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The Influence of Context on L2 Development: The Case of Turkish Undergraduates at Home and Abroad

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by

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DEDICATION

*To my dear husband **Ahmet** and daughter **Yaz,***
my heavenly *gifts*,

this dissertation is dedicated.

‘After all this time?’

‘Always…’

(Rowling, 2007, p. 552)

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ABSTRACT

In the field of second language acquisition (SLA), the study abroad context (SA) has gained attention as a site that offers the potential of significant second language (L2) development due to high amounts of input and interaction opportunities compared to at home foreign language (AH) and domestic immersion (IM) contexts (Pérez-Vidal, 2014). In previous research, the SA context has been a country where the L2 is the local language (e.g., English in the United Kingdom). However, with the increase of student mobility programs across Europe, such as ERASMUS, and the status of English as an International Language, another study abroad context is available, one where students can take English-medium classes and use English as a lingua franca in a country where English is not the local language (e.g., Germany, Poland, Spain). In the current study, this new context is operationalized as English as a lingua franca study abroad (ELFSA), the effects of which have received very little attention in SLA to date. By providing an alternative SA context through English medium of instruction on-campus, and English as an international language through off-campus interactions, this new context might bring further insights into the SA phenomenon. Motivated by this gap in the literature, the current longitudinal study aims to investigate the differentiated effects of the SA, ELFSA, and AH contexts on the linguistic development of Turkish undergraduates whose L2 is English. Given the multilingual nature of the ERASMUS context, this study also examines the contextual influences on participants' perceptions towards multilingualism from a *Perceived Positive*

Language Interaction (PPLI) perspective (Thompson, 2013). The participants of the study were 50 third year Turkish undergraduates, 33 of whom undertook a 16-week ERASMUS exchange semester in Spring 2016. Following a quasi-experimental mixed-methods pretest-posttest design, data were collected via a one-minute spoken and 15-minute written production test to determine linguistic complexity, accuracy, and fluency gains; an Elicited Oral Imitation Test (EIT, Ortega et al., 1999) to measure pre-departure proficiency; a monthly online Language Interaction Questionnaire to investigate the type and amount of language contact; and a dichotomous questionnaire to learn about participants' perceptions towards multilingualism within PPLI. For triangulation purposes, qualitative data were collected via several open-ended items in the questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. The results of the quantitative and qualitative analysis indicated that the SA and ELFSA contexts were beneficial for English development on most of the measures, yet the former had certain issues for the participants pertaining to the dominant variety and features of spoken English (e.g., weak forms, connected speech, speech rate). The ELFSA was reported to be more multilingual as compared to the SA, also paving the way for seeing further *Perceived Positive Language Interaction* (Thompson, 2013) among the additional languages that their participants knew. The major difference between the two was described to be the ELFSA participants' developing an ELF identity towards using English as an L2, as they tended to prioritize fluency over accuracy throughout their exchange semester. The results of the quantitative analysis indicated that the AH group had significantly more gains on written fluency than the two abroad groups. Also, time was found to be a significant factor for lexical development regardless of group differences. In terms of oral gains, main effects of time indicated that the participants as a whole group had significantly different means over time on speech rate and breakdown fluency, the inspection of which showed that the ELFSA had the

highest mean differences. As for oral accuracy and lexical complexity, an interaction effect between time and context group was found to approach significance, indicating that both sojourn groups had mean gains on the former, while only the ELFSA had higher mean scores in the posttest for the latter measure. Finally, the data from the semi-structured interviews provided a holistic picture of the interplay between context and development in English. The major finding of the study, thus, indicated that the SA may not be the sole provider for intense L2 input to improve English during a semester abroad; the ELFSA appeared to be equally as beneficial as the SA in terms of linguistic development with a bonus of creating a linguistic identity of an ELF speaker for language learners. The study also provided several empirical and pedagogical implications for those interested in the stay abroad and its influences on L2 development.

CHAPTER I:

INTRODUCTION

"All that is gold does not glitter,

Not all those who wander are lost"

J.R.R. Tolkien (1954, p. 167).

Background of the Study

Learning a second/foreign language has been argued to relate to multiple variables and the interplay among them (Sanz, 2005). These variables can be listed as learner-external (e.g., the quantity and quality of input, interaction, and output) and learner-internal factors (e.g., cognitive mechanisms, age, motivation). The intersections of these variables and their joint effect have been addressed in empirical studies exploring the dynamics of learning contexts and their impact on L2 development (Collentine, 2009). With this aim, three major contexts have been determined pertaining to differentiated social and functional terms: (1) at home foreign language contexts (AH), (2) domestic immersion programs (IM), and (3) study abroad (SA) (Llanes, 2011; Pérez-Vidal, 2014).

Of all the contexts, the SA has gained significance in terms of providing learners with better input and output opportunities (Collentine, 2009). Studies comparing the effectiveness of each context have underscored the advantages of the SA driving from the large amounts of authentic input and real life situations for learners to communicate in the target language (TL). Developmental issues, such as fluency, accuracy, and complexity have been addressed in light of

the characteristics of the linguistic environment (Llanes, 2011). Pragmatic competence and its advancement in various contexts have also been echoed in the literature (Pérez-Vidal, 2014). However, there has been a disputatious argument as to which aspects of the given context result in better learning outcomes (Pérez-Vidal, 2014). Therefore, the length and quality of the program, previously-set learning goals, the availability of pre-departure orientation sessions, and the type of accommodation have also been studied within the SA context (Llanes, 2011). Furthermore, these aspects have also been investigated in relation to their impact on learner-internal variables, such as cognitive processing abilities, language learning motivation, and personality changes.

The majority of the studies have focused on the differences between SA and AH contexts. Only a few studies have explored three different contexts as the SA, AH, and IM in a comparative fashion (Dewey, 2008; Freed, Segalowitz, & Dewey 2004). Another criticism is that context studies have concentrated more on the American sojourners' learning an additional language abroad. With the rising availability of student mobility programs over Europe such as ERASMUS, scholars have called for further research from the European perspective with participants whose mother tongue (L1) is a language other than English. Such programs have given rise to the formation of a new learning context abroad where the target language is not the official language of the host country (Pérez-Vidal, 2014). To exemplify, English has been documented to be the primary language of communication among ERASMUS sojourners in non-English contexts like the Czech Republic and Hungary (Cogo & Jenkins, 2010; Kalocsai, 2009). Considering the lingua franca status of English across Europe as well, this new context has situated a new learning environment for English as a foreign language (EFL) learners. Operationalized as the English as lingua franca study abroad (ELFSA) context in the current

study, such an environment has not yet been the focus of a comparative empirical study (comparing an Anglophone SA, a non-Anglophone lingua franca SA, and AH) from an SLA perspective, to the knowledge of the researcher.

Therefore, this study aimed to investigate the differentiated effects of the SA, ELFSA, and AH contexts on the linguistic development of the unexplored Turkish undergraduates majoring in English. In the introduction chapter, the statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, the research questions, the significance of the study, and the definition of terms will be delineated.

Statement of the Problem

SLA studies comparing the effects of different learning contexts have underscored differentiated results in L2 performance in light of several developmental issues, such as accuracy, fluency, and complexity of the interlanguage from interactional, cognitive, and sociocultural perspectives (Magnan & Lafford, 2011). Taking different input, interaction, and output conditions into account, SA studies have also entailed the inclusion of AH and IM contexts for comparative purposes. Therefore, program-specific features have also been addressed when exploring the effect of contextual differences in L2 development. The SA literature has also shed light on sociolinguistic and individual development of the learners by addressing issues such as pragmatic competence, personality change, motivational increases, and differentiated learner beliefs after the instructional period (see overviews by Llanes, 2011 and Pérez-Vidal, 2014).

The results from the SA literature have given rise to disputes depending on several factors. Firstly, considering L2 gains in grammar, reading, writing, listening comprehension, vocabulary, and pronunciation, controversial findings have been reported (Llanes, 2011). As for

oral development, most of the studies have favored the SA (e.g., Hernández, 2010); yet a couple of studies have indicated the advantages of domestic IM contexts (e.g., Segalowitz & Freed, 2004). Concerning writing, the AH context has been reported to be more beneficial (e.g., Llanes & Munõz, 2013), whilst a few studies have indicated the advantages of the SA or the IM context (e.g., Pérez-Vidal & Juan-Garau 2011). With regard to program-specific features, a few studies have favored lengthy programs, while short stays have also been found to be beneficial (e.g., Llanes & Muñoz, 2009; 2013). Such contentious results have underscored the need for further research in the given domain.

More importantly, the lack of empirical studies focusing also on the ELFSA context while comparing it with other contexts in terms of linguistic development has motivated the current study on grounds that the lingua franca status of English over Europe has been overlooked concerning learners' development after a SA period in a non-English (non-Anglophone) environment. To exemplify the importance of the context, the European Union reports that between 2012 and 2013, 234,684 inbound students from the participating countries took part in the European Community Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students (ERASMUS) exchange program in a country where the official language is not English (European Commission, 2013). Additionally, the dearth of studies comparing more than just the SA and AH learning contexts and the disputatious findings from those available have triggered an ongoing need to further study the effects of context on L2 gains with differentiated participants within a variety of settings (Llanes, 2011; Pérez-Vidal, 2014).

Addressing another criticism of the majority of SA studies taking an American perspective, studying the phenomenon at issue from a European perspective has been echoed in the literature (Pérez-Vidal, 2014). With the availability of exchange programs in Europe, such as

ERASMUS, there are now more opportunities for researchers to investigate different participant groups from a variety of L1 backgrounds. In accordance with the case of the participants of the current study, the Turkish National Agency (2011) reports that approximately 100,000 Turkish undergraduate and graduate students have participated in ERASMUS since 2004, the possible outcomes of which are still unknown from an empirical perspective. Constituting one of the learning contexts of the study, ERASMUS provides the ELFSA context for Turkish learners, which has only been investigated in terms of participants' general proficiency and written gains without comparing it with other SA or AH contexts (Llanes et al., 2016). To exemplify, Turkish National Agency (2011) reported that the first five most popular destinations for Turkish sojourners between 2010 and 2011 were non-English countries, such as Germany (1786 students), Poland (1511 students), Italy (954 students), Spain (727 students), and the Netherlands (544 students), where language of instruction in English is also possible, with a total of 5,552 inbound exchangers. It is doubtless that the inclusion of this new context into the comparison will bring further insights into SLA.

Exchange programs are significant not only due to the accessibility to large amount of linguistic input in an additional language, but also because of the availability of interaction opportunities with the target culture (Taguchi, 2008). Such mobility programs have been designed for students to further understand the dynamics of a foreign culture and hence increase mutual understanding and awareness. It has been reported that ERASMUS students have also sought for opportunities to gain first-hand experience of the target culture (Coleman, 1998). Additionally, seeing the fact that the European Union (EU) involves 28 member states without physical borders, mobility among EU citizens has given rise to a multicultural and multilingual environment. Such an atmosphere might influence ERASMUS exchange students' perspectives

towards multilingualism and their current and subsequent language learning experiences. In a similar vein, it is expected that these sojourners might experience a rather positive shift in their perceptions towards multilingualism and tend to see more positive interactions among the languages that they know. Several studies in the SA literature have touched upon sojourners' individual development and personality change (Tracy-Ventura, Dewaele, Köylü, & McManus 2016), yet their perceptions toward multilingualism have remained mostly unanswered.

Purpose of the Study

The present study aims to explore the characteristics and the influence of three learning contexts, namely SA, ELFSA, and AH, on Turkish undergraduates' linguistic development and perceptions towards multilingualism. Motivated by the gap in the literature, it is hoped that this study will bring insights into the unexplored case of the Turkish participants in terms of oral and written linguistic accuracy, fluency, complexity, and their perceptions towards multilingualism through a *Perceived Positive Language Interaction* (PPLI, Thompson, 2013) perspective. Given the multicultural and multilingual atmosphere that the ERASMUS program provides, initial and post-program perceptions of learners in general and sojourners in particular towards positive language interaction are also explored in that these perceptions might be of importance regarding the sustainability of the program and an increase in mutual benefits of host and home institutions from a globalized viewpoint towards education.

Research Questions

The current study addresses the following research questions:

1. How do the three learning contexts compare in terms of language use, types of activities and interlocutors, and *Perceived Positive Language Interaction* (PPLI, Thompson, 2013)

in light of the Language Interaction Questionnaire (LIQ) and the *Perceived Positive Language Interaction* Questionnaire (PPLIQ)?

2. To what extent does the learning context (SA, ELFSA, and AH) have an effect on oral and written performance of English as measured by fluency, accuracy, and syntactic and lexical complexity development over time?
3. What do some individual participants' self-reported experiences reveal about L2 development in the three learning contexts in relation to language use, interlocutor type, and perceptions towards multilingualism from a PPLI perspective?

The Significance of the Study

The current study fills a significant gap in the SA literature by comparing three learning contexts in regards to linguistic development and perceptions towards multilingualism from a PPLI perspective. The inclusion of the ELFSA context is anticipated to highlight a substantial amount of learners' development in an underexplored learning context in terms of language learning. In addition, by integrating both quantitative and qualitative research methods with multiple data sources, this study compromises an alternative approach to the analysis of linguistic competence. With the inclusion of the multilingualism scope, the present study aims to shed light on an unanswered question regarding the study abroad literature. By the same token, the participants under investigation have remained underexplored in the broad SLA literature in terms of the study abroad context. The findings of the study will provide deeper insights into the case of Turkish undergraduates learning English as a foreign language within the scope of a variety of contexts also addressing a learner-internal variable, perceptions towards multilingualism.

Definition of Terms

Sojourner – The term sojourner refers to students taking a semester abroad by participating in an official exchange program. In the current study, the term sojourner refers to Turkish undergraduate students majoring in English who take part in the ERASMUS program over an academic term (16 weeks).

ERASMUS – The European Community Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students was established in 1987. This program involves governmental grants that are made for institutions to organize student and staff mobility in the form of exchanges (Coleman, 1998). There are more than 33 countries involved in the program with more than 4000 higher institutions participating. In essence, a student enrolled in an undergraduate program in a member country takes a year abroad at a participating institution and continues his/her higher education in the host country for one or two academic semesters. The general tendency for Turkish students is to participate in the program in the third year of their undergraduate education. The two requirements of the exchange program for Turkish students are to have a GPA of 3.00 and an intermediate proficiency in the language of instruction of the exchange program.

Study Abroad Context (SA) – It is a foreign formal instruction context and an Anglophone country for undergraduate students where the official language is English. For Turkish ERASMUS students investigated in the current study, the SA context is England. It is not mandatory for Turkish undergraduates to participate in the ERASMUS program. It is based on volunteer attendance. Yet, it is an opportunity that many undergraduates benefit from at the third year of their bachelor education if they meet the required criteria for exchange, which are a GPA

of 3.00 and an intermediate language proficiency in the language of instruction of the host program.

English as Lingua Franca Study Abroad Context (ELFSA) – It is a foreign formal instruction context for undergraduate students where the official/native language of the country is a language other than English. For Turkish ERASMUS students in the study, the ELFSA context is Austria, Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Greece, Italy, Poland, Portugal, and the Netherlands. These countries have been determined in light of the mutual learning agreements between the home and host institutions. For instance, a Turkish undergraduate studying English Language Teaching at Middle East Technical University in Turkey can only attend the exchange program at Leuphana University Lüneburg, Germany depending on the mutual agreement between the two institutions. In general, only two students per program can attend the exchange program due to the limited funds given by the Turkish National Agency. In the case of more than two students meeting the criteria, the first two students with the best scores are offered the exchange semester. However, there are some universities sending and receiving more than two students per program in an academic year. Students still have the option to stay at home instead of taking the year abroad depending on personal reasons.

At Home Foreign Language Context (AH) – It is the domestic formal instruction context for undergraduate students where at least 30 percent of instruction is conducted in English. The official/native language of the AH context in this study is Turkish. AH students might be either not meeting the criteria for exchange or preferring to stay home due to personal reasons.

Complexity, Accuracy, Fluency Measures (CAF) – These measures have been regarded as the basic dimensions of second/additional language performance, proficiency, and development (Segalowitz, 2010). Following Tavakoli and Skehan (2005), oral fluency is broken down into

speed, breakdown, and repair fluency (also see Skehan, 2009). The speed fluency was determined via mean pruned speech rate (the total number of words excluding words used in disfluent production divided by total production time in seconds, W/T). The breakdown fluency was determined as the total duration of silent and filled pauses longer than .250 milliseconds divided by the total time expressed in seconds (P/T) per participant. The repair fluency was determined via the total number of disfluencies as determined by the number of repetitions, retraces, and reformulations divided by total time expressed in seconds and multiplied by 60 (D/T). As for written fluency, words per minute (W/M) were determined. As for lexical complexity for oral and written production, D measure (MacWhinney, 2000) was calculated. In regards to syntactic complexity, clauses per T-unit (CL/TU) and clauses per AS-unit (CL/AS) were analyzed. Finally, error per T-unit (ERR/TU) and error per AS-unit (ERR/AS) were determined for written and oral accuracy.

L1 – Native language of the participants. In this study, the L1 is Turkish.

L2 – Second/additional languages. In this study, the L2 is English.

EIT – Elicited Imitation Task (Ortega et al., 1999)

LIQ – Language Interaction Questionnaire

PPLIQ – Perceived Positive Language Interaction Questionnaire (Thompson, 2013)

PPLI – Perceived Positive Language Interaction (Thompson, 2013; 2016). A term operationalized by Thompson (2013; 2016) with reference to Kellerman's *Perceived Language Distance* (1987) in a way to account for the link between learners' previous language experiences influencing his/her perceptions towards multilingualism and perceived distance among the foreign languages that he/she knows.

Multilingualism – In this dissertation, multilingualism refers to the relative knowledge of two or more languages by an individual speaker without the need for a higher competence in one another.

CHAPTER II:

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

In this chapter, first SLA literature on SA is presented with its current findings, theoretical backgrounds, and areas in need of further research. Next, the notion of context is discussed in light of the empirical findings of the related literature. The phenomenon English as lingua franca (ELF) is also reviewed, in addition to multilingualism and issues as to the *Perceived Positive Language Interaction* (PPLI) (Thompson, 2013; 2016). Finally, the research gaps in the literature motivating the present study as well as its significance are clarified in light of the abovementioned discussion.

Language Learning during Study Abroad

SA has gained much attention in second language acquisition research in particular due to the assumption that it should provide rich authentic exposure to the TL in an immersion setting (Magnan & Lafford, 2011). The high amounts of input, interaction, and output opportunities are believed to facilitate L2 development, in large part due to the idea that sojourners would have many opportunities to interact with native speakers, thus getting more exposure to authentic input in naturalistic settings while at the same time experiencing the target culture firsthand (Magnan & Lafford, 2011). Therefore, a great deal of SLA research has focused on tracking the development of language learning as a result of SA and also attempting to link L2 gains to social, individual, and contextual factors (Magnan & Lafford, 2011; Llanes, 2011).

Of the studies which have focused on exploring the effect of study abroad on linguistic gains, the major linguistic variables under investigation have included measures of fluency, complexity, and accuracy (CAF, henceforth) in both oral and written language, and with a variety of participant groups, such as children, teenagers, and adults (Llanes, 2011; Pérez-Vidal, 2014). CAF is used as a conceptual triad to measure development in the L2 (Housen & Kuiken, 2009). The multi-componential nature of L2 performance and proficiency has been evaluated through different measures of oral and written complexity, accuracy, syntactic and lexical complexity, and fluency (Housen & Kuiken, 2009; Skehan, 1998). Complexity is defined as "the extent to which language produced in performing a task is elaborate and varied (Ellis, 2003, p. 340). This might be related to either the syntactic complexity of the structure and formation of language or lexical complexity, the richness and complexity of the vocabulary used. Complexity is related to "elaborated language" (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005, p. 139) which has been the most difficult dimension of language to be determined (Vercellotti, 2012). It can be best regarded as "language that is the upper limit" of a learner's interlanguage which still needs internalization and automatization (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005, p. 139). Complexity has also been related to "more challenging language" and "wider repertoire of structures" which requires the "restructuring of learners interlanguage" (Skehan & Foster, 1997, p. 191; Vercellotti, 2012). Complexity measures include those for syntactic sophistication (e.g., verbs, finite and non-finite clauses - subordination) and lexical variety and richness (e.g., type token ratio, D measure) (Vercellotti, 2012).

Accuracy is defined in terms of the amount of errors in production (Skehan, 2009). Linked to error-free production, accuracy has been measured by the total number of errors produced or by calculating error-free runs or units (Vercellotti, 2012).

Fluency is determined by the time it takes to deliver speech at a normal rate and without interruption (Skehan, 2009). Delivering speech (or written production at a higher speed with the use of more words) at a faster pace by producing more words is considered to show development in oral fluency, for example (Vercellotti, 2012). Oral fluency also includes temporal and hesitation phenomena: (1) speech rate, (2) breakdown fluency (the number/length of silent or filled pauses), and (3) repair fluency (false starts, repetitions, retraces, and reformulations) (Tavakoli & Skehan, 2005).

In terms of its benefits, CAF focuses on a variety of dimensions in linguistic production. In light of its dynamic and non-collinear nature, assessing L2 development through repeated measures over time is discussed to bring the most accurate results (Norris & Ortega, 2009). Given the cognitive mechanisms at work for some of the traits of L2 progress, such as written syntactic complexity (Ortega, 2003), collecting and analyzing L2 performance data from several data points over time are of importance in terms of the reliability of the results showing CAF growth (Norris & Ortega, 2009; Vercellotti, 2012). Drawing on CAF as a framework to measure development, the current study follows the SA literature within a longitudinal design.

Previous SA research has overwhelmingly focused on the development of oral skills through CAF due to the belief that sojourners benefit from the SA mostly in terms of spoken gains (Llanes, 2011). Results of these studies demonstrate that SA students are significantly more fluent at the end of their stay abroad but not necessarily more accurate or complex in their spoken language (Freed, Segalowitz, & Dewey, 2004; Llanes & Muñoz, 2009; 2013; O'Brien et al., 2007; Segalowitz and Freed, 2004). To exemplify, Juan-Garau and Pérez-Vidal (2007) investigated Spanish/Catalan bilingual learners of L2 English in terms of oral gains in SA and found that learners improved significantly on oral fluency but not on accuracy or complexity

(Juan-Garau & Pérez-Vidal, 2007). Mora and Valls-Ferrer (2012) also investigated Spanish L1 English L2 learners' oral gains through CAF, reporting that a short stay abroad of three months is also influential on significant gains of fluency. Similarly, Serrano, Llanes, and Tragant (2016) investigated the influence of SA on Spanish/Catalan bilingual L2 English secondary school learners' development in oral CAF through a picture narration task. The results indicated that only in terms of oral lexical richness measured by Giraud's index the SA participants had significant gains after a three-week intensive course in the UK. Yet, no significant differences were found considering fluency, syntactic complexity, lexical and morphosyntactic accuracy.

Despite the general trend showing gains in oral skills as a result of study abroad, a few exceptions exist. For example, Tanaka (2007) investigated 29 Japanese L1 English L2 learners' oral development in English in light of the amount of contact in both languages through open-ended questionnaire items, semi-structured interviews, and sojourner diaries. The qualitative data indicated that the L2 learners, the majority of whom stayed with families, did not benefit from the SA in terms of oral gains because of having too frequent L1 contact and low threshold proficiencies preventing them to get more L2 contact through interactive (talks) and non-interactive (watching TV) activities.

Much less SA research has focused on writing, and the findings tend to be inconsistent (Llanes, 2011). To exemplify, Pérez-Vidal and Juan-Garau (2011) investigated the longitudinal effects of SA on Spanish/Catalan EFL learners' written development in the L2 over a period of three years with four different data collection points (four test times). The results of the study confirmed the benefits of SA on written development in terms of written fluency (words per minute) between the first two test times (T2-T1), syntactic and lexical complexity between the first two test times (T2-T1) and the third and the second (T3-T2). The researchers concluded that

because the participants had extensive amounts of oral practice in the SA, they were able to transfer eventual oral gains into writing over time (Pérez-Vidal & Juan-Garau, 2011). In a longitudinal study, Sasaki (2004; 2007; 2009) reported that the SA helped sojourners develop their written skills significantly. In her longitudinal study (2011), Sasaki explored the effects of different lengths of SA programs on Japanese L2 English L2 learners' written development as measured by their composition scores over three and a half years of SA. The results indicated that the sojourners who spent longer than four months in an Anglophone SA setting developed their global written performance in English. In contrast, Llanes and Muñoz (2013) could not find any significant gains for their SA group in terms of written development as they concluded that their participants might not have exposed to sufficient written input in their SA context.

To conclude, a number of studies within the study abroad literature have investigated L2 development using the CAF framework and in general the results support strong gains only in oral fluency (Llanes and Muñoz, 2009; 2013; Mora & Valls-Ferrer, 2012; Segalowitz & Freed, 2004). In terms of oral syntactic and lexical complexity, longer SA period was thought to be essential for measurable gains (Llanes, 2011; Wang, 2010). In terms of written development, the results are more complex, as some studies found development in fluency (Sasaki, 2004; 2007; 2009), some could only find significant gains in lexical richness and complexity (Pérez-Vidal and Juan-Garau, 2011), or no development at all (Llanes and Muñoz, 2013). In light of the disputatious findings regarding oral and written gains from SA studies, the results of the influence of SA on linguistic gains have been thus diverse, underlining the ongoing need for further research.

The Effect of Language Contact on Linguistic Gains during SA

To account for L2 gains made as a result of SA, a large number of studies have focused on the effect of language contact through the use of quantitative and qualitative methods. For example, to measure L2 contact instruments used include questionnaires, introspective sojourn journals, and online logs within the scope of case studies, as well as ethnographic and mixed method methodologies (Collentine, 2004; Kinginger, 2011; Llanes, 2011). The most frequently used instrument to measure L2 contact has been the Language Contact Profile (Freed et al., 2004), which was designed to measure the amount of L2 exposure and use in a given context. Participants respond to items in this instrument in a way to clarify how frequently and for which activity they use or are exposed to the L2 during the treatment period. This seminal instrument has been modified by several researchers or inspired other types of questionnaires to investigate different target languages and learning contexts (Dewey, 2004; Dewey, Bown, & Eggett, 2012; McManus, Mitchell, & Tracy-Ventura, 2014).

In an attempt to relate language gains to the amount of L2 use, LCP studies have yielded varied results in terms of the widely-accepted assumption that the more contact one has in the L2 the greater will be the development of his/her speaking performance (Di Silvio, Donovan, & Malone, 2015). Yager (1998) investigated the relationship between the amount of L2 contact through LCP and L2 speaking gains after 10 weeks of summer sessions of Spanish L2 learners. The results of the correlation analysis indicated that there was a significant positive correlation between the two constructs. Similarly, Freed, Segalowitz, and Dewey (2004) explored L2 French learners' oral development in terms of fluency and amount of L2 contact. The results of the multiple regression analyses pointed out that reported hours per week spent on L2 writing out of class as measured by LCP was significantly related to oral fluidity gains. Taguchi (2008)

investigated Japanese learners' English gains in comprehension speed and accuracy of L2 pragmatics over time, the amount of L2 contact as measured by LCP, and cognitive processing abilities of the participants. A significant correlation was found between the amount of reading and speaking in the TL and gains in comprehension speed. Results of Hernández (2010a) also demonstrated that the total amount of L2 contact was a significant factor in Spanish L2 learners' gains in SOPI (Spanish Oral Proficiency Interview) after a semester abroad. In the same vein, Dewey, Bown, and Eggett (2012) conducted a study with 204 learners of Japanese as L2 in a SA context in terms of self-perceived speaking proficiency, social network development, language contact as measured by LCP, and speaking development. The results of the regression analysis showed that time spent speaking English (the L1 of the participants) and self-reported pre-departure proficiency were negative predictors of oral gains in the L2, while 44.6% of the variance in speaking gains were predicted by the time spent speaking Japanese. In a similar study, Dewey, Belnap, and Hilstrom (2013) found out that oral gains in L2 Arabic in the SA context after a semester can also be predicted by the time spent speaking Arabic with people who are not acquaintances in the SA social circle of the participants, as well as English-language proficiency of Arab friends and intensity of friendship in the host community.

In contrast to the studies just reported, no correlation was found between oral performance gains and total amount of L2 contact as reported in the LCP of SA and AH learners of Spanish reported in Segalowitz and Freed (2004). Likewise, Mendelson (2004a; 2004b) concluded that no correlation could be found between Spanish learners' OPI (Oral Proficiency Interview) gains and total, interactive, or non-interactive L2 contact hours as reported in LCP. Magnan and Back (2007) also reported that the only type of contact to have significantly negatively correlated with French L2 learners' OPI gains was the amount of time spent speaking

English with American classmates in France. Martinsen (2008), analogously, reported that the amount of TL interaction as determined by LCP could not predict oral skill gains after a six-week L2 Spanish program in Argentina.

Qualitative and mixed methods studies also investigated the contribution of the amount and type of L2 contact in reference to linguistic gains. As described by Kinginger (2011), the nature of interaction and sojourners' social networks were also put under the microscope through these qualitative or mixed methodologies. Additionally, Isabelli-García (2006) indicated a positive relationship between oral proficiency gains and engaging with the local community in Argentina as the SA context of three out of four L2 Spanish learner participants. Similarly, Kinginger (2008) investigated the case of six learners of French as L2 through a semester of SA in France. She concluded that individual differences in language development could be related to L2 contact with the host community as well as the sojourner's attitudes towards the target community.

One potential reason why research focusing on language learning during study abroad has concentrated on the effect of language contact is because input and interaction are key constructs in several theories of SLA. Two particular theories have been the most influential in the SA research: the Interaction Hypothesis IH (Long, 1980; 1981; 1996) and SAT (DeKeyser, 1997, both of which are described next.

The Interaction Hypothesis

Of many theories in SLA to illuminate the influence of context-related and learner-related factors on L2 learning, the Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1980; 1981; 1996) was put forward in an effort to explain the nature of language acquisition depending mostly on input, which feeds the learning process (Sanz, 2005). The IH suggests that L2 development is facilitated through

learners' interaction with other speakers (Mackey & Abbuhl, 2005). In other words, apart from being a medium of practice, conversational exchange, more specifically the interaction for negotiation of meaning between a learner and her interlocutor, is also the means by which learning occurs (Gass, 2003). As for the scope of the IH, Long (1996) states that "negotiation work that triggers interactional adjustments by the native speaker or more competent interlocutor facilitates acquisition because it connects input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways" (p. 452). Therefore, the major constructs of the IH can be listed as input, feedback, and learner internal factors, such as attention and noticing, and output (Gass, 2003; Mackey & Abbuhl, 2005).

Long (1996) agreed on the importance of comprehensible input and how it facilitates learning in the L2. Yet, he altered the focus towards the role of interaction and how "the structure of the interaction itself could be modified to make input more comprehensible for learners" (Mackey & Abbuhl, 2005, p. 208). These interactional modifications take place when two interlocutors work to resolve a communication difficulty in order to fully understand the message (Ortega, 2009). Thus, it is the conversational modifications (interactional adjustments during negotiation of meaning) that promote comprehensible input, and eventually, L2 acquisition (Long, 1996; Mackey, Abbuhl, & Gass, 2013).

Being the core element of the IH with regard to input, negotiation of meaning can be defined as "the efforts learners and their interlocutors make in order to modify or restructure interaction in order to avoid or overcome difficulties in input comprehensibility" (Mackey & Abbuhl, 2005, p. 208). The result is the formation of modified input (foreigner talk in early literature), which is considered to be what facilitates comprehension (Gass & Mackey, 2007). Apart from being simplified, modified input can also contain elaborations, which provide a great

amount of semantic detail for the learner. By the same token, particular discourse strategies, such as comprehension and confirmation checks (e.g., "Do you understand?") and clarification requests (e.g., "What do you mean?") are also included in the process of negotiation of meaning, all of which ultimately help learners receive "input that is more comprehensible and uniquely situated to their particular developmental needs" (Pica, 1994, as cited in Mackey & Abbuhl, 2005, p. 208).

The IH also highlights the significance of interactional work caused by some sort of communication breakdown between the learner and interlocutor as it leads the way to negotiation of meaning between the interactants (Mackey, Abbuhl, & Gass, 2013). Here, the idea of corrective feedback (CF) comes into play as it involves all the fundamental factors proposed by Long. "Feedback refers to the information that learners receive -either explicitly or implicitly- in response to their communicative efforts" (Mackey & Abbuhl, 2005, p. 210). Depending on developmental issues through interaction, CF can be defined as "any indication to the learners that their use of language is incorrect" (Lightbown & Spada, 1999, p. 171). It is no doubt that this reciprocal process facilitates language learning while it triggers the interlocutor to modify her input in such a comprehensible way that the learner notices a gap in her output, gives some reaction, and ideally modifies/repairs it, which is also referred to as learner uptake (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Ortega, 2009).

While modified input, such as those provided through negotiation of meaning, has been considered to be the fuel for learning, attention is considered to be a mechanism mediating input and learning (Gass & Mackey, 2007). Schmidt (1990) proposed in his Noticing Hypothesis that "subliminal language learning is impossible, and noticing is the necessary and sufficient condition for converting input to intake" (p. 129). Noticing Hypothesis puts forward that only

consciously noticed input characteristics can become intake, followed by learners' acquiring the target structure (Mackey, Abbuhl, & Gass, 2013; Schmidt, 2010). If learners are exposed to more input than they can process, some sort of mechanism is required to probe the input they receive (Gass & Mackey, 2007, p. 186). Attention and attentional devices are the parts of this mechanism that help learners focus on some portion of the input they receive (Gass & Mackey, 2007). To put it differently, the more frequent and meaningful the input is, the better the learner notices the targeted aspects of language. To internalize a linguistic form, learners should pay attention and be aware of the linguistic input they are exposed to (Schmidt, 2001). Therefore, learning, attention, and awareness cannot be dissociated.

Output refers to the language that the learner produces. Long (1996) included the notion of modified output as a major construct of the IH regarding the fact that interlocutors may modify their output in response to a signal of noncomprehension; in other words, after receiving corrective feedback. It has been argued in the literature that modified output leads to positive developmental effects (Mackey, 2007). Having its roots in Swain's Output Hypothesis (1995), learners might be pushed to produce more accurate and comprehensible forms upon receiving feedback from an interlocutor. It has long been claimed that "output promotes fluency and automatization, draws learners' attention to their linguistic problems in the L2, encourages the processing of the L2 syntactically rather than simply for meaning, and helps learners test hypotheses about the structure of the target language" (Swain, 1995, p.128). The importance of interactional practice and salience of form also highlights the significance of modified output in L2 learning. Additionally, modified output helps learners notice a gap between what they want to say and what they can say via the capacities of their interlanguage, which may result in their paying closer attention to input within interactional contexts (Gass & Mackey, 2007).

Although a great deal of research within the SA literature discusses the importance of the IH in accounting for linguistic development, to my knowledge no study has directly tested the IH using data collected naturalistically during SA. Therefore, it is unknown how often negotiation of meaning actually occurs in interactions between L2 learners and native speakers during SA, as well as whether learners are given feedback and show evidence of learning as a result of it. Instead, researchers have discussed the IH to highlight the influence of learning contexts which differentiate in respect to the quantity and quality of L2 input, amount of interaction in the L2 (and with native speakers), and the opportunities they provide for learner's output. To exemplify, Serrano, Llanes, and Tragant (2011) accounted for the results in favor of the SA context as compared to the AH, drawing on the tenets of the IH and highlighted that extensive oral practice in interactionally rich stay abroad contexts might even prove to be effective on written gains. Likewise, Llanes (2012) found that her SA participants had significantly more gains on oral fluency and lexical complexity, and written syntactic complexity and accuracy, which she accounted for through the IH in that it posits "language learners need to be active learners when receiving language input and that only listening to new language structures will not lead to successful language learning" (p. 186). Hence, her SA participants interacted in the L2 more often and more meaningfully, resulting in higher gains of significance. Serrano, Tragant, and Llanes (2012) also referred to the increased opportunities for meaningful interaction with native speakers in an Anglophone context as the reason why 14 Spanish L1 learners of English had gains in oral and written CAF after a year in the SA. In a similar vein, Llanes and Muñoz (2013) addressed both the IH and Output Hypothesis (Swain, 2000) as their background theories to justify their findings in favor of oral fluency gains after a short SA in an Anglophone country due to its contextual affordances of rich exposure to English as an L2.

In sum, although none of the SA studies, to the knowledge of the researcher, has directly tested the IH through the examination of naturalistic data, several researchers have referred to the IH to help explain their findings. In addition to interaction-related justifications, learner related factors affecting L2 progress, such as different cognitive processing abilities have also resonated in the SA literature in an attempt to corroborate empirical findings theoretically. Hence, the SAT by DeKeyser (2007) is presented next.

Skill Acquisition Theory

Another theory which is used to account for linguistic gains made during SA is Skill Acquisition Theory (SAT) (Anderson, 1983; 2005; DeKeyser, 2007c, Lyster & Sato, 2013) which "accounts for how people progress in learning a variety of skills, from initial learning to advanced proficiencies" (DeKeyser, 2007c, p. 97). Having its roots in Anderson's Adaptive Control of Thought Theory (1983), SAT proposes that learning is a gradual process from controlled performance to a more automatized use of the L2 through practice and feedback in meaningful learning contexts (DeKeyser, 2007c; Lyster & Sato, 2013; Ortega, 2009). Scholars have conjectured that this alteration, or transformation of knowledge, occurs in three stages of development: namely, the declarative, procedural, and automatic stages (DeKeyser, 2007a). Therefore, the basic tenets of SAT entail the processes of proceduralization and automatization.

Proceduralization can be defined as "the encoding, rehearsing, and retrieving of temporarily sequenced information" (Sumner, 2011, p. 417). To put it differently, Lyster and Sato (2013) defined the process of proceduralization as the transformation of declarative knowledge; in other words, "the explicit mental representations of language items including word definitions or grammar rules into the [procedural] knowledge about how to perform cognitive operations, such as producing language with less or no effort by accessing items stored

in long-term memory" (p. 72). The key factor in this process is the amount of meaningful practice over many trials inasmuch as "the more this knowledge is practiced, the easier it is to access it without effort" (Ortega, 2009, p. 85).

Therefore, the skill acquisition process is not complete without the automatization of the procedural knowledge. Automaticity entails implicit learning or processes when learners begin to draw on procedural knowledge and reflect this knowledge in fluent comprehension and production so that the behavior becomes second nature (Ortega, 2009; Segalowitz, 2003, Taie, 2014). Meaningful practice helps both the proceduralization and later automatization of knowledge; yet, practice must be skill related (Ellis, 2008). To exemplify, oral development in the L2 entails communicative practice, but this type of practice cannot assist the automatization of listening comprehension, for example. Additionally, Johnson (1996) underscores the importance of mistake correction through corrective feedback in the learning process to prevent the automatization of erroneous linguistic behavior.

To measure automatization of L2 performance, several cognitive variables such as lexical processing speed, efficiency of lexical access, and speed and efficiency of attention control have been used (Segalowitz, 2003). In SLA literature, processing speed has been plotted by reaction time, whereas efficiency has been indexed by the coefficient of variation of the reaction time, which is "the standard deviation of an individual's reaction time divided by that person's mean reaction time" (Segalowitz & Freed, 2004, p. 2004). These cognitive variables construct the nature of psychometric instruments in empirical studies which investigate differences in L2 performance.

Another major construct of SAT is the power law[1] of learning (DeKeyser, 2007c), which identifies the type and scope of psychometric instruments utilized in this stream of SLA research. DeKeyser (2007c) posits that meaningful practice decreases both reaction times and error rate regarding a skill. Practice, here, acts as a power function, qualitatively and quantitatively altering the performance (DeKeyser, 2007c; Segalowitz, 2003). Therefore, the decrease in error rate, or increase in accuracy, reflects the qualitative change, whereas the decreased reaction time, or more fluent production, indicates the quantitative change. Fluency "requires learners to draw on their memory-based system, accessing and deploying ready made chunks of language and, when problems arise, using communication strategies to get by" (Ellis, 2008, p. 490). However, accuracy and complexity entail learners' rule-based system and syntactic processing abilities. In contrast to accuracy, which encompasses learners' "attempt to control existing resources and to avoid errors", complexity relates to the restructuring of linguistic resources and formulations (Ellis, 2008, p. 490). Therefore, skill performance through automatization is linked to all three constructs: fluency, accuracy, and complexity, considering the idea that if learners only focus on accuracy, either complexity of fluency or both will be problematic. In light of SAT, automatization is based on multiple resources of information processing to explain L2 development. Thus, empirical studies look for evidence in learners' linguistic production to identify qualitative and quantitative changes in "reaction times, error rates, and differences in performance from one condition to another, such as interference from a secondary task" (DeKeyser, 2007c, p. 100).

[1] "In statistics, a power law is a functional relationship between two quantities, where a relative change in one quantity results in a proportional relative change in the other quantity, independent of the initial size of those quantities: one quantity varies as a power of another (Yaneer, Bar-Yam. (2016, June 26). Concepts: Power law. New England Complex Systems Institute. Retrieved fromhttp://www.necsi.edu/guide/concepts/powerlaw.html)."

It should be noted that there are only few empirical studies in SLA which use SAT as a theoretical framework (DeKeyser, 2007c; Ortega, 2009). The reason why research from an SAT perspective is rare is that this type of research requires a methodology that includes large amounts of data from a large number of participants within longitudinal designs (DeKeyser, 2007b). The seminal work in SLA with an SAT framework is the one by DeKeyser (1997), who designed a study to test the hypotheses proposed by SAT. DeKeyser (1997) investigated whether the learning of the grammar of a second language would show a developmental pattern as predicted by SAT.

As Nation and Newton (2009) suggested, language learning and L2 development might differ from each other although language instruction provides the input, practice, and feedback requirements depending on the amount of contact learners have in the L2. In other words, the amount of language contact might differ for each instructed learner. To exemplify, a learner with increased opportunities of meaningful contact out of the classroom may enhance his/her skills in the L2 more than those who are limited to the classroom environment. However, without the acquisition of declarative knowledge through explicit instruction, or the declarative threshold to proceduralize, practice solely cannot account for every aspect of L2 learning and might be insufficient to learn an additional language to its fullest extent (DeKeyser, 2010a).

In terms of SA studies with an SAT background, Llanes and Muñoz (2013) accounted for the reason why the SA participants had more gains in terms of oral and written fluency with the principles of SAT. They claimed that increased opportunities of L2 contact and meaningful practice led to more proceduralization of declarative knowledge and automatization as tested through measures of oral and written fluency (SPM - Pruned Syllables per Minute and Words per T-unit). Therefore, proceduralized knowledge resulted in increased fluency as the SA

participants took less time to complete the oral task and produced a larger number of words in the written task than AH participants. Similarly, Mora and Valls-Ferrer (2012) explained the oral fluency increase in the SA group with the principle that the greater amount of L2 input measured through a modified LCP helped learners proceduralize their initial declarative knowledge they gained through formal instruction before the SA period as the researchers drew on previous research by Towell et al. (1996, as cited in Mora & Valls-Ferrer, 2012) in terms of measures for proceduralization. They concluded that "fluency development may have been caused by greater proceduralization" depending on the contextual conditions of the SA in terms of SAT (Mora & Valls-Ferrer, 2012, p. 630). Likewise, Pérez-Vidal and Juan-Garau (2011) concluded that the increased amount of meaningful interaction as measured by a modified version of LCP and exposure to the target language (TL) might have led students to proceduralize and later automatize their declarative knowledge acquired during the first year of at home formal instruction, which was tested through measures of fluency (speech rate as determined by Words per Clause W/C and Words per Minute). Also in relation to SAT, DeKeyser (2007b) indicated that sojourners should have some declarative knowledge, in other words, a certain level of proficiency before the SA experience. Referred to as the Threshold Hypothesis (Collentine, 2009; DeKeyser, 2007b; Kinginger, 2009), this initial declarative knowledge is essential for proceduralization in the SA context. Yet, the threshold effect is challenged by empirical research (Llanes & Muñoz, 2009; Llanes, 2011). Nevertheless, there is an ongoing need to conduct further research to shed more light on this controversy.

Pérez-Vidal (2014) underscored that not all SA programs meet the requirements for L2 development according to SAT. Two program features are critical in terms of fluency gains. The first is learners' having a threshold-level declarative knowledge, which equates to an

intermediate proficiency level to progress towards automaticity (DeKeyser, 2007a). Secondly, learners might be given a pre-departure preparation program to help them enhance real practice opportunities in the target environment paving the way for automatization.

To conclude, interactionist and cognitive approaches differ in relation to prioritizing principles with regard to L2 development. The former draws more on the nature of interaction and related issues of input, attention, and output, whereas the latter encompasses the role of cognitive mechanisms with relation to the importance of practice solely without a major emphasis on additional effects of interaction, such as modified input, negotiation for meaning, and modified output. SA research has referred to these two theories as their background when explaining empirical results. These theories underscore the importance of the learning environment and what it can offer in terms of contextual and individual related factors leading to L2 development. Hence, the role of context is discussed next.

The Role of Context in Language Learning

Learning contexts have long been examined in relation to input-oriented, output-oriented, cognitive, interactional, and task-based instructional variables (Collentine & Freed, 2004). Therefore, drawing on the theoretical backgrounds of the mainstream SA research, Long (1997) himself emphasized the fact that context-sensitive SLA research might provide a more complete picture to explain acquisition processes in light of these variables depending on the presumption that "developmental differences have been predicted to occur as a function of the context of learning even by those focusing on the development of cognitive accounts of SLA" (Collentine & Freed, 2004, p. 155). Therefore, the addition of the learning context as a variable into the equation may function as a catalyst to elucidate the dynamic relationship among the other

context-related and individual-related variables accounting for linguistic development during study abroad.

Context, or the linguistic environment, is unequivocally a significant factor to highlight the interactional aspects of SLA with regard to its impact on "the nature and the extent to which learners acquire an L2" (Freed, 2009, p. 218). From an interactional perspective, as interpreted in the SA research tradition, learning contexts are thought to differ in respect to the quantity and quality of L2 input, amount of interaction in the L2 (and with native speakers) and the opportunities they provide for learner's output (Serrano, Llanes, & Tragant, 2011). Accordingly, SLA research into study abroad has primarily focused on three learning contexts differing in social and functional terms (Freed, 2009). The foreign language classroom context (at home, AH) refers to a domestic formal instruction setting, where learners are instructed the L2 mainly for academic purposes (Freed, 2009). The intensive domestic immersion context (IM) is a setting where learners use the L2 for the majority of their academic subjects apart from languages, which results in an increase in functional purposes of the L2 (Freed, 2009). In the domestic immersion setting, there is also the content-based language integrated learning (CLIL) environment, for which both an L2 and content in the L2 are taught. Therefore, the target language becomes the language of instruction providing an opportunity for learners to use their new language skill presently rather than using them later (Breidbach, 2013). Developed upon the principles of language immersion, CLIL is a widespread methodology for European education system. The commission of the European Communities Promoting Language Learning and Diversity Plan (2004-2006) emphasized the importance of CLIL. Although CLIL is a widespread methodology in European countries such as Sweden and the Netherlands, it is only limited to the nationals of the country, limiting the participation of foreign exchange students at primary and

secondary school levels (CLIL Report, 2004; Björkenheim et al., 2015). Finally, the study abroad (SA) context refers both to the naturalistic environment as well as a formal instruction context of the L2 where the target language has a social and functional status as being the native tongue of its speakers and the language of instruction (Freed, 2009). In other words, it is the context "in which the instructed learner assumes the status of the naturalistic learner during a period of residence in the TL community while often simultaneously following language or content courses, carrying out different, social and leisure activities, and even working" (Howard, 2005, p. 496). The SA context, however, not only includes residing in a country where the target language is spoken, but also in countries where the L2 may not be the local language. In the latter context, it is possible to find universities that offer classes in English to recruit more international exchange students (e.g., Germany, Poland, the Netherlands, etc.) as well as help their nationals to benefit from such instruction. It should be noted that language learning in this context, particularly the learning of English, has not been widely studied within the SA research tradition. Furthermore, due to the role of English as a lingua franca in the European context, it is likely that students who study abroad in these countries also improve in their English abilities outside of formal classrooms, during informal conversations with other international students. Therefore, the SA context can be further divided into two categories as immersion SA and English as lingua franca SA (ELFSA). To put it differently, these European countries are still determined to be SA contexts because the language of instruction is English and the students reside in a foreign country for longer periods.

Among these learning environments, the domestic immersion context received attention in the literature regarding issues of additive bilingualism. Researchers have focused on the advantages of such programs mainly in bilingual second language settings, such as Canada

(Collentine & Freed, 2004). Recently, domestic immersion has been investigated in terms of their curricula and program quality also across monolingual settings, such as Germany, South Korea, and Paraguay (Housen et al., 2011; Jeon, 2012; Spezzini, 2010). However, the studies comparing domestic immersion with SA are limited to a few studies comparing linguistic gains such as oral fluency (Freed, Segalowitz, & Dewey 2004; García-Amaya, 2010).

Empirical studies conducted to compare the effects of various learning contexts in terms of L2 development have been well documented in the literature (Llanes, 2011). Nonetheless, these studies are limited to comparing the SA context with AH formal instruction contexts (Freed, Segalowitz, & Dewey 2004). For instance, Segalowitz and Freed (2004) investigated the effects of context on oral fluency gains and cognitive gains with reference to the amount of L2 contact by comparing OPI data from two groups of tertiary level Spanish as L2 learners: SA and AH. The results regarding oral fluency gains as measured by temporal and hesitation phenomena at different times indicated the superiority of the SA context over AH. Similarly, O'Brien et al. (2007) compared undergraduate Spanish as L2 learners in SA and AH contexts for oral fluency gains via temporal and hesitation phenomena in light of phonological memory (PM) capacities of the participants. The results confirmed the influence of PM on oral fluency gains, while SA participants outperformed the AH group. Also, Hernández (2010) confirmed the SA benefits over AH in terms of oral development, highlighting the significant relationship among gains, integrative motivation, and the amount of L2 contact. Finally, Llanes and Muñoz (2013) explored the effect of context and age regarding oral fluency (measured by pruned syllables per minute), lexical richness (measured by the Guiraud's index), complexity (measured by clauses per minute), and accuracy (measured by errors per T-unit) gains. The researchers concluded that the SA context was most beneficial for children in terms of L2 speaking development.

Comparing the effects of SA and AH contexts, Sasaki (2004; 2007; 2009) investigated L2 written development of Japanese L1 EFL learners over a period of 1 to 3.5 years, utilizing similar measures. These studies indicated that the SA experience yields greater gains in L2 writing fluency and complexity as compared to AH contexts, especially when the sojourn experience is lengthier. Conversely, Llanes and Muñoz (2013) found out that the AH context is more beneficial especially for adult learners' written and oral development, which emphasizes the issues of quality and length of the SA experience –as well as the age factor- in terms of formal L2 instruction.

To the knowledge of the researcher, only Freed, Segalowitz, and Dewey (2004), Dewey (2008), and García-Amaya (2010) investigated the effects of three learning contexts, such as the SA, domestic IM, and AH foreign language contexts. The former study focused on differentiated oral fluency gains of 28 students of French as an L2 by comparing their performances across the SA, IM, and AH contexts. Considering time-on-task factors, the pre-and post oral proficiency interview (OPI) data were analyzed in terms of temporal (e.g., speech rate) and hesitation phenomena (e.g., fluent runs), the findings of which revealed that the IM group, having significantly more contact with the L2, outperformed the other context groups. The analysis of the data gathered from pre and post interviews indicated that the IM group demonstrated greater gains in oral fluency. The researchers posited that the IM group's overall success might have depended on the increased amount of time spent in speaking and writing in French as compared to other participants. Therefore, it might be concluded that solely increasing the amount of input does not necessarily result in linguistic gains although the SA group had potentially received more input in the L2 than the IM group. By the same token, Dewey (2008) investigated 56 English university students' lexical development in Japanese across three different learning

contexts: (1) the SA, (2) AH, (3) and IM. The results of this quantitative study indicated that the SA students outperformed IM and AH students as they had engaged in more productive writing activities than the learners in other groups. Although lexical gains were quite similar in between SA and IM learners, the SA participants outperformed the IM group in terms of productive language use. Dewey (2008) concluded by underscoring the fact that sojourners need to have a threshold level of target language proficiency in order to benefit from the communicative advantages of the SA setting.

Similarly, García-Amaya (2010) compared Spanish L2 oral fluency gains across AH, IM, and SA contexts through oral interviews. The SA groups' oral fluency measures were found to be significantly higher than the other groups in terms of total number of words and seconds per turn (p = .004). The IM group, on the other hand, significantly outperformed the AH and SA groups in terms of rate of speech, ratio of filled pauses per syllables, and percentage of syllables in repetition (p = .000). Given the diversity of results, it was concluded that context helps increase different constructs regarding oral fluency (García-Amaya, 2010).

SLA research has compared the SA with AH contexts also with reference to the length of stay, quality, and type, yielding controversial results. Though lengthier experiences in the SA have always been found to be more beneficial for most L2 domains (Kinginger, 2009; Sasaki, 2009), the effectiveness of short stays has also been confirmed especially for oral gains (Llanes, 2011; Llanes & Muñoz, 2009). Considering different lengths of SA on oral development, Llanes and Muñoz (2009) investigated the effects of a short stay abroad, the results of which confirmed oral fluency gains for the participants regardless of the short time spent in the SA context. This finding on length of stay was partly counter-argued by the results of the Serrano, Tragant, and Llanes (2012) study, which indicated that the longer the sojourn experience is, the greater the

oral fluency gains are predicted to be although short stays might be beneficial for some gains in oral fluency.

SA-program characteristics determining the success of learners have been identified as the length of stay, aim and scope of the program, curricular activities –the amount and quality of formal instruction provided, pre-departure criteria, such as proficiency requirements, living and working conditions in a way to predict the amount of L2 contact (DeKeyser, 2014; Kinginger, 2009; Llanes, 2011; Pérez-Vidal & Juan-Garau, 2011). To exemplify, a sojourner staying with a host family is considered likely to develop more in the L2 than a sojourner staying with other students of same national origin. Likewise, getting formal instruction at a host institution for longer periods of time might yield better learning outcomes than a short period program. Given that the majority of relevant literature focuses on the US perspective, investigating American sojourners studying a variety of L2s in Europe and Asia, the empirical gap to study participants with a variety of L1 backgrounds from a European perspective has been pointed in several state of the art articles (Kinginger, 2009; Llanes, 2011; Pérez-Vidal, 2014). Above all, the empirical studies comparing the effects of learning contexts are mostly limited to the SA and AH contexts, leaving out the inclusion of other less traditional contexts like the ELFSA to bring about different results regarding L2 development.

The variables explored in relation to comparing learning contexts have corresponded to the contextual, individual, and program-specific factors, and exchange program design (Magnan & Lafford, 2011, Llanes, 2011; Pérez-Vidal, 2014). By the same token, empirical studies have confirmed that these variables, such as the amount of L2 use and interaction in the TL, age, pre-departure proficiency levels, gender, and personality, are all statistically significant predictors of

linguistic gains in the L2 after a period of time in the SA context (Dewey, Bown, & Eggett, 2012; Dewey et al., 2014).

Also, the majority of the studies do not focus on the qualitative representation of the learning context from the perspective of the learners. This rather interaction and cognition related causal representation of the link between the individual and the context seems to disregard the importance of how an individual interacts or addresses the contextual opportunities. There are very limited mixed studies which investigated the link between individuals' perception, personality, and the extent to which they benefit from their learning contexts (for an exception see Mitchell et al., in press). Ortega (2009) underscored the importance of learners' reactions, contextual experiences, and personal evaluations of contextual opportunities and affordances being influential on how they process (or not) the linguistic data, experience and personalize the learning environment and consequently develop their L2. In fact, context and how individuals interact with it is rather a complex issue that should be explored through a variety of analytical measures. To explore such individually constructed contextual perceptions requires examining the phenomena through qualitative measures in a way to delve more profoundly into the mind of the individual learner. Hence, this lack of evaluating the notion of learning context as a complex phenomenon through qualitative methodologies constitutes another major gap in the literature.

As Kubota (2016) underlined, the outcomes of the SA research might be influenced by the experiences of the student sojourner in their immediate learning context in a complex way. Thus, trying to look for a simple causal relationship between context and its effects on language development might be misleading. Referring to the notion of *social imaginary* (Rizvi & Lingard, 2010, as cited in Kubota, 2016), the issues of membership to the society, shared beliefs and practices in a given setting help formulate a sense of legitimacy and belongingness which might

result in more positive perceptions and gains from the SA experience. In this sense, Ushioda's notion of *person-in-context* (2009) should be highlighted in a way to shed light on the complex nature of the relationship between the individual and the context. Ushioda suggests that cultural, social, and historical contexts are influential on language learner motivation, paving the way for potential gains in the TL. To put it differently, contextual experiences of the sojourners might be argued to have a significant positive or negative effect on their language learning motivation as to how they situate themselves in their new learning environments. In reference to learners' identity, personality, unique background, goals, motives, and intentions (Ushioda, 2009, p. 220), the study abroad setting might have the characteristics of a Community of Practice (CoP, Kalocsai, 2014; Toohey, 2000; Wenger, 1998) incorporating motivation with theories of situational learning. Hence, it should be noted that the complex link among context, situational learning, and motivation from a *person-in-context* perspective might be indicative of language gains of sojourners. Yet, no studies have theoretically referred to this notion, to the knowledge of the researcher.

The SA literature and theoretical backgrounds have thus far been discussed pertaining to their implications to learning context. A review of the current literature on the two of the three learning contexts of the present study, such as the SA and AH has also been presented saving the ELFSA context, which is demonstrated next. In the upcoming section, the lingua franca status of English and its implications within the ELFSA context are discussed. Finally issues of multilingualism and the notion of Perceived Positive Language Interaction (PPLI) (Thompson, 2013) are depicted within the scope of the empirical research in the SA contexts.

English as Lingua Franca (ELF) and the Non-Immersion Study Abroad Context (ELFSA)

The term *lingua franca* refers to the use of "any lingual medium of communication between people of different tongues, for whom it is a second language" (Samarin, 1987, p. 371). Hence, it might be concluded that a lingua franca language has no native speakers (Seidlhofer, 2004). English as lingua franca (ELF) as a term has been defined as a "contact language between persons who share neither a common native tongue nor a common (national) culture, and for whom English is the chosen foreign language of communication" (Firth, 1996, p. 240). Unlike the definition, ELF interactions between interlocutors might include speakers from "outer" and "inner" circles of English as depicted by Kachru (1992).

Here, the "outer" circle refers to the use of English as a second language in a community where English is recognized and institutionalized as an official language, such as India and Malaysia. The inner circle, on the other hand, refers to the use of English as a native language in a country, such as the United Kingdom, the U.S.A., New Zealand, and Australia. Yet, most frequently researchers focus on ELF interactions between speakers from the "expanding circle" and the "outer circle", where the "expanding circle" refers to the use of English as a foreign language in a country, such as Turkey, Spain, Italy, etc. Kachru's circles of interaction are summarized in Figure 1 below.

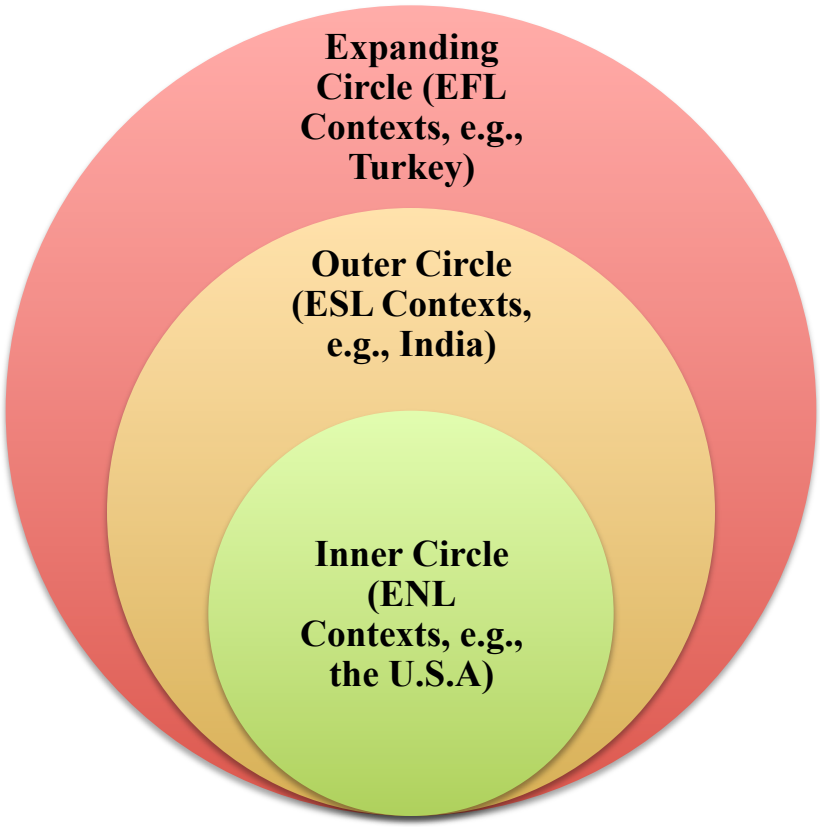


Figure 1. Kachru's Circles and ELF (1992)

Considering the use of ELF as distinguished from use of English as a foreign language, scholars have focused on the target contexts, the functions of the language in the given context, and the characteristics and the goals of the interlocutors, which have turned out to be problematic for SLA researchers (Jenkins, 2006). It has been touched upon that ELF is a subcategory of World Englishes, while EFL refers to the traditional category of English as a foreign language. In the former contexts, the interaction between two non-native speakers has been prominent, whilst in an EFL context the goal of the interlocutors has been linked to communicating with native speakers of English. Native-like proficiency has been regarded as the ultimate attainment for EFL from an SLA perspective, which has not been targeted for ELF interactions. Therefore, traditional discussion of L2 errors are not found in research on ELF compared to EFL contexts.

Variations in pronunciation and morphosyntax, therefore, have been an accepted part of ELF communication (Jenkins, 2006). Another point of distinction is that ELF cannot be geographically located, while EFL can be (Cogo, 2012). However, the use of ELF can be virtually or temporarily located with the wide use of the Internet, international conferences, or any other physical location depending on the characteristics of the context and interlocutors.

Additionally, issues regarding speaker identity, such as native (NSEs) and non-native speakers of English (NNSEs), have been touched upon by ELF researchers (Higgins, 2003; Pennycook, 2001; Widdowson, 1994). Given the fact that 80% of English speakers are non-native speakers from the outer (EFL) circle (Jenkins, 2008), the *ownership* of the native speakers has been questioned. The notion itself refers to the power to adapt and change the language by its native speakers as they are bound to each other morphologically and historically (Widdowson, 1994). Also, it is associated with linguistic identities as these have significant practical implications. Pedagogically, this might result in an EFL learners' creating expectations towards a native-like proficiency as the utmost level of development in English.

Widdowson notes that what is meant by "real" English is considered to be the native speaker variety, while "good" teaching is thought to be through the materials prepared only by native speakers according to those who claim *ownership* (1994). This might lead NSEs to expect native-like linguistic performances from NNSEs, which is rather unrealistic given the global conditions for using English as an international language, or lingua franca. Such expectations might be problematic for NNSEs in the native-speaker context (e.g., Britain) as their linguistic identity can only label them as "illegitimate" L2 users (Higgins, 2003). Such a positioning might prevent NNESs integration into the native-speaker environment (here, England) in a way to have meaningful contact with NSEs to develop their English. In fact, Widdowson asserts that native

speakers' English is only bound to their communal, local, and communicative needs, none of which have any crucial importance for international speakers of English who are also NNESs (Widdowson, 1994, p. 388).

Empirical research on ELF has also been called for with the rise of the globalization and increased mobility of language learners and second/foreign language speakers all over the world (Jenkins, 2006; Seidlhofer, 2004). Considering the scope of ELF, SLA issues such as interlanguage, fossilization, ultimate attainment, and errors have lost their importance. The emphasis of SLA onto the "deficits" in learners' mind towards native-like English proficiency has been criticized (Jenkins, 2006). Jenkins (2006) clarifies that for ELF, errors are just variants within a "difference" perspective instead of the SLA perspective of "deficits". Hence, ELF scholars have underscored the need for a change in L2 curriculum due to the increased use of ELF across the globe. Similarly, one of the most important aims of learning English should be towards successfully communicating with other non-native speakers. Accordingly, one major focus of ELF research has been issues such as how English language users negotiate meaning in personal communication despite the variations in phonetics, phonology, and morphosyntax (Matsumoto, 2011). To exemplify, some sounds in English have been determined to be core (e.g., vowel length contrasts in words like "fit" and "feet") and non-core (e.g., the difference between two dental fricatives as /θ/ and /ð/ or lateral liquids /l/ and dark /ɬ/), and yet not vitally important in conveying meaning (Jenkins, Modiano, & Seidlhofer 2001; 2006; Seidlhofer, 2004). The major focus of ELF research has been pragmatic features of ELF communication from a variety of L1 backgrounds (Seidlhofer, 2004). The contexts from which oral data have been gathered also vary from dinner conversations to business telephone calls. It has been concluded that misunderstandings in interaction have not been salient in ELF communication and

interference from L1 norms is not common (Lesznyák, 2004; Meierkord, 2002). ELF talk has been characterized to be "overtly-consensus oriented, cooperative, mutually supportive, and thus fairly robust" (Seidlhofer, 2004, p. 218).

The current study draws on the lingua franca status of English in the ELFSA context, a non-Anglophone country, where the official language of the country is one other than English, such as Spain, Italy, Germany, etc. The typical interaction among ELF users might involve speakers from the inner, outer, or the expanding circle in the given context. Typical variants in ELF communication have also been determined by empirical research as compared to EFL or ESL uses. To exemplify, Seidlhofer (2002) reported that dropping the third person –s, confusing some relative pronouns, omission of articles, and using certain vocabulary more frequently are some common "variants" in ELF talk. The only problem leading to miscommunication has been indicated to be the use of unfamiliar vocabulary and lexical variation among interlocutors (Seidlhofer, 2004).

In the European Union (EU) context, the spreading use of English has evoked some fear among scholars in that their native languages might lose importance, resulting in policies favoring societal multilingualism (Cenoz & Jessner, 2000; Dörnyei & Csizér, 2002). The term "Euro-English" has been coined in reference to the use of ELF in the EU context with a focus on sociolinguistics and sociocultural uses of English (Hülmbauer & Seidlhofer, 2013). ELF has also been discussed in terms of its pragmatic features in academic settings (Mauranen, 2003). In a similar vein, Dörnyei, Csizer, and Nemeth (2006) investigated the use of ELF from an intercultural and language globalization perspective. The Hungarian participants of this longitudinal study, whose motivational change over time were also tracked via quantitative measures, were found to believe that English is the only world language.

Pedagogically, ELF researchers have tried to find out what additions should be made to language teaching curriculum depending on the current function of ELF and its characteristics (Hülmbauer & Seidlhofer, 2013). Teaching ELF instead of EFL has also been argued via the findings of empirical research (Widdowson, 2012). From such a perspective, teaching learners strategies to convey messages has been favored more than insisting on error-free native like production (McKay, 2002). However, Groom (2012) indicated that English users around Europe still prefer the native-speaker norms of English to be taught at institutions.

Considering the use of ELF in the EU context, very few studies have investigated the SA context in terms of the use of English as a lingua franca. The European non-English context (equal to ELFSA) with ERASMUS learners has only been investigated in a recent study by Llanes, Arnó, & Mancho-Barés (2016) from a linguistic viewpoint. The researchers conducted a pre-posttest design study with 39 Spanish/Catalan L1 speakers who spent a semester in a non-English speaking European country to determine the effects of this context on general English proficiency (quick Oxford placement test) and written development (a 15 minute short piece of paragraph writing to determine fluency, syntactic and lexical complexity). The result of the analyses indicated that this particular SA group improved their general proficiency and lexical complexity significantly. The results also showed only syntactic complexity was influenced by pre-departure proficiency levels of the students. The study is of importance in terms of reporting developmental results from the focal context of the current study. Yet, it did not compare contextual effects with any other learning contexts, which still underlines a gap to be filled in the literature.

Baker (2009) also investigated the features of ELF communication and users' beliefs towards the relationship between language and culture. The seven ELF users from a Thai

university participated in this qualitative study. The results of the analysis indicated that the participants looked for opportunities to negotiate and mediate meaning and find alternative communicative practices using ELF with other non-native speakers. As for cultural issues, they were found to associate no culture to ELF and consider it a world language beyond its roots in British and American cultures. Pedagogically, the study elucidated that teaching cultural awareness and accommodation skills are as significant as teaching morphosyntax and lexis.

In a similar vein, Kalocsai (2009) explored 70 ERASMUS exchange students' discursive practices as being members of a community of practice (COP) in Hungary and Czech Republic. The shared language of these students was only English, which affected the way they socialize into their new COP environment. The qualitative analysis of the interview data revealed that the participants established a new repertoire in ELF, which they referred as "ERASMUS English", to be able to communicate with each other. Highlighting their new ELF identities as indicating their non-native English speaker status, the participants invented new linguistic forms or borrowed from other languages to negotiate meaning, convey message, and start or sustain interpersonal relationships. Accentual differences were also evident in their speech.

Virkkula and Nikula (2010) investigated the relationship between identity construction and lingua franca use of English among seven Finnish undergraduate students who participated in a semester in Germany via ERASMUS. The results of the pre and post interviews pointed out that ELF use resulted in changes in identity and the ways in which the participants discursively positioned themselves. The analysis of the pre-departure interviews indicated that the participants believed themselves to have poor proficiency in English. Their discourses of pre-departure deficiency, however, were found to be replaced by discourses of proficiency after the SA period. They valued native-like proficiency and high proficiency before the program, while

they indicated that successful language use and conveying the message in interpersonal communication had become more important than native-like proficiency. After the program, they identified themselves as language users rather than language learners, a term they had used in the pre-departure interviews. English had become a way of meaning making rather than using correct forms. Drawing on the principles of the Dynamic Systems Theory (Cameron, 2009), Virkkula and Nikula (2010) argued that these findings should inform language teaching pedagogy and language education should embrace opportunities for learners to adopt an identity of their own as international users of a world language.

Finally, Kaypak and Ortactepe (2014) investigated 53 Turkish ERASMUS exchange students' beliefs about language learning and use in both SA and non-immersion ELF context, where the medium of instruction was English (in Germany, Holland, Spain, Italy, Poland, Slovenia, Austria, and Czech Republic). The results of the qualitative (journal entries) and quantitative (questionnaires) analyses pointed out that the participants maintained their pre-program beliefs, such as issues of self-efficacy and learner autonomy, after the completion of the semester abroad. However, they were found to have a shift from expectations of native-like accuracy to intelligibility in their language use through their responses pertained to regarding L2 errors, amount of necessary input, the lingua franca status of English, and the importance of learning English. Such a shift helped them establish successful interaction and communicative practices in the ELF contexts.

All in all, ELF studies have elucidated that variations in pronunciation and morphosyntax are more accepted in ELF contexts as compared to EFL and ESL contexts although intelligibility has also been stressed in SLA studies focusing on communicative language teaching. The major aim of language use among ELF speakers has pertained to establishing and sustaining

interpersonal communication for which shared linguistic forms or sociocultural values are not heavily relied on (Kaypak & Ortactepe, 2014). The ELF context, on the other hand, has only been investigated by a recent study in terms of the influence of context on L2 development (Llanes, Arnó, & Mancho-Barés, 2016), the results of which showed that the ELF context is beneficial for general proficiency and written lexical complexity. The various results from the ELF studies, especially with a focus on the SA and ELFSA context have underlined the need for further research (Hülmbauer & Seidlhofer, 2013).

Operationalized as the ELFSA context, this study also focuses on the use of ELF in a EU country where the official language is not English. It should be noted that ELF in this study, unlike the ELF literature, is not used as a theoretical framework for the analysis of learner data. ELF, therefore, is only addressed to further explain the dynamics of language use and learning in the ELFSA context. Given the schemes of mobility and cooperation among language speakers within Europe, the ERASMUS program constitutes the ELFSA context for the current study. Therefore, the scope and the content of the ERASMUS program are presented next.

European Community Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students (ERASMUS)

Funded by the European Union (EU) and non-EU participating country governments, ERASMUS is an international exchange program for undergraduate and graduate students in Europe (Coleman, 1998). The program was launched in 1987, making it available for more than 3 million students to study at a European institution for one or two semesters (EU, 2011). Apart from students, academic staff can also participate in the ERASMUS program. The objective of the program is to increase European integration by promoting mobility and harmonization among member states and universities (Coleman, 1998).

The number of participating institutions has risen from 1,982 to 4,452 since 1987 (EU, 2011). The total number of exchange students and staff in 2012 was reported to have increased from 3,244 to 204,744 according to European Union reports (2011). Considering the huge increase in the number of participants, ERASMUS has provided a significant study abroad context for university students from different academic domains. Additionally, ERASMUS is an important opportunity for learners of English and EU official languages all over Europe apart from the advantages of continuing academic studies in a different European institute. In essence, the languages used vary by the country of the program to be attended. For example, in Italy, only a couple of programs are taught in English. However, in the Netherlands, most of the undergraduate and graduate programs are offered both in English and Dutch. Giving the high number of English as L2 speakers, the Netherlands might attract a wider variety of students from different L1 backgrounds. All the official languages of the EU are recognized and used in instruction in the ERASMUS exchange program. In other words, it is possible to find an institution where the language of instruction is one of the EU languages. Depending on the program, the exchange students should document intermediate proficiency (Level B2 in the Common European Framework) in the given language to be able to eligible for participation. Additionally, depending on the availability of the governmental funds, a GPA requirement of 3.0 has been required from the students of countries such as Turkey and Lithuania. Home and host institutions should have a mutual learning agreement in order to send or receive students from each other. To put it differently, a student from Istanbul University may not go to Oxford University within the ERASMUS program because there is no mutual agreement between the two institutions in question.

Considering the participants of the current study, more than 300,000 Turkish students have participated in ERASMUS since 1987 (Turkish National Agency, 2011). Therefore, the importance of the study abroad context provided by ERASMUS is indispensable. However, only the study by Kaypak and Ortactepe (2014) investigated Turkish sojourners' beliefs about language use in relation to ERASMUS contexts from a linguistics perspective. As depicted in the previous section, the results of this study pointed out that Turkish exchange students tended to remain the same in terms of beliefs regarding self-efficacy and learner autonomy. Yet, their language use expectations shifted from native-like accuracy to intelligibility, making it possible to establish and sustain interpersonal relations in the given environment.

Additional studies were conducted to explore the case of Turkish ERASMUS students abroad mostly from a sociological or psychological perspective. For instance, Kizilaslan (2010) qualitatively explored the case of Turkish pre-service teachers during their ERASMUS exchange semester regarding the handicaps they experienced abroad. The analysis of the in-depth interviews indicated that the participants' had issues about Turkey, women, religion, and family life. Similarly, Brown and Aktas (2011) also qualitatively investigated the case of Turkish international students regarding their pre-departure expectations and fears about the ERASMUS exchange program. The data from the 11 in-depth interviews indicated that Turkish sojourners were anxious about the misconceptions as to Turkey as a Muslim and developing country before departure.

Mutlu, Alacahan, & Erdil (2010) investigated the cultural and personal changes of Turkish sojourners in a Polish university in comparison to students from European countries. The results of the study indicated that the state of belonging to religion, nation, and country were of greater importance to Turkish students as compared to European sojourners. Again from a

sociological perspective, Mutlu (2011) also explored the development of European consciousness, the results of which suggested that some form of individual development rather than academic improvement was a contribution of the ERASMUS program.

From a different perspective, Camiciottoli (2010) investigated the difficulties that Italian exchange students majoring in business had confronted during lectures. The results of the qualitative and quantitative analysis of the data indicated that Italian students had developed certain strategies to cope with such language barriers during lectures in English, at which they comprehended most of the talk in large part due to the pre-departure training sessions developed as a result of a substantial corpus-based research on essential linguistic, discursive, and disciplinary features of lectures in the given contexts (in this study, the destinations were Australia, the UK, Ireland, Sweden, Denmark, Finland, the Netherlands, and Hong Kong, where the language of instruction was English). Camiciottoli (2010) also underlined the importance of setting clear goals before the exchange period and the significant support of pre-departure training sessions.

On the whole, the dearth of studies exploring the ERASMUS program as forming an ELF context, in other words an ELFSA environment for English language learners underlines the current need to conduct further research. Considering the participants of the current study, who are Turkish undergraduates majoring in English, there has been no studies conducted in the ELFSA or SA contexts regarding their linguistic and cognitive development and perceptions towards multilingualism as compared to the SA and AH contexts.

The lingua franca status of English, and how it is implicated in the ERASMUS exchange context have been thus far discussed. Considering the multilingual status of the EU and the potential learning atmosphere created via sojourners from different L1 backgrounds, issues of

multilingualism have gained significance in the given context. In the following section, the influence and significance of multilingualism and Perceived Positive Language Interaction (PPLI) (Thompson, 2013) are depicted in relation to sojourners' experiences abroad.

Perceptions towards Multilingualism and *Perceived Positive Language Interaction* (PPLI)

Given the settings of the current study, the SA and ELFSA contexts are highly related to multilingualism. Based on the fear that English as a lingua franca will diminish the importance and use of European languages, the EU incorporated some principles with the "Language Learning and European Citizenship" project between 1989 and 1996 towards the support and preservation of multilingualism within the scope of the ERASMUS program (Coleman, 1998). For instance, the EU determined multilingualism as a strategy to secure diversity in languages and cultures across Europe, which has resulted in taking the EU multilingualism policy as a major framework of reference for research purposes regarding languages (Schjerve & Vetter, 2012). Developing a guideline called the Common European Framework for Reference for Languages (CEFR), the EU briefly stated that it "seeks to maintain its cultural and linguistic diversity by addressing issues of multilingualism and multiculturalism in all its action schemes", one of which is the ERASMUS program (Coleman, 1998, p. 169). Accordingly, both CEFR and ERASMUS emphasize the need to promote multiple languages from a multilingual and multicultural perspective. Additionally, the principal objectives of the CEFR to overcome language barriers across Europe have been addressed in ERASMUS with regard to "increasing personal mobility, the effectiveness of international cooperation, respect for cultural identity and diversity, intensifying personal interaction, improving working relations, and achieving a deeper mutual understanding" (Coleman, 1998, p. 169). Thus, one can expect ERASMUS exchange students to increase awareness regarding multilingualism after participating in the program.

From a wider perspective, Cenoz and Genesee (1998) indicated that multilingualism is a complex phenomenon depending on multiple factors. Cenoz (2013) indicated that globalization, transnational mobility, and the spread of new multimodal technologies have been influential factors on the rise of multilingualism. Similarly, Dewaele (2008) linked the phenomenon with sociocultural, political, and didactic issues. By means of the present transparency of geographic and economic boundaries in the global world, an increasing number of people travel and emigrate to new countries by bringing new cultures and information together, which suggests that multilingualism and multiculturalism mold today's world with the help of further globalization of social tendencies and ideas (Ibarranan, Lasagabaster, & Sierra, 2008). Given the setting of the EU, growing opportunities for human mobility without physical borders in between member countries, speakers' attitudes and perceptions toward the use of multiple languages have become more important in regards to learning an additional language (Dewaele, 2008). European Commission (2016) developed exchange programs such as ERASMUS, Socrates, Leonardo Da Vinci, and Jean Monnet first to aim at certain educational objectives, second to increase awareness towards the use of multiple languages in the European context. Therefore, the current study also focuses on sojourners' perceptions towards the phenomenon and how their SA experiences alter their existing opinions towards the use of multiple languages.

From a pedagogical perspective, empirical studies have indicated the link between multilingualism, increased metalinguistic awareness, and developed cognitive functions, all of which have a significant role in learning languages (Sanz, 2000; Thompson, 2013). More explicitly, it has been argued that the more languages a person knows, the better he/she can synthesize the knowledge of additional languages in their brains (Thompson, 2013). Furthermore, multilingualism has been found to link with lower levels of anxiety and a higher

tolerance for ambiguity, which increases motivation and results in better learning outcomes (Dewaele, Petrides, & Furnham, 2008; Dewaele & Li Wei, 2013; Thompson & Lee, 2013). To exemplify, Kemp (2001), in his study conducted in Spain, concluded that the more languages the participants knew, the easier they learned the Basque language. It might be suggested for ERASMUS students in the study, who already have an elementary proficiency of a third language because of their program requirements, might have better cognitive abilities to process a language as they have higher metalinguistic awareness due to multilingualism.

Considering language learners' perceptions, the link between language awareness, attitudes, and perceptions has resonated in the literature (Wolfram, 1998). According to Wolfram (1998), language awareness has three parameters, the cognitive, affective, and social. The first parameter involves the patterns of language. The second concerns the attitudes and perceptions towards languages. And, the last parameter deals with the role of language in effective interpersonal communication (Ibarranan, Lasagabaster, & Sierra, 2008). This study focuses on the affective parameter as it deals with language awareness and perceptions. The link between the learners' perceptions towards the TL and the target community and the notion of ultimate attainment in a language has been well documented in the literature (Dewaele, 2008). To exemplify, the learning environment and the teacher's personality and the pedagogical approach have been claimed to have an impact on classroom learners' attitudes, perceptions, and motivation (Dörnyei, 2001; Pavlenko, 2003).

To account for better learning results from an exchange program, one might then relate the number of languages that the learners know and their perceptions toward these languages. However, there is one more important component to be taken into consideration when it comes to the issues of multilingualism and language learning. Originated as *Perceived Language*

Distance (PLD, Kellerman, 1987), this component has later been operationalized as the notion of *Perceived Positive Language Interaction* (PPLI) (Thompson, 2013). PLD suggests that learners' transferring form or meaning from one language to another depends on their perception of the language (lexical or structural) distance of the languages at issue. Kellerman (1987) posits that if the learner lexically or morphosyntactically relate one language to another, the transferability from one language to another is higher. Also, the amount of relation to be perceived will impact the amount of transferability in the given language (Kellerman, 1987; Thompson, 2013). Thompson's (2013) operationalization includes learners' previous language learning experiences influencing their perceptions toward multilingualism and the perceived distance among languages, which have been measured via an open-ended questionnaire item: "If you have studied other languages in the past, do you think that has helped you or hindered your ability to learn subsequent languages? Please provide specific examples where appropriate" (Thompson & Aslan, 2014, p. 6). Participants in studies with a focus on PPLI have been categorized as PPLI and non-PPLI learners and results have been reported accordingly (Thompson, 2013; Thompson & Aslan, 2014; Thompson & Erdil-Moody, 2014). All in all, PPLI depicts an alternative picture regarding multilingualism and language learning apart from issues of proficiency in a language which is supposed to alter the learning of another.

Thompson (2013) conducted a study with 79 Brazilian language learners to investigate the link between language aptitude and multilingualism from a PPLI perspective. The analysis of the data, which were compiled via the CANAL-FT aptitude test and interviews, indicated that previous language learning experiences have an impact on language aptitude. The participants who showed traces of PPLI outperformed those who did not in the aptitude test. Thompson

(2013) concluded that learners' language learning experiences should be closely monitored as they have an effect on their language aptitudes.

In a similar vein, Thompson and Aslan (2014) investigated the interface between learners' beliefs towards language learning and multilingualism from a PPLI viewpoint. The data collected via a modified version of Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI, Horwitz, 1988) with 168 tertiary level EFL learners in Turkey indicated the impact of multilingualism and previous language learning experiences on learners' beliefs and metalinguistic knowledge. Those with higher PPLI were found to have more desire to learn English competently and contact with native speakers, to need no Turkish translations for learning English, to show higher confidence in their linguistic skills, and to have a greater tolerance of ambiguity.

Similarly, Thompson and Erdil-Moody (2014) investigated the link between language motivation and PPLI with 159 learners in the Turkish higher education EFL context. Drawing on Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self-System framework, the results of the study underscored the link between the ideal L2 self and multilingualism from a PPLI viewpoint. However, no significant effects were found for ought-to L2 self and multilingualism.

Considering the body of existing research on the topic, no previous studies have explored the link between the SA context and learners' perceptions towards multilingualism from a PPLI perspective, to the knowledge of the researcher. Inasmuch as the participants' previous language experiences might have an effect on their learning outcomes (Thompson, 2013), this study also focuses on learners' perceptions towards multilingualism from a PPLI perspective. More importantly, given the contextual characteristics of Europe and the ERASMUS exchange program's principles regarding the promotion of multilingualism, it is expected that the sojourner

participants of the current study might refer to their different perceptions towards the phenomenon through their personal experience.

Conclusion

The SA literature has touched upon issues of oral and written L2 development through complexity, accuracy, and fluency measures, input, interaction, and output opportunities as determining the amount of L2 contact. Also, individual-related factors such as cognition, age, and also individual difference, such as motivation have been explored. Program-related features such as length and threshold proficiencies have also been explored (See Llanes, 2011 for a review of the SA literature). These studies have mostly drawn on the IH and SAT as their theoretical backgrounds. Unlike classroom-based interactionist research, the SA strand has focused more on input and interaction issues. This study also adopts a similar approach to the theoretical background pertaining to the relationship between context and L2 development.

Empirical research has mostly indicated the advantage of the SA context over AH context with regard to oral fluency (Hernández, 2010; Llanes & Muñoz, 2013; Mora & Valls-Ferrer, 2012). However, in terms of written complexity and lexical richness, the advantages of AH formal instruction contexts and domestic immersion programs have also been resonated in the literature among a few studies highlighting the advantage of SA on written development (Pérez-Vidal, 2014). On the whole, the majority of participants studied are speakers of either English or Spanish as L1 from an American perspective, which underscores the need to conduct studies from a variety of L1 backgrounds from a European perspective (Collentine, 2009). Above all, the dearth of studies comparing the effects of the SA and AH contexts with the addition of a third "mediating" SA context is anticipated to bring further insights into the dynamics of L2 development.

Given the lingua franca status of English across Europe, the current study also aims to fill a gap regarding the underexplored ELFSA context with Turkish undergraduate participants. The ERASMUS program enables the researcher to underscore contextual differences in learning outcomes from a cross-sectional perspective as investigating both TL and ELFSA contexts as compared to AH formal instruction environment. In a similar vein, the principles of the ERASMUS program underline the significance of multilingualism, the influence of which has been documented in SLA literature pertaining to better language learning outcomes (Thompson, 2013). However, the fact that no studies have touched upon the link between multilingualism and the influence of learning context, the present study also aims to fill a gap to bring insights into the issues of multilingualism and linguistic development. Therefore, participants' perceptions towards multilingualism and the influence of PPLI on learner development are also investigated within the scope of the notion of PPLI.

Finally, the influence of learning environment has been mostly explored in a causal relationship as if the amount of L2 contact would determine L2 development for all participants. Yet, the complex nature of the link between context and learner indicates another significant gap for qualitative studies to delve into the dynamics of the relationship between the sojourner and the sojourn experience.

This chapter presented the empirical studies investigating the SA context as compared to other learning environments as well as the theoretical backgrounds through the IH and SAT. The next chapter discusses the purpose of the study, research questions, research methodology, design of the study, data collection instruments, and data analysis procedures.

CHAPTER III:

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

The influence of learning context on linguistic development has been discussed in the previous chapters in a way to underline the significance of the amount of input and interaction opportunities from a cognitive-interactionist perspective. The general characteristics of the learning contexts in this study have also been presented pertaining to the unexplored link among ELF, ERASMUS, and multilingualism. Correspondingly, the current study aims to fill a gap in SLA literature pertaining to the dearth of studies investigating the SA, ELFSA, and AH contexts from a comparative viewpoint and the unexplored case of Turkish sojourners. To this end, the purpose of the study is to investigate the linguistic development of Turkish undergraduates majoring in English after a semester of instruction in the SA, ELFSA, and AH contexts. Along with the contextual characteristics of the three learning environments explored in the study, the participants' perceptions towards multilingualism will also be addressed in the current study.

With this aim, this study adopted a mixed-methods quasi-experimental design through the implementation of both quantitative and qualitative methodologies to measure the participants' oral and written production and perceptions towards multilingualism, and the link between PPLI, learning context, and linguistic development before and after a semester of instruction in three different contexts. Tashakkori and Creswell (2007) define mixed-method studies as "research in which the investigator collects and analyzes data, integrates the findings, and draws inferences

using both qualitative and quantitative approaches in a single study or program of inquiry" (p. 4). Furthermore, the mixed-methods design of the study has been argued to bring "breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration" via triangulation of data collection and analysis techniques (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turner, 2007, p. 123). By the same token, a mixed-methods approach is considered to invigorate data interpretation and analysis by means of triangulating different data collection techniques and instruments. Such triangulation interventions are anticipated to increase both internal and external validity of the proposed study. Accordingly, to determine the influence of context upon the aforementioned constructs, quantitative and qualitative data analysis techniques were utilized within a mixed-methods approach to answer the following research questions:

1. How do the three learning contexts compare in terms of language use, types of activities and interlocutors, and *Perceived Positive Language Interaction* (PPLI, Thompson, 2013) in light of the Language Interaction Questionnaire (LIQ) and the *Perceived Positive Language Interaction* Questionnaire (PPLIQ)?
2. To what extent does the learning context (SA, ELFSA, and AH) have an effect on oral and written performance of English as measured by fluency, accuracy, and syntactic and lexical complexity development over time?
3. What do some individual participants' self-reported experiences reveal about L2 development in the three learning contexts in relation to language use, interlocutor type, and perceptions towards multilingualism from a PPLI perspective?

Research Setting and Participants

This study was conducted in several research settings accounting for the characteristics of three different learning contexts: the SA, ELFSA, and AH. In this section, each learning context is presented separately.

The Study Abroad Context (SA)

In the current study, the SA context is a formal content instruction context in an immersion setting provided by the ERASMUS exchange program. The SA context in the study is several higher education institutes in England, depending on the agreement between a given Turkish university and a British institution. To exemplify, Bilkent University in Ankara, Turkey has an exchange agreement within the scope of the ERASMUS program with Kingston University in London. The SA setting is significant in terms of providing both formal instruction and daily contact opportunities with native speakers of English. The sojourners in the study register for nine credit hours at the host institution and these credits are automatically transferred to their transcript at the home institute if the sojourner successfully completes them. In other words, the sojourners continue their undergraduate studies at the host institution for a pre-determined period of time. Turkish ERASMUS students in this study spent one academic semester (16 weeks) at the SA context. Considering accommodation in the SA context, the Turkish sojourners mostly have the options of staying at an on-campus dormitory or off-campus apartment. Limited family accommodation is available in the ERASMUS program. The participants still have the opportunity to interact with ERASMUS students from other countries in on-campus dormitories, which is supposed to create a multilingual atmosphere. Those staying alone in an off-campus accommodation still have the interaction opportunities in the TL through formal instruction and the possibility of daily contact with native speakers outside of class. The

SA context in the study contained nine different universities in the north, midlands, and south of England. Their names were kept anonymous to prevent revealing the identity of the participants.

The English as Lingua Franca Study Abroad Context (ELFSA)

Within the scope of the ERASMUS program, the majority of Turkish sojourners take a semester abroad at a European institution in a non-Anglophone country where the official language is one other than English. This context was operationalized as the ELFSA context in the current study. Although the official language in the host country is not English, the language of instruction is English due to their program of study. Given the multilingual environment of Europe and the lingua franca status of English, this context is anticipated to provide more input and interaction opportunities in English as compared to AH formal instruction contexts due to the availability of interaction in English with students from other countries or local people. In accordance with the principles of the ERASMUS program, the Turkish sojourners participating in this study registered for 9 credit hours at the host institution, the grades of which were transferred to the home institution. As for accommodation, the sojourners were given two options, either staying in an on-campus dormitory or off-campus apartments. No family accommodation was available at the ELFSA context. The participants supposedly had the opportunity to interact with sojourners from other countries and use English as the shared language during communication. Those staying alone in an off-campus accommodation still had the interaction opportunity in the English through formal instruction and daily contact with native speakers considering the use of English as lingua franca across Europe. The European universities providing the ELFSA context in the current are located in Austria, Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Greece, the Netherlands, Italy, Poland and Portugal. Their names were kept anonymous to prevent participant identification.

At Home Foreign Language Context (AH)

The AH context in the current study included a university in the west of Turkey whose medium of instruction was 100% English for the selected department. An intact class of students majoring in English was selected due to issues of varied L2 proficiency requirements across different domains. For example, in an engineering department, the use of English is only limited to 30% of total instruction. Participants from such programs cannot meet the proficiency requirement of exchange programs or might be equally compared to the participants in the sojourn groups. To ensure homogeneity of participants, an intact class majoring in English with 100% English instruction was selected. In the AH context, the L1 of the students is Turkish. The interaction in English is limited in the AH context as compared to the SA and ELFSA contexts. However, with the advancement of Internet technologies, the participants were anticipated to reach authentic input in English through several online sources and activities like the other contexts. Also, AH participants were provided with a large amount of written and spoken English during the semester due to the medium of instruction requirements of their program. To exemplify, English Language and Literature majors are required to register for 12 to 18 credit hours of undergraduate courses in a semester, all of which are instructed in English. Courses such as Revolutionary History of Turkey and Turkish Literature are taught in Turkish at all institutes. Also, for English Language Teaching majors, all the pedagogical courses, such as Teaching Methodologies or Educational Psychology are instructed in Turkish at several institutions.

Participants

A total of 50 Turkish undergraduates (aged between 20 and 26) majoring in a variety of programs, whose medium of instruction is 100% English, with no previous SA experience

participated in the study. All the participants share the same L1, Turkish and L2, English at relatively similar proficiencies as determined by their institutional tests. Therefore, another inclusion criterion was a minimum level of intermediate to upper intermediate proficiency in English, a requirement of the ERASMUS exchange program, as measured by pre-departure institutional proficiency tests. Most of the participants had an L3 at elementary to pre-intermediate level proficiency (Arabic, Danish, Dutch, French, German, Greek, Italian, Norwegian, Persian, Portuguese, Russian, and Spanish). Given the 100% English medium of instruction requirement, all participants were selected from the top public and private universities of Turkey, the names of which were kept anonymous to prevent participant identification. Finally, each group (SA, ELFSA, and AH) included third-year undergraduates (total $n = 50$). It should be noted that two participants from the SA and two from the AH dropped the study during the posttests. Therefore, the results of the analyses including both pre and posttest data (e.g., two-way mixed ANOVA results) were only reported with data from 46 participants (SA = 7, ELFSA = 24, AH = 15).

Considering extracurricular program-specific features during study abroad, the participants of the SA and ELFSA groups were not allowed to work in their host countries depending on the program requirements. Also, the ERASMUS program offers limited home-stays. Therefore, most SA and ELFSA participants were expected to stay either at residencies on campus, or apartments off campus.

The recruitment process was handled by the ERASMUS offices at the participating Turkish institutions and departmental chairs through the researcher's personal communication. Flyers about the study were distributed on campuses. The researcher also made several presentations about the study during pre-departure meetings to be held for potential sojourners.

Data Collection Instruments

This study was comprised of a variety of instruments to measure L2 proficiency, oral and written development, L2 contact, and perceptions towards multilingualism from a PPLI perspective. The linguistic gains were measured using several tasks to determine oral and written development of the participants in terms of complexity, accuracy, and fluency (CAF). Participants' initial proficiency in the L2 was determined via an oral elicited imitation test (EIT) prior to the treatment period. Considering L2 contact, a series of online language interaction questionnaires (LIQ) was distributed every four weeks (a total of 4 administrations), which was a modified version of the Language Engagement Questionnaire (McManus, Mitchell, & Tracy-Ventura, 2014) and Language Contact Profile (LCP, Freed, 1990). To determine their initial and post-program perceptions towards multilingualism, an adopted version of the PPLI questionnaire (Thompson, 2013) was administered. Finally, two semi-structured interviews were conducted with selected participants, whose L2 contact amount ranged from the least to most, to determine their L2 use patterns, contextual experiences, type of interlocutors, and perceptions towards multilingualism. Each instrument utilized is described in the relevant subsection below.

Oral Elicited Imitation Test (EIT)

The current study utilized an EIT (Ortega et al., 1999) to determine pre-departure proficiency levels of the participants. The EIT is a test of elicited oral production from aural stimuli delineated as model sentences. The format of EIT to be utilized corresponds to the use of a standard test of sentences in an order from lowest to highest number of syllables (see Appendix A). The sentences used in the test come from the original EIT from Ortega et al. (1999). Using the audio software, Audacity, a native speaker of English was digitally recorded reading the sentences at a normal speed. Following Bowden (2007) and Tracy-Ventura *et al.* (2014),

additional features were inserted to the recording. First, a two-second pause function was inserted after each sentence. Also, a half second cue signaled the time when repetition should start after the pause. The length of the response time was determined by a total of two time factors: (1) the time it takes the native speaker to utter the sentence and (2) extra time depending on the number of syllables in each sentence. The final EIT administration took approximately 9 minutes and 15 seconds including the 1-minute 44 seconds of instruction and practice session (Tracy-Ventura et al., 2014).

Regarding the theoretical foundations of EIT, Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) highlight the significance of the procedure on the assumption that "if the sentence is too long, a participant's short-term memory will be taxed and consequently the participant will be unable to repeat the sentence by rote" (p. 28). Therefore, what is expected is participants' understanding the sentence and reconstructing it using their own grammars (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991). Accordingly, it has been argued that EIT is a reliable oral proficiency measure as it provides an accurate picture of participants' interlanguage. Namely, test takers must have the target structures in their interlanguage in order to be able to repeat the sentences accurately (Gaillard, 2013). The rationale behind preferring EIT as a proficiency measure is that it is not as time-consuming as general proficiency tests (e.g., TOEFL, Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency, or IELTS). Also institutional proficiency tests in Turkey are not comparable considering the different subsections and a variety of lexical and morphosyntactic structures tested in the exams. To exemplify, while Ege University administers a proficiency test of reading, listening, grammar, vocabulary, and writing, Bilkent University also requires test takers to take an oral proficiency interview. Some universities also ask translation questions to measure proficiency. Therefore, to ensure construct validity and standardization, this EIT is preferred.

Considering scoring, the original rubric developed by Ortega et al. (1999) was utilized in the current study (see Appendix B for the test and permission to reperint). The scoring system includes a five-point scoring scale from 0 to 4 points. The maximum score on the test is therefore 120 points (30 sentences, 4 points each). Considering reliability, another near native English speaker coded the data from the EIT tests. After disagreements were discussed and solved, the scores were tested for inter-rater reliability, the details of which are explained later in the analysis chapter.

Oral Production Instruments

Considering oral development, the participants took part in an oral task twice as pretest and posttest. The oral task was preceded by a semi-structured biographical interview in English to serve as a warm up activity. Following the interview, the participants were given a prompt taken from the official guide to the Internet-based Test of English as a Foreign Language (ETS, 2012) and ask to talk about the topic for a minute (e.g., *What would you like to do in your free time and why?* Also, see Appendix C for a list of topics). TOEFL speaking prompts have been argued to provide a basis to gather information about learners' speaking ability related to phonetic, phonological, and suprasegmental features of their speech, as well as grammatical and lexical accuracy, fluency, and complexity (Fulcher, 2003; Ockey et al., 2015; Skehan, 2009). Depending on the speaking topic, pragmatic and sociolinguistic competence can also be determined via the use of speech acts in test takers' speech. Considering implementation, the participants answered the prompts after the 10 seconds preparation time was given, for which note taking was not allowed. Task-completion time was recorded, as well as the complete oral task time. This oral task served as both the pre and the posttest before and immediately after program completion. Finally, the data gathered from the TOEFL speaking task were imported

into and transcribed via CLAN software suite (MacWhinney, 2000) to determine CAF of participants' oral production, which is explained in the relevant subsection.

Written Production Instruments

Considering the written measure, the participants were given a computer-based composition-writing task regarding their life, past and present expectations before and immediately after the treatment period. The task required producing a paragraph of at least seven lines in a standard word processor in 15 minutes. Time-on-task was recorded for each participant. The reason behind the selection of such a topic is that it was suitable for each participant to produce in English regardless of any necessary theoretical knowledge on the topic or a domain/topic-specific lexicon (Llanes & Muñoz, 2013).

Language Interaction Questionnaire (LIQ)

Another instrument utilized in the study is a series of online Language Interaction Questionnaire (LIQ) modified from the Language Engagement Questionnaire (McManus, Mitchell, & Tracy-Ventura, 2014) and Language Contact Profile (Freed, 1990) to collect data with regard to the amount and type of L2 interaction in all three contexts (see Appendix D for LIQ). Modified and translated into Turkish by the researcher, this survey is comprised of biographical, language contact type (such as oral or written interaction, type of accommodation, and patterns of interaction, type of interlocutors), and frequency of use questions. It was also piloted during Fall 2015 with 18 L1 Turkish ERASMUS exchange participants through two administrations, each four weeks apart. Participants responded to questions regarding which languages they use on a regular basis (L1, L2, and L3 if they actively use this). For each of the languages, the questionnaire included 4 background questions (name, location, type of accommodation, and the use of any languages other than English and Turkish), 22 6-point Likert

scale type of frequency of type of activity questions in three settings: (1) on campus, (2) off-campus, and (3) online (6 - *everyday*, 5 – *four or five times a week*, 4 - *two or three times a week*, 3 – *once a week*, 2 – *once in every two weeks*, 1 – *never*), two self-reported language use frequency questions (*How many hours a day do you think you used English?* and *How many hours a day do you think you used Turkish?)*, and four open-ended questions regarding their descriptions, comments, and experiences. Using these open-ended items, they could reflect on their language use, or provide some anecdotes in the given environment. The rationale behind the implementation of this instrument was to increase sojourners' awareness about their experiences and keep track of their actual amount of language contact abroad as much as possible. This instrument was distributed every four weeks during the exchange period and once upon program completion (a total of four administrations). The results of the first distribution helped the researcher determine the participants to be interviewed during the eighth week of the program. The AH participants were given a slightly different version of the LIQ excluding the accommodation questions in order to collect data with regards to the amount of L1, L2, and L3 interaction they had during the treatment period and upon completion of the semester (a total of four administrations). Given the affordances of the Internet, it was hypothesized that the AH participants would have various amounts and types of interaction in the L2 though not as much as the SA and ELFSA participants. Finally, this instrument was designed and administered via Google Forms.

Multilingualism and PPLI Questionnaire (PPLIQ)

Another instrument administered was an online questionnaire about participants' perceptions towards multilingualism and their PPLI status (see Appendix E for PPLIQ). Following Thompson (2013; 2016), this questionnaire was comprised of 12 binary items

(responding as Yes or No) and two open-ended questions about participants' perceptions about language interaction. This instrument was designed and administered via Google Forms both before and after the treatment period. The notion of PPLI and participants' perceptions toward multilingualism were also explored via semi-structured interviews.

Semi-Structured Interviews

Considering purposes of triangulation, semi-structured interviews (see Appendix F for questions) were conducted with participants whose LIQ scores varied from the least frequent to most frequent. The language for the interviews was Turkish on grounds that the use of the native language would help participants share their voices without the pressure of performing in the L2. Also, Turkish was preferred depending on the fact that it was the shared native language between the researcher and the participants (Thompson, 2013). The interview questions were designed to collect information pertaining to participants' language learning experiences in the given context, as well as their language contact profiles and perceptions towards multilingualism from a PPLI perspective. These interviews were conducted with two SA, two ELFSA, and two AH participants through Skype twice: once in the middle of the treatment period (week eight) and once upon program completion. The rationale behind the inclusion of semi-structured interviews was their flexibility to generate additional questions and bring further insights to the topics under investigation (Schauer, 2009). Such interviews could also be employed as a retrospective report on behalf of the participants (Schauer, 2009). Although there were several guiding questions in the interviews, the participants were also given the opportunity to freely reflect on their experiences.

Data Collection Procedures

The current study was reviewed and approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at the University of South Florida (USF). Permission letters were collected from the participating universities before the IRB process. A recruitment email was sent to the ERASMUS coordinator of each university. Personal communication with department chairs was also helpful accelerating the recruitment process. Flyers were also used to recruit participants. The data collection procedures started in September 2015 and finished as of December 2015.

After the recruitment process finished, the participants were first randomly given the oral and written tasks (the order of task administration) to avoid task effects, right before the experimental period started. Both oral and written procedures were timed and the spoken data were recorded. All the measures were repeated at the end of the experimental period. The LIQ was administered every four weeks during the treatment period and once upon completion of the program using Google Forms. Finally, the online PPLIQ was administered to all three groups via Google Forms right before the treatment period and once again upon program completion. The semi-structured Skype interviews were conducted with a total of six participants (two from each group) during week eight and upon completion of the program. The interviewees were selected based on their L2 contact frequencies determined via the first online LIQ. The data were collected during Spring 2016 (January 2016 – June 2016).

Data Analysis Procedures

The data collected via the aforementioned instruments were analyzed within a mixed-methods *two-phase sequential explanatory* research design (Creswell, 2003). Following such a design, the collection of quantitative data provided the basis for collecting qualitative data (Cameron, 2009). To this end, the data from the quantitative questionnaires and measures of

linguistic development were collected before the qualitative interviews and open-ended questionnaire items. Both quantitative and qualitative research paradigms addressed in the study encompassed a series of data collection, organization, management, and analysis procedures. Table 6 depicts the relationship among research questions, data sources, and analysis procedures:

Table 1. *Relationship among Research Questions, Data Sources, and Analysis Procedures*

Research Questions	Analysis Procedures	Data Sources
RQ1: How do the three learning contexts compare in terms of language use, types of activities and interlocutors, and *Perceived Positive Language Interaction* (PPLI, Thompson, 2013) in light of the Language Interaction Questionnaire (LIQ) and the *Perceived Positive Language Interaction* Questionnaire (PPLIQ)?	Quantitative: Descriptive statistics for the LIQ and PPLIQ data Qualitative: Content analysis of the open-ended items from the two questionnaires	The LIQ The PPLIQ The open-ended items in each
RQ2: To what extent does the learning context (SA, ELFSA, and AH) have an effect on oral and written performance of English as measured by fluency, accuracy, and syntactic and lexical complexity development over time?	Quantitative: A series of two-way mixed ANOVAs on the results of the oral and written tests in which participants are grouped according to their context.	TOEFL Prompts speaking test and the computer-based composition writing task through CAF
RQ 3: What do some individual participants' self-reported experiences reveal about L2 development in the three learning contexts in relation to language use, interlocutor type, and perceptions towards multilingualism from a PPLI perspective?	Qualitative: Content analysis of the data from the semi-structured interviews Quantitative: Descriptive statistics for individual oral and written performance CAF	The semi-structured interviews and individual oral and written task scores

To merge the data from quantitative and qualitative instruments, an embedded approach was adopted (Cameron, 2009; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). Therefore, both types of data were analyzed separately, the results of which were embedded and merged during interpretation. In the current study, qualitative results were embedded within the results of the quantitative data to ensure triangulation and confirmation of the findings of the quantitative data. In the following section, the details of the data analysis procedures are depicted.

Quantitative Data Analysis

Firstly, the data from the oral and written tasks were transcribed and coded into the CHAT (Codes for the Human Analyses of Transcripts) format following annotation conventions by Hilton (2009) via CLAN (Computerized Language Analysis, MacWhinney, 2000) to facilitate measures of fluency, accuracy, and complexity (CAF). Following Skehan (2009) and Tavakoli and Skehan (2005), oral fluency was determined through utterance fluency measures which were categorized as (1) speed fluency, (2) breakdown fluency, (3) and repair fluency. Accordingly, the measures calculated are described in Table 2:

Table 2. *Fluency Measures*

Type of Fluency	Measures
Speed Fluency	(1) Pruned speech rate (the total number of words excluding words used in disfluent production divided by total production time in seconds, W/T
Breakdown Fluency	(2) The total duration of silent and filled pauses longer than .250 milliseconds divided by the total time expressed in seconds, P/T
Repair Fluency	(3) The total number of disfluencies as determined by the number of repetitions, retraces, and reformulations divided by total time expressed in seconds and multiplied by 60, D/T

Adapted from Skehan (2009) and Tavakoli and Skehan (2005)

Overall, utterance fluency was analyzed quantitatively through systematic comparison of speed, breakdown, and repair phenomena in the speech samples collected in English. In terms of reliability, another researcher fluent in Turkish and English also coded the data. Any incongruent areas of coding were reviewed and revised based on the discussion with the other inter-coder.

Considering written fluency, the total number of words divided by total task completion time in minutes (W/M) was determined via CLAN. As for lexical complexity for oral and written production, D measure (MacWhinney, 2000) was calculated for each participant's performance. In regards to written complexity, clauses per T-unit (CL/TU) were analyzed. As for oral complexity, clauses per analysis of speech (AS) unit (CL/ASU) were determined. Finally, errors per T-unit (ERR/TU) were determined for oral and written accuracy.

The data from the EIT were scored using the original rubric from Ortega et al. (1999) (see Appendix B for the rubric). The scoring system included a five-point scoring scale from 0 to 4 points. The maximum score on the test was therefore 120 points (30 sentences, 4 points each). Considering reliability, another near native English speaker coded the data from the EIT tests. After disagreements were discussed and resolved, the scores were tested for inter-rater reliability and the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was determined as .971 (Field, 2013).

As for statistical measures, the data set was first tested for assumptions to violations of analysis of variance (ANOVA), such as normality of distribution and homogeneity of variance. Also, descriptive statistics were provided to determine group means as well as standard deviations, which served as dependent variables for inferential procedures. To discern the intragroup and intergroup development over time, a serious of two-way mixed between-within subjects ANOVAs were utilized to discuss the influence of context on linguistic development (Field, 2013).

Following these procedures, the data from the LIQ and PPLIQ were analyzed for descriptive statistics, frequencies, and mean scores. Considering item reliability of the questionnaire data, Cronbach's alpha coefficient was determined beforehand for LIQ (.972). The quantitative analyses were performed via the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 23.

Qualitative Data Analysis

All the qualitative data were first translated from Turkish to English and later back-translated to English by the researcher. The interviews and the open-ended items from the LIQs and PPLIQ were transcribed verbatim and manually coded for emergent themes following the principles of content analysis to answer RQ 1 and RQ3 (Patton, 2002; Saldaña, 2012).

Accordingly, the transcriptions were first analyzed through initial open coding, which helped the researcher create a coding-scheme based on the emerging categories for the textual data. By means of a second round of coding using the coding scheme (see Appendix G), new connections were made between the categories determined via the initial open coding, which enabled the researcher to conceptually group codes of similar content (Saldaña, 2012). Therefore, the previously determined similar concepts and patterns recognized were grouped together in a way to report the themes emerged. To ensure reliability and increase validity of the analysis, another researcher fluent in Turkish and English independently coded the qualitative data. Accordingly, the incongruent areas of thematic coding were reviewed and revised based on the discussion with inter-coders. The coding scheme was discussed with the inter-coder. Considering trustworthiness, the researcher included a reflective statement in which she clarified her stance and positionality as she put emphasis on the reflexive process following the notion of researcher-as-instrument (Janesick, 1998). Also, through member-checking, which is a way of sustained collaboration with the interviewees, the researcher endeavored to cater for validity and reliability, especially after the coding procedures were done to ensure descriptive validity of the content and authenticity of the work (Duff, 2008). Interviewees' comments on the analysis and discussion with the inter-coder served as a check on the accuracy and validity of the interpretation.

The Researcher's Role

In the current study, the researcher's role embraces the one of an insider and an outsider. First of all, her personal experience as an undergraduate student who majored in English at a Turkish public university allows her to understand the dynamics of the AH context. She has also taught tertiary level EFL at several public universities in Turkey for more than 10 years, which

enables her to have an insider perspective with regard to curricular issues and dynamics of pedagogical and methodological preferences at a typical Turkish higher institution. The challenges of teaching and learning English in the given setting are familiar concepts to the researcher, which is anticipated to bring further insights into the areas under investigation.

However, she has not participated in the ERASMUS program as an undergraduate, which also encompasses her outsider role as an observer and researcher in the fields of SLA and Applied Linguistics. Throughout the study, she recruited participants, collected data through several instruments, conducted semi-structured interviews with selected participants, translated relevant materials from Turkish to English and vice versa, analyzed and interpreted the data, and reported the results. Her roles as an insider and an outsider guided her throughout the conduct of research to make reliable connections between the familiar (AH) and unfamiliar (SA and ELFSA) settings of the study. Her outsider role with limited first-hand experience with the SA and ELFSA contexts enabled objective interpretation of the phenomena under investigation. In addition, her personal background in learning multiple languages was anticipated to bring further insights and clearer connections between participants' PPLI statuses and their perceptions towards multilingualism. Her first-hand experience with the broad context of Turkish EFL learning and teaching setting contributed to pedagogical implications of the current study.

Conclusion

Considering the significance and the design of the study, it should be noted that the variables under investigation with the given population have not been previously investigated, to the knowledge of the researcher. Thus, this study aims to investigate the effects of three different learning contexts (SA, ELFSA, and AH) on linguistic developments and perceptions towards multilingualism from a PPLI viewpoint over a semester of instruction, along with referring to the

frequency and quality of L2 contact available in each context. Motivated by the empirical gap in the corresponding literature with regards to the dearth of similar studies in varied contexts with differentiated populations, the current study attempted to shed light on the unstudied case of Turkish undergraduates in three contexts from an SLA perspective. Operationalizing the SA context by dividing it into two categories as TL (where the TL was the official language) and ELF (where the TL was the lingua franca – not the official language), the present study attempted to bring further insights into the areas of SLA and Applied Linguistics pertaining to the role of linguistic environment on foreign language acquisition. The results of the study were anticipated to be of use to those who design SA curricula and other exchange programs. Also, to make the most of the SA experience, potential sojourners might make different decisions as to program selection, accommodation, and interaction opportunities in the L2.

CHAPTER IV:

DATA ANALYSIS

This study quantitatively investigated the influence of learning context on participants' oral and written development of L2 English as determined by measures of complexity, accuracy, and fluency (CAF) over a 16-week-semester. Additionally, the differences and similarities among the three learning contexts were comparatively explored both through quantitative and qualitative data analysis procedures.

The current study aims to investigate the following research questions:

1. How do the three learning contexts compare in terms of language use, types of activities and interlocutors, and *Perceived Positive Language Interaction* (PPLI, Thompson, 2013) in light of the Language Interaction Questionnaire (LIQ) and the *Perceived Positive Language Interaction* Questionnaire (PPLIQ)?
2. To what extent does the learning context (SA, ELFSA, and AH) have an effect on oral and written performance of English as measured by fluency, accuracy, and syntactic and lexical complexity development over time?
3. What do some individual participants' self-reported experiences reveal about L2 development in the three learning contexts in relation to language use, interlocutor type, and perceptions towards multilingualism from a PPLI perspective?

The Overview of the Study

This study was conducted with 50 (38 females, 12 males) Turkish L1 English L2 undergraduate students from eight major public and private universities in Turkey, 33 of whom were Erasmus exchange students during Spring 2016. These sojourner participants were assigned to two groups as SA and ELFSA according to the native language of the host country. The SA group contained nine sojourners spending the exchange period at nine different universities in the north, midlands, and south of England. The ELFSA group included 24 sojourners spending Spring 2016 at ten different Erasmus countries where the language of the host country is one other than English (Austria, Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Greece, Italy, Poland, Portugal, and The Netherlands), yet the medium of instruction was English. Finally, the third participant group AH contained 17 students majoring in American Culture and Literature at a university in Western Turkey, who did not attend the Erasmus program. The mean age of all participants was 22 (ranged between 20 and 26).

The treatment period lasted for a 16-week academic semester. A quasi-experimental pre and post-test design was followed to collect the performance and interview data. The instruments administered included an Elicited Imitation Test (EIT, Ortega et al., 1999), oral and written performance tasks, language interaction questionnaires (LIQs), *Perceived Positive Language Interaction* Questionnaire (PPLIQ) and semi-structured interviews. The EIT was utilized as a proficiency test to measure participants' initial English proficiencies. Additionally, written and oral production data were collected. A 15-minute computer-based written composition task and a one-minute oral task were administered to determine written and oral development in terms of CAF. To investigate the amount and type of L2 contact, an online questionnaire called the Language Interaction Questionnaire (LIQ, adapted from the Language Contact Profile, see Freed,

1990; Freed et al., 2004; McManus, Mitchell, & Tracy-Ventura, 2014) was administered every four weeks (a total of 4 times). To confirm some of the findings of the quantitative data, six participants selected depending on the frequency of their L2 contact amount were interviewed once four weeks after the treatment period started and once upon completion.

This chapter describes the quantitative and qualitative analyses. The research design is delineated first, drawing upon the fact that it determines the type of analyses and the statistical tests to be employed (Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991). Accordingly, this *non-phase sequential explanatory* (Creswell, 2003) design of the present study required the collection of quantitative data to provide the basis for collecting qualitative data. As for the quantitative data analyzed, the experimental design of this study includes a single between-group variable, the learning context, with three levels (SA, ELFSA, and AH) and within-group variables, L2 gains over time, with two levels (pre and post). Table 3 summarizes the experimental design.

Table 3. *Experimental Design of the Study*

Between-Group Factor	Within-Group Factor L2 Oral and Written Development (CAF Gains)	
	Pre-test	Post-test
SA (Study Abroad) Context: England	The SA Group	The SA Group
ELFSA (English as lingua franca) Context: A European country whose L1 is other than English	The ELFSA Group	The ELFSA Group
AH (At Home) Context: Turkey	The AH Group	The AH Group

Note. CAF = Complexity, accuracy, and fluency

The results from the quantitative and qualitative analyses are incorporated and illustrated first to describe the three contexts and later to explore the effects of learning contexts on L2 development over a semester of instruction. The general belief that the SA context where the

official language is the TL (here, England) would provide the most beneficial environment for TL practice development is thus explored in this study.

Analysis of the Quantitative and Qualitative Data

The data from the EIT, pre and post oral and written production tasks, the Likert-scale items in the LIQs, and the dichotomous items in the PPLIQs were analyzed quantitatively. The EIT was scored by the researcher and another English proficient rater following the rubric adopted from Ortega et al. (1999) and Tracy-Ventura et al. (2014) (see Appendix B). Considering reliability, Cronbach's Alpha coefficients were calculated to determine both item reliability (.962) and the inter-scorer reliability of the EIT (.971). Also, the LIQ items were tested for reliability by computing again Cronbach's Alpha coefficient (.900) for the instrument.

The data from the production tests were first transcribed into CLAN following CHAT transcription conventions (MacWhinney, 2000) and analyzed to determine measures of CAF. Later, the data from the quantitative instruments were transferred into Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 23 for further analysis.

All quantitative data were first analyzed for descriptive statistics to determine means and standard deviations. To determine which type of inferential statistics to utilize in the analysis, a series of preliminary analyses was conducted with the EIT scores and CAF measures. Accordingly, upon determining the type of statistical test to compare the treatment groups' performances over a semester, the data were tested for violations of assumptions to equality of variances and normality of distribution for a two-way mixed ANOVA (including one within-subjects and one-between subjects independent variable), which was utilized to see if there was a significant effect of context on oral and written development of the participants as measured by CAF. Finally qualitative data from the open-ended items in LIQs, PPLIQs and the semi-

structured interviews, which were transcribed verbatim and manually coded for emergent themes by the researcher and an inter-coder, were analyzed following content analysis conventions (Creswell, 2003; Patton, 2002; Saldaña, 2012). After an initial coding, similar content was conceptually grouped to report the emergent themes (Saldaña, 2012). Accordingly, the quantitative and qualitative data are presented in two subsections to explore (1) contextual differences also encompassing issues of multilingualism through PPLI and (2) L2 development across contexts.

RQ1 – Contextual Comparisons

This study included three learning contexts to determine L2 performance differences over an academic semester of 16 weeks: 1) the study abroad (SA, where the official language was English, here England), 2) the English as lingua franca study abroad (ELFSA, various European countries where the official language is one other than English), and 3) the at home foreign language context (AH, here Turkey). Empirical research has shown that contextual differences might account for differentiated results in L2 development in a way to indicate the link between the amount and type of L2 contact and L2 gains (Collentine, 2009; Freed, 2009). Therefore, to determine if there were differences in L2 use patterns as well as types of L2 interlocutor and how L2 learners interacted with the TL across contexts, a series of LIQs were administered. The open-ended items in the LIQs and the semi-structured interview data (for RQ3) were also utilized to shed light upon these issues. Therefore, the analysis of the LIQ data and the related qualitative data are presented below.

Analysis of the Language Interaction Questionnaire (LIQ)

In order to determine how much and what type of L2 contact the participants had over a semester in the three different learning contexts, four LIQs were administered, each aiming to investigate monthly use of English and Turkish through a variety of use and exposure types to the L2 (e.g., listening, speaking, writing, reading). It also included items to determine the different types of interlocutors (e.g., native or non-native speakers of the TL). This questionnaire included 4 background questions (name, location, type of accommodation, and the use of any languages other than English and Turkish), 22 6-point Likert scale type of frequency of type of activity questions (6 - everyday, 5 – four or five times a week, 4 - two or three times a week, 3 – once a week, 2 – once in every two weeks, 1 – never), two self-reported language use frequency questions (How many hours a day do you think you used English? and How many hours a day do you think you used Turkish?), and four open-ended questions regarding their descriptions, comments, and experiences.

Before assessing the LIQ for descriptive statistics, the scale was tested for reliability. The results of the analysis indicated that the instrument had a high reliability rate with a Cronbach's alpha of .900. In other words, the internal consistency of the items in the instrument were highly related and designed to measure the phenomena under investigation (here, language contact and interlocutor type) in a way to increase scale reliability. The descriptive statistics for the English (L2) use and Turkish (L1) use are represented in Tables 4 and 5 below. As a reminder, the higher the mean score, the more participants reported participating in the activities. Also, the items in the table are shortened for readers' ease, for the full versions of the LIQ please see Appendix E.

Table 4. *Descriptive Statistics for the Likert-Scale Items in the LIQ for English (L2) Use*

	Time 1						Time 2						Time 3						Time 4					
	SA (n = 9)		ELFSA (n = 24)		AH (n = 17)		SA (n = 8)		EFLSA (n =24)		AH (n = 16)		SA (n = 8)		ELFSA (n = 24)		AH (n = 16)		SA (n = 8)		ELFSA (n = 24)		AH (n = 15)	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
listen to English for leisure	4.33	1.73	5.33	.92	5.19	1.22	4.63	1.30	5.25	.90	5.38	.81	5.00	1.20	5.46	.83	5.37	1.20	5.25	.89	5.42	.88	5.73	.59
surf the Internet in English	5.22	1.39	5.04	1.00	5.13	.89	4.37	1.06	5.33	.96	5.38	.72	5.25	.71	5.25	.85	5.44	.81	5.13	.99	5.21	1.02	5.60	.74
use social media in English	3.67	1.80	4.71	1.55	4.56	1.82	4.00	1.85	5.00	1.25	4.81	1.64	3.75	1.83	5.00	1.44	5.13	1.41	4.00	1.85	5.00	1.18	4.87	1.68
email in English	4.00	.87	4.63	1.44	3.06	1.65	4.50	.93	4.33	1.20	2.94	1.53	4.25	1.04	4.25	1.11	3.31	1.54	4.38	1.30	4.46	1.18	3.27	1.44
listen to English for school	5.11	.93	3.96	1.55	4.00	1.55	4.25	1.16	4.13	.99	4.25	1.34	4.00	1.31	3.83	1.24	4.50	1.59	3.62	.92	3.87	.95	4.73	1.39
read English for for school	4.67	1.00	4.13	1.33	5.06	1.00	4.63	1.06	4.25	.90	4.63	1.02	4.38	.92	4.29	1.00	4.88	1.09	4.63	.92	4.33	.92	5.20	1.01
read English for leisure	3.67	1.58	4.00	1.50	4.38	1.59	3.13	1.13	4.21	1.18	4.75	1.13	3.88	1.13	4.21	1.35	4.44	1.26	3.63	.92	4.33	1.55	4.67	1.45
write English for school	3.78	1.09	3.25	1.36	3.13	1.20	4.13	.83	3.71	1.00	3.87	1.31	4.13	.83	3.54	1.02	4.38	1.50	4.38	1.06	3.63	.97	4.53	.99
write English for leisure	3.00	1.80	4.42	1.77	2.94	1.61	3.50	1.51	4.21	1.64	3.31	1.62	3.88	1.46	3.96	1.60	3.19	1.64	3.75	1.58	4.25	1.96	3.40	1.40
use English in personal talks and meetings	3.67	1.80	5.46	.72	3.06	1.84	5.13	1.36	5.13	1.42	3.50	1.75	5.25	1.39	5.08	1.10	2.81	1.47	5.38	1.41	5.29	.86	2.93	1.39
use English when communicating with locals	5.00	1.12	5.17	1.24	1.69	1.40	5.50	.76	4.88	1.33	1.75	1.53	5.13	.83	4.87	1.45	1.62	1.20	5.13	1.13	4.50	1.47	1.73	1.58
Overall M AND *SD*	**4.19**	**1.37**	**4.55**	**1.31**	**3.84**	**1.43**	**4.34**	**1.18**	**4.58**	**1.16**	**4.05**	**1.31**	**4.45**	**1.15**	**4.52**	**1.18**	**4.10**	**1.34**	**4.48**	**1.18**	**4.57**	**1.18**	**4.24**	**1.24**
**English use hours*	3.44	1.94	5.29	3.20	4.69	3.61	4.75	3.11	4.90	3.28	5.75	3.94	4.88	3.40	4.77	3.19	5.94	3.77	4.50	3.42	5.13	2.75	6.00	3.98

Note. * This item is of hourly basis, not Likert-scale. AH = At home. ELFSA = English as lingua franca Study Abroad. SA = Study Abroad, *M* = Mean. *SD* = Standard deviation, n = number of participants

Table 5. Descriptive Statistics for the Likert-Scale Items in the LIQ for Turkish (L1) Use

	Time 1						Time 2						Time 3						Time 4					
	SA (n = 9)		ELFSA (n = 24)		AH (n = 17)		SA (n = 8)		EFLSA (n =24)		AH (n = 16)		SA (n = 8)		ELFSA (n = 24)		AH (n = 16)		SA (n = 8)		ELFSA (n = 24)		AH (n = 15)	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
listen to Turkish for leisure	3.56	2.07	3.83	1.58	4.81	1.28	3.88	1.64	3.17	1.40	4.69	1.54	4.50	1.69	3.17	1.17	4.75	1.48	4.88	1.36	3.83	1.27	5.13	1.51
surf the Internet in Turkish	4.78	1.72	5.38	1.01	5.69	.60	4.63	1.77	5.12	1.26	5.63	.72	4.75	1.58	4.92	1.28	5.75	.68	5.25	1.39	5.46	.98	5.60	1.12
use social media in Turkish	5.22	.97	5.17	1.13	5.31	1.14	5.25	1.39	4.54	1.82	5.44	1.36	5.50	1.07	4.75	1.51	6.00	.00	5.00	1.41	5.21	1.22	5.67	1.29
email in Turkish	3.56	1.81	3.21	1.56	4.06	1.61	3.50	1.77	3.38	1.44	4.50	1.21	3.88	1.64	3.50	1.50	4.69	1.45	3.63	1.69	3.13	1.26	4.87	1.41
listen to Turkish for school	1.44	.53	1.21	.59	3.38	1.82	1.50	1.07	1.42	.78	2.75	1.44	2.50	1.77	1.38	.92	2.75	1.39	1.63	1.06	1.42	.78	3.33	1.68
read Turkish for school	2.00	1.58	2.08	1.32	3.73	1.79	1.88	1.36	2.25	1.33	3.31	1.54	2.25	1.67	1.96	.86	3.25	1.39	1.88	1.73	1.71	1.00	3.80	1.78
read Turkish for leisure	3.00	1.73	4.46	1.53	5.19	1.05	3.50	1.31	4.33	1.31	5.00	1.21	4.13	1.89	4.33	1.49	4.75	1.34	3.50	2.20	4.58	1.64	5.00	1.36
write Turkish for school	1.67	1.66	1.29	1.04	2.75	1.84	1.75	1.75	1.29	.75	2.50	1.41	1.63	1.77	1.38	.65	2.19	1.60	1.63	1.77	1.33	.70	2.73	1.75
write Turkish for leisure	2.78	1.30	4.54	1.38	4.69	1.70	3.63	2.13	4.50	1.29	4.81	1.68	3.63	2.07	4.13	1.51	4.50	1.86	4.38	1.77	4.96	1.37	4.73	1.79
use Turkish in personal talks and meetings	5.22	1.56	5.33	.82	5.88	.50	5.00	1.51	5.33	.92	5.63	1.02	5.00	.93	5.21	1.28	5.50	1.03	5.38	.92	5.42	.83	5.73	.70
use Turkish when communicating with locals	2.11	1.96	2.08	1.64	5.88	.50	1.38	.74	1.67	.82	5.94	.25	1.13	.35	2.12	1.36	5.63	1.02	1.25	.46	1.92	1.13	5.73	1.03
Overall M AND *SD*	**3.21**	**1.54**	**3.51**	**1.24**	**4.67**	**1.26**	**3.26**	**1.49**	**3.36**	**1.19**	**4.56**	**1.22**	**3.54**	**1.49**	**3.35**	**1.23**	**4.52**	**1.20**	**3.49**	**1.43**	**3.54**	**1.11**	**4.76**	**1.40**
**Turkish use hours*	5.39	4.91	3.04	1.94	13.19	6.64	5.06	3.32	3.44	2.13	13.19	5.67	3.94	2.04	3.40	2.29	14.00	6.29	4.31	2.49	3.83	2.90	12.93	5.68

Note. * This item is of hourly basis, not Likert-scale. AH = At home. ELFSA = English as lingua franca Study Abroad. SA = Study Abroad, *M* = Mean. *SD* = Standard deviation, n = number of participants

As for each type of activity per group, the SA reported to listen to something in the L2 for leisure more over time (Time 1 - *M* = 4.33, *SD* = 1.73, Time 4 - *M* = 5.25, *SD* = .89). The amount reported for using English when surfing the Internet, using social media, and emailing were quite the same across the four administration times for both sojourn groups. Pertaining to listening to the L2 in academic settings (e.g., lectures), interestingly the means gradually decreased over time with Time 1 being the highest (Time 1 - *M* = 5.11, *SD* = .93, Time 4 - *M* = 3.62, *SD* = .92). Reading in the L2 for leisure and for academic purposes was similar across the four administration times. Comparably, writing in the L2 for leisure and for academic purposes was quite the same over time; yet, it was found to be the least frequent type of activity for the SA group. Finally, speaking in the L2 for personal talks and meetings (Time 1 - *M* = 3.67, *SD* = 1.80, Time 4 - *M* = 5.38, *SD* = 1.41) and when communicating with locals (Time 1 - *M* = 5.00, *SD* = 1.12, Time 4 - *M* = 5.13, *SD* = 1.13) were the most frequent type of L2 activity reported in the context with lowest means reported in the first administration with an increasing trend through Time 2, 3, and 4.

The ELFSA group had a similar pattern of L2 use as the SA. The frequency pattern was also quite the same over time for most activities except for using the L2 when communicating with locals which had a decreasing trend over time (Time 1 - *M* = 5.17, *SD* = 1.24, Time 4 - *M* = 4.50, *SD* = 1.47). Their learning the L3 in time to be able to communicate using some basic daily chunks (e.g., to ask for prices) might have altered these results. Their Internet use frequency in the L2, such as surfing (Time 1 - *M* = 5.04, *SD* = 1.00, Time 4 - *M* = 5.21, *SD* = 1.02), social media (Time 1 - *M* = 4.71, *SD* = 1.55, Time 4 - *M* = 5.00, *SD* = 1.18), and emailing (Time 1 - *M* = 4.33, *SD* = 1.20, Time 4 - *M* = 4.46, *SD* = 1.18) was similar to those of the SA, and also showed an increasing trend over time for all. They reported to listen to lectures in the L2

similarly less frequently over time (Time 1 - *M* = 3.96, *SD* = 1.55, Time 4 - *M* = 3.87, *SD* = .95) like the SA participants. Similar to the other sojourn group, writing for leisure in the L2 was found to be the lowest frequently engaged activity in the L2 (Time 1 - *M* = 3.25, *SD* = 1.36, Time 4 - *M* = 3.63, *SD* = .97). The ELFSA reported to write more in the L2 for leisure as compared to the SA (Time 1 - *M* = 4.42, *SD* = 1.77, Time 4 - *M* = 4.25, *SD* = 1.96). Finally, the ELFSA group also reported to use English for personal talks and meetings more than the SA, yet quite similar in frequency across the four administration times (Time 1 - *M* = 5.46, *SD* = .72, Time 4 - *M* = 5.29, *SD* = .86).

Considering the AH group, their L2 use pattern was different than the sojourn groups. For instance, more than the sojourn groups, this group reported to listen to (Time 1 - *M* = 4.00, *SD* = 1.55, Time 4 - *M* = 4.73, *SD* = 1.39) and read in the L2 for academic purposes (Time 1 - *M* = 4.38, *SD* = 1.59, Time 4 - *M* = 4.67, *SD* = 1.45) with an increasing trend over time. Although they had the least frequency of writing in the L2 for leisure and academic purposes compared to the other two groups, they had an increasing trend for the latter in the last two administration times (Time 1 - *M* = 3.13, *SD* = 1.20, Time 4 - *M* = 4.53, *SD* = .99). Considering the fact that this group's participants were language majors enrolled for 18 credit hours per semester, these differences in listening, reading, and writing are meaningful. Yet, as expected, the AH participants reported to speak in the L2 less than the sojourn groups, typical of their contexts which lacked interaction opportunities in the L2 as compared to the sojourn groups.

The overall mean scores across the four different administration times indicated that the ELFSA group (Time 1 - *M* = 4.55, *SD* = 1.18, Time 2 - *M* = 4.58, *SD* = 1.16, Time 3 - *M* = 4.52, *SD* = 1.18, Time 4 - *M* = 4.57, *SD* = 1.18) had the highest means for all types of L2 English activities followed by the SA and AH. In terms of the self-reported hourly use of English, the

AH had the highest use in the second, third, and fourth administrations (Time 2 - *M* = 5.75, *SD* = 3.94, Time 3 - *M* = 5.94, *SD* = 3.77, Time 4 - *M* = 6.00, *SD* = 3.98), though ELFSA reported to use English more than the other groups in the first LIQ (Time 1 - *M* = 5.29, *SD* = 3.20).

Pertaining to Turkish use over the four administration times, all groups reported similar frequencies for speaking for personal talks and meetings with the AH, ELFSA, and SA in order of L1 use frequency (overall values for AH *M* = 5.69, *SD* = .81; for ELFSA *M* = 5.32, *SD* = .96; SA *M* = 5.15, *SD* = 1.23). As anticipated, the sojourn groups had the lowest frequency for Turkish use when communicating with locals with a decreasing trend over time (For SA Time 1 - *M* = 2.11, *SD* = 1.96, Time 4 - *M* = 1.25, *SD* = .46; for ELFSA Time 1 - *M* = 2.08, *SD* =1.64, Time 4 - *M* = 1.92, *SD* = 1.13). Both sojourn groups reported to listen to, read, and write in Turkish less than the AH group. Nonetheless, Internet use frequencies were similar across the three contexts. Overall, the AH group had the highest mean scores in all four LIQs (Time 1 - *M* = 4.67, *SD* = 1.26, Time 2 - *M* = 4.56, *SD* = 1.22, Time 3 - *M* = 4.52, *SD* =1.20, Time 4 - *M* = 4.56, *SD* = 1.40). They were followed by the ELFSA and SA in terms of L1 use. Only the third administration time, the use of L1 in the SA group was slightly higher than the ELFSA. As for self-reported hourly use of Turkish, the AH group (Time 1 - *M* = 13.19, *SD* = 6.04, Time 2 - *M* = 13.19, *SD* = 5.67, Time 3 - *M* = 14.00, *SD* = 6.29, Time 4 - *M* = 12.93, *SD* = 5.68) had the highest means in hours followed by the SA and ELFSA across all four times of administration. The descriptive statistics concerning the 6-point Likert scale items in the LIQ for Turkish (L1) use is represented in Table 10.

In order to investigate the most frequently occurring activity type in both English and Turkish, mean scores for listening, reading, writing, Internet use, and speaking were computed across four administration times. The results indicated that in terms of speaking, the sojourner

groups used more English than the AH group. For instance, the ELFSA group had a mean score of 5.05 (*SD* = .88) out of a 6-point Likert scale questionnaire, and the SA group similarly had a mean score of 4.92 (*SD* = .87) in L2 speaking (combined means and SDs across four administration times for items "*How often did you use English in personal talks and meetings?*" and "*How often did you use English when communicating with locals?"*). As might be expected, the AH group reported to have less interaction through speaking (*M* = 2.43, *SD* = 1.22, combined means and SDs across four administration times for the same two items) than the sojourners. Other types of activities, such as listening, reading, and writing were quite similar among the three groups over the four different administration times. Accordingly, the most frequent type of activity was found to be listening as being equally high in means across the SA (*M* = 4.61, *SD* = .91), ELFSA (*M* = 4.66, *SD* = .66), and AH *(M* = 4,89, *SD* = .94) groups. With regards to whom they interacted with, the last LIQ section included six additional 6-point Likert scale questions aiming at measuring the frequency of contact with native or non-native speakers of English ("*How often did you interact with L1 English faculty or officers on campus?*", "*How often did you interact with L1 English friends?*", *"How often did you interact with L1 English locals?*", and the same questions with L2 English academics, friends, or locals). The descriptive statistics indicated that the SA group (*M* = 4.71, *SD* = .68) interacted with native English speakers much more than the ELFSA (*M* = 1.86, *SD* = .90) and AH (*M* = 1.42, *SD* = .46) groups. Considering interaction with non-native speakers of English, the ELFSA group had the highest interaction rate (*M* = 4.64, *SD* = .71) followed by the SA (*M* = 3.95, *SD* = .52) and the AH (*M* = 2.49, *SD* = .42). Finally regarding self-reported hourly English use per day, the three groups had quite similar uses, with AH having reported the highest use (*M* = 5.62, *SD* = 3.47) than the ELFSA (*M* = 4.92, *SD* = 2.88) and SA (*M* = 4.17, *SD* = 3.47). Table 6 summarizes

types and amount of interaction in English over the four different LIQs.

Table 6. Descriptive Statistics for Types of Activities in English

Interaction in English	SA (n = 7)		ELFSA (n = 24)		AH (n = 15)	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Listening	4.61	.91	4.66	.66	4.89	.94
Reading	4.19	.81	4.22	.82	4.74	.88
Writing	3.74	.83	3.87	.93	3.60	.83
Speaking	4.92	.87	5.05	.88	2.43	1.22
Internet Use	4.40	.84	4.85	.89	4.48	1.00
Overall Activities	4.37	.85	4.53	.84	4.03	.97
Native Speaker Interlocutor	4.71	.68	1.86	.90	1.42	.46
Non-Native Speaker Interlocutor	3.95	.52	4.64	.71	2.49	.42
Self-reported English Use Hours	4.17	2.71	4.92	2.88	5.62	3.47

Note. AH = At home. ELFSA = English as lingua franca Study Abroad. SA = Study Abroad. n = number of participants. *M* = mean. *SD* = standard deviation

Accordingly, the ELFSA and SA groups had the same type of activities from the most frequent to least, which are (1) speaking, (2) listening, (3) reading, and (4) writing. The only difference between the two sojourn groups was the type of interlocutor insofar as the SA participants had native-speakers the most while the ELFSA group had non-native speakers for communication. Similarly, the most frequent type of interlocutor for the AH was again non-natives. In contrast to the sojourn groups, the AH participants' type of activity frequency was as follows: (1) listening, (2) reading, (3) writing, and (4) speaking. Apparently, this group had the least opportunities to use the L2 for speaking.

Regarding the use of Turkish across four different administration times, the mean scores for different types of activities were calculated. The means and standard deviations from the AH

group were determined to be the highest among all three groups. The AH (M = 3.94, SD = 1.02), was followed by the SA in listening (M = 2.81, SD = 1.20), by the ELFSA in reading (M = 3.21, SD = .83), writing (M = 2.93, SD = .63), and speaking (M = 3.64, SD = .75). Considering Internet use in Turkish, the AH (M = 5.27, SD = .65) preceded the SA (M = 4.53, SD = 1.10) and ELFSA (M = 4.48, SD = .89). Finally as to the self-reported Turkish use in hours, the AH (M = 13.40, SD = 5.52) was followed by the SA (M = 4.31, SD = 3.14) and ELFSA (M = 3.43, SD = 2.11). As seen, the sojourn groups were not totally deprived of L1 use as they reported some amount of Turkish use. One reason is the availability of other Turkish exchange students in their contexts and the Turkish immigrants in their host countries. Also, given the technological affordances, it has been easier for sojourners to contact with their families and friends in their home countries through the Internet. Table 7 illustrates the results.

Table 7. Descriptive Statistics for Type of Activities in Turkish

Interaction in Turkish	SA (n = 7)		ELFSA (n = 24)		AH (n = 15)	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Listening	2.81	1.20	2.43	.69	3.94	1.02
Reading	2.78	1.13	3.21	.83	4.25	.98
Writing	2.53	1.40	2.93	.63	3.61	1.06
Speaking	3.21	.75	3.64	.75	5.74	.47
Internet Use	4.53	1.10	4.48	.89	5.27	.65
Overall Activities	3.17	1.12	3.34	.76	4.56	.84
Self-reported Turkish Use Hours	4.31	3.14	3.43	2.11	13.40	5.52

Note. AH = At home. ELFSA = English as lingua franca Study Abroad. SA = Study Abroad. n = number of participants. *M* = mean. *SD* = standard deviation

To sum up, the L1 use pattern among the three groups were different. Although the two sojourn groups reported to speak and use the Internet through Turkish with the highest frequency, they differed in terms of the relative fluency of listening, reading, and writing. As for

the AH group, the most frequent activity was unsurprisingly speaking, followed by Internet use, reading, listening, and writing.

Considering local opportunities to use Turkish, a dichotomous question was asked to the sojourner groups. The results indicated that 77.8% (n = 7) of the SA participants and 75% (n = 18) of the ELFSA participants had someone to use Turkish with at all times during their SA experience.

Finally, as for the use of any additional languages during the sojourning experience, the SA and ELFSA groups were asked if they used any additional languages and if yes, which language. The AH group, although included some multilingual participants, reported no local opportunities to use their L3s in their home contexts. The results indicated that only the ELFSA group had local opportunities to use mostly the host language, while the SA group reported using Turkish and English only. Table 8 illustrates these results.

Table 8. Frequencies for L3 Use

Local Opportunities to use an L3	SA (n = 9)		ELFSA (n = 24)		AH (n = 17)	
	N	*%*	*N*	*%*	*N*	*%*
Yes	0	0	14	58.3	0	0
German	0	0	6	25	0	0
Italian	0	0	4	17.3	0	0
Finnish	0	0	1	4	0	0
Polish	0	0	1	4	0	0
Greek	0	0	1	4	0	0
Danish	0	0	1	4	0	0
No	9	100	10	41.7	17	100
Total	9	100	24	100	17	100

With regards to questions about types of accommodation, frequencies were determined for the sojourner groups and are presented in Table 9. The results indicated that the most

common type of accommodation for both the SA and the ELFSA was the single dorm room. Dorms were multi-storey buildings having a large number of single, double, or multiple-occupancy rooms for students with a shared lounge/living area and a kitchen in each story. Participants in both groups also lived in student houses which were mostly one or two-story detached houses that included four rooms (one room per person) with a shared living and kitchen area. The total number of students in dormitories is much higher than those staying at student housing (e.g., 200 vs. 4 per building). Additionally, in the ERASMUS host universities, exchange students are generally given accommodation to share with other exchange students or international full time degree students to increase interaction and cooperation among them (Erasmus University of Rotterdam, 2016). Finally, only one SA participant reported to live with a host family. It should also be noted that only one SA participant reported having a Turkish flatmate in their student housing, while no ELFSA student reported sharing a dorm room or student housing with a Turkish room/flatmate.

Table 9. Number of Participants per Accommodation Type

Types of Accommodation	SA (n = 9)		ELFSA (n = 24)		Total (n = 33)
	N	*%*	*N*	*%*	
Single Dorm Room	4	44.4	10	41.7	14
Student Housing	4	44.4	9	37.5	13
Shared Dorm Room	0	0	5	20.8	5
Family	1	11.1	0	0	1
Total	9	100	24	100	33

Overall, the LIQ results indicated that English was used mostly for speaking in both sojourn contexts. Yet, for the AH context, the participants reported to be exposed to receptive input (through listening and reading) more than productive opportunities such as speaking and writing. The SA and ELFSA groups reported to have the exact order of frequency for the

different types of activities (speaking, listening, reading, writing in order of frequency). It should also be noted that both sojourn groups had to enroll for 9 credit hours of classes of which the medium of instruction is English. The Internet use frequency was quite similar across three contexts with similar frequencies (SA $M = 4.40$, $SD = .84$; ELFSA $M = 4.85$, $SD = .89$; AH $M = 4.48$, $SD = 1.00$). In terms of L1 use, the sojourn groups had similar uses seeing that the most frequent uses of L1 was first for Internet and then for speaking. The order of frequency for different activities in the L1 was different for the AH group (speaking, Internet use, reading, listening, writing in order of frequency). The use of L3, on the other hand, was prominent in the ELFSA context, which is naturally a multilingual environment for these participants. No SA or AH participants reported to have L3 contact. Finally, both sojourn groups preferred student dorms or housing for their exchange semester, where potentially social interaction was more available among fellow exchange students. Next, the qualitative data from the open-ended items in the LIQ and PPLIQ are presented in a way to shed light on the quantitative findings from the LIQ.

Contextual themes from the LIQ. The sojourner version of the LIQ included three open-ended questions: (1) 'What has been difficult for you in your new context?" (2) "What has been easy for you in your new context?" (3) and "Do you have anything else to add?" in all four administrations. The answers to these items were analyzed through content analysis to see what themes would emerge (Creswell, 2003; Saldana, 2012). The data were first transcribed and coded (see Appendix G for the coding scheme) for emergent themes through an initial round of manual open coding followed by a second round of coding to conceptually group codes and hence present emergent themes (Saldana, 2012). The results are presented according to the type of context.

The SA context. The themes emerged for the SA context can be listed as (1) the variety of English and (2) type of interlocutors for the difficult aspects; (3) no requirements for an L3 and (4) the importance of threshold proficiency as the easy aspects; (5) the disadvantage of having Turks close by and (6) emphasis on adaptation over time in their additional comments. The SA group participants all agreed that the most difficult aspect of their new context was the British accent. All 9 SA participants indicated that British people have a *heavy* accent that makes it difficult for the sojourners to understand their interlocutors. Those who spent the semester in northern parts of England stressed this issue more than those from the south. Interestingly, all the SA participants expanded on this issue with regards to whom they interact with and how fast that interlocutor spoke. In other words, they gave details regarding whose accent was thicker and more difficult to understand. Therefore, the themes emerged were related to (1) the variety of English including speech rate and forms of connected speech and (2) type of interlocutors as academics or native and non-native speakers of English also emerged as themes from the open-ended LIQ data. For example one SA participant who spent the semester in the South of England indicated in the first LIQ that:

> It is always easier to understand exchange students, and faculty members. But, it is nearly impossible to be able to communicate with native speaker locals. They have very heavy accents and speak too fast that makes it too difficult to understand what they say. They are not able to understand what I say either.

As seen in the quotation above, that sojourner was having difficulties with her native speaker local interlocutor in terms of his/her accent and speech rate. Other sojourners in the SA group seconded what the participant above said by stating that "L1 English speakers", "British friends", "native speaker classmates", or "Englishmen" had thick accents and speak so fast. Also, two SA

participants indicated that people they contacted for service encounters expected them to have native-like pronunciation as they complained about the unintelligibility of the participants' speech due to their foreign accents. Apparently, no issues of mutual intelligibility with faculty members or other exchange students emerged as additional participants commented on these types of interlocutors as "easy" to communicate with. Considering additional difficulties, some SA participants referred to cultural differences, and difficulty understanding weak forms in speech in British English (e.g., connected speech or the weak pronunciation forms for function words).

In response to the open-ended question "*What has been easy for you in your new context?"*, 8 of 9 SA sojourners referred to the use of English in all aspects of daily life although they had issues with dialects at times. In other words, the fact that "everybody is speaking English" and that "the language of instruction is English" are some of the easy aspects of their sojourn experience. They also highlighted the issues regarding their English proficiencies. "Knowing the daily chunks" or "having a good command of English" made their lives easier in the SA context. Also, 4 participants indicated that they started to understand the different accents in time. There were also easier accents. For example, it was easy to understand "other exchange students, the materials, and the faculty members", as suggested by SA participants.

Considering additional comments on their sojourn experience, the SA group referred to the issues regarding their availability to use Turkish in their new context. One participant indicated that having Turkish friends in the same school, dorm, city, or even in the country is a disadvantage preventing them from developing their L2s. In addition, the SA participants also commented on the fact that with time they became better users of English as they solved issues with understanding different accents or following fast speech.

The ELFSA context. The themes emerged for the ELFSA context can be listed as (1) the use of L3 due to fewer English speakers, (2) non-native speaker varieties of English, and (3) the local availability of too many Turks for the difficult aspects; (4) type of interlocutors as fellow sojourners (5) establishing rapport and relationships with fellow sojourners; (6) the local use of Turkish for easy aspects; and (7) having a lot of exchange student friends in additional comments. This group did not provide any additional comments regarding their contexts.

The ELFSA participants' responses to the open-ended item about difficulties were to some extent different than those of the SA group. The most frequently indicated difficulty was the fact that there were few English as an L2 speakers outside of their classes. Most ELFSA participants (n = 14) reported that campus officers and local people were not proficient English speakers and also "some insisted on talking in the local language". ELFSA sojourners indicated that different L2 accents of some of the other non-native speakers of English (such as Hindi, Chinese, French, and Spanish) and speech rate are other sources of difficulty when trying to communicate with people whose L2 is English. Having a lot of Turkish Erasmus friends was also another source of difficulty because all sojourners in the context wanted to improve their English as well as some who wanted to develop their L3s (especially those in Germany). Having more proficient speakers of English than they were was also indicated by four sojourners to be a difficulty in the ELFSA context. For example, one sojourner in this group indicated in the first LIQ that "I feel ashamed of my English when I try to talk to these native-like Dutch people". Similarly, another sojourner in Denmark stated that:

> Because everybody here in Denmark can speak English as a near native speaker, I first developed some sort of a complex and felt ashamed. This made me an introvert person for some time. It was the worst difficulty I had here.

Therefore, it might be suggested that the high proficiency levels of European L2 English speakers were a source of difficulty for some sojourners in this context at first. Yet, all the participants referring to this aspect later reported to feel more self-confident when speaking in English inasmuch as they believed to have developed their proficiency over time. One related difficulty to the high proficiency levels of Europeans was that it caused loss of interest in the local language of the host country as six participants mentioned it. For instance, one sojourner in Germany stated that "Here everybody is proficient in English. Can you imagine? I am using English even when I am talking to the grocery shop owner. I totally lost my interest in improving my German at all because of that."

Considering the comments from the ELFSA group on the easy parts of their sojourn experience, the most frequent response (from 18 sojourners) was related to having a lot of exchange student friends who can easily communicate with the participants in English. This was both because of their knowing English at a similar competence level, and also because of their using similar compensation strategies like body language as these exchange students share the same experiences in this new context with the ELFSA participants. Thus, the availability of mutual understanding among the sojourners in the context made their lives much easier. Meeting with people and starting a new friendship are also reported to be the easy aspects of the ELFSA context (10 sojourners). Additionally, having local opportunities to use Turkish when necessary was indicated to be an easy aspect, especially by the ELFSA participants in Germany (7 sojourners). One sojourner from Germany reported that:

> Germany is a very interesting country. You can find a Turk in the least expected location. Though there are way fewer Turks in my host city, sometimes I need neither German nor

> English. I think it is both the most advantageous and the worst aspect of being a sojourner here in Germany.

Similarly, a sojourner who studied in Finland indicated that he could not "go beyond learning a few greetings and daily chunks in Finnish because it is too easy to switch to English as everybody is proficient in it". Also, a few participants who were in the Netherlands for exchange commented on locals' being proficient English users as an easy aspect of their new lives, contrary to some sojourners in the same context. All in all, the ELFSA participants reported a greater variety of easy aspects of their new lives in this new context than the SA people.

SA and ELFSA after the exchange period. The major themes emerged in the last LIQ pertaining to both sojourn contexts was participants' self-perceptions regarding their development in the L2. Additionally, for the ELFSA context, development in the L3 was another theme that emerged from the data.

In the last LIQ administered upon completion of the exchange period, 16 weeks after the first LIQ, both sojourner groups (a total of 24 participants – 6 SA and 18 ELFSA) indicated that they improved their L2 proficiencies faster and rather more easily than they expected at the beginning of their exchange semester. For instance, a SA participant reported in the last LIQ that:

> I rely on my speaking skills more than ever now. I have never thought that I would overcome accent or intelligibility issues that quickly as I had barely understood what a local British person was saying to me the first 8 or so weeks of my stay here.

Similarly, ELFSA participants repeatedly touched upon the same case of improvement, especially in terms of developing speaking skills and strategies or advancing those they already had as they indicated to have more awareness about their production now. They even thought

they were “speaking in Turkish but actually it was English” that they were using. Occasionally they were unable to understand that someone was using Turkish with them but they were still responding back in English. Or, they stated that it took some time to switch to their mother tongues as they still continued in English when Skyping with their families. All these examples about “unconscious” use of English reminds us about the notion of automaticity. They all became more proficient English speakers after a semester as they were even using some vocabulary the equivalents of which they have never used in their L1s (e.g., wishful thinking). To further exemplify, a sojourner who spent the semester in the Netherlands stated this about her English abilities:

> Listening, speaking, writing… Everything is so much easier now, but, mostly speaking. I cannot believe that I am the conversation starter now! It feels like all happened over night. I can now tell how this all happened, though. All the ERASMUS students here were speaking English and all of us had the same levels of competence at the beginning. We all got better at the same time as we all communicated with each other unlike what I thought at first. Fortunately, I am not doomed to using body language in order to express myself anymore…. Now, my friends record me when I am talking in my sleep in English.

However, this development is limited to everyday speech for most of the sojourners. Both SA and ELFSA participants revealed that they still have difficulties when “working on a class project with other group members”, “completing assignments and writing essays”, or “making a presentation” in English. Yet, in daily conversations, they can even “talk about politics or other advanced topics” now. An ELFSA participant who studied in the Czech Republic summarized this daily communication oriented development as follows:

> When I cannot remember a word sometimes, I describe it using other words and my friends try to guess it. What is still difficult is that it still takes time to convey my message across but definitely I am not getting misunderstood. I am sure I developed my daily conversation skills more than my academic English. I still have doubts about myself that I may not explain my point in a class or relate to an academic subject in a conversation. I grade how fluent and good I am when speaking as I check my interlocutor's reactions like if she got me right or wrong.

Similarly, another ELFSA student reported that she had some issues talking about "politics, philosophy, or ideologies about which she cannot express herself". All in all, the LIQ data revealed that the 16-week exposure to the TL was mostly effective on daily life uses of English, to most of the sojourners. Yet, this concept was so strong that they even effortlessly learned a few chunks and words in the host country's native language for everyday conversations. Almost all ELFSA students reported that they started to "unconsciously" use some words or phrases in the L3 when interacting with local people, such as those at the grocery shop. A sojourner who spent the semester in the Netherlands, for instance, stated that:

> Although I did not take any Flemish lessons here or consciously put any personal efforts to learn the local language, I realized that I am unconsciously using Flemish words when talking to locals. Weird, but, yes, it happens.

In summary, the data from the open-ended items in the LIQ revealed that the SA group first had issues regarding the differences in speech rate and British accent when interacting with native speakers excluding faculty members, native speaker classmates or other exchange friends. The fact that they did not need any additional languages to communicate with locals was reported to be an advantage in the SA context. However, local opportunities to use Turkish was

another negative aspect of this context for the SA sojourners in terms of developing their L2s. Considering ELFSA learners, having to communicate with more proficient speakers in the context was a problem at first. Also, they needed the host language to fully understand the locals they interacted with. These two aspects were reported to be difficult in the ELFSA context at first. Establishing rapport with other sojourners and having mutual understanding, on the other hand were quite easy for this group. The fact that most local people were proficient speakers of English was regarded to be a pro at first but later a disadvantage as in that case the ELFSA participants had no reasons to learn the L3. Considering the last LIQs, in which the participants evaluated the differences that emerged in time with regards to easy and difficult aspects of their contexts, both SA and ELFSA sojourners indicated that they improved their speaking in daily conversations, but they could not develop their academic English as they still had difficulties when discussing advanced topics or using the language for academic reasons. The ELFSA participants even acquired L3 forms without conscious effort for everyday conversations.

In conclusion, the LIQ results presented the contextual differences in terms of L2 use, type of interlocutor, opportunities to use Turkish or an additional language, and the type of accommodation for three learning contexts. Accordingly, frequencies for different types of L2 contact were found to be similar (speaking, listening, reading, and writing in order of frequency) as opposed to the AH context, where participants reported to use the L2 when listening, reading, writing, and speaking in order of frequency. Pertaining to the type of interlocutors, both ELFSA and AH participants reported to interact with non-native L2 speakers in comparison to SA people, who contacted native speakers more. Between the two sojourn groups, mean scores for Turkish use were reported to be higher in the ELFSA context than the SA as compared to the AH group. Considering L3 use, the ELFSA context was found to provide many opportunities to use

an L3, the most frequent of which were German and Italian. Given the variety of different languages used, the ELFSA context provided a multilingual environment for the sojourners. These findings were confirmed with the qualitative data, which also indicated that the two sojourn contexts had their own advantages and disadvantages. The former might be summarized as accent and speech rate and style for the SA, while the ELFSA had additional difficulties regarding the local availabilities to use Turkish. As the use of English in all aspects of life was a pro for the SA, it was reported to be a con for the EFLSA in the sense that the proficient L2 users in this context left no necessity to learn the local language at first. The ELFSA group reported their expectations to communicate in the local language to some extent even in the first LIQ insofar as it was a multilingual environment. To clarify, the wide availability of using English even for local service encounters hindered the necessity to use an L3 (e.g., Finnish in Finland) at first. Yet, the third and fourth LIQs indicated the increased use of L3 for the ELFSA people. All in all, the data from the ELFSA group made clear references to the multilingual nature of the context itself both in terms of language use and sojourner expectations.

To investigate if there was a link between the participants' perceptions towards multilingualism from a PPLI perspective and their expectations from their contexts or any contextual characteristics presented above, their pre-departure PPLI status was first explored to determine those who reported to see positive interactions among the foreign languages they knew. The next section presents the pre-departure PPLI statuses of the participants, which are further explored through qualitative data to confirm the link between type of context, L2 development, and perceptions towards multilingualism at the very end of this chapter to answer the third research question.

The contexts and the PPLI. In order to determine the participants' statuses in terms of the notion of PPLI (Thompson, 2013) a pre-departure PPLI questionnaire was administered to the 40 multilingual participants[2]. The scale included a total of 11 items, 9 of which were dichotomous questions regarding the details of interaction between each pair of additional languages (e.g, "*Do you see any positive interactions in terms of vocabulary between the two foreign/additional languages you know?*") 1 open-ended item, and 2 background questions. With regards to the language sets determined in terms of positive interactions, 12 different pairs were reported by the participants. At times, one participant indicated more than one pair to evaluate in terms of interactions. For example, an ELFSA sojourner first compared English with German and then English with Flemish. The details of the language pairs reported in the PPLIQ are described in Table 10 below.

Table 10. Frequencies for Language Pairs

Language Pairs	All Participants (n = 40)	
	N	*%*
English-German	13	35
English-Spanish	6	15
English-Italian	4	10
English-French	2	5
English-Dutch	1	2.5
English-Greek	1	2.5
English-Norwegian	1	2.5
English-Russian	1	2.5
English-Arabic	1	2.5
English-Persian	1	2.5
English-Danish	1	2.5
Spanish-Italian	2	5
Spanish-Portuguese	1	2.5
Spanish-French	1	2.5
Italian-French	1	2.5
Italian-Greek	1	2.5
Latin-Italian	1	2.5
Total	40	100

[2] A post-PPLIQ was also administered to explore if there were any changes to the learners' PPLI statuses after a semester. Yet, no differences were found, so only the qualitative data from the post-PPLIQ reported in the next section to provide information regarding PPLI participants' experiences after a semester in their contexts.

Participants' responses were then explored in terms of frequencies. Accordingly, the results indicated that 39 of these 40 multilinguals (SA *n* = 6, ELFSA *n* = 23, AH *n* = 10) perceive positive interactions between the two additional languages they know in the pre-PPLIQ. Only 1 participant from the AH group reported seeing a negative interaction. The results are summarized in Table 11 below.

Table 11. Frequencies for Pre-Perceived Positive Language Interaction Questionnaire

Pre-PPLIQ	SA (*n* = 6)		ELFSA (*n* = 23)		AH (*n* = 11)	
	YES	*NO*	*YES*	*NO*	*YES*	*NO*
Positive Interaction	6	0	23	0	10	1
Vocabulary	6	0	23	0	8	3
Grammar	3	3	13	10	3	8
Pronunciation	1	5	4	19	2	9
Learning Strategies	5	1	18	5	10	1
*Can't Explain	3	3	5	18	3	8
Cultural Learning	4	2	21	2	9	2
Negative Interaction	0	6	0	23	1	10
No Interaction	0	0	0	0	0	0

Note. AH = At home. ELFSA = English as lingua franca Study Abroad. SA = Study Abroad. n = number of participants, * The whole statement is = *I see a positive interaction but cannot explain its reason.*

As shown in the table above, all PPLI participants reported to see positive interactions regarding vocabulary, then mostly for learning strategies, and finally for cultural learning. The PPLI participants tended to see no interaction in terms of pronunciation. The results for grammar were mixed, as 50% of SA, 57% of the ELFSA, and 27% of AH participants with PPLI status reported to see positive interactions. It should also be noted that almost all the participants in the ELFSA group (23 out of 24 – 96%) were multilinguals with PPLI status, while 33% of SA (*n* = 3) and 41% of AH participants (*n* = 6) were bilinguals. Only one participant from the AH group was a multilingual who reported to see no positive interactions among the languages he knew

(English, Arabic, and Persian). The EFLSA context, hence, comprised of PPLI participants, which might not be surprising in the sense that this context is a multilingual environment. To investigate the relationship between PPLI and type of context, the qualitative analyses of the open-ended items in the PPLIQ are presented next.

Contextual themes from the open-ended items in the PPLIQ. Those who are multilingual were given the PPLIQ at the beginning and at the end of the treatment period. The pre-departure questionnaire results were reported to determine the participants' PPLI statuses. In these questionnaires, qualitative data were also compiled through an open-ended item "*Do you have any experiences that have helped you see the positive interaction between two or more foreign languages?*". For this section, the data from the open-ended questions from the post-PPLI questionnaire were analyzed in an attempt to provide information regarding the relationship between the ELFSA as a sojourn context and PPLI. There were 22 participants out of the 40 multilinguals who provided their responses to this item. The major theme that emerged from the data was that the participants reported that the knowledge of an L2 accelerates and aids learning an additional language, especially in terms of vocabulary, grammar, and learning strategies. Also, English as an L2 was the mostly attributed language reported to have aided the learning of German, Dutch, Flemish, Danish, and Russian. An AH participant, for instance, indicated that: "English helped me learn Russian and I figured that out when I was working at a hotel when I was exposed to Russian a lot. But, I do admit that these two are quite different in grammar and pronunciation". As for romance languages, several participants indicated that the knowledge of Spanish, Italian, and/or French helped learning another romance language. Latin and ancient Greek were also reported to have helped learning a romance language, especially Italian and modern Greek.

Notwithstanding typological, linguistic, morphological, or lexical similarities or differences, the knowledge of an L2 is helpful when learning an L3 for the participants in the study. These participants provided more information about the nature of this help between L2 and L3. Given the findings of the LIQ data, the ELFSA context was reported to be more suitable for L3 learning depending on its multilingual nature.

The most frequently attributed interaction was reported to be with regards to vocabulary. The participants referred to the lexical transparency among the romance languages, as there are not only shared typological features but also many cognates. Vocabulary was a huge aid for comprehension, guessing meaning from context, and retention of the newly learned word. For example, an ELFSA participant reported that: "it is easier for me to learn German as I frequently come across with similar words like finden (find), gut (good), perfekt (perfect)." Similarly, when they used an English word in an L3 conversation, it was easily understood because of this transparency. For instance, another ELFSA participant who studied in Germany indicated that:

> There are so many common words between the two that I sometimes use the English word on purpose and people immediately find out its German equivalent. For example, when I forget the German word *resultaet* and use *result* instead, they immediately correct me by saying *ahaaaaa*, *resultaet*!

This lexical transparency was not limited to English and other Germanic languages, but also romance languages. The participants reported that because most of words have Latin roots, it is always easy to guess their meanings in any other language if they know what it means in one language regardless of differences in pronunciation or orthography. To exemplify, a participant reported that:

> I absolutely believe there is an interaction between Spanish and English. In fact, French, Spanish, and Italian are all interwoven languages and English is included in the portrait. Though they are differently pronounced, the words resemble each other a lot. I have seen myself in cases where people were speaking in Spanish and I was able to understand them only because I knew English…. I have always seen positive interaction among languages. The more languages you learn, the easier will be to learn the next language.

Grammar was the interestingly the second most attributed feature for positive interaction in the qualitative data from the PPLIQ unlike the dichotomous quantitative data findings. The participants indicated that they see certain connections between the syntactic features of two different languages. Especially among English, German, Dutch, and Flemish, a grammatical interaction was reported. It can be concluded that the participants are also aware of the similarities among the languages from the same language family, in this case the Germanic languages. To exemplify, an ELFSA participant reported that:

> English and Dutch are so similar in terms of structure and I do believe it helps me learn Dutch. For example, the Dutch sentence *Ik kan gaat ein kopje koffee* really looks like the English sentence *I can get a cup of coffee* or the German *Ich kann eine Tasse Kaffee*. This similarity helps me remember certain structures easily.

More interestingly, some sojourners were able to see positive interactions between two languages that may be relatively distant from each other in syntactic and phonological terms. For instance, a sojourner who studied in Portugal indicated that he was able to see certain grammatical connections between English and Portuguese:

> …although they are too different from each other in terms of grammar and pronunciation, they had connections because both are spoken in Europe. Some English morphemes are

the same in Portuguese. Because the stems and the derivational process are the same, we can infer its meaning easily. For example, in English *communica-tion* or *informa-tion* are derivated with the same rules in Portuguese as in *comminica-cao* or *informa-cao*.

Following grammar, the knowledge of an L2 was reported to aid the acquisition of an additional language also in terms of language learning strategies. Having been through an initial process of learning an L2, several participants underlined the positive interaction between these two. To exemplify, an ELFSA participant who studied in Denmark reported "if you use certain strategies and follow a similar learning path, the learning process will be accelerated as the process of language learning is always the same to my experience."

Unlike these lexical, grammatical, and learning strategy similarities, several participants reported that they could not see any connections between the two foreign languages they know in terms of pronunciation or grammar. Grammar, hence, was a problematic feature in terms of seeing positive interactions. These differences were reported to be more prominent between a romance language and a Germanic language. For example, it was reported by a sojourner that although there are many cognates between Spanish and English, the differences in grammar and pronunciation made it impossible for him to understand it. In the same vein, such differences were also indicated to be remarkable between two languages of the same family. To exemplify, a sojourner who studies in Portugal reported that pronunciation differences could even make a common word impossible to understand.

Overall, vocabulary, grammar, and learning strategies are the three mostly mentioned aspects for positive language interaction between two foreign languages. Also, the multilingual participants reported that the knowledge of an L2 facilitates the learning of an additional language and development of those available. However, pronunciation and some syntactic

differences are sources for the participants to report to see no interaction between two languages. This section portrayed the multilingual participants' perceptions towards multilingualism from a PPLI perspective in the sense that their perceptions might portray their characteristics which might have affected their language use and development experiences in their contexts. Last but not least, almost all of the sojourners in the study were found to have PPLI status (6 from the SA, 23 from the ELFSA, 10 from the AH). The highest number of PPLI participants was found to be from the ELFSA group. The findings presented in this section are further developed with the findings of the qualitative data (research question 3) gathered from semi-structured interviews to investigate a small group of sojourners' perceptions towards multilingualism through PPLI. Given the multilingual and multicultural nature of the ERASMUS program, the link between these notions and sojourners' language development is also explored through the qualitative data. In other words, since the participants' previous language experiences might have an effect on their learning outcomes at the end of the exchange period (Kemp, 2001; Thompson, 2013), learners' perceptions towards multilingualism from a PPLI perspective are illuminated.

To conclude, the qualitative data from the open-ended LIQ items indicated that the SA group had more issues regarding accent and speech rate than the ELFSA group. The former context was advantageous in terms of having no L3 requirements. The ELFSA, on the other hand was reported to have more opportunities to make friends of mutual understanding, with whom one can practice the use of L2, mostly from an ELF perspective. However, this context required the use of an L3 to some degree, which was considered to be a difficulty at first. Yet, some participants reported to acquire the basic daily chunks even "unconsciously" in the L3. It can be summarized that the multilingual nature of the ELFSA, the type of interlocutors available, and the lingua franca use in the context are the most prominent differences from the SA. Also, the

high proficient local L2 users of English caused the sojourners to check their production and at times feel less self-confident to use the TL. At the end of the sojourn period, both SA and ELFSA participants reported to have developed their daily uses of English, yet no development pertaining to the use of academic English or when talking about advanced topics. All in all, the ELFSA, which may not be considered as a "real" immersion context as opposed to the SA, was described to have many opportunities for oral practice in the L2 especially depending on the high amount of interaction among fellow exchange students from all over the world.

As for the open-ended items in the PPLIQ, the multilingual participants reported to see positive interactions in the sense that the knowledge of an L2 always helps learning an L3 especially in terms of vocabulary, grammar, and learning strategies. However, phonological and syntactic differences made it difficult to see positive interaction between two foreign languages, especially if they do not belong to the same language family. This context with its multicultural nature might have helped its participants see stronger connections among the foreign languages.

RQ 2 – L2 Development across Contexts

The three learning contexts of the study were compared in light of quantitative and qualitative data, which indicated some differences as well as similarities in terms of language use, type of interlocutors available, and multilingualism through PPLI. To determine if the learning context had any effects on participants' L2 development over time, written and oral production data were collected twice, as pre and post-production tests. Before quantitative analysis, these data were transcribed into CLAN (MacWhinney, 2000) following CHAT conventions. The first round of analyses was conducted via CLAN to calculate measures of CAF, which functioned as dependent variables in the statistical tests. In this section, first the analysis

of the EIT data is presented to investigate if there was a significant difference in terms of initial proficiency levels of the participants, followed by the written and oral development results.

EIT Scores

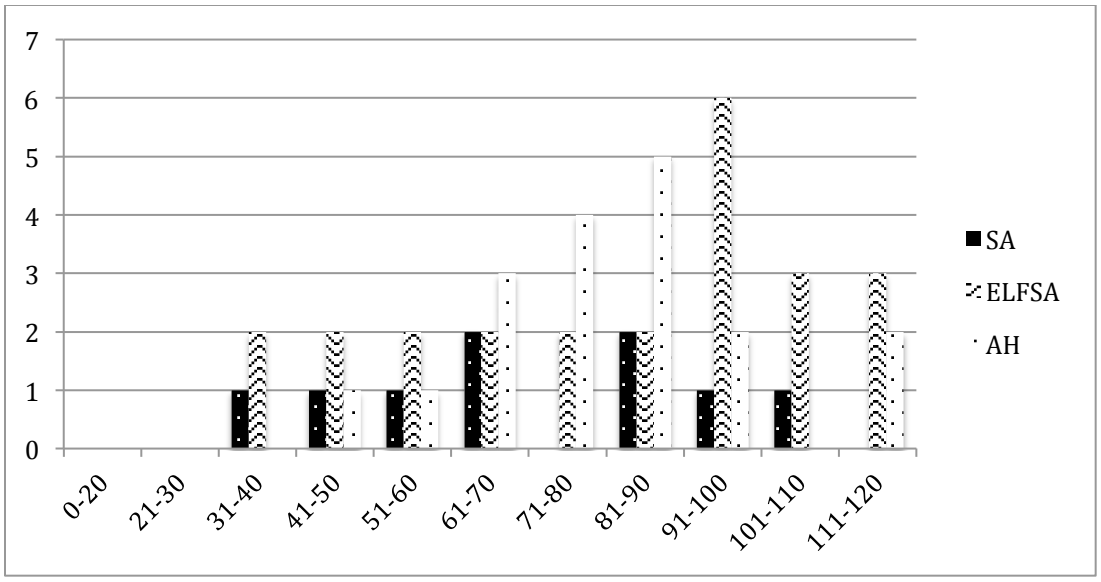
All the participants in the three context groups took the test (SA (9), ELFSA (24), AH (17), a total of 50 participants) prior to the treatment period. Also, Cronbach's alpha coefficients were calculated to determine item and inter-rater reliability, the results of which indicated high reliability for both. Table 12 summarizes the results of these analyses.

Table 12. Reliability Analyses for EIT Items and Inter-rater Scores

Group	Item Reliability (Cronbach's α)	Inter-rater Reliability (Cronbach's α)
SA	.964	.980
ELFSA	.969	.976
AH	.945	.967
Overall	.962	.971

Note. M = Mean, SD = Standard Deviation

Using the scoring rubric adapted from Ortega et al. (1999) and Tracy-Ventura et al. (2014) each participant's performance was scored on a scale from 0-4. The highest score possible for the test was 120 points as each item was of 4 points value. To exemplify, if the participant provided an exact repetition, he got full 4 points for the item. If the response was total silence, unintelligible utterance, or very minimal repetition like a word from the target sentence, the participant received a score of 0. For the full scoring rubric, please see Appendix B. Figure 2 below shows the distribution of scores among three groups.



Note. EIT = Elicited Imitation Task (Ortega et al., 1999), AH = At home, ELFSA = English as lingua franca Study Abroad, SA = Study Abroad.

Figure 2. Initial EIT Scores by Groups

The mean for total scores was calculated to be 79.04 (*SD* = 22.7) within a range of 31-117. Mean scores per each group were found to be 70.33 (*SD* = 24.48) for SA, 81.29 (*SD* = 24.80) for ELFSA, and 80.47 (*SD* = 18.47) for AH. The participant who received the highest score was from the ELFSA group (117 points). The participant who received the lowest score was from the SA group (31 points). According to the total scores, at the start of the study the ELFSA group had the highest mean score on the EIT, while the lowest was from the SA group.

Next, total EIT scores for each participant were used as dependent variables in a one-way ANOVA analysis with a Tukey comparison to examine if there were any significant differences among the three groups in terms of initial (pre-departure/pre-treatment) L2 English proficiencies. Before running the ANOVA, the data were tested for assumptions of homogeneity of variances and distribution of normality. Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests showed the data to be normally distributed, which allowed for the use of parametric tests. The EIT data from the SA

group ($D(9) = .142$. $p > .05$), the ELFSA group ($D(24) = .164$. $p > .05$), and the AH group ($D(17) = .069$. $p > .05$) were found to be normally distributed ($D(9) = .142$. $p > .05$). Furthermore, Levene's test for equality of variances was found not to be violated for the present analysis ($p > .05$). Therefore, a one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare EIT scores among the three groups. The descriptive statistics and the ANOVA results are presented in Table 13.

Table 13. One-way ANOVA on EIT Scores

	SA (n = 9)		ELFSA (n = 24)		AH (n = 17)		ANOVA results			
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	df	*F*	*η2*	*p*
EIT	70.33	24.49	81.29	24.81	80.47	18.48	2, 47	.807	.03	.452

Note. EIT = Elicited Imitation Task (Ortega et al., 1999), AH = At home, ELFSA = English as lingua franca Study Abroad, SA = Study Abroad, n = number of participants, *M* = mean, *SD* = standard deviation

The descriptive statistics suggested that the three groups had different EIT means. Yet, the results of the one-way ANOVA indicated that there were no significant differences among the groups on EIT scores ($F(2,47) = .808$, $p = .452$, $\eta 2 = .03$) with a small effect size.

In conclusion, although the ELFSA group had a higher EIT score ($M = 81.29$, $SD = 24.81$) than the AH ($M = 80.47$, $SD = 18.47$), and SA groups ($M = 70.33$, $SD = 24.48$), in terms of total EIT scores the results of the ANOVA test illustrated no significant difference among the mean scores from three groups. Therefore, for further inferential statistical analysis, there found to be no need for controlling the EIT variable in a co-variance analysis, as pre-departure proficiencies of the three groups were similar. Thus, when comparing oral and written L2 gains, two-way mixed ANOVAs were utilized.

Written L2 Development Over Time

Written production was assessed using the same computer-based composition task in pre and posttests. The time allotted for task completion was 15 minutes. Minimum production was instructed to be a paragraph of seven lines on a normal word processor page layout. There were differences among the participants in terms of task-completion time and production amount. This data set was first transcribed into CLAN (MacWhinney, 2000) following CHAT conventions to determine written fluency as determined by the total number of words divided by total production time (W/T), accuracy as determined by the number of errors as divided by T-units (ERR/TU), lexical complexity as determined by CLAN's D measure, and finally syntactic complexity as measured by the number of clauses divided by the number of T-units (CL/TU).

First, the descriptive statistics for mean scores and standard deviations were obtained via SPSS which later functioned as dependent variables in the inferential statistical analyses. Table 14 summarizes the descriptive statistics for pre and post written production data collected.

Table 14. Descriptive Statistics for Written Production Data

Written Production Data		SA (n = 9)		ELFSA (n = 24)		AH (n = 17)	
		M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Fluency (W/T)	Pretest	14.36	3.55	17.20	5.61	12.68	2.04
	Posttest	19.77	5.48	17.65	5.54	16.92	6.89
Accuracy (ERR/TU)	Pretest	.488	.472	.445	.354	.359	.301
	Posttest	.468	.306	.402	.275	.243	.301
Syntactic Complexity (CL/TU)	Pretest	1.99	.415	2.28	.620	2.32	.587
	Posttest	2.26	.316	2.39	.548	2.11	.429
Lexical Complexity (D)	Pretest	51.98	10.65	68.26	16.79	63.25	12.11
	Posttest	62.94	8.98	74.61	17.86	62.99	11.43

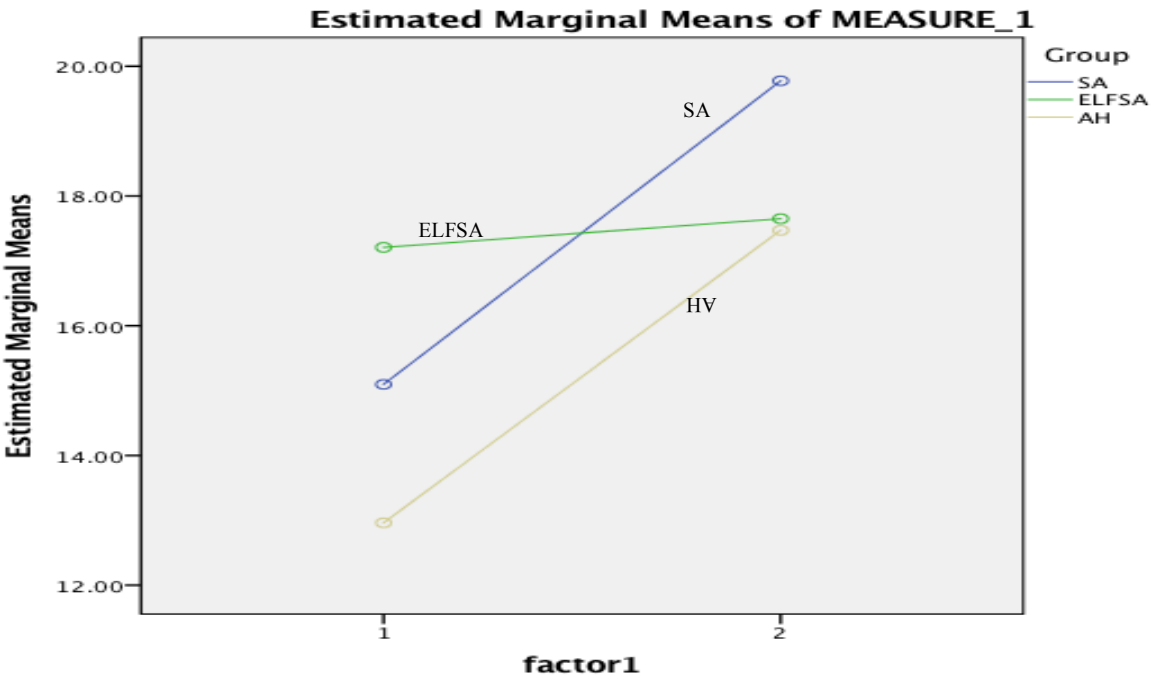
Note. AH = At home, ELFSA = English as lingua franca Study Abroad, SA = Study Abroad, n = number of participants, W/T = words per time, ERR/TU = errors per T-unit, CL/TU = clauses per T-unit, D = D measure, n = number of participants, *M* = mean, *SD* = standard deviation.

The results of the descriptive analysis indicated some differences in terms of mean and standard deviation scores. In terms of written fluency, ELFSA had the highest mean score (M = 17.20, SD = 5.65) in the pretest, while SA scored the highest in the posttest (M = 19.77, SD = 5.48). As for accuracy, the AH participants appear to have the most accurate written production at both times (M = .359, SD = .243 for pretest, M = .301, SD = .301 for posttest) as they scored the lowest mean scores for ERR/TU. Considering syntactic complexity as measured by CL/TU, the AH group seems to have the most complex written production in the pretest (M = 2.32, SD = .587), whereas the ELFSA seems to produce the most complex sentences in the posttest (M = 2.39, SD = .548). In terms of lexical complexity, the ELFSA group appears to have the highest D scores at both test times (M = 68.26, SD = 16.79 for pretest, M = 74.61, SD = 17.86 for posttest).

A two-way mixed ANOVA was performed separately for each of the dependent variables to investigate if there was a significant difference among the three groups in terms of their written L2 development over time (pretest for pre-treatment and posttest for post-treatment performances). The selection of this test depended on the fact that the measurement of the dependent variables was repeated over time (quasi-experimental pre-post test design). The within-subject variable was test time, while the between-subjects variable was the context groups. Also, given that there were no differences in terms of initial proficiency scores (EIT scores) or the pretest scores on all measures, there were no requirements emerged from the data set to control for threshold proficiency levels or pretest scores as covariants. Before conducting the ANOVAs, the data set was tested in terms of violation to the assumptions, which are normal distribution of data, equal variances, and sphericity. Accordingly, the data were found to be normally distributed as Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests were insignificant (p > .05). Also, no violations were found to the assumptions of homogeneity of variance through

Levene's test ($p > .05$). Data sphericity was tested through Mauchly's Test of Sphericity, the results of which were significant ($p < .05$). Therefore, when reading and reporting the results, the values with the Greenhouse-Geisser correction were used (Larson-Hall, 2010, p. 347) to provide robust statistics.

Results of the two-way mixed ANOVA indicated a significant interaction effect for test time and group on written fluency ($F(2,42) = 2.767$, $p = .046$, partial $\eta 2 = .116$, power = .60), which suggests that the three context groups performed differently over time on the written fluency measure. The interaction effect is also illustrated in Figure 3 below.



Note. Factor 1 = Time on the horizontal line, Factor 2 = Group on the vertical lines.

Figure 3. The Interaction Effect between Time and Group

As illustrated in the figure above, the participants of the three context groups increased their mean scores on written fluency between pre and posttest time, although the increase in the ELFSA seems to be minimal. The lines suggest different degrees of mean increases. Thus, to determine how groups performed differently between pretest and posttest on written fluency, a paired-samples t-test with Bonferroni correction was performed for each context group. The results showed that only the AH group significantly improved (t(13) = -2.15, p = .047) in terms of written fluency as measured by W/T between pretest (M = 12.68, SD = 2.04) and posttest (M = 16.92, SD = 6.89). The SA (t(6) = -2.208, p = .070) and the ELFSA (t(23) = -.503, p = .620) did not have significant increases over time on this measure.

The results also indicated a main effect of test time for fluency (F(1,42) = 7.500, p = .004, partial $\eta 2$ = .152, power = .84). However, it should be noted that when an interaction effect is determined, the main effect for either the within-subjects or between-subjects variable might be misleading (Field, 2013; Laerd Statistics, 2016; Larson-Hall, 2010). In other words, because the groups performed significantly differently over time, it may not be worth stating that all participants had different means over time. If the two-way mixed ANOVA does not indicate any significant interaction effects for time and group but only main effects of time, the latter results are reported and interpreted following Larson-Hall (2010) in the current analyses. Table 15 summarizes the results regarding written fluency.

Table 15. Two-way Mixed ANOVA on Written L2 Development in Fluency over Time

Written Fluency (W/M)	ANOVA results with Greenhouse-Geisser Correction			
	df	*F*	*Partial η2*	*p*
Within-Subjects Effects				
Time	1, 42	7.500	.152	.004
Time*Group	2, 42	2.767	.116	.046

In terms of lexical complexity, the two-way mixed ANOVA revealed a significant main effect for test time only (F(1,43) = 4.351, p = .043, partial $\eta 2$ = .092, power = .53) demonstrating a significant change from pre to posttest (when the group variable was collapsed). However, no interaction effects were found (F(2,43) = 1.603, p = .213, partial $\eta 2$ = .213, power = .321), which means the impact of time did not depend on the type of context group. Table 16 illustrates these results. Figure 4 illustrates the pretest and posttest means, along with mean differences over time in terms of written lexical complexity.

Table 16. Two-way Mixed ANOVA on Written L2 Development in Lexical Complexity over

Lexical Complexity (D)	ANOVA results with Greenhouse-Geisser Correction			
	df	*F*	*Partial η2*	*p*
Within-Subjects Effects				
Time	1, 43	4.351	.092	.043
Time*Group	2,43	1.603	.069	.213

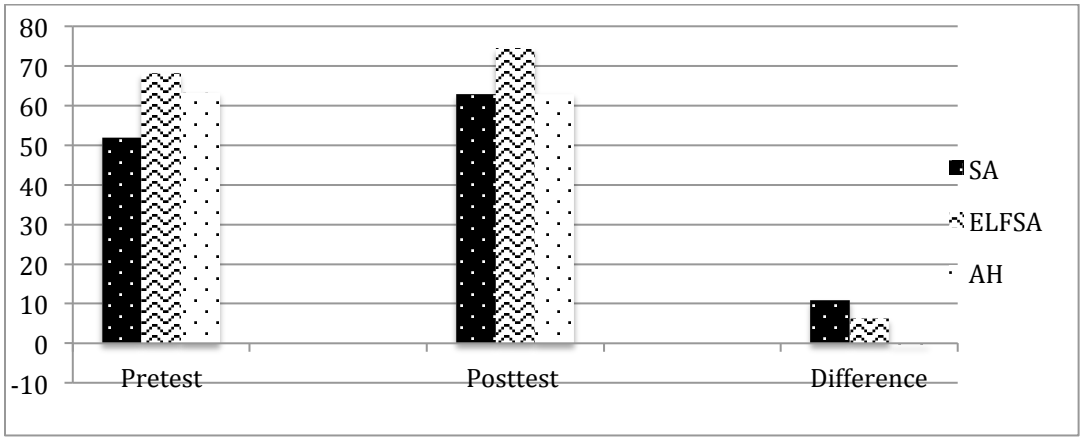


Figure 4. Pretest-Posttest Means and Mean Differences on Written Lexical Complexity

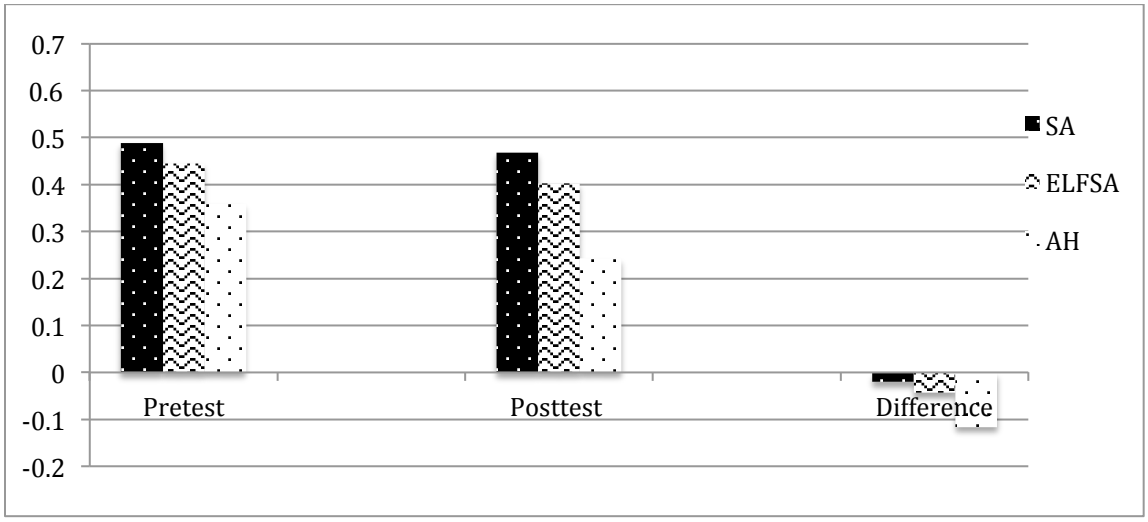
The main effect of time for this measure indicated that the change from pre- to posttest was significant regardless of learning context. As illustrated in the figure above, the SA (pretest M = 51.98, SD = 10.65 and posttest M = 62.94, SD = 8.98) and ELFSA groups (pretest M = 68.26, SD

= 16.79, posttest *M* = 74.61, *SD* = 17.86) had mean gains over time, though not statistically different, whilst the AH had a slight mean loss on this measure (pretest *M* = 63.25, *SD* = 12.11, posttest *M* = 62.99, *SD* = 11.43).

As for written accuracy, the two-way mixed ANOVA results with Greenhouse-Geisser correction showed no significant interaction effects between time and group (F(2,43) = .120, *p* = .887, partial *η2* = .006, power = .067). No main effects for test time were found either (F(1,43) = 1.853, *p* = .181, partial *η2* = .041, power = .265). It might be concluded that the groups' written accuracy did not change over time regardless of their context groups. Table 17 summarizes these results. Figure 5 presents the pretest and posttest mean scores along with mean differences over time.

Table 17. Two-way Mixed ANOVA on Written L2 Development in Accuracy over

Accuracy (ERR/TU)	ANOVA results with Greenhouse-Geisser Correction			
	df	*F*	*Partial η2*	*p*
Within-Subjects Effects				
Time	1, 43	1.853	.041	.181
Time*Group	2,43	.120	.006	.887



Note. A negative difference score is beneficial in this measure as this indicates a lower error rate.

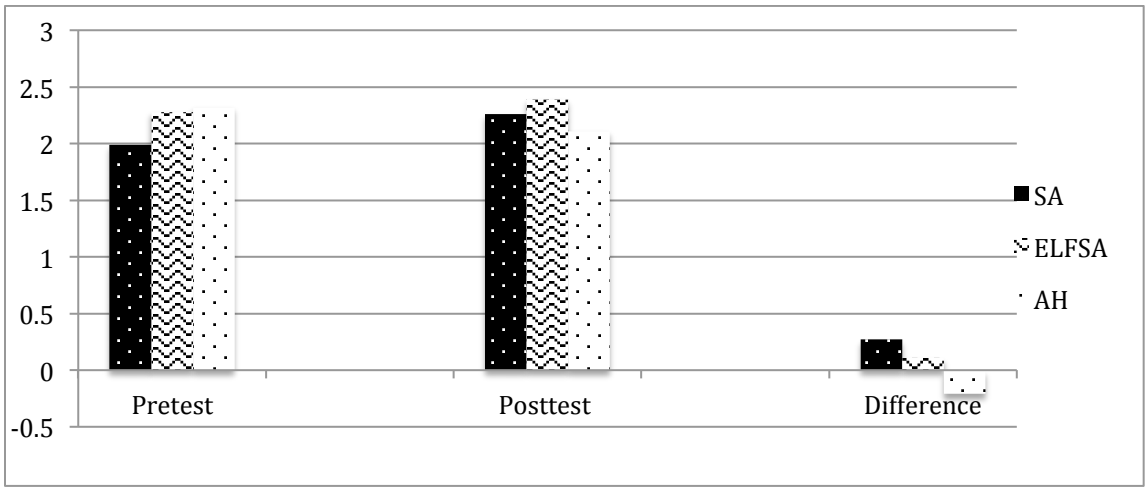
Figure 5. Pretest-Posttest Means and Mean Differences on Written Accuracy

The figure above indicated that all three groups had fewer error rates after a semester, which was not found to be statistically significant.

As for syntactic complexity, the two-way mixed ANOVA results with Greenhouse-Geisser correction revealed no interaction effects for time and group F(2,43) = .859, p =.431, partial $\eta 2$ = .038, power = .188) or main effects for syntactic complexity over time F(1,43) = .195, p = .661, partial $\eta 2$ = .005, power = .072). The results are shown in Table 18. Figure 6 visually presents the pretest and posttest means and mean differences on syntactic complexity.

Table 18. Two-way Mixed ANOVA on Written L2 Development in Syntactic Complexity over Time

Syntactic Complexity (CL/TU)	ANOVA results with Greenhouse-Geisser Correction			
	df	*F*	*Partial η2*	*p*
Within-Subjects Effects				
Time	1, 43	.195	.005	.661
Time*Group	2,43	.859	.038	.431



Note. A negative mean difference score means loss in syntactic complexity (producing less complex sentences).

Figure 6. Pretest-Posttest Means and Mean Differences on Written Syntactic Complexity

The figure above illustrated that both sojourn groups had some mean increases after a semester, while the AH had a mean loss on the measure of syntactic complexity. Yet, none of these changes were found to be statistically significant.

To summarize, the results of the two-way mixed ANOVAs indicated a significant interaction effect for time and group only on written fluency, which suggested that the groups performed differently on this measure over time. A series of paired samples t-tests with Bonferroni correction were utilized to determine where this difference occurred. The results showed that only the AH significantly increased mean scores on written fluency between the pre and posttest. In terms of differences over test time, the results indicated a significant main effect of time only on lexical complexity. Figure 7 summarizes the results in terms of performance improvements.

Fluency (W/T)	Lexical Complexity (D)	Accuracy (ERR/TU)	Syntactic Complexity (CL/TU)
Interaction: AH There was a significant interaction effect of time and group. Only the AH group significantly improved their written fluency between pretest and posttest. SA and ELFSA's improvement was not statistically significant on this construct.	**Time only** There was a significant main effect of time only, which suggested that the participants as a whole had significantly different mean scores over time regardless of their contexts.	**None** No significant differences were found.	**None** No significant differences were found.

Figure 7. Summary of Results for Written Performance Improvement over

Oral L2 Development Over Time

Spoken production data were collected using the one-minute TOEFL prompt speaking task (*What would you like to do during your free time and why?*). The time allotted for task completion was 60 seconds. This data set was first transcribed into CLAN (MacWhinney, 2000) following CHAT conventions to determine spoken fluency as determined by pruned speech rate (the total number of words excluding words used in disfluent production divided by total production time in seconds, W/T) breakdown fluency (the total duration of silent and filled pauses longer than 250 milliseconds divided by the total time expressed in seconds, P/T), and repair fluency (the total number of disfluencies as determined by the number of repetitions, retraces, and reformulations divided by total time expressed in seconds and multiplied by 60, D/T), accuracy as determined by the number of errors divided by AS-units (ERR/AS), lexical complexity as determined by CLAN's D measure, and finally syntactic complexity as measured by the number of clauses divided by the number of AS-units (CL/TU).

First, the descriptive statistics for mean scores and standard deviations were obtained via SPSS which later functioned as dependent variables in inferential statistics. Table 19 summarizes the descriptive statistics for pre and posttest spoken production data collected.

Table 19. Descriptive Statistics for Oral Production Data

Oral Production Data		SA (n = 9)		ELFSA (n = 24)		AH (n = 17)	
		M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Fluency Speech Rate (W/T)	Pretest	1.51	.244	1.52	.520	1.30	.249
	Posttest	1.74	.357	1.87	.551	1.46	.551
Breakdown Fluency (P/T)	Pretest	.300	.100	.341	.180	.412	.106
	Posttest	.225	.107	.232	.090	.347	.114
Repair Fluency (D/T)	Pretest	2.82	1.58	4.55	3.09	2.59	2.52
	Posttest	4.33	3.48	4.52	2.95	3.71	3.08
Accuracy (ERR/TU)	Pretest	.678	.223	.464	.522	.305	.208
	Posttest	.286	.186	.255	.272	.393	.259
Syntactic Complexity (CL/TU)	Pretest	2.41	.775	2.21	.682	2.18	.565
	Posttest	2.85	.947	2.21	.725	2.06	.650
Lexical Complexity (D)	Pretest	36.40	10.62	36.28	14.96	38.32	11.57
	Posttest	36.32	9.46	42.48	12.66	33.76	8.45

Note. AH = At home, ELFSA = English as lingua franca Study Abroad, SA = Study Abroad, n = number of participants, W/T = words divided by total time, P/T = total pause duration divided by time, R/P = total disfluencies per time, ERR/ASU = errors per AS-unit, CL/ASU = clauses per AS-unit, D = D measure, n = number of participants, *M* = mean, *SD* = standard deviation.

The results of the descriptive analysis revealed some differences in mean and standard deviation scores. In terms of speech rate, ELFSA had the highest mean score (*M* = 1.52, *SD* = .520) in the pretest and posttest (*M* = 1.87, *SD* = .551), while AH had the lowest in both pretest (M = 1.30, *SD* = .249) and posttest (*M* = 1.46, *SD* = .551). For breakdown fluency (the total duration of silent and filled pauses longer than 250 milliseconds divided by the total time expressed in seconds, P/T), the results are quite similar, with AH pausing more than SA and ELFSA in both pretest (*M* = .412, *SD* = .106) and posttest (*M* = .347, *SD* = .114). Considering repair fluency (the

number of repetitions, retraces, and reformulations divided by total time in seconds and multiplied by 60), the ELFSA group had the highest scores in both pretest (M = 4.55, SD = 3.09) and posttest (M = 4.52, SD = .2.95) indicating the highest rate of disfluency. The AH group had the lowest error rate per AS-unit in the pretest (M = .305, SD = .208), while the SA had the most accurate production in the posttest (M = .223, SD = .186). As for syntactic complexity, the mean and standard deviation scores were found to be quite similar among the groups, with SA seeming to have produced the most complex sentences in the pretest (M = 2.41, SD = .775) and posttest (M = 2.85, SD = .947) in light of mean scores. Finally with regards to lexical complexity, the AH group produced the most complex vocabulary in the pretest (M = 38.32, SD = 11.57), whilst the ELFSA group had the highest mean scores for this measure in the posttest (M = 42.48, SD = 12.66). With regards to the overall results, there seems to be some development in all measures of spoken L2 performance between two test times.

To assess if there were any significant differences over time (pretest and posttest performances) in terms of the groups' spoken performances as measured by CAF scores, a series of two-way mixed ANOVAs were performed.

Before conducting the two-way mixed ANOVAs, the data set was tested in terms of violation to its assumptions, which were normal distribution of data, equal variances, and sphericity. Although some pretest variables were found to be not normally distributed, the test was still performed as ANOVA is found to be robust to violations of assumptions of normality (Field, 2013). In terms of equality of variances, the Games-Howell post hoc test of multiple comparison was preferred, which is robust to unequal variances (Larson-Hall, 2010). In addition, data sphericity was tested through Mauchly's Test of Sphericity, the results of which

were significant ($p < .05$). Therefore, when reading and reporting the results, the values with the Greenhouse-Geisser correction were used (Larson-Hall, 2010, p. 347) to provide robust statistics.

CAF scores were submitted to a two-way mixed ANOVA with test time as the within-subjects factor (pretest and posttest) and group (SA, ELFSA, AH) as the between-subjects factor. The results yielded a significant main effect of test time for speech rate ($F(1,43) = 18.504$, $p = .000$, partial $\eta 2 = .301$, power = .98). No interaction ($F(2,43) = 1.011$, $p = .372$, partial $\eta 2 = .045$, power = .26) or group effects ($F(2,43) = 2.838$, $p = .070$, partial $\eta 2 = .117$, power = .26) were found. The results only suggested that regardless of group differences, there was a significant change between the pre and posttests ($p = .000$).

Table 20. Two-way ANOVA on Spoken L2 Development in Speech Rate over Time

Speech Rate (W/M)	ANOVA results with Greenhouse-Geisser Correction			
	df	*F*	*Partial η2*	*p*
Within-Subjects Effects				
Time	1, 43	18.504	.301	.000
Time*Group	2, 43	1.011	.045	.372

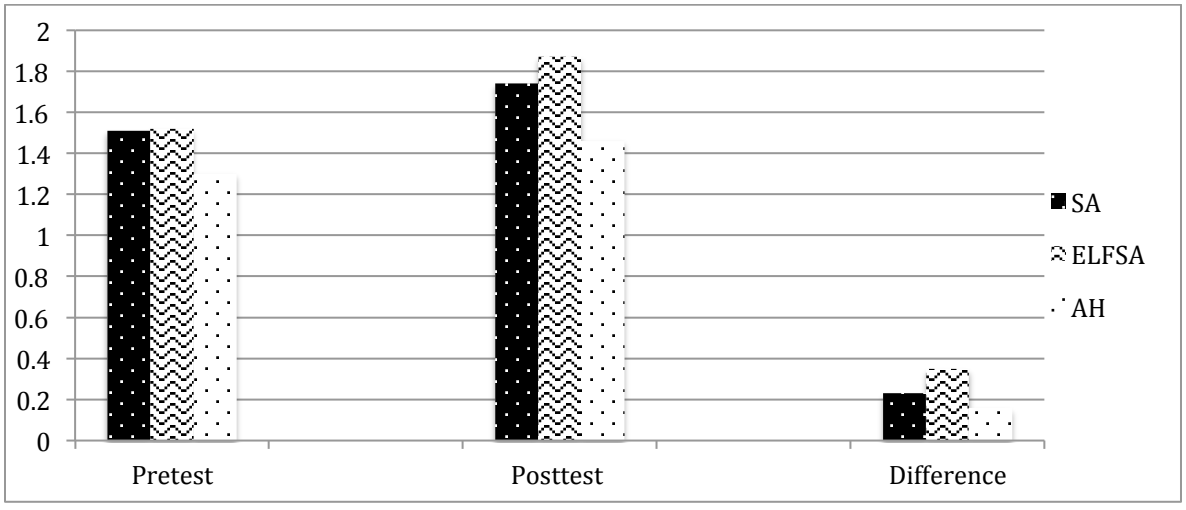


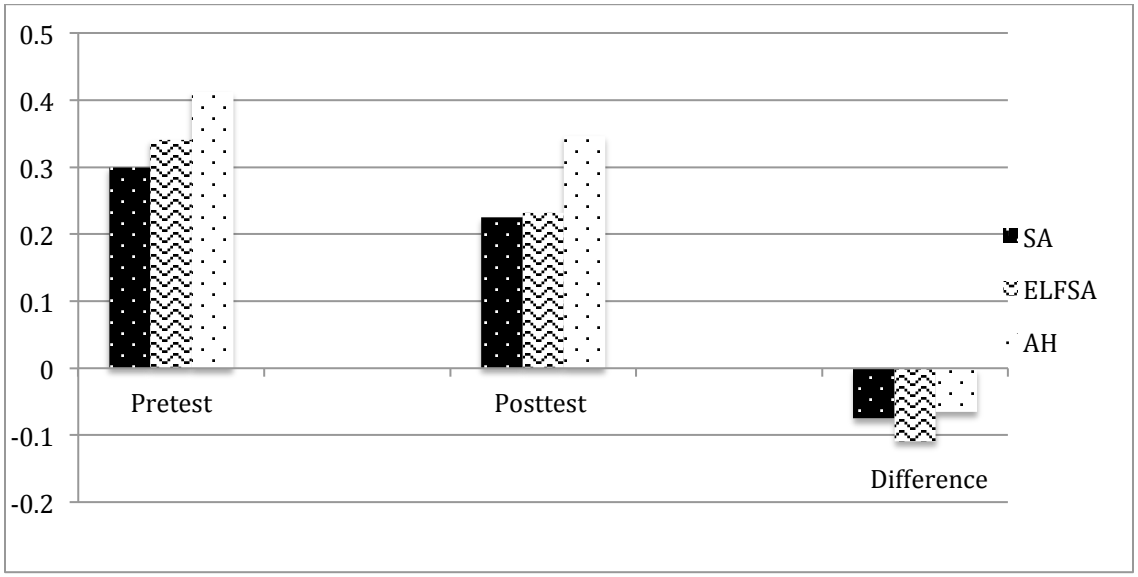
Figure 8. Pretest-Posttest Means and Mean Differences on Speech Rate

The figure showed that all context groups had mean increases over time, which visually communicates the significant main effect of time regardless of context type.

In terms of breakdown fluency, the two-way mixed ANOVA results indicated significant main effects of time (F(1,43) = 16.677, p = .000, partial $\eta 2$ = .254, power = .96) only. No interaction effects were found for time and group. Figure 9 illustrates these results. Table 21 illustrates these results.

Table 21. Two-way Mixed ANOVA on Spoken L2 Development in Breakdown Fluency over Time

Breakdown Fluency (P/T*60)	ANOVA results with Greenhouse-Geisser Correction			
	df	*F*	*Partial η2*	*p*
Within-Subjects Effects				
Time	1, 43	14.677	.254	.000
Time*Group	2, 43	.244	.011	.488



Note. A negative difference score is beneficial in this measure as this indicates fewer pauses in speech.

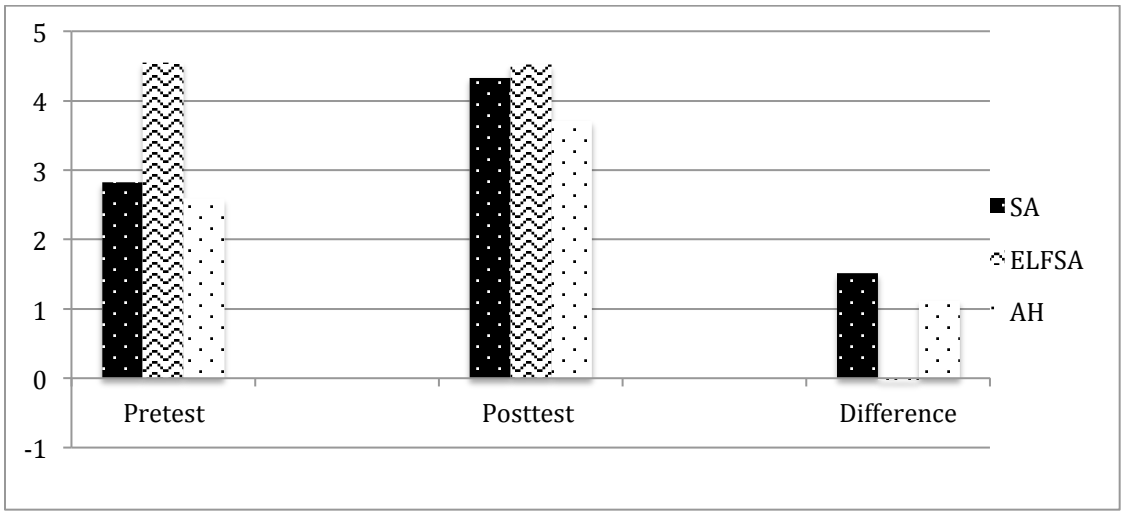
Figure 9. Pretest-Posttest Means and Mean Differences on Breakdown Fluency

The visual above indicated the significant main effect of time on breakdown fluency regardless of context groups. In other words, all the participants ended up with significantly fewer pauses in speech after a semester.

Considering the last measure of spoken fluency, repair fluency scores were also tested in terms of significant differences over time via another two-way mixed ANOVA. The test yielded no significant interaction or main effect of time. It might be concluded that there were no changes over time in participants' speech disfluency rates as measured by the ratio of repairs by speech time. Table 22 presents the results. Figure 10 visually represents the results.

Table 22. Two-way ANOVA on Spoken L2 Development in Repair Fluency over Time

Repair Fluency (D/T)	ANOVA results with Greenhouse-Geisser Correction			
	df	*F*	*Partial η2*	*p*
Within-Subjects Effects				
Time	1, 43	1.458	.033	.234
Time*Group	2, 43	.523	.024	.596



Note. Mean loss signifies the use of fewer repetitions, recasts, or reformulations. However, it does not necessarily indicate more fluent speech if there are mean gains showing increased use of repairs.

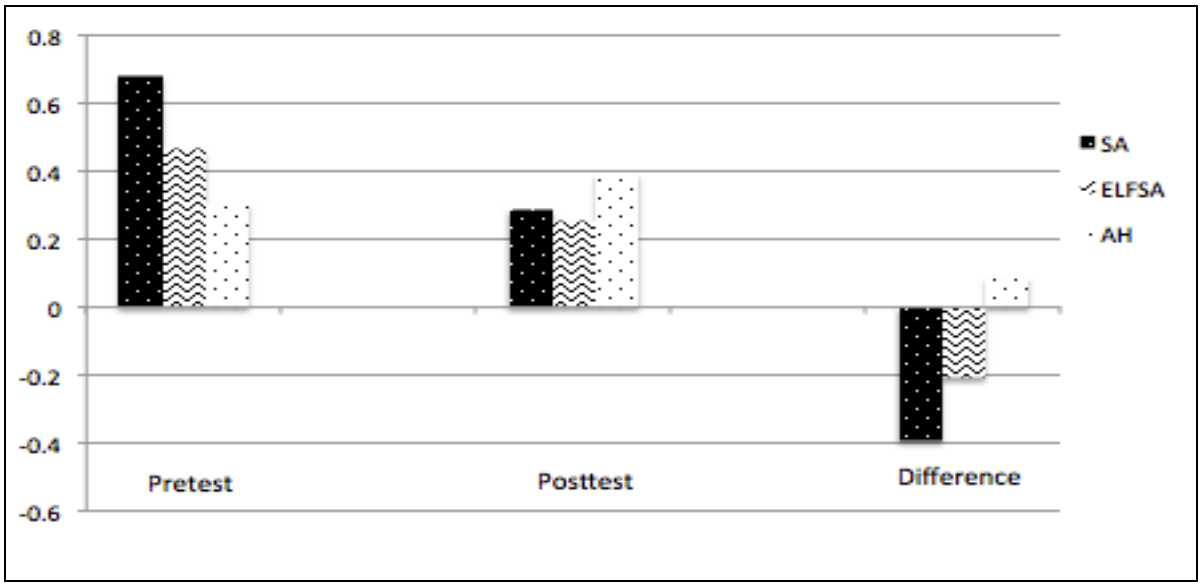
Figure 10. Pretest-Posttest Means and Mean Differences on Repair Fluency

The visual above indicated that the SA and AH groups had more repairs in their speech, while the ELFSA had less after a semester. Yet, these results were not found to be statistically significant.

In accordance with spoken accuracy as measured by the number of errors per AS-unit, another two-way mixed ANOVA was performed with the related scores. The results approached significance for an interaction between time and group (p = .072). This result might be interpreted in a way to show the contextual effects on L2 development in terms of spoken accuracy. Given the mean differences between the pretest and posttest, the SA (pretest M = .678, SD = .223, posttest M = .286, SD = .186) and the ELFSA (pretest M = .464, SD = .522, posttest M = .255, SD = .272) appeared to develop their spoken accuracy between pretest and posttest, whilst the AH appeared to have losses (pretest M = .305, SD = .208, posttest M = .393, SD = .259) (see Figure 11 below). Nonetheless, although these differences were remarkable in the bar chart, the results should be evaluated that they only approached significance (p = .076) in terms of interaction between the two variables. Additionally, the results yielded a significant main effect of time on accuracy (F(1,42) = 5346, p = .026, partial $\eta 2$ = .113, power = .618). Hence, it can be suggested that the mean differences between pretest and posttest are significant regardless of the three context groups. Table 23 illustrates the results. Figure 11 illustrates the mean scores and differences.

Table 23. Two-way ANOVA on Spoken L2 Development in Accuracy over Time

Accuracy (ERR/ASU)	ANOVA results with Greenhouse-Geisser Correction			
	df	*F*	*Partial η2*	*p*
Within-Subjects Effects				
Time	1, 43	5.346	.113	.026
Time*Group	2, 43	2.787	.117	.073



Note. A negative difference score is beneficial in this measure as this indicates a lower error rate.

Figure 11. Pretest-Posttest Means and Mean Differences on Spoken Accuracy

The figure illustrated that both sojourn groups had some mean gains over time, whilst the AH had some mean losses. Yet, the difference between pretest and posttest means was not found to be significant.

As for syntactic complexity, the results of the two-way mixed ANOVA revealed no significant interaction or main effects of time. It might be concluded that there were no significant differences between pretest and posttest regarding participants' spoken syntactic complexity as measured by the ratio of clauses per AS-unit. Table 24 illustrates the results. Figure 12 visually represents the pretest and posttest means and mean differences.

Table 24. *Two-way ANOVA on Spoken L2 Development in Syntactic Complexity over Time*

Syntactic Complexity (CL/ASU)	ANOVA results with Greenhouse-Geisser Correction			
	df	*F*	*Partial η2*	*p*
Within-Subjects Effects				
Time	1, 43	.813	.019	.372
Time*Group	2, 43	2.087	.090	.137

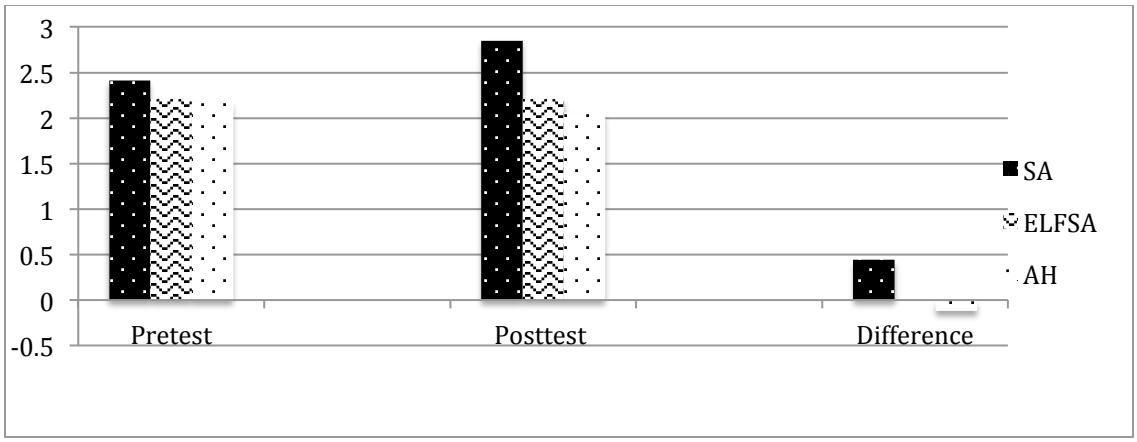


Figure 12. Pretest-Posttest Means and Mean Differences on Syntactic Complexity

As seen in the figure, the SA had some mean gains in time, while the ELFSA had no changes and AH had some losses. Yet, these results were not found to be statistically significant.

Finally, the oral lexical complexity scores were tested for significant differences over time. The results of the two-way mixed ANOVA indicated the interaction between time and group approached significance (p = .076). This result might be interpreted in a way to show the contextual effects on L2 development in terms of spoken lexical complexity. Given the mean differences between the pretest and posttest, only the ELFSA (pretest M = 36.28, SD = 14.96, posttest M = 42.48, SD = 12.66) seemed to develop their lexical complexity over time, while the SA seemed to have no development (pretest M = 36.40, SD = 10.62, posttest M = 36.32, SD = 9.46) and AH appeared to have losses (pretest M = 38.32, SD = 11.57, posttest M = 33.76, SD = 8.45) (see Figure 13 below). Table 25 summarizes these results.

Table 25. Two-way ANOVA on Spoken L2 Development in Lexical Complexity over Time

Lexical Complexity (D)	ANOVA results with Greenhouse-Geisser Correction			
	df	*F*	*Partial η2*	*p*
Within-Subjects Effects				
Time	1, 43	.175	.004	.678
Time*Group	2, 43	2.736	.115	.076

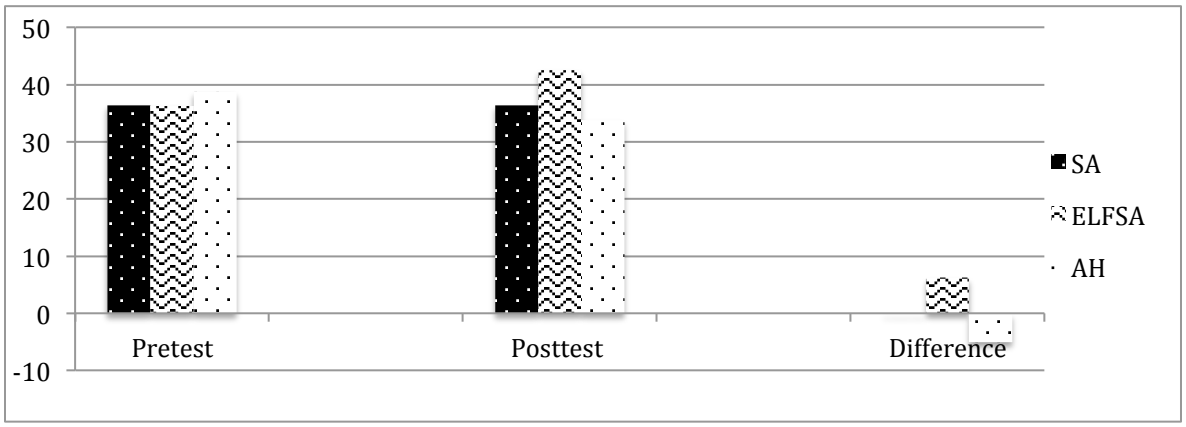


Figure 13. Pretest-Posttest Means and Mean Differences on Lexical Complexity

As illustrated above, the SA had no mean differences after a semester abroad. The ELFSA had some gains, while the AH had some losses. Yet, these differences were not found to be statistically different.

In conclusion, the results from the two-way mixed ANOVAs indicated significant main effects of time only on speech rate and accuracy, which suggested that the mean score differences between the pretest and posttest were statistically significant regardless of group differences. Interaction effects were found to approach significance for accuracy (p = .073) and lexical complexity (p = .076). The results for repair fluency and syntactic complexity were insignificant. Figure 14 summarizes the results in terms of performance improvements.

Spoken Fluency (W/T, P/T, D/T)	Lexical Complexity (D)	Accuracy (ERR/TU)	Syntactic Complexity (CL/TU)
Main Effect of Time **Speech Rate: ELFSA = SA = AH** All participants had significantly different means in between the two test times regardless of group differences.	**Interaction that approached significance** **SA = ELFSA = AH** The results approached significance for the interaction between time and group. The mean scores indicated gains for the sojourn groups only at an approaching significance.	**Main Effect of Time** **SA = ELFSA = AH** **Also interaction that approached significance** The results approached significance for the interaction between time and group. Mean differences over time differed significantly regardless of group differences.	**NONE** **SA = ELFSA = AH** The results revealed no difference among the groups or between two test times, which suggest that they showed similar performanc es over time.
Main Effect of Time **Breakdown Fluency:** The mean difference between pretest and posttest was statistically different. **ELFSA** had the highest mean difference followed by **SA** and **AH**.			
NONE **Repair Fluency: SA = ELFSA = AH** The results revealed no difference among the groups, which suggest that they showed similar performances.			

Figure 14. Summary of Results for Spoken Performance Improvement over Time

RQ3 - Bringing Everything Together: The Contexts, L2 development, and PPLI

The purpose of the third research question was to explore how the findings from the first two research questions relate and unify in a way to provide a more holistic picture of the three learning contexts in relation to L2 development over a semester. To delve more profoundly into the participants' ideas and perceptions towards the phenomena under investigation, this question was investigated qualitatively through semi-structured interviews administered once at the end of the first month and once upon the end of the treatment period with a subset of the participants. Two participants from each group, one with the lowest and one with the highest reported L2 contact amount from the LIQ were chosen for the interviews so as to further investigate the link

between the amount of language contact, contextual features, and L2 development. The analysis of these data helped the researcher learn more about the interviewed individuals' context-dependent language use patterns, how they perceived their development over time if they were from a sojourn group and their perceptions towards multilingualism and PPLI, along with the interplay among the three.

The qualitative data from the semi-structured interviews (see Appendix H for the questions) were analyzed following the principles of content analysis to determine the emergent themes through two rounds of open coding (Creswell, 2003). All names used in the data analysis are pseudonyms to maintain participant anonymity. Table 26 summarizes the personal characteristics of the participants who took part in this aspect of the study.

Table 26. Participant Characteristics

Participant Characteristics Name*	Group	Sex	Major	Proficiency Level (out of 120 EIT Mean Score)	Amount of L2 Interaction (1st LIQ Mean out of 6.00)
Burcu	SA	F	Economics	47	3.36
Bilge	SA	F	English Language Teaching	86	5.55
Fuat	ELFSA	M	Economics	111	2.18
Ada	ELFSA	F	Business Administration	79	5.82
Hale	AH	F	American Culture and Literature	114	2.73
Ebru	AH	F	American Culture and Literature	67	5.18

Note. * = All names are pseudonyms, SA = Study Abroad, ELFSA = English as lingua franca Study Abroad, AH = At Home, EIT = Elicited Imitation Task (Ortega et al., 1999), LIQ = Language Interaction Questionnaire

The SA participants that were interviewed had differences not only in terms of the amount of L2 contact they had, but also in terms of accommodation and location in England. Burcu, the participant with the lowest L2 contact in the SA group (LIQ $M = 3.36$), stayed with a family in the north of England. At the end of the first month, she reported to have difficulties in getting used to the school and the environment, but especially the family. Accent was a huge problem for her as well as speech rate because British people tend to "swallow" some words (i.e., the use of weak forms in spoken English). This finding is in line with the data from the open-ended items in the LIQ. At first, Burcu was unable to make any friends. She was also having problems with the family she was staying with. She also had issues regarding school subjects. Because of such problems, she had few opportunities to use the L2. Most of the time she was only interacting with locals when shopping for food or personal needs. Burcu was of the opinion that her native-speaker interlocutors, especially those she communicated with for service encounters, found her accent strange and unintelligible. She reported: "they expected me to speak the way they speak their native languages. My Turkish accent was weird for them, I think, because they always ask me where I come from. Maybe they are not used to talking to foreigners." However, 16 weeks later, she reported to have overcome her problems as she regarded herself a "more fluent speaker using many different words with fewer pronunciation mistakes". She had a lot of native speaker friends from her classes and also other exchange students she met through her classmates and student organizations. She had better relations with the family as well. She claimed to have developed her spoken language as well us comprehension, the details of which are presented in Table 27 below. She believed that she developed her English so much as she had "millions of opportunities to use English" in her daily life. She was so happy because "even at a supermarket", everybody was speaking English.

Overall, as being the least frequent L2 user, Burcu's pre-departure proficiency level (EIT score 47 out of 120 possible) should also be taken into consideration. She mentioned several times that she had issues in terms of mutual unintelligibility that both the members of the family she stayed with and herself had difficulty communicating. Yet, she overcame such issues through time, which might also suggest that she developed her L2 in a way to better communicate using English in her sojourn context. The L2 development data also indicated a significant effect of time regardless of group differences in a way to confirm Burcu's self-perception.

Contrary to Burcu, Bilge, the SA participant with the highest amount of reported L2 contact (LIQ $M = 5.55$), reported that she easily made new friends in her class. She was an English Language Teaching major and she stayed in a student house close to London. The languages she was exposed to in her accommodation were Urdu, English, and Turkish. She thought that because she was a proficient user of English, she did not have any problems. She had some issues regarding the "thick British accent" but she immediately got used to it, a frequently mentioned difficulty in the SA. Although she did not make a lot of new friends, her classmates, her Turkish friend nearby, and a few Pakistani international students were enough to interact with. All in all, she thinks she interacted with native speakers 80% of the time and only 20% with non-native L2 speakers. She also emphasized how different native speaker and L2 speaker input were in terms of complexity, accuracy, and fluency. Weak forms were also difficult to comprehend at first for her. In terms of language use, Bilge reported that she listened to English more, spoke and wrote more, but read less in England. She also had "pragmatic gains" as a result of her interaction with native speakers. As for PPLI, Bilge did not have much L3 use but she reported that she could clearly see positive interactions in terms of

> … processes like those of Universal Grammar and Teachability, as well as similar learning strategies. Therefore, the acquisition process has a certain universal pattern across different languages. For example, everybody learns basic daily chunks like *Hello* or *Goodbye* before simple tenses.

In light of the previously shown empirical link between holding a PPLI status and having better language learning outcomes (Thompson, 2013), it might be concluded that Bilge developed some metalinguistic awareness regarding how languages are learned by referring to two well-known theories. Although she did not define her context as a multilingual one given that she only used the L2 with minimal number of non-native speakers (Pakistani international students), she still reported to see new and clearer connections among the languages she knew (English, German, and Italian). It should also be kept in mind that she had a relatively higher initial proficiency level (EIT score 86 out of 120), resulting in fewer problems to encounter with at the beginning of her sojourn. Yet, she had the exact same issues regarding the variety of English available in the context, with similar issues in speech rate and spoken features like weak forms and connected speech. Overall, drawing upon the two sojourners' experiences in their context, the SA was still reported to provide the necessary opportunities for sojourners to develop their L2 over a period of semester despite its difficulties. To explore if their perceptions about L2 development had quantitative evidence, individual scores for pretests and posttests were investigated. Table 27 below presents the two SA participants' individual scores regarding oral and written measures at the pretest and posttest.

Table 27. Descriptive Statistics for Oral Production Data for the SA Interviewees

SA Interviewees' L2 Scores		Burcu	Bilge
		Score	*Score*
Fluency Speech Rate (W/T)	Pretest	1.26	1.33
	Posttest	1.98	2.04
Breakdown Fluency (P/T)	Pretest	.495	.316
	Posttest	.160	.107
Repair Fluency (D/T)	Pretest	1.05	1.05
	Posttest	2.95	.000
Accuracy (ERR/TU)	Pretest	.583	.600
	Posttest	.285	.090
Syntactic Complexity (CL/TU)	Pretest	.750	3.71
	Posttest	2.800	2.27
Lexical Complexity (D)	Pretest	41.49	31.35
	Posttest	35.01	42.13

Note. W/T = words divided by total time, P/T = total pause duration divided by time, R/P = total disfluencies per time, ERR/ASU = errors per AS-unit, CL/ASU = clauses per AS-unit, D = D measure

As seen in the table above, Burcu had gains in the posttest regarding all the measures but repair fluency and lexical complexity. Bilge, on the other hand, had gains over time on all the measures regarding oral development. Therefore, it can be concluded that the participants' perceptions regarding their oral development in the L2 over time were supported by quantitative measurement. With regards to written development, the Table 28 below summarizes the results for these two participants.

Table 28. Descriptive Statistics for Written Production Data for the SA Interviewees

SA Interviewees' L2 Scores		Burcu	Bilge
		Score	*Score*
Fluency (W/T)	Pretest	16.67	14.80
	Posttest	16.44	15.69
Accuracy (ERR/TU)	Pretest	.455	.100
	Posttest	.455	.308
Syntactic Complexity (CL/TU)	Pretest	2.09	2.00
	Posttest	2.05	3.00
Lexical Complexity (D)	Pretest	28.62	53.79
	Posttest	46.37	72.80

Note. W/T = words divided by total time, ERR/TU = errors per T-unit, CL/ASU = clauses per AS-unit, D = D measure

As shown in the table, Burcu, the interviewee with the lowest L2 contact, had similar results for written fluency, accuracy, and syntactic complexity in the posttest. However, she seemed to have gains in lexical complexity. On the contrary, Bilge, the interviewee with the highest L2 contact had gains in all measures but accuracy. These results are also in line with how these two SA participants perceived their development after a semester abroad.

Considering the EFLSA participants, Fuat reported to have the lowest L2 contact amount (LIQ M = 2.18). He was in Germany, staying in a single dorm room. He had local opportunities to use Turkish. He also started to take German classes right at the beginning of the ERASMUS period. He thought that was the reason why he was not using that much English. His goals were not limited to improving his English (he was a proficient user) but his German more. 16 weeks later, Fuat indicated that he used more German (25 hours) than English (10 hours) every week.

He also used more Turkish than he expected because he had Turks at the dorm as well as he was interacting with Turkish locals. He mostly listened and read in English more than he wrote or spoke. The classes which were all taught in English were also easier as compared to his classes in Turkey. Fuat described his ERASMUS experience as "a holiday" in academic terms. Yet, it was an experience forcing him to leave his "comfort zone" when he had to use German in certain cases. Interestingly, he referred to the fact that the use of a simpler English with several mistakes was more tolerated in Germany than Turkey. He reported:

> when I heard my professor's English, I thought that there was no need to keep my expectations high. If you can express yourself and clarify your message, you do not need to worry about using an advanced word like *notwithstanding* in your speech.

Therefore, to Fuat, grammatical accuracy or the use of low-frequency vocabulary were not expected as features of general use of English anymore in an ELF context. What became important for him was to be able to clearly convey one's message. In terms of PPLI, he reported to see stronger connections between German and English now. He also reported that users of the same L1 (in this case Americans and British people) frequently get together and cast out L2 English users, making it rather difficult for L2 users to interact with native speakers in the ELFSA context.

Interestingly, Fuat was one of the sojourners with the highest pre-departure proficiency level (EIT score 111 out of 120); yet, he ended up using less English than other ELFSA sojourners. His competency in German as an L3 might be one of the reasons behind his using less English. Similar to the SA participants, he had some issues regarding the native speaker varieties of English available at his context (American and British English). The ELFSA for him was a multilingual context, paving the way for seeing new connections among the languages he

knew, more importantly helping him to adapt an ELF viewpoint to L2 use and ultimate attainment in the TL.

As for the most frequent L2 user in the ELFSA (LIQ $M = 5.82$), Ada was interviewed. She was an exchange student in Denmark, staying in a single room at the student dorm, where the major languages were Polish, German, Greek, Turkish, and English. From the beginning, Ada had no issues making new friends in her new context. She had many opportunities to interact in English with classmates, professors, and other exchange students. She mostly spoke and listened to English, ending up with a developed fluency. She reported that she learned "how to ask questions fearlessly" with her broken English as she was not a proficient speaker at first:

> Here, delivering your message is more important than forming complex sentences. You have to speak without being afraid of making a mistake. I managed to do so here. I gave up questioning myself if my speech was grammatically correct or not. I changed my perceptions about mistakes here. I was expecting foreigners with perfect London English, but I got shocked! They do make mistakes, a lot of… When I was able to explain what I want to say with my broken English, I felt better, motivated. In Turkey, teachers expect us to form flawless complex sentences. They never teach us how to deliver our message across. What they should teach is just strategies for simple communication. We will learn how to form complex sentences eventually. We have to learn how to express ourselves. Foreigners are taking it easy when they make a mistake. In Turkey, even the teachers laugh at you when you pronounce the word celebrate with a /k/ instead of an /s/. We need to change this.

Her touching upon the notions of ELF in the given context is a significant finding pertaining to the different aspects of English as an L2 use in different ERASMUS countries. Additionally, Ada

highlighted the importance of such an exposure to the target language in a SA or ELFSA context as one might at least learn "how to learn a language". She also echoed what Fuat reported in terms of leaving the "comfort zone" when she had to express herself with her limited language in a critical situation, yet "it makes you a more self-confident user in the end." As for PPLI, she thinks this program helped her see further positive interactions in terms of vocabulary, typology, phonology, pronunciation, but fewer connections in terms of strategies. She was able to use some Danish with the help of her Turkish immigrant friends in Denmark. Her way of learning Danish might have thus altered her opinions about language learning strategies, as this was not a formal classroom context for her.

In short, Ada made the most of her sojourn experience in terms of L2 and L3 use, establishing new networks helping her to get increased interaction in the L2, resulting in a further developed PPLI perspective. Although she had relatively lower pre-departure proficiency in the L2 (EIT score 79 out of 120) than Fuat, she was able to effectively use English when communicating with non-native speakers, which helped her gain an ELF perspective concerning the notions of L2 use, development, and ultimate attainment similar to those of Fuat. The multicultural nature of the ELFSA context as a difference from the SA might be held responsible for this lingua franca perspective. Both ELFSA interviewees indicated that they developed their English over time. To investigate if their perceptions had any quantitative evidence, their individual scores for pretest and posttest were scrutinized. Table 29 below presents the two ELFSA participants scores on the oral measures at the pretest and posttest.

Table 29. Descriptive Statistics for Oral Production Data for the ELFSA Interviewees

ELFSA Interviewees' L2 Scores		Fuat	Ada
		Score	*Score*
Fluency Speech Rate (W/T)	Pretest	2.48	1.52
	Posttest	3.35	1.63
Breakdown Fluency (P/T)	Pretest	.280	.241
	Posttest	.122	.223
Repair Fluency (D/T)	Pretest	4.77	6.98
	Posttest	8.14	7.38
Accuracy (ERR/TU)	Pretest	.000	.400
	Posttest	.100	.400
Syntactic Complexity (CL/TU)	Pretest	1.55	2.40
	Posttest	1.90	1.60
Lexical Complexity (D)	Pretest	42.86	34.25
	Posttest	67.01	45.55

Note. W/T = words divided by total time, P/T = total pause duration divided by time, R/P = total disfluencies per time, ERR/ASU = errors per AS-unit, CL/ASU = clauses per AS-unit, D = D measure

As seen in the table above, Ada had gains in the posttest on all the measures but repair fluency, accuracy, and syntactic complexity. Fuat, on the other hand, had gains over time on all the measures except for accuracy and lexical complexity. Therefore, it can be concluded that both participants' perceptions regarding their oral development in the L2 over time were supported by quantitative measurement at least for fluency. With regards to written development, Table 30 below summarizes the individual scores for these two participants.

Table 30. Descriptive Statistics for Written Production Data for the ELFSA Interviewees

ELFSA Interviewees' L2 Scores		Fuat	Ada
		Score	*Score*
Fluency (W/T)	Pretest	13.93	19.76
	Posttest	12.30	20.00
Accuracy (ERR/TU)	Pretest	.267	5.83
	Posttest	.250	.364
Syntactic Complexity (CL/TU)	Pretest	2.47	2.50
	Posttest	3.00	3.00
Lexical Complexity (D)	Pretest	85.33	60.13
	Posttest	95.33	84.20

Note. W/T = words divided by total time, ERR/TU = errors per T-unit, CL/ASU = clauses per AS-unit, D = D measure

As illustrated in the table, Fuat, the interviewee with the lowest L2 contact, had similar gains for all the measures but written fluency in the posttest. Quite similarly Ada, the interviewee with the highest L2 contact had gains in all measures. These results are also in line with how these two SA participants perceived their written development after a semester abroad.

Pertaining to the participants in the AH group, two students were selected again in light of their responses to the first LIQ. Hale, the one with the least L2 contact amount (LIQ M = 2.73), was a third year student at the American Culture and Literature department, staying at an off-campus apartment with her friends. Before the semester, she had more (still the least) contact in the L2 because she was playing an online game. She reported to exchange voice and text messages with international game players every day when she was an active player. However, 16 weeks later she reported that she only used English for school, when listening to lectures, reading for classes, and writing essays for exams. She indicated that she was well aware of the benefits

of the exchange programs, yet she cannot risk getting out of her "comfort zone". All in all, she was happy with her development because she "can express herself clearly without problems of intelligibility when speaking in English".

It should be noted that Hale had one of the highest initial proficiency scores among all the participants in the study (EIT score 114 out of 120). Yet, she did not have that much of an interest to interact using her L2. She was a bilingual without PPLI as well. These might be influential for her to use less TL given the fact that she did not feel the urge to develop her L2 further. Also, her individual characteristics, such as her reluctance to leave her "comfort zone" for an exchange program, might underline the important interplay between individual and contextual factors in a way to make the most of the contextual learning experience to develop one's L2.

Finally, the most L2 contact amount was reported by Ebru in the AH group (LIQ M = 5.18). She was also a third year student at the department of American Culture and Literature. Different than Hale, Ebru had a few international friends that she frequently met. Therefore, she had more spoken interaction opportunities. These foreign friends are also users of English as an L2. Ebru reported that she mostly read and wrote in English to meet the course requirements. At the end of the treatment period, she reported that she "feels more fluent when writing but the same in terms of speaking." Considering the fact that these AH participants had to take 18 credit hours of classes a week instructed in English and mostly with written assignment requirements, written fluency gains might have overweighed those in speaking regardless of more speaking opportunities. Interestingly, Ebru had a relatively lower initial proficiency level (EIT score 67 out of 120). Yet, she was quite actively participating in off campus events where she had the chance to interact with internationals using the L2. However, she was not convinced that such an

interaction would be enough for a semester to develop in the L2. Her experiences might lead us to the idea that it might be possible to find more L2 users to practice spoken English in AH contexts as well. All in all, she was certain that she developed her written English over the semester. Yet, the two participants from the AH group did not report to have any experiences regarding multilingualism and PPLI.

Both AH interviewees reported that they felt to have developed their L2 over a semester. To explore if their perceptions had quantitative evidence, individual scores for these two participants were scrutinized. Table 31 below summarizes their results for the oral measures.

Table 31. Descriptive Statistics for Oral Production Data for the AH Interviewees

AH Interviewees' L2 Scores		Hale	Ebru
		Score	*Score*
Fluency Speech Rate (W/T)	Pretest	1.15	1.24
	Posttest	1.32	1.39
Breakdown Fluency (P/T)	Pretest	.510	.322
	Posttest	.430	.330
Repair Fluency (D/T)	Pretest	1.97	3.80
	Posttest	5.83	7.38
Accuracy (ERR/TU)	Pretest	.500	.375
	Posttest	.090	.700
Syntactic Complexity (CL/TU)	Pretest	2.50	1.75
	Posttest	1.36	1.80
Lexical Complexity (D)	Pretest	49.04	37.47
	Posttest	35.02	35.43

Note. W/T = words divided by total time, P/T = total pause duration divided by time, R/P = total disfluencies per time, ERR/ASU = errors per AS-unit, CL/ASU = clauses per AS-unit, D = D measure

As seen in the table above, Handan had some losses in oral repair fluency and syntactic and lexical complexity, which can be determined in light of the fact that she had the lowest L2 contact reported. Yet, she had some small gains in all other measures. As for the AH interviewee with the highest L2 contact amount, Ebru had gains in the posttest regarding all the measures but repair fluency and lexical complexity, although she reported that she did not feel to have developed her spoken English at all after a semester. On the whole, it can be concluded that both participants' perceptions regarding their oral development in the relatively smaller development in the L2 over time were supported by quantitative measurement. With regards to written development, Table 32 below summarizes the results for these two participants.

Table 32. Descriptive Statistics for Written Production Data for the AH Interviewees

AH Interviewees' L2 Scores		Hale	Ebru
		Score	*Score*
Fluency (W/T)	Pretest	14.53	12.73
	Posttest	20.09	29.72
Accuracy (ERR/TU)	Pretest	.190	.471
	Posttest	.100	.270
Syntactic Complexity (CL/TU)	Pretest	1.76	2.18
	Posttest	3.00	2.00
Lexical Complexity (D)	Pretest	55.78	58.36
	Posttest	63.40	74.10

Note. W/T = words divided by total time, ERR/TU = errors per T-unit, CL/ASU = clauses per AS-unit, D = D measure

As illustrated in the table, Hale, the interviewee with the lowest L2 contact, had gains in all written measures in the posttest. Quite similarly, Ada, the interviewee with the highest L2 contact had gains in all measures but syntactic complexity. These results are also in line with

how these two SA participants perceived their written development after a semester of instruction.

Considering the semi-structured interviews, the SA participants had common problems with the British accent and speech rate, which extended the LIQ findings into the interviews. They overcame these through the exchange semester. The one with higher L2 contact had more interaction with English (M = 5.55) and had higher threshold levels as measured by EIT than the one with the lower L2 contact (M = 3.36). In terms of ELFSA participants, Fuat and Ada had different problems. Fuat, the less frequent user of L2, reported to have less L2 contact as he used more L3 and Turkish than Ada, who had problems in terms of her lower proficiency at first. They similarly improved their comprehension and developed an ELF perspective altering their L2 related expectations in terms of competence. Similarly, both ELFSA participants saw stronger connections between their L2 and L3 after 16-weeks. Finally, the AH participants reported to have developed themselves in terms of writing skills as they used the TL mostly for reading and writing. This context, neither through the questionnaire data nor through those from the interviews was mentioned as beneficial for spoken L2 interaction. Last but not least, the multicultural nature of the ELFSA context might have paved the way for an ELF perspective among its participants, whose L2 performances are also analyzed in the next section in a way to confirm such findings. Table 33 summarizes the findings from the interview data.

Table 33. Findings of the Interview Data

Participant (Gr)	Problem	Type of L2 Use	Development/ Changes	PPLI
Burcu (SA)	Meeting people British accent Speech rate School subjects	Listening Speaking	Speaking Fluency and Listening Comprehension	No L3 use, no different connections
Bilge (SA)	British accent Many local opportunities to use Turkish Weak forms in speech	Listening Speaking Writing	Listening Speaking Writing Pragmatics	Universal acquisition processes are similar.
Fuat (ELFSA)	Using German and Turkish	Listening Reading	Comprehension ELF perspective	Stronger connections in terms of vocabulary and learning strategies
Ada (ELFSA)	More proficient users of English at first	Speaking Listening	Spoken fluency Comprehension ELF perspective	Stronger connections in terms of vocabulary, typology, phonology, and pronunciation, but less connections for learning strategies
Hale (AH)	No out of class spoken interaction	Reading Writing	Writing	N/A
Ebru (AH)	Fewer out of class interaction opportunities	Reading Writing	Writing	N/A

Note. SA = Study Abroad, ELFSA = English as lingua franca Study Abroad, AH = At Home, PPLI = Perceived Positive Language Interaction (Thompson, 2013).

To summarize, the third research question was an attempt to investigate the ways that the contextual findings (language use and type of interlocutors) and those of L2 development can be unified through a total of six individual participants' self-reported experiences and perceptions regarding each learning context (two interviewees per context). In this sense, the findings

provided a more detailed picture of contextual features and the selected individuals' experiences and perceptions towards their development in the L2. The interviewees also informed us more about multilingualism and PPLI in relation to their learning contexts, for which the ELFSA was again confirmed to be a multilingual environment helping learners reveal new connections among the foreign languages they knew. The developmental perceptions were also confirmed by the CAF data of the individuals interviewed.

Conclusion

The results of research question one demonstrated that both sojourn groups had frequent opportunities for speaking in the L2, while they were not deprived of L1 use. The AH, on the other hand, was more helpful for receptive exposure than productive engagement with the L2. As for L3 use, the data supported the ELFSA as a multilingual context. No L3 use was reported in the SA and AH contexts. These findings were also confirmed by the analysis of the qualitative data from the LIQ and PPLIQ. Also, the sojourn contexts were described differently pertaining to context-related affordances and difficulties. Yet, all sojourners reported their contexts suitable for L2 development.

Pertaining to L2 development over time, a significant interaction effect was found only on written fluency, suggesting that only the AH group made significant development on this measure. In terms of oral performances, significant main effects of time were found on speech rate, breakdown fluency, and accuracy indicating that regardless of context groups, the participants as a whole had significantly different means in the two test times. As for accuracy and lexical complexity, interaction effects approached significance, showing a relationship between time and group for these measures.

All these findings were further explored qualitatively in the interviews in a way to unify the context-related language use patterns, types of interlocutor, L2 development, and participants' perceptions towards multilingualism from a PPLI perspective. Overall, the ELFSA context differed from the SA in terms of its rather multilingual nature with availability of a variety of L3s in addition to English. Both sojourn contexts were perceived to be suitable for oral L2 development; however individual scores for the participants interviewed indicated gains also for written measures. The AH context, on the other hand, was reported to be more suitable for written development, which was confirmed by the individual scores for the interviewees.

This chapter described the analyses of the quantitative and qualitative data. The next chapter presents the findings of the study in light of related SLA literature also encompassing issues of ELF and multilingualism. Pedagogical implications and suggestions for further research are also described along with the limitations of the current study.

CHAPTER V:

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study investigated the effects of three different learning contexts on English L2 development as measured by oral and written fluency, accuracy, and syntactic and lexical complexity. It also investigated the contextual differences regarding language use, type of interlocutors, and participants' perceptions towards multilingualism through a PPLI perspective. More importantly, the difference between the two sojourn contexts of the study, an Anglophone study abroad (SA) and a non-Anglophone English as lingua franca study abroad (ELFSA) was investigated to better understand the understudied ELFSA context and participants' experiences over a 16-week semester.

The analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data was delineated in the previous section addressing the three research questions of the study. This chapter revisits the results presented in the previous chapter and discusses them with regards to the findings in the relevant literature. It also concludes the study by presenting the limitations of the current study and suggestions for further research, as well as providing pedagogical implications.

RQ 1 – Contextual Differences

> RQ1 - How do the three learning contexts compare in terms of language use, types of activities and interlocutors, and *Perceived Positive Language Interaction* (PPLI, Thompson, 2013) in light of the Language Interaction Questionnaire (LIQ) and the *Perceived Positive Language Interaction* Questionnaire (PPLIQ)?

The data from the LIQ indicated that the three learning contexts of the study both coincided and differed in terms of how and with whom the participants used the TL and had local opportunities to use the L1 and/or L3. The sojourn contexts were found to involve more spoken use than receptive exposure which was the major type of contact in the AH context. Writing was the least frequent activity in the sojourn contexts, whilst for the AH participants it was speaking. In this sense, these results resonate with those in the literature which indicated that spoken interaction was the most frequent type of engagement with the L2 in a given sojourn context (Freed, 2009; McManus, Mitchell, & Tracy-Ventura, 2014). The SA participants reported interacting more frequently with native speakers, while the ELFSA and AH participants reported interacting more often with non-native speaker interlocutors. Pertaining to the use of L1, the current study also extends the results of the relevant literature (McManus, Mitchell, & Tracy-Ventura, 2014) inasmuch as L1 use was most frequent in virtual settings for the sojourn groups (i.e., Internet use). Additionally, the most frequent type of accommodation was found to be some form of institutional residence like dormitories or on campus student housing, indicating another similarity with the SA literature (McManus, Mitchell, & Tracy-Ventura, 2014). Yet, the only participant of the study who preferred a family stay in the SA reported this type of accommodation to be problematic for increasing L2 use and exposure opportunities. This may be related to the cultural difference between the host family and the sojourner hindering beneficial interaction.

Given the similar frequencies reported by the SA and ELFSA groups for all type of activities, especially for oral L2 use, results of this study suggest that the SA context is no more the sole essential provider to use English abroad due to the availability of interacting with native speakers as opposed to what Magnan & Back suggested (2007). This does not change in terms of

the different type of interlocutors available in the two sojourn contexts (native speakers for the SA and non-native speakers for the ELFSA). Also apparent in the qualitative data from the LIQ, participants from both sojourn groups suggested making as many exchange student friends as possible through social events and organizations within their ERASMUS network to get more opportunities to use English. Therefore, it might be argued that type of interlocutor is also important in the sense that shared experiences and closer social proximity help facilitate communication through English resulting in development. Additionally, the finding regarding the use of Turkish in the SA and ELFSA contrasts with the general idea that increased L1 use would hinder L2 development in a sojourn context (Tanaka, 2007) seeing that both the SA and ELFSA participants reported to have frequent L1 use during their stay abroad.

Another prominent difference between the two sojourn contexts apart from the type of interlocutors was the multilingual nature of the ELFSA context. Both through the LIQ and the qualitative instruments, the participants of this group reported to have contact with the local language to some degree (from the use of a single word or simple greetings to short conversations with local people). In line with the literature (Mitchell, Tracy-Ventura, & McManus, forthcoming), this finding suggests that the study abroad experience in Europe, especially in ELF contexts should be regarded as a multilingual and multicultural experience, underscoring the importance of potential sojourners' perspectives towards such a learning and social environment. Learners' expectations, hence, might be affected by the nature of this context (Kalocsai, 2014).

The multilingual nature of the ELFSA context might also be interpreted in light of the qualitative data findings. All PPLI participants, especially the ones in this context, indicated that the lexical relationship between English and European languages, such as German, Dutch,

Flemish, Danish, among romance languages, such as French, Spanish, and Italian, and finally between Latin and Greek were quite transparent, helping them in understanding their interlocutors' message. Regardless of lexical similarities, ELFSA participants also indicated that knowing another foreign language helped them learn the language of their host country. It was repeatedly indicated that vocabulary was a huge aid for comprehension, guessing meaning from context, and retention of the newly learned word. Contextual differences might have no influence on a participants' holding a PPLI status or not. Yet, having a PPLI status helps learners see new and useful connections between two foreign languages in a way to facilitate the learning of the newer one and developing the previously learned one, as well as increasing their language learning motivation (Thompson, 2013; Thompson & Erdil-Moody, 2014). Also, it may not be a coincidence for multilingual and PPLI participants to prefer the ELFSA context rather than the SA context for their ERASMUS exchange semester. They might have considered the opportunities to use their L3s in their host countries, in addition to English, when deciding which host country to prefer. Yet, it should also be noted that some Turkish universities do not have mutual learning agreements with British and Irish universities. Therefore, some students may have wanted to study abroad in an English-speaking country but could not.

In this sense, these findings extend the ones in the relevant literature to an underexplored context for learning English abroad, the ELFSA. It might be that the ELFSA context with its multilingual nature helps learners to raise metalinguistic awareness, giving way to a beneficial learner perspective towards multilingualism and language learning (Thompson, 2013).

Additionally, the ELFSA participants reported to have seen positive interactions in terms of grammar, learning strategies, and cultural learning more than the SA and AH participants who reported to hold a PPLI status. Similar to the abovementioned discussion, the ELFSA context, as

described to be more multilingual and more multicultural than the SA and AH, might be influential for language learners to have different PPLI perceptions through a variety of linguistic and cultural experiences. Although syntactic and phonological differences were reported to make it more difficult to learn an additional language, participants' PPLI status was yet influential to raise metalinguistic awareness especially in the ELFSA context (Thompson & Aslan, 2014).

The Participants' Portrayal Of The Sojourn Contexts

Considering sojourn experiences in relation to language-use difficulties in their contexts, the SA participants were found to have more problems regarding native speaker accent, speech rate, and understanding the less stressed weak forms in their speech. The interview data from the SA participants confirmed these findings, adding issues as to meeting new people, school subjects, and local opportunities to use Turkish into the picture. Therefore, it appears that the more frequent interaction opportunities with native speakers in the SA context (based on the LIQ data) were not always discussed in a positive way due to the challenges they faced growing accustomed to regional accents, particularly when pre-departure proficiency levels were found to be lower than the other sojourners. Yet, both the quantitative and qualitative data indicated that the SA participants developed their language abilities despite the difficulties reported.

The ELFSA participants differently described their contexts as compared to those of the SA. The multilingual and multicultural nature of the context was reported to be problematic at the beginning of the ELFSA group's exchange period. This was mostly because of the necessity to use the local language especially in host countries where English language proficiency was reported to be low by the EU index (2015), such as Italy and Greece.

On the other hand, having more exchange student friends to interact with was described as one of the most important advantages of the ELFSA context, but this was not mentioned by

the SA group. Mutual understanding among sojourners was a source of motivation to communicate using English and helped build emotional rapport between the interlocutors. The participants also described the ELFSA as a context where L2 communication is not characterized and "controlled" by grammatical accuracy and the use of advanced low-frequency vocabulary. The international status of English in the given context might have been more explicit to the participants of this context than those in the SA group. This finding is in line with the relevant literature in the sense that ELFSA participants had a shift from expectations of accuracy to fluency under the contextual conditions (Kaypak & Ortaçtepe, 2014). Prioritizing being able to convey one's message across, the ELFSA context was found to be a typical portrayal of how the literature describes the use of English as lingua franca in Europe. To put it differently, despite the variations in phonetics, phonology, and morphosyntax, L2 users in this context prioritized negotiation for meaning in personal communication more than grammatical or phonological accuracy (Matsumoto, 2011). Likewise, the sojourners in the ELFSA context reported to have realized that grammatical accuracy was not indispensable for fluent communication. These findings of the current study are in line with ELF literature (Baker; 2009; Jenkins, 2006; Kaypak & Ortaçtepe, 2014; Matsumoto, 2011; Seidlhofer, 2004; Virkkula & Nikkula, 2010). As this prominent perception and L2 use shift from focus on form and accuracy to focus on meaning and intelligibility coincides with the findings of the literature, it should also be noted that what distinguishes the ELFSA from the SA for the participants of the current study is this notion of English as lingua franca at work among L2 learners more than those in the SA context (Kaypak & Ortaçtepe, 2014). It should be noted that lingua franca characteristics might also be prevalent in the SA context given the international users of English frequently interacting with each other

in this Anglophone country. However, for the present study, ELF has been more prominent in the data from the ELFSA group.

To further exemplify, similar to the findings of Kaypak and Ortaçtepe (2014) and Kalocsai (2009), the ELFSA participants in the current study who used ERASMUS English were found to have a shift from expectations of native-like accuracy to intelligibility in their language use considering L2 errors, amount of necessary input, and type of interlocutors. Such a shift helped them establish successful interaction and communicative practices in the ELFSA context (Kaypak & Ortaçtepe, 2014) as they reported in the qualitative data. The context itself required the use of English among sojourners to establish and sustain interpersonal communication for which shared linguistic forms or sociocultural values are not heavily relied on (Kaypak & Ortaçtepe, 2014) more than the SA context. The way the ELFSA participants reported talking with their fellow sojourner interlocutors was found to have the characteristics of ELF talk, which has been characterized to be "overtly-consensus oriented, cooperative, mutually supportive, and thus fairly robust" (Seidlhofer, 2004, p. 218). In this sense, this study complements the findings of the relevant literature (Baker, 2009; Kaypak & Ortaçtepe, 2014; Kalocsai, 2009, Matsumoto, 2011; Seidlhofer, 2004). Thus, it appears that the Turkish participants' socialization experiences in the ELFSA context molded their perceptions towards English from that of an EFL to an ELF one especially in terms of linguistic accuracy and fluency and language use (Kaypak & Ortaçtepe, 2014).

From a more situated approach, the importance of socialization experiences in a given learning context might also be elucidated through the notion of *person-in-context* (Ushioda, 2009). Cultural, social, and historical contexts might be argued to have an impact on language learner motivation resulting in L2 development (Ushioda, 2009). Given the situational person-in-

context particularities of the ELFSA context and the qualitative data from its participants, it is probable to talk about motivation as an emergent theme. In other words, the ELFSA participants' self-reported perceptions as to their immediate learning context might be claimed to have affected their L2 development since these perceptions were influential on their language learning motivation. "The unique local particularities of the person as self-reflective intentional agent, inherently part of and shaping her own context" (Ushioda, 2009, p. 218) might be taken responsible for their development in the L2 after a certain period of time in a given context. Ushioda (2009) suggests evaluating contextual variables, such as social relations, interactions, activities, and experiences in close proximity with the language learner's identity, personality, unique background, goals, motives, and intentions. (p. 220). Such a relational approach to the findings of the current study might necessitate the incorporation of theories of situational learning and Communities of Practice (CoP) as well (Kalocsai, 2014; Toohey, 2000; Wenger, 1998). ERASMUS exchange students, especially those in the ELFSA context, had close contacts with fellow sojourners in a way to engage in a process of collective learning through regular and frequent interaction (Kalocsai, 2014; Wenger, 1998). However, it should be noted that the multilingual and multicultural nature of the ELFSA context might have paved the way for a rather effective CoP, which was not precisely the case in the SA group for its participants since there have always been quite fewer Turkish ERASMUS students in Ireland and Britain until today (Turkish National Agency, 2011). To put it differently, the cooperative interaction among the internationals in the ELFSA context through the use of ELF removed at least some linguistic barriers that the SA participants reported to confront with, which resulted in a more flexible learning atmosphere. All in all, the link between the *person-in-context*, in other words the situational identities of the participants, motivation, and L2 development is indispensable for the

ELFSA, indicating that the notion of learning context is more dynamic and complex than it has been evaluated so far.

Another point to consider is how the ELFSA participants psychologically situated themselves in communicative practices. Inasmuch as both ELFSA interviewees touched upon the issues of leaving the "comfort zone", the ELFSA context was described as providing opportunities to find alternative ways to communicate one's message which seemed to be quite challenging at first but later helped them become more self-confident L2 users successful at utilizing a variety of strategies to be intelligible. Thus, the importance of accommodation skills was also emphasized by the participants, indicating another finding confirmatory with those of the relevant literature (Baker, 2009; Magnan & Back, 2007). However, it does not mean that the SA context is free from such challenges underlining the importance of accommodation skills because no SA participants referred to such issues. It should be noted that all sojourn contexts due to their nature might signify the importance of an L2 speakers' successfully conveying his/her message.

In terms of PPLI, the ELFSA context was full of opportunities to see new lexical, typological, phonological, strategic interactions among languages not only due to the use of an L3 in the context but also the increased availability to be exposed to a variety of L3s. As European mainland countries have been more popular than Britain in the ERASMUS program for Turkish exchange students (Turkish National Agency, 2011), it is typical to this context to find exchange students from a wider variety of backgrounds.

In conclusion, the SA context was described to be more suitable for learners with relatively higher threshold levels of English due to the nature of the context which provides exposure to native speaker input and interaction with all "difficult" features of spoken English

(e.g., weak forms, accents etc.). Also, this context might not be beneficial for enhancing PPLI perceptions seeing that it does not postulate as much of a multilingual environment as the ELFSA does. Positive attitudes towards the target culture and seeking events and organizations to interact with other fellow students were also suggested for future sojourners. Similar to the SA, the ELFSA participants highlighted the importance of threshold levels. Yet, a basic level of competence in English (e.g., knowing some daily chunks and simple sentence structures) would be sufficient at the beginning of the program. Most importantly, the participants of this context reported to have shift from focus on accuracy to fluency and meaning as suggested by ELF literature (Jenkins, 2006). The new ELF identity also led to *person-in-context* type of motivation (Ushioda, 2009), signifying the important interplay among personal and contextual variables. As for PPLI, the ELFSA context was found to raise awareness towards additional languages and cultures, resulting in sojourners' figuring out new interaction patterns between the foreign languages they know. Finally, both SA and ELFSA participants underscored the significance of accommodation type, recommending institutional to meet and interact with other fellow sojourners, which resulted in more L2 contact for them.

RQ2 – The Effects of Context on Written and Oral L2 Development over Time

RQ2 - To what extent does the learning context (SA, ELFSA, and AH) have an effect on oral and written performance of English as measured by fluency, accuracy, and syntactic and lexical complexity development over time?

Written L2 Development

The quantitative analysis of the written performance data indicated a significant interaction effect between group and time for written fluency ($F(2,42) = 2.767$, $p = .046$, partial $\eta 2 = .116$, power = .60), indicating that the three context groups performed differently on this measure over

time. The results of the complementary tests indicated that the AH group produced significantly more words (t(13) = -2.15, p = .047) in the writing task between pretest and posttest (M = 12.68, SD = 2.04) and posttest (M = 16.92, SD = 6.89). No differences were found for the sojourn groups. With regards to lexical complexity, a main effect of time was found (F(1,43) = 4.351, p = .043, partial $\eta 2$ = .092, power = .53) indicating a significant change in mean scores from pre to posttest when the group variable was collapsed. No significant differences were found for written accuracy or syntactic complexity.

To start with written fluency, this finding in favor of the AH context has both similarities and differences with the related literature. Firstly, the findings in question are in line with those of Llanes and Muñoz (2013) in terms of the effectiveness of the AH context on written fluency gains over time. In the case of the Llanes and Muñoz study (2013), likewise the current study, the participants with higher written fluency scores were tertiary level L2 learners majoring in English. The fact that the AH group in the current study is comprised of third year undergraduate students majoring in American Culture and Literature might account for reaching similar results. These participants were required to enroll in at least 18 credit hours of classes in a semester, which included listening to lectures, reading advanced literary pieces or articles and writing essays for assessment. On the contrary, the sojourn groups were only required to take nine credit hours of classes per semester. Also, as indicated by the sojourners in the LIQ, the SA and ELFSA groups used English for writing the least. Regardless of the amount of English use for written production, the type of writing task might have been more influential. The AH participants read advanced articles in order to complete essay-writing assignments. Therefore, the curricular requirements they had during the semester might have affected their significant gains in writing irrespective of the amount of contact reported.

These learners might also have benefited from Swain's (2000) basis of her output hypothesis that producing in the TL enables learners to process it more profoundly. Then, writing essays or detailed reports is of no exception. In the same vein, referring to other sources to be able to write good quality reports might have led to automatization of certain lexical items or structures as they frequently encountered with such constructions and chunks (Freed, Segalowitz, & Dewey, 2004). Such encounters might have also resulted in written gains for the AH group. Accordingly, the fact that the SA and ELFSA contexts were not found to be beneficial in terms of written fluency gains could be caused by the lack of meaningful practice opportunities for written L2 while abroad.

Additionally, the descriptive statistics from the LIQ showed that the AH group had the highest mean scores for being exposed to English through listening and reading in the L2 although all three groups reported almost identical amounts of English use when writing academic or non-academic pieces. Therefore, it might be concluded that because the AH group was exposed to the TL more than the sojourn groups through the use of receptive skills, such as reading and listening, they had more opportunities to proceduralize their declarative knowledge resulting in greater gains in written fluency (DeKeyser, 1997). Apart from these principles of SAT, Nation (2008) also suggested that greater amounts of input through receptive skills might result in greater gains in productive skills, such as writing. In other words, this significant development might have been caused by greater proceduralization opportunities that AH participants had as compared to the sojourn groups pertaining to L2 writing.

Overall, written fluency has been a disputatious variable in SA research (Llanes, 2011). To this end, these findings also contradict with some of the previous research, which either stated that there were no differences between SA and AH on written fluency (Llanes, 2010; Sasaki,

2004; 2007; Serrano et al., 2011), or that the lengthier the sojourn experience the more the gains of the SA group on written fluency than AH (Pérez-Vidal & Juan-Garau, 2009; Sasaki, 2009).

The second major finding regarding written development was the significant main effect of time on written lexical complexity. In other words, the mean scores from the participants as a whole, regardless of their context groups, was significantly different between the pretest and posttest. This finding contrasts with the current literature showing that the SA is suitable for the acquisition of vocabulary as measured by a variety of lexical complexity indices (e.g., type token ratio, D, and Giraud's index) (Dewey, 2008; Serrano, Llanes, & Tragant, 2011). In terms of the ELFSA, this finding is also in contrast with the findings of Llanes, Arnó, & Mancho-Bares study (2016), in which significant gains were reported from the non-Anglophone SA group (equals to ELFSA) on written lexical richness measured by Guiraud's index. The reason behind these different results for the sojourn contexts might be the amount of academic work insufficient for significant lexical complexity gains as compared to those in the literature (Pérez-Vidal & Juan-Garau, 2009; Llanes, Arnó, & Mancho-Barés, 2016). However, the results showed that the participants as a whole had significantly different mean scores, which only suggests the importance of time on written lexical development. The reason behind such a result might be that individual learner factors, such as learning styles, motivation, cognition, and aptitude are more influential than contextual factors to be able to have some development in this measure. Or, receiving extensive in-class (the case of the AH) or being exposed to extensive out-of-class exposure along with receiving relatively less classroom instruction (of at least 9 credit hours, the case of the sojourn groups) over a semester might be equally effective to develop a learner's written lexical complexity. Meaningful practice opportunities through time to proceduralize the

declarative knowledge they gained before treatment (DeKeyser, 2010; Pérez-Vidal & Juan-Garau, 2009) might also have helped learners from all contexts to improve on this measure.

Considering syntactic complexity as measured by CL/TU, the analysis of the data did not yield any significant results of test time or context group. These statistically insignificant results coincide with the findings of the relevant literature (Llanes et al., 2016; Pérez-Vidal & Juan-Garau, 2009; Serrano et al., 2011; Sasaki 2004; 2007). Pérez-Vidal and Juan-Garau (2009) suggested that ending up with similar syntactic complexity levels might depend on the fact that writing as a skill requires longer exposure times for observable substantial development in syntactic complexity (Ortega, 2003). Although some empirical studies indicated the SA context to be more beneficial also for written syntactic complexity (Llanes & Muñoz, 2013), the differences in terms of the length of the program, curricular requirements, pre-departure levels of proficiency, and learner characteristics and individual differences should also be taken into consideration. In the circumstances of the current study, contextual differences showed no significant effects on L2 syntactic complexity development over a semester.

Spoken L2 Development

The results of the quantitative analysis indicated a significant main effect of time for speech rate ($F(1,43) = 18.504$, $p = .000$, partial $\eta 2 = .301$, power = .98), breakdown fluency ($F(1,43) = 16.677$, $p = .000$, partial $\eta 2 = .254$, power = .96), and accuracy($F(1,42) = 5346$, $p = .026$, partial $\eta 2 = .113$, power = .618). There were also some results which approached significance for interaction effects between time and group regarding accuracy ($p = .073$) and lexical complexity ($p = .076$). No significant results were determined for repair fluency and syntactic complexity.

Considering speech rate, the mean scores across the two test times were significantly different regardless of group differences. When the mean scores and mean differences were evaluated, all three groups had mean gains, ELFSA having the most increase, although these were not statistically different on the basis of context. This was also the case for breakdown fluency as well, again the ELFSA with a larger mean difference in the posttest. Hence, it can only be concluded that pruned speech rate (the total number of words excluding words used in disfluent production divided by total production time in seconds, W/T) and the number of filled or silent pauses per minute developed over a semester of 16 weeks regardless of learning context. In other words, the learning environments of the current study had similar effects on speech rate.

The current study compared three learning contexts, similar to Freed, Segalowitz, & Dewey study (2004) and Garcia-Amaya (2010), except that instead of an ELFSA group, they included an immersion (IM) group (where the medium of instruction was the TL but the official language of the region was one other than the TL; the case of learners of French in British Columbia, Canada). In their study (Freed, Segalowitz, & Dewey, 2004; Garcia-Amaya, 2010) the IM group outperformed the SA and AH groups in speech rate and breakdown fluency. The researchers explained these results with the idea that solely increasing the amount of input does not necessarily result in linguistic gains as in the case of the SA group participants who potentially received more input in the L2 than the IM group. However, the similarities between the IM and the ELFSA are only limited to the fact that the L2 is not the official language of the contexts. In the case of the former, the learners were instructed to learn the TL (formal language instruction), whilst the latter group participants did not have such formal instruction apart from content instruction through English (e.g., studying Sociology in English; the medium of instruction was English in the ELFSA). Yet, the amount of meaningful exposure and L2 practice

opportunities might be analogous in both contexts. Additionally, although technically had more input in their host country, England, but reported to have less than the ELFSA in the LIQ, the participants in the SA group in the current study might not have had as sufficient meaningful interaction opportunities as the ELFSA participants. In other words, having a native speaker interlocutor available at most times may not have played a significant role in spoken gains. To exemplify, the SA reported to have the highest amount of native speaker interaction (M = 4.71, SD = .68) as compared to ELFSA (M = 1.86, SD = .90) and AH (M =1.42 SD = .46), yet resulting in insignificant development only. In terms of spoken interaction, SA (M = 4.92, SD = .87) and ELFSA (M = 5.05, SD = .88) reported to have similar mean scores in the LIQ even though the latter had slightly more spoken interaction. Therefore, it is difficult to fully explain these results only by analyzing the amount of L2 contact as Freed, Segalowitz, and Dewey did (2004; Di Silvio, Donovan, & Malone, 2015). What might be more important is the type of meaningful interaction, seemingly the ELFSA group had more than the other two groups in light of the mean differences in the posttest. The SA group, as they reported in the LIQ and interviews, had difficulties with their interlocutors' accent and speech rate a lot during the first half of the semester. In contrast, the more proficient L2 speakers in the ELFSA context experienced only a minor problem of self-confidence at first for the sojourners there. They reported to have quickly overcome this problem as they had indicated to use spoken English so much that they sometimes "unconsciously" replied back in English when someone asked them a question in Turkish.

These results regarding L2 development are also contradictory given the amount of L1 use. With the availability of technological means for easier instant communication, the SA context is no different than the ELFSA as participants in the former group reported to have a

similar amount of L1 contact to the latter. Participants in the ELFSA context discussed having more local opportunities to use the L1 because of the other Turkish sojourners and immigrants in the context; yet they reported to have less mother tongue contact in the LIQ. Considering there were no significant differences in speech rate and in spoken breakdown fluency among the groups but only main effects of time, the availability of Turkish in the AH group, again seems not to interfere with spoken L2 development given the mean differences they had in the posttest. All in all, all the participants had mean gains to some degree on these measures over a semester of 16 weeks, which was not found to be context dependent.

From such a perspective, these results contrast with those of Tanaka (2007). In his qualitative study, the Japanese L1 participants who had more contact with their native language had fewer gains in English, accepting the fact that living in an English speaking country did not automatically provide many opportunities to use English although they preferred family stays to increase exposure to the L2 (Tanaka, 2007, p. 47). Therefore, it might be suggested that regardless of the amount of exposure to the L2 or L1 typical to the type of learning contexts, participants' oral fluency as measured by speech rate and pausing rate (breakdown fluency) seemed to have improved over time only.

The fact that in the current study there was no difference between the AH group and the sojourn groups over time on the oral fluency measures contradicts most of the previous literature that has compared the AH context to the SA (e.g., D'Amico, 2010; Garcia-Amaya, 2015; Segalowitz & Freed, 2004; Serrano et al., 2011). L2 development in terms of spoken fluency including more fluent speech with fewer pauses have been typical for the SA context on the grounds that sojourners had more meaningful exposure to the TL. The features of this learning context has been reported to better suit learners' needs pertaining to "input, output, interaction,

and negotiation of meaning, all of which have been determined to be the key factors for second/foreign language acquisition to take place (Pérez-Vidal, 2014, p. 23; McDonough & Mackey, 2013). Nonetheless, the results of the current study showed no differences for context. In other words, in light of the mean gains and the significant main effect of time, all three groups showed development in speech rate and breakdown fluency.

Considering oral accuracy, the results of the two-way ANOVA indicated a significant main effect of time and an interaction effect that approached significance ($p = .073$). When the mean scores across time were explored, only the sojourn groups had mean gains, though these were not statistically significant, showing fewer error rates for oral production in the posttest. In other words, it might be concluded that the ELFSA and SA groups equally had some development in terms of their spoken accuracy compared to the AH group, who did not have as much spoken interaction opportunities as the sojourn groups. This finding of the current study provides further empirical evidence for the effects of the learning context on L2 The sojourn contexts provided the participants with accurate models of input, giving way to a significant increase in spoken accuracy. As proposed by Llanes & Muñoz (2009), whose study explored a short stay abroad of 3 or 4 weeks, the lengthier the SA experience the greater the accuracy gains might be as in the case of the current study of an academic semester. The reason behind an improvement in terms of oral accuracy might be related to the fact that the NSEs and expert NNSEs that the sojourn groups interacted with might have paved the way for the participants' noticing more gaps in their speech through negotiation of meaning, which is compatible with both the tenets of the Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1981; 1997) and Output Hypothesis (Swain, 2000). By the same token, the sojourn contexts might have provided not only more frequent input and output opportunities through meaningful interaction but also more accurate and higher

quality input from increased number of NSEs or proficient NNSEs interlocutors (Llanes & Muñoz, 2013, p. 80).

Another finding of the study regarding oral measures was an interaction effect approaching significance (p = .076) for oral lexical complexity. When the mean scores across time were explored, only the ELFSA group had mean gains, though not statistically significant, showing the use of a wider range of vocabulary for oral production in the posttest. In light of the limited relevant research (Juan-Garau & Pérez-Vidal, 2007; Llanes & Muñoz, 2013), the results are partially in line with the current literature when the ELFSA considered as a study abroad group. To exemplify, in Llanes & Muñoz study (2013), the adult participants in the SA group had significant gains in spoken lexical complexity, which was justified by the idea that adults' cognitive capacities and larger lexicons facilitated some positive transfer in terms of the measure at issue as compared to SA children (p. 81). In the case of the present study, however, it should be noted that only the ELFSA had mean gains in lexical complexity in contrast to the SA and AH participants, who did not have a different performance over time. Such results might be evaluated in terms of the amount and variety of L2 contact that the ELFSA participants reported in the LIQs and the interviews. Apparently, they had more on campus and off campus contact with the TL as they interacted with a larger variety of people from a wide range of L1 backgrounds. The style, register, and lexical choices of these interlocutors, although cannot be verified through empirical evidence, might have been influential in terms of providing a wider range of vocabulary in the input that helped the ELFSA participants having gains in terms of lexical richness and complexity. The SA and AH groups had similar performances in this measure over time, which can be evaluated in relation to their prioritizing communicating their

message through the use of simpler and more frequent vocabulary rather than using a wider range of vocabulary.

Lastly, the results of the analysis indicated no significant differences in terms of syntactic complexity. Considering syntactic complexity, contrary to the current study, Juan-Garau and Pérez-Vidal (2007) found significant improvement in oral syntactic complexity for the SA group. For the participants of the present study, development in oral syntactic complexity might have required longer exposure times for observable substantial development in syntactic complexity as in the case of same measure in written development (Ortega, 2003). A task effect might also have influenced the results, as it may not have required syntactically complex production for some participants.

Overall, the differences in terms of the length of the program, curricular requirements, pre-departure levels of proficiency, and learner characteristics and individual differences should also be taken into account when evaluating these findings. Especially in light of individual learner differences, such as cognitive capacities and motivation, the question remains unanswered as to whether or not IDs are influential on some participants' engaging in more L2 interaction to potentially result in more gains in L2 development (Freed, Segalowitz, & Dewey, 2004, p. 296).

RQ 3 – Bringing Everything Together: The Contexts, L2 development, and PPLI

> RQ 3 - What do some individual participants' self-reported experiences reveal about L2 development in the three learning contexts in relation to language use, interlocutor type, and perceptions towards multilingualism from a PPLI perspective?

This research question aimed to inspect the link between the selected subset of the participants' context-dependent language use patterns, their actual development in the L2, their

perceptions towards individual L2 development and towards multilingualism and PPLI, along with the interplay among the three in a holistic way. A total of six interviewees, two from each context group, were selected based on their mean L2 contact and interaction amount scores from the LIQ within a range of least frequent and most frequent users of English. Thus, for each context group, two participants were interviewed, one participant reported to have the least frequent and one had the most frequent contact in the TL. The themes from the first interviews pertained to context-related difficulties for the sojourners, such as problems with mutual intelligibility when interacting with native speakers due to dialectical and temporal differences (e.g., speech rate, weak forms in speech etc.) for the SA participants.

Given the difficulties of the SA, regardless of the eventual development for its participants, this finding might help question which sojourn context to prefer if the participants' main objective is only to improve their English without preferring development in a specific variety (e.g., British English). To put it differently, the SA might not be the only suitable context to learn and develop the L2 concerning the amount of L2 contact and native speaker interaction opportunities, considering the difficulties reported (Kinginger, 2009; Wang, 2010). From a broader perspective, the notion of the *ownership* of English comes into play here. According to Widdowson (1994), the argument that only the native speakers of a language should determine how the language should be used and taught is actually contextually limited by cultural factors (p. 388). In other words, native speakers' English is only linked to their communal and communicative needs which have almost no importance for those who learn the TL as an international language (Widdowson, 1994, p. 388). He also argues that such a native speaker approach might only be appropriate in some local conditions (e.g., learning English in a London school). Yet, given the global needs of learning and using English as an international language,

such an approach is useless as it denies cultural diversity in language use (Widdowson, 1994). In this sense, the SA participants' expectations regarding the contextual opportunities to develop their L2 was rather global and hence irrelevant to local conditions, which problematized their contact with the native speaker interlocutors. On the other hand, native speakers' expectancy as to native-like linguistic performance also clashed with the SA participants' variety of English, which lacked standard British pronunciation, grammatical accuracy, or pragmatic appropriacy at times. Thus, it may be argued that L2 use and learning depend also on social characteristics and linguistic identities that L2 speakers hold (Higgins, 2003). Although it is argued that only those who regard themselves as legitimate and proficient users can own a language (Higgins, 2003), the dichotomy between native (NESs) and non-native speakers (NNESs) prevents the latter to become legitimate L2 users claiming ownership (Norton, 1997). In the case of the current study, the SA participants might have been exposed to situations in which they were rather illegitimate NNESs. This might have prevented their integration into the immediate society to interact with NESs in a way to develop their L2s. However, this was not the case for those in the ELFSA group who reported that they interacted with fellow exchange students (NNESs) most of the time. The sojourners in this group and their kindred interlocutors reported no issues of intelligibility due to their foreign accents, perhaps because nobody claimed ownership of the L2 in their context. The grammar mistakes, pronunciation problems, even pragmatic issues were overcome through mutual understanding and holding similar linguistic identities given that conveying one's message was more important than native-like use of English. All in all, future sojourners should consider such social conditions as well before selecting a SA institution.

Overall, the SA context was found to provide significant opportunities for listening and speaking in English, resulting in development in speaking fluency, listening comprehension,

writing, and pragmatics as described by the sojourners in this context. The amount of L2 contact was more linked to having interlocutors available rather than physically being in the native speaker context. Unlike the findings in the literature, which suggest that the availability of native speakers for L2 interaction in the SA context will eventually help develop one's L2, the issues of ownership and linguistic identity might be problematic in a way to hinder or retard further improvement in the TL (Widdowson, 1994; Higgins, 2003). That might be the reason why both SA and ELFSA participants recommended future sojourners to seek out any type of interaction opportunities regardless of having native speaker interlocutors, such as participating in orientation sessions and student organizations to meet new people to interact with within their ERASMUS network. In short, these findings are in line with those of relevant literature as they confirm the fact that having communicative interaction opportunities is vital for L2 development abroad (Wilkinson, 1998; Kinginger, 2009; Wang, 2010; Mendelson, 2004b). In addition to such opportunities described in the literature, such as "(1) educational institutions and classrooms; (2) places of residence, preferably homestays, (3) service encounters and other informal contact with expert speakers" (Kinginger, 2009, p. 115), the findings of the current study suggest that events and organizations to promote exchange student interaction is so crucial for speaking practice in a sojourn context. Also, it should be noted that for the Turkish students investigated in this study, homestays may not be as favorable a type of L2 contact as is emphasized in the literature (Wilkinson, 1995; 1998; Kinginger, 2009; Magnan & Back, 2007). Institutional residences where learners have regular contact with other fellow exchange students, who often times were more expert speakers, were noted as providing the most beneficial communicative practice opportunities in English.

In contrast, having fewer native speakers to interact with, the ELFSA interviewees complained about issues of self-confidence at the very beginning of their exchange period when they compared their competence in English with highly proficient ELF speakers available in their contexts[3]. Also, they considered the use of an L3 in their host country as a challenge at first. Comparing the two sojourn contexts, the ELFSA was reported to be a multilingual environment paving the way for realizing new interactions among the foreign languages a PPLI participant knew. From the very beginning, their focus was rather the lingua franca use in their contexts, allowing them to "fearlessly" communicate via their "broken" English mostly with other sojourners from different countries. Emphasizing on the notions of ELF, such as the priority of conveying one's message regardless of certain errors or pronunciation problems rather than achieving native-like proficiency, the ELFSA participants differently perceived English use in their contexts. The AH interviewees touched upon issues of fewer opportunities to interact with L2 speakers in their contexts, as expected. Yet, they still reported to have on-campus opportunities to be exposed to or to productively use English. All of the abovementioned thematic issues confirmed the findings of the questionnaires in terms of the nature of the three learning contexts, such as type of interlocutors, the amount of languages used (L1, L2, L3), general language use patterns, and context-related difficulties or advantages.

In the post interviews, the SA participants reported to overcome the abovementioned issues and personally recognize development in the L2, which was confirmed with the quantitative data as well. When the SA participants' individual mean scores for pre and posttest were inspected, Burcu, who reported the lowest L2 contact amount, had substantial mean gains

[3] It should be noted that this sojourner interviewee was studying in Denmark, a country with high English proficiency. Also, those who reported to have the same problem in the LIQ were studying in other countries with high English proficiencies according to the European Union's proficiency index (2015), such as the Netherlands, Germany, and Finland. This was not the case for the ELFSA sojourners studying at countries with lower English proficiencies, such as Italy and Greece.

in written and oral lexical complexity, oral speech rate, breakdown fluency, accuracy, and syntactic complexity (see Table 27 for the results). Bilge, the one with the highest amount of L2 contact, had mean increases in all written and oral measures. Similarly, the ELFSA participants reported to solve all the issues mentioned at the beginning of the sojourn period. They also regarded themselves as more proficient speakers due to developing their English, especially for everyday uses. They perceived themselves as better and more confident speakers seeing that they learned a variety of compensation strategies to use in conversation. Their perceptions were also confirmed with the quantitative data inasmuch as their posttest means showed gains in speech rate, breakdown fluency, and lexical complexity as well as some gains in written accuracy, syntactic and lexical complexity (see Table 28 for the results). In short, the ELFSA was described as suitable for English development, especially for listening and speaking skills. This context helped learners not only develop their L2 linguistically but also gain compensation and alternative learning strategies resulting in increased motivation as they could use different means to convey their message (Virkkula & Nikkula, 2010).

This finding regarding L2 development for both sojourn groups is in line with the majority of the SA research suggesting that a semester-long study abroad experience is beneficial for oral and written L2 development (Llanes & Muñoz, 2013; Mitchell, Tracy-Ventura, & McManus, forthcoming; Pérez-Vidal, 2014). Yet, given the length (16 weeks) of the current exchange semester, the longer the sojourn period is the more written gains might be expected (Pérez-Vidal & Juan-Garau, 2009; Sasaki, 2009). This finding is also in line with the literature in the sense that threshold level proficiency is crucial for gains over time (DeKeyser, 2007; 2014; Kinginger, 2009; Llanes, 2011; Pérez-Vidal & Juan-Garau, 2011). Bilge, the SA participant with higher proficiency had more gains than Burcu, who had low pre-departure proficiency. Similarly

Fuat had more gains than Ada, who had lower threshold levels. The finding regarding pre-departure proficiency complements those in the literature underlining the importance of having some threshold level proficiency before departure (DeKeyser, 2007; 2014; Kinginger, 2009; Llanes, 2011; Pérez-Vidal & Juan-Garau, 2011). Without sufficient declarative knowledge to process the TL through exposure and practice, the sojourn contexts might even be a source of demotivation instead of being ideal for L2 development. Yet, the finding regarding the low proficiency learners' (Burcu and Ada) actual and self-perceived development over time in their contexts extends those in the literature (Magnan & Back, 2007; Hernández 2010a; Llanes & Muñoz, 2009) to Turkish L1 lower L2 proficiency learners of English in the sense that lower level learners develop as well as higher levels after a study abroad experience.

The factors facilitating these sojourners' development might be related to increased interaction with other speakers of English, regardless of their being native speakers or not. As "millions of opportunities to use English" (Burcu, post-interview) were available in the SA context, they found newer ways to benefit from them. Hence, it might be concluded that regardless of whether the study abroad context was an Anglophone or non-Anglophone country, the exchange experience itself is beneficial and influential on most aspects of L2 development, especially for oral measures. Particularly, the stay abroad experience is advantageous to improve one's oral skills for simple daily communication. Given the case of the two AH interviewees, whose posttest means for oral development were not different than the pretest, this result might be more meaningful when comparing the three contexts only in light of the qualitative findings, though. In contrast, the AH interviewees had large mean score increases for all written measures in the posttests (see Table 29 for the results). Therefore, it might be concluded that the AH context is especially beneficial for written development, a finding complementing with the SA

research (Llanes & Muñoz, 2013). The interplay between individual learner factors, such as cognition, motivation, or anxiety might have been influential on the results as well. However, this study did not investigate such individual differences.

It might be suggested that the greatest contribution of the current study is to show the equal and at times more beneficial circumstances the ELFSA context provides for language users to develop their English. These results could be regarded as a significant attempt to debunk the myth that only the target language speaking contexts (here, Anglophone countries for English) in study abroad programs would facilitate one's improvement in the TL (Kinginger, 2009). Moreover, this context also provides a learning environment to improve accommodation skills which are vital for effective language use, along with emotional rapport and mutual understanding in a way to scaffold language learning. Sojourners' developing a lingua franca perspective might have been a trigger for situating themselves in the context with new linguistic identities for further motivation resulting in L2 development (Jenkins, 2006; Ushioda, 2009).

Also given the issues of ownership of English and linguistic identity, the multilingual and multicultural features of the ELFSA context seemed to provide an equally suitable atmosphere and even a community of practice for increased motivation resulting in L2 development.

Additionally, as indicated by the ELFSA participants, the L2 English interlocutors in the context were quite competent speakers, whose interaction is no less challenging than native speakers to the participants of this context group given the differences in English proficiencies. As Jenkins, Cogo, and Dewey (2011) suggested that:

> from an ELF perspective, once NNSEs are no longer learners of English, they are not the 'failed native speakers' of EFL, but – more often – highly skilled communicators who make use of their multilingual resources in ways not available to monolingual NSEs, and

> who are found to prioritize successful communication over narrow notions of 'correctness' in ways that NSEs, with their stronger attachment to their native English, may find more challenging. (p. 284)

Similarly, Seidlhofer (2004) and Canagarajah (2006) indicated that English as a national language (ENL) as in the case of the SA group brings about different varieties of native English into play, which might have been problematic for this context group to meaningfully interact with potential interlocutors like the ELFSA did. Thus, it is not surprising that the SA group reported to have much more difficulties when communicating with NSEs.

Another point confirmed through the interviews was the multilingual and multicultural nature of the ELFSA context. The interviewees from this group frequently touched upon thematic issues regarding the use of different languages as the ELFSA was an internationally diverse atmosphere with a lot of sojourners from all over the word, the use of the local language as an L3 (e.g., German in Germany), and how their contextual experiences helped them realize new connections and interactions among the foreign languages they knew. It should also be kept in mind that PPLI as a way of perceiving multilingualism is not only limited to the ELFSA context insofar as the more proficient sojourner from the SA context also reported to have realized newer connections between two additional languages she knew (German and Italian). These were related to the similarities of learning daily chunks as she indicated to see more positive interaction in relation to language learning strategies. Therefore, it might be argued that PPLI status of sojourners is not context dependent; yet, it is rather connected with opportunities to be exposed to an additional language. Furthermore, SA participants noted that the easiest aspect of their context is having no requirements for learning an L3, which actually diminished the chance of seeing further interaction patterns between two foreign languages for this context.

On the whole, the interview data supported the findings of the first two research questions and helped to provide a holistic picture of the relationship between context and L2 development. The sojourn contexts were found to be suitable for especially oral L2 development, everyday language in particular, yet improvement in some written measures were also remarkable, all of which extend the findings of the SA literature to L1 Turkish learners of English as an L2 in the ERASMUS exchange program only in light of the individual performances of the interviewees. Given the dearth of studies conducted with Turkish sojourners, these findings are of importance in terms of contributing to the broad literature. Yet, the AH was more beneficial for all measures of written L2 gains, another outcome supporting those in the literature (Llanes & Muñoz, 2013). The main difference between the two sojourn contexts was determined to be the English as lingua franca use among the ELFSA participants (Kalocsai, 2009; 2014), who referred to multilingual aspects significantly more than the SA sojourners. Notwithstanding the different type of interlocutors in the two stay abroad contexts, a semester-length exchange experience was sufficient to develop in English as was AH instruction (Llanes & Muñoz, 2009). Yet, the more the gains there might be the higher the participants' pre-departure proficiencies in the TL (DeKeyser, 2007). More importantly, this study has demonstrated that studying English abroad in non-Anglophone countries (i.e., the ELFSA context) is at least as beneficial as studying English abroad in Anglophone countries (i.e., the SA context) and in intensive English programs in Turkey for oral and written development of English.

Limitations and Suggestions for Further Research

The current study has a number of limitations that are described next. This study investigated language development over the course of one semester and data were collected

before the start and at the end of the semester. On the whole, a longitudinal design more than a semester would bring differentiated results with regard to the phenomena under investigation. A longer study would allow further data collection at additional times, along with the possibility of tracking sojourners' self-perceived performances over a longer period of time. Learner awareness might also be more increased over time. Also, participants' adaptations to their new contexts might be different if they have to spend a longer period of time in the host country (e.g, a whole year). Some measures, such as syntactic complexity, are also empirically found to require longer exposure times (Ortega, 2003). Thus, a longitudinal design might indicate significant differences regarding L2 development.

The number of participants (n = 50 for pretest, 46 for posttest), even though larger than the mainstream SA research is another limitation as this study was conducted with unequal number of participants in the three context groups. A larger and equally distributed sample would likely bring about differentiated and more robust statistical results, especially in terms of the quantitative data. The difficulty of finding ERASMUS exchange students heading for Britain resulted in this unequal sample sizes. Given the opportunity, researchers should consider their participant selection criteria to ensure a balanced sample size in each participant group.

Also, the Turkish undergraduate participants of the study limit the generalizability of the results. The results might vary depending on the L1 backgrounds of the participants, along with the level of education. It would be beneficial to investigate the experience of other L1 groups who study English in the ELFSA context in particular. Additionally, the AH participants are from one intact class of third year students majoring in American culture and literature. The results may have been different with AH participants from different majors. It should also be

noted that this study is limited to adult tertiary level of learners of English as an L2. A sample comparing different age groups or educational backgrounds would be interesting to investigate.

This study is limited to the ERASMUS context in Europe in terms of depicting the sojourn environment. However, with the rising availability of different exchange programs across the globe, exploring the SA and ELFSA experience in different L1 (e.g., the USA, Canada, Australia) and L2 environments (e.g., China, Singapore, Malaysia) would be worthy of further exploration.

The selection of variables under investigation also leaves out some individual-learner factors such as motivation, anxiety, learning strategies, and personality. A study investigating the interplay between such individual factors and linguistic performance would yield different results as to the influence of context and amount of contact on L2 performance. Therefore, researchers would ideally include an individual variable along with those for L2 performance and contact variables to present more comprehensible results referring to the issue of individual variation in L2 learning.

By the same token, the L2 performance variables in the current study are limited as they are endeavored to encompass a general view of L2 gains, such as oral and written fluency, accuracy, syntactic and lexical complexity. To exemplify, oral fluency is limited to the exploration of three measures as speech rate, breakdown fluency for silent and filled pauses, and repair fluency including hesitation phenomena. Using more comprehensive measures for temporal phenomena would bring further insights into oral development in the L2 across the three contexts. This is also valid for the scope of written measures. For instance, lexical complexity/richness in this study was measured by VocD (MacWhinney, 2000). Including type-

token ratio, and MATTR might provide different results, and thus are important to consider in further research.

In the same vein, the selection of materials to measure the abovementioned L2 performance data is another limitation of the current study. Depending on the participant profile, a one-minute spoken and a 15-minute computer-based written tests were preferred for major data collection. A variety of tasks, for example longer performance tasks like picture narration, might have changed the results. Learners' pre-departure proficiencies were also determined through the use of an EIT (Ortega et al., 1999), which might have influenced the results. Administering a general proficiency test (e.g., TOEFL IBT, IELTS) might alter different outcomes as they measure each skill separately. Thus, it would be ideal to utilize differentiated tests and materials suitable for the target sample in future research.

Considering the methodological design, the current study incorporates a very limited number of qualitative instruments to confirm the quantitative findings. The inclusion of additional in-depth qualitative instruments, such as field notes, journal entries, or group interviews would shed more light into the phenomena under investigation as well as triangulating the quantitative findings. A better understanding of the learning context is, thus, needed due to its complex nature. Further research with mixed methodologies is warranted to provide a more detailed picture of sojourn experiences and dynamics of L2 use and interaction across different contexts. Additionally, researcher's bias is a limitation when it comes to analyzing qualitative data despite the inclusion of reliability increasing techniques, such as inter-coder reliability and member-checking. Alternative techniques might be implied to ensure higher reliability for the qualitative analysis of the data.

All in all, it should be kept in mind that the SA phenomena in SLA research is complex with a lot of individual variation at play with regards to differentiated L2 gains over a period of time. Hence, future research is anticipated to shed more light into areas of controversy, such as L2 gains, context-dependent factors beneficial for L2 contact and use, and individual variation.

Pedagogical Implications

The findings of the study revealed that all the contexts were beneficial for improving these Turkish students' English skills, although the AH context was found to be more advantageous for improving written fluency. Therefore, stakeholders might first consider which aspects of English they would like to develop. If it is written development, intensive AH instruction will be sufficient for significant improvement. With regards to oral development, although this study could not find significant effects of group for all measures, some measures found to be significantly affected by time (speech rate, breakdown fluency, and accuracy). Inspecting the mean differences by groups, the ELFSA's posttest means were higher than the SA on all but accuracy. Also, considering the interaction effects of time and group that approached significance for accuracy and lexical complexity, the ELFSA group had higher mean gains on lexical complexity. All in all, the ELFSA as a sojourn context is at least as beneficial as the SA on oral measures. Therefore, the stakeholders might consider increasing their exchange quota for the exchange programs in non-Anglophone countries. However, it should be kept in mind that sojourn contexts might not be as favorable as the AH for written development.

Also, this study provides evidence that due to the status of English as an international language, it is possible to spend and exchange period learning English in a non-Anglophone country, to gain a new appreciation for English as lingua franca, and to develop one's identity as

multilingual. Hence, these additional "benefits" of studying the ELFSA context should be communicated to students when they are considering where to spend their semester abroad.

In light of the findings indicating the importance of pre-departure proficiencies, the multilingual and multicultural nature of the ELFSA, and types of beneficial interaction during the exchange semester, university program coordinators might cogitate revisiting their pre-departure orientations by highlighting the importance of pre-departure proficiencies, awareness raising cross-cultural training/activities, and ways to seek for more sojourn-sojourn interaction abroad. Given the multilingual and multicultural nature of the ELFSA context, a basic level of proficiency in the L3 (the official language of the host country) would bring about more beneficial results as to sojourner adaptation.

Considering the findings of this dissertation regarding linguistic development in the L2, educators in the EFL contexts should consider their understanding of ultimate attainment in their contexts. Referring back to the ELFSA sojourners' comparing their at home language education experiences, pre-departure expectations, and post-program perceptions, focus on fluency and meaning became more crucial than focus on accuracy and form in the ELFSA context. To put it differently, aiming at reaching native-like proficiency was rather unrealistic and dysfunctional for the learner groups in the study. Hence, teaching accommodation skills, such as speaking compensation or coping strategies would be beneficial for L2 learners in terms of oral production. Surviving in an English-speaking context, regardless of its being a native speaker or lingua franca environment, was repeatedly emphasized to be more vital, which should be prioritized at least in the Turkish EFL context or for the sake of future learners.

Conclusion

This study investigated the differentiated effects of three learning contexts (SA, ELFSA, and AH) in terms of L2 development over a semester of 16 weeks in light of some contextual factors, such as the amount of contact, type of activities and interlocutors, and also perceptions towards multilingualism from a PPLI perspective. The major contribution of this study relates to the fact that the understudied ELFSA context is no less beneficial than the SA context for L2 development. In other words, to develop English as an L2, learners might equally benefit from the contextual offerings of the ELFSA context. Furthermore, this context helps learners create identities as ELF speakers, prioritizing meaningful communication over native-like language use.

The contributions of this study are threefold in terms of linguistic development. Firstly, the AH was found to be more beneficial for written fluency development than sojourn contexts, possibly due to the higher amount of academic reading and writing requirements in that context. For written lexical complexity, practice over time was significant to develop L2 vocabulary regardless of contextual differences. Pertaining to oral gains, interaction effects were found to approach significance for accuracy and lexical complexity, which underscored higher posttest mean scores for the SA for the former and the ELFSA for the latter. Yet, time, again was indicative on oral fluency gains (speech rate and breakdown fluency), regardless of contextual differences. In short, any context might be useful to develop such measures provided that learners get meaningful practice over time. In light of these findings, a 16-week semester is advantageous not only for the sojourn groups but also for AH participants given the intensive formal instruction for which the medium is English. Time, on the other hand, was influential to develop a variety of L2 aspects. Yet, if one of the sojourn contexts should be preferred, it should be noted that both Anglophone and non-Anglophone contexts are equally effective in terms of

English development. Drawing on participants' self-reports and the results from the LIQ, the ELFSA context provided even more interaction opportunities than the SA.

Comparing the two sojourn contexts in terms of the effectiveness of L2 interaction type and amount, the multilingual ELFSA with fewer opportunities to interact with native speakers, yet with increased opportunities to use English with expert L2 speakers, was more beneficial for participants of the current study. Having a shift from focus on accuracy to focus on meaning and fluency, the ELFSA participants' development as measured quantitatively and their experiences as determined qualitatively indicated that this context was as equally advantageous as the SA for L2 development, more beneficial for helping learners create their identities as ELF speakers, and seeing further connections from a PPLI perspective. The ELFSA learners situated themselves in their contexts with such a linguistic identity, which might have increased their motivation resulting in L2 development. Additionally, issues of ownership and identity from a sociolinguistic perspective hindered the SA group's benefiting from native speaker interaction at the beginning of the sojourn period. Issues of emerging motivation through *person-in-context* (Ushioda, 2009) should also be taken into consideration when evaluating the contextual features of the ELFSA context, paving the way for L2 development.. Hence, it might be concluded that in today's global world, native speaker interaction and potentially more L2 exposure in the immediate native language context are not the norm for L2 development.

Without distinguishing the two stay abroad contexts from the AH, increased amount of meaningful input, interaction, and output (Long, 1997; Swain, 2000) would bring more potential development opportunities for L2 learners pertaining to oral skills and written lexical complexity over time. The increased practice opportunities in all three contexts were also influential when learners proceduralize their declarative knowledge (threshold knowledge before departure) into a

more automatized production (DeKeyser, 1997). Yet, the AH context facilitates L2 writing fluency more as it provided significantly more academic input and output opportunities than the sojourn contexts.

Last but not least, further research should look into a selection of variables including those related to individual learner factors to provide a more detailed picture of sojourner dynamics as compared to at home learners. Bearing the equal advantages of the ELFSA context in terms of L2 development like the SA, a lingua franca perspective might be adopted for differentiated curricular objectives in L2 education, especially in the Turkish EFL context. Conclusively, given the benefits of the multilingual European context and participants' gaining further insights regarding PPLI after a semester in such an environment, bilinguals might be promoted to learn additional languages to raise both linguistic and cultural awareness. Lastly, we should always note that when it comes to the study abroad contexts and L2 learning:

> what matters in the linguistic environment is not simply 'what's out there' physically or even socially surrounding learners, but rather what learners make of it, how they process (or not) the linguistic data and how they live and experience that environment (Ortega, 2009, p. 78).

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Elicited Imitation Test Sentences[7]

(Ortega et al., 1999)

The number of syllables is indicated in parentheses.

1. I have to get a haircut. (7)
2. The red book is on the table. (8)
3. The streets in this city are wide. (8)
4. He takes a shower every morning. (9)
5. What did you say you were doing today? (10)
6. I doubt that he knows how to drive that well. (10)
7. After dinner I had a long, peaceful nap. (11)
8. It is possible that it will rain tomorrow. (12)
9. I enjoy movies which have a happy ending. (12)
10. The houses are very nice but too expensive. (12)
11. The little boy whose kitten died yesterday is sad. (13)
12. That restaurant is supposed to have very good food. (13)
13. I want a nice big house in which my animals can live. (14)
14. You really enjoy listening to country music, don't you? (14)

[7] From Ortega, L., Iwashita, N., Rabie, S. and Norris, J.M. (1999) *A Multilanguage Comparison of Measures of Syntactic Complexity [Funded Project]*. Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii, National Foreign Language Resource Center. Reprinted with permission with CC-BY-NC-SA (the Creative Commons license used).

15. She just finished painting the inside of her apartment. (14)

16. Cross the street at the light, and then just continue straight ahead. (15)

17. The person I'm dating has a wonderful sense of humor. (15)

18. She only orders meat dishes and never eats vegetables. (15/16)

19. I wish the price of town houses would become affordable. (15)

20. I hope it will get warmer sooner this year than it did last year. (16)

21. A good friend of mine always takes care of my neighbor's three children. (16)

22. The black cat that you fed yesterday was the one chased by the dog. (16)

23. Before he can go outside, he has to finish cleaning his room. (16)

24. The most fun I've ever had was when we went to the opera. (16)

25. The terrible thief whom the police caught was very tall and thin. (17)

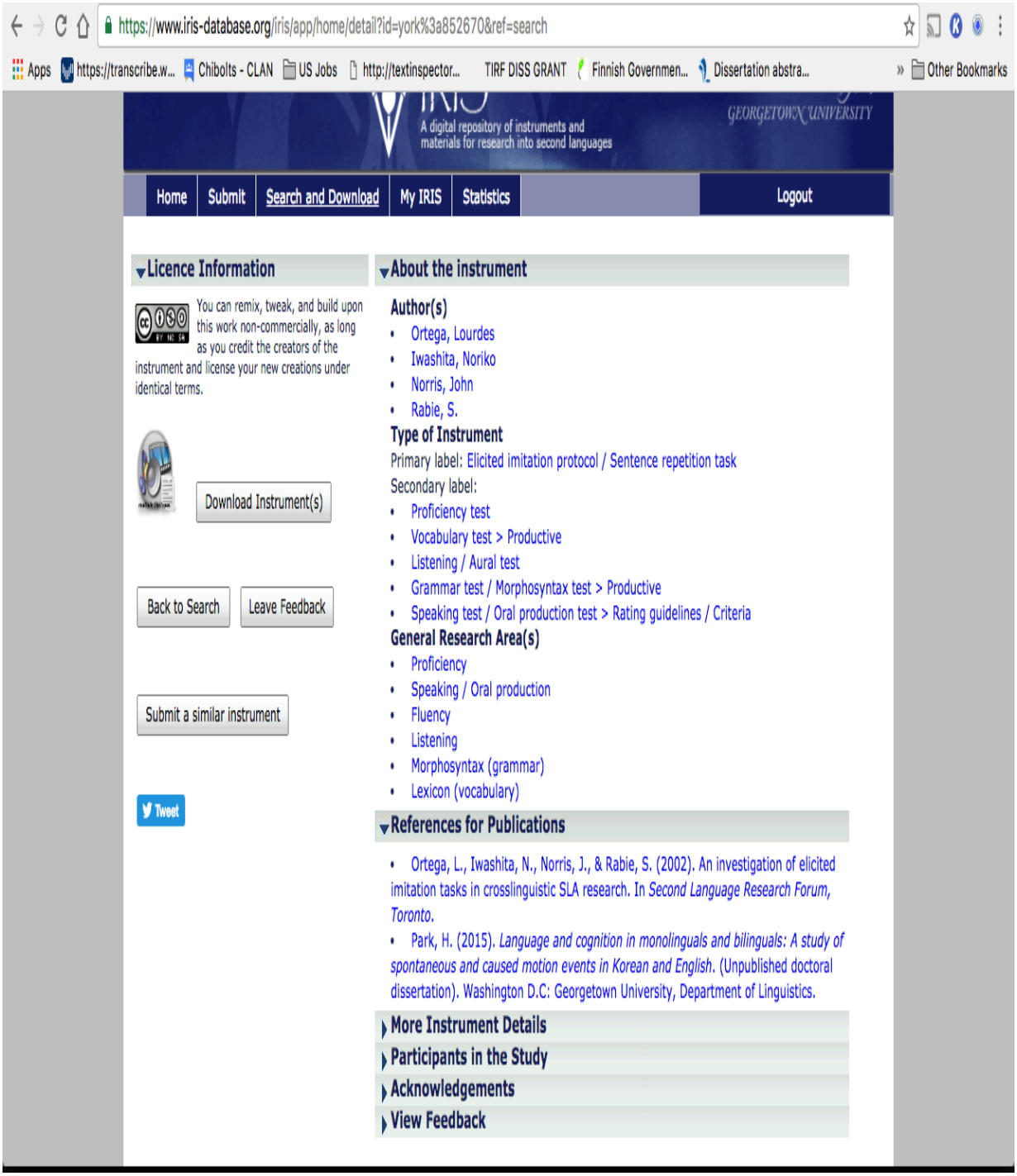
26. Would you be so kind as to hand me the book which is on the table? (17)

27. The number of people who smoke cigars is increasing every year. (17/18)

28. I don't know if the 11:30 train has left the station yet. (18)

29. The exam wasn't nearly as difficult as you told me it would be. (18)

30. There are a lot of people who don't eat anything at all in the morning. (19)



Note: Ortega, L., Iwashita, N., Rabie, S. and Norris, J.M. (1999) *A Multilanguage Comparison of Measures of Syntactic Complexity [Funded Project]*. Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii, National Foreign Language Resource Center (Reprinted with permission as seen above). (CC-BY-NC-SA, the Creative Commons license used).

Appendix B: Elicited Imitation Test Scoring Rubric

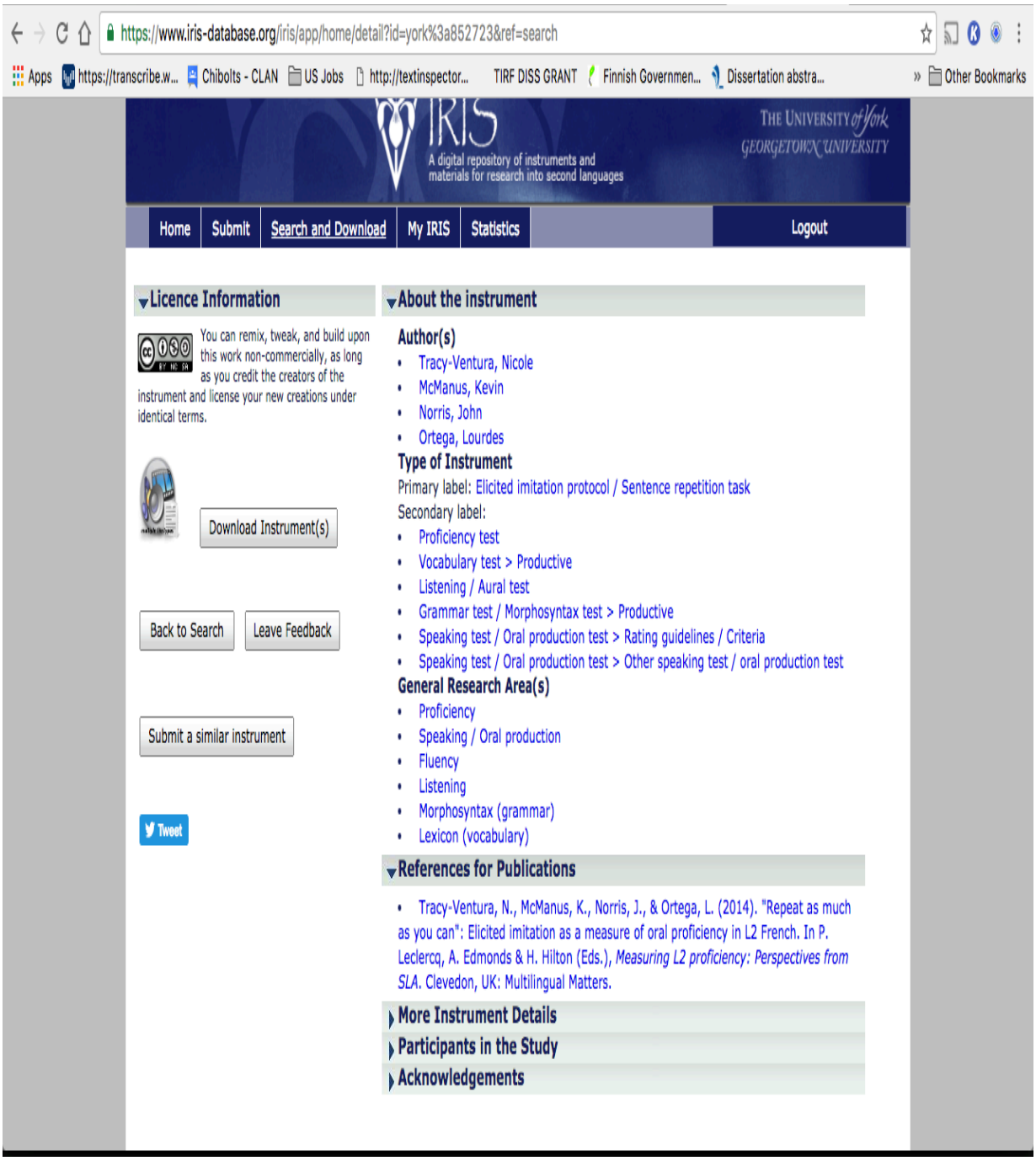
(Ortega et al., 1999; Tracy-Ventura et al., 2014)

Score	Criteria	Example
4	Exact repetition, both form and meaning are correct without exception or doubt	Item 1: "I have to get a haircut" fully repeated.
3	Original, complete meaning is preserved as in the stimulus with either insignificant grammar errors which do not change the meaning completely or synonym substitutions.	Item 4: "He take a shower every morning", where the third person singular –s is omitted.
2	When content of string preserves at least more than half of the idea units in the original stimulus; string is meaningful, and the meaning is close or related to original, but it departs from it in some slight changes in content, which makes content inexact, incomplete or ambiguous.	Item 3: "The street in the city is wide", in which the plural subject in the original stimulus is changed into a singular subject. Or, "The street in the city are wide", where there is a grammar mistake with the use of the copula.
1	When only about half of idea units are represented in the string but a lot of important information in the original stimulus is left out.	Item 18: "She order dishes and never order blab la bla", where half of the sentence is missing with a grammar mistake of omitting the third person –s.
0	Silence, or unintelligible utterance, or very minimal repetition	Item 23: "Before he ….ummm.. I don't remember".

Note: Adopted from the two studies below. Reprinted with permission (CC-BY-NC-SA, the Creative Commons license used):

Ortega, L., Iwashita, N., Rabie, S. and Norris, J.M. (1999) *A Multilanguage Comparison of Measures of Syntactic Complexity [Funded Project]*. Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii, National Foreign Language Resource Center.

Tracy-Ventura, N., McManus, K., Norris, J. M., & Ortega, L. (2014). "Repeat as much as you can": elicited imitation as a measure of global proficiency in L2 French. In A. Leclercq & A. Edmonds (Eds.), *Measuring L2 proficiency: Perspectives from SLA* (pp. 143-166). Clevedon: Channel View Publications.



Note: Tracy-Ventura, N., McManus, K., Norris, J. M., & Ortega, L. (2014). "Repeat as much as you can": elicited imitation as a measure of global proficiency in L2 French. In A. Leclercq & A. Edmonds (Eds.), *Measuring L2 proficiency: Perspectives from SLA* (pp. 143-166). Clevedon: Channel View Publications. (Reprinted with permission as seen above). (CC-BY-NC-SA, the Creative Commons license used).

Appendix C: TOEFL Speaking Prompts

(Butler et al., 2000)

The following prompt was given to the participants, for which they were asked to talk about a minute on the topic.

1. What would you like to do during your free time? Why?

Butler, F. A., Eignor, D., Jones, S., McNamara, T., & Suomi, B. K. (2000). *TOEFL 2000 speaking framework*. Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service.

Appendix D: Language Interaction Questionnaire (LIQ)

(Free, 1990; McManus, Mitchell, & Tracy-Ventura, 2014)

Adopted from:

Freed, B. (1990). Language learning in a study abroad context: The effects of interactive and noninteractive out-of-class contact on grammatical achievement and oral proficiency. In J. E. Alatis (Ed.), *Georgetown University Round Table on Language and Linguistics: Linguistics, language teaching and language acquisition—The interdependence of theory, practice, and research* (pp. 459-477). Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.

McManus, K., Mitchell, R., & Tracy-Ventura, N. (2014). Understanding insertion and integration in a study abroad context: The case of English-speaking sojourners in France. *Revue française de linguistique appliquée*, *19*(2), 97-116.

In this questionnaire we are interested in learning how often you do different activities in the languages you use. First you will be asked to select the languages you frequently use, and then you will be asked how often you do certain activities in each of those languages. If you have comments about any of your activities, there will be space for you to write at the bottom of each page. Thank you for your participation.

Tick all the languages you use on a regular basis. If you use a language not listed there, write that language in. Also rate your proficiency in the given language using a scale from 0 to 5.

Language	Self-Rated Proficiency (0-5)
English	
Turkish	
German	
French	
Italian	
Spanish	
Other: _____	

Name and Surname:

Gender: Male/Female

Age: _____

L3: _____

University: _____

Major: _____

1. How old were you when you started learning English? _____

2. Have you studied English in school in the past at each of the levels listed below? If yes, for how long?

a. Elementary school: _No _Yes: _less than 1 year _1–2 years _more than 2 years

b. Middle school: _No _Yes: _less than 1 year _1–2 years _more than 2 years

c. High school: _No _Yes: _less than 1 year _1–2 years _more than 2 years

d. University: _No _Yes: _less than 1 year _1–2 years _more than 2 years

3. Where do you plan to live (already moved in) during your study abroad experience? (This question will not appear in the AH pretest version.)

a. Student dorm

b. Apartment

c. Room share

Note: This section will only appear in the first administration of the LIQ.

L2 USE - ENGLISH

	Everyday	4-5 times a week	2-3 times a week	Once a week	Rarely	Never
How frequently did you listen to something in English (e.g., TV, music, radio talk show etc.) for leisure?						
How frequently did you browse the Internet (eg. read news, etc) in English?						
How frequently did you use the social media (eg. Facebook/ Twitter) in English?						
How frequently did you read and/or write emails in English?						
How frequently did you listen to something in English (e.g., lectures, presentations) for academic purposes?						
How frequently did you read something in English (e.g., books, papers) for academic purposes?						
How frequently did you read something in English (e.g., novels, newspapers, magazines) for leisure?						
How frequently did you write something in English (e.g., essays, reports) for academic purposes?						
How frequently did you read something in English (e.g., journal, notes) for leisure?						
Participate in seminars/ language classes						
How frequently did you use English for personal talks and/or meetings?						
How frequently did you use English when communicating with local people (e.g., for service encounters)?						
How frequently do you interact with native speakers of English?						
How frequently do you interact with non native speakers of English?						
How many hours a day do you think you use English?	(write in hours)					
Do you have any local opportunities to use Turkish?	Please answer yes or no.					

Have you had an interesting experience recently when interacting with someone in English? These might be some moments of communication breakdown, or your realizing how much you developed in the language, etc. Please, briefly write down your experience.

_____

_____

_____

What has been easy for you in your new context?

_____

_____

_____

What has been difficult for you in your new context?

_____

_____

_____

Would you like to comment/reflect on any of your answers?

_____

_____

_____

L1 USE - TURKISH

	Everyday	4-5 times a week	2-3 times a week	Once a week	Rarely	Never
How frequently did you listen to something in Turkish (e.g., TV, music, radio talk show etc.) for leisure?						
How frequently did you browse the Internet (eg. read news, etc) in Turkish?						
How frequently did you use the social media (eg. Facebook/ Twitter) in Turkish?						
How frequently did you read and/or write emails in Turkish?						
How frequently did you listen to something in Turkish (e.g., lectures, presentations) for academic purposes?						
How frequently did you read something in Turkish (e.g., books, papers) for academic purposes?						
How frequently did you read something in Turkish (e.g., novels, newspapers, magazines) for leisure?						
How frequently did you write something in Turkish (e.g., essays, reports) for academic purposes?						
How frequently did you read something in Turkish (e.g., journal, notes) for leisure?						
Participate in seminars/ language classes						
How frequently did you use Turkish for personal talks and/or meetings?						
How frequently did you use Turkish when communicating with local people (e.g., for service encounters)?						
How many hours a day do you think you use Turkish?	(write in hours)					

L3 USE - _____ (Please indicate the language)

	Everyday	4-5 times a week	2-3 times a week	Once a week	Rarely	Never
How frequently did you listen to something in the L3 (e.g., TV, music, radio talk show etc.) for leisure?						
How frequently did you browse the Internet (eg. read news, etc) in the L3?						
How frequently did you use the social media (eg. Facebook/ Twitter) in the L3?						
How frequently did you read and/or write emails in the L3?						
How frequently did you listen to something in the L3 (e.g., lectures, presentations) for academic purposes?						
How frequently did you read something in the L3 (e.g., books, papers) for academic purposes?						
How frequently did you read something in the L3 (e.g., novels, newspapers, magazines) for leisure?						
How frequently did you write something in the L3 (e.g., essays, reports) for academic purposes?						
How frequently did you read something in the L3 (e.g., journal, notes) for leisure?						
Participate in seminars/ language classes						
How frequently did you use the L3 for personal talks and/or meetings?						
How frequently did you use the L3 when communicating with local people (e.g., for service encounters)?						
How many hours a day do you think you use the L3?	(write in hours)					

Have you had an interesting experience recently when interacting with someone in English? These might be some moments of communication breakdown, or your realizing how much you developed in the language, etc. Please, briefly write down your experience.

_____

_____

_____

What has been easy for you in your new context?

_____

_____

_____

What has been difficult for you in your new context?

_____

_____

_____

Would you like to comment/reflect on any of your answers?

_____

_____

_____

Appendix E: Perceived Positive Language Interaction and Multilingualism Questionnaire (Thompson, 2013)

Please answer the following questions:

As you have studied other languages in the past, do you think that this has helped or hindered your ability to learn subsequent languages? In other words, do you see interactions (positive or negative) with the languages you have studied?

Yes, I see **positive** interactions between foreign languages studied. Yes/No
I see **negative** interactions between foreign languages studied. Yes/No
I see **no** interactions between foreign languages studied. Yes/No

Please write the foreign languages between which you see interactions.

_____

1. I perceive positive interactions in terms of vocabulary. Yes/No

2. I perceive positive interactions in terms of grammar. Yes/No

3. I perceive positive interactions in terms of pronunciation. Yes/No

4. I perceive positive interactions in terms of language learning strategies (understanding how to learn a language). Yes/No

5. I perceive positive interactions in general, for reasons I can't exactly explain. Yes/No

6. I perceive positive interactions in terms of learning about a different culture. Yes/No

7. Do you have any experiences that have helped you see the positive interaction between two or more additional languages? For example, when learning a third language, you might have benefited from the knowledge of your previously learned foreign languages. Please explain as specifically as possible by providing details about grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, or cultural issues.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

8. Are there any other two languages (different than those above) that you see interaction between?

If yes, write the languages: _____ and _____

9. I perceive positive interactions in terms of vocabulary. Yes/No

10. I perceive positive interactions in terms of grammar. Yes/No

11. I perceive positive interactions in terms of pronunciation. Yes/No

12. I perceive positive interactions in terms of language learning strategies (understanding how to learn a language). Yes/No

13. I perceive positive interactions in general, for reasons I can't exactly explain. Yes/No

14. I perceive positive interactions in terms of learning about a different culture. Yes/No

15. Do you have any experiences that have helped you see the positive interaction between two or more foreign languages? For example, when learning a third language, you might have benefited from the knowledge of your previously learned foreign languages. Please explain as specifically as possible by providing details about grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, or cultural issues.

_____

Appendix F: Semi-structured Interview Questions

With SA and ELFSA participants

1. Can you please tell me about your experiences in the SA program up to now?

2. How much L2 contact (what type of interaction and activities in the L2) have you had during the first half of the SA period?

3. How much L3 contact (what type of interaction and activities in the L3) have you had during the first half of the SA period?

4. Based on your experiences up to know, what suggestions can you make for future sojourners?

5. Do you see different connections and interactions among the foreign languages you know as compared to your pre-departure ideas?

With AH participants

1. Can you please tell me about your experiences during the first half of your third-year?

2. How much L2 contact (what type of interaction and activities in the L2) have you had during the first half of the semester?

3. How much L3 contact (what type of interaction and activities in the L3) have you had during the first half of the semester?

4. Based on your experiences so far, what are the advantages and disadvantages of staying home and not participating in a SA program?

5. Do you see different connections and interactions among the languages you know as compared to your pre-semester ideas?

Appendix G: Coding Scheme of the Interview Data

Major division	Subcategories	Examples
1. The Variety of English	a) Issues regarding native speaker use	*I think the British accent sounds beautiful.* *They speak too fast for me to understand!* *I cannot hear "the", "your", or words like that when they speak. Do they swallow* them?*
	b) Issues regarding non-native speaker use	*It is too difficult to understand and L1 Chinese speaker when speaking in English.*
	c) Comments on language use in the context	*Native speakers expect us to sound like them, use English as good as they do, but it is too difficult for us.*
2. Type of Interlocutors	a) Native speakers	*I had a lot of problems understanding the grocery man at first (referring to a local shop owner in England).*
	b) Non-native speakers	*I had an Italian friend who was also an Erasmus student. We were able to communicate using English although my Italian sucks.*
	c) Fellow sojourners, academics	*It is easy to understand my professors.*
	d) Local people	*This is my last month and I still can't communicate with the receptionist!*
3. The use of an L3	a) Difficulty	*You cannot find anyone using English in the streets*

		(referring to off-campus context in Northern Italy).
	b) Advantage	*I can use a few chunks in Danish and I like to use them with local people.*
	e) Linguistic differences	The linguistic differences between Turkish and English make me switch to Turkish.
4. Turks in the Context (Local uses of Turkish)	Problem preventing L2 use	*I wish I had not have any Turkish friends here. I always use Turkish because of them.*
	Advantage	*No need to learn German! All the shop owners are Turkish here.*
5. Fellow Sojourners	Establishing rapport	*I am so happy to have my ERASMUS friends here. They help me with everything, with language, with school problems, with travelling, everything you can think of. I don't know how I am going to say goodbye to them in a few weeks.*

Appendix H: IRB Letter

USF
UNIVERSITY OF
SOUTH FLORIDA

RESEARCH INTEGRITY AND COMPLIANCE
Institutional Review Boards, FWA No. 00001669
12901 Bruce B. Downs Blvd., MDC035 • Tampa, FL 33612-4799
(813) 974-5638 • FAX (813) 974-7091

November 24, 2015

Zeynep Koylu, M.A.
World Languages
4202 East Fowler Ave.
Tampa, FL 33620

RE: **Expedited Approval for Initial Review**
IRB#: Pro00022665
Title: The Influence of Context on Linguistic and Cognitive Gains: The Case of Turkish Undergraduates at Home and Abroad

Study Approval Period: 11/23/2015 to 11/23/2016

Dear Ms. Koylu:

On 11/23/2015, the Institutional Review Board (IRB) reviewed and **APPROVED** the above application and all documents contained within, including those outlined below.

Approved Item(s):
Protocol Document(s):
Research protocol for eIRB_Zeynep_Koylu_V1_25.10.15

Consent/Assent Document(s)*:
Consent_V1_11.23.2015.pdf
Online_Consent_V1_11.23.2015 **granted a waiver

*Please use only the official IRB stamped informed consent/assent document(s) found under the "Attachments" tab. Please note, these consent/assent document(s) are only valid during the approval period indicated at the top of the form(s). **Waivers are not stamped.

It was the determination of the IRB that your study qualified for expedited review which includes activities that (1) present no more than minimal risk to human subjects, and (2) involve only procedures listed in one or more of the categories outlined below. The IRB may review research through the expedited review procedure authorized by 45CFR46.110 and 21 CFR

56.110. The research proposed in this study is categorized under the following expedited review category:

(6) Collection of data from voice, video, digital, or image recordings made for research purposes.

(7) Research on individual or group characteristics or behavior (including, but not limited to, research on perception, cognition, motivation, identity, language, communication, cultural beliefs or practices, and social behavior) or research employing survey, interview, oral history, focus group, program evaluation, human factors evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies.

Your study qualifies for a waiver of the requirements for the documentation of informed consent as outlined in the federal regulations at 45CFR46.117(c) which states that an IRB may waive the requirement for the investigator to obtain a signed consent form for some or all subjects if it finds either: (1) That the only record linking the subject and the research would be the consent document and the principal risk would be potential harm resulting from a breach of confidentiality. Each subject will be asked whether the subject wants documentation linking the subject with the research, and the subject's wishes will govern; or (2) That the research presents no more than minimal risk of harm to subjects and involves no procedures for which written consent is normally required outside of the research context.

As the principal investigator of this study, it is your responsibility to conduct this study in accordance with IRB policies and procedures and as approved by the IRB. Any changes to the approved research must be submitted to the IRB for review and approval via an amendment. Additionally, all unanticipated problems must be reported to the USF IRB within five (5) calendar days.

We appreciate your dedication to the ethical conduct of human subject research at the University of South Florida and your continued commitment to human research protections. If you have any questions regarding this matter, please call 813-974-5638.

Sincerely,

Kristen Salomon, Ph.D., Vice Chairperson
USF Institutional Review Board