confidence when I get something right in Spanish and then he keeps speaking to me in Spanish.” Dave was also observed in the same pub conversing in Spanish with two Catalan men on two separate occasions; though Dave had arrived at the pub with some American classmates, he seemed to distance himself from his friends in order to take advantage of an opportunity to use his Spanish.

Upon speaking with Dave during a final visit, he admitted that English was still his primary language of interaction, but he attributed much of his Spanish improvement to his interactions at the local pub:

Dave: I love coming [to this pub]. The guys are so nice and now that I know them, they always speak to me in Spanish. I wish I had more time to keep coming here.

He also spoke very positively about his experience in Barcelona in general, and how he felt much more confident in his Spanish-language skills after having spent time abroad.

Another interesting example is Casey, who commented in an informal interview on her connections with the Latino community and how a previous trip to Colombia had made her a much more confident speaker. Casey was observed during the first few days of her program speaking in Spanish with program administrator Maria, and was later observed during a second and third visit conversing with other program staff in Spanish during her free time between classes. Based on her second questionnaire data, she successfully made connections with South Americans and Spanish/Catalans whilst in Spain, and she also seemed to be one of the few in her group who attempted to distance herself from her American classmates:

Researcher: Do you go out often with other people from [the SA group]?

Casey: That was the first time in, like, two weeks that I’ve gone out with those guys [from the participant group]... I usually just go out with my Colombian friends, but some of them (other program participants) will, like, only go out with each other. So I try to distance myself.

She also commented on her own persistence in terms of language contact during an informal interview: “Actually, I force people to speak Spanish to me, rather than switching to English.” Additionally, she was observed in a local café having an intense conversation with a Spanish waiter independently while her friends were conversing as a group

exclusively in English. Again, in Casey's situation, it appeared that distancing herself from her American peers was central to her increased contact with the Spanish language.

A final instance of Barcelona students distancing themselves from their peers was observed with Spring participants Jamie and Alyssa. Jamie and Alyssa arrived in Barcelona with higher levels of Spanish than the majority of their peers, and though they reported primarily speaking English to their American classmates in their second questionnaires, they were also observed speaking in Spanish to each other and to program staff at the SA program centre during all three visits to Barcelona. Both women also opted to take Spanish-medium content modules at a local Spanish university rather than enrolling in the courses offered privately by the institution. In an informal interview, they mentioned that this environment was incredibly productive for their Spanish development:

Researcher: was there anything in particular you found that helped you to practice your Spanish?

Alyssa: "I think having the classes at [the public university] was what really did it for me. Here (at the program centre) everyone is speaking in English all the time, but there are lots of Catalans on [the public university] campus."

Jamie: "Yeah, it was hard at first to meet people, but after a while we got to meet some of the other [university] students and they were really cool. There's also a little student café on their campus so that's a good place to just hang out and meet people."

Upon further questioning, the women also indicated the challenges that they faced, even as particularly advanced speakers:

Researcher: "Did you find it difficult to understand the Spanish/Catalans you met there?"

Alyssa: "Not really understand, but they use a lot of slang, so there were a lot of phrases they would say that I wouldn't know. And then later I found out that a lot of them were swear words, and I was repeating them and had no idea."

Jamie: “Also a lot of the Catalan students would want to practice English with us, but I just had to insist over and over that we use Spanish and then use it as often as I could with whoever I could.”

These examples provide distinct evidence as to the quality of language utilised between native Spanish/Catalan speakers and advanced learners of Spanish. Even with Alyssa’s realisation that she was often swearing in Spanish, her recognition of the experience demonstrated her metalinguistic awareness. This largely contrasts many of the other challenges reported by participants, wherein many seemed to struggle with basic communication rather than implied meaning. Alyssa later reflected on her Spanish acquisition in a final informal interview:

Alyssa: I’ve realized that it’s not just what I say, but how I say it. And there were so many slang phrases that people were using that I was taking literally, so I really didn’t understand. I never would have learned that if I didn’t hang out with my Catalan friends.

While Jamie and Alyssa did not exhibit total independence in language learning, as they often spent their free time together, their advanced level of Spanish and their ability to reflect on what they heard certainly assisted in their linguistic development. Both women also maintained a positive attitude and high integrative orientations throughout the stay abroad, and at the end of their stay, both reported having an incredibly positive experience overall on their final questionnaire.

8.2.2 Language Contact: Granada

A range of experiences was also noted for the Granada group, including instances of difficulty meeting Spanish-speakers as well as those who successfully established social connections with local Granada residents. For example, Fall Granada participant Emilia reported a strong desire to connect with the Spanish culture on her first questionnaire; however, at the time she completed the second questionnaire, she recognized that such integration is more difficult than the imagined. While she spoke positively about her host family, wherein she was the only English speaker, she did not report having any regular social connections with Spanish-speakers. In an informal interview, she commented: “The men are so aggressive. I try to not talk to as many now even though they are really friendly

because I am afraid they will become creepy.” Upon further questioning, Emilia mentioned that because of some “uncomfortable” experiences in the beginning of the program, she later preferred the company of her American classmates.

Fall participant Kayley and Spring participant Andy shared similar experiences. Though Kayley reported using Spanish often with her host family in her second questionnaire, in an interview, she discussed how, “trying to find Spanish friends has been really difficult for me.” She also commented on how her lack of experience studying Spanish had lowered her confidence: “When speaking often I feel dumb when I can’t express something that I want to.” Andy also recounted his initial difficulties with his Spanish housemates in an interview: “I try to talk to my Spanish roommates, but when they respond, I just don’t understand them.” Andy later stated in a final interview that he became more confident in using Spanish with his housemates towards the end of his stay abroad; however, his main social group consisted of his American classmates. While both Kayley and Andy reported feeling positively about their experiences in Granada on their final questionnaire, neither indicated that they had developed a strong social relationship with a Spanish-speaker.

In contrast, a number of other Granada participants were successful in establishing relationships with local residents. For instance, Spring Pre-sessional participant Annie commented in an interview on how her host mother was central to her learning Spanish:

Annie: She really doesn’t speak a word of English. It was kind of awkward at first because I couldn’t understand her, but, like, today she’s teaching me how to cook paella. And when I was sick last week, she took such good care of me... I mean, I learned how to read and write in my Spanish classes in the [United] States, but I really learned how to talk with my [host mother].

Annie also mentioned that she wished that she had met more Spanish-speakers outside of her homestay; but, in general, she very much enjoyed her homestay and her host mother’s hospitality.

Housemates Sam and Ethan also commented on their host mother’s role in helping them to learn Spanish during a social outing:

Sam: At first, [our host mother] just talked *at* us, and we commented sometimes.

Ethan: But, you learn to say more and more every day.

Sam: You learn so much more [in a homestay] than you do in a classroom.

The men also had few contacts with Spanish speakers outside of their homestay according to their second questionnaire, but they mentioned that meals with their host mother were key to building their vocabulary and understanding of Spanish.

Others who report having successfully established social connections abroad did so either by attending tandem language exchanges (*intercambios*) or by befriending Spanish housemates in shared apartments. During a social outing with other participants, Fall Pre-session participant Jacob mentioned that his *intercambio* partner helped introduce him to a number of other friends: “My *intercambio* [partner] invited me for drinks with some of his friends on Friday if anyone wants to go... Now that I know him, I try to go out with him and his friends as much as possible, even if it’s just for a coffee.” Spring Pre-session participant Ivan gave a similar account in an initial interview: “I try to set up as many *intercambios* as possible, and then I try to hang out with [my *intercambio* partners] as much as possible, so I can speak Spanish all the time.” During a later interview, Ivan claimed, “I speak so much better than I write now. I feel like I just know [Spanish grammar rules] without thinking.” Such examples highlight the diverse types of relationships that students from both program sites established during their residences abroad.

8.3 Discussion and Conclusion: Language Contact in SA

The data presented above demonstrate a great variability in the quantity and quality of interaction experienced by students from both locations. Equally apparent was the notion that other affective and environmental factors were influencing the participants’ desires to make acquaintances with target-language speakers, despite their reported initial desires to integrate within the receptor culture. The following section highlights some of the most salient findings. It also aims to address Research Question 3, which considers the relationship among affective factors and social relationships abroad.

First, the LCS calculation appears to be an effective tool for establishing a basis on which meaningful language contact can be analysed and compared. Additionally, it serves for comparison between groups, and it can be analysed for relationships with other variables, such as attitude, motivation and linguistic proficiency (Cigliana, 2015). Moreover, it eliminates the limitation of counting passive input, which ultimately does little to further

linguistic development (DeKeyser, 2010), towards a total 'value' of language contact. Of course, such a mathematical calculation could never attempt to replace ethnographic inquiry due to possible inaccuracies in participant self-reporting; however, it does appear to bridge the gap between the limited Language Contact Profile (Freed *et al.*, 2004a), and those more in-depth qualitative studies (Pellegrino-Aveni, 2005; Isabelli-Garcia, 2006; Kinginger, 2008; Jackson, 2013; Mitchell *et al.*, 2015).

Equally, the data provided from the LCS appeared to match the actual social relationships developed by the students, as per the observations and interviews conducted at each program site. The fact that many students listed their American friends and classmates in multiple contextual categories may also be a sign of honesty on the part of the participants, rather than including Spanish-speakers as a means to falsely prove their degree of integration. Of course, more validation of the LCS as a data collection method is needed; however, in its pilot project, the results are promising.

A second interesting finding was that the quantity of interaction facilitative of language acquisition, as denoted by the LCS values, was relatively low. Clear evidence of this notion was in the Total LCS results, wherein no student scored over 40 points out of a total 80. This would seem to indicate that the learners spent less than half of their time utilising the target language across these four combined social contexts. More worryingly, perhaps, was the fact that the majority of them actually spent very little time engaging with target-language speakers, despite their desires to integrate into the host culture. Interestingly, these findings reflect those found in Cigliana and Serrano (Forthcoming), where a similar group of participants also reported spending relatively little time engaging with target-language speakers. These results then raise the question as to why very little engagement occurs, despite their initial goals of immersion.

The evidence relating to motivation and attitude sheds some light on the issue. As previous studies have suggested, integrative orientations, overall motivation and positive attitude have all been linked with successful sociocultural adaptation abroad (Noels *et al.*, 1996; Pellegrino-Aveni, 2005; DuFon and Churchill, 2006; Isabelli-Garcia, 2006; Kinginger, 2008; Spender, 2008). However, the data revealed in Chapters 6 and 7 demonstrate a marked decline in these affective variables, which was also evident in the weakening of the LCS correlations with the attitudinal and motivational variables. As a result, it is likely that the decline in affective factors and the relatively low LCSs are related, though a causal

relationship cannot be determined through correlation alone. Equally, the qualitative evidence seems to support this claim, as it appears that many of the initial expectations of the participants were largely unmet (see Discussions in Chapters 6 and 7), particularly those related to meeting local residents and integrating into the receptor culture.

Further evidence may be provided by Goldoni (2013), who found that a similar group of American SA students in Spain assumed that their receptor culture would immediately be welcoming.; yet, the hosts actually paid relatively little attention to the newly-arrived students, causing the students to develop potentially negative attitudes towards the local residents. Moreover, Ogden (2006) argues that American students might not even realize their lack of engagement with the target community because they are constantly surrounded by the comfort of compatriot and first-language interaction while abroad.

Another reason for this lack of engagement with local residents may be due to the learners' lack of proceduralised knowledge of L2 forms, which DeKeyser (2010) points out are necessary for sustained conversation in the L2. Additionally, hypotheses related to the 'threshold' of L2 proficiency needed to take advantage of language learning in an immersion context may also be relevant (Lafford and Collentine, 2006; Collentine, 2009), as would the 'Interactional Hypothesis' proposed by Long (1996). This notion is further supported by the correlation between the initial proficiency exam scores and the LCS values, wherein those with a higher pre-program proficiency tended to have more contact with target-language speakers.

Again, this was not always the case, as some beginning learners did have success in making native-speaker friends (see Chapter 9), however, such cases were few. Equally, it is likely that some of the learners did not feel confident or comfortable in utilising their L2 with native speakers, as evidenced by the avoidance of interactions during the initial visits to either program site (See Section 7.2.4) . Shyness or lack of confidence may be common in the early weeks of a residence abroad, while students who partake in longer SA programs may be more able to develop relationships with target-language speakers slowly over time (Coleman, 2009, 2015).

A final interesting finding from the language contact data is that the LCS values were not correlated with the proficiency exam score differences, suggesting that language contact via social relationships was not statistically related with the *amount* of gains made. Yet, as

with the attitude and motivation, this result does not suggest that those with more frequent language contact made fewer gains, but rather that their score difference was similar to that of students with less frequent contact. Of course, such a finding directly contrasts much of the SA literature (Freed, 1990; Segalowitz and Freed, 2004; Hernández, 2010; Llanes *et al.*, 2012), consequently furthering the argument that the proficiency exam was limited in its capacity to measure linguistic development (Freed, 1998; Llanes, 2011).

Perhaps most interesting about the language contact data, though, are their complexity. Many of the students expressed interest in getting to know their receptor culture; but it seemed as if many were unsuccessful, or suddenly lost the motivation to continue actively seeking relationships. Equally of interest is the role that the receptor culture, or overall host community, had in shaping the experiences of the learners, where some reported very positive experiences while others became less positive over time.

As mentioned above, there are certain limitations to basing an analysis around quantitative data; one of which is that the individual experiences, which highlight such complexities may be missed. It is because of this that the subsequent section will take a more holistic approach, considering notable case studies as a means to examine these intricacies. Additionally, it argues that the communities of practice framework (Wenger, 1998) serves as a strong analytical approach with which to explain these social phenomena. Later, the learners' behaviour is explored from the perspective of the L2 Motivational Self System pioneered by Dörnyei (2009b) in order to examine how the affective changes witnessed throughout the residence abroad may have impacted on language-learning efforts.

Chapter 9: Holistic Analysis

9.1 Overview

The previous chapters have addressed attitude, motivation and language contact, which have been commonly identified as some of the most significant variables impacting on successful second language acquisition (Masgoret and Gardner, 2003; Isabelli-Garcia, 2006; Kinginger, 2008; Dörnyei, 2009b; Gardner, 2010; Coleman and Chafer, 2011). Significant among the findings is that the students generally had little contact with native speakers of Spanish during their residence abroad, as well as a general decline in positivity and motivation over time. These results also arose despite many initially claiming a desire to immerse themselves in the host community and improve their Spanish language skills, suggesting that it is not *one* but *many* variables which ultimately shape their language-learning experience.

Consequently, the data demonstrate that the key to understanding language-learning in this context is through the individual experiences of the students; thus, it is necessary to examine the above variables simultaneously among individual participants, rather than attempting to generalise the outcomes of SA for the participant cohort as a whole. This reasoning stems from limitations revealed through the analysis of quantitative data with regards to explaining *how* and *why* such changes occur. Rather, a number of aspects have been revealed through the analyses which appear to influence participants' perceptions and subsequent behaviour abroad. Notably, these include the students' backgrounds, their accommodation while abroad, their interactions with the wider receptor community, their social circles, and the wider SA academic program.

Thus, this comprehensive chapter adopts two key theoretical frameworks in order to explain both social relationship formation and the influence of attitude and motivation on learner behaviour whilst abroad: Communities of practice (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Eckert, 2000; Eckert and Wenger, 2005) and Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self System. The theoretical frameworks are first introduced with examples as to how they relate specifically to the participant group. This is followed by a series of case studies which highlight their application in explaining learner perceptions and behaviour.

Equally, the overall analysis adopts the the Dynamic Systems Theory as a further means to explain variation in learner perceptions throughout their time in Spain (Ellis, 2007; Larsen-Freeman and Cameron, 2008; Ushioda, 2015). As a result, the analysis explains the phenomena of students' perceptions and the development of social relationships abroad as fluid and inseparable, wherein both the individual and his/her learning environment contribute to the SA experience.

9.2 Roles the Community of Practice and Possible L2 Selves in SA

Prior to the exploration of the emergent trends among individual experiences, it is first necessary to highlight how the communities of practice framework (Wenger, 1998) and Dörnyei's (2009b) motivational self system can be used to explain both community and individual behaviour. This approach provides a basis from which to analyse 'shared practice' among the participants as well as instances of practice and transition within the wider receptor community which can facilitate language learning (See Section 2.6.2). Additionally, adopting these frameworks allows for changes in motivations, attitudes and social interaction patterns to be examined throughout the participants' time abroad. Two case studies are also presented in order to illustrate how the combination of these frameworks can be utilised to consider how the 'ideal L2 self' and 'ought-to L2 self' influence perceptions and behaviour over time.

Firstly, it can be argued that the students' arrival marks the prompt formation of their first community of practice in Spain. This is initially achieved through a series of orientation activities hosted by program coordinators; the activities then foster the first instance 'mutual engagement', as defined by Wenger (1998), given that the participants did not know each other prior to their arrival in Spain. In addition, activities during the first few days abroad such as a group dinner and a 'scavenger hunt' of important facilities around each city then signify the participants' 'joint enterprise' in navigating their new host cities. Other joint enterprises included organizing trips, planning social events and completing academic assignments, all of which typically included input from various members of the participant community.

The input from community members illustrates the third characteristic proposed by Wenger (1998) as a 'repertoire of shared resources', which Davies (2005, pg. 561) classifies

as the “outcome” of the community’s mutual engagement and joint enterprise. In other words, the combination of consistent interaction as a group and the common experience of navigating a new receptor culture results in the community drawing on shared ‘resources’ such as linguistic skills, general knowledge and personal perspectives. For instance, the students commonly gathered in the same venues, where the shared knowledge of “best tapas” and “drink specials” drew them together for social outings. Another example is seen in the election of a community member to speak on behalf of the group in Spanish (See Chapter 8), wherein the individuals collectively took advantage of one member’s expertise in Spanish.

Thus, this initial community of practice serves as the basis for the participants’ initial social interactions and provides a standard from which different types of behaviour can be explored. It is particularly critical to the analysis as the community of practice can be seen to both *shape* and *be shaped by* the behaviours and perceptions of its members (See Section 2.6). Examples provided in the analysis include student behaviours which strengthen the original community as well as instances of students transitioning to different communities of practice, typically by way of ‘peripheral’ membership (Lave and Wenger, 1991).

The behaviours of the students can then be attributed to either the ideal L2 self or the ought-to L2 self, as Dörnyei (2009b) explains that language-learning behaviours are driven by an individual’s future self-conceptualisation as a proficient user of a second language (See Section 2.5). Specifically, he mentions that experiences when interacting with target language interlocutors impact strongly on a learner’s attitudes towards the language and their motivation to continue pursuing such interactions. On the other hand, the learner can also experience outside social or societal pressures to engage in activities that may not promote language learning if they lack a strong ideal L2 self (Dörnyei, 2009b; Ushioda, 2009; Irie and Ryan, 2015).

Furthermore, combining these frameworks allows for an analysis of the data from a Dynamic Systems perspective, wherein the learning experiences of the participants are observed as a whole, rather than a sum of parts (De Bot *et al.*, 2007; Ellis, 2007; Larsen-Freeman and Cameron, 2008; Dörnyei *et al.*, 2015; Ushioda, 2015). The result of this combination therefore explains the relevance of ‘shared practice’ to facilitate language

learning as well as the role of the SA participant groups and the wider receptor environment on shaping students' perceptions.

Though many of the examples detailed in previous chapters have already alluded to such a connection between the two frameworks, it is essential to demonstrate how they can be combined to explain learner behaviour, social practice and perceived achievement during a residence abroad.

9.2.1 Defining the Community of Practice

The examples highlighted above and throughout the previous chapters clearly identify the present research participants as existing within communities of practice. In fact, the framework would outline four separate communities of practice (two in Barcelona, two in Granada), though a number of similarities can be drawn from each group. However, in order to truly understand why the participants exhibit shared *practice*, their actions and surrounding experiences must also be examined. As such, the subsequent part of the analysis looks at how the communities of practice function in terms of inner-group dynamics and with relation to the wider host society. Examples are then given of those individuals who transcended their community of practice, and how such difference can impact on the students' integration into the host society.

To begin, it is important to examine the relationships and interactions shared within each community of practice as a means to understand its place in society. The students' arrival in Spain signalled the prompt formation of the community of practice, and students were observed exploring their host cities together from the very first day of their SA program. This behaviour then led to subsequent instances of the participants choosing to study, eat and socialise together, as evidenced by observations of the students both inside and outside of the program centre.

Furthermore, almost every student reported having taken at least one trip outside of their host city with a fellow program participant, signalling that the strength of the community was maintained throughout the time abroad. Such a connection may be naturally assumed, considering that most of the students lived near one another and took classes together at the program centre (Barcelona) or local language school (Granada); yet, no students were seen to interact socially with a Spanish-speaking contact indicated on their second

questionnaire, providing further evidence of the interactional patterns. Such evidence is also reinforced by the overall trends within the second questionnaire data (see Chapter 8), wherein it is clear that the strongest relationships formed by almost all of the participants were with other members of their SA program.

This rapid formation of a community of practice amongst the participants is similar in many ways to the establishment of the high school *jocks* and *burnouts* groups in Eckert's (2000) work. More specifically, Eckert (2000, pg. 58-59) points out that while the disposition for becoming either a *jock* or a *burnout* may begin in junior high school, the adherence to one group or another when entering the high school realm is established quickly, and provides a sense of comfort and belonging when entering a new social environment.

Similarly, the communities of practice in Spain also undoubtedly provided a sense of security and support for the participants as they joined their new host culture. For instance, a group of five Barcelona participants were observed negotiating with a local shop owner to buy Spanish SIM cards on the first day of their program, despite the group having a very limited proficiency in Spanish. Equally, the students arranged to meet at a local bar together on the first day of their program, thus signalling their preference to explore their host city as a group.

Likewise, initial group activities were observed in Granada, where several students were observed searching for a tapas bar on their first night together. An instance was also observed where newly-arrived students asked advice of their pre-sessional classmates as a means to learn from the experiences of their peers.

Both instances provide clear examples of the security of the community of practice, where only rarely did students mention traveling or seeking out services on their own. Even in cases where one student would speak on behalf of the group (see Section 7.2.4), the benefits of such practice were known to all community members present. Furthermore, the students seemed to remain relatively positive about their personal experiences whilst in Spain, even if local integration was lessened due to such a close-knit community.

The bonding of the community of practice as a means of security and normality can also be seen in the interactions between students. One such instance is the use of Spanish with other program participants, wherein nine Barcelona students and seven Granada students

reported using Spanish at times with their fellow program participants. Such an action may reflect the security of using Spanish with a friend rather than with a local resident.

Examples of such practice were observed among both the Barcelona and Granada communities. For instance, Fall Granada participant Alice lived in a homestay with a Spanish woman and two other Granada participants, and upon arrival in Spain, expressed a keen interest in maintaining the use of Spanish whilst in her accommodation (See Section 7.1.3). When asked about her use of Spanish outside of the home in an informal interview, Alice revealed, “I don’t really have any Spanish friends, but a lot of times we speak Spanish at home, especially when our host mom makes us dinner.” In her second questionnaire, she commented on how she found it difficult to meet native Spanish-speakers, but very much enjoyed the company of her compatriots despite this, especially in her homestay.

Likewise, Fall Barcelona participant Margery reported similar interactional patterns in that she would often attempt to speak Spanish with an American housemate, who was also a heritage speaker of Spanish. As with Alice, Margery commented that, “speaking Spanish better,” was one of her key goals during her stay abroad, yet she later admitted that she only regularly spoke Spanish with this particular housemate and occasionally with her fellow program participants. Such patterns resulted in Margery having relatively little contact with Spanish and no regular contact with local residents; however, Margery still ranked her personal experiences as very high throughout her stay in Barcelona (10/10 for each questionnaire), indicating that despite such a lack of local integration, she still enjoyed her time with her American friends.

Other observations were made of students sharing travel, restaurant and sight-seeing advice with each other, while no students reported or were observed asking locals for similar advice. Furthermore, many conversations observed whilst visiting each of the program sites typically centered around weekend travel, which was arranged with other program participants. One particular student, Barcelona Spring participant Maya, admitted that she and her friends from her home university had each selected a different SA destination with the assumption that the group would each travel to a different city every weekend to visit the resident friend. Upon asking her about this practice, Maya mentioned that it was the host’s responsibility to plan the weekend’s activities for the visiting friends, and such plans seemed to take priority in her SA routine more so than integrating into local society. Maya and other participants seemed to value this type of social congregation

throughout different European cities, and despite the participants' lack of social contact with locals, still remained very positive about their overall experiences abroad.

The communities of practice framework also explains, to some extent, the participants' overall lack of interaction with host community members, despite being in close proximity. In order to illustrate the concept, another comparison can be drawn between the study participants and Eckert's (2000) *jocks* and *burnouts*, where their contrasting ideologies ultimately separate them in terms of social practice within the high school community (Eckert, 2000, pg. 47-50).

The same may be said of the participants in Spain, whose mutual engagement, joint enterprise and repertoire of resources (Wenger, 1998), differed greatly from other coexisting groups within the host community. For instance, as the participants navigate their new host culture in hopes of acquiring Spanish and building friendships with locals, the host locals themselves are pre-engaged with their established professional, social and family communities. If the residents of Barcelona or Granada were taken as a whole, very few are likely to share the participants' endeavours of social integration, making the establishment of a joint community of practice for the purposes of language acquisition very unlikely.

Many examples of such separated practice were observed in Barcelona, where goals of social integration and extended European traveling were the key objectives for many participants. For instance, when asked to what she was most looking forward in Spain, Fall Barcelona participant Elisa reported, "meeting and interacting with locals," and, "touring popular areas in Spain and elsewhere," as responses on the first questionnaire. Yet, the practice involved with her second goal of, "touring popular areas," would certainly differ from that of, "meeting... locals," wherein local residents would likely be less interested in visiting touristic sites around the city. As with many of the other participants, Elisa later reported spending almost all of her time outside of class with fellow Americans during an interview at the program centre, and admitted that achieving her primary goal was much more difficult than anticipated because, "I spend so much time with Americans." In the final questionnaire, she reported that, "practicing randomly," was her main strategy for interacting with locals, as it would require her to distance herself from the shared practice of the participant group. Such an example highlights how strong differences in practice can certainly separate seemingly coexisting groups.

Further examples of social distancing were observed in Granada, yet included some distinctive qualities: Spring Granada participant Joe exemplifies a practice that many Granada participants reported sharing, which saw the group integrating with other international students, but not with local residents. In his questionnaire and throughout several meetings with Joe, he often expressed his interest in, “becoming immersed in the culture.” Yet, on two separate occasions, Joe left a social outing to attend a party hosted by the local university’s ERASMUS organisation, where he later mentioned meeting a number of international students. Joe’s involvement with the ERASMUS events seemed quite regular, where he stated, “most of the people I’ve met here are ERASMUS students, and since they have a lot of parties, I usually see the same people all the time.” Furthermore, when asked about his use of Spanish, he replied, “we usually speak in English. A lot of them are from Germany or Sweden, so it’s just easier,” highlighting a distinct lack of Spanish interaction, despite adherence to a different community of practice.

Joe’s example underlines a different type of shared practice, where international students, including Joe and other Granada participants, shared the common bond of studying and socialising in a new community. Additionally, while it is possible that Spanish students attended the ERASMSUS events, such involvement was not mentioned by Joe or his peers. Thus, the shared practice of the international student community did not coincide with the other pre-existing Granada communities, despite their proximity. In fact, the differences in such practice may have even exaggerated the separation of the communities, making the participants’ goal of cultural immersion even more challenging (Granovetter, 1973, 1983).

Despite the potential of the community of practice to separate the SA students from the wider host society, the overall coherence of the community may have been strengthened by the notion that those who do not participate in shared practice of some kind may become isolated. For instance, Eckert (2000, pg. 59-60) points out those students who do not adhere fully to the practice of one particular group are typically labelled as *in-betweens*. Whilst these individuals within the high school share some characteristics of both *jocks* and *burnouts*, Eckert (2000, pg. 60) mentions that they may become socially isolated if not part of an established social group.

The same may be assumed of the SA participants, who may have found themselves isolated if they did not adhere to group practice. Spring Granada participant, Dylan, for instance,

claimed that she, “[had] a hard time making friends,” because, “it seems to be easier to make them if you go out often and I don’t [go out] often.” She also mentioned that she attended, “cultural stuff, like [going] to plays or flamenco shows,” on her own, as other participants were more interested in social gatherings at homes or bars. Whilst Dylan did not specifically mention feeling isolated, her experience certainly illustrates how deviating from group practice may have led to a separation from the wider group.

9.2.2 Transcending the SA Community of Practice

In contrast to Dylan’s example and Eckert’s (2000) finding that some individuals may feel isolated if they have not conformed to a certain community of practice, a number of students in both Barcelona and Granada were found to transcend their student community of practice and join other local communities as well. Two examples from each city highlight such social variation.

The first example is Fall Barcelona participant Casey, who actively sought out the Latino community in Barcelona after having taken several trips to Colombia in previous years (See Section 8.2.1). Casey also mentioned having met a Barcelona resident while at her home university in the U.S., who introduced her to his some of his friends in the city. Data gathered from Casey, including both questionnaires and informal interviews, suggested that she succeeded in integrating into a predominantly Latino community of practice, whilst still maintaining ties with her American classmates (See Section 8.2.1).

Interestingly, Casey did not mention introducing any other program participants to her Latino friends, suggesting that her two communities of practice remained socially separated. Yet, such an approach appeared to benefit Casey in her goal of improving her Spanish, and she reported a very positive experience throughout her time in Barcelona, including the improvement of her Spanish linguistic abilities.

Casey was also the only student known to have been introduced to a community of practice through a previously known friend, wherein the community, based on Casey’s conversations, did not participate in any other pre-organised function, such as a community group or language exchange. This contrasts several of the other examples of social integration and communities of practice (see below), wherein Casey’s joint practice

with her Latino friends appears to be primarily for social purposes, rather than linguistic ones, such as those seeking language exchanges.

A further example from the Barcelona participant group regards Spring participants Jamie and Alyssa, who were the only students from either semester to attend classes taught in Spanish at a local university rather than in the program centre. Both women also had a relatively high level of Spanish prior to studying abroad in Barcelona, and each labelled the other as her main social interlocutor during their semester abroad. Yet, what set these women apart from the wider group was their active pursuit of social interactions near the local Catalan university, where they found that a student café was a central meeting place (See Section 8.2.1).

Whilst both women reported socialising with other American students at times, no other Barcelona participants reported such active interactions with native Catalans outside of a homestay. Such a finding is quite surprising considering that the majority of the participants listed their initial intentions for studying abroad as getting to know a new culture (See Section 7.1).

Additionally, both women commented in the final questionnaire on how they had to make repeated efforts to meet other students at the local university. This finding reflects the ideas presented by Swain and Deters (2007), who argue that social integration must occur by the outside individuals actively seeking membership into the new community.

Furthermore, the women also mentioned that their social group at the university developed the shared practice of a language exchange as many of the other Catalan students desired to practice English with them. The women appeared to align their aim of learning Spanish to the language-learning goals of other university students, thus creating a new community of practice wherein all members would benefit from the multilingual conversation.

The formation of Jamie and Alyssa's community of practice comes as a direct contrast to the examples of Elisa and Margery above, whose expectations of the formation of a social community were founded only on the desires of the American students, rather than a shared practice with their potential Spanish-speaking interlocutors. As such, the example provides evidence for the application of the communities of practice framework in this case study (Wenger, 1998; Eckert, 2000; Eckert and Wenger, 2005), as well as the arguments

presented by Swain and Deters (2007), in that a shared practice must be central to the formation of a social group, particularly to facilitate the acquisition of linguistic and sociolinguistic patterns.

Additionally, such a contrast also highlights the findings of Granovetter (1973, 1983), who points out that such a social distance between communities may actually be strengthened by the different practices among each community. Ultimately, the goals and social practice of Elisa and Margery did not align with those of their host community (and *did* align with their fellow American classmates), thus solidifying the distinction between the communities. On the other hand, Alyssa and Jamie managed to establish the common practice of a multilingual language exchange between themselves and the other Catalan students, thus establishing a new community of practice.

Further examples of such success were observed among the Granada participants. One such example was Holly, who arrived in Spain with a very high proficiency in Spanish. She was also the only student to be observed using exclusively Spanish with the program coordinators, despite her peers using English during their initial encounters and orientation meetings.

Interestingly, Holly had travelled to Granada previously, and as such, appeared much more relaxed than most students about integrating into her host community. She also claimed her main intention in studying abroad is, “mastering the Spanish language,” indicating her already high L2 proficiency. Yet, despite such confidence in communicating, Holly still expressed reservations about establishing relationships with native Granada residents, as evidenced by her agreement with Statement 18 (I am finding it relatively easy to meet native Speakers with whom I can practice my Spanish while abroad) across all three questionnaires (7/10, 6/10, and 6/10).

Holly’s reservations about meeting Granada residents, however, were quite unfounded as she joined a local choir shortly after arriving in her host city. According to evidence from an informal interview, Holly still socialised frequently with her American classmates, but she also attended choir rehearsal several times per week, where she communicated and sang exclusively in Spanish:

Researcher: Is there anything that you’ve done while in Granada that’s really helped you to improve your Spanish?

Holly: So a couple of weeks in, I actually joined a church choir, so that's really helped me to meet people. There's this one girl who's my age, and so I've gone out with her a few times, but it's still difficult for me to understand when she talks to her friends sometimes.

Researcher: Do you sing in Spanish too, in the choir?

Holly: Yeah, we sing hymns in Spanish, and other music too sometimes. It's really been one of my favourite parts of being here, and it gets me away from all the English [language] at the [local language school].

Holly reiterated her difficulty in, “[understanding] the language of young people (slang),” in the second questionnaire, but later indicated through a self-assessment that her speaking skills had improved to ‘native-like.’ Also, similar to the example of Casey above, Holly did not mention introducing her Spanish choir group to her larger group of American friends, indicating that such social interactions were distinctly separate. As indicated in Holly’s description of, “[getting] away,” such a separation of Spanish and English interactions was clearly beneficial to her, as she reported having an extremely positive experience with her choir group in both her second and third questionnaire responses.

The final example of a participant transcending the US community of practice is Ivan, who arrived in Granada with perhaps the least amount of time spent studying Spanish, 3 university semesters, prior to his residence abroad. Though Ivan admitted that he did not make as many connections with Spanish-speakers as he would have liked, his efforts in moving away from the SA program group distinguished him as a learner.

Ivan opted to participate in the ‘pre-sessional’ language courses prior to beginning his official semester of study in Granada, and on his first questionnaire responses, Ivan mentions that, “learning the language,” is his first priority in going abroad. As well as acquiring Spanish, he also mentions, “meeting the locals,” and, “seeing the scenery,” as other main areas of interest.

As a beginner in learning Spanish, Ivan admitted early on, in Questionnaire 1, that he was nervous about communicating; however, his actions later reflected a confident speaker whose approach to language acquisition was quite different from his peers. More specifically, Ivan cited his ‘intercambios’ or language exchanges as his main method of

making social connections. He mentioned them after having been in Granada for about 4 weeks:

Researcher: So, have you managed to make any Spanish friends since you've been here?

Ivan: I wouldn't say I have any friends, but I've met some people and I want to hang out with them more... It's really intimidating talking to Spanish people, especially people you don't know... so I signed up for as many intercambios as I could, but now I think I have too many!

This dialogue reveals Ivan's initial reservations about speaking with Granada locals, but also his enthusiasm for his language exchanges. However, the significance of such enthusiasm is reiterated after a conversation *about* Ivan with other students, where his frequent attendance at 'intercambios' surprised his peers. Three of his classmates, Gemma, Esme and Amy, commented admirably on his progress during a group outing after mentioning that Ivan would be arriving late to dinner because of a previously-arranged language exchange:

Researcher: How are you finding Granada?

Gemma: I love this city. There are so many young people and so many students so it makes it really easy to talk to people.

Researcher: How have you been able to meet people? Through intercambios?

Gemma: I went on lots of intercambios early on, but now I just find it hard to know what to talk about.

Amy: Some of my intercambio [partners] were, like, middle-aged men, so it was a bit creepy.

Gemma: But [Ivan] goes on loads of intercambios. More than anyone else I know.

Esme: Yeah, he now prefers to use his Spanish all the time, even on normal nights out where we're all speaking English.

It should be noted that Ivan later arrived at the social gathering, but promptly left in order to meet another Spanish friend. Despite listing very few contacts on his second

questionnaire, he appeared to be using his Spanish in casual, social situations more so than most of the other participants. Ivan also commented on his second and third questionnaires that the concentration of other American students in Granada made it difficult to meet local residents. This may explain his relative distance from the group and haste in leaving the group outing.

In a final encounter with Ivan, he revealed the extent of his practice with the Spanish language whilst taking his second proficiency exam. In reference to selecting the correct Spanish pronoun on one of the exam items, he stated, "I don't remember these little things. I speak so much better than I write now. I feel like I just know [the pronouns] without thinking."

Interestingly, Ivan was the only student out of all the participants to comment on his development in this way. Even those more advanced speakers, such as Holly, Alyssa and Jamie, still perceived difficulties in communication to some extent, typically with young adults, though none referred to their innate ability to communicate, "without thinking," such as Ivan. Additionally, despite his perceived lack of regular social interactions, as per his second questionnaire and his agreement responses to Statement 18 (see above) on all three questionnaires (6/10, 4/10, and 7/10), Ivan self-assessed his improvement as moving from a score of 2 in all linguistic skills to a score of 6 in Speaking and 7 in Listening. Such an example highlights the progress made by Ivan, particularly in such a short period of time abroad.

The two examples from Granada highlight two distinct means through which the community of practice facilitates the Spanish acquisition of these two individuals. In the first, Holly formally joined a community group, whose established shared practice of singing, enables Holly to join as what Wenger (1998) would likely classify as a 'peripheral' member. Through Holly's engagement with the group across a number of months, in singing and socialising, she later appeared to be adopted as a full member of the community of practice, where she mentioned that speaking with fellow singers, and particularly her close Spanish friend from the group, was central to her development of more advanced spoken Spanish.

Ivan, on the other hand, did not mention joining a particular group of individuals, but did mention on his final questionnaire that he had been introduced to new local residents

through his language exchange partners. While it is unclear the extent to which Ivan was a member of a larger community of practice including local residents, his reported frequent meetings with language exchange partners could be classified as communities of practice in themselves. The shared practice, in this case, would be the sharing of linguistic knowledge, and, based on Ivan's self-reported progress and the reports from his classmates, he clearly succeeded in adopting some of the linguistic norms of his interlocutors.

The evidence provided by these examples from both Barcelona and Granada clearly highlight the importance of not only the contact with Spanish-speakers, but also the notion of 'shared practice' which facilitates their learning of Spanish (Wenger, 1998; Eckert and Wenger, 2005). The communities of practice framework also suggests, to some extent, why many of the participants found it difficult to integrate into a host-society-based community of practice: the lack of a 'mutual engagement' or 'joint enterprise' between many of the SA participants and the host society left little in common on which to establish such fundamental relationships. Furthermore, two of the examples presented clearly related to mutual engagement in the form of language learning (Jamie/Alyssa and Ivan), which emphasises the need for students to seek out individuals interested in such a shared practice.

The question then arises as to why many of the individuals across both cities did not seek out mutual engagement with local residents, despite the expressed desire of the majority to learn Spanish and get to know the local culture. Moreover, evidence presented above and in previous chapters suggests that many of those who may have sought such interaction were either unsuccessful or hindered in some way. Thus, the analysis requires that the ever-changing dynamic of the learning environment and the students' motivational perspectives be investigated. Such an examination hopes to identify why many of the individuals remained in their US-based community of practice, and how the experiences and perceptions of the minority led to practice that would facilitate integration and the acquisition of Spanish.

9.2.3 The Development and Decline of the 'Ideal' L2 Self

The instances of those transitioning from the participant community of practice to a locally-based community, and the examples of those who tended to remain in their original

community of practice can likely be explained through an exploration of the 'ideal L2 self' and the 'ought-to L2 self'. Equally, examples of the L2 learning environment may have played a role, all of which form part of the L2 Motivational Self System.

Dörnyei and his colleagues hypothesise that the 'ideal L2 self' is the strongest motivator within the Motivational L2 Self-System (Dörnyei, 2009b, 2009c; Ushioda, 2009; Csizér and Lukács, 2010; Kormos *et al.*, 2011; Dörnyei and Chan, 2013; Kormos and Kiddle, 2013). It is central to the promotion of motivated behaviour beneficial to language learning, yet it is open to influence from other components in the system as well as from the surrounding learning environment. The analysis of the 'ideal L2 self' will therefore begin by highlighting the dynamic properties of this self-conceptualisation, and how negative experience can impact strongly on this self-image. This will then be followed by examples of how the opposite can also be true, in that positive experiences can help to reinforce the 'ideal L2 self'.

The analysis on the development of the participants' ideal L2 selves begins with an examination of the initial questionnaire results and initial informal interviews with students as they began their residence abroad in Spain. As the data in Sections 6.1 and 7.1 indicate, the vast majority of the participants arrived in Spain with a very positive outlook for their SA experience. The results from the first questionnaire revealed that both attitude and motivation were highly ranked across all three variable scales (Attitude: $M= 8.45$, $SD= .954$; Integrative Motivation: $M= 8.72$, $SD= 1.013$; Instrumental Motivation: $M= 8.19$, $SD= 1.242$). Moreover, the students indicated to what they were most looking forward whilst in Spain, with the most common answers including both 'Getting to experience a new culture' ($N= 52$) and 'Learning/improving Spanish' ($N= 37$). These results seem to indicate that many students had a strong ideal L2 self-image upon arrival in Spain according to these initial results.

The strength of the ideal L2 self-conceptualisation, however, tends to differ when the responses from the initial questionnaire are examined more closely. For instance, much like the analysis in Sections 6.1 and 7.1, many of the participants in Barcelona ($N= 20$) cited 'traveling' and 'making social connections' as the activities to which they were most looking forward while in Spain. Additionally, many Granada participants also indicated that they were looking forward to traveling and socialising while abroad ($N= 10$), though a much larger percentage of Granada participants indicated on the first questionnaire that learning

Spanish was an important reason for their residence in Spain than their peers in Barcelona (Granada: 77%; Barcelona: 52%).

Therefore, despite the relatively positive indications of motivational orientations and attitudes, an argument could be made that many of the students held stronger, non-linguistic motives, likely in relation to cultural experiences, when studying abroad. This notion can also be evidenced through the program prospectuses, which highlight the cultural focus on many of the classes and their program's fulfilment of the home university's 'Global Connections Experience' requirement (See Section 1.3).

As such, the non-linguistic motives of some students may then have been in conflict with the formation of a strong ideal self, despite their reported desires to learn Spanish and integrate into the receptor culture. Furthermore, Dörnyei (2009b, pg. 33) points out that one of the key prerequisites for the ideal L2 self to function as a motivational power is that it must *exist* in the first place. The disparity between the linguistic and non-linguistic motives held by the students may indicate such a lack of an envisioned future self.

The maintenance of a strong ideal L2 self is further hindered by the overall decline in both motivational orientations and attitudinal perspectives throughout the participants' time abroad (see Chapters 6 and 7). Surprisingly, almost every student exhibited a significant decline in integrative motivation and positive attitude over the course of their months abroad, while instrumental motivation declined less significantly. Many appear to have had certain negative experiences while abroad, which led to such a decline. Such instances thus highlight the importance of the educational and sociocultural experiences related to language-learning in the creation of the ideal self; it appears that negative experiences or unmet expectations may have impacted on students' overall perceptions of the residence abroad.

Examples of negative experiences were seen in both Granada and Barcelona. One common theme among many of the examples was the challenge of using Spanish in everyday life. Barcelona Fall participant Dave gave an example of unexpected daily challenges when asked about feelings of culture shock:

Dave: "[There are] moments of realization of where I am, usually coming at a moment when I'm struggling at something normally done easily at home, like food shopping."

Such a theme appeared to be common amongst those learners with a lower proficiency level and may have lessened the impact of the ideal L2 self as a motivational tool.

Moreover, Dave's sentiments appeared to be shared by a number of other students who felt that they struggled to complete everyday tasks. For instance, when the students went to purchase a SIM card from a local mobile phone store (See Section 9.2.1), Barcelona Fall participant Beckett stated, "I just don't know enough Spanish yet to communicate what I want. It's really frustrating." Similarly, in the second questionnaire, Spring Barcelona participants Maya and Greg referred simply to the, "language barrier," as an obstacle to their daily use of Spanish, though do not give further details. Others, such as Joe and Ivan from Granada and Allen from Barcelona mentioned that a lack of vocabulary hindered their speech on their second questionnaires. Joe, in particular, stated that, "I learn so much in class, but I always forget it when I'm out," signalling the difficulties in actively utilising vocabulary rather than learning definitions in a classroom setting. Indeed, such struggles may have lessened the viability of the ideal self as pertaining to a realistic future.

Another common challenge reported by the students was the use of English by potential interlocutors, despite the participants' reported efforts to communicate in Spanish. Barcelona participant Greg stated simply during an informal interview, "they just speak to me in English, because of my pronunciation," to which he later elaborated as being a particularly frustrating aspect of life in the city. The example provided by Granada participant Dylan reflects a similar sentiment:

Researcher: Have there been any other things that have made it difficult for you to learn Spanish?

Dylan: Well, yeah, so whenever we go out or do anything with Holly, we always let her speak in Spanish for us, because they all think she's Spanish. When they hear us speaking in Spanish, they just switch to English. So now, I try to limit my time with Holly because if I'm with her, I'll just let her talk to people [in Spanish].

Researcher: Why don't you try to use Spanish with Holly when you're speaking to someone?

Dylan: I don't know, it's just easier I think. She's so much better than we are, that sometimes I think we just get lazy and let her do it. It's so easy for her.

Here, Dylan presented not only the challenge of interlocutors addressing her in English, but also the inferiority she felt when attempting to use her Spanish while socialising with advanced-speaker Holly. Such an ongoing negative experience in using Spanish undoubtedly impacted upon Dylan's overall perceptions of herself as a speaker of Spanish.

Perhaps the strongest example of a negative experience in using Spanish came from Spring Barcelona participant Allen (see Chapter 6) who was explicitly demeaned for his repeated use of Spanish at a local internet café. Allen's example, and those above, clearly contributed to the decline in the ideal L2 self image. In Allen's case, such an experience may have diminished his ideal self all together, resulting in a complete lack of motivated effort exhibited after such an encounter. As such, the feedback presented by interlocutors plays an undeniable role in the development, and, in these examples, the decline of the participants' ideal L2 selves. Similar studies on SA reflect this finding, as interactions with local interlocutors may have a similar effect on the attitudes and motivational perspectives of students abroad across many different context (Isabelli-Garcia, 2006; Kinginger, 2008; Coleman and Chafer, 2011; Jackson, 2013; Kormos and Csizér, 2014).

Other challenges expressed by the participants were not directly related to their use of Spanish, but appeared to have an impact on their experience abroad nonetheless. For instance, some cited the Mediterranean Spanish diet as an obstacle into their integration into Spanish life, such as Spring Barcelona participant Mick:

Researcher: So, is there anything that you really don't like so far in Spain?

Mick: The food here is really different. Like, I can't find a lot of the things I'm used to eating, and the restaurants are expensive. But it's getting better.

Similarly, Fall Barcelona participants Margery and Casey commented on Spanish cuisine:

Margery: The food was a huge shock for me. I never realized how American I was eating.

Casey: The food was the hardest part to adapt to. I don't eat fish or pork.

Others, such as Spring Barcelona participant Harrison and Spring Granada participant Dylan commented on the Spanish daily routine when asked about challenges faced while abroad:

Harrison: It was really hard getting around at first 'cause I didn't know where anything was, and then stuff closes in the middle of the day so you never know if a place is going to be open.

Dylan: The siesta was really weird. I felt like I could do things during the [mid-day break], but I couldn't [because stores are closed]. And all the stores are closed on Sundays.

Such examples based primarily on non-linguistic challenges may not affect those students with a strong instrumental motive, who might be acquiring Spanish for future professional prospects. Yet, a dislike of the food or daily routine of the Spanish and Catalans would certainly impact on someone acquiring Spanish for integrative reasons, as those individuals may ultimately desire to live in the host culture. Such an aversion to these Iberian cultural traits could weaken the ideal L2 self of some of the participants as they are unable to realistically picture themselves as adhering to cultural traits for an extended period of time. A similar notion is revealed in a study by Jackson (2013), whereby cultural traits that are perceived negatively can then develop into negative perceptions of the entire L2 learning environment.

A final challenge reported by a number of students which may have impacted on their ideal self-conceptualisation involved the participants' living arrangements. A notable example came from Fall Barcelona participant Susan, who detailed her experiences with a Brazilian housemate during an informal interview:

Researcher: So, have you encountered anything in Barcelona so far that you'd say has been negative?

Susan: Well, for me it's my roommates. I live with this girl from Brazil, and she's nice and everything, but she never cleans. And then my other roommate from Colombia is, like, really anti-social. We almost never see him. It's almost like they've never lived in a shared apartment before. And I'm pretty sure the Brazilian girl is stealing my shampoo. I feel like I have to hide the things I buy for myself, or someone else will use them.

Researcher: Do you live with anyone from Spain then? Or is it just those two?

Susan: Well, I live with [another American], and she's fine. But I wonder if all apartments are like this.

Further examples were provided by Granada participant Ivan and Barcelona participant Benjamin during separate interviews:

Ivan: The biggest shock to me so far has been my Japanese roommate.

Benjamin: I live with this Vietnamese guy. He's really weird. He just sits in his room all day. I think I've only talked to him once.

Though Ivan did not provide explicit details, the examples from all three participants denoted a difference in the cultural expectations of house sharing. Additionally, all three may represent instances of ethnocentrism, a theme that has emerged throughout the qualitative analyses. Yet, despite being unrelated to the participants' use of Spanish, such encounters in sharing accommodation could certainly reflect onto their development of an ideal L2 self. Their possible assumption that all experiences in shared accommodation would be reminiscent of their residence abroad in Spain may have served to diminish their expectations of integrating into the host society.

Yet, not all of the participants' experiences were observed to be negative. Despite the reported decline in the perceptions of motivation and attitude throughout the participants' time abroad, a number of positive experiences were also reported. In contrast to the negative L2 learning experiences, those positive ones may serve to strengthen the image of the ideal self.

Several of the foremost examples of positive experiences in Spain involved those students who lived in a homestay. Almost every student who resided in a homestay mentioned that speaking to their host family was supportive in their acquisition of Spanish. For example, Spring Granada participant Esme commented on her host mother's hospitality:

Esme: My host mom takes such good care of me. She gave me tea and called the pharmacy and took my temperature when I was sick yesterday. She said 'you have such red cheeks, are you ok?' when I came down for dinner. [She] is really good about speaking slowly so I can understand, but when my 'hermanos' speak to each other, I can't understand them.

Fall Granada participants George and Eric also mentioned that their shared host mother was a significant influence on their development of Spanish, whilst Fall Barcelona participant Oscar claimed that his host grandmother was very hospitable and encouraging, “even when I was making lots of mistakes.”

Even Barcelona participant Allen, whose negative experience had a profound impact on him, reported that being with his host family was one of his most positive experiences in Spain:

Researcher: How about positive experiences? Have you had any really positive learning moments since you’ve been here?

Allen: Yeah, I think mine has to be with my host family. In the beginning my host mother would just talk *at* me, but after a while, I could finally have a full conversation with her and understand almost everything she was saying.

Such a comment may seem surprising from Allen, particularly after such a negative experience in the internet cafe; however his references provide evidence for role of the L2 learning experience in both the damage and re-construction of the ideal L2 self. These sentiments relating to the host family also echo the results of a study by Shiri (2015), where the host mother, above all else, was central to making SA students feel welcome in the family.

Comparably, other types of accommodation with Spanish-speakers also appeared to provide generally positive experiences for those students. Specifically, Fall Granada participant Jacob lived in a hall of residence with other Spanish students, and commented on how living with other students his age was helpful for making friends quickly and practicing his Spanish. Furthermore, Jacob and fellow Granada participant Catherine mentioned that the roommates of another participant were also Spanish students, and through such acquaintances the group was able to use their Spanish frequently in relaxed social settings.

These constructive experiences of interacting with native Spanish speakers, particularly in the settings of a homestay or shared accommodation, certainly contributed to the strengthening of the participants’ ideal self. However, the extent to which these interactions took place remained relatively unknown, and thus difficult to compare with

the impact of the negative experiences as a whole. Still, other experiences cited by the students signalled the formation, or perhaps re-formation, of the ideal L2 self as a motivating factor.

One such experience was cited by Spring Barcelona participant Anna when asked on the final visit to Barcelona about a particularly positive experience in Spain:

Researcher: Have you had any positive learning moments since you've been in Barcelona?

Anna: So when my mom and my sister came here and we ate out like, a lot, and it kind of forced me to interact with people. That was, like, the defining moment of Barcelona for me. Because they didn't speak any Spanish so I had to do all the talking.

Anna's 'defining moment' was certainly a reflection of her ideal L2 self, particularly as she exhibited confidence in using her Spanish when her mother and sister were unable to communicate using the local language. Additionally, Anna cited speaking with the local student services coordinator as another positive experience throughout her time abroad.

A further interesting example came from Spring Granada participant Amanda, who claims that her positive experiences stemmed from a café that she frequented:

Researcher: Have there been any really positive experiences in Granada, maybe that have helped you to practice your Spanish?

Amanda: I talk to the girl at the coffee shop every morning. Like, so much that sometimes she gives me free coffee! I've seen her, like, every day since we got here. She doesn't speak any English so we always speak in Spanish. I see her so often now that she even stops to say hi if she sees me somewhere [outside of] the restaurant.

Amanda later claimed on the final questionnaire that she started to socialise with her friend at the café in other social settings, which led to an introduction to other local acquaintances. The experience seemed to truly shape Amanda's social experiences in Spain, even though the friendship took several months to develop. For Amanda, it appeared that such a gradual friendship was a testament to the maintenance of her ideal

self. Undoubtedly, such an ongoing positive experience also supported its development as a motivator.

A final and particularly curious example of the significance of the ideal L2 self in promoting motivated behaviour is seen in the observations of Fall Granada participant Brendan, who desired to learn both Spanish and Japanese while abroad. Whilst the Encuesta de Población Activa de España (2012) only cites a total of 123 Japanese individuals living in Granada, the academic program staff managed to fulfil Brendan's request to live with a Japanese-speaker as well as a local Granada resident during his residence abroad.

Upon meeting Brendan, he initially expressed his desire to take content modules in Spanish, as well as language-related classes:

Researcher: So what made you choose Granada to study abroad?

Brendan: Well I really wanted to take classes that were taught in Spanish, and it seemed like a lot of the other programs only offered classes taught in English. And I might get to take some classes for my major at the university of Granada so that would be really cool.

However, upon speaking with Brendan during the second visit, his focus seemed to have shifted from learning Spanish to practicing Japanese:

Researcher: Have you had a lot of opportunities to practice your Spanish yet?

Brendan: I've actually been practicing more Japanese than Spanish at home. I have a Japanese roommate and some Japanese friends.

Researcher: Can I ask, why Japanese?

Brendan: Well, some of my friends back home are Japanese, and I've been studying Japanese for a while, and I'm planning on going there over Christmas break, so I want to keep it up.

A third meeting with Brendan towards the end of his time abroad confirmed his affection for Japanese:

Researcher: Are you going to travel around Spain during the holiday weekend?

Brendan: No actually, I've got a lot of presentations to finish and this is the only time I have to finish them. And I'm going to Japan for two weeks next month, so I need to save money. Japan can be really expensive.

Brendan's experiences in Spain truly reflect the power of the ideal self as a motivator, which in Brendan's case was most likely as a future speaker of Japanese rather than of Spanish. Though his future plans to learn Japanese are unknown, it can be assumed that such a practice continued based on his enthusiasm for travelling there. This is clearly evidenced by his active pursuit of Japanese interlocutors, despite studying in Granada and initially claiming to want to learn Spanish. Interestingly, Brendan actually claimed to have more Japanese-speaking social contacts than English- or Spanish-speaking ones, adding further verification to this notion. It is likely that Brendan's ideal L2 self did consist of a Spanish-speaker of some kind; however, it is clear that his future self image as a Japanese speaker was much more salient. Moreover, Brendan's ranking of his experiences in Granada were consistently positive, suggesting that his ideal self image of a Japanese speaker was maintained throughout.

In sum, the impact of the ideal L2 self does appear to be a strong motivating factor for some of the participants; however, it appears that a lack of a concrete future self image, or damaged perceptions of the ideal self as a result of negative experience, can also act as an interference to the motivated behaviour exhibited by the learners. Moreover, it can be argued that the role of the L2 learning experience is even more significant than previously imagined. Such a finding supports Dörnyei's (2009a, pg. 30) initial theories on the role of the L2 learning experience, which he admits required future research for validation. The question then arises as to the role of the third component in the L2 Motivational Self System, the ought-to L2 self. Its impact is investigated among both the Barcelona and Granada contexts.

9.2.4 The Role of the Ought-to L2 Self

In contrast to the constructive role of the ideal L2 self in promoting behaviour related to language-learning, the ought-to L2 self has been shown to actually inhibit such behaviour (Taguchi *et al.*, 2009; Papi, 2010; Dörnyei and Chan, 2013). Its influence, as postulated by Dörnyei (2009b), tends to be directed by external pressures and the avoidance of

potentially negative situations, which may subsequently promote behaviour that is less specified to the purposes of language acquisition.

In order to explore the role of the ought-to L2 self, examples are presented from both cities, with a particular focus on those students who were less successful at integrating into their respective host cultures. As such, it may be assumed that the ought-to self contributed in some degree to some the participants' lack of linguistic development and cultural integration.

Additionally, Dörnyei (2009a) points out the importance of external pressures, such as suggestions from parents or universities, on the development of the ought-to L2 self; however, due to a lack of data on such extrinsic forces, these elements will not receive focus in this section. Instead, the examples presented will focus more so on external peer pressures and the avoidance of negative situations, which Dörnyei (2009a) suggests are equally relevant.

Perhaps the most common and salient examples of reflections of the ought-to self were observed among the Barcelona participants. Spring Barcelona participant Maya exemplifies the negative influence of the ought-to self on behaviour conducive to language learning. Initially, Maya cited, "learning the language, ... meeting people [and] gaining a further cultural understanding," as those aspects of SA to which she was most looking forward in Spain. Yet, after speaking to Maya about her interaction with Spanish-speakers on a second visit to Barcelona, she expressed less interest in cultural integration:

Researcher: Have you had a lot of opportunities to practice your Spanish?

Maya: I have friends visiting me who are studying abroad in other cities like every weekend, so when they come we always go out to like, [popular nightclubs], or do the touristy things. I mean, I speak Spanish in like cabs and restaurants and stuff, but when my friends aren't visiting me here, I'm visiting them somewhere else so I don't have a lot of free time.

Furthermore, as stated previously, Maya mentioned that the diversity among SA destinations had been pre-planned, such that the friends would be able to travel to multiple European destinations to visit others in their friendship group. Moreover, Maya indicated on her second questionnaire that her most frequent interactions occurred almost

exclusively in English, signalling that her interactions with fellow American students were those most central to her social life.

Maya's example is clearly one reflective of the ought-to self, where peer pressure and societal obligations (set by her friendship group) took precedence over Maya's desire to learn Spanish. Additionally, this could also be a prime example of an unrealistic or undefined ideal L2 self, wherein the intrinsic desire to learn Spanish is less salient than perhaps the desire to host friends and visit other European cities.

Maya's behaviour, therefore, was dictated by her social obligation rather than her reported desire to learn Spanish. The avoidance of negative situations may also play a role in Maya's lack of involvement with the host culture, as she cited "culture and language barriers," and, "how blunt Spanish people can be," as obstacles which prevented her integration. Interestingly, Maya later scored three points less on her second proficiency exam than she did on her first exam, suggesting that such a lack of interaction may have actually lead to language attrition (Brown, 2009a; Vande Berg *et al.*, 2009). Yet, despite her lack of interactions with the host culture, Maya still reported that her personal experiences were very positive, indicating that perhaps her aspirations to learn Spanish were only indicated as per her participation in the study. Such results strongly reflect the findings from Allen (2010, 2013), Vande Berg *et al.* (2009), and Wolcott (2013), whose participants reported very positive experiences despite exhibiting few linguistic gains.

The experiences of Spring Barcelona participant Greg also exemplify the role of the ought-to L2 self. As with Maya, Greg stated on his first questionnaire that he is most looking forward to, "attempting to immerse myself in the language and participating in the everyday life of a Barcelona citizen." Yet, when asked verbally about his selection of Barcelona as a SA destination, he also cited, "going out," as a key feature that attracted him to the city, with no mention of learning Spanish as a primary desire (see Section 7.1.3).

Moreover, Greg's actions observed during the first and second visits to Spain confirmed his priority of 'going out.' In the first instance of observing Greg in a social situation at a local pub, he maintained all conversation in English. He was also observed to be asking questions about the drinks menu to the bar staff in English, rather than in Spanish, despite the staff being native Spanish/Catalans. Additionally, Greg was seen to introduce himself to other American students at the pub who were not part of the participant group, but was never

observed to use Spanish with the staff or other local patrons. Greg's only utterance in Spanish was made to the doorman, to whom he said, "buenas noches" [good night] upon leaving the establishment.

The second observation of Greg took place at the SA program centre, and therefore his interactions with any local residents could not be observed. Greg did, however, comment on his social life when asked about his experiences thus far in Barcelona:

Researcher: So have you made any local friends since you've been here?

Greg: Well, I've made a load of friends, but most of them are the friends of some other people that I know here from my [home] university. A lot of them are from the US, but sometimes we hang out with other international students.

Researcher: Do you get a chance to use your Spanish often?

Greg: I mean, sometimes we speak in Spanish when we go out, but just to order drinks and stuff. Everybody speaks to me in English when I try to speak in Spanish, so English is just easier.

It is clear that Greg's actions up until the second Barcelona visit were reflective of his ought-to L2 self, which furthers his priority of socialising, rather than of utilising his Spanish and integrating into the host culture. Additionally, Greg's actions observed during the first visit and his ever-growing American social group seem to suggest that Greg had simply recreated his university social dynamic, but within the confines of a new host city. Furthermore, Greg's preference of compatriot interlocutors may have been a means to avoid potentially negative or uncomfortable situations, as he mentioned that his potential Spanish interlocutors would often speak to him in English when he attempted to speak to them in Spanish. Similar to Maya, such priorities during a residence abroad may also be indicative of an unrealistic ideal self.

Interestingly, Greg stated on the second questionnaire that he predominantly used English in most social situations. Yet, Greg later reported on his final questionnaire that he became closer with a Colombian housemate, and began to use his Spanish more frequently. Greg also made a four-point improvement to his proficiency exam score, suggesting that he did improve his Spanish abilities to some extent. While Greg did not explicitly state that his Colombian housemate was a positive influence on his experiences in Barcelona, such a

change may suggest that his ideal L2 self began to motivate him in the later weeks of the semester abroad.

One final example of the ought-to self operating in contrast to the ideal self is seen in Spring Granada participant Dylan (See Section 9.2.3). Though Dylan consistently indicates that learning Spanish is her priority, she clearly exemplifies the notion of avoiding a potentially negative situation, as well as a potential decline in the strength of the ideal L2 self, as mentioned above. This is observed in Dylan's admission that she allowed fellow participant Holly to speak Spanish on her behalf, giving excuses such as, "it's just easier," and, "when they hear [me] speaking in Spanish, they just switch to English," for her lack of interaction experience. Moreover, Dylan admitted a lack of confidence in speaking her second language, suggesting that her strategy of allowing Holly to speak instead was a means to save face.

Dylan's experiences provide a clear example of the struggle to maintain motivation and an ideal L2 self-image, particularly as the ought-to L2 self and some potentially negative situations can have a strong impact on the L2 learning experience (Dörnyei, 2009b; Ushioda, 2009; Papi, 2010). Though it appears that Dylan had already conceived an ideal self as a Spanish speaker prior to going to Spain, her lack of confidence and lack of positive encounters with local Granada residents evidently limited her motivated behaviour. Dylan's case was, therefore, much more related to the struggle of avoiding possible negative encounters during her residence abroad, which in turn limited her motivated behaviour in order to avoid such instances.

Fortunately for Dylan, she later reported in her third questionnaire that she had begun to visit local shops and conveniences on her own, without the assistance of Holly. In a brief final interview, she claimed that these experiences did help her to practice her linguistic skills, but such efforts were only evident towards the end of her residence abroad. As with Greg, such an example could be indicative of the strengthening of the ideal self as a motivator during the last few weeks of her time in Granada. Though the reason behind such a change is not clear, such a result may be reflective of Coleman's (2009, pg. 9) suggestion that a longer time abroad may be linked to more frequent, "engagement with the local cultures".

In sum, the above examples provide evidence in support of Dörnyei's (2009a) theory that language-learning motivation has a powerful influence over behaviour conducive to L2 acquisition. Specifically, the presence and maintenance of the ideal L2 self appears to be central for those learners who reported positive experiences in interaction with host locals. Also, evidence provided in the cases of Greg and Anna from Barcelona and Dylan from Granada indicate that perhaps the ideal L2 self takes longer to develop in some individuals, therefore revealing why many only began to exhibit such motivated behaviour in the later stages of the residence abroad.

Moreover, it seems that in the case of a less-defined or less-realistic ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self and the language learning experience tend to dictate behaviour for learners. Maya's case is a prime example of this notion, as her motivation to socialise and travel was much stronger and prescriptive than her language-learning motivation, thus providing reason for her lack of integration and linguistic development while abroad. One could even argue that the participants' motives regarding cultural experiences constitute a part of the ought-to self, whereby *experiencing* a different culture may take precedence to SLA; this is doubly apparent if Wolcott's (2013) discussion is taken into account, wherein SA students might perceive cultural *learning* as separate from cultural integration. This notion may be indicative of why many of the participants had little regular contact with host locals, apart from those in homestays, during their residence abroad.

9.3 The Application of the Communities of Practice and the L2 Motivational Self System Frameworks

It is clear that the two frameworks above are able to account for a number of the individual differences among the learners, including how motivational orientations and social communities can act to influence behaviour and facilitate or hinder language learning. Moreover, the conflict between the ideal self and the ought-to self was apparent among many of the participants, which could be attributed to a psychological opposition between linguistic and cultural motives.

Thus, the final step to analysing both motivated behaviour and social practice while abroad requires that the impact of the L2 motivational self system be examined in tandem with the communities of practice framework. Though many of the above examples have already

alluded to such a connection, it is essential to demonstrate how both frameworks can be combined in this study to explain learner behaviour, social practice and perceived achievement. Equally, combining these methods serves to analyse the data from a Dynamic Systems perspective, wherein the learning experiences of the participants are observed as a whole, rather than a sum of parts (De Bot *et al.*, 2007; Ellis, 2007; Larsen-Freeman and Cameron, 2008; Dörnyei *et al.*, 2015; Ushioda, 2015). The application of these frameworks then allows for emergent themes in the data to be explored, thus providing further evidence for their application in the systematic analysis of individual experiences abroad. In order to do so, two key examples are provided.

9.3.1 Case Study: Ivan

The first example of this analytical combination considers the case of Ivan, who was introduced in detail in Section 9.2.2. With regards to a community of practice, Ivan's engagement in 'intercambios' could be considered participation in micro-communities of practice, one with each exchange partner. Though Ivan typically only met with one partner at a time, their relationship perfectly reflects the definition of a community of practice as stated by Wenger (1998). Their mutual engagement and joint enterprise centered around both individuals' desire to improve their linguistic ability and their shared practice of interaction. The notion of shared resources is also related to each individual's linguistic abilities, as they shared their different L1 capabilities with the other speaker.

In addition, Ivan mentioned that he later became closer with one of his exchange partners, and was subsequently introduced to other local residents in the later stages of his residence abroad. This signalled Ivan's peripheral inclusion in a different community of practice, where the shared practice was related to socialising, and perhaps mutual interest, rather than linguistic development. Moreover, Ivan specifically mentioned this transition as an experience in Granada which facilitated his acquisition of Spanish, even with little prior classroom study of the language.

In relation to the L2 motivational self system, Ivan's productive behaviour in Granada relates to the existence of a well-defined ideal L2 self. For example, Ivan stated that he was most looking forward to, "learning the language [and] interacting with locals," whilst in Granada. He also commented that, "I originally wanted to go to Barcelona, but I stopped myself. I thought, 'they speak Catalan and everyone speaks English there' so I wouldn't

learn Spanish’,” signalling his forethought in selecting Granada as a means to accomplish his goal.

Yet, Ivan’s success was not only defined by his reported desire to learn Spanish, but also his realistic expectations of meeting local residents abroad. In the first questionnaire, he expresses a very realistic anxiety for achieving such a goal, as he states, “learning the language definitely makes me nervous, especially talking to natives who I don’t know.” He also later reiterated this statement when asked about challenges faced thus far in learning Spanish: “It’s really intimidating talking to Spanish people, especially people you don’t know.”

These statements reflect Ivan’s desires to learn Spanish, but also his realistic expectations of going abroad and the difficulties of making friends in a new city. As a result, Ivan took steps to mediate his fears *and* accomplish his goals by participating in organised language exchanges, rather than simply meeting locals at other social gatherings. One could argue that Ivan’s well-defined ideal L2 self promoted this behaviour conducive to language acquisition; simultaneously, his ought-to self acted as a balance to mediate his fears of negative situations by encouraging such behaviour in the more controlled environment of a language exchange.

Subsequently, Ivan was able to work towards his goal in a productive and positive way, by establishing such micro-communities of practice, which were specifically intended to promote linguistic development. By means of these positive learning experiences related to the language exchanges, and his further participation in a social community of practice with local residents, Ivan successfully achieved his goal of developing his Spanish-language abilities and integrating into the host community.

In summary, Ivan’s ideal L2 self and ought-to L2 self functioned in tandem to promote language learning behaviour in the secure, positive communities of practice associated with language exchanges. Such positivity throughout his language-learning experience then acted in support of his language-learning strategy, which maintained his ideal self-image as a speaker of Spanish. The communities of practice in this example functioned as the mechanism for learning Spanish; however such participation in the communities of practice would not have occurred if not for the motivation behind their organisation. The reinforcement of the positive learning experience then acted to maintain the motivation

and subsequent L2 interaction, providing evidence that each element does indeed contribute to the language-learning process as a dynamic system (Ellis, 2007; De Bot, 2008; Dörnyei, 2009b; Waninge *et al.*, 2014).

The premise that the ideal L2 self and the ought-to self both contributed positively to Ivan's establishment of communities of practice in Granada is an example of how a language learner can perceive significant linguistic development in such a short period of time. However, it is equally important to observe the counterpart to the system, wherein the ideal self and the ought-to self are largely unbalanced, leading to a general lack of integration and linguistic development. The experiences of Spring Barcelona participant Maya exemplify such a counterpart.

9.3.2 Case Study: Maya

Maya arrived in Barcelona with what might be considered an intermediate level of Spanish. She scored 10/21 on her initial proficiency exam, and she reported that she had studied Spanish for five years in both high school and at university. Additionally, Maya cited both linguistic and cultural motives (See Section 9.2.4) for studying abroad, and felt that meeting native speakers was easy for her, as evidenced through her questionnaire results.

Yet, in examining Maya's responses to the second questionnaire more closely, she exhibited almost no regular interaction in Spanish apart from with one native Spanish/Catalan speaker with whom she spoke some Spanish and saw 'a few times a week'. Maya also reported spending much time hosting friends or visiting friends in other European cities, thus suggesting that her ideal L2 self may have been undefined, leaving her ought-to self to promote social obligations in its stead.

Yet, one key element is missing from an analysis of Maya's SA experience, as it is clear that Maya's social circle also contributed to her apparent indifference of her language-learning goal. Therefore, it is necessary to examine Maya's communities of practice while abroad in order to explain their influence on her behaviour.

As described in Section 9.2, none of the participants had met each other prior to arrival in Spain, and thus established a community of practice with their fellow travelers upon arrival in their host city. This led to the formation a strong bond among the students, which persisted throughout their residence abroad (see Chapter 8).

Still, the SA participant group clearly did not comprise Maya's only community of practice outside of the US. Her reported friendship group from her home university could also be considered a community of practice, whose shared practice would involve socialising and sightseeing. Moreover, this second community of practice while abroad maintained its mutual engagement even when its members were spread across a large geographical area, providing evidence of its strength despite its participants not interacting every day.

This would indicate that Maya therefore participated in two key communities of practice abroad, one with her home university group and another with her fellow program students. Moreover, Maya clearly valued her participation in the shared practice of exploring European cities with her friends, and she reported her strongest social connections in Barcelona as being with other program participants. However, neither community of practice appeared to facilitate behaviour related to language-learning, in part because Maya reported spending much of her extended free time abroad outside of her host city. Furthermore, the native Spanish/Catalan speaker with whom Maya reported interacting may have provided her with some meaningful L2 interaction; however, she did not mention this person when asked about her interactions in Spanish in an informal interview.

These trends in Maya's social interactions therefore suggest that her ought-to self reinforced her behaviour of interacting with her two main communities of practice, while her ideal L2 self was largely overlooked. In turn, the other members of the communities of practice sustained Maya's ought-to self behaviour, which limited her potential time for interacting in Spanish in favour of socialising and touring around Europe with her American peers. Also, these two communities not only provided her with a sense of security while abroad, but undoubtedly limited potential negative interactions with Spanish-speaking interlocutors, particularly as she cited the, "language barrier," as an obstacle to her acquisition of Spanish.

Maya's experiences and that of the other members of her communities of practice provide evidence for the strength of such a community in shaping the shared practice of its members (Eckert, 2000; Eckert and Wenger, 2005). Additionally, Maya's strong adherence to her home-university community of practice could be out of fear of isolation, such as the case of the *in-betweens* mentioned by Eckert (2000).

A further conclusion that can be drawn from Maya's example is that her ideal L2 self was largely unfounded upon arrival in Spain, despite her claims of wanting to learn Spanish. Such a notion is reinforced through her admission that the shared plans between Maya and her friends had been pre-arranged, likely many months before her travel abroad. This would suggest that Maya's plans for regular sightseeing holidays across Europe took precedence over perhaps her less salient goals of cultural integration and language acquisition. Such a finding would support Dörnyei's (2009a) notion that external societal pressures exhibited on the ought-to L2 self can be particularly damaging to the self-perception of the ideal self, especially if such a self-image is unrealistic or less defined.

Despite her lack of integration, Maya still reported a very positive experience abroad (See Section 9.2.4). Moreover, she might also be compared with Wolcott's (2013) participant, Lola, who valued independence in exploring her host city and learning about her receptor culture without the need to integrate. It could be argued that Maya's excursions around Europe constituted 'further cultural understanding' in her opinion, and if so, she clearly achieved this objective.

These two cases serve as examples of how the L2 motivational self system and an individual's communities of practice serve to either promote or limit behaviour related to language learning. On one hand, a balance between the two future selves, as in the case of Ivan, can support the establishment of communities of practice where the L2 is utilised. These communities can then lead to positive experiences in interacting in the L2, which reinforce the attainability of the ideal L2 self and promote future behaviour conducive to language learning.

On the other hand, the opposite can also be true, as a lack of a realistic ideal self may result in the ought-to self becoming the primary director of behaviour. This behaviour is then open to influence from external and societal pressures, as in the case of Maya, which may not promote L2 acquisition. As a result, an individual may align themselves with communities of practice that do not share the goal of language acquisition. These communities then act to reinforce the ought-to self-behaviour by favouring continued social practice unrelated to language learning.

9.4 Emergent Themes in SA

These two case studies represent the extremes of success and possible failure in terms of language acquisition and cultural integration; yet, the two frameworks presented can also be extended to analyse the behaviours and social patterns of other individuals within the participant population. More importantly, these examples showcase the benefits of a more comprehensive, person-centered approach as a means to further understand the learners' experiences abroad, and to address the limitations uncovered throughout the quantitative analysis.

Thus, the next step in this holistic analysis is to apply these analytical frameworks to the significant experiences and contexts that have emerged as a result of the previous analytical chapters. As mentioned previously, these include examples of both positive and negative experiences reported by the participants and observed by the researcher.

9.4.1 Accommodation

One area of discussion common among the participants was their accommodation whilst abroad. As detailed in Section 8.1.4, the most common types of residence were shared apartments and homestays, and the data revealed that, on the whole, the homestay participants had higher Language Contact Scores than those who resided in shared apartments. The ages and nationalities of the housemates varied, but in many cases, participants shared a homestay or apartment with another program participant.

The homestay clearly served as a context which impacted strongly on the experiences of the participants, as evidenced by examples throughout the text (See Sections 7.1.3, 8.2.2, 9.2.1, 9.2.3). Moreover, all of the participants with whom the researcher spoke about their homestays felt very positively about this aspect of their semester abroad.

If the analysis of the homestay context adopted the presented frameworks, each homestay could be classified as a community of practice. The host family and the participant(s) would constitute the community members, and their shared practice would involve activities such as cooking, sharing meals, conversing, and relaxing. The host mother, in particular, appeared to play a critical role in the establishment of the community of practice by first welcoming the participant(s) into the home, and establishing their place as 'children' within

the household. Evidence of this relationship was found in both Barcelona and Granada, and demonstrates the role of the host mother in maintaining the community.

First, housemates Sam and Ethan spoke of their relationship with their host mother during a group outing where several participants were present. Their speech clearly demonstrated their place in the homestay as ‘children’ to whom the host mother had a duty of care:

Alice: So, do you like living in a homestay?

Sam: Yeah, our host mother is really nice, but she keeps feeding us.

Ethan: Yeah, like, after this, we’re going to a Granada [soccer] game, and she made a sandwich for us to take, and that was after she made us a huge lunch.

Sam: I think all of her other kids have moved out, so it’s like she doesn’t have anyone to take care of except us!

Moreover, Sam and Ethan mentioned that their host mother spoke *at* them due to their limited ability to use Spanish during the beginning of the residence abroad (See Section 8.2.2); yet they were later able to hold a conversation with her after several weeks. Sam, Ethan, and their host mother clearly developed shared, “ways of doing things... [and] ways of talking” (Eckert, 2006, pg. 1), which inevitably facilitated their language learning through their household community of practice.

Further examples of the host mother’s role in establishing the homestay community of practice can be seen in examples from Barcelona participants Allen and Oscar, who each lived in a homestay where they were the only student-resident. Each example signifies the role of the participant as a ‘child’ in the home, and the host mother’s role of ‘mother’. For example, during an informal interview in the program centre, Allen stated:

Allen: I really like talking to my host mother, especially at lunch time, and she’s a good cook. But, when I’m out, she goes into my room and she’ll pick up all my dirty clothes and wash them. Im not used to having someone clean up after me all the time, especially my dirty boxers.

In a separate conversation, Oscar mentioned a similar relationship:

Researcher: Do you like your host family?

Oscar: Yeah, I do. I hardly ever see my host brother. He's 15, and he has his own friends so he's not home a lot. But I talk to my host mother every day. She asks me how my day was, and she cooks me dinner every night. I have a host [grandmother] too, who's always home all day, so I hang out with her sometimes.

Despite the potential lack of privacy felt by Allen, the host mothers in these examples clearly welcomed the men into the household as if they were part of the family, and not simply renting a room. While none of the current participants described a widely negative experience in a homestay, these examples contrast the homestay experiences of Ashley, described by Wilkinson (1998), and Ailis, described by Kinginger (2008), wherein the SA student shared a home with a local person or family, but the student acted largely independently from the normal routine of the host individual/family. In the latter examples, the simple coexistence of the student and her host mother/family was not enough to facilitate language learning for either of the women as the homestay environment did not consist of a community of practice. On the other hand, the examples of Sam, Ethan, Allen, and Oscar certainly did represent a community of practice resemblant of a family, which, in turn, was able to facilitate language learning for the men by means of the shared resources and mutual engagement of the community (Wenger, 1998).

In addition, the interactions within the host family community of practice can be attributed to the L2 motivational self system (Dörnyei, 2005; 2009b). In the first instance, it could be argued that the participants who chose a homestay did so as a means to further their language learning, much like the homestay participants in Kinginger's (2008) study of SA students in France. This would be an action motivated by the ideal L2 self, whilst further positive experiences, particularly with the host mother, maintained the ideal L2 self. Equally, some homestay participants, such as Annie, Alice, Oscar, Allen and Anna (See Sections 8.2.2, 9.2.1, 9.2.3) reported that they had little regular contact outside of the homestay with native speakers of Spanish. As with Ivan, this lack of contact outside of the homestay could be a reflection of the ought-to self limiting potentially negative encounters with unknown interlocutors, wherein the participants preferred to utilise the target language in the more comfortable environment of the homestay.

Thus, if the two frameworks were presented in tandem, the result would highlight a dynamic system, wherein the L2 motivational self system first initiates behaviour relating to language learning, and the establishment of the community of practice, typically by way of the host mother, then facilitates the acquisition of the L2 (De Bot *et al.*, 2007; Ellis, 2007; Larsen-Freeman and Cameron, 2008; Dörnyei *et al.*, 2015; Ushioda, 2015). The community of practice then continues to develop its mutual engagement, thus acting as a promoter of the ideal L2 self, with perhaps the ought-to self as a balance to mitigate potentially negative encounters.

However, as seen in the example of Maya, different realisations of future L2 selves amongst other communities of practice can yield different types of behaviour. Central to some of these differences were the experiences reported by participants in shared apartments, where instances of language learning appeared to be far fewer than those reported by homestay participants.

Throughout the informal interviews, very few participants commented on the language use in their shared apartments, thus providing the first piece of evidence that the apartment context seemed to be much less significant in terms of language acquisition from the perspectives of these participants. Additionally, the evidence that *was* collected on language use in this context, primarily from the second questionnaire, suggested that English was the dominant language in these residences, although some participants (See Sections 8.2.1, 8.2.2) reported that they spoke Spanish occasionally with another housemate.

As a result, these contexts demonstrate a very different community of practice, one in which the 'mutual engagement' and 'joint enterprise' certainly existed, but simply were not realised in Spanish. Whilst some participants, such as Krystal and Maeve from Barcelona (See Section 8.2.1), may have spoken infrequently with a housemate in Spanish, these encounters would be insufficient to constitute a community of practice facilitative of language learning, given that the wider shared language with other community members was English. If the home context were taken in isolation from other social contexts, its community of practice likely reinforced the behaviours of its members, thereby maintaining an environment where Spanish was not spoken.

In terms of the L2 motivational self system, it could be argued that participation in this English-speaking community of practice in the shared apartment was encouraged by the ought-to self. Yet, it is clear that such practice may have been difficult to alter, even with a strong ideal L2 self, due to the motives and behaviours of the other housemates. Rather, the shared apartment may have impacted on the learning experience in other ways, whereby either positive or negative experiences with housemates reflected onto contexts in which the L2 could be practiced.

Consequently, the shared apartment likely did not have a direct impact on the students' language learning, but did affect the SA experience as a whole. Evidence of this can be noted in the quotations from Susan in Section 9.2.3 and Andy in Section 8.2.2, wherein negative experiences with housemates inevitably led to a diminished positive attitude with regards to the residence abroad. In contrast, the positive experiences reported regarding the homestay surely also extended to influence SA attitudes and motivations. These results thus reinforce the importance of analysing individual participants, their social communities and their motivational orientations as part of a dynamic system in order to more fully understand how each component impacts on the others.

9.4.2 The Academic Program and the Program Centre

Another factor which appeared to contribute significantly to the participants' experiences in Spain was the academic program, including interactions within the private program centre.

To begin, the choice of academic program could be considered a reflection of the students' initial motives for going to Spain. Whilst this notion was originally hypothesised in Section 1.3.3, it has been demonstrated across a number of examples, wherein the participants' motives appeared to echo the prospectuses of the academic programs in each city (See Sections 7.1.3, 9.2.3). Of course, the 'Global Connections Experience' required by the parent-university of the two programs certainly provides evidence as to the strong cultural motives of the students (See Chapter 7). Equally, the tendency for the Granada group to report more integrative motives and to achieve more linguistic gains reflects the program's module offerings related to Spanish culture, history and language, whilst the more pragmatic and culture-based motives of the Barcelona group certainly reflect the program's interdisciplinary focus on a 'European perspective'.

In terms of the communities of practice framework, it could be argued that these two academic programs facilitated the establishment of the participants' initial communities of practice in Spain. This was accomplished not only by organising the students' orientation and accommodation in each city, but also via the program centre itself, which gave students a shared space to study, converse, and, in the case of the Barcelona centre, attend class away from the outside environment. As a result, the communities each consisted of individual members whose motives echoed the ethos of each prospectus; in turn, the behaviours of the community of practice as a whole clearly mirrored these original intentions for SA. This would include behaviour that perhaps limited the participants' contact with the receptor community in favour of what might be considered cultural experience or exploration, but without the need to interact with many host locals (Gore, 2005; Kinginger, 2008; Wolcott, 2013).

It is only through the strength of a realistic ideal L2 self that behaviours perhaps unrelated to the beliefs and character of the original group are realised by individuals outside of the confines of the participant community of practice. This is clearly evidenced by the examples presented in Sections 9.2.2 and 9.2.3, wherein individual participants, or participant pairs, were observed to exhibit behaviour facilitative of language acquisition outside of the confines of the participant community of practice, despite the participant community still remaining the focal point of the participants' social groups.

Furthermore some of these ideal L2-self behaviours exhibited by individual participants included interactions with program staff. More specifically, a number of interactions were observed between Barcelona students, such as Casey and Lloyd, and the program's student services administrator. Similarly, Granada participants, such as Holly, were observed conversing in Spanish with Granada program coordinators (See Sections 7.2.4, 9.2.3). Barcelona participant Anna even contributed her success in acquiring Spanish in part to her conversations with Barcelona program staff.

These examples highlight the significance of the academic program in two capacities: first, the academic program is central to the formation of the participants' initial communities of practice, and the prospectuses likely attract students with similar motives, thus leading to a cohesive community upon the students' initial arrival in Spain. Second, the program staff serve as interlocutors, thus acting to facilitate language learning for students with linguistic motives. Consequently, the academic program can be seen to impact strongly on

the participants' SA experiences in a number of ways, likely influencing changing motives and attitudes much like the students' accommodation.

9.4.3 Service Encounters

A further emerging theme that was seen to impact on the SA experience was the participants' contact with Spanish-speakers through service encounters. Examples gathered during observations and informal interviews demonstrate how service encounters abroad can illustrate several of the theoretical positions addressed in Section 9.2. Also, service encounters have been seen to both positively and negatively affect student perceptions of the residence abroad as noted in examples throughout the text (See Sections 6.2.3, 7.1.3, 7.2.4, 8.1.2, 9.2.1, 9.2.3).

First, it is necessary to mention what could be classified as positive service encounters, including those which could be seen to facilitate language learning. One interesting example is that of Amanda, whose interactions with a local waitress led to the development of a friendship (See Section 9.2.2). This is clearly an instance where positive experiences through repeated service encounters served to maintain Amanda's ideal L2 self. In turn, the ideal self fosters Amanda's desire to return to the café, thus giving evidence for the systematic nature of how motivation and the L2 learning environment, the café in this instance, influence Amanda's behaviour (Dörnyei, 2009b, 2015).

Moreover, the development of a friendship between Amanda and the waitress signals a change from what Milroy (1980) would classify as a uniplex relationship, to what Wenger and Eckert (Wenger, 1998; Eckert and Wenger, 2005) would identify as a community of practice, with a 'shared practice' of socialising and friendship, rather than a customer/employee relationship. Though Amanda did mention in that this introduction only occurred during the final few weeks of the program, the relationship seemed to truly shape Amanda's social experiences in Spain. For Amanda, it appeared that such a gradual friendship was a testament to the maintenance of her ideal self. Moreover, in Amanda's case, the service-based relationship developed into a community of practice, which undoubtedly facilitated Amanda's language acquisition.

A second example is that of Barcelona participant Dave, who spoke very positively about his repeated encounters with a Spanish barber and with Spanish-speaking staff at a local

bar (See Section 8.1.3). Though these types of relationships would not be classified as communities of practice due to the lack of mutual engagement and shared resources between Dave as a client and the barber or bartender as an employee (Wenger, 1998), they certainly highlight the impact of positive experiences through the L2 learning environment, and more specifically, with target language interlocutors on the development and maintenance of the ideal L2 self (Dörnyei, 2009b).

Furthermore, Dave's return to the same local bar on many occasions with his fellow classmates could be an indication of a balance between Dave's ideal and ought-to selves. By returning to the bar where he often utilised the target language, Dave fulfilled his desires to practice Spanish, thus demonstrating ideal-self behaviour. And by doing so with his classmates, he adhered to the desire to socialise with his friends, thus demonstrating ought-to-self behaviour.

Moreover, as was the case with Ivan, Dave's choice to practice Spanish in an comfortable and informal environment also demonstrated his mitigation of possible negative experiences, thus further demonstrating the ideal and ought-to self balance. This is likely the case with Dave's return to both the local bar and the barber, establishing the importance of both future selves in promoting positive language-learning behaviour (Dörnyei, 2009b; 2015).

Another similar case was reported by Granada housemates Amy and Esme, who described their frequent visit to a local bakery (See 6.2.3). Moreover, the researcher observed this behaviour as she later accompanied the women to the bakery, where the women were greeted by name as they entered. All subsequent interactions were in Spanish, where the baker not only answered questions about pastries, but also asked the women how they were doing. When asked about the interaction, the women spoke of their positive experiences:

Researcher: Do you come [to the bakery] often?

Esme: I come here almost every day, and [the baker] is always here, so I always say hi to him.

Amy: He's super friendly, and I love baking back home so it's really cool to see all of the different things he makes.

Researcher: Do you always speak Spanish with him?

Amy: Yeah, I mean, sometimes I don't know what something is, so he tries to describe it to me and then I have to look it up, but I've never heard him speak English.

As with Dave, the positive encounters between Amy, Esme and the baker signify a behaviour conducive to Spanish language practice which is repeated due to a positive experience each time. Moreover, it appears that the relationship between Amy and Esme, who were both housemates and friends, could constitute a community of practice, where the shared practice in this instance was buying pastries; the women clearly enjoyed this daily outing, thus the *shared* positive experience served to shape the behaviour into one that was both repetitive and facilitative of language learning. The occurrence also demonstrates a balance between the ideal and ought-to selves in that the women chose to utilise their Spanish, but in a comfortable, albeit brief, interaction.

The examples of Amanda, Dave, Amy, and Esme demonstrate the positive nature of service encounters as they relate to the acquisition of the target language. Importantly, they highlight the significance of motivation, the L2 learning environment and, in many cases, the community of practice in maintaining behaviour which facilitates language learning. Interestingly, Amanda noted her relationship with the waitress as someone with whom she interacted in her free time on her second questionnaire, but neither Dave, Amy, nor Esme mentioned their service interlocutors among those with whom they interacted frequently. This phenomenon thus suggests that perhaps service encounters should be further examined or considered when investigating language contact, even if learners are not consciously aware of their role in language practice.

Yet, these positive experiences were not reported for all participants, and many other instances were observed during service encounters which may be seen to hinder language learning. Examples of these include the experiences of Allen and Anna during service encounters reported in Sections 6.2.3, which certainly highlight the impact of a negative experience in the L2 learning environment on subsequent motivation and attitude (Dörnyei, 2009b; 2015). Similarly, the accounts from other participants that service staff would frequently use English, rather than Spanish (See Sections 6.2.3, 8.2.1), could constitute encounters which are particularly damaging to the ideal L2 self (Hsieh, 2009; You and Chan, 2015).

Other examples of interactions in service encounters demonstrate the possible negative influence of the L2 motivational self system and the community of practice on language learning, particularly with regards behaviour that can be attributed to the ought-to self. More specifically, the collective practice of the participant group to socialise in common spaces reinforces the cohesiveness of the community whilst in turn minimising opportunities for L2 practice. Examples of this include Greg's choice to utilise English at a local bar, which subsequently led to all further service-based interactions to be conducted in English (See Sections 7.1.3, 9.2.3). Similarly, the choice to allow one speaker to speak for others demonstrates how the community's behaviour acts to limit L2 interaction (See Sections 7.2.4, 9.2.3). In both cases, these behaviours reflect the ought-to self, wherein the community appears to collectively minimise negative situations and adhere to American social norms. These types of collective behaviours might also be classified as ethnocentric, wherein the Americans choose to engage in service encounters using their own social norms rather than those of the receptor culture (Kinging, 2008, pg. 11).

It is clear from this collection of examples that service encounters can serve to either promote the ideal L2 self through positive encounters, or can act to diminish positive attitude and motivation through negative encounters. Conversely, an examination of service encounters as they relate to different service encounters can also provide a means through which ought-to self-behaviour can be explored, possibly uncovering collective attitudes of ethnocentrism (Kinging, 2009; Coleman, 2009). In either case, these examples demonstrate that service encounters provide a strong means through which to analyse a range of behaviours and experiences that certainly support the conceptualisation of SA and SLA as a dynamic system.

9.4.4 The Impact of Catalan on the Barcelona Learning Experience

Another theme that has been alluded to throughout many of the sections describing SA in Barcelona is the presence of the co-official language, Catalan, within the autonomous community of Catalunya (See Section 1.3.2). As the vast majority of the Barcelona population report being bilingual in Spanish and Catalan (IDESCAT, 2015), an analysis on Catalan's role in the Barcelona SA experience may shed some light on the participants' overall lack of contact with target language speakers in the city. Moreover, a recent study published by Cigliana and Serrano (Forthcoming) points out the need for further research

into this context, as Catalan has been shown to have a significant and varying impact on American sojourners attempting to learn Spanish in the city through SA.

As mentioned in Section 1.3.3, the Barcelona participants were required to undertake a five-week course on Catalan language, and many of the modules offered by the SA program centre were related specifically to aspects of either Catalan or Barcelona culture, history or enterprise. As a result, the participants were made aware of the presence and function of Catalan within the context of Barcelona, and they were required to take short oral examinations as part of the course mark.

Yet, the students' reported experiences with Catalan, particularly outside of the classroom, appear to vary greatly. To illustrate, all of the students were asked about their experiences with Catalan on the second questionnaire, and Table 9-1 shows a list of common responses, classified as positive, neutral or negative. The most common responses were surprisingly neutral in tone, referring to simple observations about the language. For instance, the most common response (N= 12) when asked about the language was that the students often observed Catalan being used in supermarkets, on street signs, and in the interactions of local residents, but did not mention using it themselves. A further four participants commented that Catalan sounded like French, while four others stated simply that Catalan was similar to Spanish.

Interestingly, seven participants mentioned that they had a positive response from local Barcelona residents after attempting to use Catalan as a greeting or in a service situation. For instance, Spring Barcelona participant Harrison stated that, "we introduced ourselves in Catalan and [the locals] got a kick out of it," signalling a positive experience in using the language despite the students' lack of experience in studying it.

Table 9-1: Perceptions of Catalan in Barcelona on Questionnaire 2

Response Type	Typical Response	N
Positive	A positive response from local residents after attempting to use Catalan	7
Neutral	Observations of Catalan, including at supermarkets, on street signs, and in conversations between locals	12
	Perception that Catalan is similar to Spanish	4
	Perception that Catalan is similar to French	4
Negative	Catalan is challenging to use	9
	Interlocutors switch to English when Catalan is attempted	2
Unclassified	No experiences with Catalan	2

Still, others reported negative experiences with Catalan, stating that it was “difficult” to understand and use (N= 9), likely as no students had reported studying the language before their residence abroad. Also, two students reported that potential interlocutors would simply switch to English if an attempt to speak Catalan was made: for example, Spring Barcelona participant Larry stated that Catalan was, “often very off-putting,” on his second questionnaire, while Fall Barcelona participant Norman commented that, “it’s hard to follow. I wish signs and other things were in Spanish like in Madrid.” Additionally, Fall Barcelona participant Benjamin claimed that, “if I hear it on the street, it just sounds like Spanish that I can’t understand,” whereas Spring Barcelona participant Sandra explicitly says that, “a lot of locals will only speak Catalan,” when asked about any obstacles to learning Spanish on her second questionnaire.

These sentiments were echoed in an informal conversation with Spring participant Mick during a social outing, when asked about his progress in learning Spanish on a second visit to Barcelona:

Researcher: Do you think you’ve learned a lot of Spanish then since you got here?

Mick: Um, I guess so. I learn a lot in my classes, but I don't really speak it a lot. Most of the time when I try to speak Spanish to people, they either speak in English or they only want to speak Catalan.

Researcher: Catalan?

Mick: Yeah, I mean, we learned some Catalan, but they speak so fast that I can't understand them.

These statements reflect the apparent difficulties of the participants in navigating their host city where the population is widely bilingual. Additionally, the comments are reflective of the findings in Cigliana and Serrano (Forthcoming), where SA students in Barcelona found Catalan to be an additional challenge to acquiring Spanish abroad.

The Fall Barcelona participants were also asked about their experiences with Catalan on Questionnaire 3, where five additional comments were recorded². Interestingly, three new responses were documented of the students attempting to use Catalan in service encounters with positive results. Surprisingly, one such instance was reported by Norman, who had previously responded negatively towards Catalan. Norman stated that he attempted to use Catalan with local bar staff, and, "people were impressed we knew some [Catalan]. Their faces lit up!" This example and the other two additional recorded responses may signal a change in the perceptions of Catalan for the students as they spent more time abroad.

In analysing these responses from the perspective of the L2 motivational self system framework, it is clear that Catalan played a distinctive role in the experiences of the Barcelona students. More specifically, the prominence of Catalan as a co-official language appeared to come as a surprise to some students, thus resulting in an aversion to Catalan and limiting the development of the ideal L2 self which would have been specific to the Spanish language. On the other hand, instances of positivity were also recorded for those who successfully utilised Catalan; such experiences may have served to boost the ideal self-image, particularly in terms of attitudes towards potential interlocutors (Dörnyei, 2009b, 2015).

² See Section 3.4 for reasons for changing Questionnaire 3 with the Spring participants.

Furthermore, this study and the study conducted by Cigliana and Serrano (Forthcoming) highlight the complexities of learning *one* language in a predominantly bilingual environment, which unsurprisingly poses a number of challenges to SA students. Yet, the findings between the two studies are notably different, in that many of the students in the present study respond either positively or neutrally about the presence of Catalan, whilst the most common responses in the Cigliana and Serrano (Forthcoming) viewed Catalan as a negative aspect of Barcelona SA.

One possible reason for such a discrepancy is that the current Barcelona participants were required to study Catalan as part of their academic program, and many chose to take further modules where the city and culture were of key subject matter. Additionally this cultural and linguistic awareness may have facilitated some conversations with locals, as Coleman and Chafer (2011) point out that knowledge of a local language, rather than a more widely spoken one, may ease cultural integration for non-locals.

This contrasts with the participants in Cigliana and Serrano (Forthcoming), who came from a variety of SA programs with varying curricula. Such diversity among the participants and their program requirements may account for why many reported a negative experience with the Catalan language. Conversely others in the study still reported very positive experiences with the language, thus emphasising the complexity of this learning context.

A final piece of evidence which may highlight the impact of Catalan on the Barcelona learning context involves the striking differences between the Barcelona and Granada groups on the affective variables, language contact scores and proficiency exam scores measured (See Chapters 5 and 8). Notably, the Granada group exhibited higher scores, on average, for almost all of the measured variables, signalling an evident difference between the two participant groups and their respective learning contexts. Whilst evidence for such disparity has already been presented throughout the thesis, another possible influence on the Barcelona group could be the presence of Catalan as a co-official L1 within the host community.

More specifically, as suggested in Cigliana and Serrano (Forthcoming), the knowledge of only one of the co-official languages in the city, Spanish, may have hindered the participants' integration into the host culture where both languages are commonly used. If this notion were analysed from the communities of practice perspective, the motives

centering on Spanish for the Barcelona participants may have served to isolate them further from local communities of practice, particularly if the residents typically utilised Catalan rather than Spanish during daily interactions (See Section 9.2.1: Granovetter, 1973, 1983; Eckert, 2000). This hypothesis is strengthened by growing national identities of Catalans as being distinct from Spain (Sant *et al.*, 2015; Sant *et al.*, 2016).

Consequently, it is clear that Catalan played a critical role in the experiences of Barcelona SA students, and the students' range of experiences with Catalan likely served to influence both motivation and attitude. Additionally, the growth of nationalist Catalan identity could provide an indication as to some interlocutors' aversion to use Spanish whereas the Granada population are largely monolingual with a cultural background more closely related to the nation of Spain (Epps and Fernandez Cifuentes, 2005; Sant *et al.*, 2015). Furthermore, very few studies to date have examined the context of Barcelona in studies on SLA (Isabelli, 2004; Isabelli and Nishida, 2005; Cigliana and Serrano, Forthcoming), despite its popularity as a SA destination (EducationDynamics, 2015; Study Abroad 101, 2015a). As such, this study points out the need for further research into SLA within bilingual contexts and communities, particularly for those studying abroad for a relatively short period of time.

9.4.5 Ethnocentrism in American Study Abroad

One final emergent theme in this study is the perceived presence of ethnocentrism among some of the American students (See Sections 6.1.3, 6.2.1, 9.2.3, 9.4.3). As this is equally an emergent theme among other recent studies on SA, instances of ethnocentrism have certainly been observed and thus should be specifically addressed as they relate to the presented frameworks (See Section 2.5.1: Wenger, 1998; Eckert and Wenger, 2005; Dörnyei, 2009b). Examples of ethnocentric tendencies were revealed in both the qualitative and quantitative data.

For instance, throughout the three questionnaires, Statement 6 related to the participants' attitudes towards the Spanish people. As an example, Statement 6 on the first questionnaire asked students to rank their agreement with the statement, "I think I will like the Spanish people." Over time, the mean agreement with this statement was shown to decrease slightly when all the participants were taken into account (Time 1: 9.11/10; Time 2: 8.74/10; Time 3: 8.25/10); however, when the students were separated into groups

based on program site, a marked difference was observed between them, with the Barcelona group demonstrating a much more significant decline (See Table 9-2).

Table 9-2: Agreement with ‘Statement 6’ Over Time

City		N	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD
Barcelona:	Time 1	42	6	10	9.10	.995
	Time 2	42	5	10	8.60	1.380
	Time 3	19	5	10	7.89	1.832
Granada:	Time 1	32	6	10	9.13	1.118
	Time 2	26	5	10	8.96	1.113
	Time 3	16	6	10	8.75	1.390

The above data appear to suggest that the Barcelona participants’ perceptions of local host-culture residents became slightly more negative over time. The changes in standard deviation also reinforce this notion, as the perceptions towards the Spanish hosts were much more varied in the final questionnaire responses. The Granada group also demonstrated a decline in this perception, though not as significant. While these data are not conclusive of the development of ethnocentric attitudes, they do suggest that certain initial expectations of the host culture were not met.

The demonstration of potentially ethnocentric attitudes is also exemplified in statements recorded on the second and third questionnaires, particularly when the students were asked about any feelings of culture shock. For example, Granada participant Dylan comments on both questionnaires that she was frustrated by the fact that shops are closed on Sundays and during the mid-day break in Spain. Additionally, Granada participant Ivan cited living with a Japanese housemate as a, “culture shock,” while Barcelona participant Mick, among others, commented that, “the [food] portion sizes are really small.” A final example is that of Barcelona participant Maya who stated, “how blunt Spanish people can be,” as an obstacle to her acquisition of Spanish.

Data collected during observations also provide evidence for certain ethnocentric tendencies. One clear example is that of Susan (See Section 9.2.3) who spoke negatively of the behaviours of her Brazilian and Colombian housemates. She stated, “it’s almost like they’ve never lived in a shared house before,” highlighting a clear distinction between herself and her other American housemate, and those who she perceived as having different sharing habits to her own.

These are clear instances of the participants’ perceiving cultural difference relative to their native culture. According to the *Intercultural Development Inventory* (Hammer and Bennett, 2002; Hammer *et al.*, 2003), such experiences would likely be classified as ‘Defence’ (Hammer and Bennett, 2002, pg. 424), wherein the participants’ perceive their native-culture practice as more viable than receptor-culture practice.

These examples are also particularly interesting when considering the initial ambitions and motivations of many of the participants included getting to know another culture. Although some of the most salient examples, from Ivan and Susan, for example, involve non-Spanish housemates, others such as Mick and Margery’s comments about Spanish food or Dylan and Harrison’s comments about Spanish daily schedules appear to be directly related to the receptor culture. To some extent, the comments made by Maya on, “how blunt the Spanish can be,” and Greg on how the Spanish responded to him in English, “because of my pronunciation” may also be considered ethnocentric (See Section 9.3.2). Such examples reflect the findings presented by Goldoni (2013) who found that American students often compare their receptor culture to their native culture and later identify positive and negative elements of the receptor culture as they relate to or clash with the native culture.

Ogden (2006) provides another perspective, where he argues that the design of American SA programs may be somewhat to blame for the development of ethnocentric tendencies (See Section 1.3.3): many American SA institutions seek to transpose a US-based academic setting and curriculum to another country, thus blurring the distinction between the American educational environment and the surrounding receptor culture. This relocation of an American educational context to Spain then acts to reinforce the collective behaviours of the participant community of practice, wherein they maintain behaviours typical of their home social communities due to the perception of a similar educational system abroad.

As stated previously, Ogden (2006) argues that the Americans may not even realise that their behaviours and perceptions differ greatly from the receptor culture due to the strength of the relationships among the SA students. This notion is undoubtedly reinforced by the sheer number of American students visiting each city every semester, and their tendency to congregate in compatriot circles (Coleman, 2015; EducationDynamics, 2015, 2016). Moreover, this coexistence of culturally distinct communities of practice, such as the American sojourners and communities comprising host locals, within the same geographical area can ultimately cause further segregation due to both linguistic variation and a lack of shared practice (Labov, 1972b, 1986; Granovetter, 1983; Eckert and Wenger, 2005). This notion would then further explain why many participants struggled to make acquaintances with native speakers without actively seeking some kind of peripheral membership into a host-local community of practice (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998; Swain and Deters, 2007).

Equally, Gore's (2005) perception that many American SA students ultimately choose to go abroad as a type of extended holiday, despite citing linguistic motives, may also give evidence as to the development of ethnocentrism. Furthermore, Gore warns that this dominant opinion among American students then facilitates the perception of 'cultural learning' as a type of leisure activity that does not require integration nor language acquisition to achieve (Gore, 2005; Ogden, 2006; Wolcott, 2013). Moreover, Coleman (1997) and Kinginger (2008) suggest that the continued reliance on a university-based administrative system providing ongoing support, common among American universities and American-run SA programs, results in the Americans being unable to truly act independently of their home university culture; this directly contrasts students such as those in ERASMUS programs who rely largely on themselves to organise basic necessities when they study abroad, such as accommodation and enrolment in the hosting institution.

It is, therefore, through a lack of independence and the perception of SA as a leisurely excursion that American students abroad are unable to comprehend cultural difference because they are still very much entrenched in their own cultural norms. While Gore (2005) and Kinginger (2008) admit that this tendency is not present among all American sojourners, it certainly contributes to the development of negative perceptions of the residence abroad and the receptor community.

Despite these recorded ethnocentric tendencies, instances of ethnorelativism were also observed. One interesting comment was recorded from Barcelona participant Allen, who reflected on his interlocutor's use of English with him rather than Spanish. Allen said, "I don't think most of them do it to be rude... And it's nice to be able to switch to English to make the situation more comfortable." His example can certainly be interpreted as feelings of ethnorelativism, wherein he recognizes that his Spanish-speaking interlocutors were helping him to save face by easing a potentially difficult communicative situation.

Another example is Granada participant Ivan, who expressed ethnocentric perceptions towards his Japanese housemate, but was relatively successful in meeting local residents. This example might suggest that Ivan expressed a degree of ethnorelativism with the host culture; however, his intercultural sensitivity towards individuals from a non-Spanish background may have been less developed. In fact, it might be argued that those who successfully established meaningful relationships with target-language speakers must have expressed some degree of ethnorelativism in order to maintain such relationships (Goldoni, 2013): the experiences of Holly, Casey, Ivan, Jamie and Alyssa could serve as such examples.

Though intercultural sensitivity was not intended as a primary focus on the current study, it certainly appears to be an important aspect of SA which perhaps merits further investigation. Moreover, the American SA program and the educational backgrounds of the students clearly play a role in shaping their experiences and perceptions abroad, while ethnocentric perspectives may be partly to blame for the participants' general lack of immersion. Writers such as Goldoni (2013), Gore (2005), and Ogden (2006) suggest that further preparation before going abroad would be useful for facilitating intercultural understanding among students and could perhaps ease the transition for students as they begin to integrate into their receptor culture abroad.

9.5 Summary

This chapter has argued in favour of using a combination of the communities of practice and L2 motivational self system frameworks as a means to analyse the 'whole lives' of study abroad students (Wenger, 1998; Dörnyei, 2009b; Coleman, 2013). Taking such an approach allows for an analysis of motivated behaviour specifically as it relates to the formation of social relationships in a dynamic system (De Bot *et al.*, 2007; Dörnyei, 2009b; Ushioda,

2009; Kormos *et al.*, 2011; Irie and Ryan, 2015); equally, the behaviour may be conceptualised as the 'shared practice' that binds a social group, which may facilitate an analysis of how learners adjust their behaviour to join a different community of practice, or possibly to create a new community of practice altogether (Wenger, 1998; Eckert, 2000; Davies, 2005; Eckert and Wenger, 2005).

Moreover, the proposed model serves as a means through which changes in attitudes, motivations and subsequent behaviours can be explored on an individual basis. Of course, the quantitative analysis confirms that attitudes and motivational perspectives can change dramatically over the period of time abroad; however, the combination of the frameworks addressed in the chapter allows for an examination of how and why such changes occur, and which contexts, environments or experiences are most significant to these changes.

Furthermore, this chapter has presented evidence which addresses the limitations of much of the quantitative data; in turn, emergent themes are able to be addressed on an individual basis as a means to highlight salient factors which impact on the SA experience. These themes reinforce the notion that the learning environment, including the students' accommodation, their interactions with host locals and their academic program environment, are key to shaping the overall experience abroad, particularly with regards to language learning. Equally, the data demonstrate that the dominant perceptions of some participants and the supportive, insular nature of the American educational system, both at in the US and abroad, can hinder the students' integration and negatively impact on their perceptions of the receptor culture.

In sum, it appears that this holistic approach is effective in its aims to measure affective factors and social relationships as they develop and change over time. The communities of practice framework then serves as a means through which to analyse the formation of social groups through shared behaviour, whereby those with alternative 'practice' can thusly be identified. Moreover, taking this mixed-methods approach also allows for the analysis of salient themes among the participants' experiences that would not normally be identified through the quantitative analysis alone; while more information is certainly needed to analyse these themes systematically, the data certainly aids to identify their significance in the experiences of SA students. The following chapter therefore highlights the findings of the study as a whole by directly addressing the research questions presented in Chapter 1 and pointing out its principal outcomes and limitations.

Chapter 10: Conclusion

This thesis has presented the methods, procedures and subsequent findings of a comprehensive study on the experiences of American SA students in Spain. The findings both support and challenge the notions presented in the previous literature on SA, and as a result, the project serves as an important case study on the complexities of the SA learning context, particularly in relation to linguistic development. In order to highlight the findings, this final chapter begins by referring to the research questions which were originally devised to guide the research project. Findings are presented to address each question specifically, followed by a wider conclusion of the findings as a whole. This chapter also details a number of limitations associated with this study, particularly those that have arisen as a result of undertaking the project. Finally, the implications of this study are presented, followed by suggestions of future work which may be undertaken related to this project.

10.1 Research Questions Revisited

The research in this project was guided by three research questions. The first question sought to consider to what extent affective variables develop and change over time during a residence abroad. Moreover, the study aimed to address how and why such changes occur.

The first significant finding was that motivation and attitude were very high during the initial days of the SA program. The students reported great enthusiasm, particularly with regards to practicing the target language, and a number of observations were made which reflected their excitement. However, soon after the motives appeared to drop dramatically, particularly within the first weeks of the residence abroad. Moreover, the results of a series of Wilcoxon Signed Rank Tests found that these negative shifts were statistically significant, suggesting that the students appeared to develop more negative perceptions throughout their time abroad. While this was not true of every participant, and instrumental motives demonstrated a less pronounced decline, the tendency was maintained across both program sites. Yet, the quantitative data do little to suggest why this has occurred, thus highlighting one of their main limitations within the study.

Thus, it was necessary to conduct a qualitative investigation, and more effort was spent gathering qualitative data as such limitations in the quantitative data became apparent (See Section 3.5). As a result, the qualitative data revealed that certain negative experiences during the stay abroad impacted on attitude and motivation, particularly if a participant reported a negative experience in communicating with local residents using the L2. Another suggestion provided in the analysis was that many of the students had unrealistic expectations of their time abroad, and were thusly disappointed when their experiences differed from such expectation (Pellegrino-Aveni, 2005; Kinginger, 2008). Examples of these include difficulties in meeting target-language speakers, and maintaining conversation in Spanish where interlocutors might switch to using English. Others mention that academic constraints gave them little time to explore their host cities, while the emergence of ethnocentric attitudes was also thought to be a factor.

Equally, the participants cited several positive experiences, which appear to have maintained or boosted positive attitude and motivation. These include interactions with host families and positive interactions with other host locals. As such, it appears that the trends revealed within the quantitative data regarding attitude and motivation are much more complex than originally thought: it is clear that the experiences of the learners across many social contexts affect the rise and fall of positive attitudes and motivations throughout the residence abroad.

In addition, motives related to culture and independence became more salient as the qualitative data were analysed. These findings thus called into question the initial linguistic motives of the students, and appeared to reflect more closely the prospectuses of the hosting institutions which focused on cultural learning (See Section 1.3.3). As a result, the self-reported data was called into question; while the quantitative data is successful in determining general tendencies among learner perceptions, an analysis of individual perspectives and experiences appeared to be much more effective in determining how the affective variables in question developed and changed over time.

These findings then pose the question as to how variables such as pre-program proficiency, attitude and motivational orientations ultimately affect successful language acquisition, a concept which is posited by the second research question.

Initially, the quantitative analysis on linguistic proficiency aimed to address many of the inconsistencies within the literature as to whether language-learners of a lower or higher pre-program proficiency ultimately make more gains while abroad. Unfortunately, due to limitations in the proficiency exam, the results were largely inconclusive, but rather support the notions proposed by Llanes (2011), who mentions that such inconsistencies likely exist due to the limited ability of such tests to measure the more advanced skills among learners.

This limitation subsequently led to a similar result wherein neither attitude nor motivation were found to be related to linguistic gains, a finding which tends to contradict much previous research (Gardner, 1998; Dörnyei and Skehan, 2003; Masgoret and Gardner, 2003; Kinginger, 2008): while pre-program proficiency was correlated with attitude and integrative orientations, no such relationship could be established among linguistic gains and the two affective variables. Likewise, no relationships were revealed among measures of instrumental orientations and the other variables, a finding which is consistent with Gardner's framework (See Section 2.5.2.2). These findings thus highlight the need for further analyses in order to overcome the limitations associated with the proficiency exam; specifically, the data point to an analysis of social relationships abroad as a likely alternative to determining successful second language learning abroad.

The second part of Research Question 2 considers the relationship among the affective variables and language contact, which was conceptualised principally as the establishment of social relationships with target-language speakers. Additionally, meaningful interaction in the L2 was established using the original Language Contact Score calculation (Cigliana, 2015).

In terms of the quantitative analysis, the LCS data were compared with the other principal variables in the study using Spearman's Rho correlations. The data revealed positive, statistically significant correlations between LCS values and the initial scale variables for attitudes and integrative orientations, and the positive correlations were generally maintained, even as measures of attitude and motivation decreased during based on the second and third questionnaire data. Conversely, no significant relationships were found between the LCSs and instrumental orientations.

These results, therefore, support the connection between pre-program proficiency, attitude, motivation and language contact, which has already been established in the literature (See Sections 2.4, 2.5, 2.6). Moreover, the maintenance of the correlations despite the decline in attitudinal and motivational perspectives provides additional evidence as to the strength of the relationship among these variables and language contact; though a statistical relationship was not found between instrumental orientations and the LCSs, it is likely that motivation and attitudinal perspectives as a whole can direct behaviour that is conducive to language learning, much like the theories postulated by Dörnyei and his colleagues (Shoab and Dörnyei, 2005; Csizér and Kormos, 2009; Dörnyei, 2009b; Ushioda, 2009).

Moreover, this notion is supported wholly by the qualitative data, wherein the experiences of the participants observed and detailed in the informal interviews showcase how daily encounters with local residents appeared to be key in either boosting or diminishing motivation. The L2 motivational self system served as a strong framework from which to analyse such changes (Dörnyei, 2009b; 2015), as both experience and affective factors constantly impacted on one another, resulting in either behaviour related to language learning or behaviour that more closely matched other perceived obligations. The communities of practice framework (Wenger, 1998; Eckert and Wenger, 2005) then highlights the complexities of how social relationships can also influence behaviour, particularly within the cohesive participant community.

Consequently, an argument was made that motives relating to Dörnyei's ideal L2 self can encourage students to seek out different communities of practice where the target language is used; yet, such instances appeared to be limited, or reserved for particular contexts, such as within a homestay. Rather, the qualitative data reflected a salient hindrance to the development of social relationships with target-language speakers, wherein the majority of participants tended to socialise primarily within their L1 social group.

Equally, the impact of the ought-to L2 self have acted to reinforce the behaviour of the participants to remain in their L1 social group, despite the students recognising it as a hindrance to L2 development. Dörnyei (2009b, 2009c) claims that pressures to conform to social convention might override an individual's pursuits to engage in language-learning activities. As such, pressure on students to conform to what their peers are doing might

take precedence to language-learning, particularly if L2-related motives have diminished over time. Additionally, socialising in the L1 group may also allow the students to avoid potentially negative situations using the L2 (Dörnyei, 2009b; Papi, 2010); this pattern was hypothesised several times throughout Chapter 9.

The final research question also addresses this issue to some extent by considering whether student backgrounds or other environmental factors can be directly related to social relationship development and subsequent language acquisition. Specifically, it is clear that the individual experiences of learners were key to shaping their residence abroad, whilst student backgrounds and the learning environments themselves certainly contributed to those experiences.

For instance, one key influence was that of the academic program, where the two program prospectuses offered different sets of educational curricula. These curricula undoubtedly influenced those with more linguistic motives to study in Granada, while those desiring a more interdisciplinary focus attended the Barcelona program (See Section 1.3.3). Moreover, the requirement of the host university to complete a 'Global Connections Experience' can also be considered influential; this requirement may indicate why many students appeared to have more salient cultural motives than linguistic ones, particularly in the later stages of the residence abroad.

A further point noted throughout the analysis was the formation of collective perceptions as a result of the closeness of the participant community of practice (Wenger, 1998; Eckert, 2006). Specifically, the tendency of the group to socialise with one another was likely a product of their shared educational culture, which was largely maintained despite being in another country. Alas, this closeness, and the representation of American culture in the host city, also led to the development of ethnocentric perspectives as the distinction between the home culture and the receptor culture became blurred (Ogden, 2006). As a result, cultural learning became more of a leisure activity for some, which could be 'experienced' without immersion or L2 interaction (Gore, 2005). While this tendency was not true of all participants, their backgrounds could certainly be seen to influence their closest social connections abroad.

In addition to the participant backgrounds, the learning environment could also be seen to impact on social relationships and language learning. As mentioned by Dewey *et al.* (2014),

the experiences of SA students can vary greatly based on the city in which they choose to study, and a number of interesting differences were uncovered regarding the two program sites visited.

Perhaps the primary distinction between these two program sites is the presence of the co-official language, Catalan, in Barcelona, whilst the Granada population are largely monolingual. While Coleman and Chafer (2011) point out that knowledge of a community's local language, rather than a more widely spoken one, might facilitate social integration, Cigliana and Serrano (Forthcoming) also note that it may present a challenge to second language acquisition, particularly if the students are only focusing on *one* of the co-official languages. Furthermore, this notion led to a discussion on the growing distance between Spanish and Catalan culture, which could have presented an additional challenge for the students hoping to interact in Spanish (See Section 9.4.4).

A further distinction between the program sites are the demographics of the cities themselves, where Granada has a much smaller population than Barcelona, and a much smaller proportion of non-Spanish residents (Instituto Nacional de Estadística, 2013a, 2013b). Though little evidence was gathered which might suggest that either smaller or larger cities facilitate language acquisition, several of the Granada participants mentioned that they did not choose Barcelona for this very reason (See Section 7.1.3). Additionally, the autonomous community of Catalunya received over double the number of tourists as the province of Andalucía in 2014 (Instituto de Turismo de España, 2015). This data might explain why many potential interlocutors in Barcelona switched to English when speaking to the students, as is perhaps common in service encounters with tourists.

Yet, the two locations tended to share a number of factors which could also be seen to influence language acquisition. More specifically, the immediate environment of the learners themselves certainly contributed to language contact and linguistic development, regardless of the cultural and demographic traits of the cities.

For example, the learning environment of the homestay proved to be incredibly positive in the opinions of the participants, according to statements from both Barcelona and Granada students (See Section 9.4.1). Equally, examples of interactions via service encounters were both positive and negative in each location, as well as other encounters with Spanish-speaking interlocutors as denoted in the qualitative questionnaire data. Such examples

signify that the learning environment consists not only of the host city, but of the participants' immediate surroundings as learning occurs. These instances thus support the notion that the learning environment is critical to determining language learning success, as proposed via the L2 motivational self system (Dörnyei, 2009b).

Consequently, the findings support the conceptualisation of language learning as a dynamic system: no one factor is responsible for affecting another, but rather all of the factors tested and uncovered in this study are constantly changing, and therefore functioning as a system, rather than a series of causes and effects (Larsen-Freeman, 2002; Ellis, 2007; Larsen-Freeman, 2012; Waninge *et al.*, 2014; Dörnyei *et al.*, 2015; Larsen-Freeman, 2015). This includes the elements of the students' backgrounds and experiences within the learning environment, which ultimately serve to influence motives and attitudes throughout the residence abroad. As a result, those who maintain their motivation will exhibit motivated behaviour and seek out further opportunities to practice the target language. On the other hand, those who lack motivation, or whose motivation has been diminished, will likely remain in their L1 community of practice, where they will have minimal interaction in the L2. In either case, the system is constantly impacted by the social, environmental and psychological factors addressed throughout the study. It is clear that not one single variable can thus be attributed to successful SLA during study abroad, but rather a multitude of factors shape the experience.

10.2 Final Conclusions

To conclude, the above research questions highlight a number of distinctive findings that are revealed by a thorough analysis of the data. Each question serves to either support or challenge previous perceptions of American SA and SLA in immersion contexts, and both qualitative and quantitative evidence has been given to support each of these claims.

However, the original aim of this study was to take a holistic approach, drawing inspiration from Coleman's (2013) call for research on, "whole people and whole lives," to investigate students abroad. Therefore, definitive concluding comments ought to reflect the complexity of individual experiences abroad, rather than be a sum of variables in a research project.

One important conclusion that can be taken from this research is that a comprehensive, mixed-methods approach is certainly needed in order to understand the complexities of the SA experience, particularly with regards to both the psychological and social factors that can impact on SA students. While the quantitative data can be compared across studies, and can demonstrate general trends among variables, it is ultimately limited in explaining *how* certain events or experiences act to shape the students' perceptions. Moreover, as suggested above, the receptor culture and the learning environment also play an important role in shaping student experience, and relationships with target language speakers appeared to be the cornerstones to many of the participants' most positive comments.

Additionally, a number of discrepancies have been observed between the qualitative and quantitative data: it appears that some students might indicate strong linguistic motives, but their actions do not reflect their reported desire (Engle and Engle, 1999, p. 42). This evidence in itself might call into question the validity of self-evaluations, as some of the participants in this study did not appear to be as motivated to integrate into their receptor culture as they indicated on their questionnaires. Conversely, this focus on culture could be a reflection of the true motives of the students as evidenced by the program prospectuses, whilst language learning was never a principal desire for the majority of the students.

A related finding is that the design of the SA program itself can actually have much more influence on SA students than previously thought. Crucially, as SA program in this case represents an American institution within the receptor culture, it can enable the students to practice their home cultural norms whilst resident in a different cultural context. This then leads to the strengthening of the community of practice, and in turn, the development of collective perceptions amongst its members (Coleman, 1997; Wenger, 1998; Ogden, 2006); however, if the students continue to practice their home cultural norms, ethnocentric perspective can develop, due to the students' strong reliance on their compatriots for support.

In either case, future research will continue to benefit from investigations into such variations among data, especially as further external factors appear to impact on the SA experience. Moreover, an investigation into the differences between self-evaluations and ethnographic evidence could serve as a research project in its own right; if the students in

the present study demonstrate these distinctions, it is possible that the participants in other studies do as well. Likewise, the dynamic qualities of the learners and their experiences are also of great importance, and future work would benefit from considering the SA context as a dynamic system (De Bot *et al.*, 2007; Ellis, 2007; Larsen-Freeman and Cameron, 2008; Dörnyei *et al.*, 2015; Ushioda, 2015).

In sum, it is clear that no one can truly predict the outcomes of a residence abroad. The complexities of the learning environment and the learners themselves are many, and the research has shown that experiences within the receptor culture can affect SA students in both positive and negative ways.

Of course, the empirical research on SA suggests that those who possess certain qualities will ultimately be more successful at cultural integration or language acquisition; however, this research has shown that even the most prepared and determined learners might not succeed in achieving their linguistic or immersive goals. But this does not mean that the entire learning experience has been a failure; rather, the data from this project, and a project with a much larger participant sample (Paige *et al.*, 2009), indicate that a residence abroad tends to have a substantially positive impact on the lives of undergraduate students, regardless of linguistic achievement.

It is therefore imperative that researchers and academic institutions continue to consider the complexities of the SA experience, particularly as they prepare students to study abroad. It would be beneficial to make students aware of the many possible circumstances, both positive and negative, which can occur from living amongst a new, diverse group of people. Equally, students should maintain an open mind about the great potential of their SA experience, as the benefits are not simply limited to language acquisition.

Finally, the findings in this study indicate that, despite all of the challenges they faced, the participants appeared to be very satisfied with their experiences in Spain as per their final comments on SA, with some later claiming that they hoped to return to complete future studies or travels. It is evident in the data that some students likely made little progress in L2 linguistic development; but almost all of the students reported very positive personal experiences throughout their stay. Overall, the SA experience is one that appears to truly impact on the lives of the students, regardless of their 'researched' achievements.

10.3 Limitations

A number of limitations are associated with this study, several of which have been mentioned throughout the discussions or pointed out in the methodology prior to data being collected.

The first limitation that has been reiterated throughout the text is the use of the 21-point linguistic proficiency exam in a pre-test/post-test design as a means of establishing linguistic gains. Though the use of this type of exam and its benefits as a tool to measure linguistic progress are well documented (Brown, 1983, 2002; Tremblay and Garrison, 2010; Tremblay, 2011), its ability to measure linguistic gains among the participants in the current study is clearly limited.

For example, it was hypothesised that those with higher integrative motivational orientations and positive attitude would ultimately make more linguistic gains than those with fewer integrative orientations and fewer positive perceptions (Gardner, 1985b; Masgoret and Gardner, 2003; Gardner, 2010; Hernández, 2010; Cigliana and Serrano, Forthcoming); however, the data actually reveal the opposite trend. This is likely due to the relatively low number of questions on the proficiency exam, and the result that most of the students only gained 1-2 points on their second exam score. Equally, this could be a reflection of those with a lower pre-program proficiency generally making more gains in the skills measured by the proficiency exam, such as L2 grammar and vocabulary (Brecht *et al.*, 1990; Beattie *et al.*, 2014; Juan-Garau, 2014). Moreover, the stratified difficulty of the exam, which was meant to challenge learners of all levels, may have left little room for improvement for those advanced learners who could already answer most questions correctly in the first instance.

In future, this type of study would benefit from a more comprehensive proficiency exam, with dedicated assessments to test both productive skills, such as writing and speaking, and receptive skills, such as reading and listening. Doing so would evidently require more time in assessing the linguistic proficiency of the students, but would prove beneficial for measuring the more advanced skills developed by higher-proficiency learners.

The second main limitation in this study is the low number of participants (N= 73) and the lack of data gathered from all participants throughout the study. The number of

participants was restricted to 73 because only one SA institution was involved in the research project. Of course, this decision was made in order to maintain the continuity of the academic programs; however, a greater number of participants overall could yield more robust results, particularly in terms of the statistical analysis. Equally, not all students were available to take complete the second and third questionnaires, despite being contacted in advance by the researcher. One reason for this is because many students frequently travelled outside of the program sites on individual holidays, while others simply were not present during the researcher's visits to each location. Additionally, it should be noted that the researcher could not remain in Spain for extended periods of time due to visa requirements; as such, the time spent with the students was limited, and the researcher was unable to observe all students during each visit.

A third limitation is lack of engagement with the research materials, which required the researcher to alter the research tools halfway through the data collection process. Because this change was unexpected, the researcher suggested that the students instead complete only certain sections of the third questionnaire as to establish some continuity in the longitudinal analysis.

One specific limitation related to this lack of engagement was data was only collected on social relationships on one occasion: the second questionnaire. This differed from earlier research designs to also measure LCSs longitudinally by collecting data on the second and third questionnaires. Unfortunately, these measurements were omitted in favour of other open-ended questions in a more concise version of the final questionnaire. Additionally, it is possible that students may have been inaccurate in their indications of language use in each particular context, a limitation that is found in all types of self-reporting. Longitudinal data on the development of social relationships would certainly aid in reducing this risk of inaccuracy by eliciting comparable data from students on more than one occasion, and would undoubtedly add depth to future projects.

Finally, in order to maintain focus within the project, the researcher chose to focus principally on the variables of attitude, motivation, language contact and pre-program proficiency, whilst not addressing other factors which have been related to SA research, such as intercultural sensitivity (Anderson *et al.*, 2006; Lee, 2012; Lokkesmoe *et al.*, 2016) and L2 pragmatics (Kasper and Rose, 2002; Placencia, 2008; Bataller, 2010; Taguchi, 2014). Equally, the researcher has mentioned the role of the receptor community in facilitating

SLA abroad (Kinging, 2008; Brown and Richards, 2012; Goldoni, 2013); however, more research in this area may help to shed light on the challenges facing students abroad. Furthermore, this study would also have benefitted from a post-SA analysis as a means to investigate learner reflections on SA after they have returned to their home country (Paige *et al.*, 2009; Vande Berg *et al.*, 2009; Campbell, 2015).

10.4 Implications

A number of implications can be drawn from this study, particularly with regards to the organisation of SA programs and the preparation of students before they undertake a residence abroad.

One of the conclusions drawn from this project is that students have very high expectations of their SA experience; and whilst this is not unreasonable, the evidence in this study and others suggests that unmet or unrealistic expectations may have a particularly damaging effect on the learners' perceptions of the receptor culture (Campbell, 1996; Pellegrino, 1998; Pellegrino-Aveni, 2005; Kinginger, 2008, 2012). In order to mitigate the potentially negative outcome of unmet expectations, Kinginger (2008) suggests that educators abroad might coach students on SA practices which facilitate sociocultural integration and language acquisition. This education must then be balanced with an understanding of practice which will ultimately hinder language acquisition, particularly as many students still continue to believe that they will simply 'pick up' their L2 abroad (Kinging, 2008, pg. 109). Ogden (2006) furthers this suggestion by stating that program leaders must specifically educate students on the native socialisation practices of the receptor culture: doing so will allow students to develop strategies for socialising appropriately with receptor culture members in order to construct meaningful relationships (pg. 107).

Of course, many SA programs, including the two investigated in the current project, already host orientation meetings for all students, and both facilitate opportunities for the students to meet host locals. However, researchers now recognize that educating students and providing such activities at the beginning of the residence abroad might not be sufficient, due to the constant fluctuations in perceptions and experiences throughout the residence abroad; as a result, education on socialisation practices should occur throughout the

program duration, particularly in order to reassure students with doubts about their experiences (Ogden, 2006; Kinginger, 2008).

Another important implication of this study is that some pre-program knowledge of the target language is likely going to benefit students who come abroad with purely linguistic motives. As mentioned by DeKeyser (2010), students are unlikely to benefit from language-learning abroad if they have no grammatical basis from which to then practice other linguistic skills (pg. 89). This notion is evident in the present study when students mention their frustration of not being able to accomplish simple tasks abroad; some pre-program knowledge of Spanish (or Catalan) would likely have benefitted those beginner-level learners in navigating their host cities more efficiently.

Other implications relevant to this project include the design of future projects on SA and language learning in immersion contexts. As mentioned in the final conclusions to this study, the data gathered would not be complete without elements of both qualitative and quantitative data, and would have benefitted from further ethnographic enquiry. Equally, the longitudinal aspects of this study are crucial to identifying how SA students perceive their experiences abroad upon arrival and throughout a SA program (Dörnyei, 2009a; DeKeyser, 2014). As mentioned by Irie and Ryan (2015, pg. 356-357), the, “sense of anticipation [for SA] appears to exert a powerful organizing force on the L2 self system,” yet the system soon becomes volatile after the sojourners have arrived in their country of residence; as a result, it is necessary to gather data on a variety of occasions in order to measure such change.

This comprehensive approach taken in this study allows for the factors impacting on SLA to be conceptualised as a system, rather than a sum of individual parts (Dörnyei, 2009a, pg. 238). It also serves to support the recent suggestion made by Dörnyei *et al.* (2015, pg. 2) for studies on SLA to move away from traditional quantitative methods to those that can observe, “non-linear change” and , “the operation of the whole system.” Moreover, this mixed-methods design allows for comparisons between the two types of data in order to identify any discrepancies (Engle and Engle, 1999). Future studies might also focus on experiences post-SA in order to detail how these dynamic qualities could affect language-learning long term, and to examine how learners might reflect on their time abroad after returning home (Paige *et al.*, 2009; Vande Berg *et al.*, 2009; Allen, 2010; Campbell, 2015).

10.5 Future Works

A number of future projects might also be proposed in relation to the current research. One natural extension of this project would be the application of the Language Contact Score methodology to other projects as a means to empirically compare meaningful language contact and the development of social relationships among language learners in different contexts (Cigliana, 2015). Furthermore, additional social contexts could be added to the total LCS data as a means to gain a more comprehensive view of learners' social patterns abroad. This method of analysing language contact that is likely to be conducive of language acquisition can then be compared statistically to any number of other scale variables related to the SLA context. Further studies employing this technique will also help to confirm its validity. Gathering data on a greater number of participants might also allow for the application of parametric statistical measures, such as multiple regression, which can aid in determining causality.

Other extensions of this project could also involve the inclusion of participants from more than one SA program in Spain, or perhaps a comparison between the Spanish or Catalan context and other popular SA destinations around Europe. Equally, the comprehensive methods utilised in this project could be applied to international education programs such as ERASMUS, where Coleman (2009, pg. 4) points out an important distinction between within-program and whole-program organisation. Also of interest are short-term international mobility programs throughout Europe, an area which Teichler (2015) mentions could benefit from investigations such as those conducted on North American sojourners. A comparison of SA programs in this way is sure to highlight means for the improvement of program structures and organisations.

Finally, conducting a range of research projects which employ the analytical frameworks used in this study, namely communities of practice and the L2 motivation self system (Wenger, 1998; Eckert and Wenger, 2005; Dörnyei, 2009b), could provide a means through which to explore SLA as a dynamic system. More specifically, Dörnyei (2009a) challenges researchers to develop systematic, empirical methods through which the dynamic qualities of language learning can be explored, analysed and compared; such methods would certainly challenge the typical dichotomy of quantitative and qualitative research in favour of larger-scale, long-term projects, such as the current study (Dörnyei *et al.*, 2015). The end product

would result in a model for other case studies to follow as a means to gain a greater understanding of SLA, particularly in SA contexts, and how individual qualities and experiences can influence language learning and cultural integration.

Appendix A Questionnaires

A.1 Questionnaire 1: Initial Ideas

Study Abroad in Barcelona

Name: _____ Age: _____

Arrival date in Spain: _____

Email Address: _____

Native language(s): _____

1. Do you know any other languages apart from Spanish? If so, which of the following best describes your proficiency level:

Beginner Intermediate-Low Intermediate Advance Native-like

2. Before coming to Spain, did you study Spanish?

Yes No

3. If so, for how many years/semesters? _____

4. How old were you when you started studying Spanish? _____

5. Have you spent time in a Spanish speaking country before?

Yes No

6. If yes, specify where, when and for how long:

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

7. What are you most looking forward to during your stay abroad in Spain?

8. Is there anything about your stay abroad that you are nervous about or not looking forward to?

7. Provide some details about your opinions of studying Spanish and the Spanish language. Indicate on a scale of 1-10 your level of agreement with each statement with (1) being “Completely disagree” to (10) being “Completely agree”

Statement:	Agreement:
1. I like to study Spanish	
2. I plan to participate in extracurricular activities that will help me to meet native speakers	
3. I want to learn Spanish	
4. I find learning Spanish and attending Spanish classes interesting	
5. I am interested in Spanish culture and history	
6. I think I will like the Spanish people	
7. I think that Spanish would be helpful for my future career	
8. I will make an effort to make Spanish-speaking friends	
9. I want to practice my Spanish with native speakers	
10. I want to immerse myself in the Spanish way of life while abroad	
11. Learning Spanish is an important reason why I chose to study abroad	
12. Improving my resume is an important reason why I chose to study abroad	
13. I want to take classes taught in Spanish	
14. I think I will acquire Spanish more easily in Spain than in my regular Spanish classroom	
15. I am looking forward to having a positive academic experience in Granada	
16. I am looking forward to having a positive personal experience in Granada	
17. I am confident in my ability to communicate effectively with others using Spanish.	
18. I think it will be relatively easy to meet native speakers with whom I can practice my Spanish while abroad.	

8. Provide some details about your initial motivations for participating in a study abroad program in Spain. Indicate on a scale of 1-10 how important each item listed was to you in choosing to study abroad with (1) being “Not important” to (10) being “Extremely important”

Motivation:	Degree of Importance:
1. Increase the level of my Spanish language skills	
2. Personal development	
3. Having a worthwhile academic experience	
4. Traveling	
5. Having fun and having a good time	
6. Having independence	
7. Getting to know people from other countries	
8. Getting to experience a different culture	
9. Gaining other life skills	
10. Making my resume look better	
11. Getting experience which could help my future career	

A.2 Questionnaire 2: Follow-up

Study Abroad in Barcelona

Name: _____

This survey is going to ask you questions about with whom you interact, how often you interact with each person and what languages you speak. The same person may appear across several contexts (ie. someone you live with and also have class with).

1a. Where do you live in Spain?

Apartment Home stay Residence Hall Other (specify): _____

1b. With whom do you live? Use the following chart to describe those you live with (if any):

Nationality	Native Language	Age	Language(s) you use with this person
1.			
2.			
3.			
4.			

1c. Describe how often you interact with each person with whom you live (Mark your answers with an [X]):

Person	Everyday	Several Times a Week	A Few Times a Week	A Few Times a Month	Rarely
1					
2					
3					
4					

2a. Which courses are you studying in Spain? Use the following chart to describe which courses you take, what language each course is taught in (ie. Spanish, English or Catalan), how many hours per week you attend each course and where the course is held (ie. a Spanish University, Arcadia's home institution, etc.).

Course Title	Language Used in Teaching the Course	How Many Hours per Week	Where do you Attend the Course
1.			
2.			
3.			
4.			
5.			

2b. Do you follow a certain study abroad program path (ie. Intensive Spanish, Spanish Culture, Liberal Arts, International Business, etc.)?

2c. With whom to do you interact regularly in your school/university setting?

Nationality	Native Language	Age	Language(s) you use with this person
1.			
2.			
3.			
4.			

2d. Describe how often you interact with each person from your school/university (Mark your answers with an [X]):

Person	Everyday	Several Times a Week	A Few Times a Week	A Few Times a Month	Rarely
1					
2					
3					
4					

3a. With whom do you interact regularly in your free time? (ie. hanging out with friends, travelling, site-seeing, dates, etc.)

Nationality	Native Language	Age	Language(s) you use with this person
1.			
2.			
3.			
4.			

3b. Describe how often you interact with each person with that you see in your free time (Mark your answers with an [X]):

Person	Everyday	Several Times a Week	A Few Times a Week	A Few Times a Month	Rarely
1					
2					
3					
4					

3c. Have you scheduled or joined any activity/group outside of regular university courses? (ie. Playing a sport, joining a choir, part time work, dance classes, joining a gym, etc.)

3d. If so, what language do you normally use to communicate in the activity/group?

3e. How often do you participate in your activity/group?

Everyday Several Times a Week A Few Times a Week A Few Times a Month Rarely

4a. With whom do you interact regularly via a virtual activity? (ie. Facebook, Skype, text, telephone, email, messenger, etc.)

Nationality	Native Language	Age	Language(s) you use with this person
1.			
2.			
3.			
4.			

4b. Describe how often you interact with each person with that you communicate with virtually (Mark your answers with an [X]):

Person	Everyday	Several Times a Week	A Few Times a Week	A Few Times a Month	Rarely
1					
2					
3					
4					

5. Have you had any feelings of culture shock since your arrival in Spain? Briefly describe:

6. Have you had any encounters with the Catalan language? If so, what is your reaction to Catalan when compared with Spanish? Briefly describe³:

7. What problems/obstacles (if any) have you encountered in trying to learn Spanish or adapt to Spanish culture? Briefly describe:

³ Note that this item was omitted from the Granada version of the questionnaire

8. Provide some details about your continuing opinions of studying Spanish and the

Spanish language. Indicate on a scale of 1-10 your level of agreement with each statement with (1) being “Completely disagree” to (10) being “Completely agree”

Statement:	Agreement:
1. I like to study Spanish	
2. I plan to participate in extracurricular activities that will help me to meet native speakers	
3. I actually want to learn Spanish	
4. I find learning Spanish and Spanish classes interesting	
5. I am interested in Spanish culture and history	
6. So far, I like the Spanish people	
7. I think that Spanish would be helpful for my future career	
8. I am making an effort to make Spanish-speaking friends	
9. I want to practice my Spanish with native speakers	
10. I am immersing myself in the Spanish way of life while abroad	
11. Learning Spanish is an important reason why I chose to study abroad	
12. Improving my resume is an important reason why I chose to study abroad	
13. I am taking classes taught in Spanish	
14. I think I will acquire Spanish more easily in Spain than in my regular Spanish classroom	
15. So far, I am having a positive academic experience in Barcelona	
16. So far, I am having a positive personal experience in Barcelona	
17. I am confident in my ability to communicate effectively with others using Spanish	
18. I am finding it relatively easy to meet native speakers with whom I can practice my Spanish while abroad	

9. Provide some details about your continuing motivations for participating in a study abroad program in Spain. Indicate on a scale of 1-10 how important each item listed was to you in choosing to study abroad with (1) being “Not important” to (10) being “Extremely important”

Motivation:	Degree of Importance:
1. Increase the level of my Spanish language skills	
2. Personal growth	
3. Having a good academic experience	
4. Traveling	
5. Having fun and having a good time	
6. Having independence	
7. Getting to know people from other countries	
8. Getting to experience a different culture	
9. Gaining other life skills	
10. Making my resume look better	
11. Getting experience which could help my future career	

10. Since your arrival in Spain, please indicate what has been your primary language of communication in each of these situations? (Mark your answers with an [X])

Place/Situation	Always Spanish	Mostly Spanish	Mixed Spanish and English	Mostly English	Always English	Other (specify)
Your house, residence, or apartment						
In stores, supermarkets or restaurants						
At school						
In your general free time						
In your virtual interactions						

A.3 Questionnaire 3: Final Thoughts (Version 1)

Study Abroad in Barcelona⁴

Name: _____

Approximate Date Leaving Spain: _____

This survey is going to ask you questions about with whom you interact, how often you interact with each person and what languages you speak. The same person may appear across several contexts (ie. someone you live with and also have class with).

1a. Where did you live in Spain?

Apartment Home stay Residence Hall Other (specify): _____

1b. With whom did you live? Use the following chart to describe those you lived with (if any):

Nationality	Native Language	Age	Language(s) you use with this person
1.			
2.			
3.			
4.			

1c. Describe how often you interacted with each person with whom you lived (Mark your answers with an [X]). If you spoke more than one language with each person, please indicate an approximate percentage for the amount of time you used each language off to the side of the box:

Person	Everyday	Several Times a Week	A Few Times a Week	A Few Times a Month	Rarely
1					
2					
3					
4					

⁴ This questionnaire was only used during the Fall data collection period. It was later re-designed due to time constraints on behalf of the participants.

2a. Which courses did you study in Spain? Use the following chart to describe which courses you took, what language each course was taught in (ie. Spanish, English or Catalan), how many hours per week you attended each course and where the course was held (ie. a Spanish University, Arcadia's home institution, etc.).

Course Title	Language Used in Teaching the Course	How Many Hours per Week	Where do you Attend the Course
1.			
2.			
3.			
4.			
5.			

2b. Did you follow a certain study abroad program path (ie. Intensive Spanish, Spanish Culture, Liberal Arts, International Business, etc.)?

2c. With whom did you interact regularly in your school/university setting?

Nationality	Native Language	Age	Language(s) you use with this person
1.			
2.			
3.			
4.			

2d. Describe how often you interacted with each person from your school/university (Mark your answers with an [X]). If you spoke more than one language with each person, please indicate an approximate percentage for the amount of time you used each language off to the side of the box:

Person	Everyday	Several Times a Week	A Few Times a Week	A Few Times a Month	Rarely
1					
2					
3					
4					

3a. With whom did you interact regularly in your free time? (ie. hanging out with friends, travelling, site-seeing, dates, etc.)

Nationality	Native Language	Age	Language(s) you use with this person
1.			
2.			
3.			
4.			

3b. Describe how often you interacted with each person with that you saw in your free time (Mark your answers with an [X]). **If you spoke more than one language with each person, please indicate an approximate percentage for the amount of time you used each language off to the side of the box:**

Person	Everyday	Several Times a Week	A Few Times a Week	A Few Times a Month	Rarely
1					
2					
3					
4					

3c. Did you participate in any activity/group outside of regular university courses? (ie. Playing a sport, joining a choir, part time work, dance classes, joining a gym, etc.)

3d. If so, what language did you normally use to communicate in the activity/group?

3e. How often did you participate in your activity/group?

Everyday Several Times a Week A Few Times a Week A Few Times a Month Rarely

4a. With whom did you interact regularly via a virtual activity? (ie. Facebook, Skype, text, telephone, email, messenger, etc.)

Nationality	Native Language	Age	Language(s) you use with this person
1.			
2.			
3.			
4.			

4b. Describe how often you interacted with each person with that you communicated with virtually (Mark your answers with an [X]). **If you spoke more than one language with each person, please indicate an approximate percentage for the amount of time you used each language off to the side of the box:**

Person	Everyday	Several Times a Week	A Few Times a Week	A Few Times a Month	Rarely
1					
2					
3					
4					

5. Over the course of your study in Spain, have you had realized any major cultural differences since your arrival in Spain? Briefly describe:

6. Did you have any encounters with the Catalan language? If so, what was your reaction to Catalan when compared with Spanish? Briefly describe:

7. Over the course of your study in Spain, what problems/obstacles (if any) did you encounter in trying to learn Spanish or adapt to Spanish culture? Briefly describe:

8. What do you think has helped you to learn Spanish the most since you arrived in Barcelona (ie. An event, activity, experience, friend, teacher, etc.)? Mention one or two things:

9. Since your arrival in Spain, please indicate what has been your primary language of communication in each of these situations? (Mark your answers with an [X]):

Place/Situation	Always Spanish	Mostly Spanish	Mixed Spanish and English	Mostly English	Always English	Other (specify)
Your house, residence, or apartment						
In stores, supermarkets or restaurants						
At school						
In your general free time						
In your virtual interactions						

10. Assess your Spanish language skills in the following major areas of language BEFORE your arrival in Spain. Indicate on a scale of 1-10 how you would rank your skills in each area BEFORE coming to Spain with (1) being an “Absolute Beginner” and (10) being “Native-like”:

Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing	Grammar	Pronunciation

11. Assess your Spanish language skills in the following major areas of language AFTER your study program in Spain. Indicate on a scale of 1-10 how you would rank your skills in each area AFTER finishing your study abroad program with (1) being an “Absolute Beginner” and (10) being “Native-like”:

Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing	Grammar	Pronunciation

12. Provide some details about your final opinions of studying Spanish and the Spanish language. Indicate on a scale of 1-10 your level of agreement with each statement with (1) being “Completely disagree” to (10) being “Completely agree”

Statement:	Agreement:
1. I liked studying Spanish	
2. I participated in extracurricular activities that helped me to meet native speakers	
3. I wanted to learn Spanish	
4. I found learning Spanish and attending Spanish classes interesting	
5. I was interested in Spanish culture and history	
6. I liked the Spanish people	
7. I think that Spanish would be helpful for my future career	
8. I made an effort to make Spanish-speaking friends	
9. I practiced my Spanish with native speakers	
10. I feel like I immersed myself in the Spanish way of life while abroad	
11. Learning Spanish is an important reason why I chose to study abroad	
12. Improving my resume is an important reason why I chose to study abroad	
13. I took classes taught in Spanish	
14. I feel that I have acquired Spanish more easily in Spain than in my regular Spanish classroom	
15. I had a positive academic experience in Barcelona	
16. I had a positive personal experience in Barcelona	

13. Provide some details about your final, overall motivations for participating in a study abroad program in Spain. Indicate on a scale of 1-10 how important each item listed was to you in choosing to study abroad with (1) being “Not important” to (10) being “Extremely important”

Motivation:	Degree of Importance:
1. Increase the level of my Spanish language skills	
2. Personal development	
3. Having a worthwhile academic experience	
4. Traveling	
5. Having fun and having a good time	
6. Having independence	
7. Getting to know people from other countries	
8. Getting to experience a different culture	
9. Gaining other life skills	
10. Making my resume look better	
11. Getting experience which could help my future career	

A.4 Questionnaire 3: Final Thoughts (Final Version)

Name: _____

SURVEY QUESTIONS:

1. Over the course of your study in Spain, what problems/obstacles (if any) did you encounter in trying to learn Spanish or adapt to Spanish culture? Briefly describe:

2. What do you think has helped you to learn Spanish the most since you arrived in Granada (ie. An event, activity, experience, friend, teacher, etc.)? Mention one or two things:

3a. Did you make any close friends during your time abroad who were not native English speakers? Please specify the nationality of each friend (if any):

3b. If so, what was your primary language of communication with this/these friend(s)?

4. Since your arrival in Spain, please indicate what has been your primary language of communication in each of these situations? (Mark your answers with an [X]):

Place/Situation	Always Spanish	Mostly Spanish	Mixed Spanish and English	Mostly English	Always English	Other (specify)
Your house, residence, or apartment						
In stores, supermarkets or restaurants						
At school						
In your general free time						
In your virtual interactions						

5. Assess your Spanish language skills in the following major areas of language BEFORE your arrival in Spain. Indicate on a scale of 1-10 how you would rank your skills in each area BEFORE coming to Spain with (1) being an “Absolute Beginner” and (10) being “Native-like”:

Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing	Grammar	Pronunciation

6. Assess your Spanish language skills in the following major areas of language AFTER your study program in Spain. Indicate on a scale of 1-10 how you would rank your skills in each area AFTER finishing your study abroad program with (1) being an “Absolute Beginner” and (10) being “Native-like”:

Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing	Grammar	Pronunciation

7. Provide some details about your final opinions of studying Spanish and the Spanish language. Indicate on a scale of 1-10 your level of agreement with each statement with (1) being “Completely disagree” to (10) being “Completely agree”

Statement:	Agreement:
1. I liked studying Spanish	
2. I participated in extracurricular activities that helped me to meet native speakers	
3. I wanted to learn Spanish	
4. I found learning Spanish and attending Spanish classes interesting	
5. I was interested in Spanish culture and history	
6. I liked the Spanish people	
7. I think that Spanish would be helpful for my future career	
8. I made an effort to make Spanish-speaking friends	
9. I practiced my Spanish with native speakers	
10. I feel like I immersed myself in the Spanish way of life while abroad	
11. Learning Spanish is an important reason why I chose to study abroad	
12. Improving my resume is an important reason why I chose to study abroad	
13. I took classes taught in Spanish	
14. I feel that I have acquired Spanish more easily in Spain than in my regular Spanish classroom	
15. I had a positive academic experience in Granada	
16. I had a positive personal experience in Granada	
17. I am confident in my ability to communicate effectively with others using Spanish	
18. I found it relatively easy to meet native speakers with whom I could practice my Spanish while abroad	

8. Provide some details about your final, overall motivations for participating in a study abroad program in Spain. Indicate on a scale of 1-10 how important each item listed was to you in choosing to study abroad with (1) being “Not important” to (10) being “Extremely important”

Motivation:	Degree of Importance:
1. Increase the level of my Spanish language skills	
2. Personal development	
3. Having a worthwhile academic experience	
4. Traveling	
5. Having fun and having a good time	
6. Having independence	
7. Getting to know people from other countries	
8. Getting to experience a different culture	
9. Gaining other life skills	
10. Making my resume look better	
11. Getting experience which could help my future career	

Appendix B Spanish Proficiency Exam

Name: _____

Date: _____

Instructions: Read the following passages. For each numbered item, circle the word or phrase that best completes each sentence. The passages will become increasingly more difficult: **PLEASE STOP and do not finish the exam if you feel that the material is too difficult.**

1. Read the following email. Circle the word which best completes each phrase.

Querida Rosa:

Ya estoy **(1) a / en / para** Bilbao, voy a pasar aquí dos semanas. Es una ciudad muy interesante. Hoy he **(2) estado / ido / visto** en el Museo Guggenheim que tiene una arquitectura muy original; pero lo que más me está gustando es hablar con la gente y salir **(3) de / para / por** la noche.

Bueno, ahora **(4) debo / debo de / tengo** que decirte algo: He conocido a un chico muy simpático, se llama Luis, y trabaja en Vodafone. Nos hemos visto varias **(5) días / momentos / veces** y me ha enseñado muchos **(6) ciudades / palabras / sitios**. Ayer por la tarde estuvimos en Guernica donde él tiene unos amigos. El domingo vamos a Santander; **(7) estamos / estoy / soy** muy contenta. El paisaje del norte de España me encanta. Cuando pueda te mando otro email.

Muchos besos,

Petra

2. Read the following article. Circle the word(s) which best completes each phrase.

Panamá, un país por descubrir

Prácticamente desde cualquier ciudad del mundo, en vuelo directo o con pocas escalas, llegan al aeropuerto internacional de Panamá viajeros de todos los puntos de la Tierra.

En un pequeño territorio, Panamá **(1) tiene / hay / está** una experiencia única para cada visitante. Al igual que para el hombre Panamá es un lugar estratégico, **(2) además / también / por tanto** lo es para los animales migratorios. En sus aguas convergen corrientes marinas y sus cielos transitan cientos de aves, que **(3) se / le / lo** convierten en un paraíso para los amantes de la naturaleza.

Aves tan exóticas **(4) que / como / de** el quetzal o el águila arpía se observan en sus entornos naturales. Debido a sus hectáreas de bosque virgen y a una rica flora y fauna tropical, este país **(5) es / está / hay** un destino ideal para la observación de especies de animales e insectos, muchos en peligro de extinción. El 30% del territorio nacional forma parte de un vasto sistema de áreas protegidas **(6) el que / que / donde** muchos grupos indígenas guardan intactas sus costumbres y **(7) formas / experiencias / maneras** de vida.

3. Read the following article. Circle the answer which best completes each phrase.

El computador en la enseñanza escolar

Nuestra época se caracteriza por las innovaciones tecnológicas y estas han determinado un cambio en la forma de aprender; el computador es la herramienta que se utiliza para las tareas destinadas a este fin. La educación, la información y la entretención están en un solo dispositivo que, **(1) debida / gracias / mediante** la imagen, genera una posibilidad única de reforzamiento de conceptos.

El aprendizaje visual es uno de los mejores métodos para enseñar y aprender a pensar. Se presentan las ideas de diversos modos y esto ayuda a los estudiantes **(2) a tener / que tengan / sobre tener** más claro y organizado su pensamiento sobre una materia o un proceso y crea una estructura dentro del proyecto **(3) en el que / al que / para que** estén trabajando.

Diversos estudios indican que más **(4) de / que el / del** 80% de la comprensión humana se realiza a través de la vista y que una imagen de apoyo mejora **(5) el retenedor / la retención / el retén** del contenido hasta 6,5 veces sobre las ocasiones en las que se utilizan solo palabras. Los mapas de ideas y mapas conceptuales son herramientas muy útiles para el pensamiento visual y eso ya lo han comprendido en las aulas.

La novedad que aportan los nuevos computadores, incluso aquellos de bajo costo, es la de integrar en una sola placa de silicio la memoria gráfica y el procesador central, pues el objetivo era encontrar un equipo con unas determinadas características que **(6) podrá / pudiese / pudo** responder a todos los requerimientos de los muchachos y **(7) en cambio / de otro modo / a la vez** seguirlos en las tareas y motivaciones que van apareciendo en el camino.

Appendix C Variable Calculations

Table C- 1: Scale Variable Calculations

	Questionnaire Items	Original Scales	Calculation	New Scale
Motivation Variables				
Total Integrative Motivation	Opinions 2, 5, 8, 9, 10, 11, 13; Motives 1, 8, 8	1-10 each	Pre-determined items relating to integrative motivation are combined into a singular scale variable to measure total integrative motivation	1-10
Total Instrumental Motivation	Opinions 7, 12; Motives 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 9, 10, 11	1-10 each	Pre-determined items relating to instrumental motivation are combined into a singular scale variable to measure total instrumental motivation	1-10
Total Motivation	35, 36, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 48, 49, 50, 51, 52, 53, 54, 55 and 56	1-10 each	All items relating to motivation are combined into a singular scale variable to measure general motivation	1-10
Attitude Variables				
Total Attitude/Perceptions	Opinions 1, 3, 4, 5, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18	1-10 each	Pre-determined items relating to attitude are combined into a singular scale variable to measure positive attitude towards SA	1-10
Language Contact Score Variables				
Total Language Contact Score	'Interaction Scores' based on 'At Home', 'At School', 'Free Time', and 'Virtual Interactions' contexts	0-20 each	The Language Contact Scores calculated for each social context were added together in order to determine a Total Language Contact Score.	0-80
Spanish Classroom Hours	Courses studied and languages used in the classroom	N/A	The Spanish-language class hours and Spanish-medium content class hours results were combined into a variable measuring Spanish-language use in academic contexts. Low scores represent little class time in Spanish while greater scores represent more class time in Spanish.	
Linguistic Proficiency Variables				
Exam Score Difference	Scores from the initial and final proficiency exams	0-21 each	The total from the initial exam score is subtracted from the total score from the final exam to calculate the exam score difference	0-21*

Questionnaire Item	Original Scales	Calculation	New Scale	
Perceived Gains in Language Skills Variables				
Gains in Listening	Self-assessment scores on L2 Listening before and after SA	1-10 each	The score from the self-assessment of L2 Listening skills before SA is subtracted from the self-assessment of L2 Listening skills after SA to calculate perceived gains in Listening	1-10
Gains in Speaking	Self-assessment scores on L2 Speaking before and after SA	1-10 each	The score from the self-assessment of L2 Speaking skills before SA is subtracted from the self-assessment of L2 Speaking skills after SA to calculate perceived gains in Speaking	1-10
Gains in Reading	Self-assessment scores on L2 Reading before and after SA	1-10 each	The score from the self-assessment of L2 Reading skills before SA is subtracted from the self-assessment of L2 Reading skills after SA to calculate perceived gains in Reading	1-10
Gains in Writing	Self-assessment scores on L2 Writing before and after SA	1-10 each	The score from the self-assessment of L2 Writing skills before SA is subtracted from the self-assessment of L2 Writing skills after SA to calculate perceived gains in Writing	1-10
Gains in Grammar	Self-assessment scores on L2 Grammar before and after SA	1-10 each	The score from the self-assessment of L2 Grammar skills before SA is subtracted from the self-assessment of L2 Grammar skills after SA to calculate perceived gains in Grammar	1-10
Gains in Pronunciation	Self-assessment scores on L2 Pronunciation before and after SA	1-10 each	The score from the self-assessment of L2 Pronunciation skills before SA is subtracted from the self-assessment of L2 Pronunciation skills after SA to calculate perceived gains in Pronunciation	1-10

*Negative scores are also possible if students score fewer points on the second exam

Appendix D Statistical Coding

1. ID: An identification number given to each survey based on the order in which they were entered into the system. This number has only nominal value.
2. Age: Age of the participant, as provided by the participant on the survey
3. Gender: Gender of the participant
4. Barcelona/Granada: Description of in which city the participants will be studying. This will be coded nominally.
5. Semester: Description of in which semester the participants will be studying. There will be a distinction between those who have participated in the Pre-sessional program in Granada and those who have not. This will be coded nominally.
6. Native Language: The self-reported native language of the participants. This will be coded nominally to determine if any participants are native speakers or heritage speakers.
7. Study of Spanish Before: A Yes/No nominal coding to describe whether or not students studied Spanish before they came to study in Spain.
8. Years of Previous Study: The number of years students had studied Spanish prior to studying abroad in Spain.
9. Age of Beginning to Learn Spanish: The age at which the students began learning Spanish.
10. Previous Travel: A Yes/No nominal coding to describe whether or not participants had traveled to a Spanish-speaking country before studying abroad in Spain.
11. Amount of Time Abroad: An ordinal scale describing the amount of time participants had spent in a Spanish-speaking country prior to studying in Spain. Lower values represent very little time abroad, while greater numbers represent longer periods of stay abroad.
 - a. 0= no prior time abroad
 - b. 1= 1-2 weeks
 - c. 2= 3-4 weeks/1 month

- d. 3= 1-2 months
- e. 4= 3-5 months
- f. 5= 6+ months

12. Residence Type: A nominal coding to describe the type of residence in which the participants live while abroad in Spain. Categories include 'Homestays', 'Shared Apartments', or 'Residence Halls.'

13. Opinion 1: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being 'not in agreement' and 10 being 'completely in agreement: "I like to study Spanish." This item is used to calculate Attitudes/Perceptions.

14. Opinion 1x2: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale of 1-10 with 1 being 'not in agreement' and 10 being 'completely in agreement: "I like to study Spanish." This item is used to calculate any changes in Attitudes/Perceptions from Opinion 1.

15. Opinion 1x3: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale of 1-10 with 1 being 'not in agreement' and 10 being 'completely in agreement: "I liked studying Spanish." This item is used to calculate any changes in Attitudes/Perceptions from Opinion 1 and Opinion 1x2.

16. Opinion 2: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being 'not in agreement' and 10 being 'completely in agreement: "I plan to participate in extracurricular activities that will help me to meet native speakers." This item is used to calculate Integrative Motivation.

17. Opinion 2x2: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being 'not in agreement' and 10 being 'completely in agreement: "I plan to participate in extracurricular activities that will help me to meet native speakers." This item is used to calculate any changes in Integrative Motivation from Opinion 2.

18. Opinion 2x3: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being 'not in agreement' and 10 being 'completely in agreement: "I participated in extracurricular activities that helped me to meet native

speakers.” This item is used to calculate any changes in Integrative Motivation from Opinion 2 and Opinion 2x2.

19. Opinion 3: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being ‘not in agreement’ and 10 being ‘completely in agreement: “I want to learn Spanish.” This item is used to calculate Attitudes/Perceptions.

20. Opinion 3x2: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being ‘not in agreement’ and 10 being ‘completely in agreement: “I actually want to learn Spanish.” This item is used to calculate any changes in Attitudes/Perceptions from Opinion 3.

21. Opinion 3x3: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being ‘not in agreement’ and 10 being ‘completely in agreement: “I wanted to learn Spanish.” This item is used to calculate any changes in Attitudes/Perceptions from Opinion 3 and Opinion 3x2.

22. Opinion 4: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being ‘not in agreement’ and 10 being ‘completely in agreement: “I find learning Spanish and attending Spanish classes interesting.” This item is used to calculate Attitude/Perceptions.

23. Opinion 4x2: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being ‘not in agreement’ and 10 being ‘completely in agreement: “I find learning Spanish and attending Spanish classes interesting.” This item is used to calculate any changes in Attitude/Perceptions from Opinion 4.

24. Opinion 4x3: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being ‘not in agreement’ and 10 being ‘completely in agreement: “I found learning Spanish and attending Spanish classes interesting.” This item is used to calculate any changes in Attitude/Perceptions from Opinion 4 and Opinion 4x2.

25. Opinion 5: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being ‘not in agreement’ and 10 being ‘completely in agreement: “I am interested in Spanish culture and history.” This item is used to calculate Integrative Motivation.

26. Opinion 5x2: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being 'not in agreement' and 10 being 'completely in agreement': "I am interested in Spanish culture and history." This item is used to calculate any changes in Integrative Motivation from Opinion 5.
27. Opinion 5x3: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being 'not in agreement' and 10 being 'completely in agreement': "I was interested in Spanish culture and history." This item is used to calculate any changes in Integrative Motivation from Opinion 5 and Opinion 5x2.
28. Opinion 6: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being 'not in agreement' and 10 being 'completely in agreement': "I think I will like the Spanish people." This item is used to calculate Attitudes/Perceptions.
29. Opinion 6x2: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being 'not in agreement' and 10 being 'completely in agreement': "So far, I like the Spanish people." This item is used to calculate any changes in Attitudes/Perceptions from Opinion 6.
30. Opinion 6x3: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being 'not in agreement' and 10 being 'completely in agreement': "I liked the Spanish people." This item is used to calculate any changes in Attitudes/Perceptions from Opinion 6 and Opinion 6x2.
31. Opinion 7: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being 'not in agreement' and 10 being 'completely in agreement': "I think that Spanish would be helpful for my future career." This item is used to calculate Instrumental Motivation.
32. Opinion 7x2: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being 'not in agreement' and 10 being 'completely in agreement': "I think that Spanish would be helpful for my future career." This item is used to calculate any changes in Instrumental Motivation from Opinion 7.
33. Opinion 7x3: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being 'not in agreement' and 10 being 'completely in

agreement: "I think that Spanish would be helpful for my future career." This item is used to calculate any changes in Instrumental Motivation from Opinion 7 and Opinion 7x2.

34. Opinion 8: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being 'not in agreement' and 10 being 'completely in agreement: "I will make an effort to make Spanish-speaking friends." This item is used to calculate Integrative Motivation.

35. Opinion 8x2: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being 'not in agreement' and 10 being 'completely in agreement: "I am making an effort to make Spanish-speaking friends." This item is used to calculate any changes in Integrative Motivation from Opinion 8.

36. Opinion 8x3: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being 'not in agreement' and 10 being 'completely in agreement: "I made an effort to make Spanish-speaking friends." This item is used to calculate any changes in Integrative Motivation from Opinion 8 and Opinion 8x2.

37. Opinion 9: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being 'not in agreement' and 10 being 'completely in agreement: "I want to practice my Spanish with native speakers." This item is used to calculate Integrative Motivation.

38. Opinion 9x2: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being 'not in agreement' and 10 being 'completely in agreement: "I want to practice my Spanish with native speakers." This item is used to calculate any changes in Integrative Motivation from Opinion 9.

39. Opinion 9x3: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being 'not in agreement' and 10 being 'completely in agreement: "I practiced my Spanish with native speakers." This item is used to calculate any changes in Integrative Motivation from Opinion 9 and Opinion 9x2.

40. Opinion 10: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being 'not in agreement' and 10 being 'completely in agreement: "I want to immerse myself in the Spanish way of life while abroad." This item is used to calculate Integrative Motivation.

41. Opinion 10x2: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being 'not in agreement' and 10 being 'completely in agreement': "I am immersing myself in the Spanish way of life while abroad." This item is used to calculate any changes in Integrative Motivation from Opinion 10.

42. Opinion 10x3: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being 'not in agreement' and 10 being 'completely in agreement': "I immersed myself in the Spanish way of life while abroad." This item is used to calculate any changes in Integrative Motivation from Opinion 10 and Opinion 10x2.

43. Opinion 11: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being 'not in agreement' and 10 being 'completely in agreement': "Learning Spanish is an important reason why I chose to study abroad." This item is used to calculate Integrative Motivation.

44. Opinion 11x2: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being 'not in agreement' and 10 being 'completely in agreement': "Learning Spanish is an important reason why I chose to study abroad." This item is used to calculate any changes in Integrative Motivation from Opinion 11.

45. Opinion 11x3: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being 'not in agreement' and 10 being 'completely in agreement': "Learning Spanish is an important reason why I chose to study abroad." This item is used to calculate any changes in Integrative Motivation from Opinion 11 and Opinion 11x2.

46. Opinion 12: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being 'not in agreement' and 10 being 'completely in agreement': "Improving my résumé is an important reason why I chose to study abroad." This item is used to calculate Instrumental Motivation.

47. Opinion 12x2: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being 'not in agreement' and 10 being 'completely in agreement': "Improving my résumé is an important reason why I chose to study abroad." This item is used to calculate any changes in Instrumental Motivation from Opinion 12.

48. Opinion 12x3: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being 'not in agreement' and 10 being 'completely in agreement: "Improving my résumé is an important reason why I chose to study abroad." This item is used to calculate any changes in Instrumental Motivation from Opinion 12 and Opinion 12x2.

49. Opinion 13: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being 'not in agreement' and 10 being 'completely in agreement: "I want to take classes taught in Spanish." This item is used to measure Integrative Motivation.

50. Opinion 13x2: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being 'not in agreement' and 10 being 'completely in agreement: "I am taking classes taught in Spanish." This item is used to measure any changes in Integrative Motivation from Opinion 13.

51. Opinion 13x3: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being 'not in agreement' and 10 being 'completely in agreement: "I took classes taught in Spanish." This item is used to measure any changes in Integrative Motivation from Opinion 13 and Opinion 13x2.

52. Opinion 14: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being 'not in agreement' and 10 being 'completely in agreement: "I think I will acquire Spanish more easily in Spain than in my regular Spanish classroom." This item is used to calculate Attitudes/Perceptions.

53. Opinion 14x2: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being 'not in agreement' and 10 being 'completely in agreement: "I think I will acquire Spanish more easily in Spain than in my regular Spanish classroom." This item is used to calculate any changes in Attitudes/Perceptions from Opinion 14.

54. Opinion 14x3: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being 'not in agreement' and 10 being 'completely in agreement: "I feel that I have acquired Spanish more easily in Spain than in my regular

Spanish classroom.” This item is used to calculate any changes in Attitudes/Perceptions from Opinion 14 and Opinion 14x2.

55. Opinion 15: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being ‘not in agreement’ and 10 being ‘completely in agreement: “I am looking forward to having a positive academic experience in Barcelona/Granada.” This item is used to calculate Attitudes/Perceptions.

56. Opinion 15x2: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being ‘not in agreement’ and 10 being ‘completely in agreement: “So far, I am having a positive academic experience in Barcelona/Granada.” This item is used to calculate any changes in Attitudes/Perceptions from Opinion 15.

57. Opinion 15x3: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being ‘not in agreement’ and 10 being ‘completely in agreement: “I had a positive academic experience in Barcelona/Granada.” This item is used to calculate any changes in Attitudes/Perceptions from Opinion 15 and Opinion 15x2.

58. Opinion 16: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being ‘not in agreement’ and 10 being ‘completely in agreement: “I am looking forward to having a positive personal experience in Barcelona/Granada.” This item is used to calculate Attitudes/Perceptions.

59. Opinion 16x2: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being ‘not in agreement’ and 10 being ‘completely in agreement: “So far, I am having a positive personal experience in Barcelona/Granada.” This item is used to calculate any changes in Attitudes/Perceptions from Opinion 16.

60. Opinion 16x3: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being ‘not in agreement’ and 10 being ‘completely in agreement: “I had a positive personal experience in Barcelona/Granada.” This item is used to calculate any changes in Attitudes/Perceptions from Opinion 16 and Opinion 16x2.

61. Opinion 17: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being ‘not in agreement’ and 10 being ‘completely in agreement: “I am confident in my ability to communicate effectively with others using Spanish.” This item is used to calculate Attitudes/Perceptions.

62. Opinion 17x2: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being 'not in agreement' and 10 being 'completely in agreement: "I am confident in my ability to communicate effectively with others using Spanish." This item is used to calculate any changes in Attitudes/Perceptions from Opinion 17.
63. Opinion 17x3: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being 'not in agreement' and 10 being 'completely in agreement: "I am confident in my ability to communicate effectively with others using Spanish." This item is used to calculate any changes in Attitudes/Perceptions from Opinion 17 and Opinion 17x2.
64. Opinion 18: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being 'not in agreement' and 10 being 'completely in agreement: "I think it will be relatively easy to meet native speakers with whom I can practice my Spanish while abroad." This item is used to calculate Attitudes/Perceptions.
65. Opinion 18x2: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being 'not in agreement' and 10 being 'completely in agreement: "I am finding it relatively easy to meet native speakers with whom I can practice my Spanish while abroad." This item is used to calculate any changes in Attitudes/Perceptions from Opinion 18.
66. Opinion 18x3: Students were asked to give their opinion on the following statement on a scale from 1-10 with 1 being 'not in agreement' and 10 being 'completely in agreement: "I found it relatively easy to meet native speakers with whom I can practice my Spanish while abroad." This item is used to calculate any changes in Attitudes/Perceptions from Opinion 18 and Opinion 18x2.
67. Motive 1: Students were asked to rank the following statement from 1-10 regarding how important each motive was to them in studying abroad with 1 being 'Not important' and 10 being 'Extremely important': "Increase the level of my Spanish language skills." This item is used to calculate Integrative Motivation.
68. Motive 1x2: Students were asked to rank the following statement from 1-10 regarding how important each motive was to them in studying abroad with 1 being 'Not

important' and 10 being 'Extremely important': "Increase the level of my Spanish language skills." This item is used to calculate any changes in Integrative Motivation from Motive 1.

69. Motive 1x3: Students were asked to rank the following statement from 1-10 regarding how important each motive was to them in studying abroad with 1 being 'Not important' and 10 being 'Extremely important': "Increase the level of my Spanish language skills." This item is used to calculate any changes in Integrative Motivation from Motive 1 and Motive 1x2.

70. Motive 2: Students were asked to rank the following statement from 1-10 regarding how important each motive was to them in studying abroad with 1 being 'Not important' and 10 being 'Extremely important': "Personal Development." This item is used to calculate Instrumental Motivation.

71. Motive 2x2: Students were asked to rank the following statement from 1-10 regarding how important each motive was to them in studying abroad with 1 being 'Not important' and 10 being 'Extremely important': "Personal Development." This item is used to calculate any changes in Instrumental Motivation from Motive 2.

72. Motive 2x3: Students were asked to rank the following statement from 1-10 regarding how important each motive was to them in studying abroad with 1 being 'Not important' and 10 being 'Extremely important': "Personal Development." This item is used to calculate any changes in Instrumental Motivation from Motive 2 and Motive 2x2.

73. Motive 3: Students were asked to rank the following statement from 1-10 regarding how important each motive was to them in studying abroad with 1 being 'Not important' and 10 being 'Extremely important': "Having a worthwhile academic experience." This item is used to calculate Instrumental Motivation.

74. Motive 3x2: Students were asked to rank the following statement from 1-10 regarding how important each motive was to them in studying abroad with 1 being 'Not important' and 10 being 'Extremely important': "Having a worthwhile academic experience." This item is used to calculate any changes in Instrumental Motivation from Motive 3.

75. Motive 3x3: Students were asked to rank the following statement from 1-10 regarding how important each motive was to them in studying abroad with 1 being 'Not

important' and 10 being 'Extremely important': "Having a worthwhile academic experience." This item is used to calculate any changes in Instrumental Motivation from Motive 3 and Motive 3x2.

76. Motive 4: Students were asked to rank the following statement from 1-10 regarding how important each motive was to them in studying abroad with 1 being 'Not important' and 10 being 'Extremely important': "Traveling." This item is used to calculate Instrumental Motivation.

77. Motive 4x3: Students were asked to rank the following statement from 1-10 regarding how important each motive was to them in studying abroad with 1 being 'Not important' and 10 being 'Extremely important': "Traveling." This item is used to calculate any changes in Instrumental Motivation from Motive 4 and Motive 4x2.

78. Motive 5: Students were asked to rank the following statement from 1-10 regarding how important each motive was to them in studying abroad with 1 being 'Not important' and 10 being 'Extremely important': "Having fun and having a good time." This item is used to calculate Instrumental Motivation.

79. Motive 5x2: Students were asked to rank the following statement from 1-10 regarding how important each motive was to them in studying abroad with 1 being 'Not important' and 10 being 'Extremely important': "Having fun and having a good time." This item is used to calculate any changes in Instrumental Motivation from Motive 5.

80. Motive 5x3: Students were asked to rank the following statement from 1-10 regarding how important each motive was to them in studying abroad with 1 being 'Not important' and 10 being 'Extremely important': "Having fun and having a good time." This item is used to calculate any changes in Instrumental Motivation from Motive 5 and Motive 5x2.

81. Motive 6: Students were asked to rank the following statement from 1-10 regarding how important each motive was to them in studying abroad with 1 being 'Not important' and 10 being 'Extremely important': "Having independence." This item is used to calculate Instrumental Motivation.

82. Motive 6x2: Students were asked to rank the following statement from 1-10 regarding how important each motive was to them in studying abroad with 1 being 'Not

important' and 10 being 'Extremely important': "Having independence." This item is used to calculate any changes in Instrumental Motivation from Motive 6.

83. Motive 6x3: Students were asked to rank the following statement from 1-10 regarding how important each motive was to them in studying abroad with 1 being 'Not important' and 10 being 'Extremely important': "Having independence." This item is used to calculate any changes in Instrumental Motivation from Motive 6 and Motive 6x2.

84. Motive 7: Students were asked to rank the following statement from 1-10 regarding how important each motive was to them in studying abroad with 1 being 'Not important' and 10 being 'Extremely important': "Getting to know people from other countries." This item is used to calculate Integrative Motivation.

85. Motive 7x2: Students were asked to rank the following statement from 1-10 regarding how important each motive was to them in studying abroad with 1 being 'Not important' and 10 being 'Extremely important': "Getting to know people from other countries." This item is used to calculate any changes in Integrative Motivation from Motive 7.

86. Motive 7xe: Students were asked to rank the following statement from 1-10 regarding how important each motive was to them in studying abroad with 1 being 'Not important' and 10 being 'Extremely important': "Getting to know people from other countries." This item is used to calculate any changes in Integrative Motivation from Motive 7 and Motive 7x2.

87. Motive 8: Students were asked to rank the following statement from 1-10 regarding how important each motive was to them in studying abroad with 1 being 'Not important' and 10 being 'Extremely important': "Getting to experience a different culture." This item is used to calculate Integrative Motivation.

88. Motive 8x2: Students were asked to rank the following statement from 1-10 regarding how important each motive was to them in studying abroad with 1 being 'Not important' and 10 being 'Extremely important': "Getting to experience a different culture." This item is used to calculate any changes in Integrative Motivation from Motive 8.

89. Motive 8x3: Students were asked to rank the following statement from 1-10 regarding how important each motive was to them in studying abroad with 1 being 'Not

important' and 10 being 'Extremely important': "Getting to experience a different culture." This item is used to calculate any changes in Integrative Motivation from Motive 8 and Motive 8x2.

90. Motive 9: Students were asked to rank the following statement from 1-10 regarding how important each motive was to them in studying abroad with 1 being 'Not important' and 10 being 'Extremely important': "Gaining other life skills." This item is used to calculate Instrumental Motivation.

91. Motive 9x2: Students were asked to rank the following statement from 1-10 regarding how important each motive was to them in studying abroad with 1 being 'Not important' and 10 being 'Extremely important': "Gaining other life skills." This item is eliminated from further analysis of Instrumental Motivation because of ambiguity in its interpretation.

92. Motive 9x3: Students were asked to rank the following statement from 1-10 regarding how important each motive was to them in studying abroad with 1 being 'Not important' and 10 being 'Extremely important': "Gaining other life skills." This item is eliminated from further analysis of Instrumental Motivation because of ambiguity in its interpretation.

93. Motive 10: Students were asked to rank the following statement from 1-10 regarding how important each motive was to them in studying abroad with 1 being 'Not important' and 10 being 'Extremely important': "Making my résumé look better." This item is used to calculate Instrumental Motivation.

94. Motive 10x2: Students were asked to rank the following statement from 1-10 regarding how important each motive was to them in studying abroad with 1 being 'Not important' and 10 being 'Extremely important': "Making my résumé look better." This item is used to calculate any changes in Instrumental Motivation from Motive 10.

95. Motive 10x3: Students were asked to rank the following statement from 1-10 regarding how important each motive was to them in studying abroad with 1 being 'Not important' and 10 being 'Extremely important': "Making my résumé look better." This item is used to calculate any changes in Instrumental Motivation from Motive 10 and Motive 10x2.

96. Motive 11: Students were asked to rank the following statement from 1-10 regarding how important each motive was to them in studying abroad with 1 being 'Not important' and 10 being 'Extremely important': "Getting experience which could help my future career." This item is used to calculate Instrumental Motivation.

97. Motive 11x2: Students were asked to rank the following statement from 1-10 regarding how important each motive was to them in studying abroad with 1 being 'Not important' and 10 being 'Extremely important': "Getting experience which could help my future career." This item is used to calculate any changes in Instrumental Motivation from Motive 11.

98. Motive 11x3: Students were asked to rank the following statement from 1-10 regarding how important each motive was to them in studying abroad with 1 being 'Not important' and 10 being 'Extremely important': "Getting experience which could help my future career." This item is used to calculate any changes in Instrumental Motivation from Motive 11 and Motive 11x2.

99. Looking Forward To 1: Participants were asked to describe one or several aspects of the study abroad experience to which they were looking forward. Answers were analyzed in a qualitative manner and were coded nominally based on several major trends in the responses.

- a. 1 = Learning Spanish
- b. 2 = Experiencing a new culture
- c. 3 = Socialising/Making social connections
- d. 4 = Traveling around Spain/Europe
- e. 5 = Other

100. Looking Forward To 2: Participants were asked to describe one or several aspects of the study abroad experience to which they were looking forward. Answers were analyzed in a qualitative manner and were coded nominally based on several major trends in the responses. This variable indicates whether or not a participant has listed more than one aspect to which they were looking forward.

- a. 0 = No answer given
- b. 1 = Learning Spanish

- c. 2 = Experiencing a new culture
- d. 3 = Socialising/Making social connections
- e. 4 = Traveling around Spain/Europe
- f. 5 = Other

101. Nervousness: Participants were asked to describe one or several aspects of the study abroad experience to which they were not looking forward or that makes them nervous. Answers were analyzed in a qualitative manner and were coded nominally based on several major trends in the responses.

- a. 0 = No answer given
- b. 1 = Communicating with locals
- c. 2 = Living situation
- d. 3 = Cultural inappropriateness
- e. 4 = Classes/homework being difficult
- f. 5 = Making new friends
- g. 6 = Other

102. Culture Shock: On Questionnaire 2, students were asked to explain whether they had experienced any feelings of 'culture shock' since their arrival in Spain. This variable was coded nominally as either 'Yes' or 'No', and was elaborated in the text using examples provided by students.

103. Proficiency Exam 1: Participants were asked to take a Spanish proficiency exam at the beginning of their semester abroad with a total of 21 questions. Answers were marked against a key, and were coded on a numerical scale.

104. Proficiency Exam 2: Participants were asked to take a Spanish proficiency exam at the end of their semester abroad with a total of 21 questions. Answers were marked against a key, and were coded on a numerical scale.

105. Proficiency Exam 1 (A2 only): As part of the first overall proficiency exam, the participants completed a 7-question section based on the CEFL A2. Answers were marked against a key, and were coded on a numerical scale.

106. Proficiency Exam 2 (A2 only): As part of the second overall proficiency exam, the participants completed a 7-question section based on the CEFL A2. Answers were marked against a key, and were coded on a numerical scale.

107. Proficiency Exam 1 (B2 only): As part of the first overall proficiency exam, the participants completed a 7-question section based on the CEFL B2. Answers were marked against a key, and were coded on a numerical scale.

108. Proficiency Exam 2 (B2 only): As part of the second overall proficiency exam, the participants completed a 7-question section based on the CEFL B2. Answers were marked against a key, and were coded on a numerical scale.

109. Proficiency Exam 1 (C1 only): As part of the first overall proficiency exam, the participants completed a 7-question section based on the CEFL C1. Answers were marked against a key, and were coded on a numerical scale.

110. Proficiency Exam 2 (C1 only): As part of the second overall proficiency exam, the participants completed a 7-question section based on the CEFL C1. Answers were marked against a key, and were coded on a numerical scale.

111. Exam Score Difference: The difference in proficiency exam scores between the first and second exams. The results are coded on a numerical scale, including negative values to represent those who scored lower on the second exam.

112. Exam Score Difference (A2 Section Only): The difference in proficiency exam scores between the first and second exams for the A2 section of the exam. The results are coded on a numerical scale, including negative values to represent those who scored lower on the second exam.

113. Exam Score Difference (B2 Section Only): The difference in proficiency exam scores between the first and second exams for the B2 section of the exam. The results are coded on a numerical scale, including negative values to represent those who scored lower on the second exam.

114. Exam Score Difference (C1 Section Only): The difference in proficiency exam scores between the first and second exams for the C1 section of the exam. The results are coded

on a numerical scale, including negative values to represent those who scored lower on the second exam.

115. Total Attitudes and Perceptions Time1/10: A combination of the 9 other variables related to Attitudes and Perceptions which have been coded into a single 10-point scale to measure for overall positive attitudes and perceptions towards the study abroad experience. This variable only includes results from the first questionnaire.

116. Total Attitudes and Perceptions Time2/10: A combination of the 9 other variables related to Attitudes and Perceptions which have been coded into a single 10-point scale to measure for overall positive attitudes and perceptions towards the study abroad experience. This variable only includes results from the second questionnaire.

117. Total Attitudes and Perceptions Time3/10: A combination of the 9 other variables related to Attitudes and Perceptions which have been coded into a single 10-point scale to measure for overall positive attitudes and perceptions towards the study abroad experience. This variable only includes results from the third questionnaire.

118. Total Integrative Motivation Time1/10: A combination of the 10 other variables related to Integrated Motivation which have been coded into a single 10-point scale to measure for overall integrative motivation in the study abroad experience. This variable only includes results from the first questionnaire.

119. Total Integrative Motivation Time2/10: A combination of the 10 other variables related to Integrated Motivation which have been coded into a single 10-point scale to measure for overall integrative motivation in the study abroad experience. This variable only includes results from the second questionnaire.

120. Total Integrative Motivation Time3/10: A combination of the 10 other variables related to Integrated Motivation which have been coded into a single 10-point scale to measure for overall integrative motivation in the study abroad experience. This variable only includes results from the third questionnaire.

121. Total Instrumental Motivation Time1/10: A combination of the other 10 variables related to Instrumental Motivation which have been coded into a single 10-point scale to measure for overall instrumental motivation in the study abroad experience. This variable only includes results from the first questionnaire.

122. Total Instrumental Motivation Time₂/10: A combination of the other 9 variables related to Instrumental Motivation which have been coded into a single 10-point scale to measure for overall instrumental motivation in the study abroad experience. This variable only includes results from the second questionnaire. One item from the second questionnaire was eliminated due to ambiguity in its interpretation.

123. Total Instrumental Motivation Time₃/10: A combination of the other 9 variables related to Instrumental Motivation which have been coded into a single 10-point scale to measure for overall instrumental motivation in the study abroad experience. This variable only includes results from the third questionnaire. One item from the third questionnaire was eliminated due to ambiguity in its interpretation.

124. Total Motivation Time₁/10: A combination of the 20 other variables that measure either integrative or instrumental motivation which have been coded into a single 10-point scale to measure for overall general motivation in the study abroad experience. This variable only includes results from the first questionnaire.

125. Total Motivation Time₂/10: A combination of the 19 other variables that measure either integrative or instrumental motivation which have been coded into a single 10-point scale to measure for overall general motivation in the study abroad experience. This variable only includes results from the second questionnaire. One item from the first questionnaire was eliminated due to ambiguity in its interpretation.

126. Total Motivation Time₃/10: A combination of the 20 other variables that measure either integrative or instrumental motivation which have been coded into a single 10-point scale to measure for overall general motivation in the study abroad experience. This variable only includes results from the third questionnaire.

127. 'At Home' Language Contact Score/20: A value measuring the participants' contact with the target language in their respective living situations abroad. This value considers the number of housemates reported by the participants, the language used with each housemate and the frequency of the interactions. Scores are calculated on a numerical scale with a maximum score possible of 20.

128. 'At School' Language Contact Score/20: A value measuring the participants' contact with the target language in their academic centers abroad. This value considers the

number of classmates or staff members reported by the participants, the language used with each classmate/staff member, and the frequency of the interactions. Scores are calculated on a numerical scale with a maximum score possible of 20.

129. 'Free Time' Language Contact Score/20: A value measuring the participants' contact with the target language during their general free time abroad. This value considers the number of friends or contacts reported by the participants, the language used with each friend/contact, and the frequency of the interactions. Scores are calculated on a numerical scale with a maximum score possible of 20.

130. 'Virtual Interactions' Language Contact Score/20: A value measuring the participants' contact with the target language during virtual interactions while abroad (including interactions via Facebook, Skype, SMS, Whatsapp, etc.). This value considers the number of contacts reported by the participants, the language used with each contact, and the frequency of the interactions. Scores are calculated on a numerical scale with a maximum score possible of 20.

131. Total Language Contact Score/80: A value measuring the participants' contact with the target language in various social contexts while abroad. This value is calculated by adding the Language Contact Scores from the previously listed contexts. Scores are calculated on a numerical scale with a maximum score possible of 80.

132. Home Communication (Time 1): A self-assessed indication of the amount of Spanish, English and/or other languages spoken in the participants' residences while abroad. Results were gathered during the middle of the SA program and were coded ordinally on a 0-4 scale with 'Always English' receiving a score of '0' and 'Always Spanish' receiving a score of '4'. Other languages apart from Spanish were also given a score of '0'.

133. Home Communication (Time 2): A self-assessed indication of the amount of Spanish, English and/or other languages spoken in the participants' residences while abroad. Results were gathered towards the end of the SA program and were coded ordinally on a 0-4 scale with 'Always English' receiving a score of '0' and 'Always Spanish' receiving a score of '4'. Other languages apart from Spanish were also given a score of '0'.

134. Service Encounters Communication (Time 1): A self-assessed indication of the amount of Spanish, English and/or other languages spoken in stores, restaurants and other

service encounters while abroad. Results were gathered during the middle of the SA program and coded ordinally on a 0-4 scale with 'Always English' receiving a score of '0' and 'Always Spanish' receiving a score of '4'. Other languages apart from Spanish were also given a score of '0'.

135. Service Encounters Communication (Time 2): A self-assessed indication of the amount of Spanish, English and/or other languages spoken in stores, restaurants and other service encounters while abroad. Results were gathered towards the end of the SA program and coded ordinally on a 0-4 scale with 'Always English' receiving a score of '0' and 'Always Spanish' receiving a score of '4'. Other languages apart from Spanish were also given a score of '0'.

136. School Communication (Time 1): A self-assessed indication of the amount of Spanish, English and/or other languages spoken while in the participants' academic centers while abroad. Results were gathered during the middle of the SA program and were coded ordinally on a 0-4 scale with 'Always English' receiving a score of '0' and 'Always Spanish' receiving a score of '4'. Other languages apart from Spanish were also given a score of '0'.

137. School Communication (Time 2): A self-assessed indication of the amount of Spanish, English and/or other languages spoken while in the participants' academic centers while abroad. Results were gathered towards the end of the SA program and were coded ordinally on a 0-4 scale with 'Always English' receiving a score of '0' and 'Always Spanish' receiving a score of '4'. Other languages apart from Spanish were also given a score of '0'.

138. Free Time Communication (Time 1): A self-assessed indication of the amount of Spanish, English and/or other languages spoken in the participants' general free time while abroad. Results were gathered during the middle of the SA program and were coded ordinally on a 0-4 scale with 'Always English' receiving a score of '0' and 'Always Spanish' receiving a score of '4'. Other languages apart from Spanish were also given a score of '0'.

139. Free Time Communication (Time 2): A self-assessed indication of the amount of Spanish, English and/or other languages spoken in the participants' general free time while abroad. Results were gathered towards the end of the SA program and were coded ordinally on a 0-4 scale with 'Always English' receiving a score of '0' and 'Always Spanish' receiving a score of '4'. Other languages apart from Spanish were also given a score of '0'.

140. Virtual Communication (Time 1): A self-assessed indication of the amount of Spanish, English and/or other languages spoken in the participants' virtual interactions while abroad (including interactions via Facebook, Skype, SMS, Whatsapp, etc.). Results were gathered during the middle of the SA program and were coded ordinally on a 0-4 scale with 'Always English' receiving a score of '0' and 'Always Spanish' receiving a score of '4'. Other languages apart from Spanish were also given a score of '0'.

141. Virtual Communication (Time 2): A self-assessed indication of the amount of Spanish, English and/or other languages spoken in the participants' virtual interactions while abroad (including interactions via Facebook, Skype, SMS, Whatsapp, etc.). Results were gathered towards the end of the SA program and were coded ordinally on a 0-4 scale with 'Always English' receiving a score of '0' and 'Always Spanish' receiving a score of '4'. Other languages apart from Spanish were also given a score of '0'.

142. Spanish with Americans: Using the qualitative data from Questionnaire 2 on Language Contact, this variable indicates a nominal 'Yes' or 'No' coding, representing whether a student reported using Spanish regularly with other American students in at least one social context.

143. Spanish with Only Americans: Using the qualitative data from Questionnaire 2 on Language Contact, this variable indicates a nominal 'Yes' or 'No' coding, representing whether a student reported using Spanish on a regular basis exclusively with other American students in at least one social context.

144. 'Listening' Self-Assessment BEFORE: A self-assessed indication of the participants' listening skills in Spanish before their arrival in Spain. Participants were asked to rank their skills in this area before coming to Spain with 1 being an "Absolute Beginner" and 10 being "Native-like."

145. 'Speaking' Self-Assessment BEFORE: A self-assessed indication of the participants' speaking skills in Spanish before their arrival in Spain. Participants were asked to rank their skills in this area before coming to Spain with 1 being an "Absolute Beginner" and 10 being "Native-like."

146. 'Reading' Self-Assessment BEFORE: A self-assessed indication of the participants' reading skills in Spanish before their arrival in Spain. Participants were asked to rank their

skills in this area before coming to Spain with 1 being an “Absolute Beginner” and 10 being “Native-like.”

147. ‘Writing’ Self-Assessment BEFORE: A self-assessed indication of the participants’ writing skills in Spanish before their arrival in Spain. Participants were asked to rank their skills in this area before coming to Spain with 1 being an “Absolute Beginner” and 10 being “Native-like.”

148. ‘Grammar’ Self-Assessment BEFORE: A self-assessed indication of the participants’ grammar skills in Spanish before their arrival in Spain. Participants were asked to rank their skills in this area before coming to Spain with 1 being an “Absolute Beginner” and 10 being “Native-like.”

149. ‘Pronunciation’ Self-Assessment BEFORE: A self-assessed indication of the participants’ pronunciation skills in Spanish before their arrival in Spain. Participants were asked to rank their skills in this area before coming to Spain with 1 being an “Absolute Beginner” and 10 being “Native-like.”

150. ‘Listening’ Self-Assessment AFTER: A self-assessed indication of the participants’ listening skills in Spanish after nearly completing their SA program in Spain. Participants were asked to rank their skills in this area after spending time in Spain with 1 being an “Absolute Beginner” and 10 being “Native-like.”

151. ‘Speaking’ Self-Assessment AFTER: A self-assessed indication of the participants’ speaking skills in Spanish after nearly completing their SA program in Spain. Participants were asked to rank their skills in this area after spending time in Spain with 1 being an “Absolute Beginner” and 10 being “Native-like.”

152. ‘Reading’ Self-Assessment AFTER: A self-assessed indication of the participants’ reading skills in Spanish after nearly completing their SA program in Spain. Participants were asked to rank their skills in this area after spending time in Spain with 1 being an “Absolute Beginner” and 10 being “Native-like.”

153. ‘Writing’ Self-Assessment AFTER: A self-assessed indication of the participants’ writing skills in Spanish after nearly completing their SA program in Spain. Participants were asked to rank their skills in this area after spending time in Spain with 1 being an “Absolute Beginner” and 10 being “Native-like.”

154. 'Grammar' Self-Assessment AFTER: A self-assessed indication of the participants' grammar skills in Spanish after nearly completing their SA program in Spain. Participants were asked to rank their skills in this area after spending time in Spain with 1 being an "Absolute Beginner" and 10 being "Native-like."

155. 'Pronunciation' Self-Assessment AFTER: A self-assessed indication of the participants' pronunciation skills in Spanish after nearly completing their SA program in Spain. Participants were asked to rank their skills in this area after spending time in Spain with 1 being an "Absolute Beginner" and 10 being "Native-like."

Appendix E Participant Forms

E.1 Participant Information Sheet



Participant Information Sheet

Study Title: The Dynamic Nature of Individual Experiences in Study Abroad: Motivational Perspectives, Language Contact and Social Network Development.

Researcher: Kassie A. Cigliana

Ethics number: 6548

Version 1.0 (June 13, 2013)

Please read this information carefully before deciding to take part in this research. If you are happy to participate you will be asked to sign a consent form.

What is the research about?

This study aims to gather information about students' motivations, attitudes and social groups while studying in Spain. The study will also investigate the different languages students use to communicate in Spain, with whom they interact, and how language use will affect their learning of Spanish while abroad.

Why have I been chosen?

You have been selected to participate because you are an American student who has decided to study at an Arcadia University institute for either one semester or one academic year in Spain.

What will happen to me if I take part?

If you take part in this study, you will be asked to fill out 4 short questionnaires and 2 short Spanish proficiency exams over the course of your study in Spain. The researcher may also ask to interview you about your experiences in Spain.

Are there any benefits in my taking part?

If requested, the researcher can provide you with information on any improvements that you have made in learning Spanish while abroad. Other benefits include the building of a greater knowledge about study abroad experiences which may help Arcadia and other institutions to improve the quality of their study abroad programs.

Are there any risks involved?

This is a very low-risk study. While you will be asked to provide some personal information (nothing sensitive will be asked of you), all data will be protected by the researcher.

Will my participation be confidential?

The researcher will comply with the Data Protection Act/University Policy. All data collected will remain confidential and will be stored on a password-protected computer. In the mentioning of individuals, all participants will remain anonymous.

What happens if I change my mind?

Your participation is completely voluntary, and you have the right to withdraw at any time without your legal rights being affected.

What happens if something goes wrong?

In the unlikely case of concern or complaint, please contact Professor Ros Mitchell (Chair of the Faculty Ethics Committee, University of Southampton) at +44 2380592231 or rjm3@soton.ac.uk

Where can I get more information?

Please feel free to contact the researcher, Kassie Cigliana, at +44 7869730778 or K.Cigliana@soton.ac.uk or the research supervisor, Dr. Jaime Beswick, at +44 2380593247 or J.Beswick@soton.ac.uk.

E.2 Consent Form



CONSENT FORM (*FACE TO FACE: Version 1.0*) June 13, 2013

Study title: The Dynamic Nature of Individual Experiences in Study Abroad: Motivational Perspectives, Language Contact and Social Network Development.

Researcher name: Kassie A. Cigliana
Staff/Student number: 25802798
ERGO reference number: 6548

Please initial the box(es) if you agree with the statement(s):

I have read and understood the information sheet (June 13, 2013/Version 1.0) and have had the opportunity to ask questions about the study.

I agree to take part in this research project and agree for my data to be used for the purpose of this study

I understand my participation is voluntary and I may withdraw at any time without my legal rights being affected

Data Protection

I understand that information collected about me during my participation in this study will be stored on a password protected computer and that this information will only be used for the purpose of this study. All files containing any personal data will be made anonymous.

Name of participant (print name).....

Signature of participant.....

Date.....

Appendix F Attitudes Tables

Table F- 1: Attitudes (Time 1) and Linguistic Gains Correlations

		1st Exam Score	2nd Exam Score	Score Difference
Opinion 1: A/P (T1)	Rho	.505**	.229	-.395**
	p	.000	.103	.004
	N	70	52	52
Opinion 3: A/P (T1)	Rho	.309**	.287*	-.135
	p	.009	.039	.339
	N	70	52	52
Opinion 4: A/P (T1)	Rho	.507**	.349*	-.349*
	p	.000	.011	.011
	N	70	52	52
Opinion 6: A/P (T1)	Rho	-.018	-.038	-.285*
	p	.885	.789	.041
	N	70	52	52
Opinion 14: A/P (T1)	Rho	.279*	.405**	-.028
	p	.019	.003	.846
	N	70	52	52
Opinion 15: A/P (T1)	Rho	.069	-.023	-.152
	p	.568	.869	.282
	N	70	52	52
Opinion 16: A/P (T1)	Rho	.119	.028	-.189
	p	.327	.842	.180
	N	70	52	52
Opinion 17: A/P (T1)	Rho	.577**	.336*	-.346*
	p	.000	.015	.012
	N	70	52	52
Opinion 18: A/P (T1)	Rho	.289*	.125	-.270
	p	.015	.378	.053
	N	70	52	52

Table F- 2: Attitudes (Time 2) and Linguistic Gains Correlations

		1st Exam Score	2nd Exam Score	Score Difference
Opinion 1: A/P (T2)	Rho	.345**	.272	-.335*
	<i>p</i>	.004	.056	.018
	N	68	50	50
Opinion 3: A/P (T2)	Rho	-.011	.068	-.222
	<i>p</i>	.928	.641	.121
	N	68	50	50
Opinion 4: A/P (T2)	Rho	.201	.150	-.348*
	<i>p</i>	.101	.299	.013
	N	68	50	50
Opinion 6: A/P (T2)	Rho	.198	.142	-.142
	<i>p</i>	.106	.325	.324
	N	68	50	50
Opinion 14: A/P (T2)	Rho	.208	.394**	.037
	<i>p</i>	.089	.005	.800
	N	68	50	50
Opinion 15: A/P (T2)	Rho	.239*	.161	-.414**
	<i>p</i>	.050	.263	.003
	N	68	50	50
Opinion 16: A/P (T2)	Rho	.086	.057	-.276
	<i>p</i>	.484	.697	.053
	N	68	50	50
Opinion 17: A/P (T2)	Rho	.500**	.253	-.261
	<i>p</i>	.000	.077	.067
	N	68	50	50
Opinion 18: A/P (T2)	Rho	.211	-.083	-.519**
	<i>p</i>	.085	.567	.000
	N	68	50	50

Table F- 3: Attitudes (Time 3) and Linguistic Gains Correlations

		1st Exam Score	2nd Exam Score	Score Difference
Opinion 1: A/P (T3)	Rho	.263	.151	-.204
	<i>p</i>	.127	.378	.241
	N	35	36	35
Opinion 3: A/P (T3)	Rho	.253	-.044	-.430**
	<i>p</i>	.142	.800	.010
	N	35	36	35
Opinion 4: A/P (T3)	Rho	.323	.069	-.332
	<i>p</i>	.059	.688	.051
	N	35	36	35
Opinion 6: A/P (T3)	Rho	.360*	.200	-.228
	<i>p</i>	.034	.241	.187
	N	35	36	35
Opinion 14: A/P (T3)	Rho	.007	.278	.278
	<i>p</i>	.966	.100	.106
	N	35	36	35
Opinion 15: A/P (T3)	Rho	.316	.149	-.218
	<i>p</i>	.065	.385	.208
	N	35	36	35
Opinion 16: A/P (T3)	Rho	.192	.034	-.250
	<i>p</i>	.268	.846	.147
	N	35	36	35
Opinion 17: A/P (T3)	Rho	.577**	.385*	-.170
	<i>p</i>	.000	.021	.329
	N	35	36	35
Opinion 18: A/P (T3)	Rho	.526**	.119	-.391*
	<i>p</i>	.001	.491	.020
	N	35	36	35

Appendix G Motivation Tables

Table G- 1: Integrative Motivation (Time 1) and Linguistic Gains Correlations

		1st Exam Score	2nd Exam Score	Score Difference
Opinion 2: Integrative (T1)	Rho	.465**	.125	-.368**
	<i>p</i>	.000	.378	.007
	N	70	52	52
Opinion 5: Integrative (T1)	Rho	-.018	.074	-.098
	<i>p</i>	.881	.601	.490
	N	70	52	52
Opinion 8: Integrative (T1)	Rho	.101	.096	-.090
	<i>p</i>	.406	.498	.526
	N	70	52	52
Opinion 9: Integrative (T1)	Rho	.292*	.144	-.237
	<i>p</i>	.014	.309	.091
	N	70	52	52
Opinion 10: Integrative (T1)	Rho	.173	.220	-.067
	<i>p</i>	.151	.117	.639
	N	70	52	52
Opinion 11: Integrative (T1)	Rho	.306**	.225	-.226
	<i>p</i>	.010	.108	.106
	N	70	52	52
Opinion 13: Integrative (T1)	Rho	.632**	.563**	.018
	<i>p</i>	.000	.000	.900
	N	70	52	52
Motive 1: Integrative (T1)	Rho	.061	.070	-.217
	<i>p</i>	.615	.621	.123
	N	70	52	52
Motive 7: Integrative (T1)	Rho	-.021	.143	-.028
	<i>p</i>	.864	.310	.843
	N	70	52	52
Motive 8: Integrative (T1)	Rho	.015	.034	-.026
	<i>p</i>	.902	.812	.855
	N	70	52	52

Table G- 2: Integrative Motivation (Time 2) and Linguistic Gains Correlations

		1st Exam Score	2nd Exam Score	Score Difference
Opinion 2: Integrative (T2)	Rho	.309*	.132	-.312*
	<i>p</i>	.010	.360	.027
	N	68	50	50
Opinion 5: Integrative (T2)	Rho	.235	.017	-.266
	<i>p</i>	.054	.909	.061
	N	68	50	50
Opinion 8: Integrative (T2)	Rho	.232	.034	-.377**
	<i>p</i>	.057	.814	.007
	N	68	50	50
Opinion 9: Integrative (T2)	Rho	.309*	.252	-.154
	<i>p</i>	.010	.078	.286
	N	68	50	50
Opinion 10: Integrative (T2)	Rho	.265*	.081	-.419**
	<i>p</i>	.029	.576	.002
	N	68	50	50
Opinion 11: Integrative (T2)	Rho	.172	.104	-.349*
	<i>p</i>	.162	.471	.013
	N	68	50	50
Opinion 13: Integrative (T2)	Rho	.367**	.436**	-.003
	<i>p</i>	.002	.002	.981
	N	68	50	50
Motive 1: Integrative (T2)	Rho	.152	.105	-.235
	<i>p</i>	.216	.465	.101
	N	68	51	50
Motive 7: Integrative (T2)	Rho	-.056	-.004	-.149
	<i>p</i>	.649	.976	.301
	N	68	51	50
Motive 8: Integrative (T2)	Rho	.044	.080	-.071
	<i>p</i>	.722	.577	.624
	N	68	51	50

Table G- 3: Integrative Motivation (Time 3) and Linguistic Gains Correlations

		1st Exam Score	2nd Exam Score	Score Difference
Opinion 2: Integrative (T3)	Rho	.564**	.252	-.407*
	<i>p</i>	.000	.138	.015
	N	35	36	35
Opinion 5: Integrative (T3)	Rho	.325	.119	-.272
	<i>p</i>	.056	.489	.114
	N	35	36	35
Opinion 8: Integrative (T3)	Rho	.310	-.045	-.469**
	<i>p</i>	.070	.796	.004
	N	35	36	35
Opinion 9: Integrative (T3)	Rho	.592**	.395*	-.119
	<i>p</i>	.000	.017	.495
	N	35	36	35
Opinion 10: Integrative (T3)	Rho	.494**	.280	-.185
	<i>p</i>	.003	.098	.287
	N	35	36	35
Opinion 11: Integrative (T3)	Rho	.201	.008	-.355*
	<i>p</i>	.246	.964	.036
	N	35	36	35
Opinion 13: Integrative (T3)	Rho	.375*	.392*	.062
	<i>p</i>	.029	.020	.728
	N	34	35	34
Motive 1: Integrative (T3)	Rho	.158	-.090	-.366*
	<i>p</i>	.364	.600	.031
	N	35	36	35
Motive 7: Integrative (T3)	Rho	.331	.175	-.239
	<i>p</i>	.052	.306	.166
	N	35	36	35
Motive 8: Integrative (T3)	Rho	.268	.145	-.194
	<i>p</i>	.120	.400	.263
	N	35	36	35

Table G- 4: Instrumental Motivation (Time 1) and Linguistic Gains Correlations

		1st Exam Score	2nd Exam Score	Score Difference
Opinion 7: Instrumental (T1)	Rho	.047	-.135	-.276*
	<i>p</i>	.697	.340	.048
	N	70	52	52
Opinion 12: Instrumental (T1)	Rho	.039	-.023	-.265
	<i>p</i>	.749	.872	.058
	N	70	52	52
Motive 2: Instrumental (T1)	Rho	.041	-.034	-.004
	<i>p</i>	.738	.810	.978
	N	70	52	52
Motive 3: Instrumental (T1)	Rho	-.128	-.293*	-.341*
	<i>p</i>	.289	.035	.013
	N	70	52	52
Motive 4: Instrumental (T1)	Rho	-.004	.134	-.061
	<i>p</i>	.971	.344	.667
	N	70	52	52
Motive 5: Instrumental (T1)	Rho	.001	.092	-.064
	<i>p</i>	.992	.514	.652
	N	70	52	52
Motive 6: Instrumental (T1)	Rho	.084	.162	.051
	<i>p</i>	.490	.251	.721
	N	70	52	52
Motive 10: Instrumental (T1)	Rho	.020	.023	-.200
	<i>p</i>	.867	.874	.156
	N	70	52	52
Motive 11: Instrumental (T1)	Rho	.046	-.025	-.243
	<i>p</i>	.703	.862	.083
	N	70	52	52

Table G- 5: Instrumental Motivation (Time 2) and Linguistic Gains Correlations

		1st Exam Score	2nd Exam Score	Score Difference
Opinion 7: Instrumental (T2)	Rho	.097	-.105	-.353*
	<i>p</i>	.430	.469	.012
	N	68	50	50
Opinion 12: Instrumental (T2)	Rho	.242*	-.079	-.612**
	<i>p</i>	.047	.584	.000
	N	68	50	50
Motive 2: Instrumental (T2)	Rho	.109	-.060	-.214
	<i>p</i>	.378	.674	.136
	N	68	51	50
Motive 3: Instrumental (T2)	Rho	.073	-.126	-.405**
	<i>p</i>	.553	.379	.004
	N	68	51	50
Motive 4: Instrumental (T2)	Rho	-.088	-.139	-.173
	<i>p</i>	.474	.332	.229
	N	68	51	50
Motive 5: Instrumental (T2)	Rho	-.001	.094	-.154
	<i>p</i>	.997	.511	.285
	N	68	51	50
Motive 6: Instrumental (T2)	Rho	-.132	-.040	-.021
	<i>p</i>	.283	.781	.883
	N	68	51	50
Motive 10: Instrumental (T2)	Rho	.083	-.166	-.490**
	<i>p</i>	.502	.245	.000
	N	68	51	50
Motive 11: Instrumental (T2)	Rho	.023	-.170	-.302*
	<i>p</i>	.855	.234	.033
	N	68	51	50

Table G- 6: Instrumental Motivation (Time 2) and Linguistic Gains Correlations

		1st Exam Score	2nd Exam Score	Score Difference
Opinion 7: Instrumental (T2)	Rho	.160	.022	-.281
	<i>p</i>	.359	.899	.102
	N	35	36	35
Opinion 12: Instrumental (T2)	Rho	.103	-.036	-.303
	<i>p</i>	.558	.834	.077
	N	35	36	35
Motive 2: Instrumental (T2)	Rho	.272	.144	-.158
	<i>p</i>	.115	.402	.364
	N	35	36	35
Motive 3: Instrumental (T2)	Rho	.123	-.109	-.343*
	<i>p</i>	.480	.527	.044
	N	35	36	35
Motive 4: Instrumental (T2)	Rho	.236	.104	-.147
	<i>p</i>	.172	.548	.400
	N	35	36	35
Motive 5: Instrumental (T2)	Rho	.119	.197	.104
	<i>p</i>	.497	.249	.554
	N	35	36	35
Motive 6: Instrumental (T2)	Rho	.114	.107	.047
	<i>p</i>	.513	.536	.790
	N	35	36	35
Motive 10: Instrumental (T2)	Rho	.157	.011	-.278
	<i>p</i>	.366	.948	.106
	N	35	36	35
Motive 11: Instrumental (T2)	Rho	.113	-.008	-.241
	<i>p</i>	.519	.961	.162
	N	35	36	35

Appendix H Language Contact Figures

Figure H- 1: Language Contact Scores 'At Home' (BCN and GRA)

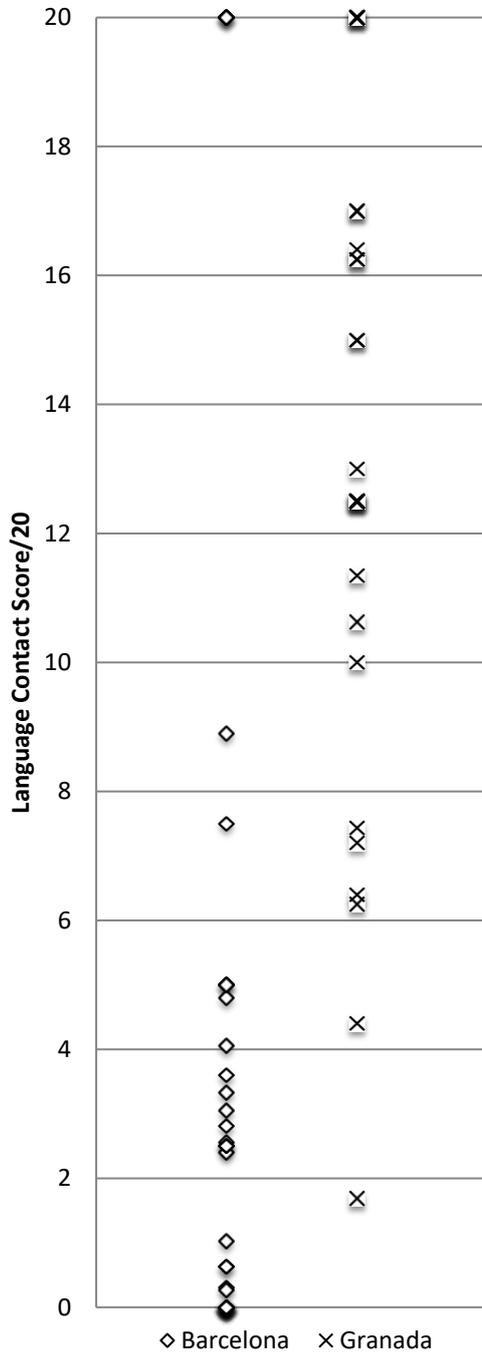


Figure H- 2: Language Contact Scores 'At School' (BCN and GRA)

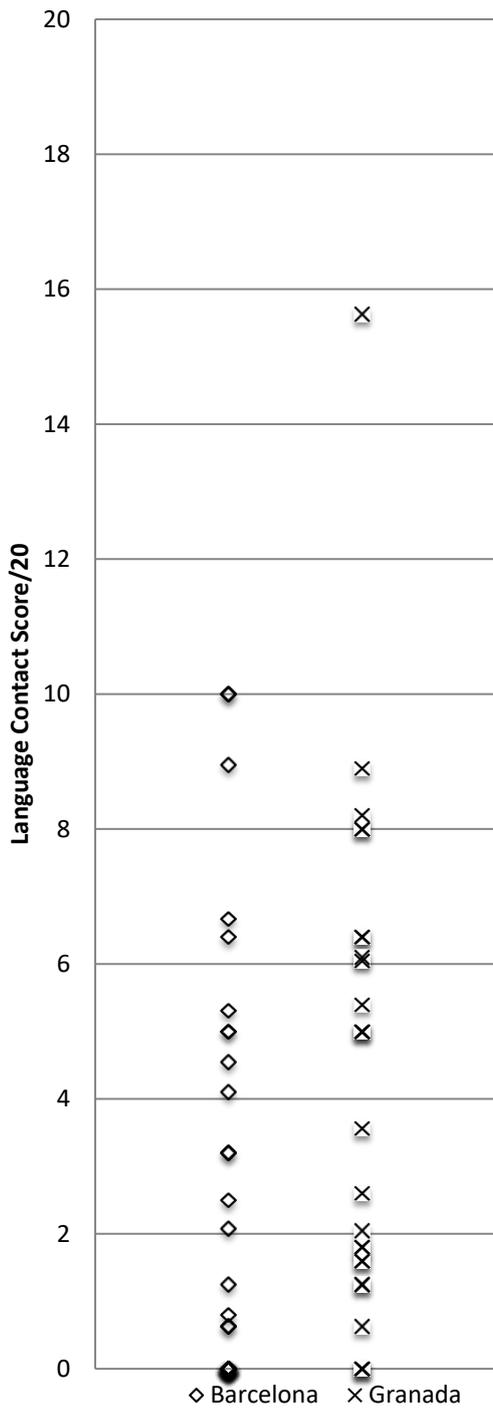


Figure H- 3: Language Contact Scores 'Free Time' (BCN and GRA)

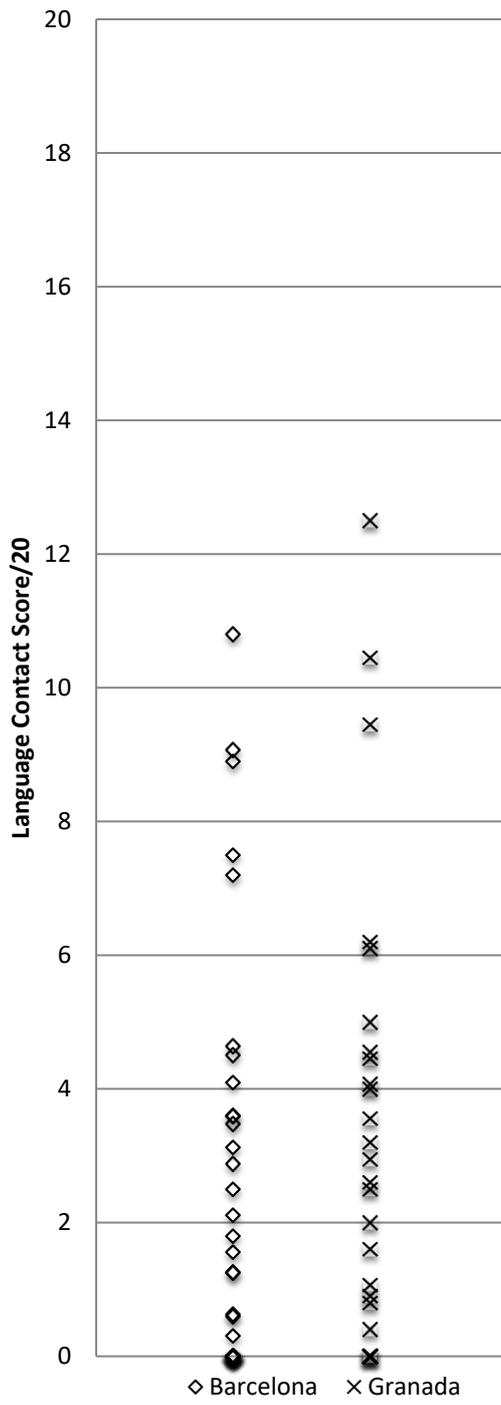
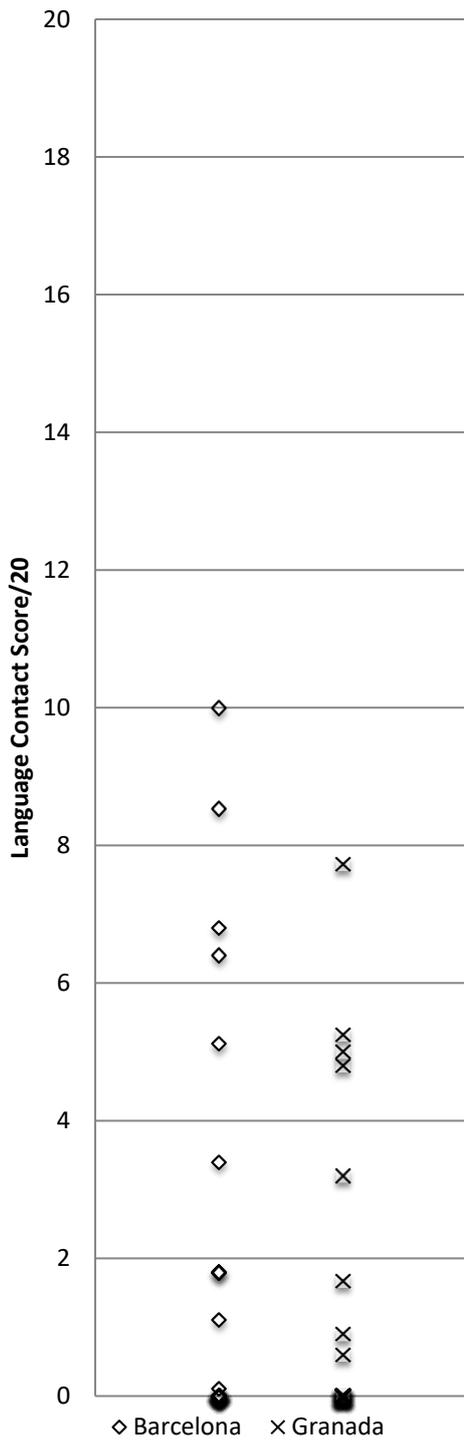


Figure H- 4: Language Contact Scores 'Virtual Interactions' (BCN and GRA)



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