The Acquisition of English by Immigrant School Learners in Catalonia: Affective Variables and Cross-linguistic Influence

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Abstract

Research on the acquisition of English by immigrants is abundant when it takes place in second language (SL) contexts. However, few studies deal with immigrant learners' acquisition of English as a foreign language (EFL). In the Spanish autonomous community of Catalonia, with a very high rate of immigration, research on language acquisition by immigrant learners has focused on the two official languages, Catalan and Spanish. In contrast to this, the study hereby reported tackles EFL among immigrant secondary-school learners, with a focus on the participants' *affective variables* (*attitudes* and *perceived chances of success*) and lexical *cross-linguistic influence* (*CLI*) in an oral and written narrative in EFL.

The participants in our study are immigrant learners of three schools in the province of Barcelona (an area with the highest concentration of immigrants in Catalonia) who have at least two languages apart from English: L2 or L1 Spanish, L2 Catalan and their L1 when it is different from Spanish. The design of the study includes two different methods: a **cross-sectional study** with 92 learners divided into three groups (First cycle, ages 12-13; Second cycle, ages 14-15; and Post-compulsory education, ages 16-17), and a **longitudinal study** conducted with some of the cross-sectional participants, divided into two groups, with two collection times over two academic years: from grade 7 to grade 8 (n=10), and from grade 8 to grade 9 (n=14). The cross-sectional study includes a **local** group of learners in Second cycle for the comparison of their results in *affective variables* with those in the immigrant sample. The longitudinal study aims at investigating the role of *hours of instruction* (approximately 200 hours) in *affective variables* and *CLI* in *EFL*.

The first Research Question in the study inquires into the participants' indices of ***affective variables***, which include *attitudes* and *perceived chances of success*, their factors and their relationship with *achievement* in EFL. The results in both the cross-sectional and longitudinal studies reveal that the participants have in general *positive attitudes*, slightly more favourable than those found in the local participants of the present study as well as in other

studies conducted in Catalonia and other regions of Spain (Comajoan & Gomàriz, 2008b; Ibarraran, Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2008; Saravia i Terricabras, 2004; Uribe, Gutiérrez & Madrid, 2008). As for the immigrant participants' *perceived chances of success*, they reported having an *expected school mark in English* from *Pass* to *Good*, slightly inferior to those among their local peers. Similar findings have been found by previous research in Catalonia (Comajoan & Gomàriz, 2008a). The results on our immigrant participants' *perceived ability according to L1* showed that they did not believe in general that having an L1 different from Spanish and L2 Catalan had an influence on success in EFL.

In the light of previous research, we assumed that *affective variables* led to higher indices of attainment in the target language through *motivation*. However, only two of the *affective variables* included in the study correlated with *achievement* in the three cross-sectional groups: *attitudes towards learning English* and *expected school mark in English*. Neither *integrative attitudes* (i.e. attitudes towards the target language community) nor instrumental attitudes correlated with indices of *achievement*. The lower scores obtained by *integrative attitudes* were coherent with the findings in Bernaus, Masgoret, Gardner & Reyes (2004), while the lack of correlations between *integrative attitudes* and *achievement* contradicts previous studies conducted by Gardner and associate researchers in Catalonia (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Gardner, 2007) and other national contexts (Clément, 1980; Gardner, 1960, 2000, 2007; Gardner, Day & MacIntyre, 1992; Gardner & Lambert, 1959, 1972; Gardner, Tremblay & Masgoret, 1997; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995).

The comparison of the indices of *affective variables* between the three groups and the results cast by the longitudinal study indicate that the influence of *school level* and *hours of instruction*, which comprise increasing age and *proficiency* in EFL, on *affective variables* in our sample was weak. This is explained by the fact that the attitudinal constructs in the present study are more stable than other factors that depend on classroom variables, as was found in previous research (Gardner, Masgoret, Tennant & Mihic, 2004; Kuhlemeier, Van den Bergh & Melse, 1996; Lamb, 2007). It is argued here that social attitudes seem nonetheless more sensible to the influence of *school level*

and *hours of instruction* than *instrumentality* or *expected school mark in English* and that the former can be influenced through increasing amount of exposure to the target language culture and the views exposed by the adults in the learners' environment.

The second Research Question of our study addresses ***amount of CLI*** and source selection in the participants' oral and written production in English in addition to their factors. The results of the cross-sectional study show that *school level* is associated with less *CLI* in our sample, especially in the number of *borrowings*, which is in line with previous studies in the Catalan context (Celaya, 2006; Celaya & Ruiz de Zarobe, 2010; Celaya & Torras, 2001; Navés, Miralpeix & Celaya, 2005). Despite the fact that *school level* involves higher *achievement*, the statistical analysis showed that attainment in EFL was related to lower *amount of CLI* only in Second cycle, while *type of CLI* did not hold any consistent correlations with *achievement*. What is more, the role of *hours of instruction* in the longitudinal study, which is also related to higher *achievement in EFL,* was weak, as it only had a statistical significant effect on the decrease of *amount of CLI* in the oral production of the group followed from grade 8 to grade 9. Finally, the results in the study suggest that high indices of *affective variables* can lead to lower amounts of *CLI* but the comparison with the results in a previous piece of research (Agustín Llach & Fernández Fontecha, 2009) suggests that their effect seems to interact with *school level* and *task effect*.

The findings on the participants' use of other languages in EFL point to Spanish as, in general, the preferred **source language** in the written and oral data. Catalan was selected with lower frequency and no transfer from a mother tongue different from Spanish was found. In the choice of Spanish for instrumental roles (i. e. to address the interlocutor or to make comments on the task), source selection was determined mainly by the association of the interlocutor with the source language. In the use of transferred items to fill gaps in the narrative in EFL, the factors of source selection were different according to the participants' L1. Among the native speakers of Spanish, the selection of this language was largely due to the role of the *L1*. Whereas among the rest of participants, transfer from Spanish and Catalan in detriment of the

L1 was due to a combination of *recency*, *proficiency* and *exposure* to the L2, *langua*ge *distance* and *L2-status*, which confirms a previous piece of research in Catalonia (Ciruela Castillo, 2007). Finally, the superiority of Spanish over Catalan in both L1 and L2 Spanish participants was largely due to the overwhelming presence of the former in the participants' sociolinguistic environment, as in Ciruela Castillo (2007).

Resumen

La investigación en la adquisición del inglés por parte de alumnos inmigrantes es abundante cuando aquélla tiene lugar en contextos de segunda lengua (L2). Sin embargo, pocos estudios han investigado la adquisición del inglés como lengua extranjera por parte de alumnos inmigrantes. En la región española de Cataluña, con un índice muy alto de inmigración, la investigación de la adquisición lingüística por parte de alumnos inmigrantes se ha centrado en las dos lenguas oficiales, el catalán y el español. A diferencia de ellos, el estudio aquí presentado aborda la adquisición del inglés como lengua extranjera por alumnos inmigrantes de educación secundaria y se centra en *variables afectivas* (*actitudes* y *expectativas de éxito*) e *influencia interlingüística* en el léxico de una narración oral y escrita en inglés.

Los participantes de nuestro estudio son alumnos inmigrantes de tres escuelas en la provincia de Barcelona (área con la concentración más alta de inmigrantes en Cataluña) que poseen al menos dos lenguas aparte del inglés: español como primera lengua (L1) o segunda lengua (L2), Catalán como L2 y otra L1 cuando ésta es diferente del español. El diseño del estudio incluye dos métodos diferentes: un **estudio transversal** con 92 aprendices divididos en tres grupos (Primer ciclo, 12-13 años; Segundo ciclo, 14-15 años; y Educación postobligatoria, 16-17 años), y un **estudio longitudinal** conducido con algunos de los participantes transversales, divididos en dos grupos, con dos recogidas en dos cursos académicos: de primero de ESO (Educación Secundaria Obligatoria) a segundo de ESO (n=10), y de segundo de ESO a tercero de ESO (n=14). El estudio transversal incluye un grupo **local** de alumnos en Segundo ciclo con el que se comparan los resultados de las *variables afectivas* con aquéllos en la

muestra inmigrante. El estudio longitudinal tiene como objetivo investigar el rol de *horas de instrucción* (aproximadamente 200 horas) en *variables afectivas* e *influencia interlingüística* en inglés como lengua extranjera.

La primera Pregunta de Investigación en el estudio indaga sobre los índices de las ***variables afectivas***, que incluyen *actitudes* y *expectativas de éxito*, los factores de éstos y la relación de aquéllas con el aprendizaje del inglés como lengua extranjera. Los resultados del estudio transversal y del estudio longitudinal revelan que los participantes tienen en general actitudes positivas, algo más favorables que las encontradas en los participantes locales del presente estudio así como en otros estudios conducidos en Cataluña y otras regiones de España (Comajoan & Gomàriz, 2008b; Ibarraran, Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2008; Saravia i Terricabras, 2004; Uribe, Gutiérrez & Madrid, 2008). Respecto a las *expectativas de éxito*, nuestros participantes expresaron que tenían una *nota esperada de inglés* de *Suficiente* a *Bien*, ligeramente inferior a la de los participantes immigrantes. Resultados similares se han encontrado en un estudio previo en Cataluña (Comajoan & Gomàriz, 2008a). Los resultados sobre la *habilidad percibida según la L1* mostrada por nuestros participantes inmigrantes señalan que, en general, creen tener una L1 diferente del español y catalán como L2 no tiene influencia en el aprendizaje el inglés como lengua extranjera.

A la luz de investigaciones anteriores, asumimos que las *variables afectivas* llevaban a mayores índices de éxito en el aprendizaje de la lengua meta a través de la *motivación*. Sin embargo, sólo dos de las *variables afectivas* incluidas en el estudio correlacionaban con el nivel de lengua en inglés en los tres grupos transversales: *actitudes hacia el aprendizaje del inglés* y *nota esperada* de inglés. Ni las *actitudes integrativas* (es decir, actitudes hacia la comunidad de la lengua meta) ni las *actitudes instrumentales* correlacionaban con los índices de *aprendizaje*. El hecho de que las *actitudes integrativas* sean menos favorables que las *instrumentales* es coherente con los resultados en Bernaus, Masgoret, Gardner & Reyes (2004), mientras que la falta de correlaciones de aquéllas con el *aprendizaje* del inglés contradice investigaciones anteriores conducidas por Gardner e investigadores asociados en Cataluña (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Gardner, 2007) y otros contextos

nacionales (Clément, 1980; Gardner, 1960, 2000, 2007; Gardner, Day & MacIntyre, 1992; Gardner & Lambert, 1959, 1972; Gardner, Tremblay & Masgoret, 1997; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995).

La comparación de los índices de las *variables afectivas* entre los tres grupos y los resultados arrojados por el estudio longitudinal indican que la influencia de *nivel escolar*, *edad* y *horas de instrucción* en las *variables afectivas* de nuestra muestra fue débil. Esto se explica por el hecho de que los constructos atitudinales del presente estudio son más estables que otros factores que dependen de variables que tienen lugar en el aula, tal y como han hallado investigaciones previas (Gardner, Masgoret, Tennant & Mihic, 2004; Kuhlemeier, Van den Bergh & Melse, 1996; Lamb, 2007). Argumentamos aquí, de todas maneras, que las *actitudes sociales* son más sensibles a la influencia de *nivel escolar* y *horas de instrucción* que *instrumentalidad* o *nota esperada en inglés* y que la influencia de aquéllas se produce a través de una exposición creciente a la cultura de la lengua meta y a los juicios de valor expresados por los adultos en el entorno de los aprendices.

La segunda Pregunta de Investigación de nuestro estudio aborda *cantidad de* ***influencia interlingüística*** y la selección de la lengua fuente en la producción oral y escrita de los participantes en inglés además de los factores de aquéllas. Los resultados del estudio transversal muestran que el *nivel escolar* está asociado con menor *influencia interlingüística* en nuestra muestra, especialmente en el número de *préstamos*, lo cual está en línea con estudios anteriores en el contexto catalán (Celaya, 2006; Celaya & Ruiz de Zarobe, 2010; Celaya & Torras, 2001; Navés, Miralpeix & Celaya, 2005). A pesar del hecho de que *nivel escolar* supone mayor *aprendizaje*, el análisis estadístico mostró que el nivel de inglés estaba relacionado con menor cantidad de *influencia interlingüística* sólo en Segundo ciclo, mientras que el *tipo de influencia interlingüística* no obtuvo correlaciones consistentes con el aprendizaje del inglés. Lo que es más, el rol de *horas de instrucción* es débil, pues sólo influyó significativamente en la reducción de cantidad de *influencia interlingüística* en la producción oral del grupo seguido de segundo a tercero de ESO. Finalmente, los resultados en el estudio sugieren que los altos índices en *variables afectivas* pueden llevar a menores cantidades de *influencia*

interlingüística pero la comparación con los resultados en un estudio anterior (Agustín Llach & Fernández Fontecha, 2009) sugiere que su efecto parece interactuar con *nivel escolar* y el *efecto de la tarea*.

Los resultados sobre el uso de otras lenguas en inglés por parte de los participantes señalan el español como, en general, la **lengua fuente** preferida en los datos escritos y orales. El catalán fue elegido con menor frecuencia y no se dio transferencia desde una lengua madre diferente del español. En la elección del español con funciones instrumentales (es decir, para dirigirse al interlocutor o para hacer comentarios sobre la tarea), la selección de la lengua fuente estaba determinada especialmente por la asociación del interlocutor con la lengua fuente. En el uso de *influencia interlingüística* para llenar huecos en la narración, los factores de la selección de la fuente eran diferentes según la L1 de los participantes. Entre los hablantes nativos de español, la selección de esta lengua fue debida en gran parte al rol de la *L1*. Por otro lado, entre el resto de participantes, la transferencia de español y catalán en detrimento de la L1 fue debido a la combinación de *uso reciente*, la *competencia* y *exposición a la L2*, *distancia lingüística* y el *estatus de la L2*, lo que confirma un estudio previo en Cataluña (Ciruela Castillo, 2007). Finalmente, la superioridad del español sobre el catalán tanto en participantes con español como *L1* o como L2 se debió ampliamente a la presencia dominante del español en el entorno sociolingüístico de los participantes, como en Ciruela Castillo (2007).

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More relevant acronyms

The following acronyms are used in the text:

AMTB Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (developed by Gardner, 1985a, 1985b)

AO Age *of onset*[1]

AoA Age *of arrival*

CLI *Cross-linguistic influence*

CLIL *Content and Langu*age *Integrated Learning*

EFL *English as a Foreign Langu*age

ESL *English as a Second Langu*age

ESO *Compulsory Secondary Education (from Catalan* Educació secundària obligatòria*)*

ESO1 *First year in the compulsory Secondary Education (equivalent to seventh grade)*

ESO2 *Second year in the compulsory Secondary Education (equivalent to eighth rade)*

ESO3 *Third year in the compulsory Secondary Education (equivalent to ninth gade)*

ESO4 *Fourth year in the compulsory Secondary Education (equivalent to tenth grade)*

FL *Foreign Langu*age

FLL *Foreign Langu*age *Learning*

L1 *First langu*age

L2 *Second Langu*age

L3 *Third langu*age

PSC *Post-compulsory education or Catalan Baccalaureate*

PSC1 *First year in the post-compulsory education (equivalent to eleventh grade)*

[1] The labels of the factors used in the present study will appear in italics within the text.

PSC2 *Second year in the post-compulsory education (equivalent to twelfth grade)*

RP *Return plans to the family's country of origin*

SDT *Self-Determination Theory*

SLA *Second Langu*age *Acquisition*

SP *Parental socio-professional status*

SPSS *IBM SPSS Statistics (formerly known as Statistic Pack*age *of Social Science for Windows)*

TL *Target Langu*age

WTC *Willingness to Communicate*

1. Introduction

1.1. Justification of the study

During the recent immigration wave, Catalonia has received more immigrants than the rest of Spain and many of the European countries (Fernández-Huertas & Ferrer-i-Carbonell, n.d.). The immigration rate was so high that the foreign stock in this Spanish autonomous community increased from 2% of the total population in 1998 to 15.95% in 2010 (Statistical Institute of Catalonia, n.d.a). Despite the present economic crisis, which has discouraged immigration inflows into Catalonia and has encouraged resident immigrants to leave the nation, immigration in this area is not likely to vanish.

Like in other nations which have received large-scale immigration, one of the main concerns raised by this phenomenon has been the **education of the immigrants' children** and, more specifically, their acquisition of the host community languages (i. e. Catalan and Spanish). This concern is reflected in the high number of studies on the immigrant learners' integration into the school system and their acquisition of Catalan and, to a lesser extent, Spanish (e.g., Burriel, 2006; Molina, 2008; Molina Domínguez & Maruny Curto, 2004; Oller Badenas, 2008, 2010; Reyes, 2006; Sansó Galiay, 2010; Serra Bonet, 2010; Vila, 2004). However, language acquisition by school-age immigrants in Catalan schools does not limit itself to the national languages, as all of them must also learn English, the most widespread foreign language (FL) in the European community and the world (Burns & Roberts, 2010; Lasagabaster, 2005b; González-Davies, 2007; Seidlhofer, 2006). However, the acquisition of English as a foreign language (EFL) among immigrant learners in Catalonia has not in general attracted the attention of research, which has focused on the acquisition of Catalan and Spanish.

Precisely, the aim of the present study is to contribute to filling the gap by focusing on the acquisition of **EFL by immigrant school learners** in

Catalonia. More specifically, this study analyses the role of *affective variables* (*attitudes* and *expectations* of *achievement*) and *cross-linguistic influence* (*CLI*) in the participants' oral and written lexical production in English. The study of both aspects of language acquisition is relevant in an immigrant context since the participants' specific variables as immigrants and the fact of having a different cultural and linguistic background make them different from local learners in Catalonia and other national contexts. Moreover, the inclusion of *affective variables* can shed light on their role in *CLI*, an issue that has seldom been investigated.

Hence, the specificity of being an immigrant in the area of Barcelona with at least two languages different from English may affect the learners' *attitudes* and *expectations* in learning the target language (TL). In other words, the immigrants' *attitudes* and *expectations* in learning English may be influenced by having a different cultural background (with different cultural and educational beliefs) and by the fact of learning an additional language besides at least one of the local languages. However, to the best of my knowledge, only four studies have addressed *affective variables* to EFL among immigrant students in Catalonia (Bernaus, Masgoret, Gardner & Reyes, 2004; Comajoan & Gomàriz, 2008a, 2008b; Wilson, 2012b). In addition, these studies do not only focus on EFL, as they also investigate attitudes to the host country languages and, in Wilson (2012b), to their L1s as well. In the only comparable study found in a different national context, Aronin (2004), the participants' attitudes towards English as a FL were also compared with those towards the host language (Hebrew) and their previous languages.

In contrast to these studies, the aim of the first Research Question of the study hereby presented is the participants' *attitudes* and expectations of success in EFL. The indices of *affective variables* displayed by our immigrant participants as well as their relationship with *achievement* in EFL will be compared with those among a group of local learners in Second cycle (in the third and fourth years in the Compulsory Secondary Education or ESO, i. e., grades ESO3 and ESO4). In depicting ***affective variables*** in EFL among immigrant learners in Catalonia, the present study also intends to contribute to the controversy concerning the role of *integrative attitudes* in FL contexts.

Integrative motivation encompasses *attitudes* towards the TL community and a possible desire to be like the TL group. It has been argued that it is difficult for learners to form *integrative attitudes* in a FL context, where no direct contact with the TL community is available (Clément & Kruidenier, 1983; 1985; Dörnyei, 1990; or Oxford & Shearin, 1994). However, research on this issue has yielded contradictory results regarding both the existence of *integrative attitudes* and their role in *motivation* and *achievement* in the TL. In the present study, two different kinds of *integrative attitudes* are analysed in relation to the Anglo-saxon community and an international community which has English as a second or foreign language. The relative contribution of these two constructs of social attitudes to the participants' *affective variables* and *achievement* in EFL was measured in relation to *instrumentality* (i. e., an evaluation of the importance or usefulness of English regarding its value for future studies or work prospects) in order to determine which type of *attitudes* plays a major role in the participants' *affective variables* in EFL and *achievement* in this language.

Immigrants with a first language (L1) different from the languages of the host country and who study a FL (English), conform one of the most common situations of multilingualism (Cenoz, 2011). The study of ***cross-linguistic influence*** in multilingual immigrant learners can therefore illuminate issues on the factors of source selection in multilingual acquisition, like *age of onset* (*AO*) in the L2 or *recency* in this language. However, very few studies on language transfer in Catalonia include immigrant learners (see Chireac, 2010; Chireac, Serrat Sellabona & Huguet Canalís, 2011; Ciruela Castillo, 2007; Garganta, 2008; Gràcia, 2007; Serrat, Gràcia & Perpiñá, 2008). In addition, these studies analyse the influence of the *L1* on Catalan or Spanish as their L2, but none is concerned with EFL. What is more, only two studies have been found on *CLI* in the production of EFL among immigrant learners: Ciruela Castillo (2007), conducted in Barcelona by the same author of this dissertation, and Ohlander (2009), concerned with immigrant learners in Sweden.

CLI in the participants' production in EFL is addressed in the second Research Question included in the present study, together with the effect of variables that facilitate or hinder *CLI* and the factors of source selection. Some

of such variables, like *age*, *proficiency, AO* or *achievement* in the target language, have been widely analysed, although not specifically in immigrant school learners. On the other hand, research on the role of *motivation* or *attitudes* in *CLI*, which has been pointed out by researchers like Odlin (1989) or Jarvis (2000), is extremely rare and only one study has been found (Agustín Llach & Fernández Fontecha, 2009). We argue here that *motivation* and *attitudes* must at least have an indirect bearing on language transfer through *achievement* in the TL. It is claimed here that more positive *attitudes* and higher *motivation* are likely to encourage students to sound more target-like and suppress any influences from other languages in the TL production.

In order to explore the participants' *affective variables* and *CLI* in EFL, the design of our study is both cross-sectional and longitudinal. The **cross-sectional** study embraces three groups of immigrant learners from the first year of Secondary Education (ESO1) to the second year of Post-compulsory education (PSC2). The participants in the first group (First cycle) are *age*d 12-13, those in the second group (Second cycle) are *age*d 14-15 and, finally, the learners in the Post-compulsory education group are 16-17. Most of them have L1 Spanish, while some are native speakers of Arabic, Georgian, Russian or Rumanian. The analysis aims at discovering not only the scores for *affective variables* and indices of *CLI* but also their relationship with *achievement* in EFL. The results will be related to the participants' *L1*, *age of arrival* (*AoA*) in Catalonia, their parents' *socio-professional status* (*SP*) and whether the participants' families have planned to return to their countries of origin (*Return Plans or RP*). The findings in each of the groups in *affective variables* and *CLI* will be compared to also investigate the role of *school level* or accumulated *hours of instruction*.

The **longitudinal** study analyses the participants' *attitudes* and *expectations of success* as well as *CLI* over two academic years in two groups of Secondary Education learners: from ESO1 to ESO2 (n=10) and from ESO2 to ESO3 (n=14). The data collected at the beginning of the 2009/2010 school year was statistically compared with the data collected at the end of the following academic year (2010/2011). Like in the cross-sectional study, the most common L1 among the participants is Spanish. The main purpose behind the longitudinal

study is to confirm the results of the cross-sectional study regarding differences in indices of *affective variables* and *CLI* according to *hours of instructions* (approximately 200 hours). The analysis of the role of *age* and *hours of instruction* in the longitudinal study also includes the communicative functions of *CLI*, following Cenoz's (2003a) suggestion that more longitudinal studies on the use of the source language (see section 4.4.3) are needed. As the participants in each of the groups of the longitudinal study are the same throughout the two school years, the intervention of variables other than *hours of instruction* is minimized.

1.2. Layout of the thesis

This introduction is followed by seven chapters. The first three chapters deal with the Context (Chapter 2) and the theoretical and empirical background to our study (Chapter 3 and Chapter 4). Chapter 2 tackles immigration in general and then focuses on immigration in Catalonia and, more specifically, Barcelona. In the depiction of immigration in Catalonia, the linguistic situation in this bilingual Spanish area is described. Chapter 2 also deals with immigrant school learners and the teaching of EFL in the Catalan school system.

After the Context, the literature review chapters analyse *affective variables* in language learning (Chapter 3) and *CLI* in multilingual acquisition (Chapter 4). Both chapters intend to clarify relevant concepts and focus on research in immigrant contexts and the Catalan context. The initial sections in Chapter 3 define the concepts of *motivation* and *attitudes*, the relationship between both notions as well as the concept of *orientation* in language learning. Then, section 3.6 offers an overview of the different models of language *motivation* and focuses on the two paradigms that have inspired the constructs used in the present study (the Socio-Educational Model and the Self-Efficacy Theory). Finally, section 3.7 deals with the results cast by empirical research on the role of *affective variables* in language *achievement* with a focus on Catalonia and immigrant contexts.

Chapter 4 is the second literature review chapter and it tackles theory and previous research on *CLI* in multilingual contexts. It starts by defining the

concepts of "cross-linguistic influence" and "multilingual acquisition". Then, it briefly describes different models of the multilingual lexicon relevant to the study of *CLI*. Chapter 4 offers a classification of both influencing factors of *CLI* and source selection. Then, previous research on such factors is described, focusing on the Catalan contexts and immigrant learners.

After these theoretical chapters, the study reported in the present thesis is described. Chapter 5 (The Study) includes the Research Questions, a description of the research context, the participants, the instruments and measures used, the procedure and data collection and, finally, data analysis. There are two Research Questions (the first inquires into the participants' *affective variables* and the second one into *CLI*). The research contexts describe the schools where the data were collected and the areas where they are located. The section concerned with the participants describes the main features of the participants in the cross-sectional study (both immigrant and local samples) and those in the participants in the longitudinal study. The Instruments and measures section describes the two questionnaires (one is sociolinguistic while the other is concerned with the participants' *affective variables*) and the measures of *proficiency* (*school marks* in English, Spanish and Catalan, as well as the *marks* given to their written and oral narratives). The Procedure section describes the pilot study and how the data were collected for the cross-sectional and longitudinal studies. Finally, the Data analysis section explains the analysis of quantitative, qualitative and linguistic production data.

The results from the analysis are presented in Chapter 6 (Results). After the introduction to the chapter, the second section deals with the results on *affective variables* (indices of *attitudes* and *perceived chances of success*, their relationship with the participants' specific variables as immigrants and *achievement*). The sections on the indices of *attitudes* and *perceived chances of success* are followed by a section with the results of the longitudinal study. Section 6.3 deals with the results on *CLI* (indices of written and oral *CLI* and source selection in the cross-sectional and longitudinal studies).

The results are discussed in relation to findings in previous research in Chapter 7 (Discussion). First, *affective variables* are discussed, i. e., their

indices in the immigrant sample and their comparison with local learners in Catalonia and other countries, the presence and role of *integrative attitudes* in FLL, the role of *school level* and *hours of instruction* and the immigrants' specific variables and the relationship between *affective variables* and *achievement*. Then, indices of *CLI* and source selection are discussed with a focus on several factors.

The conclusions drawn from the results and the discussion are presented in Chapter 8. In this chapter, the limitations of the present study together with the pedagogical implications of the findings are also offered.

The thesis closes with the References and the Appendices. The latter include the materials used in the thesis hereby reported (the questionnaires in Spanish, Catalan and English, the picture story used to elicit the linguistic data as well as the bands to assess the written and the oral narratives), the distribution of participants in the schools in the cross-sectional study (both immigrant and local pupils) and the longitudinal study as well as samples of the participants' written and oral production.

2. Context

2.1. Introduction. Research on language acquisition by immigrants in Catalonia

Until the 1990s, Catalonia had been a destination for immigrants from other regions of Spain. In the 1990s, however, Catalonia, like other Spanish areas, started to receive immigration from the five continents. This migratory tendency increased from 2001 on, when Spain started a period of economic expansion. Catalonia became the Spanish autonomy with the highest immigration rate and surpassed the average immigration percentage in Europe (Fernández-Huertas & Ferrer-i-Carbonell, n.d.). The massive arrival of immigrant students at Catalan schools has stirren up concern about both their integration at school and their language learning. Hence, there are a number of studies on the acquisition of Catalan and/or Spanish as an L2 among immigrant learners and the role of languages in Catalan schools (Chireac, 2010; González Riaño, Armesto, Louzano, Nòria & Valls, 2010; Molina, 2008; Molina Domínguez & Maruny Curto, 2004; Oller Badenas, 2010; Oller, 2008; Oller & Vila, 2008; Sansó Galiay, 2010; Serra Bonet, 2010). However, research on EFL among immigrants in Catalonia is still limited and it also includes *affective variables* in the local languages (Comajoan & Gomàriz, 2008a, 2008b; Bernaus *et al.*, 2004; Wilson, 2012b).

A depiction of recent immigration in Catalonia is precisely the purpose of Chapter 2, which also focuses on language learning and language *attitudes* in this autonomy. Our discussion will start with a general description of the social phenomenon of immigration and the psychological processes undergone by immigrants (2.2.1), followed by a brief account of international migratory flows up to the present (2.2.2). The subsequent section (2.3) analyses data related to migratory flows and immigrant citizens in Catalonia (2.3.1) and Barcelona (2.3.2), as well as the efforts set up by the Catalan government to cope with this new situation (2.3.3). Section 2.4 is concerned with the historical coexistence of Catalan and Spanish in Catalonia and, more specifically, in the

Metropolitan Area of Barcelona, together with *proficiency* in the minority language. Section 2.5 is concerned with several aspects regarding schooling: immigration figures in Catalan schools (2.5.1), integration of immigrant learners (2.5.2), the Catalan school system and the teaching of foreign languages (2.5.3).

2.2. The migratory phenomenon

2.2.1. The migratory fact and the concept of "immigrant"

Immigration has been a common phenomenon in the history of mankind, spurred by "demographic growth, climatic change and economic needs" (Castles, 2000: 273). Nowadays, migration has increased to become one of the defining features of the beginning of the 21st century. Thus, one in 35 people in the world is an international immigrant. In the developed countries, the proportion is 1 to 12 (United Nations, 2004). It is not surprising that international migration, which is expected to increase in the future, has become a concern and an object of policy debate (United Nations, 2004).

As Berry (1997) discusses, immigrants can be distinguished from other groups in intercultural contact according to three factors: *voluntariness*, *mobility*, and *permanence*. *Voluntariness* distinguishes between immigrants and sojourners -who come into contact with another culture voluntarily- and others like refugees or indigenous people, for whom intercultural contact is an enforced situation. *Mobility* discriminates between groups that are in contact with other cultures because they have migrated to a new location (e.g. immigrants and refugees) and those who are in this situation because the other culture has moved in (e.g. indigenous peoples and "national minorities"). Finally, *permanence* distinguishes those for whom the situation is relatively stable (e.g. immigrants) and those for whom it is a temporary situation (e.g. sojourners like international students and guest workers, or asylum seekers).

In Catalonia and in the rest of Spain, the concept of *immigrant* is normally related to someone who comes from poor countries and it usually bears negative connotations (Peña i Bello, 2008; Sansó Galiay, 2010). In

contrast, the term *immigrant* in Anglo-Saxon cultures simply refers to people who were born in a territory different to which they have come to settle. In the present discussion, we will use *immigrant* in this sense, avoiding its equation with poverty. We must bear in mind that, as Castles (2000: 272) points out, immigrants do not always belong to the poorest areas, as emigrating requires "economic capital" for the journey. Because of the negative connotations that the word *immigrant* has in Catalan society, other designations are usually resorted to. Two examples are *newcomers,* a term that refers to students of late incorporation into a Catalan school, or *foreigners*. Peña i Bello (2008) refuses both words because they are not as accurate as *immigrant*. She argues that not all immigrants are newcomers and that "foreigners" may include individuals, like tourists, who cannot be considered as immigrants. The Statistical Institute of Catalonia (*Institut d'Estadística de Catalunya* or *Idescat*) (n.d.i), following the United Statistics Division, also distinguishes between *foreigner* and *international migrant*. Thus, *foreigner* is defined as an individual who has not Spanish nationality[2], whereas an *international migrant*[3] is "a person who moves to live in another country other than their usual country of residence for at least one year" and, **"For this reason, not every foreign person is an immigrant"** (*Statistical Institute of Catalonia*, n.d.i, in bold in the original*).*

2.2.2. Migratory flows

As Castles (2000) points out, intercontinental migration started to grow in the fifteenth century as the result of colonialism, among other historical factors.

[2] In Spain, nationality is determined by blood right (*jus sanguinis*), which means that a person has the same nationality as their parents, regardless of whether this person has been born in Spain or in any other country (Statistical Institute of Catalonia, n.d. h).

[3] The term *international* is used in opposition to *internal* migrant, which makes reference to a person who has migrated to another area within the same country (Castles, 2000). In our discussion, internal immigration involves population flows from another region of Spain to Catalonia and is also referred to as *national* or *Spanish* immigration.

The greatest migratory flows in relative terms took place in the period from 1820 to 1914, when European workers migrated to America (52 million) and Oceania (3.5 million), in a percentage that has not been surpassed since. After a period of much lower immigration after the Great Depression, intercontinental flows rose at the end of the twentieth century, especially after 1970. The number of foreign-born immigrants increased thus from 82 million in 1970 to 175 million in 2000 (United Nations, 2004). The volume of the world immigrant stock has continued to grow up from 2000 to 2010, but the increase has reduced in comparison to the period from the late 1980s to the early 1990s. The number of international migrants in the world rose to more than 195 million in 2005 and about 214 in 2010 (United Nations, n.d.). In the European Union, one of the common destination areas of international migration, 2,230,800 immigrants were received in 2000, a figure similar to the ones in subsequent years with a steady increase up to 3,306,700 in 2007 and a slight decrease in 2008 and 2009. The International Organization for Migration has calculated that, in Europe, the scale of unauthorised migrants was 3 million approximately in the late 1990s (United Nations, 2004).

Current migratory flows have become more complex and diverse, with new causes and migrant types. The reasons that encourage individuals to leave their countries range from economic inequalities to injustice, persecution and human rights violation, violent conflicts or environment destruction (Generalitat de Catalunya[4], 2006). The variety in the motives of migration has led to an increase in the type of individuals that migrate, including students, women (in larger figures than before), immigrants for family regrouping, highly qualified workers, returned emigrants, temporary labour immigrants, refugees and asylum-seekers, irregular migrants, or victims of illegal traffic (Castles, 2000). Over the last years, the ratio of women who have migrated has increased, reaching 47.5% of the total immigrant stock in 2000. The increase is largely related to the progressive access of women to labour market in receiving countries, which has led to a rise in the demand of female workforce in domestic service (Generalitat de Catalunya, 2006). Immigration of family members is related to the fact that legal immigration in Western Europe

[4] The Generalitat de Catalunya is the Catalan government.

enables family regrouping due to concern with human rights and the state of well-being (Generalitat de Catalunya, 2006). Concerning immigrants' qualifications, highly specialised and skilled immigrants are the most commonly accepted in countries which have been traditionally receptors of immigration, like the United States, Canada and Australia and, more recently, some countries in Western Europe and Eastern Asia. In contrast, Southern Europe has mostly attracted low-skilled immigration as workforce in sectors like agriculture, tourism, domestic service or, especially in Spain, building, in which local population was not willing to work during the economic boom (Generalitat de Catalunya, 2006).

Recent waves of international migration show specific features that distinguish it from migration in the past, like its global nature, the emergence of new countries of destination, or the immigrants' concentration in specific areas. The development of information technology and transportation has also contributed to the globalisation of migratory movements (Castles, 2000; United Nations, 2004). Another distinguishing feature of recent immigration is the fact that Southern Europe, the geographical origin of immigrants in previous migratory cycles, has become one of the destinations of international migrants. This is in part related to large migratory inflows from Eastern Europe after the collapse of the communist regimes (United Nations, 2004). Modern immigrants typically come from certain rural areas or neighbourhoods in their nations and, in the destination country, they concentrate in the same industrial and urban areas, where there are better employment prospects and where people who have previously migrated can help them (Generalitat de Catalunya, 2006).

It is unquestionable that immigration has changed the social reality of the receiving countries and the phenomenon is not likely to ebb. Despite the fact that immigration policies in some countries are progressively more restrictive and in spite of the economic crisis in the West, migration to the so-called First World has not lowered down. According to an estimation of United Nations (2004), between 2000 and 2050 immigration will have increased European population in 2,800 millions.

2.3. Immigration in Catalonia and Barcelona

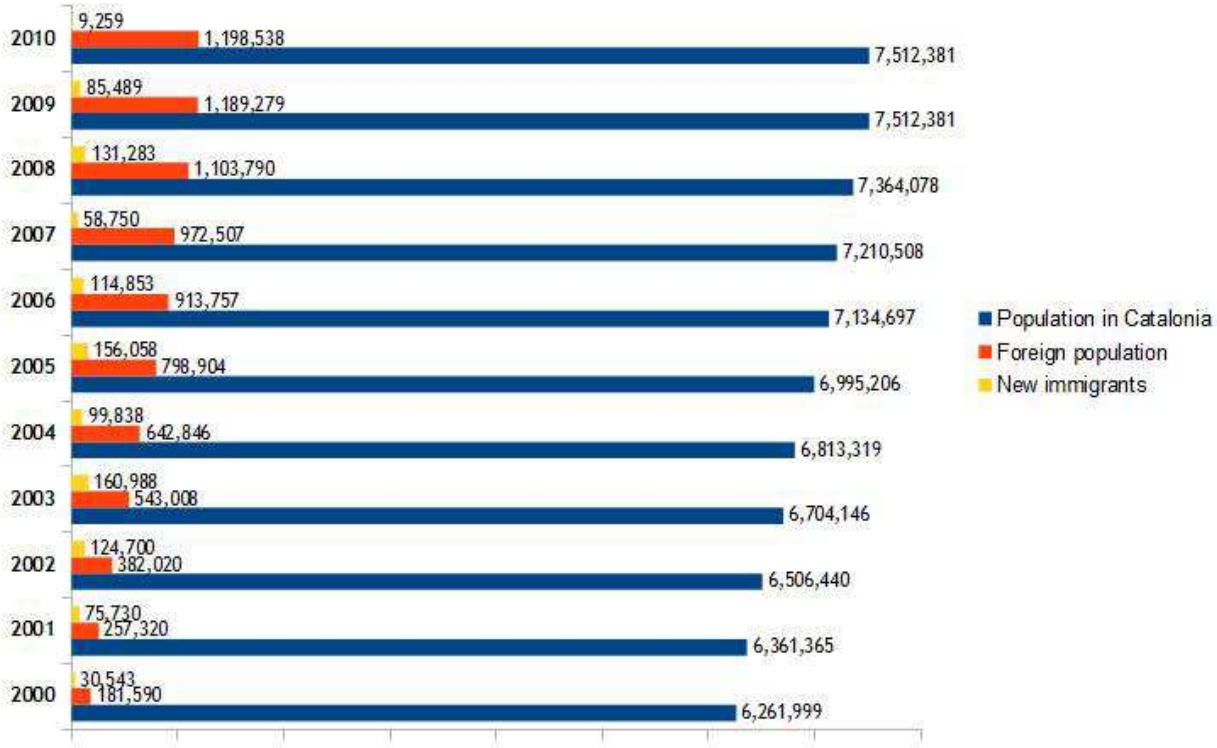
2.3.1. Migratory inflows and foreign population in Catalonia

As commented on in the introduction to the present chapter, immigration to Catalonia is not a new phenomenon. Before the present wave of international immigration, Catalonia had received migrant workers from the rest of Spain since the end of the 19th century. This internal immigration to the Catalan autonomy explains why Spanish is the major mother tongue in some areas of Catalonia, especially in the Metropolitan Area of Barcelona province. In the new migratory waves, Catalonia has attracted more immigrants than any other Spanish region, accounting for 22.15% of the total foreign population in 2010 (General Secretariat for Immigration, n.d.). Both national and international immigration has contributed to the present cultural and linguistic diversity in Catalonia.

After a period of limited immigration, in the 1990s a new international migratory inflow became the most important factor of population growth (Sansó Galiay, 2010). In the period from 2001 to 2008, the number of inhabitants in Catalonia experienced one of the highest increases in its history and the number of immigrant inhabitants surpassed, for the first time, one million. In 2010, the foreign stock represented 15.95% of the total number of inhabitants in Catalonia (Statistical Institute of Catalonia, n.d.j[5]). The number of arrivals in 2010 was, however, substantially inferior to previous years, a decrease that is to be related to the economic crisis that started in 2007 (see Figure 1).

[5] The data provided by the Statistical Institute of Catalonia come from the municipal population censuses on the 1st January of each year (Statistical Institute of Catalonia, n.d.i).

Figure 1. Evolution of the percentage of foreign-born population in Catalonia from 2000 to 2010 (Statistical Institute of Catalonia, n.d. j)



In 2010, the continent with the highest representation in Catalonia was America, which accounted for the origin of 33.08% of the total foreign population in this Spanish region. Europe came second (30.30%) and Africa came in third place (26.28%). Asia was the origin of 10.29% of immigrants, followed by Oceania, which accounted for only 0.05% (Statistical Institute of Catalonia, n.d.c). Among the largest national stocks in Catalonia, the most common in 2010 were Moroccans (19.52%), followed by Romanians (8.23%), Ecuadorians (6.57), Bolivians (4.63%), Italians (4.10%) and Colombians (4.08%) (Statistical Institute of Catalonia, n.d.d).

As a general and brief depiction of the characteristics of the foreign-born population in Catalonia, immigrant residents are mainly young (67.03% of them are between 15 and 44 years old) and mostly males (53.84%) (Statistical Institute of Catalonia, n.d.a). However, the ratio of men to women changes according to origin. While men from Asia and Africa surpass women in a higher

rate, immigrants from South America are mostly women (Statistical Institute of Catalonia, 2008). A comparison between the education levels in the foreign and authoctonous population in Catalonia shows that immigrants are not less educated than the local population. According to Alguabella & Jubany (2004), the percentages of foreigners at the age of 16 and above with Secondary Education (25.66%) and university education (17.17%) surpass those among the Catalan population, whose percentage of Secondary Education and university graduates is, respectively, 22.96% and 13.48%. In spite of this fact, the percentage of illiterates is higher among foreigners (5.37%) than it is among Catalans (2.16%).

A study by the Jaume Bofill Foundation (Ajenjo *et al.*, 2008) reflects the immigrants' view about their present and future in Spain at the time the survey was administered. The results indicated that immigrants in Spain were optimistic, even more optimistic than the locals. The newcomers were satisfied with the status they had achieved in Spain after some time of residence. Only 10% of the newcomers who had lived in Spain for less than five years wished to return to their countries of origin. This percentage decreased even more over the years and only 2% of the population who had arrived before 1998 desired to go back to their countries of origin. However, the percentage of immigrants who wished to return to their countries may have increased as the economic crisis in Spain has deepened.

2.3.2. Immigration in the Metropolitan Area of Barcelona

The province[6] of Barcelona has received the largest inflows of international immigration to Catalonia, with 67.21% of the total foreign population of this autonomous community in 2010 (Statistical Institute of Catalonia, n.d.h). This province has attracted the largest amount of foreign population in Catalonia because it offers more employment in industry and construction, sectors that employ most immigrants in Spain. In the same year, the capital city, Barcelona,

[6] Catalonia is divided into four provinces: Barcelona, Tarragona, Girona and Lleida. The capital of the province of Barcelona is the city of Barcelona, which is also the Catalan capital.

and its Metropolitan Area[7] concentrated, respectively, 35.11% and 92.43% of the total number of foreign residents within the province of Barcelona (Statistical Institute of Catalonia, n.d.b; Statistical Institute of Catalonia, n.d.g). The number of immigrants in Barcelona is so high in comparison with the rest of Catalan municipalities that it alone accounted for 23.59% of the total foreign population in Catalonia (Statistical Institute of Catalonia, n.d.b, n.d.g). However, the percentage of migrants out of the total population in the province of Barcelona, i. e. 14.62%, is the lowest of the four Catalan provinces and comes after Girona (21.55%), Tarragona (18.59%) and Lleida (18.30%). The lower figures for immigration in Barcelona out of the total population numbers are related to the fact that this province alone concentrates about three quarters of total Catalonia's population (73.36% in 2010; Statistical Institute of Catalonia, n.d.h). Table 1 below shows the figures for immigration in the province of Barcelona, its capital city and the Metropolitan Area (for figures in the three towns where the data for the present study were collected, see 5.2. Research context).

Table 1. Immigration figures in Barcelona in 2010 (based on data provided by the Statistical Institute of Catalonia, n.d.b, n.d.h)

Area	Total Population	Foreign population	Percentage of total foreign population in Catalonia	Percentage out of total population
Barcelona province	5,511,147	805,487	67.21%%	14.62%
Metropolitan Area	5,012,961	744,514	62.12%	14.85%
Barcelona city	1,619,337	282,794	23.59%	17.46%

Like in the rest of Catalonia, Morocco was the country with the highest representation in the Metropolitan Area of Barcelona in 2010, accounting for 15.39% of its total foreign population (Statistical Institute of Catalonia, n.d.f). Moroccans were followed by Ecuadorians (8.94%), Bolivians (6.17%), Italians (5.17%) and Chinese (4.81%) in the second, third, fourth and fifth places,

[7] The Metropolitan Area of Barcelona is one of the seven territorial areas in which Catalonia is divided. It comprises the municipalities around Barcelona city, including the three towns where the data for the present study were collected (see section 5.2. Research Context).

respectively (Statistical Institute of Catalonia, n.d.f). Romanians, which were the second most common national stock in Catalonia, occupy the ninth position in the Metropolitan Area of Barcelona.

2.3.3. Immigration policies in Catalonia

The Government of the Generalitat has set up efforts to cope with immigrants and their integration. The first measures of the Generalitat concerning immigration were taken at the end of the 1980s through the joint action of the departments of Education, Healthcare and Social Security. As immigration figures in Catalonia rose, specific organizations were created to coordinate immigration policies in 1992 and 2000. These organizations passed several Immigration Plans to deal with the integration of international immigrants (Generalitat de Catalunya, 2010).

The most comprehensive of the **Government Plans** to deal with immigration in Catalonia was the Citizenship and Immigration Plan 2005-2008 -*Pla de ciutadania i immigració 2005-2008*- (Generalitat de Catalunya, 2006). It was underlined by the assumption that immigration would be a permanent feature of Catalan society. The meaures aimed by this Plan refer to three main areas: reception, equality policies, and accomodation (Generalitat de Catalunya, 2006). Once the immigrants have been initially received in Catalonia, equality policices within the Citizenship and Immigration Plan seek to guarantee that immigrants have the same opportunities, rights and responsibilities than the authoctonous population. Finally, accommodation policies aim at understanding and good relationships between all the citizens, coping with diversity in education, healthcare, etc. and sensitising the whole population so that they have a positive image of the new society brought about by immigration.

The Secretariat for Immigration (*Secretaria per a la Immigració*), part of Social Action and Citizenship in the Government of Catalonia, has set up a **Voluntary Return Programme** for immigrants in Catalonia (Generalitat de Catalunya, 2006; Secretariat for Immigration, n.d.). This Programme is the result of a partnership agreement with the International Organisation for

Migration and offers support to those foreign immigrants in a socially vulnerable situation who desire to return to their countries of origin.

2.4. Linguistic diversity and language use in Catalonia and Barcelona

The new migratory inflow, in which immigrants come from the five continents, involves a new and more intense cultural and linguistic diversity in the bilingual communities of Spain. It entails the coexistence of new linguistic communities together with Spanish and the minority languages in Spain.

Spanish and Catalan are both **official languages** in Catalonia, although the latter is clearly a minority language, especially in the Metropolitan Area of Barcelona. According to data from the Statistical Institute of Catalonia, Catalan was the usual language of only 35.64% of the total population in Catalonia in 2008 (Statistical Institute of Catalonia, n.d.l). In the Metropolitan Area of Barcelona, it was used by 27.80% of the population (Statistical Institute of Catalonia, n.d.l).

The state of Catalan today, as a minority language in its own nation, is the result of the history of Catalonia and the co-existence of the language with Spanish (see Turell, 2001, for the linguistic situation in Catalonia). Under the Franco regime (1939-1975), Catalan and the rest of minority languages in Spain as well as their cultures were severely repressed (Webber & Strubell, 1991). The arrival of Spanish-speaking immigrants between the 1950s and the early 1970s, who mainly settled in urban areas in the province of Barcelona, also contributed to the dominance of Spanish over Catalan. This entailed the coexistence of two speech communities with different use patterns. Catalan speakers were able and (in most cases) willing to switch to Spanish to address Spanish-speaking interlocutors. Whereas the Spanish community never used Catalan since, among other reasons, they had few opportunities to learn the local language, whose teaching was forbidden. After the death of General Franco in 1975, the new Spanish Constitution (1978) recognised and protected the bilingual situation in the long established communities and Catalan, Basque and Galician were granted official status together with Spanish. A further and

essential step for the status of Catalan was taken in 1983, when the Language Normalisation Act (*Llei de normalització lingüística*) was passed.

One of the most important aspects in the normalisation of Catalan was its introduction in **school** in 1978[8]. As Webber & Strubell (1991: 28) point out, education is a key factor in language normalisation since it "teaches standardised and correct usage and at the same time can help to educate *attitudes*". The 1983 Language Normalisation Act increased the presence of Catalan in education and established three models of school according to different percentages of language use in instruction in kindergarten and Primary Education (Bauzà, 2000). From the 1993-1994 school year onwards, the three optional models were replaced by a unique model in which Catalan was the language of instruction and use in educational institutions at all levels. As a consequence, all subjects in state schools, except for Spanish language, Spanish literature and foreign languages, must be taught in Catalan.

Despite the fact that Catalan is the medium of instruction and a co-official language, the situation concerning the use of Catalan among students at and outside school and proficiency in that language is not promising. Although in the School Language Censuses teachers report imparting their lessons in Catalan and address the students in that language, in a considerable number of schools the use of Spanish among students is overwhelming, especially in secondary schools (Vila, 2004). What is more, some teachers, probably influenced by their students' unwilingness to use Catalan, teach part of their classes in Spanish. This situation seems to extend to new immigrant pupils (Bernaus, Moore & Cordeiro, 2007). Although proficiency in Catalan has gradually improved since 1975 (as the language censuses of 1975, 1986, and 1991 show), especially in the Metropolitan Area of Barcelona, many citizens in

[8] By means of the Royal Decree No. 2092/1978, the use of Catalan was made obligatory in schools and it soon became the language of instruction. From 1981 on, three basic acts were introduced to increase the number of hours in Catalan (the Act of 11 May 1981, the Act of 16th August and the Decree No. 270/1982). Through the Organic Law 1/1990, of 3rd October, the Educational Reform, which brought about many changes in methodology, curriculum and lingusitic aspects, was established.

Catalonia still show a low level of proficiency in Catalan. This was especially true for written expression in this language.

Language usage also indicates that Spanish is more widely used than Catalan. Among those who are above 15, Catalan is the usual language of only 35.6%, while the figures for Spanish are 45.9%, and 12.0% use both as their usual language (the rest refers to other languages such as Arabic, Aranese, Romanian, etc.) (Statisical Institute of Catalonia, n.d.l). On the other hand, the language behaviour and patterns of use in the Catalan community is characterised by language contact phenomena between Spanish and Catalan. Code-mixing is used in a number of contexts: for instance, by speakers of Catalan to distance themselves when they quote speech produced in Spanish or in a bilingual modality in which the base language is either Spanish or Catalan (Turell, 2001).

2.5. Immigrants and Education in Catalonia and Barcelona

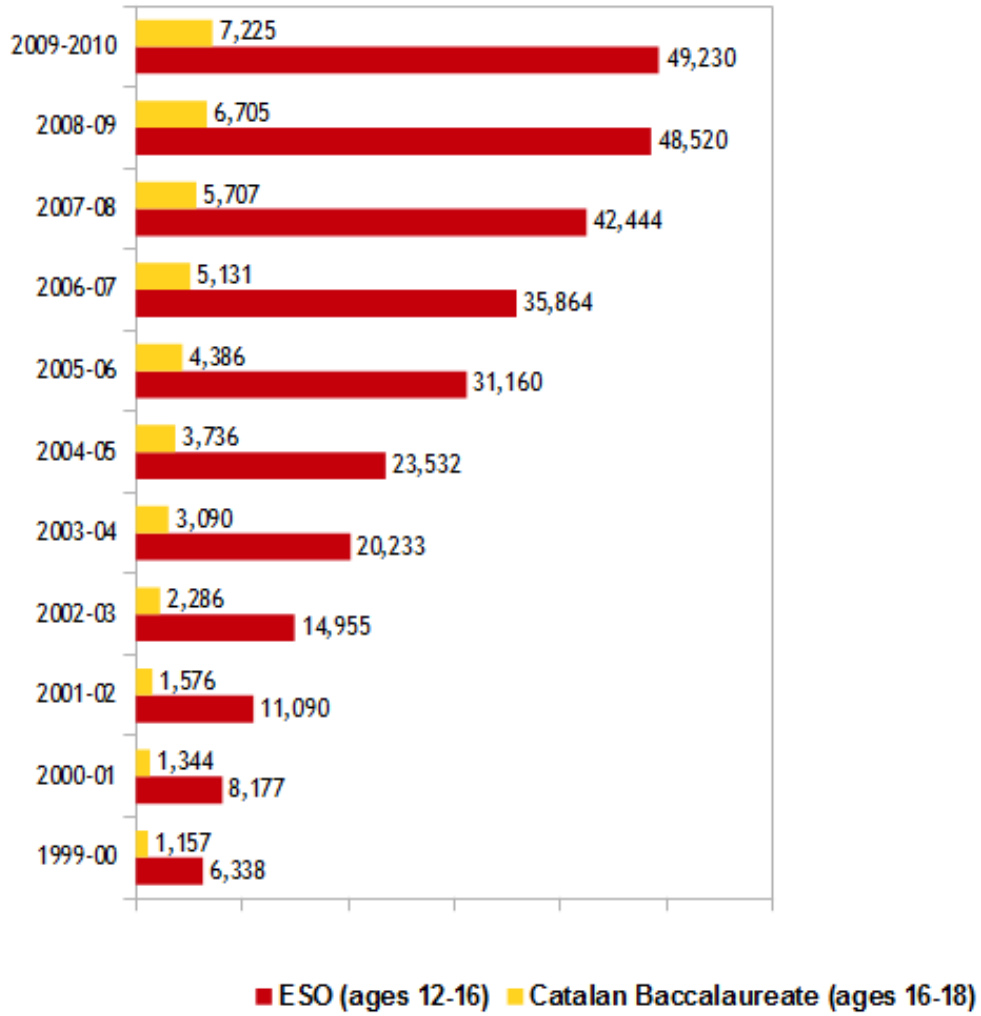
2.5.1. Immigration in Catalan schools

The linguistic and cultural diversity of Catalan society nowadays has its reflection in Catalan schools. The arrival of immigrant students from countries outside the European Community started with the possibility of family regrouping in the 1993-1994 school year. In the linguistic and social integration of the new students, the role of school is deemed crucial (Gomà i Argilaga & Sánchez i Guerrero, 2004).

Catalonia is one of the first Spanish automonomies in the percentage of foreign students, with 13.10%, in contrast to the global percentage in Spain, which is 9.6% (Ministry of Education, 2010). As Figure 2 shows, the total number of immigrant pupils in Compulsory Secondary Education in Catalan schools has undergone an enourmous increase in the last years (Ministry of Education, n.d.). At the same time, the number of native students in Catalan schools has diminished. All this had raised the percentages of foreign students to 18.12% in

2009-2010. Three quarters of foreign pupils at this level enroll in state-funded schools (79.25% in 2009-2010, Ministry of Education, n.d.).

Figure 2. The evolution of the number of foreign-born students in Catalan schools in ESO and Catalan Post-compulsory education or Baccalaureate from the 1999-2000 school year to the 2009-2010 school year (based on data from the Ministry of Education, n.d.)



According to data provided by the Department of Education of the Generalitat de Catalunya (Statistical Institute of Catalonia, n.d.k, n.d.i), more than half of the foreign pupils in Compulsory Secondary Education and Post-compulsory Education or Baccalaureate in the 2009/2010 and 2010/2011 academic years studied in the Metropolitan Area of Barcelona (see Table 2).

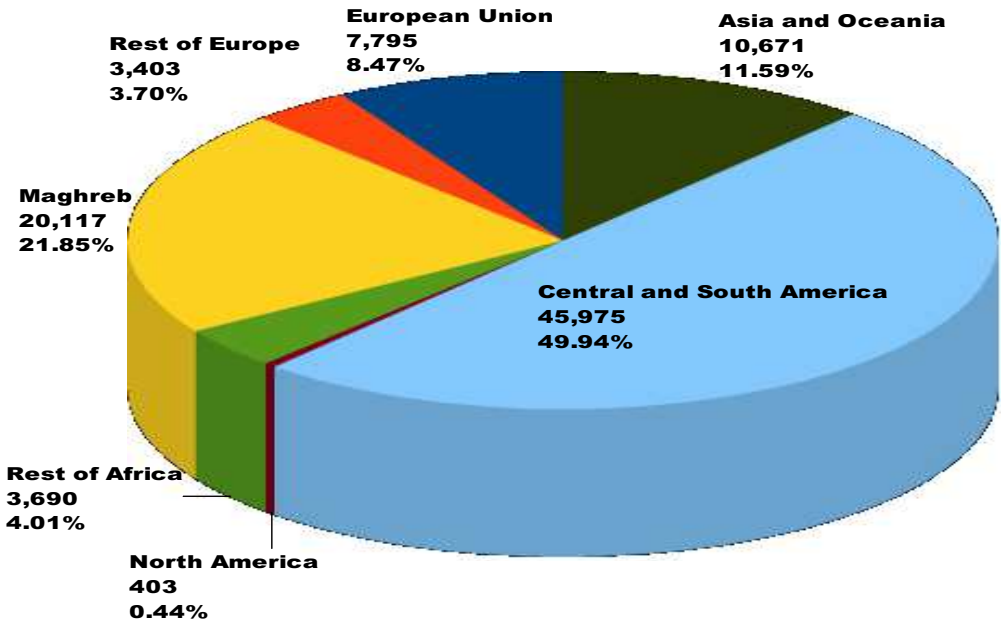
Table 2. Foreign pupils in Catalonia and the Metropolitan Area of Barcelona in the 2009/2010 and 2010/2011 academic years (based on data provided by the Statistical Institute of Catalonia, n.d.g, n.d.h)

	ESO		PSC or Baccalaureate	
Academic years	**Catalonia**	**Metropolitan Area**	**Catalonia**	**Metropolitan Area**
2009-2010	48.454	29.691 (61.23%)	6.930[9]	4.718 (68.08%)
2010-2011	49.149	28.377 (57.74%)	7.563	4.817 (63.69%)

As suggested by data from the Statistics service of the Department of Education (Statistical Institute of Catalonia, n.d.k*)* the most common origin among foreign secondary school students in the Metropolitan Area is Central and South America (49.94%), followed by Magrheb (21.85%), Asia and Oceania (11.59%) and, in the fourth place, the European Union (8.47%) (see Figure 3). The distribution in the whole of Catalonia is the same for the two most represented areas of origin, but the ratio is lower in both cases: 40.26% for Central and South America and 21.85% for Maghreb. The third area of origin in the percentage of foreign students in Catalonia is, in contrast to the Metropolitan Area, the European Union, with 13.40%. The community from Asia and Oceania represents 8.78%. The diverse geographical origins of the foreign-born pupils in secondary schools suggest a great linguistic diversity, but the most common L1 among them in Catalan schools is Spanish.

[9] The difference concerning the data provided by the Ministry of Education is due to the fact that the data from the Department of Education, in contrast with the Ministry of Education (Figure 2), does not include students in distance education.

Figure 3. Distribution of areas of origin among foreign students in the Metropolitan Area of Barcelona in the 2009-2010 academic year (Statistical Institute of Catalonia, n.d.k)



2.5.2. Catering for newcomers

Despite the urgency of the linguistic and social integration of foreign students in Catalan schools, no specific measures were provided until the 2002-2003 school year: the Action Plan for Foreign Students 2003-2006 (*Pla d'actuació per a l'alumnat de nationalitat estrangera 2003-2006*) and the Plan for Language and Social Cohesion 2004-2005 (*Pla per a la Llengua I la Cohesió Social 2004-2005*). The latter of these Plans was updated in November 2009 (Department of Education, 2009).

Since the arrival of immigrant students, several types of **instruction services** have been devised so that newly arrived pupils could learn Catalan and integrate into school. In 1998, the first of these resources, the so-called Workshops for School Adaptation and Basic Instrumental Learning (*Tallers d'Adaptació Escolar i Aprenentatges Instrumentals Bàsics* or *TAEs*), were created. In the 2004-2005 academic year, the Plan for Language and Social Cohesion 2004-2005 introduced the reception classroom (*aula d'acollida*) and

the Environment Education Plans (*Plans Educatius d'Entorn* or *PEEs*) to replace the *TAEs*. In schools that boast a reception classroom, newcomers are partially mainstreamed from their first day, spending some lessons in the *aula d'acollida* for one or two academic years[10]. Finally, the *PEEs* were introduced as a pilot experience in 25 towns and they may replace reception classrooms in the future (Roca, 2008). However, this new mechanism for social integration of disfavoured students is controversial, since the *PEEs*, like the TAEs, are placed outside schools, which hinders integration with other students.

In spite of the efforts invested, it takes a long time for immigrant students to attain an academic competence in Catalan and Spanish similar to their local peers (Oller Badenas, 2008). Several studies confirm that the academic command of Spanish and especially Catalan among foreign-born students is considerably lower than their local peers in Primary Education (Supreme Council of Assessment of the Education System, 2010; Oller Badenas, 2008; Oller & Vila, 2008) and secondary school (Sansó Galiay, 2010).

2.5.3. School system and foreign language teaching in Catalonia

Language learning among immigrant students in Catalonia is further complexified if we bear in mind the presence of at least three languages in their learning process. Their linguisic system includes their L1, Catalan (an L2), Spanish (as a further L2 for those who do not have it as their L1), English and an optional second FL.

Within the present school system[11], the first medium of instruction is Catalan and the only tongue used in the pre-school period (from age 3 to 6). In

[10] The reception classroom can be seen as a mixture of the two most common models followed in Europe to integrate immigrant students, the integrated and the separate models (Espelt Hernández, 2009).

[11] Education in Catalonia has been established by the 2009 Education Law of Catalonia (*Llei d'Educació de Catalunya* or *LEC,* approved on 10th July) and the 2006 Organic Education Law (*Ley Orgánica de Educación* or LOE), which is based on the 1992 Education Law (*Ley de Organización General del sistema Educativo* or LOGSE). The LEC,

Secondary Education, Catalan, Spanish and English are taught for three hours a week each language. For the newcomers in their first or second year in Catalonia, the normal amount of English classes, which is three per week, may be reduced to two or one if they go to the reception room instead. Besides the compulsory English subject, the students can choose credit courses in the first FL (English) or in the second FL (normally French or, less frequently, German).

As González-Davies (2007) points out, the general level in English among primary and secondary school learners in Catalonia is lower than in other European countries. According to the same author, it is due, among other reasons, to lower investment in Education in comparison to other countries belonging to the OCDE and a traditional lack of interest in foreign languages and countries. In order to improve primary and secondary students' level of English as well as other foreign languages, the Foreign Languages Service (*Servei de Llengües* Estrangeres) of the Department of Education (*Departament d'Ensenyament*) of the Generalitat de Catalunya has set up a Multilingual Project which encompasses a number of plans and programmes (Department of Education, Foreign Language Service, n.d.). These include initiatives like language stays, the Oratory Contest, Languages Active Learning, Conversation Assistant programmes, cooperation with companies, language classes for the new citizenship, blogs and webs to provide information. The most important and best-known of these initiatives is the Languages Experimental Plan (*Pla Experimental de Llengües* or *PELE*), which started in 2005 and aims at increasing the students' contact with foreign languages. At Secondary Education, the activities to obtain such a goal are project work, oral language reinforcement and Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL[12]).

which is being implemented progressively, empowers school headteachers to organise the curriculum in their schools, which may affect foreign languages teaching.

[12] The CLIL approach consists in the teaching of a school subject in a foreign language as the vehicular language, which implies a higher amount of input.

2.6. Summary

The present chapter has started with a general framework on the immigration phenomena. Then, our discussion has focused on recent waves of international immigration into Catalonia and the steps taken by Catalan authorities in order to cope with the new citizens. Immigraton has increased the linguistic and cultural diversity in this bilingual autonomy and, in particular, in the Metropolitan Area of Barcelona. Finally, this chapter has dealt with issues concerning the education of the immigrant learners, with a focus on the teaching of Catalan, the language of school, and English, the first FL.

After presenting immigration and immigrant learners in Catalonia, Chapters 3 and 4 review relevant literature on the issues analysed in our sample. The first of these chapters deals with *affective variables* and Chapter 4 tackles *CLI* in EFL. Both chapters focus on foreign language learning (FLL) contexts and immigrant learners.

3. Literature Review I: The role of affective variables in language learning

3.1. Introduction. *A*ffective variables in language learning

Learners' expectations in language learning, together with their attitudes towards the target language and its culture, motivation, sociocultural experience or anxiety are part of the so-called *affective variables* in SLA (MacIntyre, 2002; Richards & Schmidt, 2002; Yokochi, 2003). The role of *affective variables* is often contrasted to that of cognitive factors, such as intelligence or language learning aptitude (Ellis, 2004). The latter concept was generally considered as the most influential factor in second language development and received major attention before the second half of the 20th century. However, at the end of the 1950s, the social psychologists W. E. Lambert (Gardner & Lambert, 1959) and R. C. Gardner (1960) drew their attention to the influence of *attitudes* and *motivation* in language learning, inititiating thus a new field of research. As explained by Gardner (1960), previous studies on language acquisition found significant correlations between language aptitude (measured through aptitude tests) and measures of second language *achievement*. However, the capability of aptitude tests to predict second language *proficiency* varied in different situations. This fact pointed to the presence of other factors involved in second language *proficiency*.

Thus, in their study of the acquisition of French as a second language in Canada, Gardner & Lambert (1959) and Gardner (1960) discovered that both aptitude and social *motivation*, understood as the desire to be similar to valued members of the target language community, were crucial factors in the participants' second language *proficiency*. Since Gardner & Lambert's seminal studies (Gardner & Lambert, 1959, 1972), language *attitudes* and *motivation* have attracted the attention of language acquisition researchers (Baker, 1992; Clément & Gardner, 2001; Gardner, 1973; Gardner & Clément, 1990; Gardner, 1985a; Lasagabaster, 2005a, among others).

The role of *motivation* in language acquisition and the evidence provided by research is precisely the object of the present chapter. First of all, we will introduce some clarifications regarding the concepts of "*motivation*" (section 3.2) and "*attitudes*" (section 3.3) and how both notions are related (section 3.4). We will also address the concept of "orientation" and the role of *integrative orientations*, related to positive attitudes towards the TL community in FL contexts, where direct contact with the speakers of the language is not available (section 3.5). Section 3.6 focuses on theories or models on language learning *motivation* that have supplied with the constructs used in the present study. The section will begin with a brief review of research on language *motivation* since early studies at the end of the 1950s and how it has evolved (section 3.6.1). The motivational models reviewed will be Gardner's Socio-Educational Model (section 3.6.2), which is specific for language *motivation* and puts an emphasis on the role of social attitudes in language *achievement*, and Expectancy-value theories (section 3.6.3), a theoretical framework based on the role of *expectations of success* and *value* attached to the goal. Then, a description of Tremblay & Gardner's (1995) model (section 3.6.4), which integrates tenets from the Expectancy-value Theories into the Socio-Educational paradigm, will follow. Finally, section 3.7 will discuss empirical research on the relationship between *affective variables* and language *achievement*, with a focus on immigrant learners (section 3.7.2) and on the Catalan context (section 3.7.3).

3.2. The concept of "motivation"

Despite its centrality to human behaviour in general and language learning in particular, there is no consensus on the definition of *motivation* (Oxford & Shearing, 1994). According to Dörnyei (1998: 117), "researchers seem to agree that motivation is responsible for determining human behaviour by energising it and giving it direction". However, researchers do not agree on the way *motivation* exerts such an influence on human behaviour and, therefore, each theory and model in mainstream psychology offers a different conceptualisation of *motivation*.

As discussed by Peña i Bello (2008), Kleinginna & Kleinginna (1981) reviewed 102 definitions of *motivation* and found a common element in all of them: effort. This concept is also present in Williams & Burden's (1997: 120) definition of *motivation* as:

- a state of cognitive and emotional arousal,
- which leads to a conscious decision to act, and
- which gives rise to a period of sustained intellectual and/or physical effort in order to attain a previously set goal (or goals).

As Williams & Burden (1997) point out, effort is necessary in order to persevere and reach the goal. In the above definition, Williams & Burden (1997) mention two additional key components, shared by other conceptualisations of *motivation*: the initiation of action and the presence of a goal to reach. According to Williams & Burden (1997: 120), action can be triggered by "desire" or by other internal forces (like "interest or curiosity") or external causes (for instance, "another person or event"). In her definition of *motivation*, Bernaus (1992: 68) also makes reference to internal or external influences and the pursue of a goal: "an/the inner feeling caused by internal and/or external drives, that makes somebody act or start an action in order to attain a goal for a specific purpose".

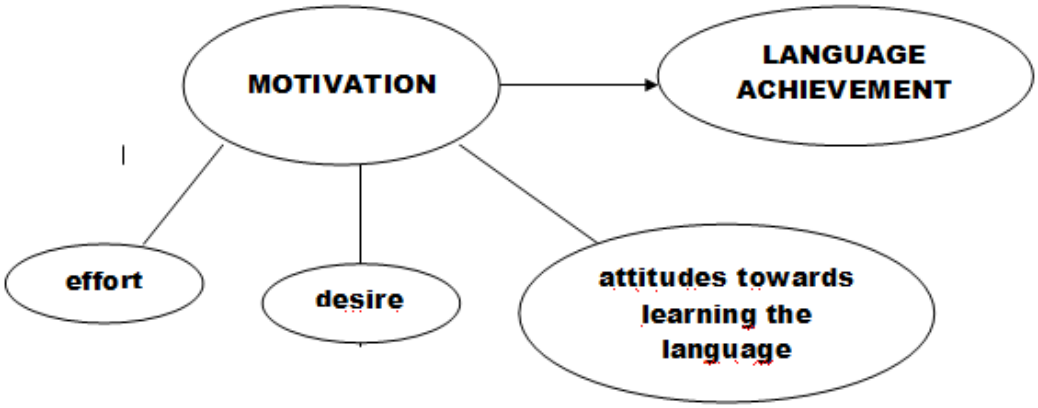
The three concepts -drives, effort and a goal to be reached- are also present in Gardner's (1985a: 10) definition, which is specific for language *motivation* and describes the concept as:

> the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favourable attitudes towards learning the language. That is, motivation to learn a second language is seen as referring to the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity.

Gardner's definition includes a component that was not present in the above definitions: i. e. positive attitudes towards learning the language. Thus, Gardner's (1985a) definition of L2 *motivation* necessarily entails the four elements discussed: an individual motivated to learn a language desires to learn that language, which is the goal to be achieved, strives to do so (effort) and has positive attitudes towards learning the language (see Figure 4). This

conceptualisation of language *motivation* put forward by Gardner (1985a) has been used in subsequent studies by Gardner and associate researchers (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Gardner, 2006, 2007) and provides the notion of *motivation* underlying the present study.

Figure 4. Schematic representation of *motivation* in the Socio-Educational Model (my own elaboration based on Gardner, 1985a: 54; and 2006: 246)



3.3. The concept of "attitudes"

Like *motivation*, *attitudes* is a hypothetical construct used to explain the direction and persistence of human behaviour (Baker, 1992). However, as in the case of *motivation*, there is no agreement as to its definition (Aronin, 2004; Baker, 1992; Gardner, 1985a). The difficulty in defining *attitudes* may lie in the fact that *attitudes* cannot be directly observed and can only be inferred from external behaviour. There exists a traditional consensus in seeing them as composed of cognitive, affective, and conative elements (Baker, 1992; Gardner, 1985a). More specifically, they comprise the individual's beliefs, emotional reactions and the readiness to behave towards the attitude object (Gardner, 1985a: 8).

Thus, the cognitive, affective and conative components of *attitudes* are present in the following definitions. For instance, Fishbein & Ajzen (1975: 6) define *attitude* as "a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favourable or unfavourable manner with respect to a given object". Bernaus' (1992: 67) definition of *attitude* is similar:

> a personal way of feeling and viewing the inner and outside world that an individual has internalized throughout his life. Attitude is affected by external factors whose effects are shown through the individual's behaviour, or, in other words, through his way of life.

In a similar way, Gardner's (1985a) working definition also includes opinion and disposition and implies a desire to act. According to him, an *attitude* is "an evaluative reaction to some referent or attitude object, inferred on the basis of the individual's beliefs or opinions about the referent" (Gardner, 1985a: 9). Specifically in the field of SLA, Gardner (1985a) argues precisely that research has consistenly found evidence for the relationship between *attitudes* and behaviour, although the influence of *attitudes* is indirectly exerted through *motivation* (see section 3.4).

According to Baker (1992), a second aspect of *attitudes* that complicates their study is the difficulty in distinguishing them from other related concepts such as language ideology or personality traits, which also involve judgement and opinion. Wolfram & Schilling-Estes (2006: 398) define language ideology as "ingrained, unquestioned beliefs about the way the world is, the way it has to be with respect to language". Both language *attitudes* and language ideologies refer to concepts, ideas and opinions towards language and its role. However, language ideology is general, related to groups (population, families, etc.), conscious, and it is reflected in language practice, while *attitudes* are personal, unconscious and not directly observable. Here we must point out that, although they are not directly observable, *attitudes* can be expresssed "either overtly, by making value statements, or covertly, for example, when a non-standard variety, slang or secret code carries particular identity values for certain groups" (Dyers & Abongdia, 2010: 121). Another important difference is that language ideology is normally conceived as underlying or informing language policy, as Spolsky's (2004: 14) definition points out: "Put simply, language ideology is language policy with the manager left out, what people think should be". Likewise, *attitudes* are also difficult to distinguish from personality traits like extroversion. Baker (1992) states that both are dispositions which have a reflection and an influence on behaviour, but *attitudes* involve an evaluative disposition towards a referent and are, therefore, more susceptible to undergo changes than personality traits.

Following Gardner (1985a), research suggests that the impact of *attitudes* towards learning the language on TL *achievement* is higher than the influence of attitudes towards learning another school subject on success in this subject. Among other types of classifications, Gardner's (1985a: 41) distinguishes between educational and social attitudes, which both play a role in language learning (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Bernaus *et al.*, 2009; Gardner, 1985a, 2006, 2007; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner, Tremblay & Masgoret, 1997; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995; Wilson, 2012b). The first of these categories refer to attitudes towards teaching and learning variables involved in SLA such as "the teacher, the course, learning the language, etc." (Gardner's, 1985a: 41), while social *attitudes* include dispositions towards cultural aspects of SLA, like *attitudes* towards the second language community, "ethnocentrism" or anomie" (Gardner, 1985a: 42). A*ttitudes toward learning the second language* and *attitudes toward the second language community* are, respectively, the most researched educational and social attitudes (Gardner, 1985a).

As Baker (1992) clarifies, the relationship between *attitudes* and academic or language *achievement* does not always limit to the influence of the former on the latter. In other words, Baker (1992) points out that *attitude* can also be a product of the learning process or its results. As Gardner (1985a), Bernaus (1992) and Baker (1992) point out, *attitudes* are not static. Studies on attitude change point out that positive or favourable *attitudes* decrease with age. Thus, if *attitudes* are dynamic, it is possible to influence changes in learners' *attitudes*.

The concept of *attitudes* towards EFL in the present study is similar to Gardner's (1985a). Our attitudinal construct consists of *attitudes* towards learning the language, the members of the second language community and towards an international community which expresses itself in English, and the instrumental value attached to having a certain level of proficiency in English (see section 5.4).

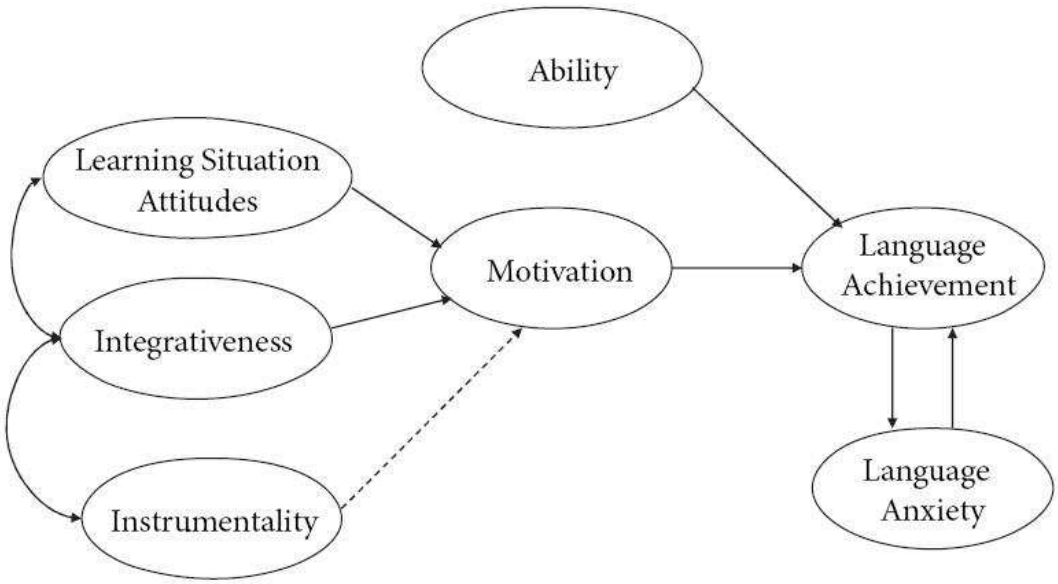
3.4. The relationship between motivation and attitudes

We have seen that no consensus on the concepts of *motivation* and *attitudes* has been reached. In the same way, researchers have not agreed on the nature of the relationship between both notions (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Ellis, 1985). Crookes & Schmidt (1991: 478) believe that the emphasis on *attitudes* towards the TL community in social psychological models of language *motivation* has equated this concept with *attitudes*. It must be noted that they are indeed conceptually similar, as both are *affective factors* that somehow direct human behaviour and promote language learning success. However, according to Crookes & Schmidt (1991), the alleged assimilation of both notions has led to a concept of language *motivation* as too different from psychology research and pedagogy. Despite the relevance of social *attitudes* in the investigation of language *motivation* within social-psychological paradigms, researchers like Gardner (1985a, 2000, 2006, 2007) and Schumann (1986) provide different definitions for *motivation* and *attitudes*, which suggests that they are considered as different concepts by such authors (see sections 3.2 and 3.3 for Gardner's (1985a) definitions of *motivation* and *attitudes,* respectively). In Schumann (1986), *attitude* is a social factor referring to the learners' predisposition towards the target language community, while *motivation* is a personal factor involving the reason to learn the language. Moreover, as Dörnyei (1994b: 519) puts forward, due to the complex nature of language (as "a communication coding system, an integral part of the individual's identity, and the most important channel of social organisation"), the study of L2 motivation should include both "motivational and attitudinal approaches".

As for the relationship between *motivation* and *attitudes*, Bernaus (1992; Bernaus & Gardner, 2008) and Gardner's Socio-Educational Model (Gardner, 1985a, 2000, 2006, 2007) establish that *attitudes* are a factor of *motivation* and, therefore, contribute indirectly to language attainment. However, the structure of the influence exerted by *attitudes* on *motivation* is different in Bernaus (1992). According to this author, the influence of *attitude* is indirect through *attitudinal behaviour* and *external factors*. In addition, *attitudinal behaviour* can have a direct influence on *foreign langu*age

acquisition. On the other hand, the Socio-Educational Model posits that the contribution of *attitudes* to *motivation* is direct, sustaining persistency in attaining the goal (Gardner, 1985a, 2000, 2006, 2007; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993a)[13]. The relationship between the different variables in the Socio-Educational model (Gardner, 2006) is represented in Figure 5. We must bear in mind that some of the measures in the Socio-Educational model can change from one study to the other (Gardner, 2000, 2006). In the 2006 conceptualisation, *attitudes toward the target group* is contained in the variable labelled *integrativeness* and *attitudes towards learning the language* is a component of *motivation*.

Figure 5. The Socio-Educational Model (Gardner, 2006: 244)



In the present study, like in Gardner (1985a, 2000, 2006, 2007), *attitudes* are conceptualised as a factor of *motivation*. In other words, we believe that the latter is influenced and supported by the former. Also like

[13] The results in a study conducted by Tremblay & Gardner (1995) indicate that language *attitudes* had an indirect influence on *motivational behaviour* through *goal salience*, *valence*, *self-efficacy* and *adaptive attributions* (constructs borrowed from mainstream psychology theories, see section 3.6.4).

Gardner (1985a, 2000, 2006, 2007), we assume that *attitudes* have an indirect link to language *achievement* through *motivation*.

3.5. The concept of orientation. Integrative orientation in foreign language contexts

Gardner (1985a: 10), as many other SLA researchers, establishes a distinction between *orientations* (clusters of reasons for studying an L2) and *motivation* ("the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity"). *Orientations* can be seen, then, as the motives why a language is learnt, as external factors that support and direct *motivation*. They are different from *motivation* since a given orientation does not entail a given amount of *motivation*al intensity. Gardner (2001) insists on the fact that the operative variable is *motivation*, and not orientation, and points out the mistake made by some researchers who assess orientations or reasons for studying a second language, equating these with *motivation*.

Initially, only two types of *orientations* were considered by the Socio-Educational Model: *integrative* and *instrumental orientations*. Both of them can predict *achievement* and can correlate with each other (and with other *motivation* and *attitudes* measures). *Integrative orientation* refers to the learner's desire to learn more about the cultural community of the target language or to assimilate to some degree into this community. *Instrumental orientation*, in contrast, is more utilitarian and is related to the learner's desire to learn the language in order to accomplish pragmatic purposes such as to pass an exam or to advance a career (Gardner, 1985a). The terms *integrative* and *instrumental* can also be applied to *attitudes* and *motivation*, as influenced by *integrative* or *instrumental orientations*.

The integrative aspect relates to a particularity of *motivation* and *attitudes* in the specific field of SLA. Learning a language entails a social dimension, since language is seen as a characteristic of another culture (Dörnyei, 1994b, 2003a; Gardner, 1985a). As Gardner (1985a: 146) states,

> *languages are unlike any other subject taught in the classroom*

> *in that they involve the acquisition of skills or behaviour patterns which are characteristic of another cultural community. It is argued that any other subject, such as mathematics, science, or history, involves the development of knowledge or skills which are a part of the heritage of the student's cultural community; a second language, on the other hand, is a salient characteristic of another culture. As a consequence, the relative degree of success will be influenced to some extent by the individual's attitudes towards the other community or to other communities in general.*

As Ushioda & Dörnyei (2009) point out, the assumption that integratively-oriented learners are willing to identify with the TL group is controversial. We must bear in mind that the notion of "integrative orientation" has a strong and a weak conceptualisation (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2009). The strong version would conceive integrative orientation as a "social identification and integration", while the weak conceptualisation would see it as a "sense of affiliation and interest" (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2009: 2). However, the Socio-Educational Model has never conceived *integrativeness* or *integrative orientation* in this strong form (i. e. only as a desire to assimilate completely to the target group), but as an interest in the TL community and perhaps the willingness to incorporate some of the characteristics of this community (Gardner, 2006).

As for the relative contribution of *integrative* and *instrumental orientations* in L2 *achievement*, research has yielded contradictory results. Studies under the Socio-Educational Model (see section 3.6.2) have found that *integrative orientation* obtains the highest correlations with language attainment (e. g., Gardner, 1960; 1985a; Gardner & Lambert, 1959, 1972; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995), whereas other studies (Oller, Baca & Vigil, 1977; Chen, Warden & Chang, 2005; Liu, 2007; Musleh, 2011; Oller, Hudson & Liu, 1977; Pae, 2010; Strong, 1982; Svanes, 1984) pointed out that *integrative attitudes* played no role in the participants' *motivation* or in their language *achievement*.

An issue that may clarify the lesser or non existent impact of *integrative orientation* in some studies is learning context. Some researchers, like Clément & Kruidenier (1983; 1985), Dörnyei (1990) or Oxford & Shearin (1994), point out that the role of integrative *motivation* may be less relevant in FL environments than in SLA contexts. In other words, it might be argued that it is more difficult for the learners of a FL to form *integrative attitudes* towards the TL community when direct contact and interaction with the speakers of this community is not available. This assumption is confirmed in some studies, since they found that integrative *motivation* was not present in FL contexts. For instance, Clément & Kruidenier (1983) and Belmechri & Hummel (1998), which investigated orientations in language learning in Quebec city, concluded that *integrative orientations* or *orientations* conceptually similar to it (expressing an interest in the target language culture) made appearance only in multicultural contexts, where contact with the other community was possible. Likewise, in Warden & Lin (2000), *integrative motivation* was virtually non-existent among Taiwanese learners of EFL.

However, a large number of studies have found evidence of *integrative orientation* in different FL contexts, albeit in some of them the indices of *integrative orientation* were lower than *instrumentality* or they were a weaker support of *motivation*: Japan (Kimura, Nakata & Okumura, 2001; Leung, 2006; Vaezi, 2008), China (Chen & Shue, 2005; Liu, 2007), the Philippines (Gonzales, 2010), Iran (Ahmadi, 2011, Azizeh & Kassaian, 2010), Turkey (Çalok, 2008), Palestine (Musleh, 2011), the United States (Gardner & Lambert, 1972), Hungary (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005a, 2005b; Dörnyei (1990) or Spain (Gardner, 2007; Bernaus & Gardner, 2008, see section 3.7.3).

Another relevant issue in the discussion of *integrative orientation* in FL contexts is whether it is related, directly or indirectly, to higher *achievement* in FL learning. Research findings on the contribution of *integative orientation* in FL *achievement* are discussed in sections 3.7.2 and 3.7.3.

Given the scarce opportunities of forming *integrative attitudes* when the L2 community is not available, some researchers, like Csizér & Dörnyei (2005b), Dörnyei (1990), Lamb (2004) or Yashima (2002), have suggested that the concept of *integrative orientation* should be redefined in FL contexts. For

instance, Dörnyei (1990: 69) defines *integrative orientation* in FLL as a more general interest in foreign languages and cultures and an interest in "the cultural and intellectual values" of the TL. Thus, the "desire to integrate into a new community" is partially instrumental as well. In addition, a new conceptualisation of *integrativeness* in EFL must bear in mind the new status of English as the most important language for international communication. As Csizér & Dörnyei (2005b), Csizér & Kormos (2008), Dörnyei & Csizér (2002), Dörnyei, Csizér & Németh (2006), Lamb (2004), Ryan (2009), Ushioda & Dörnyei (2009) and Yashima (2002) put forward, in a globalised world where English has become the medium of expression of an international community, its association with a specific national Anglo-saxon community is fading. For this reason, Lamb (2004) argues that *integrative orientation* towards EFL would, therefore, entail the desire to integrate into a globalised community whose members express themselves in English.

The presence of *integrative motivation* as formed by *attitudes* towards a global community has been investigated in different national contexts. To begin with, Csizér & Dörnyei (2005b) report a survey collected among Hungarian 13/14-year-old students of English in which *integrativeness* seems to be the most important factor of *motivation*. The authors discuss that *integrativeness* should be discussed in a broader sense than integration into a L2 community, but a basic identification with the L2 community within the learner's self-concept, what this person would like to be or become. Yashima (2002) studied this attitude towards an English-speaking global community, operationalised as "*international posture*", and found that this variable had an impact on *motivation* among Japanese learners of EFL. A construct conceptually similar to *international posture* was found in Hungary (Csizér & Kormos, 2008) and Iran (Ghonsooly, Khajavy & Asadpour, 2012). Finally, Lamb (2004) conducted a qualitative study on *integrative orientations* conceptualised in this global sense among Indonesian young school learners (aged 11-12), who showed a high integrative *motivation* and very positive opinions about Western countries.

Despite the above discussion, we can argue, as Ryan (2009) does, that learners of EFL may associate English with a global community and, at the same

time, they may still be aware of its connection with the Anglo-saxon community, especially with the British and the Americans. Awareness of English as the language of a definite British or American community must be general even among young learners, since they access communication media, like television or the Internet, where the British and, especially, the American cultures are spread. This points to a contact with the Anglo-saxon community in FL contexts through media products, whose influence, according to Csizér & Kormos (2008), might be more powerful than face-to-face contact.

Hence, a specific and a "global" conceptualisations of *integrative attitudes* and *motivation* are both contemplated in the present study. The "specific" dimension includes *attitudes* towards the English and the Americans and identification with the English and the Americans (*integrative attitudes*). The "global" dimension of *integrative attitudes* is measured through interest in English-speaking artists, which points to understanding media and entertainment in English shared by a global community throughout the world, and communication with foreigners (*attitudes towards an international community*) (see Appendices 1, 2 and 3).

As Dörnyei (1994b: 520) points out, and contrary to what has usually been thought, the Socio-Educational Model does not conceive *integrative* and *instrumental orientations* as "antagonistic counterparts". What is more, since their early studies, Gardner & Lambert (1959, 1972) themselves have acknowledged that there may be other *orientations* besides the *integrative* and *instrumental* aspects, although they have focused on the latter. As Noels, Pelletier, Clément & Vallerand (2000) discuss, one of the earliest proposals of new *orientations* was Clément & Kruidenier (1983), which established four *orientations* that were common in the eight groups of participants analysed by the authors: travel, friendship, knowledge, and instrumental *orientations*. Belmechri & Hummel (1998) found the following *orientations* towards learning English as an L2 among Francophone high school students in Quebec (Canada): school, career, travel, friendship, and understanding. "School" and "career" were conceptualised as *instrumental orientations*. "Travel", "friendship", and "understanding" were not defined as *integrative orientations* because the

participants did not report the desire to integrate into the Anglophone community.

3.6. Theories on language learning motivation and attitudes

3.6.1. Introduction. Models of second/foreign language motivation

Several theories on L2 *motivation* have been proposed, but this section is concerned only with those relevant to the present study, i. e., those which have provided the constructs similar to the scales used here (the Socio-Educational Model (3.6.2) and *self-efficacy* and Clément's concept of *self-confidence* (3.6.3)). Dörnyei (2005: 66) divides the history of L2 *motivation* into three phases:

i. *The social psychological period (1959-1990), dominated by the social psychological approach.*
ii. *The cognitive-situated period (during the 1990s), where concepts from cognitive psycology were incorporated into L2 motivation and a task-specific and classroom-specific approach was proposed.*
iii. *The process-oriented period (from 2000 onwards), which approaches L2 motivation from a dynamic point of view (motivation as changing over time), started by Dörnyei, Ushioda, and their colleagues in Europe.*

As Dörnyei (2001, 2003a) discusses, the Socio-Educational agenda seemed to enjoy universal acceptance until its first criticisms in the 1990s. Crookes & Schmidt (1991), Dörnyei (1994b) and Oxford & Shearin (1994), among others, called for a new approach in L2 *motivation*. The reason for such a call was three-fold. In the first place, it was felt that concepts from general psychology should be integrated into the study of L2 *motivation*. Oxford & Shearin (1994) believed that *motivation* research should include other variables apart from *integrative motivation*, especially in FL contexts, where it seems more difficult for learners to form *attitudes* towards the target group. Oxford

& Shearin (1994) proposed four types of *motivation* theories: Need Theories, Instrumentality Theories (Expectancy-Value and Goal-Setting), Equity Theories, and Reinforcement Theories. In the second place, they also advocated for a more situated conception of L2 *motivation* moving from a macro-perspective in social psychological L2 *motivation* to an approach centred in the individual and the classroom environment, which seemed more appropriate for foreign language learners. This involves the inclusion of Willingness to Communicate (WTC), Task Motivation and the use of learning strategies in the study of language *motivation*. Finally, Oxford & Shearin (1994) also claimed that L2 *motivation* research should adopt a pragmatic, education-centred approach for classroom application, with a concept of *motivation* related to that of teachers. Basically, Crookes & Schmidt (1991), Dörnyei (1994b) and Oxford & Shearin (1994) believed that a purely social psychological approach and the emphasis on *attitudes* towards the target language group was a limiting feature, especially in FLL. However, the validity of the *integrative motive* was not questioned (Dörnyei, 1994b), as its role in L2 *motivation* has been demonstrated by empirical research (see section 3.6.2). Despite the fact that Gardner certainly focuses on the *integrative* aspect of L2 *motivation*, it must be highlighted that he also considers the existence of other types of variables, like *attitudes toward the learning situation* or *attitudes toward learning the language*.

Among the most important models of *motivation* in mainstream psychology which have contributed to the specific field of language *motivation* are Self-Determination Theory (SDT), Expectancy-Value Theories and Goal Theories. The three motivational paradigms share the aim of elucidating why an individual engages in an activity. SDT and Goal theories, briefly described below in this introduction, will not be discussed in the present literature review as their tenets have not been included in our attitudinal and motivational model. On the other hand, Expectancy-Value Models, more related to the motivational conceptualisation of the present study, will be dealt with in more detail in section 3.6.3.

Self-Determination Theory (SDT), one of the most influential paradigms in mainstream motivational research, provides with a systematic theoretical

model to the traditional distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic *motivation*. According to SDT, human beings need competence, autonomy and relatedness. In other words, they are growth-oriented and are innately motivated or self-determined to take action or learn. However, the realisation of this potential depends on their social context, which can either maximise or block it (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000a, 2000b). According to the degree of self-determination shown in the behaviour of an individual, Deci & Ryan (2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000a, 2000b) identify three broad motivational subtypes. To begin with, intrinsic *motivation* and extrinsic *motivation* are two ends alongside a continuum which display, respectively, the highest and the lowest degree of self-determination. Finally, the third type of *motivation*, *amotivation*, takes place when the learners feel that the activity they are carrying out is totally independent of their behaviour. In their application of SDT construct in language *motivation* research, Noels and associate researchers have found that intrinsic and extrinsic *motivation*al subtypes established by Deci & Ryan (2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000a, 2000b) are valid constructs to measure language *motivation* (Noels, 2001a, 2001b; Noels, Pelletier, Clément, & Vallerand, 2000; Noels, Clément & Pelletier, 1999). In contrast to what has been suggested, integrative *motivation* cannot be equated with intrinsic *motivation*, since the former shares characteristics with both intrinsic and extrinsic *motivation* (Noels, 2001a; Wen, 1997).

Expectancy-Value Theories and Goal Theories are similar conceptualisations of *motivation* to learn. **Expectancy-Value Theories** posit that people will be motivated to act provided they expect to be successful in fulfilling the activity and they deem the goal to be reached as valuable (see 3.6.3). Likewise, **Goal Theories** assume that human beings need a goal, i. e., a purpose to be achieved, in order to initiate action. Dörnyei (1998) highlights two goal theories as being the most influential: Goal-Setting Theory and Goal Orientation Theory. Examples of language *motivation* models that have adopted constructs of Expectancy-Value Theories and Goal Theories are Crookes & Schmidt (1991), Dörnyei (1994b) and Tremblay & Gardner (1995).

Finally, the cognitive-situated approach to L2 *motivation* research led to the process-oriented approach. A specific perspective of motivational

behaviour in specific classrooms and students makes another relevant but neglected aspect of L2 *motivation* evident: *its* "dynamic character and temporal variation" (Dörnyei, 2003a: 17). According to Dörnyei (Dörnyei, 2000, 2001; Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998), the process-oriented perspective of L2 *motivation* is very promising and it can solve many of the controversial findings and disagreements in L2 *motivation* research. However, the process-oriented approach has not been incorporated into our *motivation*al concept since it is related to variables that are not involved in motivational or affective differences for being an immigrant learner.

3.6.2. The Socio-Educational Model and other social models of L2 motivation

The Socio-Educational Model, developed by R. C. Gardner and W. E. Lambert, emphasizes the importance of *attitudes* towards the L2 community in the learner's *motivation*. Under the influence of Lambert & Gardner, the social psychological perspective dominated the research on L2 *motivation* until the 1990s. Since the Socio-Educational Model (Gardner & Smythe, 1975; Gardner, 1985a, 2000), other paradigms have tried to explain the role of *motivation* in SLA from a social point of view: the Social Psychological Model by Lambert (1963, 1967), The Acculturation Model by Schumann (1986), The Social Context Model by Clément (1980), and The Intergroup Model by Giles & Byrne (1982) (Gardner, 1985a). All these models share many common elements and have their roots in the Canadian context, characterised by the coexistence of the English and French communities, who speak two of the most vital languages in the world. Under the influence of Gardner's paradigm, *motivation* is conceived as a fairly static trait determined by three factors:

> (a) the learner's social perceptions of the L2 and its speakers, as reflected by various language attitudes; (b) generalized attitudes towards the L2 learning situation, such as the appraisal of the course or the teacher; and (c) interethnic contact and the resulting degree of linguistic self-confidence.
>
> (Dörnyei, 2001: 44)

The Socio-Educational Model is the most influential paradigm within this social conceptualisation (Gardner, 1985a) than other social pyschological

models and has changed over the years due to constant empirical research. Before discussing Gardner's Socio-Educational Model in more detail, we will briefly comment on Lambert's Social Psychological Theory (Lambert, 1963, 1967), since the former owes much of its paradigm to the latter. Lambert's is "a theory of bilingual development and self-identity modification" which focuses on *affective factors* of language *achievement* (Gardner, 1985a: 132). Hence, Lambert postulates that L2 learning success is related to incorporating traits of the TL community. In a way similar to the Socio-Educational Model, Lambert's Social Psychological Theory includes variables such as *attitudes* towards the target language community, orientations towards learning an L2 and *motivation*. *Attitudes* refer to the learner's emotional reactions towards the other language community. Concerning orientations, Lambert (1974: 98, as cited in Ellis, 1994) makes a distinction between *instrumental orientation* ("the practical value and advantages of learning a new language"), and *integrative orientation*, which makes reference to the desire to be similar to or even to identify with the other community, a dichotomy that is central to Gardner's theory. Gardner's initial research was carried out in collaboration with Lambert under the social psychological paradigm. One of the main goals of Gardner & Lambert (1959) was to prove that *motivation* and *attitudes* towards the L2 speakers were important factors of language development. More specifically, they studied English speaking learners of French in Canada focusing on variables like *attitudes towards French Canadians*, *ethnocentrism*, *authoritarianism*, *reasons for learning a second language*, and *motivational intensity* (Gardner, 2000). Their results showed that aptitude together with attitudinal variables and motivational factors played a role on language *achievement* (Gardner, 2000).

The major bulk of Gardner's further research, carried out in collaboration with other associate researchers, has aimed at replicating these initial findings and elaborating an L2 motivational construct (Gardner, 2000). In 1970, Gardner & Smythe studied, in a large-scale project, *attitudes*, *motivation* and *anxiety* in learning French (see, for instance, Gardner, 1985b). For this piece of research, they designed the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) (see Gardner, 1985a, 2004). Although there were variations attributable

to other variables, it was clear that "the basic associations between *attitudes* and *motivation* on the one hand, and *achievement* on the other were quite stable" (Gardner, 2000: 15).

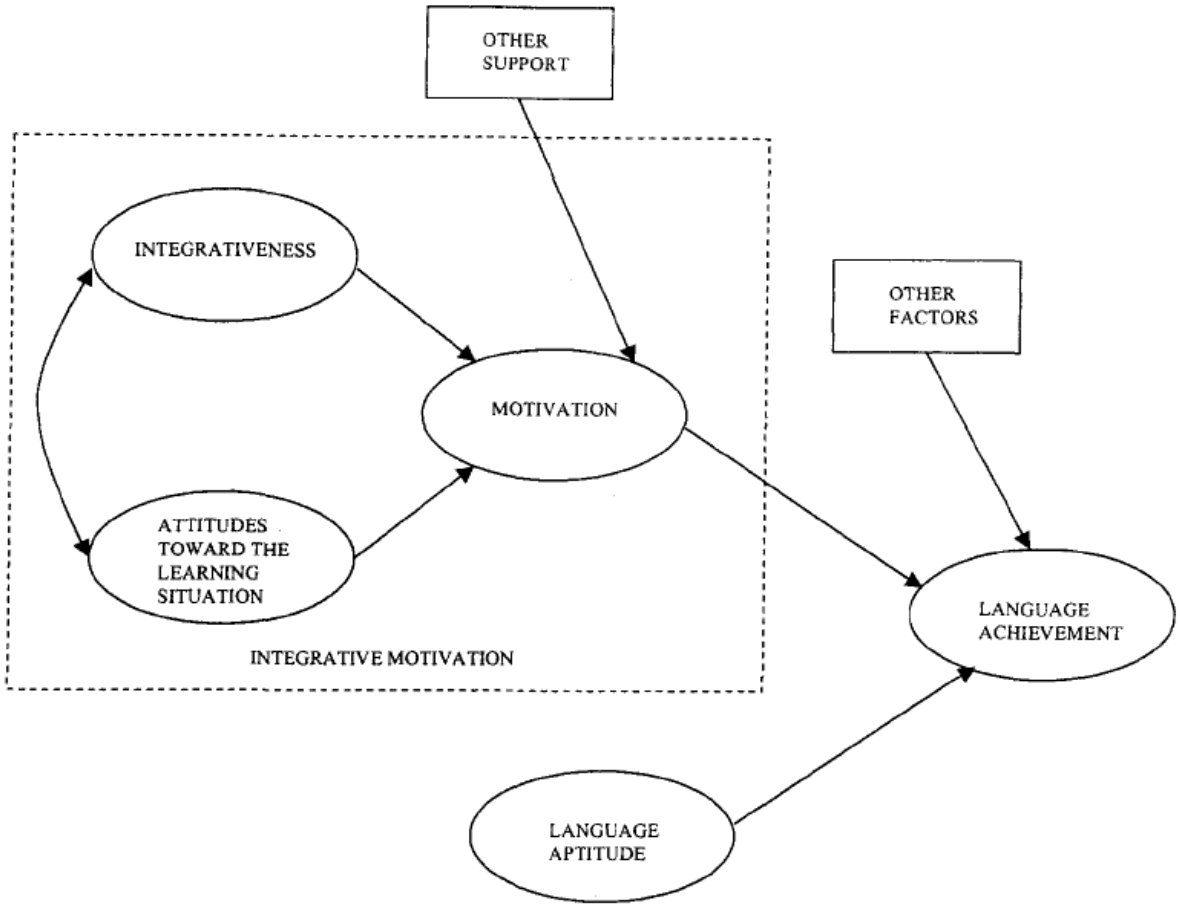
In 1975, Gardner & Smythe (1975) (cited in Gardner, 2001) proposed a model of second language acquisition concerned with the relationship between *attitudes*, *motivation*, and *achievement* in a school context. For this inclusion of educational factors of language learning, Gardner's development of the socio-psychological theory is known as the Socio-Educational Model. Gardner & Smythe (1975) established four categories of motivational variables in language learning: Group Specific Attitudes, Course Related Characteristics, Motivational Indices, and Generalised Attitudes.

The Socio-Educational Model has undergone several revisions (for instance, Gardner, 1979, 1985a, 2000; Gardner & McIntyre, 1993b). Probably, the most important modifications were introduced in 1979, with only a few changes in subsequent versions. In the 1979 revision, four categories of variables in language learning success were identified: Social Milieu, Individual Differences, Second Language Acquisition Contexts, and Outcomes, later reformulated in 1985 (Gardner, 1985a). The first of these components, Social Milieu, refers to cultural beliefs shared by the community, like, for instance, the idea that learning a second language is very difficult. The second set of factors comprises four types of individual differences variables: Intelligence, Language aptitude, Motivation and Situational anxiety. Other individual differences variables, such as Attitudes or Personality, are thought to operate through one of the four individual differences in the model. A third component is Second language acquisition contexts (formal or informal), with both potentially having Linguistic and Non-linguistic outcomes (the fourth element). Non-linguistic outcomes can be favourable *attitudes* towards the other cultural community, a general appreciation of other cultures or interest in further language study.

The individual differences variable that has received the greatest attention in the Socio-Educational Model is *motivation*. Within this framework, *motivation* is represented as *integrative motivation* (or *integrative motive*, as it is referred to as well in literature), which comprises *integrativeness*,

attitudes towards the learning situation, and *motivation* (see Figure 6, which represents the 2000 formulation, a slight variation of the model presented in 1985a). Such constructs, like *other support*, are classes of variables, as we will see below.

Figure 6. Basic Model of the Role of Aptitude and Motivation in Second Language Acquisition (Gardner, 2000: 17)



Motivation is defined in the Socio-Educational Model as "the latent variable comprised of Desire to Learn the Language, Motivational Intensity, and Attitudes towards Learning the Language" (Gardner & Tremblay, 1994: 526). Besides *integrativeness* and *attitudes towards the learning situation*, it can be influenced by other variables outside *integrative motivation* (*other support*). *Integrativeness* is seen as an interest towards the L2 group, a desire to interact

with the members of the target group and be similar to them. *Integrativeness* is measured through three scales: *attitudes towards the language group, interest in foreign languages,* and *an integrative orientation to language study* (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993b). The third component of Gardner's *integrative motivation* is learner's *attitudes towards the learning situation*. In the context of a language classroom, the learning situation could include variables such as the teacher, the textbook, classroom actitivities, classmates and so forth. The learner's *attitudes* towards these variables will influence the learner's *motivation* as well as the learner's *orientation*. Positive *attitudes* towards the learning situation will likely produce greater enjoyment in the study of the language, desire to learn the language, and effort spent in learning it. While *motivation*, *language aptitude* and *other factors* (the two latter variables are placed outside *integrative motivation*) have a direct responsibility on language *achievement*, the contribution of *integrativeness* and *attitudes towards the learning situation* is indirectly exerted through *motivation*.

Finally, the Socio-Educational's assumption that *motivation*, especially *integrative motivation*, is the cause of language *achievement* has also received criticisms. As Crookes & Schmidt (1991: 474) and Ushioda (1996) point out, other researchers have argued the opposite influence direction, i. e. that learning experience may determine *motivation* and even *attitudes* towards the L2 or the FL speakers, a view coined as the "resultative hypothesis" by Hermann (1980, cited in Muñoz & Tragant, 2001). We have seen that as early as in 1979, Gardner (1979: 199) himself posited that among Non-linguistic outcomes of language learning there could be positive *attitudes* towards other cultures. Besides, Gardner (1985a) directly addressed the criticism concerning the direction of the influence. In his review of L2 programmes that aimed at promoting language *attitudes* change (bicultural excursion programmes, intensive language training and regular language courses), Gardner (1985a) argues that "there is no evidence that level of *achievement* mediates change in integrativeness, motivation, or attitudes towards the learning situation" (Gardner, 1985a: 98). Furthermore, Tragant (2006) points out that new research using more sophisticated statistical tests contradicts the resultative hypothesis.

3.6.3. Expectancy-Value Theories. Clément's (1980) concept of self-confidence

According to Dörnyei (1998), Expectancy-Value Models have been most influential in the study of *motivation*. Similarly to SDT, Expectancy-Value Theories believe that human beings are innately oriented to learn and strive to achieve goals and these theories aim at identifying what triggers or facilitates *motivation*. Following such models, *motivation* to perform a given task is the result of two factors: the perceived likelihood of success in such a task (*expectancy for success*) and the importance or usefulness derived from *achievement* (*value,* also labelled *valence, incentive value, attainment value, task value* or *achievement task value*). Both are necessary conditions for *motivation*. In other words, according to Expectancy-Value conceptualisations, an individual will feel motivated to act if the task is deemed attainable and if the outcomes of suceeding are regarded as valuable. However, despite the importance attached to both elements, the expectancy component has received higher attention and has been further developed than value (Dörnyei, 1998).

Different Expectancy-Value Theories like Attribution Theory, Self-Efficacy Theory or Self-Worth Theory try to explain how individuals form their *achievement* expectancies. In our review, we will focus on Self-efficacy theory, which has provided one of the constructs included in the present study (*expected school mark in English*, see section 5.4). According to Dörnyei (1998), **Attribution Theory** focuses on the formation of goal-attainment expectancies due to success attribution based on the individual's perceptions of past experiences. Thus, a learner who attributes success to effort will continue to work hard in the future in order to succeed in a learning experience.

Self-Worth Theory, introduced by Covington (1992; 1998), is based on the notion of *self-worth*, which can be defined as the estimation that leaners have of their own capabilities to attain goals. According to Covington's theory, *self-worth* is the highest or most important need for human beings, i. e., the need to feel self-acceptance and a high self-perception of ability. The pursue of *self-worth* leads to *motivation*al ideas and behaviours and it can take place in learning experiences in school settings (Covington, 1992). An example of

conduct led by *self-worth* would be that of a learner who may not acknowledge a great amount of effort put in attaining a successful learning outcome in order to be thought as having high ability (see Covington, 1992).

A theory similar to Weiner's and Covington's is **Self-Efficacy Theory**, which was introduced by Bandura in 1977. It assumes that *motivation* is determined by the individuals' judgement of their own capability or their efficacy to perform given tasks (Bandura, 1977, 2001). *Self-efficacy* is very similar to *self-worth*, but *self-efficacy* is a task-specific construct. People's beliefs concerning their *self-efficacy* are in their turn the result of complex cognitive processes based on three factors: prior experience (in similar tasks, observation of peers, etc.), personal qualities or abilities, and social support (other people's opinions, encouragement, information on learning strategies, etc.). According Bandura (1977, 2001), *self-efficacy* initiates behaviour to attain a goal and enhance persistence to achieve it, which will eventually lead to performance accomplisment. Zimmerman, Bandura, & Martínez-Pons (1992) found that *self-efficacy* was a powerful predictor of academic success.

L2 *motivation* research has not applied any of the Expectancy-Value Theories yet. However, some of their constructs have been incorporated by L2 *motivation* researchers (Dörnyei, 1998), like *attributions*, *self-efficacy* and *valence* (Cochran, McCallum, & Bell, 2010; Dörnyei, 1990, 1994a; Hsieh, 2008; Hsieh & Kang, 2010; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995; Williams & Burden, 1999). In addition, a construct conceptually similar to *self-efficacy* was introduced by Clément, who labelled it *linguistic self-confidence* (Clément, Gardner & Smythe, 1977, 1980). *Self-confidence* refers to the perception that an individual has about his or her own ability to communicate in the L2 (the cognitive component) and, consequently low levels of anxiety in using that language (the affective dimension). Despite the similarity of *self-confidence* with *self-efficacy*, Clément's construct differs from Bandura's (1977) notion in several aspects. First of all, *self-confidence* is a social concept (although it retains the cognitive dimension in the self-perceived *proficiency* in the L2). Second, contrary to *self-efficacy*, it is considered in general, not in relation to a specific task. Thirdly, it includes an anxiety component. A further difference lies in the fact that *self-confidence* is related to self-rated proficienty "at the

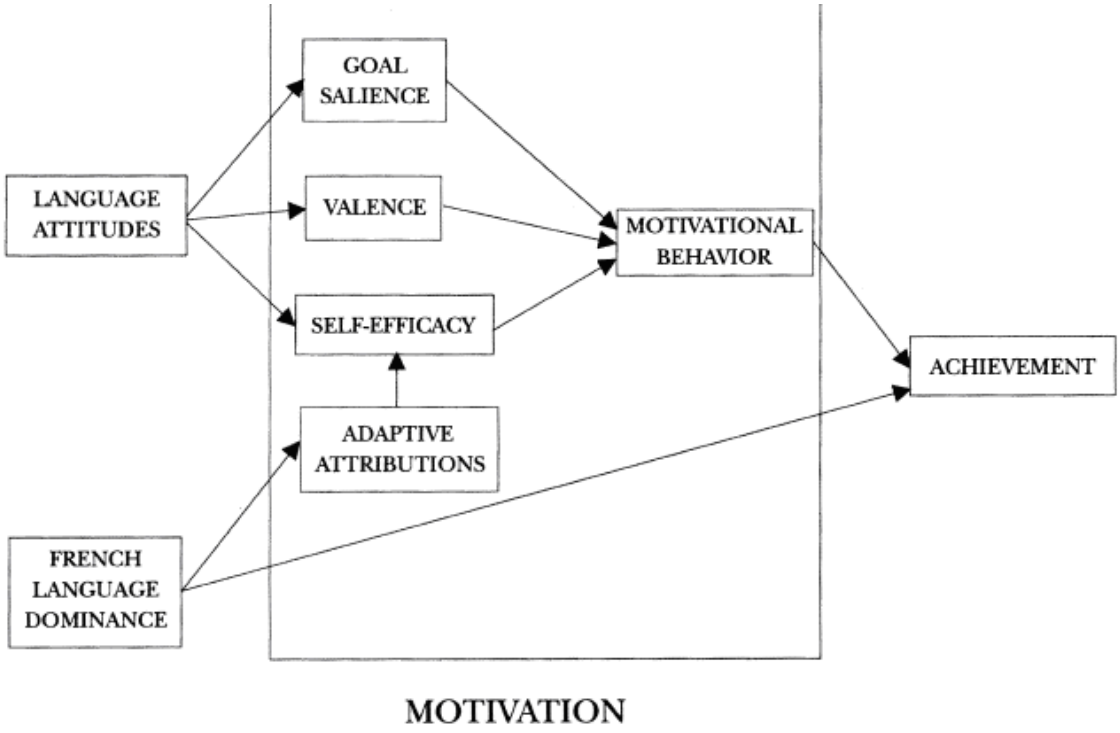
time of testing", while *self-efficacy is* "more closely tied to the level of performance that an individual believes he or she could achieve at some point in the future" (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995: 507). *Self-confidence* was initially conceived in second language situations, where direct contact with the target language community was available (Clément, 1986; Clément, Gardner & Smythe, 1977, 1980; Clément & Kruidenier, 1985). However, Clément, Dörnyei & Noels (1994), who analysed *motivation* in EFL in Hungary, found empirical support for the influence of *self-confidence* on *motivation* in FLL situations (for the contribution of *self-efficacy* and *self-confidence* to language *achievement*, see section 3.7.2).

3.6.4. Tremblay & Gardner's (1995) expanded model: Integration of motivational constructs within the Socio-Educational Model

This section will review Tremblay & Gardner's (1995) expanded model as an example of the extension of the Socio-Educational Model through constructs based on mainstream psychological theories. A similar conceptualisation has been proposed by Dörnyei (1994a), an expansion of *integrative* and *instrumental motivation*al variables through other *motivation*al variables like *self-perceived L2 competence* and *expectancy*. Dörnyei's (1994a) framework is intended to place L2 *motivation* research under a pragmatical educational approach, more relevant for the teaching practice. Here we focus on Tremblay & Gardner (1995) and not on Dörneyi (1994a) because the present study is not, unlike Dörnyei (1994), concerned with constructs related to the learning situation, like the *teacher-specific motivational components* and *group-specific motivational components*.

The variables from mainstream psychology models of *motivation* integrated into Tremblay & Gardner (1995) are *goal salience*, from Goal Theories, *adaptive attributions*, *valence* and *self-efficacy*, provided by Expectancy-Value Theories (see Figure 7). Tremblay & Gardner's (1995) extended conceptualisation aims at establishing the relationships between previous and new measures and, in their turn, between them and *achievement*. The role of the variables is examined in relation to *proficiency* in French in a francophone secondary school in an English-speaking environment.

Figure 7. Tremblay & Gardner's (1995: 517) expanded model



In Tremblay & Gardner's (1995: 506) expanded model, *motivation* is seen as comprising two sets of *motivation*al variables: *Variables reflecting Motivational behaviour* and *Motivational antecedents*. The first type of variables comprises *motivational intensity*, *attention*, and *persistence*. On the other hand, *valence, goal salience, self-efficacy,* and *adaptive attributions* form *motivation*al *antecedents*, which have a direct influence *on motivational behaviour*, except for *adaptive attributions*, which exerts an indirect influence through *self-efficacy*. *Motivational antecedents* receive the influence of *language attitudes*, which encompass *integrative* and *instrumental orientations* among others, and *French language dominance* influence. In Tremblay & Gardner's (1995) extended model, the construct of *self-efficacy* draws from both Bandura's (1977) and Clément's (Clément *et al.*, 1977, 1980) notions. Similarly to *self-efficacy* in Bandura's Theory, *self-efficacy* in Tremblay & Gardner (1995) refers to future self-perception of *proficiency*, more specifically at the end of the course (*performance expectancy*). Whereas *self-confidence* is related to self-rated *proficiency* at the moment of testing. However, unlike Bandura's *self-efficacy* (1977) and like Clément's (Clément *et al.*, 1977, 1980)

self-confidence, *self-efficacy* in Tremblay & Gardner's (1995) model includes *language anxiety* (*French use anxiety* and *French class anxiety*, as stated in the AMTB), which is seen as a "debilitating component of self-efficacy" (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995: 508).

Tremblay & Gardner's (1995) results show that three variables from cognitive theories included in the model (goal *salience*, *valence, and self-efficacy*) do play a role on *motivational behaviour* and *language achievement*. They act as mediators or mediating variables between *language attitudes* and *motivational behaviour*, which influences language *achievement*.

3.7. Research on motivation and attitudes

3.7.1. Introduction. Strands in attitudinal and motivational research

The purpose of this section is to review research on the impact of language *attitudes* and *motivation* on language attainment in contexts similar to the present study, i. e., among immigrant learners of EFL. However, research with immigrant samples is concerned with situations of SLA and very few studies with immigrant learners of a FL have been found. Section 3.7.2 discusses findings on the contribution of *instrumental* and *integrative motivation* to language *achievement* in both L2 and FL contexts as well as the role of other *motivation*al constructs borrowed from SDT and Expectancy-value Theories. Only one of the studies found on language *attitudes* and *motivation* specifically addresses immigrant learners of EFL. Research on language *attitudes* and *motivation* in EFL with local or immigrant learners in the Catalan context will be discussed in section 3.7.3.

Research on *motivation* and *attitudes* usually focuses on topics like *attitudes* in situations of language contact, the role of classroom factors and the influence of other non-affective individual variables. As such issues are not tackled in the present study, literature on them will only be briefly commented on in this section. To begin with, **languages in contact** represent an important focus of research on language *attitudes*. There are studies on the effect of intercultural contact on language *attitudes* (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2005), language

attitudes in conflict situations (Invar, Donitsa-Schmidt & Shohamy, 2001), or *attitudes* towards language variants and languages in contact (Baker, 1992; Bokhorst-Heng & Caleon, 2009; Dubiner, 2010; O'Donnell & Toebosch, 2008). There are also studies on the *attitudes* towards **English varieties** among Chinese graduated students in the United States (Zhang & Hu, 2008) and among EFL learners in Norway (Rindal, 2010) or in China (Xu, Wang & Case, 2010).

As we have mentioned before, the 1990s *motivation*al shift (called "educational shift") expanded research on language *attitudes* and *motivation* to include specific **classroom variables**. This strand of research on *motivation* and *attitudes* has focused on a number of issues, like *attitudes* to native teachers (Rao, 2009; Moussu, 2010) or motivational and attitudinal variables in online language courses (Ushida, 2005). Other studies analyse the effect of different factors on the participants' language *attitudes* and *motivation*: of communicative teaching (Sauvignon & Wang, 2003), group dynamics (Chang, 2010), immersion at school (O Muircheartaigh & Hickey, 2008), the teacher's use of motivational strategies (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Bernaus, Wilson & Gardner, 2009; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2012), the use of authentic materials (Wang, 2006), or the use of technology in the classroom (Aydin, 2007; Martínez Rico, 2006; Permanyer, 2002). Some of the studies on variables related to the curriculum or classroom-specific variables, like Bernaus & Gardner (2008) or Bernaus *et al*. (2009), are also concerned with their relationship with *achievement*, since the interest in *motivation* is ultimately to enhance *proficiency*.

Finally, there are also studies on **individual variables** in *motivation* and *attitudes*. Research inspired by the Socio-Educational paradigm continues to be carried out and it includes cognitive variables such as WTC and the variables that contribute to it (Fushino, 2010; MacIntyre & Charos, 1996; MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clément & Noels, 1998; Peng & Woodrow, 2010; Yashima, 2002). Much of the research on WTC and its factors is devoted to the structure of L2 *motivation* (using Structural Equation Modeling or SEM) and model testing (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005b; Pae, 2010). Research on *motivation* is also concerned with other personal variables, like *gender* or *age*. Examples of studies that focus on the role of *gender* are Karahan (2007), Kissau (2006), Kormos & Csizér

(2008), MacIntyre, Baker, Clément & Donovan (2002), Meece, Glienke & Burg (2006), Mori & Gobel (2006) and Williams *et al.* (2002).

Concerning the role of ***age*** in *motivation* and *attitudes*, Kormos & Csizér (2008) point out that research has not studied its relationship with language *attitudes* and *motivation* systematically. We must distinguish between the role of *AO* and *age at testing* and bear in mind that *age* in young learners is related to *hours of instruction* and *proficiency*. Studies on the effect of *AO* on *affective variables* are scarce and their findings are not conclusive. Thus, Karahan (2007) found a significant relationship between *AO* and *attitudes* towards English among primary school learners (8th graders) in Turkey. The results of this study revealed that the learners who started studying English at pre-school (ages from 0 to 6) showed in general more positive *attitudes* than those who started at school. On the other hand, the results in Tragant (2006) were different, as *AO* was not related to differences in *motivation* among EFL learners in Catalonia (except for the fact that those participants who started learning EFL at 18 or older were more motivated than learners with an earlier *AO*, but this is explained because the former enrolled the TL class on their own choice).

The role of *age at testing* in *motivation*, which has been more widely investigated than the effect of *AO*, seems clearer. As Lamb (2007) points out, research indicates in general that *motivation* decreases with *age* among secondary school learners *motivation* not only in foreign language learning but also in other subjects. For instance, Chambers (1999), MacIntyre et al (2002) and Williams *et al.* (2002) discovered that the participants' *motivation* to learn the TL decreased from grade 7 to grades 8 and 9. As Chambers (1999: 119) notes, "around the age of 13 things seem to start going wrong for some pupils". However, two studies conducted in Catalonia, Muñoz & Tragant (2001) and Tragant (2006) found that older learners showed higher motivational indices than younger students.

Age *at testing* can also have a bearing on the type of *motivation* and *attitudes*. In Muñoz & Tragant (2001) and Tragant (2006), increased *age* was associated with a more *instrumental orientation*. According to the results in Kormos & Csizér's (2008), *age* had an influence on the the type of social *motivation* displayed by EFL learners in Budapest (Hungary). Thus,

international posture (see section 3.5) was only an important factor of *motivation* in the university students and adult language learners, but not in the secondary school learners, more motivated by interest in English-language culture.

3.7.2. The relationship between affective variables and language achievement in second and foreign language contexts and immigrant learners

The Socio-Educational paradigm has inspired a great bulk of research devoted to find empirical support for the contribution of *attitudes* and *motivation* on indices of language *achievement*. In general, the role of *affective variables* in ultimate attainment has been confirmed in second and foreign language acquisition by a number of studies, but there are exceptions. As we will see below, studies concerned with *affective variables* and, especially with their role in language attainment, do not usually include immigrant samples.

Research under the Socio-Educational Model has consistently found correlations between *motivation* and *achievement* (Clément, 1980; Gardner, 1960, 2000, 2006, 2007; Gardner, Day & MacIntyre, 1992; Gardner & Lambert, 1959, 1972; Gardner, Tremblay & Masgoret, 1997; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995). In addition, Masgoret & Gardner (2003), a *meta-analysis* of previous research on the contribution of *motivation* and *attitudes* to L2 *achievement* conducted by Gardner and associates, found that the correlations between these factors and L2 *achievement* were consistently positive. Research conducted by Gardner and associate researchers has also highlighted the role of ***integrative orientations*** as more powerful predictors of language attainment than **instrumental *attitudes***. The first study on such a relationship was Gardner & Lambert (1959), which discovered that both language aptitude and social *motivation* (understood as an interest in the target language community) were related to *achievement* in French among English-speaking high-school students in Canada. Integratively-oriented learners in the sample showed more *proficiency* in French than those students who were instrumentally oriented. Subsequent research under Gardner's paradigm also supports the impact of *attitudes* and *motivation* on language *achievement*, especially of *integrative orientations*:

Clément (1980), Gardner (1960, 2000), Gardner, Day & MacIntyre (1992), Gardner & Lambert (1959, 1972), Gardner, Tremblay & Masgoret (1997), or Tremblay & Gardner (1995).

As Dörnyei (1994b) points out, the relative weakness of *instrumental motivation* in research carried out by Gardner and associates may be related to the young *age* of the learners and the instrumental scales in the AMBT. Research under the Socio-Educational Model has normally used samples of school students, who, unlike young adult learners, may not feel the usefulness of learning a second or foreign language for pragmatic benefits such as employment prospects or promotion. School students may have other instrumental motives to strive in the learning of a second or foreign language, like receiving good school marks or praise. However, following Dörnyei (1994b), such instrumental reasons have not been included in the instruments measuring *motivation*, which may have lowered the scores of *instrumental orientation*.

Other studies outside the Socio-Educational Model have found no significant relationship between *integrative attitudes* and language attainment in **L2 contexts**. Hence, as discussed by Masgoret & Gardner (2003), Au (1988) reported 12 studies which found no or little correlations between the *integrative motive* and L2 *achievement*. This is line with the findings in Oller, Baca & Vigil (1977) and Oller, Hudson & Liu (1977), who obtained negative correlations between *integrative attitudes* and language *proficiency* in ESL among Mexican American women and L1 Chinese graduate students in the United States.

More controversial is the relationship between integrative *attitudes* and language *achievement* in **FL contexts**. Some recent studies have found no correlation between integrative *attitudes* and language attainment in EFL (for the presence or absence of *integrative attitudes* in FLL, see section 3.5). In some of these studies, *instrumental orientation* correlated with *achievement*. According to the results in Musleh (2011), *instrumentality* had an influence on *achievement* through *motivation*, while *interaction* (a variable similar to *integrative motives* excluding the desire to integrate into the community) was not related to either *motivation* or *achievement*. In a study of *attitudes* and *motivation* in EFL in Turkey, Çolak (2008) found moderate *integrative*

motivation among the participants, but *integrative orientation* was the only type of *orientation* that did not obtain significant correlations with attainment in English. In a similar way, Obeidat (2005) discovered that, among a sample of university students in Malaysia, *instrumental motivation* obtained a significant correlation (p=.01) with *achievement* in Arabic, while *integrativeness* did not. On the other hand, two studies found that neither *integrative* nor *instrumental orientations* correlated with measures of *achievement* among Asian participants. To begin with, Chen *et al*. (2005) found that *integrative orientation* had no relationship with self-assessed language *proficiency* among university-level learners of EFL in China. In a study of *motivation* among Korean learners of EFL, Pae (2010) obtained similar results: no direct or indirect influence of *integrative orientation* on language *achievement* was found in the sample.

The results in other studies conducted under the Socio-Educational Model, however, point to a relationship between *integrative attitudes* and language *achievement* in different national contexts, like the United States, Europe or the East, with different FL. One of the earliest studies that obtained correlations between *integrativeness* and language attainment in a FL context was Gardner & Lambert (1972), who report a study on the acquisition of French in the United States among high-school students. Thirty years later, Gardner started an international project to determine the applicability of his paradigm to FL environments in countries other than Canada (i.e. Spain, Croatia, Poland, Romania, Brazil, and Japan), including the role of *integrative orientation* (Gardner, 2006, 2007). The results of such studies were consistent with the Canadian data as they found that *motivation*, *language anxiety, integrativeness* and *instrumentality* showed the highest correlations (normally in this order) with *achievement* measures. In Spain, Gardner (2007) applied his paradigm to a group of secondary school students and found that *integrativeness* indirectly influenced *achievement* in English through *motivation* and obtained more correlations with *motivation* than *instrumental orientation* (Gardner, 2007; Bernaus & Gardner, 2008) (see section 3.7.3).

Other studies also support the role of *integrative orientations* in FLL. Such studies have been mainly conducted in Europe. Thus, Kuhlemeier, Van den

Bergh & Melse (1996) studied the relationship between *attitudes* (*enjoyment, perseverance, integrative motivation, instrumental motivation, attitude towards course* and *attitude towards the teacher*) and *achievement* in secondary-school Dutch learners of German as a FL. The authors found that such a relationship existed both at the beginning of the school year and at the end. *Integrative motivation* obtained .70 and .73 at the initial and final collections respectively and Instrumental *motivation* achieved .79 at the first collection and .82 at the final collection. The direction of the influence was not, however, established. According to the authors, *integrative attitudes* in their sample might be different in other national samples, since Dutch students may be quite familiar with German because of holidays in Germany and exposure to mass media in the target language. Despite this assumption, *integrative motivation* in EFL correlated with *achievement* in a sample of university students in Iran (Ghanea, Pisheh & Ghanea, 2011), a country where contact with the English-speaking community is not so readily available.

Specifically for EFL, the presence of *integrative attitudes* in FL contexts can be explained by indirect access to English-speaking communities through mass media such as television or the Internet (Csizér & Kormos, 2008), through the new position of English as the vehicular language of an international community (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005b; Csizér & Kormos, 2008; Dörnyei & Csizér, 2002; Dörnyei, Csizér & Németh, 2006; Lamb, 2004; Ryan, 2009b; Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2009, Yashima, 2002), or tourism (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2005; Wilson, 2012b). However, the studies on the existence of *integrative attitudes* in EFL understood as the interest in a global community whose members communicate in English are not in general concerned with their role in language attainment. An exception is Yashima (2002), who found that integrative *attitudes* towards such an international community (labelled "International posture") did have an influence on L2 *proficiency* through L2 learning *motivation*.

The inconsistent results concerning the role of *integrative attitudes* in language *proficiency* in L2 and especially in FL contexts could be explained by differences in the measurement of both attitudinal/motivational constructs and *achievement* (Gardner, 1985a; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993b; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003). For instance, Gardner (1985a) disagrees with Oller, Hudson &

Liu (1977) when they labelled items like "Would consider remaining permanently in the USA", "Job at home as good as in USA", and "Had long planned to come to USA" as *attitudes* towards the Americans. As Gardner (1985a) discusses, they may be more related to conditions in the United States than to *attitudes* towards the American community. In addtition, Oller, Hudson & Liu (1977) rate *attitudes* towards the SL community in comparison to the participants' assessment of the self and their ideal self. As Gardner (1985a: 76) points out, this may be considered "a possible index of relative preference for the two groups, or relative *attitudes* towards the groups", but this procedure does not measure *integrative orientation* towards the language. According to Gardner (1985a), Oller and associates have studied the relationship between *orientations* to learn the second language and language *achievement* and found no significant correlations. However, the operational variable in the Socio-Educational Model is *motivation*, not orientation. In addition, Masgoret & Gardner (2003) discuss that the 12 studies reported in Au (1988) which found no or little correlations between *integrative motive* and L2 *achievement* did not in general use the integrative construct as used in the AMTB under the Socio-Educational Model. The use of an instrument different from the AMBT makes the comparison with Gardner and associates' results difficult (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003). Masgoret & Gardner (2003) point out that the correlations between integrative attitude and language *achievement* depended on the measure of *achievement*. If language *proficiency* was assessed through *school marks*, correlations were higher in SLA. However, when it was measured through objective measures and self-ratings, correlations were higher for FLL.

The influence of constructs borrowed from SDT and Expectancy-Value Theories, like *intrinsic* or *extrinsic* motivational subtypes, *self-efficay* and *self-confidence* (see sections 3.6.2 and 3.6.3), on language *achievement* has received less attention by empirical research than the relative contribution of *integrative* and *instrumental attitudes*. As for the role of ***intrinsic* and *extrinsic motivation***, in a study of language learners in an immersion programme, Noels, Clément & Pelletier (1999) found that intrinsic *motivation* led to higher *motivation* levels and effort as well as to lower anxiety. Following Pae (2010), research on *motivation* in FLL confirms that both intrinsic and

extrinsic *motivation*s are associated with successful FL learning (Kang, 2001; Warden & Lin, 2000; Wen, 1997). However, Pae (2010) points out that neither of these studies did include important mediator or moderating variables between such motivational subtypes and L2 *achievement*, thus obscuring whether their relationship was direct or indirect. According to Pae's (2010) results, intrinsic *motivation* was the most important determinant of language *achievement*. This influence was, however, indirectly exerted through *motivation* and *self-confidence* (Pae, 2010).

Empirical findings on the influence of *self-efficacy* and *self-confidence* (for a description of each construct, see section 3.6.3) in language learning shows that both concepts are important predictors of language *achievement*. The role of ***self-efficacy*** in language *achievement* has been examined in different FL contexts, like Korea (Hsieh & Kang, 2010), Iran (Rahimi & Abedini, 2009), the United States (Hsieh, 2008) or Poland (Piechurska-Kuciel, 2013), and in L2 contexts, e. g. Malaysa (Mahyuddin *et al.*, 2006) or Canada (Tremblay & Gardner, 1995). All these studies have found significant correlations between *self-efficacy* and language *achievement*, as higher self-efficacy led to better language results. According to the results in Tremblay & Gardner (1995), the influence of *self-efficacy* is indirect through motivational behaviour.

As for the role of **self-confidence** in language attainment, Clément and other researchers (Clément, 1986; Clément *et al.*, 1994; Clément, Gardner & Smythe, 1977, 1980; Clément & Kruidenier, 1985; Gardner, Tremblay & Masgoret, 1997; Pae, 2010) have also found high correlations between *self-confidence* and language *achievement* in L2 and FLL milieus. The results on the direction of such an influence seem to point out that the path is established from *self-confidence* to language *proficiency*. For instance, Clément *et al.* (1994), Clément & Kruidenier (1985) and Pae (2010) found that *self-confidence* influenced *achievement* directly or indirectly through *motivation*. On the other hand, Gardner, Tremblay & Masgoret (1997) and Yashima's (2002) assumed that language *achievement* was the cause and not the mediated result of *self-confidence*, but the path, put to test in Yashima (2002), was not statistically significant.

Research on language acquisition by **immigrant students** is almost always concerned with SLA and not FLL. Such studies are abundant in English-speaking countries, like the United States (Brittain, 2005; Suárez-Orozco & Suárez Orozco, 2008), the United Kingdom (Brown & Sachdev, 2009, Lawson & Sachdev, 2004), Australia (Willoughby, 2009) or New Zealand (Kuncha & Bathula, 2004; Barkhuizen, 2006), which have a long tradition as destination of international immigrants. Despite the importance of *attitudes* as powerful predictors of language *achievement*, research on immigrants' linguistic acquisition has focused on other factors of language *proficiency* (and academic success in general), like *AoA* and *length of residence* (Brizić, 2006; Collier & Thomas, 1989), *attitudes* towards school and academic success (Suárez-Orozco & Suárez Orozco, 2008), or the influence of classroom practices in L2 development (DaSilva Iddings & Jang, 2008). On the other hand, there are abundant studies of language *attitudes* and *motivation* in immigrants, but they are not usually concerned with their role in predicting language acquisition success. Examples of the specific aspects of language *attitudes* and *motivation* research are the characterisations of the participants' *attitudes*, or teachers' *attitudes* towards immigrant students, and language use (Lawson & Sachdev, 2004), *proficiency* in the L2 as predictor of L1 and L2 use (Brown & Sachdev, 2009), issues of language maintenance and shift (Barkhuizen, 2006; Kim & Starks, 2010; Kuncha & Bathula, 2004; Lammervo, 2007; Willoughby, 2009), attitudes towards school and academic success expectations in immersion education programmes (Dorner, 2009), the role of the father in L2 acquisition and L1 maintenance (Kim & Starks, 2010), or how immigrant inclusion policies can foster English learning in Canada (Han, 2009).

The review of the literature on the role of *affective variables* in EFL among immigrant students has yielded only one study outside Catalonia (for other pieces of research in the Catalan context, see section 2.7.3). Aronin (2004) investigated young immigrant adults in Haifa (Israel). The participants, who came from different post-Soviet states, were speakers of Russian as a native language or were bilinguals in their own native language and Russian. In addition, they were studying Hebrew and English. Russian was considered the participants' L1 (or, at least, high command as a mother tongue was shown in

that language). Hebrew is the official language in their host country (considered the participants' L2) and English is their main FL. According to Aronin's (2004) results, the learners show positive *attitudes* towards themselves, their recently-acquired multilinguality and towards all of the languages implied (Russian, Hebrew and English). Regarding the participants' emotions towards their new multilingual identity and ability, they feel fulfilled, proud of themselves and more confident, feelings which promote *motivation*. As Aronin (2004) puts forward, their emotions and *attitudes* contrast with those of other immigrants who belong to a linguistic minority in the host country and hold in general a lower status.

The participants in Aronin (2004) do not only feel positive towards Russian, Hebrew and English but also to the posibility of learning additional languages. Aronin (2004) states that her participants show strongly emotional attitudes towards both Russian and Hebrew, which seems to have become a second native language. The author argues that the participants have migrated for ideological reasons and that they feel a close language and cultural identity. Their *attitudes* towards English, however, were less emotional than in the case of Russian and Hebrew, since "the need to study English was mostly expressed in practical terms, concentrating on how it can be used and under which circumstances" (Aronin, 2004: 74). The positive *attitudes* towards English found in Aronin (2004) confirm findings in research with non-immigrant participants. Thus, a number of studies on the *attitudes* of students towards EFL have shown that they are normally very positive since this language has become the main language for international communication, a preeminence in which the enlargement of the European Union has contributed. Such findings have been obtained in Spain[14] and other European countries (Lasagabaster, 2005a).

[14] Not all studies, however, point to positive attitudes towards EFL in Spain. For instance, Uribe, Gutiérrez & Madrid (2008:92) found that attitudes towards EFL in Andalusia and Murcia, two autonomous communities in the South of Spain, were only slightly favourable. The authors explain their results because of the lack of contact with native speakers of English, which limits attitudes to their experience at school, where English is only a compulsory subject.

3.7.3. Affective variables in EFL in Catalonia and Barcelona: evidence from research

Research on *attitudes* and *motivation* in Catalonia has focused on *attitudes* towards Catalan and Spanish as well as *motivation* towards EFL[15]. Some of such studies include immigrant samples, but, as we will see, they are only a few. Many of these studies usually compare the results among their immigrant learners with those among local pupils.

The few studies carried out on language ***attitudes*** **to Catalan and Spanish** with immigrant learners in Catalonia (Huguet & Janés, 2008; Janés, 2006; Lapresta Rey, Huguet Canalís & Janés Carulla, 2010) suggest that their *attitudes* towards Catalan and Spanish are in general positive. However, the comparison with *attitudes* towards Catalan and Spanish among local pupils shows that immigrant pupils usually express less positive *attitudes* towards Catalan and more favourable *attitudes* to Spanish than their autochtonous peers (Janés, 2006; Rojo, Huguet & Janés, 2005). For instance, Janés (2006) compared language *attitudes* among 456 local and 225 immigrant students in secondary schools in Osona and Lleida (Catalonia). Favourable *attitudes* to Catalan were more common among locals (87.72%) than among immigrants (71.11%). In a similar way, *attitudes* towards Spanish were generally more positive in the immigrant group: 64.89% of the immigrant sample showed favourable *attitudes* in contrast to 46.93% in the local learners. We must also bear in mind that in this particular study, the role of the *L1* in the local sample may be at play, since most of them (55.26%) had Catalan as their L1.

The **variables** that have been pointed out as playing a role in immigrant pupils in Catalonia have been *age*, *family socioprofessional status*, *length of stay* in Catalonia, *AoA* and *schooling in their country of origin* (Janés, 2006),

15 In Spain and Catalonia there is a tradition of research on language attitudes in bilingual areas where Spanish is in contact with other languages or variants. For instance, Huguet (2006) and González Riaño & Huguet Canalís (2002) studied language acquisition and attitudes in the bilingual contexts of two regions of Spain: Asturias (Asturian/Spanish) and Eastern Aragon (Catalan/Spanish), where Spanish is in contact with a minority language. Blas Arroyo (1995) and Casesnoves (2010) studied language *attitudes* towards Spanish, Catalan and Valencian (a regional variety of Catalan) in Valencia through the matched-guise technique.

schooling in Catalonia (Huguet & Janés, 2008) and *parental encouragement* (Wilson, 2012a). However, the most important factor seems to be *language background*, since learners with Spanish as their L1 had more positive *attitudes* towards Spanish than towards Catalan and the opposite was the case among immigrants with other L1s (Huguet & Janés, 2008; Janés, 2006; Lapresta *et al*., 2010). Several explanations have been proposed for the contribution of immigrant learners' *language background* (i. e. L1 Spanish or another language) to their different *attitudes* towards Catalan and Spanish. For instance, Janés (2006) argues that immigrants with L1 Spanish may feel Catalan dignification as an imposition against their own language. Huguet & Janés (2008) consider that, since Spanish is also an official language in Catalonia and is the dominant tongue in some areas, immigrant participants may consider it unnecessary to learn Catalan. In a similar way, the qualitative data obtained from the participants in Lapresta *et al*. (2010) yield that Latin American immigrant participants in this study feel that they do not need Catalan in their daily life and that they only need it to find a job. A similar opinion was expressed by some of the Maghrebi informants in the same study, who consider Catalan, in opposition to Spanish, a minority language which is not very useful.

On the other hand, having L1 Spanish or a different language did not play a role in the participants' *attitudes* towards Catalan, Spanish or English in a study conducted by Bernaus *et al*. (2004) with a sample of immigrant secondary-school pupils in Barcelona. In a similar way, the results in a qualitative study, Trenchs-Parera & Newman (2009), showed that Latin American learners do not always hold favourable *attitudes* to Spanish and negative *attitudes* to Catalan. First, some of the participants had already seen Catalan as a factor of social mobility and those with aspirations of social progress held more positive *attitudes* towards this language. Second, most Latin American participants did not feel identified with either Catalonia or Spain. However, such a feeling was more related to the rejection of Peninsular Spanish than of Catalan and they expressed the desire to maintain their own Spanish variety.

Research on ***attitudes* and *motivation* in EFL** in Catalonia and the rest of Spain is concerned with motivational variables related to the learning

situation, like classroom and teacher variables, especially teachers' use of motivational strategies (Bernaus, 1995; Madrid, 1999, 2002), together with the role of *motivation* in indices of language *achievement*. Despite the fact that English is a FL in Catalonia and Spain, some researchers have also tested the relative contribution of *integrative orientation* to *motivation* alongside other motivational factors. Most of the few studies conducted with immigrant samples were carried out in bilingual areas, like Catalonia, where *attitudes* to English were compared with those towards Spanish and the minority language.

Research conducted in Catalonia on the role of *affective variables* in EFL point to *motivation* as a **powerful predictor of *achievement***. The findings in studies like Bernaus & Gardner (2008), Bernaus *et al.* (2009), Gardner (2007), Muñoz & Tragant (2001) and Tragant (2006) showed that *motivation* correlated with all or some of the *proficiency* measures in the TL among school-age learners, while Saravia i Terricabras (2004) found similar results among university students in Barcelona. The relationship between *motivation* and indices of language *proficiency* has been confirmed in other Spanish autonomies. For instance, Prada Credo (1990) found that *attitudes* and *motivation* had a direct relationship with language performance among secondary school students in Galicia, another bilingual Spanish autonomy. In another study, Madrid *et al.* (1994) studied the relationship between *motivation* (understood as interest and positive *attitudes* to the FL, effort and pleasure in learning the FL) and other personality traits and levels of competence in the FL among primary[16] and secondary school students (aged 13-17). *Motivation* obtained high correlations with *achievement*.

Some of the above studies tackle causality in the relationship between *motivation* and *achievement*. In Bernaus & Gardner (2008) and Gardner (2007), a path analysis showed that *motivation* was the source of *achievement* in the TL. Like in previous research conducted by Gardner and associate researchers in other national contexts (Gardner, 2000, 2006; Gardner, Tremblay & Masgoret,1997; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995), the influence of other *affective*

[16] In the 1970 Educational System, seventh and eigth grades in primary school corresponded to the ESO1 and ESO2, respectively, in the present System (ages 12 and 13).

variables like *integrativeness* or *attitudes towards the learning situation* exert an indirect influence on language attainment through *motivation*. Interestingly, Bernaus & Gardner (2008) found that *attitudes towards the learning situation* had also a direct link to language *achievement*. However, the direct contribution of *attitudes towards the learning situation* was negative while it was positive when they took place through *motivation*. On the other hand, Madrid *et al*. (1994) and Muñoz & Tragant (2001) seem to point to an influence of positive results in the TL on consequent *motivation* in the language (for the direction of the influence relationship between *affective variables* and *achievement*, see section 3.6.2).

Very few studies enquiring into the relative contribution of ***instrumental*** and ***integrative attitudes*** to language *achievement* in Catalonia have been found. While Saravia i Terricabras (2004) showed no significant correlations between attainment in the TL and *integrative* or *instrumental orientations*, Bernaus & Gardner (2008) and Gardner (2007) found that both *affective variables* positively correlated with *achievement* in EFL. In these two studies, *integrativeness* obtained higher correlations with language *achievement* than *instrumental orientation*.

The high correlations found in these studies between *integrative orientation* and *achievement* in the TL, which may seem surprising in a FL context, enter in contradiction with similar studies conducted in other regions of Spain, where *integrative attitudes* obtained much lower scores than *instrumental orientation* in the participants' *motivation* (Madrid & Pérez, 2001; Madrid *et al.*, 1993). However, the important contribution of *integrativeness* in *motivation* and language attainment found in Bernaus & Gardner (2008), Bernaus *et al*. (2009) and Gardner (2007) has also been found by Gardner in other FL contexts (see Gardner, 2006, 2007).

Investigations of *affective variables* in EFL among **immigrants** in Catalonia are likewise scarce and, in addition, they also address *attitudes* towards Catalan and Spanish alongside English. Only four studies on these issues have been found. Comajoan & Gomàriz (2008a, 2008b) and Bernaus *et al*. (2004) analysed native and immigrant school learners' *attitudes* to these three languages in Barcelona province. Wilson (2012b) is different from the two

aforementioned studies since it is exclusively concerned with immigrant (secondary school) learners in Barcelona, Girona and California. Wilson (2012b) also includes *attitudes* towards the participants' L1 in addition to the L2. As we will see below, the results in these three studies support, to a greater or lesser extent, findings in similar research with local learners in Barcelona.

Comajoan & Gomàriz (2008a, 2008b), Bernaus *et al.* (2004) and Wilson (2012b) compared their samples' *attitudes* to English with those towards Catalan and Spanish. The participants in Comajoan & Gomàriz's (2008a, 2008b) were pupils in the final year of primary school (aged 12) in Vic (Barcelona), who answered a sociolinguistic survey on their *attitudes* and competence in Catalan, Spanish and English. Out of the 342 informants in the study, 14.8% were born outside Spain (most of them in Morocco and South America). Overall, Comajoan & Gomàriz's (2008a, 2008b) results show that most of the participants displayed favorable *attitudes* towards Catalan and Spanish, while their *attitudes* towards English were neutral. However, these outcomes are different from those obtained by Bernaus *et al.* (2004) in a sample of 114 secondary school pupils (national learners with *L1* Spanish and immigrants from South-America, Africa and Asia) in the city centre of Barcelona. In their answers to a questionnaire based on the AMTB, the subjects showed in general more positive *atttitudes* and higher *motivation* in learning Spanish and English than Catalan. In Wilson (2012b), relative results for the three languages were different according to *affective variable*. English obtained significantly higher scores than both Catalan and Spanish for *motivation* and *instrumentality*. Catalan was superior in *integrativeness*, but the difference was not statistically significant.

Similar findings to those in Bernaus *et al.* (2004) were obtained in a study conducted by Ibarraran, Lasagabaster & Sierra (2008) in the Basque country, where *attitudes* towards the minority language were less favourable than English and, in addition, Spanish was the most positively valued language. Likewise, in Huguet Canalís & Lapresta Rey (2006), who studied language *attitudes* in a multilingual area in Aragon, Catalan obtained the least favourable *attitudes*, while *attitudes* to English were less favourable than Spanish and Aragonese, another minority language. Such diverging findings in

comparison with results in Comajoan & Gomàriz (2008a, 2008b) are likely to be explained by the fact that the environment in Bernaus *et al*. (2004), Ibarraran *et al*. (2008) and Huguet Canalís & Lapresta (2006) were predominantly Spanish-speaking, while Comajoan & Gomàriz (2008a, 2008b) took place in Girona, an area where Catalan is the majority language. However, the findings in Wilson (2012b) showed that Catalan obtained lower means in both *integativeness* and *instrumental orientation* in the Girona sample than it did among the learners in Barcelona, albeit the difference did not attain statistical significance. The results in Huguet (2007) also point to the *L1* as not having a role in attitudinal indices, as *attitudes* toward Spanish and Catalan among university local learners, which were more favourable than *attitudes* to English, were not related to dominance in the corresponding local language.On the other hand, Bernaus *et al*.'s (2004) and Ibarraran *et al*.'s (2008) findings that *attitudes* to English were more positive than to Catalan were related to the fact that participants regarded English as an international language and this language was linked to positive career prospects in Spain or abroad.

In contrast to Ibarraran *et al*. (2008), where *attitudes* towards English were more favourable among immigrant students, no difference was found in Bernaus *et al*. (2004) according to the participants' geographical origin, which included other areas of Spain. However, in this study, *cultural background* was related to variance in two measures, *instrumental orientation* (for the African participants, learning the three languages for instrumental reasons was more important than for the Asian group) and *attitudes towards learning the languages* (which obtained higher scores among the Asian participants than in the Spanish-speaking learners).

Only one study on the role of *self-confidence* in language learning in Catalonia was found. In Comajoan & Gomàriz (2008a), the authors found that immigrant learners in 11th grade had the same or higher levels in *self-confidence* in EFL than the learners born in Catalonia. More specifically, learners born in Morocco showed the same level as local learners, while South American pupils had a lower *self-confidence*. Among learners born in other regions of Spain, *self-confidence* in EFL attained lower scores than Catalan- and Morocco-born learners.

Bernaus *et al*. (2004), Comajoan & Gomàriz (2008b) and Wilson (2012b) found that motivational variables and competence in learning English correlated positively. Thus, the participants in Comajoan & Gomàriz (2008b), whose *attitudes* towards English were overall less favourable than they were to Catalan and Spanish, reported to speak English very well in only 3.8% of the cases. In Wilson (2012b), *integrative motivation* obtained a positive satistical correlation with self-rated *achievement* in this language. Bernaus *et al*. (2004) found two interesting findings concerning *motivation* in learning English. First of all, *age* bore a negative correlation with *motivation*, as younger learners reported being more motivated than older ones. Secondly, the role of *motivation* in language attainment is only significant for English. Hence, Bernaus *et al*. (2004) argue that *achievement* in Catalan and Spanish, which are more available, is influenced, in contrast to English, by many other factors in addition to *motivation*.

Thus, the results in Bernaus *et al*. (2004), Comajoan and Gomàriz (2008b) and Wilson (2012b) on the relationship between *affective variables* and *achievement* are coherent with those in Bernaus & Gardner (2008) and Gardner (2007), who investigated *motivation* and attainment in English among authoctonous students in Barcelona province. However, the two "types" of studies used different measures of language *achievement*. Thus, Bernaus & Gardner (2008) and Gardner (2007) used *school marks* and objective *achievement* tests, while Comajoan & Gomàriz (2008b), Bernaus *et al*. (2004) and Wilson (2012b) made use of self-rated measures. The use of different types of *proficiency* measures may have somehow affected findings concerning the relationship between *affective variables* and *achievement* in EFL.

Bernaus *et al*. (2004) and Wilson (2012b) provide evidence supporting the role of *integrative attitudes* in learning EFL among immigrants in the Catalan context. The results in both studies suggest that *integrative attitudes* correlated positively with *achievement* in EFL[17]. In addition, as Bernaus *et al*. (2004: 86) point out, the inclusion of three languages in the study leads to the

[17] In Bernaus *et al*. (2004), the factor *motivation to learn English*, which included *integrative orientation to learn English*, obtained positive correlations with language *achievement*.

finding that *integrative motivation* is in general language-specific, as the scores for each of the language groups (i. e., Catalan, Spanish and English speakers) showed variance in the same individual, while other variables, like *language anxiety* or *parental encouragement* were similar for the three languages.

3.8. Summary

The present chapter has analysed the role of *affective variables* (more specifically, *attitudes*, *orientations* and *motivation*) in SLA and FLL. Among the different models of language *motivation*, we have focused on Gardner's Socio-Educational Model because it has provided with many of the concepts and constructs used in the study hereby presented. Research has found consistent correlations between *affective variables* and language *achievement*. A controversial issue is the role of *integrative attitudes* in FL contexts, where contact with the TL community is not available. Research under the Socio-Educational Model has found that *integrative orientation* obtained high positive correlations with *motivation* and, indirectly, with language *achievement* (Gardner, 2006, 2007). Other studies, however, have found very low indices of *integrative attitudes* in such contexts or no significant correlations between them and *motivation* or language *achievement*. In order to explain the presence of *integrative attitudes* and its correlations with *motivation* and language *achievement* in FL settings in some studies, Dörnyei (1990), among other authors, has argued that *integrative attitudes* in FLL may be conceptualised as a desire to integrate into a global community, labelled as "international posture" by Yashima (2002). According to the findings in this study, "international posture" had an influence on language *achievement* through *motivation*.

Another model that we have paid attention to in this chapter is Expectancy-Value Theories, which explains human behaviour by the the *value* of the goal to be attained and the *expectancy of success* in pursuing it. The construct we have borrowed from this paradigm is *self-efficacy*. Research on

the role of this concept and *self-confidence* (a similar construct developed by Clément1986) has also pointed out that it is related to language *achievement*.

The chapter has closed with a review of research on language *attitudes* and *motivation* in Catalonia with local and immigrant samples. The findings show that immigrant learners have in general favourable *attitudes* towards Spanish, Catalan and English, especially towards the former. Studies conducted with local learners (Gardner, 2007; Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Bernaus *et al*. 2009) and immigrant pupils (Bernaus *et al.*, 2004; Wilson, 2012b) provide evidence supporting the role of *affective variables*, including *integrative attitudes*, in learning EFL among immigrants in the Catalan context. Finally, Comajoan & Gomàriz (2008a) found that immigrant learners in Catalonia had the same or higher levels in *self-confidence* in EFL than local pupils.

Chapter 3 has analysed an important aspect of SLA and FLL, *affective variables*. The following chapter is devoted to another aspect of SLA relevant to the participants in the present study: *Cross-linguistic influence*.

4. Literature Review II: Cross-linguistic influence in multilingual acquisition. Research with immigrant learners

4.1. Introduction

The present chapter discusses specific issues of language transfer in multilingual acquisition. The term "transfer" has traditionally made reference to the influence from one of the languages possessed by a bilingual or multilingual speaker-hearer (known therefore as "source" or "source language") in learning, production or comprehension in the TL. However, as we will see in section 4.2, the term is controversial, since it does not seem to cover all the phenomena within language influence. For that reason, other labels, like "cross-linguistic influence" (*CLI*), have been coined. After describing the concepts of "cross-linguistic influence" and "multilingual acquisition" and establishing the importance of both (section 4.2), some models of multilingual speech production and models of the multilingual mind will be discussed in relation to *CLI* (section 4.3). A classification of factors involved in *CLI* in both SLA and multlilingual acquisition is proposed in 4.4. Some of such factors are exclusive of *CLI* in multilingual acquisition, particularly those that determine the source language of transfer (section 4.4.3), which can potentially be any in the learner's repertoire. Finally, empirical research on *CLI* among immigrant students will be reviewed (section 4.5).

4.2. Cross-linguistic influence in multilingual acquisition

Although **multilingualism** started being studied in the 1950s and 1960s from sociolinguistic and educational perspectives, research from a cognitive or psycholinguistic point of view did not start until the 1980s, experimenting a qualitative growth in the 1990s (Aronin & Hufeisen, 2009; De Angelis, 2007; De Angelis & Dewaele, 2009). According to Cenoz (1997), the increasing attention

devoted to multilingualism is not surprising since it is more common than monolingualism, even in the European Union, where the acquisition of at least a third language (L3) is becoming more and more usual. Multilingualism is a complex phenomenon, which embraces diverse situations from a cultural and linguistic point of view. Kemp (2009: 16) points out that nowadays researchers tend to agree that "multilingualism is the ability to use three or more languages to some extent, whether these are in the same or different domains". According to Kemp (2009), multilingualism does not require the same level of *proficiency* or control in the languages involved. In spite of this, research seems to point to at least a minimum degree of *proficiency* in the interlanguages involved, which, following De Angelis (2007), corresponds to one or two years of acquisition or learning. De Angelis (2007: 10) puts forward that the acquisition of a language subsequent to the second is referred to through at least four **labels**, neither of which has imposed itself over the others: a) Multiple Language Acquisition, b) Multilingual Acquisition, c) Third Language Acquisition or d) Third or Additional Language Acquisition. In addition to these terms, other authors, like Hoffman (2001) and Hall and Ecke (2003), use "trilingualism" to refer specifically to the acquisition of a third language. In the present study, the acquisition of more than two languages will be referred to as "multilingualism" or "multilingual acquisition". A further problematic aspect of the characterisation of "multilingualism" is the nature of its relationship with bilingualism. As Jessner (2008) points out, in the past, "multilingualism" was considered a type of "bilingualism", but more recently the opposite view dominates and, thus, "bilingualism" is conceived under "multilingualism".

Originally, the study of ***cross-linguistic influence*** was initiated in SLA within behaviourist theories and was extensively used in Contrastive Analysis. Only recently has research on *CLI* directed its attention from SLA to its role in multilingual acquisition. The term **"transfer"** has been borrowed from general learning theory, where it means "the carrying over of learned behaviour from one situation to another" (Richards & Schmidt, 2002). In the specific field of SLA, transfer can be defined as "the effect of one language on the learning of another" (Richards & Schmidt, 2002). A similar definition has been put forward by Odlin (1989: 27), who describes "transfer" as "the influence resulting from

the similarities and differences between the target language and any other languages that have been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired". Transfer is regarded as a communication or a compensatory strategy in order to overcome communication problems caused by a gap in the knowledge of the target language, as well as a learning strategy. Transfer can be conscious and, in this case, it can have pragmatic functions, or unconscious. However, terms referring to different phenomena of language influence, like "transfer", "linguistic interference", "the role of the mother tongue", "native-language influence" or "interlanguage influence" do not cover all the processes involved. To begin with, language transfer has traditionally been viewed as positive or negative according to the effect on language learning (Odlin, 1989). If transfer from a previous language has a facilitating effect on the learning of the TL (due to similarity between the two languages), transfer is then said to be positive. Research confirms that similarities between the source language and the TL can have a facilitating effect in learning the TL (Mägiste, 1984; Ohlander, 2009). On the other hand, if an aspect of the source language different from the target structure or item is transferred, then transfer is negative (Ohlander, 2009). The afore-mentioned terms to make reference to language influence phenomena are not adequate because either they limit to negative transfer ("interference"), to the influence of the L1 ("the role of the mother tongue" or "native-language influence") or they exclude phenomena like "avoidance", "borrowing", "language loss" (Sharwood Smith & Kellerman, 1986: 1), "hypercorrection", or "simplification" due to the influence of another language (Odlin, 1989, 2003). In order to cover all these manifestations of language influence, Sharwood Smith & Kellerman (1986) coined the cover term "cross-linguistic influence". Although *CLI* is probably broad enough to reflect the complexity of language influence, it is not entirely adequate for multilingual acquisition according to De Angelis (2007: 49), as it leaves out simultaneous influence from two or more source languages at a time in multilingual acquisition or "combined *CLI*". In the present study we will use "transfer" and "cross-linguistic influence" interchangeably.

As pointed out by De Angelis (2007), *CLI* in multilingual learners, In contrast to SLA, admits the possibily of transferring from more than one source,

which can be any of the speaker's languages (Hall & Ecke, 2003). The results in De Angelis (2005a) suggest that multilinguals may not be conscious of the source language of a transferred item, a fact that is also unique to multilinguals.

4.3. The multilingual lexicon. Models of multilingual processing and speech

Several models of the bilingual or multilingual lexicon have been proposed to explain how the lexical items belonging to different language systems are stored and retrieved in the same mind. As we will see, these models analyse issues of *CLI*, since it can shed light on the organization of the multilingual mind. Models of bilingual and multilingual speech processing and production are also related to *CLI*, since they intend to explain why output in the TL is influenced by other languages, i. e., what mechanisms make language transfer possible in the TL production.

As De Angelis (2007) points out, most of the models of the multilingual lexicon are based on bilingual ones, but a few have been specifically designed for the multilingual mind, like Hall & Ecke's (2003) or Wei's (2003). Many of the models devised to describe the multilingual lexicon share the idea that previous language systems influence the TL, especially at early stages of acquisition, and that the lexicon and the relationships between the systems change over time (De Angelis, 2005a; De Bot, Lowie & Verspoor, 2007; Hall & Ecke, 2003; Jessner, 1999; Wei, 2003). They also point to the relevance of *CLI* in the description of the multilingual lexicon. In addition, Hall & Ecke (2003) and Wei (2003) highlight the idea that *CLI* is a reflection of the use of similarities between new entries in the TL and pre-existing language systems.

Concerning the organization of the different linguistic systems in the multilingual lexicon, two opposing views have been proposed. Following De Angelis (2007), the separate view maintains that the lexicons for each language are stored separately and the entries are kept apart under each language heading. On the other hand, the integrated view advocates for the existence of one shared lexicon where entries from different languages are stored.

According to the integrated position, the entries or words are stored with a label, tag or node that provides information on language membership. This tag will have an important role in language selection in understanding and producing the TL. A proponent of the integrated view of the multilingual lexicon is Wei (2003). Hall & Ecke (2003) do not overtly mention the controversy, nor do they touch on the existence of one or two lexicons, but they propose a unique network where the different languages are integrated or coexist. In any case, research has found evidence for both integration and separation of languages in the multilingual lexicon. For this reason, Singleton (2003), De Angelis (2007) and Jessner (2003) argue that an extreme position would not adequately describe a multilingual speaker's lexicon. However, as Singleton (2003) discusses, the occurrence of *CLI* evidences that at least a certain degree of connectivity between the language systems exists in the multilingual lexicon.

In his model of bilingual speech processing and production, Grosjean (1989, 1992, 1999, 2011) proposed the concept of "**language mode**", which is relevant for the study of *CLI*. "Language mode" refers to the "state of activation of the bilingual's languages and language processing mechanisms at a certain point in time" (Grosjean, 1999: 2). Language mode entails the selection of a language as the base or most highly activated system and the possible activation of the speaker's other languages in speech production. Grosjean (1989, 1992, 1999, 2011) decribes the bilingual speech modes as situations along on a continuum, with one endpoint being a totally monolingual mode and the other end being a bilingual mode. In a bilingual mode, the speaker-hearer mixes the two languages using code-switching and borrowing. In the monolingual mode, the other language is deactivated. As the bilingual and the monolingual modes are two ends on the continuum line, we must bear in mind that "intermediary modes exist between the two" (Grosjean, 1989: 8). In an "intermediate position", the system that does not act as base language will be only "partly activated" (Grosjean, 1999: 4). When the non-target language is not deactivated, language influence from that language occurs. The factors that influence language mode are various: the speaker's language use habits, the mode of interaction, the language of the interlocutors, the degree of

formality, among others (Grosjean, 1999). As Grosjean (1999) himself argues, the concept of language mode can be applied to multilinguals. Thus, Jessner (2008: 22) resorts to Grosjean's language mode in her description of possible language modes in "a trilingual person", who "can find herself in a mono-, bi- or trilingual mode". Jessner's (2008b) assertion involves that one or more languages in a multilingual's repertoire can be activated to different extents.

In conclusion, the review of different models of the multilingual lexicon leads to several characteristics of the multilingual mind, which will be applied in the characterisation of the participants in the present study. First of all, we adopt a cautious position regarding the integration or the separation of language systems in the multilingual lexicon, since evidence from research does not categorically point to either position. We argue here that the languages in the multilingual lexicon do not seem to be stored completely separated. They must be somehow interconnected, since, in the retrieval of lexical items, multilingual speakers seem to access items across languages and use similarities among systems in storing new vocabulary in the target language. Like De Angelis (2005a), we focus on multilingual's behaviour and to opt for one of the possible positions in the controversy between integrative and separatist views is beyond the scope of the present study. Language mode is also of interest and retained in our explanation of the participants' production. It is argued here that language mode enables the selection of items across lexicons. In other words, it is believed that speakers enter a language mode in which one language is the base or more highly activated language (similar to Williams & Hammarberg, 1998).

4.4. The factors of cross-linguistic influence in multilingual acquisition

4.4.1. Introduction

The factors of *CLI* are more numerous in multilingual acquisition than in SLA and they can trigger other effects, as we will see below. Like in SLA, there are variables that favour *CLI* and, therefore, determine the amount of transferred

elements. These factors are labelled in the present discussion as "influencing factors of *CLI*" (see 4.4.2). Second, the possibility of transferring from more than one language in multilinguals entails the intervention of factors of source selection, which are specific to multilingual aquisition.

When the source language of transfer is not the *L1*, **transferability according to language area** is more restricted (Ringbom, 1987, Ilomaki, 2005; De Angelis; 2007; Agustin, 2010). In SLA, the *L1* has been reported to influence phonetics and phonology (Llama, Cardoso & Collins, 2008), lexis, syntax, disourse and pragmatics, and, probably to a lesser extent, morphology. On the other hand, as Ringbom (1987) and De Angelis (2007) have noted, research suggests that transfer from an interlanguage has stronger effects in vocabulary than in any other language level. Thus, phonetics and phonology are rarely affected by a non-native language (De Angelis, 2007). Syntactic transfer from a non-native language seems to be possible only when the speaker has been exposed to massive input in the source language and *proficiency* is high in this language (Ringbom, 2007). Finally, despite the fact that morphology has been traditionally considered less transferable (Odlin 1989, De Angelis, 2007), De Angelis & Selinker (2001), Hammarberg (2001) and Jarvis & Odlin (2000) found evidence of non-native influence in this area.

A **classification of transfer factors** in both SLA and multilingual acquisition is hereby proposed (see Table 3), where many of these factors affect SLA and some are specific to multilingual acquisition. As in the classifications put forward by Cenoz (2003c), Murphy (2003), Hall & Ecke (2003) and Odlin (1989), we distinguish between variables related to the language, variables related to the learner, and variables related to the context[18].

[18] Context is referred to as “event” by Hall & Ecke (2003).

Table 3. Influencing factors of amount of *CLI* and factors of source selection in multilingual acquisition

	Influencing factors of *CLI*	**Factors of source selection**
Individual or learner-related factors	1. age *at testing* 2. *metalinguistic awareness* 3. age *of onset* 4. *proficiency in the target langu*age 5. *exposure to/input in the target langu*age 6. *proficiency in the source langu*age 7. *exposure to/input in the source langu*age 8. *anxiety* 9. *affective variables*	1. *metalinguistic awareness* 2. *age of onset* 3. *exposure to/input in the target langu*age; 4. *proficiency in the target langu*age 5. *proficiency in the source langu*age 6. *exposure to/input in the source langu*age
Contextual factors	1. *task effect* 2. *langu*age *associated to the interlocutors* 3. *degree of formality* 4. *monolingual or bilingual community*	1. *langu*age *associated to the interlocutors* 2. *language mode*
Language-related factors	1. *type of items transferred (content versus function words; meaning-versus form-based transfer)* 2. *langu*age *distance, typology or psychotypology*	1. *L2-status, foreign langu*age *effect or L2 effect* 2. *langu*age *distance, typology or psychotypology* 3. *frequency of use or recency* 4. *order of acquisition* and *last langu*age *effect.* 5. *dominance in the sociolinguistic environment*

Several observations need to be made in relation to the above classification of factors. Concerning the individual characteristics that predict *CLI* in both SLA and multilingual acquisition, gender has not been included since research has shown that it does not play a significant role in *CLI* (Agustín Llach, 2010). Concerning language mode, Murphy (2003) categorises it as a learner-based factor, but we argue here that it depends more on the contextual factors of the linguistic exchange than on the idiosyncracy of the learner. For this reason, it has been categorised as a contextual factor that, at the same time, can be affected by other factors within the same category. In our classification, language-related factors encompass both characteristics of the language *per se* (like the type of elements transferred) or the relative characteristics determined by the language configuration in the learners' repertoire, like similarity between the source language and the TL or the order of acquisition of a non-native linguistic system in relation to the TL. The factor labelled "type

of items transferred" is specific to lexical transfer and refer to both content words versus function words and meaning- versus form-based transfer.

The factors in the above classification may affect the numbers of items transferred from the source language (i. e., they are triggers of *CLI*), the selection of the source language or both. Factors involved in the selection of the source language are *age of onset* (*AO*) in the acquisition of the source language, *proficiency* in both the TL and the source language, exposure and input in the source language, the interlocutors, *L2-status*, frequency of use or *recency* and order of acquisition. *L2-status* or, in Meisel's (1983, cited in Cenoz, 2001) terms, "foreign language effect", can be defined as the selection of the L2 for the relunctancy to use the *L1* and the desire not to sound native. Some of the variables with a bearing on the source specifically promote transfer from the non-native language: i. e., *proficiency* in the source language, exposure and input in the non-native language or *L2-status*.

In the sections that follow, studies that analyse the effect of the factors that are relevant to the present study will be briefly revised. The influencing factors of *CLI* and those selecting the source language will be tackled in sections 4.4.2 and 4.4.3, respectively. Our discussion will be structured into individual factors, contextual factors and language-related factors.

4.4.2. Influencing factors of cross-linguistic influence

4.4.2.1 Individual factors

Following Cenoz (2001), an individual factor that has been widely studied, but not specifically in relation to *CLI*, is *age* (see, for instance, Muñoz, 2006a). As mentioned bove, we must distinguish between *AO* and *age at testing* in the TL. *AO* in the TL has received even less attention than *age at testing* and only two studies specifically concerned with the role of *AO* in the TL in *CLI* has been found. Thus, Cenoz (2001) and Gost & Celaya (2005) found that, given the same or similar *time of instruction*, later starters showed more transferred items than earlier starters. In Gost & Celaya (2005), *AO* was also related to different communicative functions: while later starters transferred more items with

instrumental uses, i. e. to communicate with the interlocutor or comment on the task, earlier starters resorted to the *L1* for a non-instrumental role in higher frequency than their peers. Gost & Celaya (2005) argue that later starters had higher metalinguistic awareness of the gaps in their knowledge and used the *L1* to elicit the TL item or make a comment while earlier starters code-switched. However, we must bear in mind that in both Cenoz (2001) and Gost & Celaya (2005), later starters were older at the time of data collection, which entails the possibility that *age at testing* may also be at play.

As for ***age at testing***, it has been claimed that older learners transfer less than younger ones owing to increasing metalinguistic awareness. The findings in Celaya (2006), Celaya & Ruiz de Zarobe (2010), Celaya & Torras (2001) and Navés, Miralpeix & Celaya (2005) confirm this claim. In the case of young learners in school contexts, it is difficult to distinguish the effect of *age* from that of *proficiency*. However, the influence of *age* on *CLI* in Celaya & Torras (2001) is clear, since the participants were different ages but they had the same amount of instruction (200 hours). Conflicting results on the role of *age* on the amount of *CLI* were obtained by Cenoz (2001), as the amount of transferred items and the number of the participants who transferred rose as *age at testing* also increased (we recall here that in this study the effect of *AO* and *age at testing* were difficult to separate). However, as Navés *et al*. (2005) indicated, a smaller span of grades and different methods in calculating amount of *CLI* in Cenoz (2001) may explain such difference.

An important learner-related factor of *CLI* is **proficiency in the TL**. It is argued that *CLI* is more common at early stages of the learning of the TL, when gaps in command press learners to resort to other languages in their repertoire (Celaya, 2006; De Angelis, 2007; Hammarberg, 2001, 2006; Kellerman, 2001; Lindqvist, 2009; Murphy, 2003; Navés *et al.*, 2005; Odlin, 1989; Odlin & Jarvis, 2004; Williams & Hammarberg, 1998). However, as De Angelis (2007: 33) argues, *CLI* also occurs at more advanced stages of learning and it is likely to take place until the learner achieves "a very high level of *proficiency* and automaticity in the target language". In addition, as pointed out by Odlin (1989), transfer of some elements only takes place at advanced levels, when such higher-level structures are taught. Odlin (1989) also discusses that transfer

at earlier levels is normally negative, while at advanced levels, especially in comprehension, it is usually positive.

A final explanation for contradictory results on the relationship between target *proficiency* and *CLI* lies in the different influence of quantity and quality of transfer. As *proficiency* increases, the general amount of transfer decreases, but **semantic-based** transfer seems to either increase or decrease in lower numbers than **formal *CLI*** (Celaya, 2006; Celaya & Torras, 2001; Gost & Celaya, 2005; Navés *et al.*, 2005). The distinction between **"lexical transfer"** (semantic-based transfer) and **"borrowing"** (form-based) was established by Ringbom (1987), who describes them as two ends on a continuum. Lexical transfer involves the application of a structure or a semantic pattern in the source onto the TL, which includes "loan translations" (or "calques"), the purest form of lexical transfer, and "semantic extension" (the use of a word in a wrong context because an erroneous identification with a word in the TL: i.e., the use of *bank* in English for *bench* under the influence of Spanish *banco*, which means "bank" and "bench"). On the other hand, borrowing involves the use of the *L1* or a non-native language in the TL based on form, which can be adapted or non-adapted into the TL phonology or morphology. According to Ringbom's (1987: 116-117) classification, borrowing includes "complete language shifts" (the use of items from an *L1* or a non-native language with no adaptation to the target language), "hybrids, blends and relexifications" (adapted to the phonology or morphology of the TL) and, finally, "cognates" (the use of a lexical item in the TL formally similar to another one in the source language but not semantically identical: i. e., *actually* in English meaning *nowadays* under the influence of Spanish *actualmente*). The fact that transfer becomes more semantically-based as command in the TL increases seems to reflect a progression in the multilingual mind (Williams & Hammarberg, 1998). As Agustín Llach (2010) argues, when higher *proficiency* in the TL is attained, learners know more vocabulary and they do not need to borrow words from the *L1* and, at the same time, they are able to apply phonological and morphological rules into the TL.

A higher amount of **input or exposure** to the TL is also thought to lead to less *CLI*. This is illustrated by the comparison of students in traditional FL

settings with those in CLIL instruction contexts (see Footnote 12). Both Celaya (2007) and Celaya & Ruiz de Zarobe (2010) found that the presence of borrowings was higher among the non-CLIL learners in the study of school learners who were Spanish and Catalan bilinguals (in both studies) or Spanish and Basque bilinguals (in Celaya & Ruiz de Zarobe, 2010). The reason for such difference in language transfer lies, as Agustin (2010) points out, in differences in both the quantity of input (larger amounts in CLIL contexts) received by CLIL learners as well as its quality (more vocabulary).

Affective variables or *motivation* are contemplated by some authors, like Odlin (1989), Hall & Ecke (2003) or Jarvis (2000), as a potential factor of *CLI*. As suggested in Odlin's (1989) discussion about the role of *motivation* in *CLI*, motivated learners will attain higher *proficiency* in the language and, thus, they will transfer less from a non-TL. Besides, it is argued here that a motivated learner will try to "sound as target-like" as possible. However, research on the possible correlation between *motivation* indices and language transfer is scarce and only one study on this issue has been found. Agustín & Fernández (2009) seeked to establish a relationship between *motivation* and amount and types of lexical transfer in EFL. The participants in this study were 183 *L1* Spanish students in their second year of Secondary Education (aged 13 and 14) who had received 839 hours of instruction in English. The instrument for gathering language data consisted in writing a letter and *proficiency* was measured through a cloze test and a reading comprehension test. *Motivation* was measured through a questionnaire adapted from Gardner's (1985) Attitude/Motivation Test Battery and a questionnaire with a semantic differential technique asking endorsement to adjectives describing learning EFL, such as "necessary/unnecessary". Three types of lexical transfer were analysed in Agustín Llach & Fernández Fontecha's (2009) study: borrowing, coinage and calque. According to their results, there was no relationship between lexical transfer and *motivation*, nor was there a correlation between *motivation* and lexical and linguistic competence, either. However, *motivation* did have a relationship with task performance as more motivated participants wrote longer compositions.

4.4.2.2 Contextual factors

The role of **task effect** in *CLI* has been scarcely investigated. One exception is Viladot & Celaya (2006), who discovered that a narrative based on a picture story yielded higher numbers of transfer than an interview and a role play. The authors argue that two characteristics of narratives may have triggered more transfer: it is a monologue and it is longer than the other two tasks. As Celaya & Navés (2009) and Agustín (2010) point out, oral tasks are likely to trigger higher proportions of *CLI* since oral processing is more demanding than written expression. Thus, Celaya (1992) found that syntactic *CLI* was more common in her participants' oral data than in their written production in EFL. In Ortega (2009), the oral narrative also triggered more *borrowings* than the written task. Finally, the low indices of *CLI* found in Celaya (2006, 2007), Celaya & Torras (2001) and Navés *et al*. (2005) are explained by Celaya (2007) because these studies analysed written production and this type of tasks triggers lower numbers of *CLI* than oral tasks.

The awareness of the speaker that the **interlocutor** is proficient in the source language, a low degree of **formality** of the communicative situation and the fact that the community is **bilingual** favours a **language mode** in which one or more languages besides the TL are activated. The activation of the leaners' other languages triggers the presence of *CLI* from these languages. A relevant study on the role of formality versus informality is Dewaele (2001), who found that the L1 Dutch participants used more French/English mixed utterances in their production in French in informal contexts than in formal situations.

4.4.2.3 Language-related factors

Concerning transferability of specific types of words in the TL, Poulisse & Bongaerts (1994) found that **function words** (prepositions, determiners, conjunctions and pronouns) were transferred more frequently from the *L1* to the TL than content words (nouns, verbs, numerals, adjectives and adverbs). The authors argue that this was so because function words are more frequent in the L1 and, therefore, are more activated and more easily retrieved in the TL production. Poulisse & Bongaerts (1994) also claim that, as content words

transmit meaning, learners are more likely to pay attention to content words in the TL in order to communicate their message. Later research on the tansferability of function and content words is not conclusive. A study conducted in Barcelona, Muñoz (2006b), confirms the results in Poulisse & Bongaerts (1994), as function words were selected more frequently than content words. On the other hand, Cenoz's (2001) participants, students in primary and secondary schools, transferred more content words than function words in the youngest and the oldest groups, while the participants in the intermediate group transferred similar percentages of both types of words. In another piece of research in Barcelona, Navés *et al.* (2005) found that the youngest participants transferred approximately the same proportion of function and content words. Navés *et al.* (2005) point out that transfer of function and content words may be related to *age at testing* and *proficiency*. For instance, younger and less proficient learners draw similar percentages of content and function words, since at early stages of learning more content words are taught (Navés *et al.*, 2005).

Language distance*, typology** and Kellerman's (1979) concept of ***psychotypology refer to the relative degree of similarity between two or more languages. Thus, languages can be "close", if they have similar features, or "distant", when they show different features. Similarity can be due to the languages belonging to the same type of language (i. e., to the same language *typology* in relation, for instance, to word order or syntactic rules), to the same genetic family or as a result of loans (illustrated by English and Catalan vocabulary, which have received a substantial number of loans from, respectively, French and Spanish). We could argue that what really may have an influence on the learners' transference of elements from one language to another is the perceived *langua*ge *distance* by the learners themselves. For this reason, Kellerman (1979) reformulated the concept into "*psychotypology*" to cover the learner's judgement regarding closeness between languages. Research has shown that *language distance*, *typology* or *psychotypology* leads to higher percentages of *CLI* in both SLA and multilingual acquisition. For instance, in Agustín Llach, Fernández Fontecha & Moreno Espinosa (2005), a comparative study between young L1 Spanish and L1 German learners of L2

English, the German participants in the study transferred considerably more than the Spanish ones. This was due, among other reasons, to typologically similarity between English and German, which are both Germanic languages. *Language distance* can also be a factor of source selection in multilingual acquisition (see section 4.4.3.4).

Finally, the role of **order of acquisition** in language transfer has been investigated by Dewaele (1998), among others. In Dewaele (1998), the participants were native-speakers of Dutch, some had learnt English subsequent to French and the rest of the participants did so in the reverse order. The findings showed that order of acquisition affected amount and type (interlingual or intralingual lexical inventions) of *CLI*. For the role of order of acquisition in source selection, see section 4.4.3.4.

4.4.3. The factors of source selection

4.4.3.1 Source selection for instrumental and default supplier roles

Research seems to indicate that the source language may play different **communicative functions** under the influence of the factors analysed below. Hammarberg (2001) and Williams & Hammarberg (1998) found that the participant of both studies drew primarily from two source languages for different communicative purposes. Thus, L2 German was used with a **default supplier role**, i. e. to fill in knowledge gaps in the lexis of the third language. On the other hand, L1 English had in general an **instrumental role**: to address the interlocutor, for self-repairs, for meatalinguistic comments or for questions requesting help. Since then, other studies, as we will see later, have proved that Williams & Hammarberg's (1998) and Hammarberg's (2001, 2006) distinction between a default supplier and an instrumental role in source selection is valid. However, role assignment is more clear-cut for the instrumental role, influenced by contextual factors (see 4.4.3.3) and *proficiency* in the source language (see section 4.4.2.1). In the selection of a source as the default supplier several individual and language-related factors may intervene, like *psychotypology*, *proficiency* in the source or *L2-status* (see

sections 4.4.3.2, 4.4.3.3 and 4.4.3.4). As Lindqvist (2009) points out, further research with different language profiles is needed to clarify the factors behind the selection of the supplier language.

4.4.3.2 Individual factors

It seems that **proficiency in the TL** is a factor that triggers both higher percentages of *CLI* and more source languages. Thus, Lindqvist (2009) found that *proficiency* in L3 French was an essential factor in the number of source languages implied, since lower *proficiency* in the L3 led to transfer from more previous languages. In a similar way, the L1 English subject in Hammarberg (2001, 2006) and Williams & Hammarberg (1998) only selected her weakest L2, French and Italian, during the first months of the longitudinal study, when the participant's command in L3 Swedish was weaker.

Proficiency in the source language, as well as **exposure** and **input** in this language, is also a factor influencing the selection of an interlanguage as source of transfer for both instrumental and default supplier roles. It has been argued that the L2 in which *proficiency* is the highest will be selected as source (Hammarberg, 2001, 2006; Williams & Hammarberg, 1998). However, De Angelis (2007) points out that the mechanisms affecting the role of *proficiency* in the source language are not clear since research has not specifically analysed it as the main variable. One exception is Tremblay (2006), who investigated the relationship between *proficiency* and exposure to L2 French with lexical inventions and language shifts in the L3 German of 13 native speakers of English. The participants' command in the L3 was similar. Tremblay's (2006) results showed that the participants with the highest *proficiency* and exposure to L2 French transferred the most from this language.

In addition to the findings provided by Tremblay (2006), there is indirect evidence of the role of *proficiency* in the L2 in source selection which can be inferred from studies on multilingual transfer which indicate levels of *proficiency*. For instance, Trévisiol (2006) investigated lexical *CLI* from the participants' L1 (Japanese) and L2 (English) in L3 French. According to the results in this study, *proficiency* in L2 English affected transfer from this language. L1 Japanese was the preferred source language for instrumental

functions, while it was selected for non-instrumental uses in the same proportions as L2 English. The participant's reliance on their L1 may be explained by their low command of L2 English. In addition, the relationship of L2 transfer for instrumental purposes with L2 *proficiency* is confirmed by the fact that the participants in Trévisiol (2006) with higher *proficiency* in L2 English drew more frequently from that language. Other studies in which *proficiency* in the source affected its selection are Lindqvist (2009), Muñoz (2006b) and Ortega (2009). As Tremblay (2006) argues, there may be a threshold level in the non-native language in order for it to be selected as source of transfer.

4.4.3.3 Contextual factors

Selection of the source language in multilingual *CLI* has been reported to be also affected by contextual factors, like the interlocutor's language and the level of formality of the communicative situation. As commented in section 4.4.3.1, these contextual factors have a potential bearing on the source language used in an "instrumental role", i. e., to address the interlocutor or make comments on the communicative situation. In studies like Cenoz (2003a, 2003c), Hammarberg (2001, 2006), Lindqvist (2009), Muñoz (2006b) and Williams & Hammarberg (1998), the choice of a non-target language for instrumental functions was based on the association of the source with the **interlocutor** and the awareness of the interlocutor's command of the source language. More specifically, the participants' use of Basque in Cenoz (2003a, 2003c) and Catalan in Muñoz (2006b) to address the researchers was probably influenced by the school setting, as the authors themselves argue. Basque and Catalan are the school language and the participants deemed it more appropiate to use it with the researchers, who were assimilated to their teachers. Besides, in Cenoz (2003a), the use of a non-target language to address the researcher was "encouraged" by the informality of the conversation.

4.4.3.4 Language-related factors

Research has shown that **language distance, language typology** and **psychotypology** (see 4.4.2.3) are probably the most important factors in source selection (Murphy, 2003; Agustín Llach, 2010). Two observations will be made regarding their role. First of all, *psychotypology* may be more restricted in syntax or morphology than in lexis, as the learners may be less aware of syntactic or morphological *typology* or similarity across languages (Martínez Adrián, 2008; Ó Laoire & Singleton, 2009). Secondly, the influence of *psychotypology* is sometimes difficult to disentangle from that of **L2-status**, another important factor of source selection. As we will see below, when one (or more) of the speaker's previous languages is closer to the TL than the rest, it seems that this language will be selected as source of *CLI*, regardless of whether it is the L1 or an L2. This reflects the effect of language *typology* as a more powerful predictor of source selection than *L2-status*. However, this is not always the case as some studies (Bardel & Falk, 2007; De Angelis & Selinker, 2001; Kirkici, 2007; Sánchez, 2011a, 2011b) point to the selection of the non-native language for *L2-status*.

Studies which included previous languages with different degrees of similarity between them and the TL has been conducted in Finland (Ringbom, 1987; Ilomaki, 2005), the Basque country (Cenoz, 1997, 2001, 2003c) or Ireland (Ó'Laoire & Singleton, 2009; Singleton & O'Laoire, 2006). In Finland there are two communities with L1s typologically different: the Finns, with L1 Finnish, and the Finland Swedes, with L1 Swedish. Swedish is, like English, a Germanic language while Finnish is a Finno-Ugric language and, therefore, not an Indoeuropean language and more distant from English. In Ringbom (1987), the participants, who were L3 English learners, drew more on Swedish than Finnish irrespective of Swedish being the participants' L1 or L2. Similar findings were obtained by Ilomaki (2005), who studied *CLI* in Finish- and English- speaking learners of L3 German. The L1 Finnish participants had previously learnt English and Swedish, while the L1 English learners had Irish, a Gaelic language, as their L2. As the author had expected, the Finnish students did not use their native language and transferred from both Swedish and English. On the other hand, the English-speaking participants only drew on their L1.

Cenoz (1997, 2001, 2003a, 2003c) also found that *psychotypology* was an important factor in the participants' language choice in *CLI*, since they transferred more from Spanish than from Basque in their production in L3 English in a non-instrumental role. The participants' preference for Spanish as source of language transfer is related to the fact that Basque is a non-Indoeuropean language that differs both from Spanish and English. In addition to the influence of *psychotypology*, the selection of L1 Spanish in Cenoz (2003a, 2003c) also responds to the role of Basque as a minority language in the Basque country, which affects vividness of Spanish in the participants' mind and, therefore, the activation of items from this language. In Cenoz (2001), the selection of Spanish for *psychotypology* is also related to *age*, since older learners transferred less from Basque than the younger ones, who may be less aware of *language distance*. Interestingly, the results in Cenoz (2001) shows that linguistic similiarity or *psychotypology* do not overrule the influence of *L2-status*, since the participants with L1 Spanish drew from Basque more often than Basque native speakers.

Finally, Ó Laoire & Singleton (2009) and Singleton & Ó Laoire (2006) found that the participants, speakers of L1 English and L2 Irish, transferred from English more than from Irish in L3 French. Their results point to the role of *psychotypology*, as the vocabulary of English is closer to French than Irish lexis. These findings indicated that for this particular sample, like in Cenoz (1997, 2001, 2003a, 2003c), *psychotypology* was a more powerful determinant in source selection than *L2-status*. However, the authors thought that the findings may be due to superior knowledge in the L1 (Ó Laoire & Singleton, 2009). In order to rule out the effects of the L1, the authors complemented this study with a sample of balanced English/Irish bilinguals. The results of this last study replicated those in Singleton & O'Laoire (2006), pointing to the influence of *typology* in source selection.

When the speaker's interlanguage or interlanguages are closer to the TL than their *L1*, determining the relative influence of *psychotypology* and *L2-status* is difficult. However, the findings in a number of studies show that *L2-status* may play a stronger role than *psychotypology*. To begin with, De Angelis & Selinker (2001) analysed production in L3 Italian by two learners. The first of

the participants had L1 French and L2 Spanish, while the second one had L1 English and L2 Spanish. Both of them resorted to L2 Spanish, which points to the role of *psychotypology*, as both Spanish and Italian are Romance languages. However, the first participants' L1 is also a Romance language and she seemed to prefer Spanish items because they sounded foreign. In Kirkici (2007), the participants drew more on L2 English than L1 Turkish in their production of L3 German. It may be argued that *language distance* or *psychotypology* is probably playing a role in the participants' preference for English as the source of language transfer. However, Kirkici (2007) found that the participants took notes (definitions or translation of German lexical items) almost exclusively in English, which indicates that *L2-status* was at play. Sánchez (2011a, 2011b) compared the effect of *L2 status* and *typology* in Spanish/Catalan bilingual learners of L4 English with L3 German. According to her results, L2 status was a more powerful predictor of language selection than *typology*. In their study of learners of L3 Swedish or Dutch with different L1s and L2s, Bardel & Falk (2007) also found that *L2 status* had a greater influence on source selection in syntactical transfer than *typology*. Thus, *typology* affected transfer from the L2 but not from the native language, which leads the authors to conclude that the L2 acts as a screen which makes the *L1* less accessible.

On the other hand, in Muñoz (2006b) and Ortega (2008), both conducted in Catalonia, the participants relied more on their *L1* than the L2 although the latter was more similar to the TL. Ortega (2008) found that her participants, two multilingual adult speakers of *L1* Spanish and L2 English with French, German and Catalan as additional languages, mainly transferred from *L1* Spanish in their production in L2 English and L3 Catalan. In a similar way, in Muñoz (2006b), the learners relied less on L3 French than in Catalan and Spanish in their production of L4 English. As both Ortega (2008) and Muñoz (2006b) argue, the participants' ***proficiency*** in their respective interlanguages is probably too low for them to draw from this language. Their findings indicate that the choice of a non-native language as source of *CLI* for typological similarity or *L2-status* is constrained by *proficiency* in the L2. In other words, there may be a threshold level for multilingual speakers' to transfer from an interlanguage, as put forward by Tremblay (2006). The importance of

proficiency in the source language is confirmed by the results in Trévisiol (2006), who found that the participants drew more from their L2 (English) than their *L1* (Japanese) in the default supplier role in L3 French when their command in English was higher. In a similar way, the participants in Tremblay (2006) drew less from L2 French than from *L1* English because of their low L2 *proficiency*.

Other language-based factors of source selection are **frequency of use** and ***recency***. According to the findings in Williams & Hammarberg (1998), Hall & Ecke (2003), Hammarberg (2001, 2006) and Lindqvist (2009), ***recency*** played a role in the selection of the L2 together with *typology*, *proficiency* and *L2 status*. In Dewaele's (2001) investigation of the role of transfer in the French performance of trilingual university students, the results showed that regular use of the TL outside the classroom and amount of formal instruction played a role in the selection of the L2 as the source of transfer. On the other hand, *recency* in learning L3 French did not seem to influence the source of *CLI* in L4 English production in Muñoz (2006b), which, as commented above, may be related to the low *proficiency* of the participants in their L3. It is possible that the effect of *recency*, like *langu*age *distance* and probably *L2-status*, is also constrained by *proficiency*. On the other hand, as De Angelis (2007) points out, research indicates that languages not used recently or not used for a long time can also influence production in the TL.

The **order of acquisition** of the multilingual speaker's languages is likely to affect the association between the TL and another language and, therefore, influence the selection of this language as source of transfer. Dewaele (1998) shows that order of acquisition has a bearing on language activation and source selection. In their lexical inventions in L2/L3 French, Dewaele's (1998) participants with L2 French drew on their *L1* Dutch while those with L3 French relied more on their L2 English. Thus, the *L1* is more activated for those learners with L2 French, while the L2 English has a higher degree of activation for those who have acquired it after *L1* Dutch. In other words, Dewaele's (1998) participants transferred from the language acquired immediately before the TL.

The relationship between meaning-based and form-based *CLI* with the selection of an *L1* or a non-native language was pointed out by Ringbom (1987) and has been confirmed through later research (De Angelis & Selinker, 2001; Trévisiol, 2006). According to Ringbom (1987), transfer of **meaning** is usually due to *L1* influence, irrespective of *language distance* between the source and the TL. This is so because semantic transfer involves high fluency and command. For this reason, transfer of meaning can also take place from a non-native language if command in that language attains a threshold level. **Form** can be transferred from the *L1* or a non-native language according to *language distance* (De Angelis & Selinker, 2001; Tremblay, 2006; Trévisiol, 2006).

Transfer of **content** and transfer of **function words** also seem to operate in different ways in the selection of the source language. De Angelis (2007: 44) discusses that multilingual speakers transfer function words from a non-native language rather than from their *L1*, like in Ringbom (1987) and Williams & Hammarberg (1998). However, other studies show contradictory results as function words were transferred mostly from the L1 (see, for instance, De Angelis, 2005b; Jarvis & Odlin, 2000; Trévisiol, 2006). In Cenoz (2001), transfer of both function and content words was related to language *typology*, but not to the L1 or the L2. The evidence provided by research suggests that the use of non-native function words seems to be restricted by *language distance* or *psychotypology* (De Angelis, 2005b; Cenoz, 2001) and type of function words, as pronouns seem more transferable from an L2 than other categories of function words (De Angelis, 2005b; Jarvis, 2000).

4.5. Research on cross-linguistic influence in immigrant contexts. The case of Catalonia

Research on language influence phenomena in immigrant learners is scarce and, to the best of my knowledge, it is related to SLA with a focus on the factors of successful acquisition of the L2. Some studies are concerned with the role of the L1 in SLA success, focusing on aspects such as literacy in the L1 (Brizić, 2006; Elder & Davies, 2010), phonological similarity (Wang, Park & Lee, 2006) or grammatical closeness (Sharma, 2005). Other studies are concerned with

language loss, transfer from the L1 in the L2 and the effects of *AoA*, like Ramírez (2003) and Bahrick, Hall, Goggin, Bahrick, & Berger (1994). One of the few studies found on multilingual acquisition by immigrant learners is Stafford, Sanz & Wood Bowden (2010). This last study was concerned with the role of *AoA* in learning L3 Latin, but it did not address issues of *CLI*. One study specifically concerned with *CLI* in SLA by immigrant learners is Verhoeven (2007), who found transfer from the *L1* Turkish phonology in the L2 Dutch in immigrant young children in The Netherlands.

A strand of research on immigrants' language learning is related to the superior competence of multilingual learners. Such studies compare **language attainment** among multilingual immigrants with monolingual or bilingual local peers and the results indicate that, in general, immigrants' *achievement* in an additional L2 or FL is comparable or superior to non-immigrant learners (Brohy, 2001; Cenoz, 2011; Cenoz & Genesee, 1998; Cenoz & Jessner, 2009; Jessner, 1999; Lasagabaster, 2005b; Mägiste, 1984; Muñoz, 2000). The positive results involving immigrant learners may be even more siginificant of the superior language learning skills since, as Cenoz (2011) reminds, immigrants may face disadvantegous situations from a socioeconomic or cultural point of view.

The superiority of immigrant learners was also found in Ohlander (2009), the only study on *CLI* **among immigrant learners of EFL** found for this literature review. In this study, Ohlander (2009) analysed the results obtained by 142 Swedish based immigrant learners in the 2002 Survey of acquired skills in English at the end of compulsory school (grade 9). This survey was conducted in eight European countries, including Denmark, Finland and Spain in addition to Sweden (the results are described in Bonnet, 2004, as reported in Ohlander, 2009). Ohlander (2009) distinguishes two subsamples within the immigrants ("non-Swedish group"), who have a home language different from Sweden: those who were born in Sweden and those who were not. The former group outperformed the whole Swedish national sample, while the latter obtained the worst results. The language background in the immigrant group included Arabic, Spanish, Somali, Farsi/Dari, Kurdish, Turkish, and Bosnian/Croatian/Serbian. The author analyses *CLI* from either the participants' L1 or L2 (Swedish) in their acquisition of indefinite and definite

articles in English (through their anwers to multiple-choice questions in the survey). The results in Ohlander (2009), like those in Mägiste (1984), confirm that similarities between the source language and the TL lead to positive transfer. Thus, the influence of *L1* Spanish was more positive than the influence of *L1* Arabic and Turkish, more distant from English than Spanish. In a similar way, L2 Swedish, the closest language to English in the participants' linguistic profile, had the most positive influence on the participants' performance in English, which confirms previous research in the Finnish context (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008; Ringbom, 1987). The facilitating effect of Swedish in the production of L3 English can also be seen in the fact that those who were born in Sweden, more exposed to the L2, performed better (and showed less *CLI* from the L1) than those who were born elsewhere. However, it is difficult to gauge the contribution of *AoA* in the selection of L2 Sweden as source of language transfer as no indication of *AoA* was given. At the same time, differences in the article system beetwen English and some of the participants' *L1* did not lead to *CLI*, but made acquisition more difficult, with poorer article performance (Ohlander, 2009).

In Catalonia, empirical research on *CLI* in **immigrant learners** is not abundant either and it focuses on the role of the L1 in the acquisition of **L2 Spanish and Catalan**. Studies like Chireac (2010), Chireac *et al*. (2011), Garganta Saurí (2008), Gràcia (2007), Serrat *et al*. (2008), conducted in Barcelona, Lleida and Girona, have investigated the role of Romance L1s (Romanian, Italian) and non-Romance L1s (Chinese, Tagalog, Soninke). Their findings show that the participants' L1 had an influence on SLA. Chireac *et al*. (2011) and Chireac (2010) found that a longer length of stay in Catalonia led to less L1 transfer, which confirms research carried out in other contexts. However, the results of both studies on the role of *language distance* are contradictory. In Chireac (2010), an investigation of L1 influence among immigrant secondary school students, the oral production of Catalan and Spanish by the Chinese-speaking participants presented more mistakes due to L1 influence than their Romanian peers. On the other hand, Chireac *et al*. (2011) found that their participants, L1 Romanians, presented a level of competence in Spanish or Catalan similar to other immigrants with a non-

Romance L1. Chireac's (2010) results also point to the influence of *recency* and exposure, as the participants' production in Catalan was superior and presented fewer errors than it did in Spanish. We must relate this finding to the fact that Chireac's study (2010) was conducted in Lleida, where Catalan is the majority language, in contrast to Barcelona.

To the best of my knowledge, only one study has investigated *CLI* in EFL among immigrant learners in Catalonia (Ciruela Castillo, 2007). The findings of this study pointed out that the participants, secondary school learners, did not transfer from their L1s and selected Spanish with higher frequency than Catalan. The preference for Spanish as source language was determined by language *typology*, *L2-status* and *proficiency*, exposure and *recency* in Spanish. In the selection of Catalan, *AoA* seemed to play a role, as learners who arrived in Catalonia before age 3 transferred more from this language than those who arrived after age 11, but the difference was small.

4.6. Summary

Chapter 4 has reviewed literature on the influencing factors of *CLI* (i. e. on the factors that leads to higher numbers of *CLI*) and the factors of source selection in multilingual learners. Both types of factors include individual or learner-based variables, contextual factors and language-related variables. Some of them are, at the same time, influencing factors and factors of source selection, like metalinguistic awareness, *AO*, *proficiency* in the target language (individual factors) or *psychotypology* (a language-related factor). An individual factor, *affective variables*, has been pointed out as a possible influencing factor, but research is not conclusive.

The general considerations on *CLI* in multilingual learners were followed by empirical research on *CLI* in immigrant contexts, with a focus in Catalonia. As mentioned before, research on *attitudes* or *motivation* among immigrant learners focuses on SLA. Most studies conducted in Catalonia with immigrant samples are concerned with *CLI* in Catalan and Spanish (Chireac, 2010; Chireac *et al.*, 2011; Garganta, 2008; Gràcia, 2007; Serrat *et al.*, 2008). The evidence provided by these studies are contradictory in relation to the role of the L1s on

CLI in the target language, but they confirm previous research on the role of length of stay in the host country, as longer stay is related to lower indices of *CLI* (Chireac *et al.*, 2011; Chireac, 2010). Only one study on EFL among immigrant learners in Catalonia has been found: Ciruela Castillo (2007) found that *language typology*, *L2-status* and *recency* played a role in the selection of Spanish as the source language. The only study on EFL among immigrant learners in another national context, Ohlander (2009), has shown that the closeness of L2 Swedish and some of the L1 to English had a facilitating effect on the learning of the TL.

The review of relevant theoretical frameworks and research on *affective variables* (Chapter 3) and *CLI* in language learning wll be followed by Chapter 5 (The Study). This chapter includes a description of the Research Questions that lie behind our analysis, of the Research Context, the Participants, the Instruments and measures, the Procedure and Data Analysis.

5. The Study

5.1. Research Questions

The present study deals with *affective variables* and *CLI* in EFL in a sample of immigrant secondary-school learners in the area of Barcelona. Previous research with immigrant participants in Catalonia has focused on the acquisition of the two local languages (Spanish and Catalan). At the same time, the investigation of *affective variables* and *CLI* in EFL previously conducted in Catalonia had not usually included immigrant learners. The characterisation of both *affective variables* and *CLI* in our participants will be contrasted with previous research conducted with local participants.

In what follows, the Research Questions that lie behind the present study are explained:

Research Question 1:

a. *What are the participants'* **affective variables** *(attitudes and* perceived chances of success*) in studying EFL and the factors that promote them?*
b. *Is there a relationship between the participants'* affective variables *and their specific personal variables as immigrants (L1, AoA,* SP *and* RP*)?*
c. *Is there a relationship between the participants'* affective variables *and their achievement in EFL?*

As specified in **Research Question 1a**, *affective variables* in this study include four *attitudes* (*attitudes towards learning English*, *integrative attitudes*, *interest in an international community* and *instrumentality*) and *perceived chances of success* (*expected school mark* in English and *perceived ability in EFL according to L1*). According to the scores obtained for *attitudes* in each cross-sectional group and in the longitudinal sample, they will be interpreted as *negative*, *moderate* or *positive attitudes* to EFL. *Expected school mark* in English in the sample will be *Fail*, *Pass*, *Good*, *Very good* or *Excellent* (see Questionnaires in Appendices 1, 2 and 3). The scores in *affective*

variables among the immigrant Second cycle group will be compared to those in a group of local learners at the same school level.

The attitudinal constructs used in the present study were based on the scales created in the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMBT) used in research conducted under the Socio-Educational Model (Gardner, 1985b, 2004). However, the AMBT was adapted to the specifity of our study by reducing the number of measures and adding three additional constructs, labelled *interest in an international community, expected school mark in English* and *perceived ability in EFL according to L1*. The latter is a qualitative measure, while all the measures in the AMBT are quantitative. The reduction of the total number of items in the questionnaire aimed at not overloading the informants as they had to complete a sociolinguistic questionnaire and two narrative tasks (see section 5.4).

Research Question 1b aims at the role of the participants' specific personal variables as immigrants (*L1*, *AoA*, *SP* and *RP*). It is true that *L1* and *SP* are variables also found in local learners but they show specifities in the immigrant sample. To begin with, L1 can be Spanish or any of the other L1s (Arabic and Bereber, Moroccan Arabic, Russian, Georgian or Romanian) and it will be investigated whether having Spanish or other languages as mother tongues have a bearing on the immigrant participants' *affective variables*. Moreover, *SP* is usually lower among immigrant pupils (Janés, 2006).

Concerning **Research Question 1c**, it has already been mentioned that we did not include a *motivation* construct since we assumed that *attitudes* contribute to *motivation*al intensity and effort, which in turn influences *achievement* in the TL. Therefore, our position entails the belief that *affective variables* are the source of *achievement* and not their result. Our assumption is based on the findings obtained by research conducted under the Socio-educational paradigm (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Clément, Gardner & Smythe, 1977, 1980; Gardner, 1960, 2007; Gardner & Lambert, 1959; 1972; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Gardner, Tremblay & Masgoret, 1997; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995).

Research Question 2:

a. *Do the participants draw on* ***other languages*** *in their oral and written lexical production in English? If so, what is the relationship between* cross-linguistic influence *and the participants'* achievement *in EFL, their personal variables and their* affective variables*?*
b. *If the participants use other languages, which are these languages and the factors of source selection? What functions do these languages perform?*

Research Question 2 concerns exclusively lexical *CLI* because previous research in the same context (Ciruela Castillo, 2007) has shown that L2 influence was clearer in vocabulary than in syntax.

Research Question 2a analyses whether the participants draw on other languages in their lexical production in English. It is also concerned with the variables that can lead to higher numbers of transferred items: *achievement* in the TL, the participants' personal variables (*L1, AoA, SP* and *RP*) and *affective variables*.

Research Question 2b tackles source selection in the participants' *CLI* and the factors influencing language choice. Several variables have been pointed out as having an influence on source selection. To begin with, *language distance* or *psychotypology*, which seems to have a higher impact in lexical *CLI* than in syntactical or morphological transfer (Martínez Adrián, 2008; Ó Laoire & Singleton, 2009). As some of the participants' *L1s* are more distant from English than the two local languages, it was assumed that the results in the present study could shed light on the role of *psychotypology* in source selection. Another factor of source selection included in the study is *recency*. Despite inconsistencies on the role of this factor in previous research, we can argue that *recency*, together with related variables such as *exposure* to a non-native language, *length of residence* in the community of this language and *proficiency* in that non-native language, may enhance the possibility that a language be selected as source. Thus, it is possible to argue that the combined effect of *exposure* to Spanish and Catalan and length of residence in Catalonia in our participants may play a role in the source of transfer. For this reason we included the variable *AoA* in our analysis.

In the **cross-sectional study**, the comparison of indices in both *affective variables* and *CLI* can shed light on the role of *school level*, which combines *age* and accumulated *hours of instruction* and, therefore, *achievement* in the TL. In the case of *CLI* in this study, *school level* is expected in this study to be associated with a lower *amount of CLI* in light of previous research. However, we also argue that *school level* and accumulated *hours of instruction* can have an effect on *affective variables*. For instance, accumulated *exposure* to English through instruction and the media (in class and outside it) can also have a bearing on *attitudes* and *expected school mark* in English. The results concerning *hours of instruction* (approximately 200 hours) will be tested in the **longitudinal study**, which follows 24 out of the 92 learners in the cross-sectional study throughout the two academic years in which data collection took place. As we mentioned before, the fact that the same learners are followed from the first collection year to the second allows us to control for other individual factors. Unlike the cross-sectional study, the longitudinal analysis is only concerned with the evolution of indices of (quantitative) *affective variables* and *CLI*, but not on their relationship with other variables, which is analysed in the cross-sectional study. Therefore, the longitudinal study only analyses Research Questions 1a and 2a, since it could not shed additional light on the relationship of *affective variables* and *CLI* with *achievement*.

5.2. Research Context

The data for the study were provided by participants in three secondary state-run schools in the area of Barcelona. In order to obtain a large enough sample for the study, the schools selected for data collection are located in areas with a high percentage of immigrants in comparison with the rest of Catalonia, especially School 1 and School 3 (see Table 4 below). The schools are located in two *comarques* (a *comarca* is an administrative territorial division comprising a number of municipalities), Vallès Occidental (School 2) and Baix Llobregat (School 1 and School 3).

Table 4. Immigration figures in the towns of Castellbisbal, Cornellà de Llobregat and Sant Boi de Llobregat in 2010 (based on data provided by the Statistical Institute of Catalonia, n.d.b, n.d.g)

Area	Total Population	Foreign population	Percentage out of total population in the municipality
Castellbisbal	12,223	894	7.31%
Cornellà de Llobregat	87,240	15,498	17.76%
Sant Boi de Llobregat	82,411	8,522	10.34%

In Castellbisbal, Cornellà de Llobregat and Sant Boi de Llobregat, Morocco is, like in the whole autonomy, the most common country of origin, which accounts for 20.92%, 26.21% and 33.03% of the total foreign population repectively. Ecuador is the second nationality with most representation in both Cornellà de Llobregat (18.99% of the foreign population) and Sant Boi de Llobregat (8.86%), whereas in Castellbisbal, the second most common nationality among immigrants is Romanian (8.39%).

School 1, located in the municipality of Sant Boi de Llobregat, is a big school with compulsory Secondary Education and Catalan Baccaleaureate. School 2, in Castellbisbal, is smaller than the other two schools, but it includes vocational and professional training. Finally, School 3, in Cornellà de Llobregat, is the biggest of the three and the one that boasts the highest number of services. It also offers a great number of vocational and professional training programmes. See Appendix 7. Distribution of participants among schools in the cross-sectional study, Appendix 8. Distribution of the local learners among schools in the cross-sectional study and Appendix 9. Distribution of participants among schools in the longitudinal study.

5.3. Participants

5.3.1. Introduction

The participants were learners of immigrant family origin who, in most cases, had been born outside Catalonia. All of the participants in the study had at least one year of residence in Catalonia, which ensured that their *proficiency* in Spanish and Catalan was enough for them to be able to use the languages (see

De Angelis, 2007). For the rest of characteristics, the sample was chosen at random. The age group to which the participants belong to (between 12 and 18 years old) is the most appropriate for an attitudinal study, since language *attitudes* begin to be more stable at around the age of 12 (Baker, 1992).

The method underlying the present study includes both a **longitudinal study** (conducted from December 2009 to June 2011) and a cross-sectional study in the 2009-2010 and 2010-2011 school years (see Table 5 below, where the collections with the same group of longitudinal participitants are linked using arrows and the cross-sectional groups are marked in the same colour). The **cross-sectional** study analyses data at each school level in Secondary and Post-compulsory education (First cycle, Second cycle and Post-compulsory education) at the beginning of the 2009-2010 and 2010-2011 school years. The cross-sectional data in ESO2 and ESO3 were complemented through new data collection in 2010-2011. In addition, a local group of learners in Second cycle were included in the cross-sectional study to compare their results on *affective variables* with those among the immigrant participants at the same school level.

Table 5. Cross-sectional and longitudinal groups (by school level, school grade and collection time)

2009-2010 school year	2010-2011 school year
ESO 1 (cycle 1)	**ESO 2**
1st collection time December 2009(n=1) → 2nd collection time June 2010 (n=1)	3rd collection time November 2010 (n=1) → 4th collection time June 2011 (n=1)
1st collection time February 2010(n=11) → 2nd collection time June 2010 (n=10) 1st collection time February 2010(n=1) →	3rd collection time November 2010 (n=7) → 4th collection time June 2011 (n=7) 2nd collection time November 2010 (n=2) → 3rd collection time June 2011 (n=1)
	New data collection 1st collection time November 2010(n=2) → 2nd collection time June 2011 (n=2)
ESO 2 (cycle 1)	**ESO3**
1st collection time December 2009(n=2) → 2nd collection time June 2010 (n=2)	3rd collection time November 2010 (n=1) → 4th collection time June 2011 (n=2)
1st collection time February 2010(n=9) → 2nd collection time June 2010 (n=7) 1st collection time February 2010(n=7) →	3rd collection time November 2010 (n=5) → 4th collection time June 2011 (n=4) 2nd collection time November 2010 (n=7) → 3rd collection time June 2011 (n=6)
	New data collection 1st collection time November 2010 (n=6) → 2nd collection time November 2010 (n=4)
ESO 3 (cycle 2)	**ESO 4**
1st collection time December 2009(n=6) → 2nd collection time June 2010 (n=5)	3rd collection time November 2010 (n=4) → 4th collection time June 2011 (n=3)
1st collection time February 2010 (n=3) →	2nd collection time November 2010 (n=1) → 3rd collection time June 2011 (n=1)
ESO4 (cycle 2)	**PSC1**
1st collection time February 2010 (n=7) →	2nd collection time November 2010 (n= 5) → 3rd collection time June 2011 (n=3)
	1st collection time November 2010 (n=2) → 2nd collection time June 2011 (n=1)
PSC1	***PSC2***
1st collection time February 2010 (n=2) →	1st collection time February 2010 (n=1) → 2nd collection time May 2011 (n=1)

5.3.2. Participants in the cross-sectional study

As Table 6 shows, the **cross-sectional subsample** includes 92 secondary school students (aged 12-18) of immigrant origin, with 39 male learners (42.39%) and 53 females (57.61%). As commented above, there are three groups of participants: First cycle (ESO1 and ESO2, aged 12-13), Second cycle (ESO3 and ESO4, aged 14-15) and Post-compulsory group (PSC1 and PSC2, aged 16-17). In

order to have a sample as large as possible in the cross-sectional study, some of the immigrant participants in 2009/2010 who had passed the course also took the instruments in 2010/2011 and these data were added to the data collected in the corresponding grade in the previous school year (2009/2010).

Table 6. Participants in the cross-sectional study (*n*=92). School level, grade and gender

GENDER	males		females		TOTAL	
ESO1	5	(38.46%)	8	(61.54%)	**13**	**(14.13%)**
ESO2	13	(46.43%)	15	(53.57%)	**28**	**(30.43%)**
First cycle	*18*	*(43.90%)*	*23*	*(56.10%)*	***41***	***(100.00%)***
ESO3	12	(42.86%)	16	(57.14%)	**28**	**(30.43%)**
ESO4	5	(41.67%)	7	(58.33%)	**12**	**(13.04%)**
Second cycle	*17*	*(42.50%)*	*23*	*(57.50%)*	***40***	***(100.00%)***
PSC1	4	(50.00%)	4	(50.00%)	**8**	**(8.70%)**
PSC2	0	(0.00%)	3	(100.00%)	**3**	**(3.26%)**
PSC	*4*	*(36.36%)*	*7*	*(63.64%)*	***11***	***(100.00%)***
TOTAL	***39***	***(42.39%)***	***53***	***(57.61%)***	***92***	

The variable *AoA* divided learners into those who were born in Catalonia and those who arrived before the age of 6, between ages 6 and 12 and, finally, at an age older than 12. *AoA* has an implication as for schooling in Catalonia as those who arrived before age 6 has completed primary school in the host country, while those who arrived after 6 but before 12 have started Secondary Education in Catalonia. As Table 7 shows, the majority of learners in the three groups arrived in Spain between ages 6 and 12 (see Table 7).

Table 7. Distribution of the variable *AoA* in the cross-sectional sample

AoA	Born in Catalonia		Before *age* 6		Between 6 and 12		After *age* 12	
ESO1	0	(0.00%)	6	(46.15%)	7	(53.85%)	0	(0.00%)
ESO2	1	(3.57%)	9	(32.14%)	18	(64.29%)	0	(0.00%)
First cycle (n=41)	*1*	*(2.44%)*	*15*	*(36.59%)*	*25*	*(60.98%)*	*0*	*(0.00%)*
ESO3	5	(17.86%)	5	(17.86%)	17	(60.71%)	1	(3.57%)
ESO4	3	(25.00%)	0	(0.00%)	7	(58.33%)	2	(16.67%)
Second cycle (n=40)	*8*	*(20.00%)*	*5*	*(12.50%)*	*24*	*(60.00%)*	*3*	*(7.50%)*
BATXILLERAT1	2	(25.00%)	0	(0.00%)	5	(62.50%)	1	(12.50%)
BATXILLERAT2	0	(0.00%)	0	(0.00%)	2	(66.67%)	1	(33.33%)
Batxillerat (n=11)	***2***	***(18.18%)***	***0***	***(0.00%)***	***7***	***(63.64%)***	***2***	***(18.18%)***
TOTAL	**11**	**(11.96%)**	**20**	**(21.74%)**	**56**	**(60.87%)**	**5**	**(5.43%)**

Table 8 below presents the participants' *L1*. The data show that most of the participants are speakers of *L1* Spanish, as they come from South America. The second most common *L1* among our participants is Moroccan Arabic. In addition to Catalan, Spanish, other mother tongues and English, some participants reported to have an additional language, i. e., French, which they were learning as a second foreign language at school.

Table 8. *L1* distribution among the sample (*n*=92)

L1	First cycle (*n*=41)		Second cycle (*n*=40)		Post-compulsory (*n*=11)		TOTAL (*n*=92)	
Spanish	*31*	*(75.6%)*	*25*	*(62.5%)*	*8*	*(72.7%)*	*64*	*(69.6%)*
Other languages:	*10*	*(24.4%)*	*15*	*(37.5%)*	*3*	*(27.3%)*	*28*	*(30.4%)*
Arabic and Bereber	2	(4.88%)	2	(5.00%)	0	(0%)	4	(4.35%)
Moroccan Arabic	6	(14.63%)	12	(30.00%)	1	(9.09%)	19	(20.65%)
Russian	2	(4.88%)	0	(0%)	0	(0%)	2	(2.17%)
Georgian	0	(0 %)	1	(2.50%)	1	(9.09%)	2	(2.17%)
Romanian	0	(0%)	0	(0%)	1	(9.09%)	1	(1.09%)

The participants' parents in our sample have mainly a low *SP* (see Table 9). According to the informants' answers, more than 70% of the parents of the learners in First cycle and Second cycle exerted a profession with a low qualification profile, while the percentage was 54.55% in the Post-compulsory group. No immigrant participant had parents with a high professional profile.

Table 9. Parental socio-professional status among cross-sectional immigrant participants

	Socio-professional status					
Group	**Low**		**Middle**		**High**	
First cycle (*n*=40)	31	(77.50%)	9	(22.50%)	0	(0.00%)
Second cyle (*n*=39)	28	(71.79%)	11	(28.21%)	0	(0.00%)
Batxillerat (*n*=11)	6	(54.55%)	5	(45.45%)	0	(0.00%)
TOTAL (*n*=90)	65	(72.22%)	25	(27.78%)	0	(0.00%)

Finally, the data in Table 10 show that most of the participants' families have not planned to go back to their countries of origin (83.70%). The percentage of participants who answered that their parents intended to return to their countries is the lowest in Second cycle (10%), while such a percentage is the highest in First cycle (21.59%). In Post-compulsory education, it is 18.18%.

Table 10. Return plans among cross-sectional immigrant participants

	Return plans			
Group	**Yes**		**No**	
First cycle (*n*=41)	9	(21.59%)	32	(78.05%)
Second cyle (*n*=40)	4	(10%)	36	(90%)
Batxillerat (*n*=11)	2	(18.18%)	9	(81.82%)
TOTAL (*n*=92)	15	(16.30%)	77	(83.70%)

5.3.3. Local participants in the cross-sectional study

A group of local students (born in Catalonia, except for one participant who was born in another region of Spain) in Second cycle (n=16) was included. Some of these local participants are first- or second-generation immigrants from other regions of spain, while others are of Catalan background. This local group took the instruments in two collection times (November 2010 and June 2011). Table 11 shows the gender distribution among local participants. Like in the immigrant participants, there are more female learners than males.

Table 11. Local participants (school year and gender)

GENDER	males		females		TOTAL	
ESO3	5	(33.33%)	10	(66.67%)	**15**	**(93.75%)**
ESO4	1	(100.00%)	0	(0.00%)	**1**	**(6.75%)**
Second cycle	*6*	*(37.50%)*	*10*	*(62.50%)*	***16***	

As Table 12 shows, within the local subsample, the *L1*s among the participants are more uniform across learners, as it is Spanish in 87.50%of them, while one participant (6.25%) has Catalan as his L1 and another one was a balanced Spanish/Catalan bilingual (6.25%).

Table 12. L1 distribution among local participants

L1	Second cycle (*n*=16)
Spanish	14 (87.50%)
Catalan	1 (6.25%)
Spanish/Catalan bilingual	1 (6.25%)

Table 13 below displays the figures for the percentages of *SP* in the local Second group. The data shows that SP is mostly low (50.00%), but there are

more participants with a middle socio-professional status (43.75%) than in the immigrant groups.

Table 13. Socio-professional status among local participants

	Socio-professional status					
Group	**Low**		**Middle**		**High**	
Second cyle (n=16)	8	(50.00%)	7	43.75%	1	(6.25%)

5.3.4. Participants in the longitudinal study

The longitudinal study includes participants (*n*=24) who underwent the first data collection time (at the beginning of the 2009/2010 school year) and the last of the collection times (at the end of 2010/2011). Initially, the original sample for the longitudinal study included the participants from ESO1 to PSC1 who underwent four or three collection times, divided into four groups (ESO1-ESO2, ESO2-ESO3, ESO3-ESO4 and ESO4-PSC1 groups). However, the resulting size in the ESO3-ESO4 and ESO4-PSC1 groups was stoo small (*n*=5 in both groups), so it was decided to include only those participants who were administered the instruments through ESO 1 to ESO2 (*n*=10) and those who took them from ESO2 to ESO3 (*n*=14). The participants in this latter group moved from First cycle to Second cycle[19]. Table 14 below presents the participants in each of these two groups in each of the collections.

[19] In the longitudinal study, the collection that took place in June 2011 (see Table 14) will be referred to as "last collection time".

Table 14. Participants in each of collections in the longitudinal sample

2009-2010 school year	2010-2011 school year
ESO 1	**ESO 2 (cycle end)**
1st collection time December 2009 (*n*=1)	**4th collection time** June 2011 (*n*=1)
1st collection time February 2010 (*n*=8)	**4th collection time** June 2011 (*n*=8)
February 2010 (*n*=1)	**3rd collection time** June 2011 (*n*=1)
ESO 2 (cycle end)	**ESO3**
1st collection time December 2009 (*n*=2)	**4th collection time** June 2011 (*n*=2)
1st collection time February 2010 (*n*=6)	**4th collection time** June 2011 (*n*=6)
February 2010 (*n*=6)	**3rd collection time** June 2011 (*n*=6)

The characteristics of the longitudinal subsample are similar to the cross-sectional participants. Thus, there are more female learners than male learners (see Table 15). Likewise, the distribution of learners across schools show that the percentage of learners enrolled in school 3, the biggest of the three schools, is higher than in the two other schools (see Table 68 in Appendix 9. Distribution of participants among schools in the longitudinal study). As Table 13 shows, the most common *AoA* in the ESO2-ESO3 is between age six and 12, like in the cross-sectional study. On the other hand, the participants in the ESO1-ESO2 group arrived either before age 6 or between ages 6 and 12 in the same percentage (50.00%). Like in the cross-sectional study, *L1* Spanish is also more common than the rest of *L1*s, but the percentage for the former *L1* is lower than in the cross-sectional study. Moroccan Arabic is also the second most common language in the sample (see Table 14). The figures for the participants' *SP* also replicated those in the cross-sectional sample. The level most frequently represented in our sample is low, followed by a middle level, while high *SP* was not to be found in neither longitudinal group (see Table 18). Finally, the data in Table 19 show that most of the participants in the

longitudinal group reported that their families did not have *RP* (70% in the ESO1-ESO2 and 85.71% in the ESO2-ESO3 group).

Table 15. Participants in the longitudinal study (*n*=24). School level and gender

Academic years		Participants					
2009/2010	2010/2011	Male		Female		Total	
ESO1	ESO2	4	(40.00%)	6	(60.00%)	*10*	*(32.26%)*
ESO2	ESO3	7	(50.00%)	7	(50.00%)	*14*	*(45.16%)*
		11	*(45.83%)*	*13*	*(54.17%)*		

Table 16. Distribution of the variable *AoA* in the longitudinal sample (*n*=24)

AoA	Born in Catalonia		Before *age* 6		Between 6 and 12		After *age* 12	
ESO1-ESO2 (n=10)	0	(0.00%)	5	(50.00%)	5	(50.00%)	0	(0.00%)
ESO2-ESO3 (n=14)	1	(7.14%)	4	(28.57%)	9	(64.29%)	0	(0.00%)
TOTAL (n=24)	**1**	**(4.17%)**	**9**	**(37.50%)**	**14**	**(58.33%)**	**0**	**(0.00%)**

Table 17. *L1* distribution among the longitudinal participants (*n*=24)

L1	ESO1-ESO2 (*n*=10)		ESO2-ESO3 (n=14)		*TOTAL (n=24)*	
Spanish	*9*	*(90.00%)*	*8*	*(57.14%)*	*17*	*(70.83%)*
Other languages:	*1*	*(10.00%)*	*6*	*(42.86%)*	*7*	*(29.17%)*
Arabic and Bereber	1	(10.00%)	3	(21.43%)	4	*(16.67%)*
Moroccan Arabic	0	(0.00%)	2	(14.29%)	2	*(8.33%)*
Russian	0	(0.00%)	1	(7.14%)	1	*(4.17%)*

Table 18. Longitudinal participants' socio-professional status (*n*=23)

	Socio-professional status					
	Low		Middle		High	
ESO 1-ESO2 (*n*=10)	7	(70.00%)	3	(30.00%)	0	(0.00%)
ESO2-ESO3 (*n*=13)	12	(92.31%)	1	(7.69%)	0	(0.00%)
TOTAL* (n=*23)	*19*	*(82.61%)*	*4*	*(17.39)*	*0*	*(0.00%)*

Table 19. Return plans in the longitudinal participants (*n*=24)

	Return plans			
Group	Yes		No	
ESO 1-ESO2 (*n*=10)	3	(30%)	7	(70%)
ESO2-ESO3 (*n*=14)	2	(14.29%)	12	(85.71%)
TOTAL (n=24)	*5*	*(20.83%)*	*19*	*(79.17%)*

5.4. Instruments and measures

Several types of instruments and measures were used in the present study to gather data on the participants' language learning background, *affective variables*, *proficiency* in English, Catalan and Spanish, and the use of other languages. The instruments and measures included two structured questionnaires, two narratives and the participants' school marks in English, Spanish and Catalan.

5.4.1. Questionnaires

The first of the two structured questionnaires (see Appendix 1. Structured questionnaires 1 and 2 (Spanish version), Appendix 2. Structured questionnaires 1 and 2 (Catalan version) and Appendix 3. Structured questionnaires 1 and 2 (English version)) was concerned with sociolinguistic information and required the participants to provide information on variables such as their *AoA* in Catalonia (or any other region in Spain before settling up in Catalonia), their languages and patterns of use, and the *order of acquisition* of such languages, among other variables that potentially have a bearing on language learning and

CLI. The second questionnaire was concerned with the participants' *attitudes*, *expectations of sucess* and native language use in learning English.

The sociolinguistic questionnaire used in the present study was adapted from the structured questionnaire used in a previous piece of research (Ciruela Castillo, 2007). Like the original version, the sociolinguistic questionnaire was written in Spanish since it is the language which the participants are more familiar with, leaving aside their respective *L1*s. A version in Catalan was also available in case participants required it (Appendix 2. Structured questionnaires 1 and 2 (Catalan version)). The questionnaire was designed with the intention of requiring the minimum possible effort on the learners' part, as they only had to tick items or write some words.

The *affective variables* questionnaire was specifically written for the present study. It was designed following Gass & MacKey's (2007) and Dörnyei's (2000, 2003b, 2007) sugggestions and adapted from *motivation* questionnaires used by Dörnyei (1990), Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels (1994), Baker (1992) and Gardner's (2004) English-language version of the AMTB (Attitude/Motivation Test Battery). Some of these questionnaires, like the one in Gardner (2004), have been used in foreign-language contexts. The version of Gardner's AMTB used in 2004 belongs to the International AMTB Research Project and a translated version of it has been administered to secondary school students of EFL in Brazil, Croatia, Japan, Poland, Romania, and Catalonia. Gardner's AMTB, like the questionnaires by Dörnyei (1990) and Clément *et al*. (1994), has a wider scope and a more learner- and classroom-specific approach and includes items related to the classroom, language-use *anxiety*, the teacher's role and parental encouragement, etc. However, the present investigation is concerned with *integrative attitudes*, *instrumentality* as well as *perceived chances of success* without tackling issues related to the teacher, the teaching methodology or the materials used, since the former factors are related to cultural social variables that make our participants different from local students. In other words, the participants come from countries where learning English, the Anglo-Saxon community or the international community expressing itself in English may be seen in a different way from the way they are regarded in Catalonia.

The questionnaire consists of 28 items: 25 five-point Lickert items and 3 final multiple-choice items. The Lickert scales ask the participants to specify their endorsement to each of the statements marking 1, 2, 3, 4 or 5, which are equivalent, respectively, to *no/nothing, a little, neither too much nor too little, quite, yes/ a lot*. The items in the questionnaire address the following variables: *attitudes towards learning English*, *integrative attitudes* (attitudes towards the Anglo-saxon community), *interest in an international English-speaking community*, *instrumentality*, *perceived chances of success* and, finally, *reported L1 use* and *functions* in class. The scales within each of the variable are as follows:

1. *Attitudes towards learning English:*
   (a) *Easiness in learning English* (1 item)
   (b) *Worth of learning English* (2 items)
   (c) *Interest in learning English* (4 items)
   (d) *Pleasure in learning English* (1 item)
2. *Integrative attitudes (identification with the Anglo-Saxon community):*
   (a) *Interest in English-speaking artists* (1 item)
   (b) *Attitudes towards the English and the Americans* (3 items)
   (c) *Identification with the English and the Americans* (2 items)
3. *Interest in an international English-speaking community:*
   (a) *Understanding the media in English (4 items)*
   (b) *Communication with foreigners (2 items)*
4. *Instrumentality:*
   (a) *Importance of English for their future studies* (1 item)
   (b) *Importance of English for their job perspectives* (3 items)
   (c) *Usefulness of English to travel* (1 item)
5. *Perceived chances of success:*
   (a) *Expected school mark (1 multiple-choice question)*
   (b) *Perceived ability according to L1* (1 multiple-choice question and 1 open-ended question about the reason given to justify the option endorsed)
6. *Reported L1 use* and *reported L1 functions* (1 double multiple-choice question)

In order to check the validity of the the questionnaire, it was submitted to a researcher who had investigated *motivation* in EFL in Catalonia (Martínez Rico, 2006) for supervision and then it was piloted (see section 5.5). In addition, the internal consistency of the questionnaire on *affective variables* was checked through Cronbach alpha test. The mean Cronbach's alpha internal consistency reliability coefficient of the factors (items 1-25) was 0.858, above the minimum value for the test to be considered reliable. Finally, a test of the factorial internal validity was carried out.

As explained in sections 3.5 and 3.7.2, the role of *integrative attitudes* or *motivation* in foreign languages settings is controversial. Some researchers have reformulated the concept to adapt it to contexts where contact with the target language community is not available, i. e., as a desire to integrate into an international community which expresses itself in English as a non-native language. For this reason, the variable *interest in an international English-speaking community* has been included in the present study. It would be conceptually similar to Dörnyei's (1990: 69) *integrative motivational subsystem in FLL*, Yashima's (2002) *international posture* (*attitudes* towards the international community), or *integrativeness* in Lamb (2004). In this latter study, *integrativeness* in learning EFL has lost its connection with a specific Anglo-saxon community. *Integrative motivational subsystem in FLL* is broader and more general than Gardner's concept and therefore refers to an interest in foreign languages and cultures in general. It is composed of four components. The last component, desire *to integrate into a new community*, is partially *integrative* and, at the same time, partially *instrumental*. As Lamb (2004) and Dörnyei (1990) suggest, *instrumentality* and *integrativeness* in FLL is difficult to separate completely.

5.4.2. School marks

School marks in English are, together with *written mark* and *oral mark* (see section 5.4.3), measures of *achievement in EFL* employed in the present study. *School marks in English* were used to complement *written* and *oral mark* and to be related to scores in *attitudes* and *expected school mark in English* since they refer to the same scale in each grade and school level. In Catalonia, *school*

marks range from 1 to 10, with 1 being the lowest mark and 10 the highest and 5 being the passing *school mark*. Sometimes, numerical school marks are grouped in the following way: Fail (1-4), Pass (5), Good (6), Very good (7-8) and Excellent (9-10). The results in the participants' *achievement* in English have been organized into these categories. In contrast to *written mark* and *oral mark*, *school mark* categories are the same within each grade and school level. A general *achievement* scale which would discriminate between the three school levels would not be a reliable measure to be related to *affective variables*, as a learner in First cycle and another in Post-compulsory education with the same attitudinal level would show different indices of *achievement* in such a scale.

In addition to *school marks in English*, *school marks in Catalan* and *Spanish* were also included. Controlling for the participants' *proficiency* in the two local languages in Catalonia was necessary so as to analyse issues of source selection, as *proficiency* in the source has been highlighted as a factor of transfer from a non-native language (see section 4.4.3.2).

Finally, the objective behind using *school marks* instead of a *proficiency* tests was not to overload the participants with too many instruments, as they were asked to answer two questionnaires and produce an oral and a written version of a narrative in at least two colletion times (see section 5.4.3 below).

5.4.3. Linguistic production tasks

The oral and written production tasks gave insight on both the participants' *proficiency* and their use of other languages or *CLI*. Language production was elicited through a picture description and story telling task called the "**Dog Story**" (Heaton, 1966; see Appendix 4), which required the participants to produce both a written and an oral version of the narrative. The "Dog Story" consists in describing a story represented in six vignettes, which show how two children are going to a picnic while their dog is hiding in their basket (see pilot study in section 5.5). The "Dog Story" can be used with learners with low to advanced levels, since those with lower *proficiency* may be able to at least describe the pictures without narrating the story they represent and those with higher *proficiency* can narrate the story. As the "Dog Story" has been used in

previous research (Muñoz, 2006c), their findings can be compared with the results in the present study.

As we mentioned before, the written and oral narratives were used to analyse the participants' **use of other languages** in their production in English. As Navés, Torras & Celaya (2003), point out, written production has the advantage of enabling the researcher to administer it to large samples of participants. Oral production also seems an adequate instrument to analyse language development and issues of *CLI*. As oral production is an online processing task, it poses more difficulties to the speakers since they have less time to plan their production and retrieve words. For that reason, *CLI* phenomena, which relates to communication problems arisen by lack of knowledge in the target language, are more abundant in oral tasks than in writing (Agustín Llach, 2010; Celaya, 2007). In addition, the use of both types of narratives is necessary in order to analyse the role of task effect in amount and type of *CLI* (see section 4.4.3.3).

A second goal of using two narrative tasks is determining the participants' **proficiency in EFL** through the measures labelled *written mark* and *oral mark* for their written and oral expression skills, respectively. They are additional measures of *proficiency* besides *school marks* (see section 5.4.2) used for two reasons. First of all, narratives are an ideal instrument to gauge second language development (Kellerman, 2001). Secondly, *written mark* and *oral mark* are relative measures of *proficiency* in English in relation to a global scale for all the participants disregarding their grade or school level. In other words, both a learner in ESO1 and another student in PSC2 can have a *school mark* in English of 5, but their attainment will not be the same. As school marks do not discriminate language attainment across the three school levels, they cannot be related to indices of *CLI*.

The learners' performance in both the oral and written tasks was assessed from 0 to 10 according to a holistic rating scale divided into five descriptive bands (see Appendix 5. Bands for written assessment and Appendix 6. Bands for oral assessment). The bands ranged from the lowest level of *proficiency* to the highest level and there were two further possible marks within each band according to relative *proficiency* in English. Band 0,

corresponding to the lowest degree of attainment, was given when words were written in a language or languages other than English. Written production with a topic different from the expected one was not contemplated in the bands. If production did not fulfill the task, i. e. when a self-introduction composition was produced instead of a narrative text, then no mark was given, as 0 would involve that the participant was not able to produce in English. The written task bands included fluency, complexity (lexical and syntactical), accuracy and intelligibility (see Appendix 5. Bands for written assessment). The oral task bands included fluency, complexity (lexical and syntactical), accuracy and pronunciation (see Appendix 6. Bands for oral assessment). The bands were based both on those used in one of the schools where data collection was carried out (School 3) and the ones used for assessing official exams at the Official School of Languages (*Escoles Oficials d'Idiomes* or *EOIs*).

5.5. Procedure

5.5.1. Pilot study

The collection of the data was preceded by a pilot study intended at testing both the structured questionnaire and the language production tasks (see section 5.4.). The sociolinguistic background and the linguistic questionnaires were piloted in order to check whether they were clear for the participants.

For the pilot sample to be representative, one student per level was selected (ESO1, ESO2, ESO3, ESO4 and PSC1). In addition, the participants in the pilot study belonged to different language backgrounds (South American, Chinese, Moroccan, Eastern European). The total number of participants in the pilot study was therefore 5. The piloting of the instruments was carried out at School 3 at the beginning of the 2009/2010 school year. The participants in the pilot study were not included in the study. As a result of the pilot study, the questionnaire and the instruments were improbed by eliminating some items in the questionnaire.

5.5.2. Data collection

Data collection was carried out during the 2009/2010 and 2010/2011 school years at four collection times in school 1, three collection times in school 2 and three or four (depending on the group) in school 3. Oral data were collected individually and the participants were tape-recorded, while the written instruments were administered collectively in the classroom. Data collection was carried out by the author of this thesis in all cases. The instruments and the procedure were the same at all data collection times. As in Celaya, Torras & Pérez-Vidal (2001), we followed Wolfe-Quintero, Inagaki & Kim's (1998) suggestion that the tasks used in a study must have the same topic and the same time alloted in order for results to be comparable.

Data collection was intended to start in October 2009. However, due to several difficulties inherent to the mechanisms of every school this first data collection took longer than initially planned. After previous contacts and permission requests, the participants were administered the instruments in December 2009 (School 1) and in February 2010 (School 2 and School 3).

In the 2009/2010 school year the instruments were administered to a total of 75 immigrant students, with a representation of the South American, Moroccan and, to a lesser extent, Eastern-European communities. However, only 60 participants out of the initial number of participants were included in the final sample for several reasons. The participants who were ruled out were those who produced the language output instruments in Spanish, who had left school after the first collection time, who refused to carry out the following collections or those who became repeaters in the 2010/2011 school year. It must be mentioned that some of the learners in the sample did not take all the instruments at some of the collections because they were not available when one or more of the instruments were administered or it was impossible for the school to enable the data collection at this particular time (this was the case with School 2 in the second collection time, in June 2010).

In the 2010/2011 year, new immigrant and local participants were further gathered to complete the cross-sectional study (see 5.3. Participants). The new immigrant learners were included in order to increase the size of grades with little representation in the initial sample, i. e., ESO3, PSC1 and

PSC2. However, due to the scarcer number of immigrant learners in Post-compulsory education, only new immigrant participants in ESO3 were found.

Finally, the last measures collected were the participants' *school marks* in English, Catalan and Spanish in the two academic years. They were gathered at the end of the 2010/2011 school year.

5.6. Data analysis

5.6.1. Introduction

The data collected through the instruments and measures (the structured questionnaires, the language tasks and the participants' *school mark*) were analysed in order to answer the Research Questions, which inquired into the participants' *affective variables* and *CLI* (see section 5.1. Research Questions). As we will see below (sections 5.6.2 and 5.6.3), different types of analytical procedures were conducted.

As mentioned above, the design of the study included a **cross-sectional study**, with one collection time (the first semester of the academic year for each school year) and a longitudinal study, which follows some of the participants over two academic years (2009/2010 and 2010/2011, approximately 200 hours of instruction) at two collection times. As the size of the cross-sectional groups in each of the *school level*s (i. e., in each of the six school grades from ESO1 to PSC2) was small for the reasons put forward in section 5.3, the participants were grouped into *First cycle* (ESO1 and ESO2), *Second cycle* (ESO3 and ESO4) and *Post-compulsory education* (PSC1 and PSC2) groups.

In the **longitudinal study**, the sample consisted of 24 participants distributed in two groups. The first group included 10 learners who were in ESO1 at the first collection time and in ESO2 at the last collection time. In the second group, the 14 participants were in ESO2 at the first collection time and in ESO3 at the last collection time.

5.6.2. Qualitative analysis

The questionnaire included four qualitative measures: *perceived ability in EFL according to L1*, the justifications given to this item and, on the other hand, *reported L1 use* and *functions*. ***Perceived ability in EFL according to L1*** encompassed one multiple-choice question with three possible answers and one open-ended question for the justification of the answer endorsed. The percentages for each of the possible responses were calculated in order to find out which of the beliefs concerning the relationship between *L1* and ability in EFL was the most frequently held. In addition, the percentages of the marked answers were also calculated within each *L1* group (i. e., among those who were speakers of *L1* Spanish and the rest of participants), which was intended to shed light on whether one of the statements was more frequently supported by one of the two "*L1* groups" (South Americans with *L1* Spanish versus the rest of participants).

The open answers given by the participants to support their endorsement to one of the beliefs on *L1* and ability in EFL were analysed for common underlying ideas in order to establish categories. The total number and the percentage of each of the categories of reasons were calculated out of the total number of participants who answered this justified option in the questionnaire.

Reported L1 use and *reported L1 functions* were intended at shedding light on issues of source selection. *Reported L1 use* involved three possible answers to choose from according to the frequency with which the participants reported to use their *L1* in class: *never*, *sometimes* or *always*. The percentages for each of the three responses were calculated. *Reported L1 use* was complemented with the answers to the measure labelled ***reported L1 functions***, which required the participants to express the purpose in using their *L1* in class by choosing three possible answers. In this case, the participants could choose more than one *reported L1 function*. The percentage of each of these purposes was calculated out of the total number of times that each usage was given. The percentages of the participants with *L1* Spanish and those with other mother tongues were compared in order to determine whether there was one *L1* group who reported to use their *L1* more than the other.

5.6.3. Quantitative analysis

5.6.3.1 Recodification and statistical analysis

The statistical tests on the data were conducted using SPSS (*Statistical Pack*age *for the Social Sciences*, now officially named *IBM SPSS Statistics*), version 15, version 18 and version 21. The nominal or categorical data were recodified into numbers. In the particular case of the *attitudes* measures -which were 25 Lickert scales that asked the informants to express their endorsement to the corresponding statement by marking one number from 1 (maximum disagreement) to 5 (maximum agreement)- the negatively worded items were reversed. Non-parametric statistics were chosen to analyse the data due to the characteristics of the sample and the variables. Statistical significance is established at $p \leq .05$.

5.6.3.2 Analysis of affective variables

A frequency analysis was conducted on *expected school mark* in English and the four *attitudes* towards EFL. According to the results, *expected school mark* in English could be *Fail* (1), *Pass* (2), *Good* (3), *Very good* (4) or *Excellent* (5), while *attitudes* were labelled as *negative* (average score of 1 or 2), *moderate* (average score of 3) or *positive* (average score of 4 or 5).

In the **cross-sectional study**, the scores for *attitudes* and *expected school mark* in English obtained by the two Compulsory education groups (First cycle and Second cycle) and the Post-compulsory group were compared through a Kruskal-Wallis test in order to determine whether the difference in their indices were significant. The analysis also aimed at relating *attitudes* to *expected school mark* in English and, on the other hand, to the participants' *L1*, *AoA* in Catalonia/Spain, their parents' *SP*, whether their families have planned to return to their countries of origin (*RP*) and, finally, to the three measures of *achievement* (*school mark in English*, *written mark* and *oral mark*). We assumed that *L1*, *AoA*, *SP* and *RP*, four personal variables related to the fact that the participants are immigrant learners, could have a bearing on their *amount of CLI*. Having *L1* Spanish or other *L1*s more distant to English

than Spanish could trigger or hinder the *amount of CLI*. On the other hand, it was also assumed that *AoA,* which implies a shorter or a longer time of *exposure* to Spanish and Catalan as well as English instruction in the Catalan school system, could have an influence on *CLI*. In order to obtain such results, the statistical correlations between the variables were calculated through Spearman's Rank Order Correlation. In addition, the data in the **local** sample (Second cycle) was compared to those in the immigrant Second cycle through a Kruskal-Wallis test.

The **longitudinal analysis** aimed at determining the evolution of the participants' scores in *attitudes towards learning English*, *integrative attitudes* and *interest in an international community*[20] from the beginning of the 2009-2010 academic year to the end of the following school year (through two collection times). In order to find out whether there were significant differences in these three *attitudes* throughout the two collections, a Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test was run.

5.6.3.3 Analysis of language performance

The participants' language performance in the oral and written tasks (whose results were labelled as *written mark* and *oral mark*) was assessed using the rating bands mentioned in section 5.4. Language evaluation through such bands underwent inter-rater reliability checks. A researcher specialised in a similar kind of investigation assessed 10% of the participants' written and oral production using the same bands after some training and a pilot test. The samples for the inter-rater reliability test were chosen at random and they were 4 for each level (2 written samples and 2 oral samples), i. e., a total of 12 oral narratives and 12 written narratives. Interreliability was 83.33%.

[20] The number of variables was reduced in the longitudinal analysis due to the small size of the longitudinal groups. In the particular case of *attitudes*, *instrumentality* was eliminated from the longitudinal analysis because this attitude showed the slightest change from Second cycle to Post-compulsory education in the cross-sectional study and from the first to the last collection time. This suggests that the difference in scores from the first collection time to the last is probably not significant.

Below is an example of written production[21] analysed in the inter-realibility test produced by participant PC04ESO4[22]:

> In this Picture have a three people, in the firts Picture have a two children doing a picnic for they and their mum has doing a coffe of a tea with they.
>
> In the second picture have a the children and mum are doing a basket. Another hand the dog is looking inside the basket.
>
> In the third picture the children are saying goodby with the hand to their mother, she stay in the door doing the same for her childrens. The children walk together to the street with the basket and the dog hidding inside thy they already don't know.
>
> In the picture number four they arrive to the little mountain and see the two cows and the sun, and a house at the end of the mountain.
>
> In picture number five they arrive at to the bigger point of the mountain and there they discovered that their dog stay inside.
>
> In picture number six they finally see ther dog eat the all of food they have for the picnic.

Following is a transcription of one of the oral narratives that underwent the inter-rater reliability test, produced by PC06ESO2:

> SUBJECT: In the mother eh eh **està fent el diner**.**Aquí en el dos** eh mother and the sister y brother eh **menjant eldiner**. **Aquí en el tres** mother **le dice adiós a los niños**. Eh **aquí**, four, sister and brother eh up in the mountain **aquí** sister and brother and dog eh eh mengen el diner. **Aquí** sister y brother **se l'ha perdut el diner i el gos s'escapa**.

For other examples of written production, see Apendices 10 to 14; for transcriptions of oral narratives, see Apendices 15 to 19. In addition to these, a sample of written production and another one of oral production are included in section 6.3.2.

[21] Data have not been edited.

[22] Participants were codified according to the following rationale. The initial P stands for participant. This letter can be followed by C or L depending on whether the participant belongs, respectively, to the cross-sectional study or the longitudinal study. These two letters are followed by the number given to the each of the participants in data collection. Finally, the last part of the code refers to the school year the participants were in when they were administered the instruments.

5.6.3.4 Analysis of cross-linguistic influence

The participants' production in English in the two tasks was also analysed for **lexical *CLI*** (numbers of transferred items, *type of CLI* and *source langu*age). The average percentage of written and oral transferred items was calculated using an Excel spread-sheet. To measure the percentage of *CLI* in each of the tasks, the total number of tokens was counted normally in both written and oral samples according to the following rationale. First, contracted forms were considered as two words. Exclusively for the oral narratives, repetitions of the same words immediately following each other, in the same stretch, were counted as one. Interjections were not taken into account. Finally, if the participants had corrected themselves before finishing the word in another language, this particular word was not considered as a case of transfer.

CLI occurrences were also classified according to the *type* of influence, their *communicative function* and the *source langu*age. To begin with, two **types of lexical influence** in English were established: *borrowings* and *lexical inventions* (based on a language other than English). *Borrowings* are complete and non-adapted words from a language that is not the target. They are equivalent to Williams and Hammarberg's (1998) *non-adapted langu*age *switches*. On the other hand, *lexical inventions* are words from other languages adapted to English-like forms. While the *borrowing* category ranges from individual words to whole expressions and sentences in a language which is not the target, *lexical inventions* are always isolated words (see Dewaele, 1998).

Three categories of *CLI* were identified according to the **communicative function** fullfilled by the transferred items: HELP, COM and FILL, based on Hammarberg (2001), Williams & Hammarberg (1998) and Cenoz (2001, 2003c). HELP makes reference to questions on how to say something in English or clarification requests on the task. The second category, COM, includes comments made by the participants which explicitely express that they do not know an English word, or that they do not remember the word, or else they are translations to clarify what has been said in English. Finally, the FILL function is accomplished by those occurrences from other languages which are used to narrate the story represented in the pictures. *Lexical inventions* are only found in the FILL function, while *borrowings* in the oral data can fulfill any of the

three functions (HELP, COM and FILL). In the written production, HELP was absent (as a request is related to online language production) and, as expected, COM was more scarce than in the oral production. There were only four instances of COM in the written data and they were produced by two participants. Given the scarcity of occurrences, the COM function was not taken into account in the analysis of the written data. HELP and COM functions are accomplished by *borrowings*, while FILL is also related to *lexical inventions* in addition to *borrowings*. Examples of *borrowings* and *lexical inventions* taken from some of the participants' oral production are the following:

(a) ***Borrowings***

1. **HELP function:**
   i. PC09ESO1:*¿En inglés?* (*In English?*) (Spanish);
   ii. PC13ESO2: *¿Cómo se dice esto?* (*How do you say this*?) (Spanish)
   iii. PC87BAT1: ¿"*Se van" cómo se dice?* (how do you say "they are leaving"?) (Spanish)
2. **COM function:**
   i. PC60ESO3: *Te digo la próxima*. (*I'm going to tell you the following one*) (Spanish);
   ii. PC36ESO1: *No me'n recordo com es deia!* (*I can't remember how to say this!*) (Catalan).
3. **FILL function**:
   i. PC20ESO3: *Se esconde* (*It is hiding*) (Spanish)
   ii. PC06ESO2: *El gos s'escapa* (*The dog is escaping*) (Catalan)

(b) ***Lexical inventions*** **(only found in the FILL function)**:

   i. PC04ESO3: *preparate* (*prepare*) (based on Spanish and Catalan "preparar");
   ii. PC22BAT1: *cest* (*basket*) (based on Spanish "cesta").

Finally, the occurrences were also analyzed in relation to the ***source language***. Four possible linguistic categories were established before analysing the data: Spanish, Catalan, Spanish/Catalan and mother tongue. The third of these categories encompasses *CLI* occurrences that cannot be straightforwardly attributed to either Spanish or Catalan, since many words coincide in both languages. When these ambiguous instances occur in a string of discourse in

either language, then they are attributed to that language. On the other hand, when they occurred in isolation, they were assigned to the Spanish/Catalan category. Mother tongue refers to any of the participants' first language when it is not Spanish (the mother tongue of many of the participants).

The ratio of each of the above *CLI* categories was calculated out of the total number of transferred items in each of the tasks. As the SPSS cannot perform statistical tests of data including percentages, the percentages were turned into ranked or ordinal numbers (f. i., ratios from 0 to 0.05 were transformed into 0 and numbers from 0.06 to 0.09 were turned into 1). *CLI* scores in the three groups in the **cross-sectional study** were compared through a Kruskal-Wallis test and a Mann-Whitney U test. In order to analyse the relationship between the total numbers of transferred items and numbers of *borrowings* and *lexical inventions* in both the written and oral tasks with the participants' *L1*, *AoA*, *SP* and *RP* (immigrant-specific variables), measures of *achievement* and *affective variables* (*attitudes* and *expected school mark*), a Spearman rho test was conducted. The same non-parametric test was computed to analyse the relationship of the ratios of the items transferred from each of the source categories with *achievement* in these languages (measured as *school mark* in Spanish and *school mark* in Catalan), the participants' *L1* and *AoA* in Catalonia (or in Spain).

The **longitudinal analysis** of lexical *CLI* aimed at the numbers of transferred items in the written and oral tasks, *type of CLI*, source selection and source selection in the three possible communicative functions in the oral production (HELP, COM, FILL) in both the ESO1-ESO2 group and the ESO2-ESO3 group. Like in the analysis of *affective variables*, the Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test was used in order to discover the statistical significance of the changes in the participants' *amount of CLI* from the first collection time to the last one. As commented on in Foot Note 20, the number of variables in the longitudinal analysis was limited because of the small size of the sample. In the statistical analysis of the rest of CLI categories, Excel was used.

5.7. Summary

The present chapter has started with the Research Questions, which address *affective variables* (Research Question 1) and *CLI* (Research Question 2) in the participants' production in EFL. Then, this chapter described the research context of the present study, i. e., the schools where the data were collected and the towns where these schools are located. The following section (section 0) offered details concerning the participants in the cross-sectional study and the longitudinal study: the number of subjects and the percentages corresponding to the participants' *gender*, *L1s*, *SP*, *AoA* and *RP*. Section 0 was concerned with the instruments and measures used to collect data (a sociolinguistic questionnaire and an *affective variables* questionnaire, two linguistic tasks and the participants' school marks in English, Spanish and Catalan). The section that followed focused on the procedure, i.e., the pilot study that tested the instruments and the data collection in both the cross-sectional and the longitudinal studies. The final section in the present chapter described the qualitative and quantitative analysis conducted in both the cross-sectional and the longitudinal study. The following chapter will present the results in both studies.

6. Results

6.1. Introduction

The present chapter tackles the results of the analyses described in Section 5.6, intended to answer the Research Questions in both the cross-sectional and the longitudinal studies. The following section (6.2) describes the findings in relation to Research Questions 1a, 1b and 1c, i. e. results for the participants' *affective variables*, the factors that play a role in them and the relationship between the former with language attainment in EFL. The last section (6.3) deals with results related to *CLI* and source language, thus answering Research Questions 2a and 2b. The present chapter is mainly concerned with the results in the cross-sectional study. Only some sections deal with the results yielded by the longitudinal study and it will be indicated in the corresponding section that the results belong to this study (sections 6.2.1.3, 6.2.1.6, 6.2.1.10, 6.3.3).

6.2. Affective variables

6.2.1. Scores in affective variables and related factors

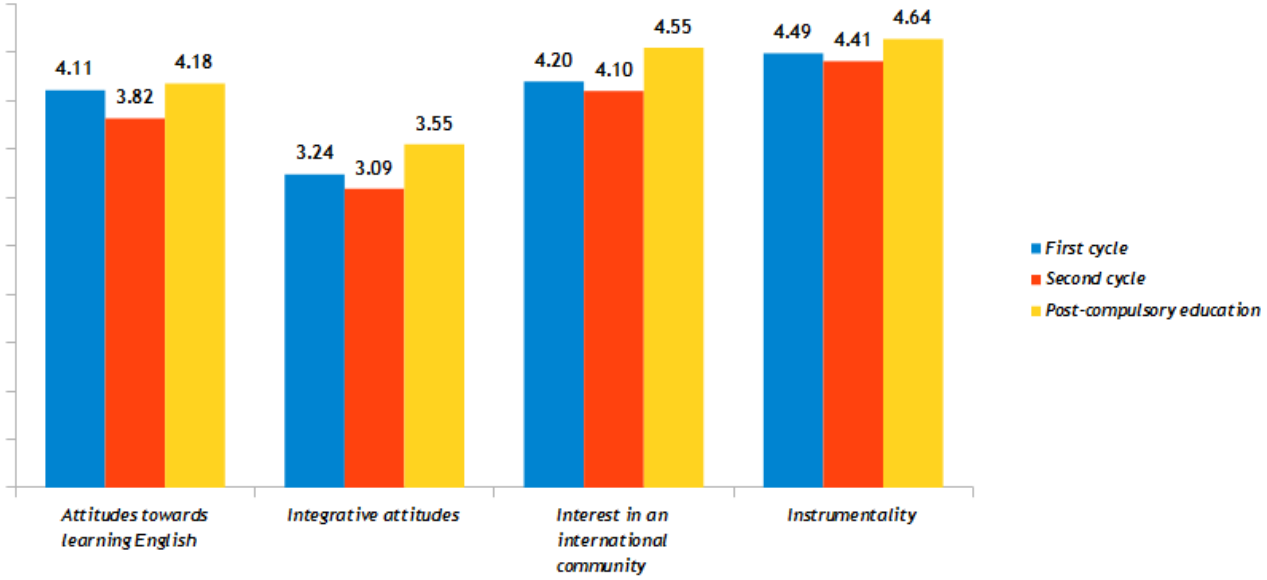
The purpose of section 6.2.1 is to answer Research Question 1a, i. e. *What are the participants' affective variables (attitudes* and *perceived chances of success) in studying EFL and the factors that promote them?* Thus, the following sections aim at analysing the indices of the four *attitudes* towards EFL, *expected school mark* and *perceived ability in EFL according to L1*.

6.2.1.1 Indices of attitudes in the three school levels

A frequency analysis showed that the participants in the cross-sectional study had in general from *moderate* to *positive attitudes* in learning EFL (see Figure 8 below). As indicated in section 5.4, *moderate attitudes* were related to indices

from 3 to 3.99, while positive *attitudes* were obtained when the indices ranged from 4 to 5. Only *attitudes towards learning English* in Second cycle (3.82) and *integrative attitudes* in the three groups (3.24, 3.09 and 3.55 in *First cycle*, *Second cycle* and *Post-compulsory education*, respectively) showed a *moderate* attitudinal level. The rest of attitudinal scores ranged from 4.10 to 4.64.

Figure 8. Indices in the four *attitudes* in *First cycle* (*n*=41), *Second cycle* (*n*=40), Post-compulory education (n=*11*)



The description of these results in terms of percentages shows that *positive attitudes* towards EFL in our sample obtained higher percentages than both *moderate* and *negative attitudes* in First cycle (see Figure 9), Second cycle (Figure 10) and Post-compulsory education (Figure 11), except for *integrative attitudes* in the two younger groups. In the Post-compulsory education group, both *positive attitudes* and *moderate attitudes* attained 45.45% of endorsement.

Figure 9. Percentages for *positive*, *moderate* and *negative attitudes* towards each of the attitudes in *First cycle* (*n*=41)

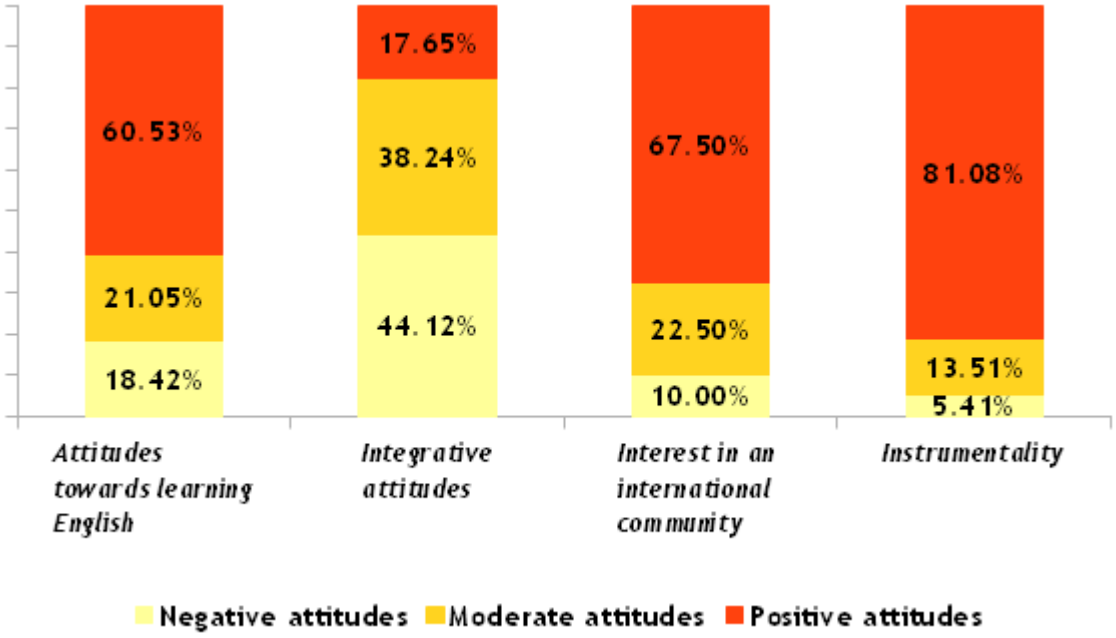


Figure 10. Percentages for *positive*, *moderate* and *negative attitudes* towards each of the attitudes in *Second cycle* (*n*=40)

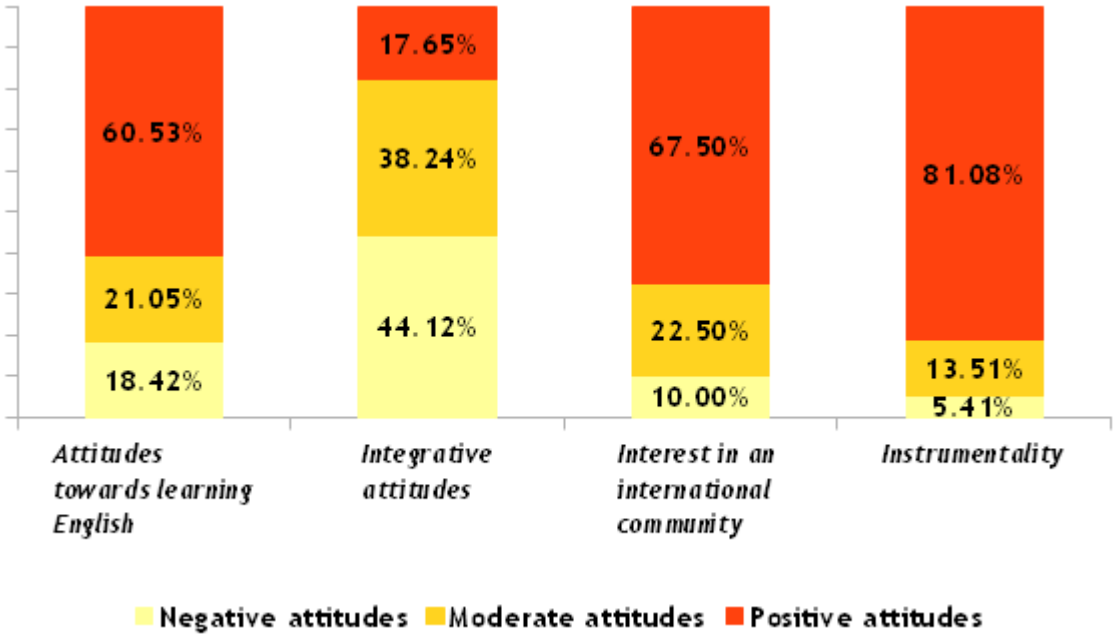
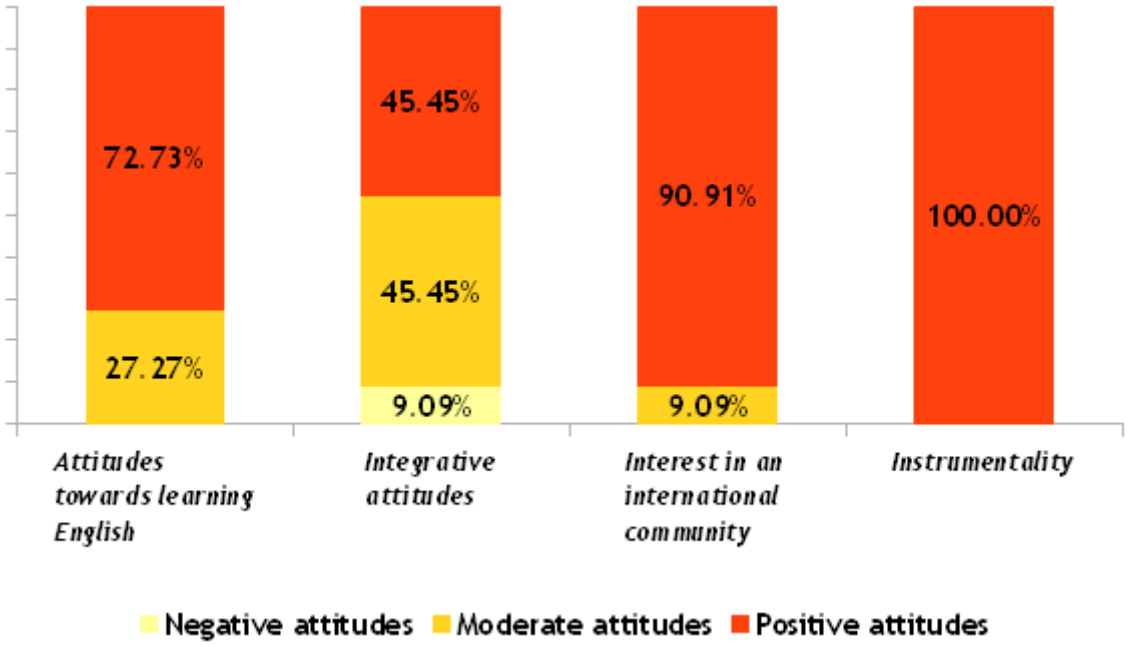


Figure 11. Percentages for *positive*, *moderate* and *negative attitudes* towards each of the attitudes in *Post-compulsory education* (*n*=11)



The results also revealed that in the three *school level*s the highest endorsement was obtained by *instrumentality*, while *integrative attitudes* obtained the lowest indices. However, this last factor underwent the second most acute increase from First cycle to Post-compulsory education after *interest in an international comminity* (.31 and .35, respectively) and the sharpest increase from Second cycle to Post-compulsory education (with a difference of .46), followed by *interest in an international community* (.45). The sharpest decrease from First cycle to Second cycle was observed in *attitudes towards learning English*, which was .29, while the difference in the rest of *attitudes* was between .8 and .15.

The comparison of the attitudinal level shown by the three groups revealed that Second cycle participants displayed the least positive attitudes in the four attitudinal categories (see Figure 8 above). However, the different indices obtained by learners at Compulsory education (First and Second cycles) and Post-compulsory education were not statistically significant, as seen after the analysis with a Kruskall-Wallis test (see Table 20 below).

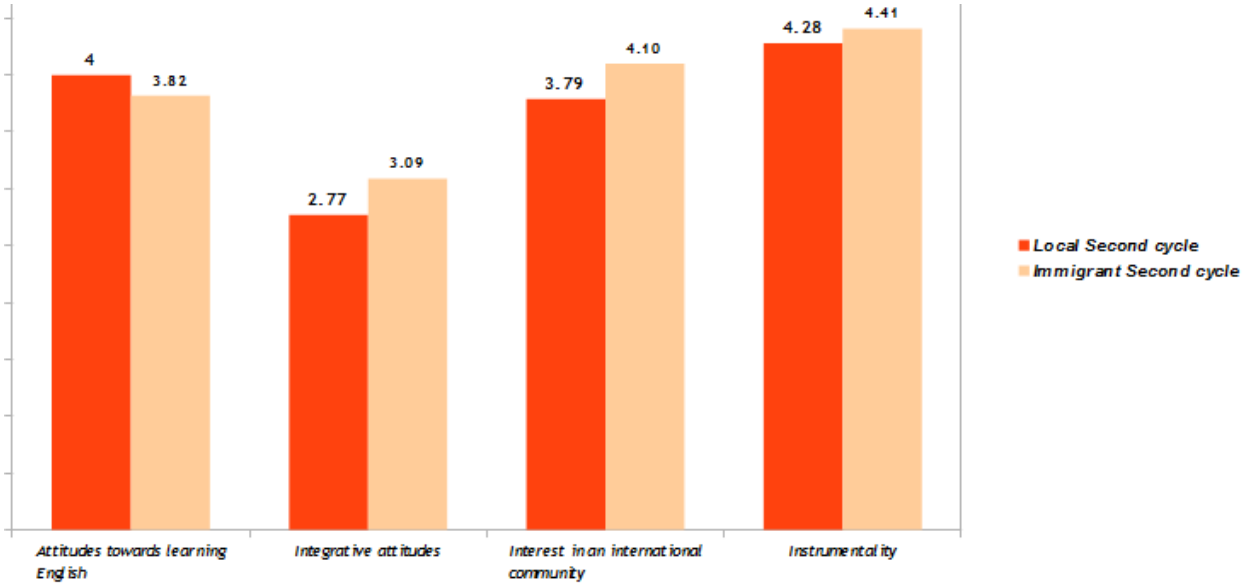
Table 20. Comparison of the indices of *attitudes to EFL* in Compulsory education groups (First and Second cycle) and Post-compulsory education (Kruskall-Wallis test)

	Collection	*n*	Mean Rank	*p*
1. Attitudes towards learning English	Compulsory Post-compulsory	88	43.27 48.59	.569
2. Integrative attitudes	Compulsory Post-compulsory	82	40.92 45.23	.576
3. Attitudes towards an international community	Compulsory Post-compulsory	92	45.60 53.09	.380
4. Instrumentality	Compulsory Post-compulsory	91	46.04 45.73	.970

6.2.1.2 Indices of attitudes in the local group versus the immigrant group

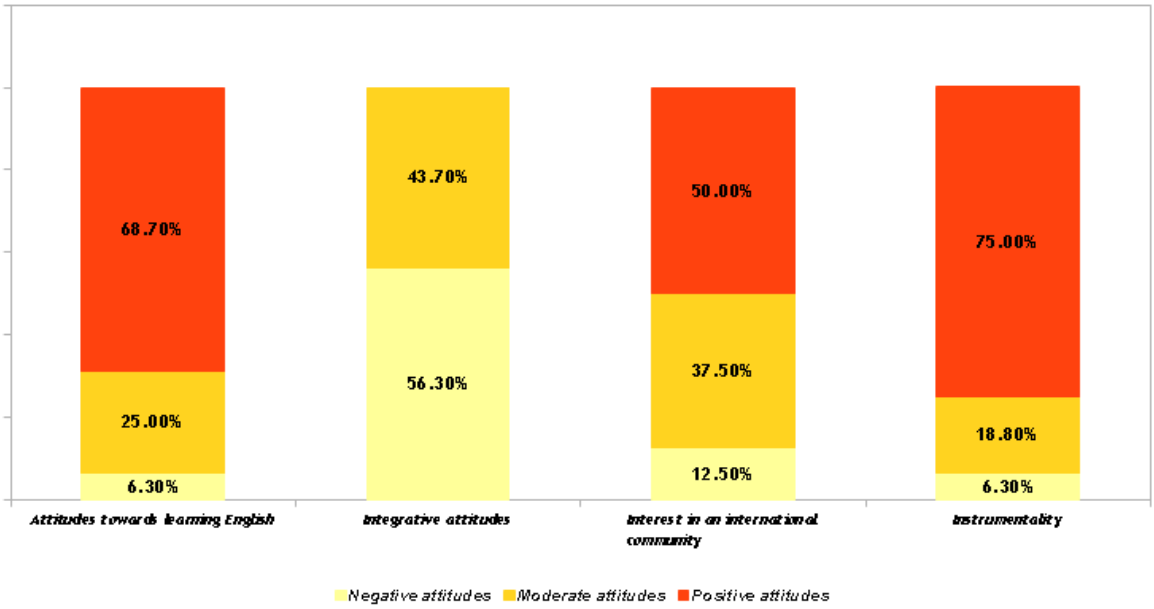
As shown in Figure 12, the scores for three of the attitudinal factors were lower in the local Second cycle group than in their immigrant peers. The scores for *integrative attitudes*, *interest in an international community* and *instrumentality* were 2.77, 3.79 and 4.28, respectively, while their scores were 3.09, 4.10 and 4.41 among the immigrant learners in Second cycle. Like in the immigrant sample, *integrative attitudes* in the local participants attained a *negative* level. On the other hand, *attitudes towards learning English* was the only *attitude* that obtained a higher endorsement in the local group: a score of 4 versus 3.82 in the immigrant participants.

Figure 12. Indices in the four *attitudes* in the local Second cycle (*n*=16) in comparison with the immigrant Second cycle group (*n*=40)



Percentages for each of the *attitudes* were in general lower in the local Second cycle group than among their immigrant peers (see section 6.2.1.1). Like in the immigrant sample, positive *attitudes* obtained the highest scores except for *integrative attitudes* (see Figure 13). The percentage of answers within the positive range was 0% in the local group, while it was 17.65% in the immigrant Second cycle.

Figure 13. Percentages for *positive*, *moderate* and *negative attitudes* towards each of the *attitudes* in the local Second cycle (*n*=16)



However, a Wilcoxon test indicated that the difference in the indices obtained by the four attitudinal factors in the immigrant and local Second cycle groups is not statistically significant (see Table 21 below).

Table 21. Comparison of the scores in the four *attitudes* in the local and immigrant Second cycles (Wilcoxon test)

Attitudinal factors	Sample	*n*	Mean rank	*p*
1. Attitudes towards learning English	Immigrant	38	26.50	.470
	Local	16	29.88	
2. Integrative attitudes	Immigrant	34	27.38	.182
	Local	16	21.50	
3. Attitudes towards an international community	Immigrant	40	30.73	.105
	Local	16	22.94	
4. Instrumentality	Immigrant	40	30.36	.107
	Local	16	23.84	

6.2.1.3 Indices of attitudes in the longitudinal study

This section tackles the scores for *attitudes towards learning English*, *integrative attitudes* and *interest in an international community* (see Footnote 20) in the longitudinal study. As Table 22 and Table 23 below show, the scores in the three variables at both collection times in the ESO1 to ESO2 group and

the ESO2-ESO3 group were positive except for *integrative attitudes* in both groups and *attitudes towards learning English* in the ESO2-ESO3 group. The only variable that attained a score within the negative range was *integrative attitudes* in the first collection time in both groups (*p*=.028). The comparison of the two groups show that the ESO2-ESO3 group displayed lower indices in the three variables.

Table 22. Differences in *attitudes towards learning English, integrative attitudes* and *interest in an international community* between the first and the last collection times in ESO1-ESO2 group (Wilcoxon test)

Attitudinal factors	Collection	*n*	Mean	SD	Mean rank	*p*
Attitudes towards learning English	First collection	10	4.44	.35	5.75	-.151
	Last collection	10	4.16	.56	3.50	
Integrative attitudes	First collection	10	2.98	.85	1.00	-.028*
	Last collection	10	3.67	.44	4.50	
Interest in an international community	First collection	10	4.22	.73	1.50	-.62
	Last collection	10	4.53	.61	5.00	

Table 23. Differences in *attitudes towards learning English, integrative attitudes* and *interest in an international community* between the first and the last collection times in ESO2-ESO3 group (Wilcoxon test)

Attitudinal factors	Collection	*n*	Mean	SD	Mean rank	*p*
Attitudes towards learning English	First collection	14	3.66	.90	2.50	1.00
	Last collection	14	3.68	.85	2.50	
Integrative attitudes	First collection	14	2.98	1.02	.00	-.039*
	Last collection	14	3.13	1.06	3.00	
Interest in an international community	First collection	14	4.01	.87	1.50	1.00
	Last collection	14	4.00	.86	3.00	

As Table 22 and Table 23 show, the evolution of indices in *attitudes towards learning English* and *interest in an international community* from collection time 1 to the last collection time was different in each of the groups and it did not attain statistical significance. Thus, *attitudes towards learning English* decreased (from 4.44 to 4.16) in ESO1-ESO2, but slightly decreased (from 3.66 to 3.68) in ESO2-ESO3. *Interest in an international community* underwent a growth from ESO1 to ESO2 (from 4.22 to 4.53), while it slightly decresead from ESO1-ESO2 (from 4.01 to 4.00). The only variable whose evolution obtained statitical significance was *integrative attitudes*, which

increased from the first collection time to the last in both groups: from 2.98 to 3.67 in ESO1-ESO2 (p=.028) and to 3.13 in ESO2-ESO3 (p=.039).

6.2.1.4 Expected school mark in the three school levels

As mentioned above, *expected school mark in English* addresses the school mark which the participants think that they will obtain at the end of the academic year in the English class. This particular variable conforms, together with *perceived ability according to L1,* the *perceived chances of success* factor. While the latter is of qualitative nature, *expected school mark in English* is quantitative. The possible *expected school marks* were *Fail* (indices from 1 to 1.99), *Pass* (from 2 to 2.99), *Good* (from 3 to 3.99), *Very Good* (from 4 to 4.99) or *Excellent* (5) (see section 5.4). The analysis of the participants' answers about their *expected school mark in English* showed that, in general, they expected to pass (see Figure 14). In First cycle and Second cycle the average *expected school mark* was *Pass* (2.93 and 2.60 respectively), while it was *Good* (3.09) in Post-compulsory education. However, as Figure 15 shows, the category with the highest percentage of endorsement in First-cycle and Second cycle was *Good*. In the Post-compulsory group, *Good* obtained the same percentage as *Pass* (27.27%).

Figure 14. Indices of *expected school mark in English* in First cycle, Second cycle and Post-compulsory education

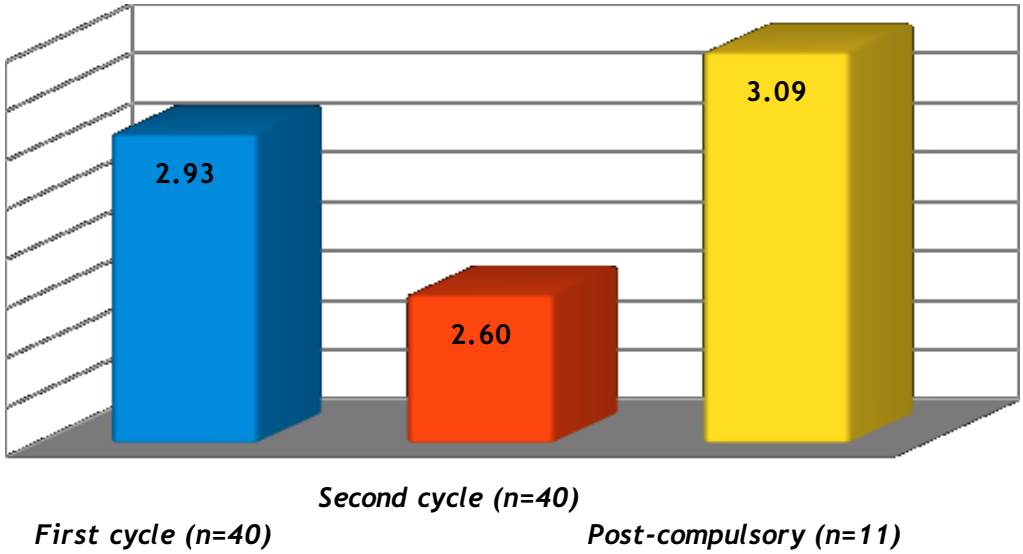
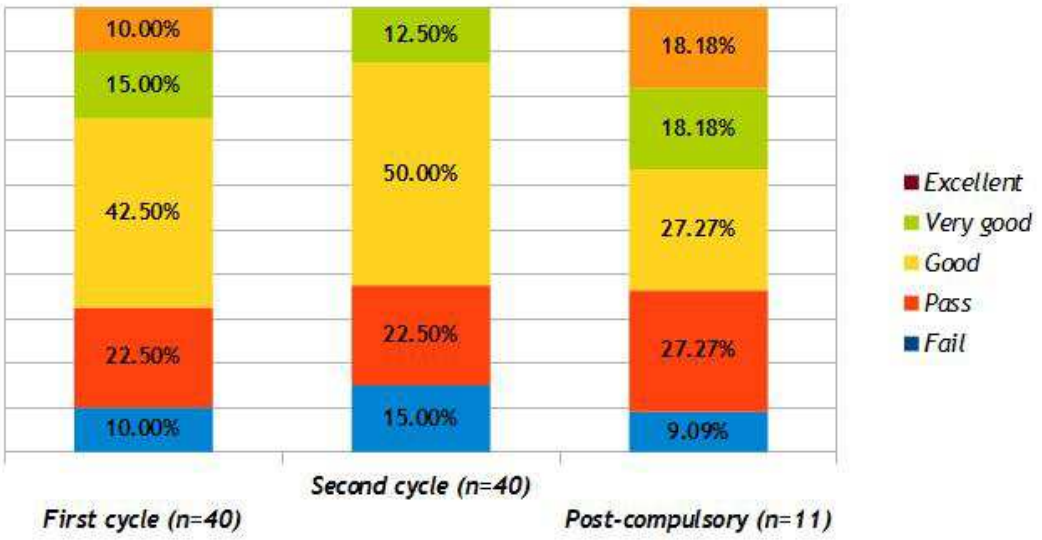


Figure 15. Percentages of *expected school mark in English* in First cycle, Second cycle and Post-compulsory education



As in the indices for the attitudinal factors, the participants in the Post-compulsory group showed the highest scores in *expected school mark in English*, while those in Second cycle displayed the lowest score. The difference between Second cycle and Post-compulsory education was 0.49, while the difference was 0.16 between First cycle and Post-compulsory education.

Accordingly, First cycle showed higher scores for *expected school mark in English* than those in Second cycle (the difference was 0.33). In order to test whether the difference between the Post-compulsory group and the two Compulsory education levels was significant, we conducted a Kruskal-Wallis test, which indicated that the difference did not attain statistical significance (p=.452) (see Table 24).

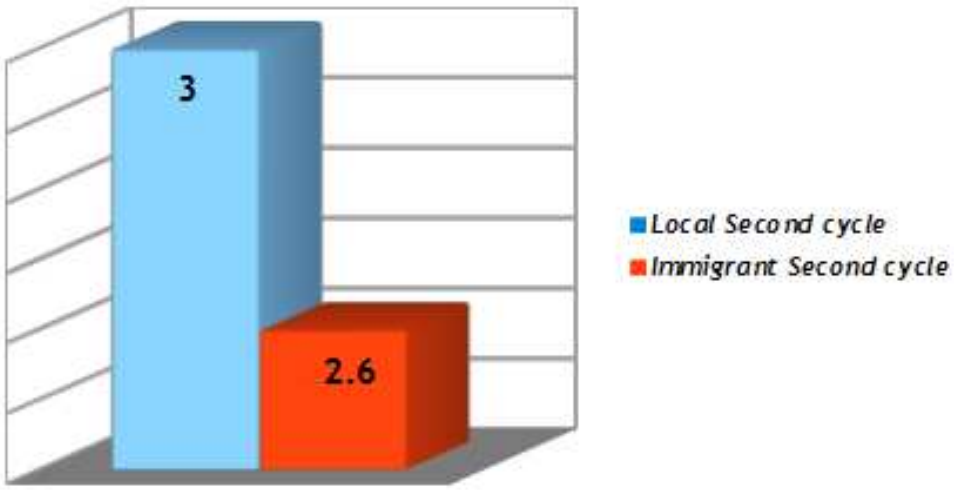
Table 24. Comparison of the indices of *expected school mark in English* in Compulsory education groups (First and Second cycle) and Post-compulsory education (Kruskal-Wallis test)

		n	Mean Rank	*p*
Expected school mark in English	Compulsory Post-compulsory	91	45.27 51.32	.452

6.2.1.5 Expected school mark in English in the local Second cycle group versus the immigrant Second cycle

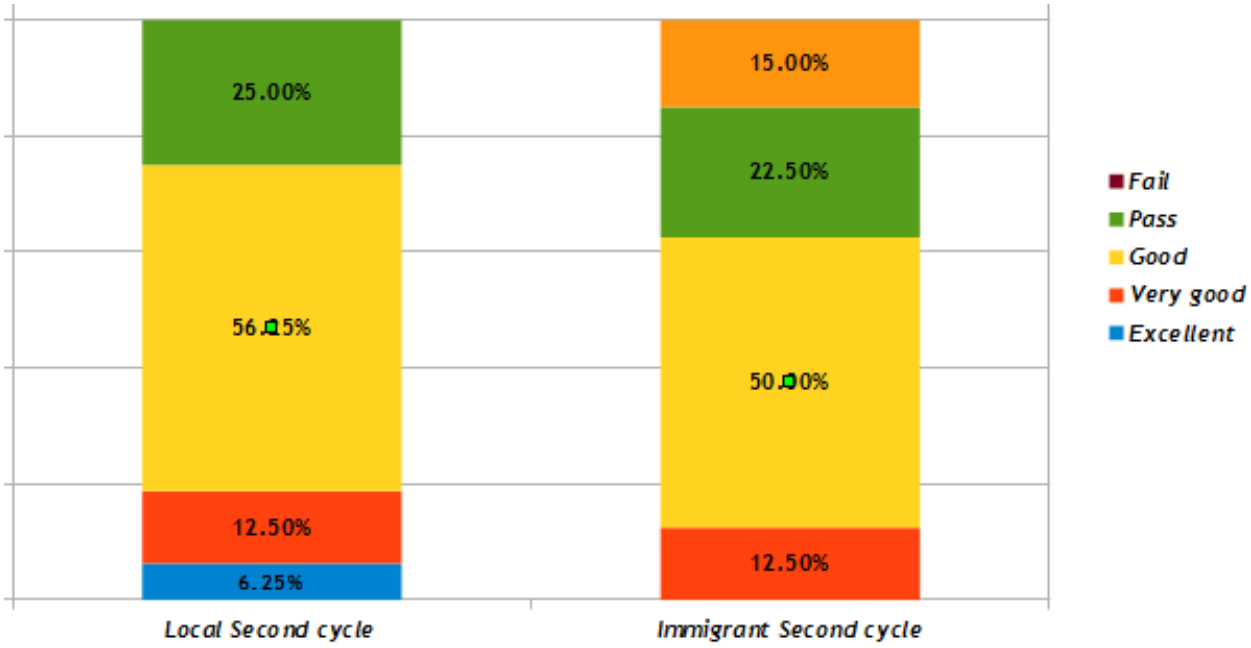
As Figure 16 below shows, the average score of *expected school mark in English* among the local participants in the Second cycle was 3 (*Pass*), higher than *expected school mark* in English in the immigrant sample (2.06, i. e., *Good*).

Figure 16. Comparison of the indices of e*xpected school mark* in English in the local Second cycle (n=16) and immigrant Second cycle (n=40)



The percentages of *expected school mark* also show that the expectations of success of the immigrant learners in Second cycle are lower than among their local peers (see Figure 17 below).

Figure 17. Comparison of percentages of *expected school mark* in the local Second cycle (*n*=16) and immigrant Second cycle (*n*=40)



However, as Table 25 shows, the difference between the indices of *expected school mark* in immigrant and local participants did not achieve statistical significance. Such a result is similar to those obtained by the participants' *attitudes towards EFL*, which did not show any significant differences between the immigrant and local Second cycle groups.

Table 25. Comparison of *expected school mark in English* across the immigrant and local samples in Second cycle (Wilcoxon test)

	Sample	*n*	Mean rank	*p*
Expected school mark in English	Immigrant	40	26.95	.221
	Local	16	32.38	

6.2.1.6 Expected school mark in English in the longitudinal study

A Wilcoxon rank test showed that *expected school mark in English* did not significantly change from collection time 1 to the last collection time in the ESO1-ESO2 group (see Table 26) or in the ESO2-ESO3 (see Table 27). In the ESO1-ESO2 group, the mean in the scores of *expected school mark* was the same in both collection times (3.30), while it slightly increased from the first collection time (2.64) to the last one (2.71) in the ESO2-ESO3 group.

Table 26. Indices of *expected school mark* at the first collection and the last collection times in the ESO1-ESO2 group (Wilcoxon test)

Perceived chances of success	Collection	*n*	Mean	SD	Mean rank	*p*
Expected school mark in English	First collection time	10	3.30	1.16	1.50	.10
	Last collection time	10	3.30	.95	3.00	

Table 27. Indices of *expected school mark* at the first collection and the last collection times in the ESO2-ESO3 group (Wilcoxon test)

Perceived chances of success	Collection	*n*	Mean	SD	Mean rank	*p*
Expected school mark in English	First collection time	14	2.64	1.15	3.00	.78
	Last collection time	14	2.71	.83	4.75	

6.2.1.7 Correlations among affective variables

As Table 28 shows, more correlations among *affective variables* were found in First and Second cycles than in Post-compulsory education, where none of the *attitudes* correlated with other *attitudes*. All the correlations established among different *affective variables* were positive. In both First and Second cycles, *interest in an international community* and *instrumentality* correlated with the rest of *attitudes*. In other words, participants in First and Second cycles with high indices in *interest in an international community* and *instrumentality* also displayed positive *attitudes towards learning English* and *integrative attitudes*. E*xpected school mark in English* only obtained two correlations: one with *instrumentality* in First cycle (p=.011) and another one with *attitudes towards learning English* in Post-compulsory education (p=.005). Hence, the participants with high scores in *expected school mark* also showed

high indices of *instrumentality* in First cycle and *attitudes towards learning English* in Post-compulsory education.

Table 28. Correlations between the four *attitudes* and *expected school mark in English* in First cycle, Second cycle and Post-compulsory education (Spearman rho test)

	First cycle				Second cycle				Post-compulsory education			
	1.Attitudes towards learning English	*2.Integrative attitudes*	*3.Interest in an international community*	*4.Instrumentality*	*1.Attitudes towards learning English*	*2.Integrative attitudes*	*3.Interest in an international community*	*4.Instrumentality*	*1.Attitudes towards learning English*	*2.Integrative attitudes*	*3.Interest in an international community*	*4.Instrumentality*
1. Attitudes towards learning English		-.894	.019*	*.001**		*.016**	*.000***	*.001***		*.962*	*.299*	*-.873*
2. Integrative attitudes	-.894		*.000***	.031*	*.016**		*.007***	*.016**	*.962*		*.691*	*.249*
3. Interest in an international community	*.019**	*.000***		*.000***	*.000***	*.016**		*.000***	*.299*	*.691*		*.704*
4. Instrumentality	*.001***	.031*	.000**		*.001***	*.016**	*.000***		*-.876*	*.249*	*.093*	
Expected school mark in English	.248	.231	.382	*.011**	.256	.584	.181	*.983*	*.005***	.111	.704	*-.380*

6.2.1.8 Correlations between affective variables and L1, AoA, RP and SP

Table 29 below shows the correlations obtained by *attitudes* and *expected school mark* with the participants' *L1* (coded as Spanish or other languages), their *AoA*, their parents' *SP* and whether their families have *RP* to their country of origin. Each of these specific variables only correlated with *affective variables* in one of the groups and all these correlations were negative. To begin with, ***L1*** correlated significantly with both *Integrative attitudes* (*p*=-.012) and *expected school mark* (*p*=-0.36) in Second cycle. As both correlations were negative, the results suggest that those participants in Second cycle who have an *L1* different from Spanish showed less positive *attitudes* towards the Anglo-saxon community and lower expectations regarding their English *school mark* at the end of the school year.

AoA correlated significantly with *attitudes towards learning English* (*p*=-.048) in First cycle. This correlation indicates that learners in First cycle who arrived at a younger *age* held more positive *attitudes towards learning English* than those with an older *AoA*.

Significant correlations were established between ***SP*** and *integrative attitudes* (*p*=-0.44) and *instrumentality* (*p*=-.001) in Post-compulsory education. The findings indicate that lower SP was related to more positive *attitudes* towards the target language group and more positive instrumental interest in the language.

Finally, ***RP*** held significant relationships with *interest in an international community* and *instrumentality* in First cycle. This suggests that learners in this group whose families have no *RP* show lower scores in these two *affective variables*.

Table 29. Correlations between *affective variables* and *L1*, *AoA*, *SP* and *RP* in First cycle, Second cycle and Post-compulsory education (Spearman rho test)

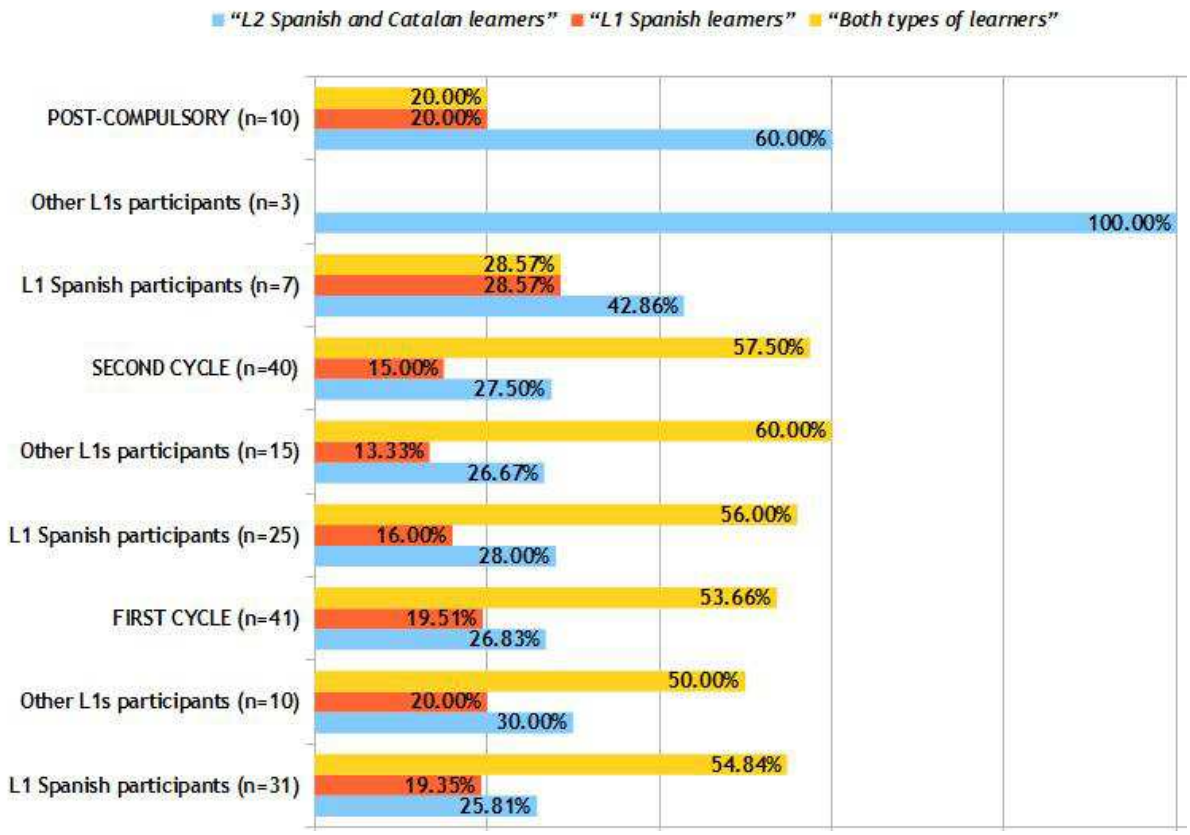
	First cycle				Second cycle				Post-compulsory			
	L1	***AoA***	***SP***	***RP***	***L1***	***AoA***	***SP***	***RP***	***L1***	***AoA***	***SP***	***RP***
1. Attitudes towards learning English	.364	-*.048**	-.611	-.109	.883	-.400-	.154	-.385	*.331*	.673	.865	-.742
2. Integrative attitudes	-.078	.728	-.909	-.496	-*.012**	.307	.510	-.343	-*.192*	-.132	-.044*	.432
3. Interest in an international English-speaking community	-.642	.838	-.811	-*.046**	.945	.585	.507	-.103	*1.000*	-.273	-.290	-.825
4. Instrumentality	.146	-.715	-.121	-*.044**	-.490	.-384	.129	-.362	*.848*	-.090	-*.001***	-.739
Expected school mark in English	.584	-.758	-.620	-.625	-*.036**	-.831	.409	-.388	*.432*	.107	.243	.911

6.2.1.9 Perceived ability according to L1 in the three school levels

This section presents qualitative results concerning the participants' *perceived ability in EFL according to L1*. This variable refers to the learners' beliefs concerning whether having *L1* or L2 Spanish/Catalan has a bearing in successful EFL learning. The participants were requested to mark which of the following type of learner was more able to learn English: a. *foreign students who speak a langu*age *different from Spanish and Catalan*, b. *students who only speak Spanish and Catalan*, or c. *both types of learners in the same way*. In addition, the participants were asked to justify their endorsement to each of the three answers.

The participants' answers to their beliefs concerning *perceived ability according to L1* indicate that most of the First and Second cycle participants, who are in Compulsory Secondary Education, think that both learners with *L1* Spanish and L2 Catalan and those with a different *L1* had a similar ability to learn English (see Figure 18). However, the Post-compulsory group pointed to learners with an *L1* different from Spanish as being better at EFL. In the three groups, the answer which pointed to learners with L2 Spanish and Catalan as being better at EFL obtained higher endorsement than the belief that *L1* Spanish and L2 Catalan are more able to learn EFL. This was the case irrespective of the participants' *L1*. In First cycle and Post-compulsory education, the percentage of participants with *L1* Spanish that reported to believe that the other type of EFL learner was better was lower than the percentage of L2 Spanish participants with the same belief. The difference was more acute among the Post-compulsory participants, since 100% of the speakers of mother tongues different from Spanish in this group believed that their own type of learner was better than *L1* Spanish, while this belief reached 42.86% of endorsement among *L1* Spanish participants.

Figure 18. Percentage of *perceived ability according to L1* in First cycle, Second cycle and Post-compulsory education



The justifications given by the participants for each of the beliefs were grouped under several headings. These justifications and the number of learners who adhered to them are presented in Table 30 below.

Table 30. Reasons for *perceived ability according to L1* in the cross-sectional study

Who finds it easier to learn to learn English? *Why?*	First cycle (n=41)	Second cycle (n=40)	Post-compulsory (n=10)
A. Foreign students who speak a language different from Spanish and Catalan (*n*=28)	**11 (39.29%)**	**11 (39.29%)**	**6 (21.43%)**
1. "Foreign students who have an *L1* different from Spanish or Catalan have already studied or spoken English in their countries."	4 (36.36%)	2 (18.18%)	0 (0.00%)
2. "The more languages you command or you are taught, the easier it is to learn additional languages."	0 (0.00%)	3 (27.27%9	1 (16.67%)
3. "It is easier to learn English if your *L1* is a Germanic language or if it is more similar to English than Spanish or Catalan."	1 (9.09%)	1 (9.09%)	2 (33.33%)
4. "Foreign students with an *L1* different from Spanish or Catalan find it easier to learn foreign languages"/No specific reason.	1 (9.09%)	2 (18.18%)	1 (16.67%)
5. Other reasons	1 (9.09%)	1 (9.09%)	1 (16.67%)
No answer	4 (36.36%)	2 (18.18%)	1 (16.67%)
B. Students who only speak Spanish and Catalan (*n*=16)	**8 (50.00%)**	**6 (37.50%)**	**2 (12.50%)**
1. "Learning EFL is an extra effort for foreign students who speak a language different from Spanish/Catalan as a *L1*".	3 (37.50%)	4 (66.67%)	0 (0.00%)
2. Other reasons	1 (12.50%)	1 (16.67%)	0 (0.00%)
3. "I don't know".	1 (12.50%)	1 (16.67%)	0 (0.00%)
No answer	3 (37.50%)	0 (0.00%)	2 (100.00%)
C. Both types of learners in the same way (*n*=47)	**22 (46.81%)**	**23 (48.94%)**	**2 (4.26%)**
1. "Anybody can learn English".	4 (18.18%)	7 (30.43%)	0 (0.00%)
2. "Easiness in learning EFL depends on the learner's personal ability."	2 (9.09%)	2 (8.70%)	0 (0.00%)
3. "Success in EFL depends on effort or *motivation* in language learning or in any type of activity."	5 (22.73%)	4 (17.39%)	1 (50.00%)
4. "EFL poses the same difficulty as a FL irrespective of the *L1* or the number of previous languages".	1 (4.55%)	5 (21.74%)	1 (50.00%)
5. "Success in EFL depends on whether the *L1* is more similar to English than Spanish and Catalan are."	0 (0.00%)	1 (4.35%)	0 (0.00%)
6. No specific reason	1 (4.55%)	0 (0.00%)	0 (0.00%)
7. "I don't know"	1 (4.55%)	1 (4.35%)	0 (0.00%)
8. No answer	8 (36.36%)	3 (13.04%)	0 (0.00%)

As Table 30 shows, 28 learners thought that "Foreign students who speak a language different from Spanish and Catalan" (**option A**) find it easier to learn English. The reasons given to support this statement have been grouped under five headings. Seven students who adhered to the idea that Spanish/Catalan *L1* speakers were worse learners of EFL did not provide with any reasons.

To begin with, four participants gave reasons under the **first** heading ("The more languages you command or you are taught, the easier it is to learn additional languages"). Most of them stated it explicitely, like PC05ESO3 (second cycle group) who put forward that "The more languages you speak, the easier it is for you to learn new languages". Two students mentioned that such students come from countries where more languages are spoken and taught at school, which involves the idea that speaking or learning more languages leads to higher ability in additional languages.

Four students adhered to a reason encompassed in answer group **two** ("It is easier to learn English if your *L1* is a Germanic language or if it is more similar to English than Spanish or Catalan"). This answer hints at *language typology* or *langu*age *distance* as a reason to support the belief that learners with an *L1* different from Spanish or Catalan are better at EFL. Thus, according to such justifications, learning EFL will be easier for those students with an *L1* similar to English.

Two participants believed that foreign students who speak native tongues different from Spanish or Catalan already study or speak English in their country (i. e., **reason 3**: "Foreign students who have an *L1* different from Spanish or Catalan had already studied or spoken English in their country"). Two other participants thought that foreign students with an *L1* different from Spanish or Catalan are better learners of foreign languages (**reason 4**). The two last justifications point to the common believe in Spain that Spanish people are poor learners of foreign languages and that English is not properly taught in this country.

Three learners pointed to **other reasons** to justify the belief that *L1* Spanish learners are worse at EFL. One of these is reflected in the following statement: "If we have learnt Spanish, we can also learn English", produced by

PC32ESO2, who is a speaker of Arabic and Berber. This points to a constation of an ability to learn languages which are different from the *L1*. It may also be related to *language typology*, as probably this participant implied that English is more similar to Spanish and Catalan than Arabic is. Thefore, an Arabic *L1* student who has learnt Spanish or Catalan is also able to learn English. Finally, PC56ESO4, a learner in the Second cycle group (2009/2010 school year) and Post-compulsory education (2010/2011 school year) also pointed out that in his country, Morocco, people master more languages (which hints at the ability of Moroccan people to learn languages) and they take language learning more seriously.

As mentioned above, the belief according to which students who only speak Spanish and Catalan are better learners of EFL (**option B**) obtained the lowest percentage of endorsement. Reason number one, which points to an extra effort of foreign students in learning EFL, was given by seven participants. The category "Other reasons" encompasses two justifications. One learner (PC27ESO4, second cycle), pointed out that learners with Spanish and Catalan as their *L1* had better skills to learn languages. The other student, PC31ESO1 (First cycle) wrote: "who teaches you (English) speaks Spanish and, if the other students do not command Spanish, they will not understand it (English)".

Finally, the assertion that both types of learners can have the same aptitude to learn EFL (**option C**) was the most frequently endorsed and it yielded the highest number of reasons. The most common justification (mentioned 11 times) is number **one**, i. e. "Anybody can learn English", which expresses a general ability to learn English. For instance, PC36ESO1 (First cycle, *L1* Spanish) believed that "eventually both (types of learners) would learn". PC7ESO2 (First cycle, *L1* Russian) thinks that "everybody can learn". The **second** type of reasons point to the "learner's personal ability" in learning EFL. As an example of reason categorised under heading two, PC19ESO2 wrote that "it depends on the person, on whether it is difficult for you or not". Reason number **three**, "Success in EFL depends on effort or motivation in language learning or in any type of activity", is the second most common justification among the immigrant participants who adhered to option C, with

10 cases. An example of reason under such category is given by participant PC03ESO2 (First cycle, *L1* Spanish), who stated that if learners of EFL "make an effort, they will learn". PC35ESO1, a Russian *L1* speaker, gave no specific reason to support his adherence to option C, but he pointed out that Spanish and Catalan have letters which are similar to English. In other words, he made an observation about a specific feature in relation to *language distance*, i. e., spelling.

6.2.1.10 Perceived ability in EFL according to L1 in the longitudinal study

Figure 19 displays data on *perceived ability in EFL according to L1* in relation to the participants' *L1* (i. e., the type of *L1* learner they belong to) in the longitudinal study in the ESO1-ESO2 group. The results in this longitudinal group replicates the findings in First cycle and Second cycle in the first collection time, as the most frequently endorsed option was that *L1* had no bearing on aptitude to learn EFL (40%). However, the results changed in the last collection time: 50% of participans in this longitudinal group believed that L2 Spanish and Catalan learners were more able in EFL. This result is similar to that in Post-compulsory education group. At the last collection time, most of the *L1* Spanish participants in this longitudinal group (44.44%) believed that the other type of learner is better at EFL. Two *L1*-Spanish participants changed from option B to option C (from their own type of learner as better at EFL to both types as being equally able), two *L1*-Spanish participants changed from option C to option A (the other type of *L1* learner) and one *L1*-Spanish participant modified her answer from option C to option B (her own type of L1 learner). The only participant with other *L1s* in this group believed in both collection times that her own type of learner is better at EFL.

Figure 19. Percentages of *perceived ability in EFL according to L1* from the first collection time to the last time in the ESO1-ESO2 group

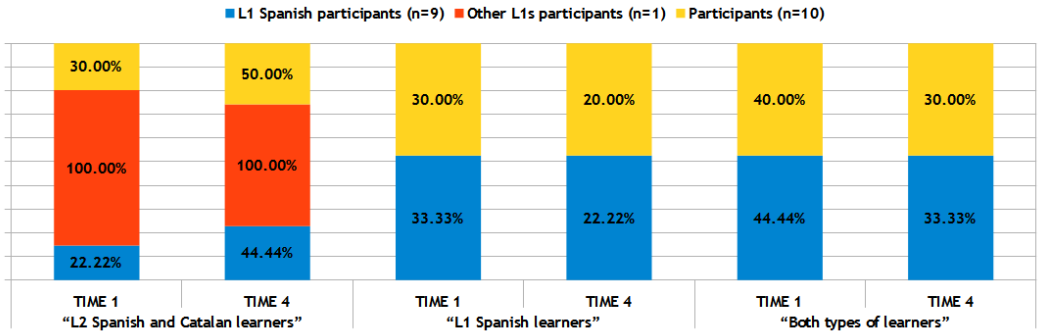
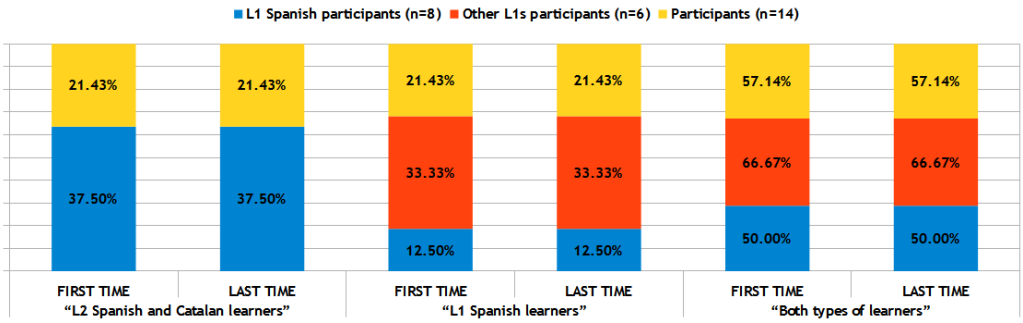


Figure 20 below shows the indices of *perceived ability in EFL according to L1* in the ESO2-ESO3 longitudinal group. In both collection times, the participants believed, like in the First and Second cycle group, that both types of *L1* learners were equally able to learn EFL (57.14% in both collection times). Also like these two cross-sectional groups, the L1 Spanish participants endorsed the belief that the other *L1* type of EFL learner was better than their own learner category (37.50%) with a frequency higher than the opposite view (12.50%). The percentage of L2 Spanish and Catalan participants who endorsed the belief that their own type of L1 learner was less able to learn EFL than L1 Spanish pupils (33.33%) was higher than in the ESO1-ESO2 group and the three cross-sectional groups. The results show no change from the first collection time to the last.

Figure 20. Percentages of *perceived ability in EFL according to L1* from Time 1 to Time 4 in the ESO2-ESO3 group



Like *perceived L1 ability according to L1*, the justifications given for the participants' opinions did not keep stable throughout the two academic years

as some of the participants changed their reasons from the first collection time to the last. Table 31 shows the distribution of such reasons in the first collection time and the last one in the ESO1-ESO2 group. The most frequent justification for the belief that participants with an *L1* different from Spanish is "The more languages you command or you are taught, the easier it is to learn additional languages", put forward by two participants in both collection times. The second reason most frequently endorsed was "Foreign students who have an *L1* different from Spanish or Catalan had already studied or spoken English in their countries", reported by one participant at the last collection time. The reason "It is easier to learn English if your *L1* is a Germanic language or if it is more similar to English than Spanish or Catalan" found no representation in the ESO1-ESO2 group.

Table 31. Reasons given by the participants to justify the type of learner according to L1 who is a better learner of EFL in the ESO1-ESO2 group

Who finds it easier to learn to learn English? *Why?*	**Collection time 1 (n=10)**	**Collection time 4 (n=10)**
A. *Foreign students who speak a language different from Spanish and Catalan*	**3 (30%)**	**5 (50%)**
1. "The more languages you command or you are taught, the easier it is to learn additional languages."	2 (66.67%)	2 (40.00%)
2. "Foreign students who have an ***L1*** different from Spanish or Catalan had already studied or spoken English in their countries."	0 (0.00%)	1 (20.00%)
No answer	1 (33.33%)	2 (40.00%)
B. *Students who only speak Spanish and Catalan*	**3 (30%)**	**2 (20%)**
1. "Learning EFL is an extra effort for foreign students who speak a language different from Spanish/Catalan as an ***L1***."	0 (0.00%)	1 (50.00%)
2. "The person who teaches you English speaks Spanish. If the students don't speak Spanish, they won't understand."	1 (33.33%)	0 (0%)
No answer	2 (66.67%)	1 (50.00%)
C. *Both types of learners in the same way*	**4 (40%)**	**3 (30%)**
1. "Success in EFL depends on effort or ***motivation*** in language learning or in any type of activity."	1 (25.00%)	2 (66.67%)
2. "Both types of learners learn English."	2 (50.00%)	0 (0%)
3. No answer	1 (25.55%)	1 (33.33%)

In order to justify the belief that *L1* Spanish are better learners of EFL, the following two reasons were mentioned: "Learning EFL is an extra effort for foreign students who speak a language different from Spanish/Catalan as an *L1*" and "The person who teaches you English speaks Spanish. If the students don't speak Spanish, they won't understand". The former was given by one participant in the last collection time, while the latter was given by one participant in the first collection time.

The reasons given to explain endorsement to the belief that both types of learners are equally able to learn EFL were "Success in EFL depends on effort or motivation in language learning or in any type of activity", given by

one participant in the first collection time and two in the last one, and "Both types of learners learn English", given by two participants in the first collection time.

Table 29 shows the resuls on *perceived ability according to L1* in the ESO2-ESO3 longitudinal group. As the results indicate, the justifications kept more stable from the first collection time to the last than in the ESO1-ESO2 group. The justification labelled as "The more languages you command or you are taught, the easier it is to learn additional languages" found no endorsement to justify the belief that learners with an L1 different from Spanish are better at EFL. The only two reasons given for option A were "It is easier to learn English if your L1 is a Germanic language or if it is more similar to English than Spanish or Catalan" and "Foreign students who have an L1 different from Spanish or Catalan had already studied or spoken English in their countries". The latter was put forward by participant PL21 in both collection times. The former was mentioned by PL16 at the last collection time.

Table 32. Reasons given by the participants to justify the type of learner according to L1 who is a better learner of EFL in the ESO2-ESO3 group

Who finds it easier to learn to learn English? *Why?*	**Collection time 1 (n=14)**	**Collection time 4 (n=14)**
A. Foreign students who speak a language different from Spanish and Catalan	**3 (21.42%)**	**3 (21.42%)**
1. "It is easier to learn English if your *L1* is a Germanic language or if it is more similar to English than Spanish or Catalan."	0 (0.00%)	1 (33.33%)
2. "Foreign students who have an *L1* different from Spanish or Catalan had already studied or spoken English in their countries."	1 (33.33%)	1 (33.33%)
No answer	2 (66.67%)	1 (33.33%)
B. Students who only speak Spanish and Catalan	**3 (21.42%)**	**3 (21.42%)**
1. "Learning EFL is an extra effort for foreign students who speak a language different from Spanish/Catalan as an *L1*".	2 (66.67%)	2 (66.67%)
2. "I don't know".	1 (33.33%)	1 (33.33%)
C. Both types of learners in the same way	**8 (57.14%)**	**8 (57.14%)**
1. "Anybody can learn English."	2 (25.00%)	2 (25.00%)
2. "Easiness in learning EFL depends on the learner's personal ability."	1 (12.50%)	1 (12.50%)
3. "Success in EFL depends on whether the *L1* is more similar to English than Spanish and Catalan are."	1 (12.50%)	1 (12.50%)
4. No specific reason	1 (12.50%)	1 (12.50%)
5. "I don't know"	1 (12.50%)	1 (12.50%)
6. No answer	2 (25.00%)	2 (25.00%)

Only one reason was given to explain endorsement to the belief that *L1* Spanish and L2 Catalan learners are more able to learn EFL: "Learning EFL is an extra effort for foreign students who speak a language different from Spanish/Catalan as an *L1*". This reason was given by two learners (PL06 and PL59) in both collection times (66.67%).

In order to justify the belief that both types of learners are equally able to learn EFL, the most endorsed justification was "Anybody can learn English", given by two participants (25.00%) at the first collection time and the last collection time. The other two reasons were "Easiness in learning EFL depends

on the learner's personal ability" and "Success in EFL depends on whether the *L1* is more similar to English than Spanish and Catalan are", each given by one participant, i. e., 12.50%. In the rest of cases, one participant did not give a specific reason (i. e., both are equally able), another one expressed that they did not know why they held this belief and two participants (25.00%) did not write any answers.

6.2.2. Affective variables and achievement in EFL

6.2.2.1 Introduction

The purpose of this section is to answer Research Question 1c, i. e., *Is there a relationship between the participants'* affective variables *and their* achievement *in EFL?* This particular Research Question only affects the cross-sectional study, as the longitudinal study was not concerned with the relationship between *affective variables* and *achievement*. In this section, we will present results concerning correlations held by *attitudes* and *perceived chances of success* with *achievement* in EFL in the three cross-sectional groups. The findings on the relationship between our participants' *affective variables* and indices of *achievement in EFL* will be preceded by the presentation of results concerning *achievement in EFL* in our sample (section 6.2.2.2) and their relationship with two personal variables (*L1* and *AoA*) in section 6.2.2.3.

6.2.2.2 Achievement in EFL in the three levels

The three measures of *achievement* in English used in the present study were *school mark in English*, *written mark* and *oral mark* (see section 5.4) that correlated positively in the three groups, with the exception of *school mark in English* and *written mark* in the Post-compulsory group. In addition, the correlations established between such measures were strong.

The different measures of *proficiency* obtained by the groups indicate that, in general, *achievement* in English improved as *school level* increased (see Table 33 and Table 34). Such progress was expected in *written mark* and

oral mark, since they refer to the same scale for all the levels (and *school level* implies higher attainment in English). Improvement in the marks for the written and oral narratives is more noticeable in the written task than in oral production. The difference between the lowest average level (corresponding to First cycle) and the highest average level (in Post-compulsory education) was 4.37 for *written mark* and 3.70 for *oral mark*. Less expected was the progress in *school mark* in English across the three groups, which also rises in comparison to the previous *school level*s. Thus, the average *school mark* in English in the Post-compulsory education group (5.82) was higher than it was in Second cycle (5.35) and, especially, in First cycle (4.88). The mean school mark obtained by the Second cycle was lower than among their local peers (5.88). The superiority of Post-compulsory learners is also reflected in the fact that the percentage of learners who failed English was lower in this group than in First cycle and Second cycle. Thus, the percentage of students who failed in First cycle is 24.39%, while the percentage decreased in Second cycle to 20.00% and, in Post-compulsory education, to 9.09%. Likewise, the proportion of learners with higher school marks is larger as we move from First cycle to the Post-compulsory group.

Table 33. *Achievement* indices in English, Spanish and Catalan in First cycle, Second cycle and Post-compulsory education

	School mark in English	Written mark	Oral mark	School mark in Spanish	School mark in Catalan
First cycle (*n*=41)	4.88	1.53	1.50	5.41	5.22
Second cycle (*n*=40)	5.35	3.43	2.89	5.60	5.35
Post-compulsory (*n*=11)	5.82	5.90	5.20	5.91	5.30

Table 34. Percentages of *school marks* in English in First cycle, Second cycle and Post-compulsory education

School mark in English	First cycle (*n*=41)		Second cycle (*n*=40)		Post-compulsory (*n*=11)	
Fail (1-4)	10	(24.39%)	8	(20.00%)	1	(9.09%)
Pass (5)	19	(46.34%)	16	(40.00%)	4	(36.36%)
Good (6)	10	(24.39%)	9	(22.50%)	2	(18.18%)
Very good (7-8)	2	(4.88%)	6	(15.00%)	3	(27.27%)
Excellent (9-10)	0	(0.00%)	1	(2.50%)	1	(9.09%)

As can be seen in Table 33, *school marks in Spanish* also improve across levels, but the difference between the highest and the lowest *school mark* is smaller than it is in English (0.50 vs 0.94). Catalan presents a different case, as the school mark in this language at the Post-compulsory level is slightly lower than the school mark in the Second cycle group. In addition, the difference between the lowest and the highest average level is smaller than it is in English and Spanish (0.12). In the three groups, the highest average *school mark* is obtained in Spanish.

6.2.2.3 The relationship of achievement with L1 and AoA

Data were submitted to a Spearman rho test to find out that the measures of *achievement in English* correlated with *L1* or *AoA* in some groups (see Table 35). In the First cycle group, ***L1*** correlated with *written mark* (p=.005), which means that learners with an *L1* different from Spanish obtained higher marks in the written task. In the Second cycle group, the same variable correlated with *oral mark* (*p*=.006). The only two correlations established were positive, which meant that *L1s* different from Spanish were more related to *achievement in EFL* than *L1* Spanish. Such a result is partially in line with the participants' *perceived ability according to L1*, as the opinion that learners who did not speak Spanish as their mother tongue were better learners of *L1* was the second most common belief among our participants after the view that *L1* had no bearing on learning EFL.

Table 35. Correlations between *achievement in EFL* and *L1* and *AoA* in First cycle, Second cycle and Post-compulory education (Spearman rho test)

	Fist cycle			Second cycle			Post-compulsory		
	School mark in English *n*=38	***Written mark*** *n*=37	***Oral mark*** *n*=38	***School mark in English*** *n*=56	***Written mark*** *n*=35	***Oral mark*** *n*=37	***School mark in English*** *n*=11	***Written mark*** *n*=10	***Oral mark*** *n*=10
L1	.168	.005**	.163	.194	.432	*.006***	.923	.225	.153
AoA	-.162	-.044*	-.372	-.958	.439	*-.012**	.035*	.196	.294

As for ***AoA***, this second personal variable attained a significant correlation with only one of the measures of *achievement* in each group (see

Table 35 above). The correlations of *AoA* with *written mark* and *oral mark* parallelled those established with *L1*, but they were negative. Thus, in First cycle, *AoA* correlated negatively with *written mark* (p=-.044), which indicates that learners who arrived in Spain/Catalonia at a younger age showed higher *achievement* in the written task. In Second cycle, *AoA* correlated with oral mark (p=-.012). This correlation, also negative, suggested that learners with an older *AoA* performed worse in the oral task in this particular group. In the Post-compulory group, *AoA* correlated positively with *school mark* in English (in other words, those who had come earlier obtained higher *school marks*). This correlation contradicts the findings in First cycle and Second cycle as the correlation in Post-compulsory education was positive.

6.2.2.4 Correlations between affective variables and achievement in English

As mentioned in section 5.4 (*Instruments and measures*), the measure of *achievement* intended to be related to *affective variables* was *school mark in English*, as the span in the bands for *written mark* and *oral mark* was too large to distinguish learners within the same *school level*. If indices of *affective variables* had been related to these two measures of *achievement*, the results would not have been accurate. For example, a participant in ESO1 and a participant in PSC2 with similar scores in the *affective variables* measures and a similar *school mark in English* will have different indices in *written mark* and *oral mark*.

As Table 36 below shows, the findings of a Spearman rho test reveal that *attitudes towards learning English* and *expected school mark in English* are the only quantitative *affective variables* that correlated with *school mark in English* in the three groups. The strongest correlation was found in the Post-compulsory group (with a correlation coefficient of *p*=.016), while the weakest correlation was found in Second cycle group (*p*=.030), slightly lower than the statistical significance level in First cycle (*p*=.028). In Second cycle, a correlation between *interest in an international community* and *school mark* was established at significance level *p*=.032. All these correlations were positive, which indicates that, as the indices in these *affective variables* are higher, *achievement* in EFL is also higher.

Table 36. Correlations between *affective variables* and *school mark in English* in First cycle, Second cycle and Post-compulsory education (Spearman rho test)

Affective variable	*School mark in English*		
	First cycle	Second cycle	Post-compulsory
1. Attitudes towards learning English	*.028**	*.030**	*.016**
2. Integrative attitudes	.270	.702	.461
3. Interest in an international English-speaking community	.321	*.032**	.651
4. Instrumentality	.129	.089	.113
Expected school mark in English	.008**	.033*	.001**

Despite the fact that we intended to correlate *affective variables* with *school mark in English*, we thought that testing the statistical relationship between *affective variables* and, on the other hand, *written* and *oral mark* would confirm the correlations obtained by *school mark* in English. Table 37 below shows the correlations found through a Spearman rho test between *affective variables* and the other two measures of *achievement* in English, *written mark* and *oral mark*, which were not consistent. Interestingly, *attitudes towards learning English* correlated with *written mark* in Second cycle and *oral mark* in Post-compulsory education. In addition, *expected school mark in English* also correlated with both *written* and *oral marks* in Second cycle and Post-compulsory education. Such fingings match the correlations between *attitudes towards learning English* and *expected school mark* and, on the other hand, *school mark* in EFL.

Table 37. Correlations between *affective variables* and *written mark* and *oral mark* in First cycle, Second cycle and Post-compulsory education (Spearman rho test)

Affective variable	First cycle		Second cycle		Post-compulsory education	
	Written mark	Oral mark	Written mark	Oral mark	Written mark	Oral mark
1. Attitudes towards learning English	.387	.188	*.001***	.162	.051	*.007***
2. Integrative attitudes	-.541	-.372	.152	.952	.121	.227
3. Interest in an international English-speaking community	.787	.456	.010*	.167	.642	.804
4. Instrumentality	.494	.221	.200	.726	.526	-.251
Expected school mark in English	.256	.105	.014*	.002**	.005**	*.003***

6.2.2.5 Correlations between affective variables and achievement in English in the local sample

The correlations between *attitudes* and *school mark in English* in the local sample show a picture different from the immigrant groups, as *attitudes towards learning English* did not correlate with *school mark in English*. Instead of this particular attitudinal factor, *integrative attitudes* had a statistical relationship with *achievement*. On the other hand, the statistically significant correlation of *expected school mark* and *school mark* matches the results in the immigrant groups.

Table 38. Correlations between affective variables and school mark in English in the local Second cycle group (Spearman rho test)

Affective variable	*School mark in English*
1. Attitudes towards learning English	*.070*
2. Integrative attitudes	.013*
3. Interest in an international English-speaking community	*.288*
4. Instrumentality	.718
Expected school mark in English	.017*

6.3. Cross-linguistic influence

6.3.1. Introduction

This section deals with numbers and type of *CLI* in the participants' written and oral production in English in order to answer Research Question 2a (*Do the participants draw on* ***other languages*** *in their oral and written lexical production in English? If so, what is the relationship between* cross-linguistic influence *and the participants' achievement in EFL, their personal variables and their* affective variables*?*).

6.3.2. Indices of cross-linguistic influence in the three school levels

The results show that as *school level* increases, both the percentage of elements transferred and the number of participants who relied on other languages decreased (see Table 39). The only exception is the number of learners who transferred in their written production in Second cycle, which is slightly higher (56.76%) in comparison with the First cycle group (52.63%). The results also reveal that the oral narrative triggered more *CLI* than its written version in the three groups, measured both in the percentage of participants who resorted to *CLI* and the percentage of transferred elements out of the total number of words produced.

Table 39. Cross-linguistic influence in First cycle, Second cycle and Post-compulsory education

	First cycle *(n=38)*		Second cycle (*n=37)*		Post-compulsory *(n=10)*	
	Written (*n*=1.179)	**Oral** (*n*=2.309)	**Written** (*n*=2.252)	**Oral** (*n*=3.327)	**Written** (*n*=643)	**Oral** (*n*=898)
Participants who transfer	20 (52.63%)	35 (92.11%)	21 (56.76%)	32 (86.49%)	1 (10.00%)	4 (40.00%)
Tokens transferred	91 (7.72%)	567 (24.56%)	62 (2.75%)	624 (18.76%)	2 (0.31%)	66 (7.35%)

Table 40 below shows the raw numbers and percentages of *borrowings* and *lexical inventions* in the written production of the three groups. The percentages are calculated out of the total number of written transferred tokens in each group. We recall here that transferred tokens in the written data only accomplished the FILL function (i. e., to fill gaps in the narrative). The data indicate that the percentage of *borrowings* is higher than the percentage of *lexical inventions*. As for the comparison of the percentage of both *types* of *CLI* in the three groups, the percentage of *borrowings* slightly decreased from First cycle to Second cycle (75.82% versus 72.58%) and increased in the Post-compulsory group (100%), while *lexical inventions* slightly rose from First cycle (24.18%) to Second cycle (27.42%) and they did not appear in Post-compulsory education (see 6.3.3).

Table 40. *Borrowings* and *lexical inventions* in the oral data in First cycle, Second cycle and Post-compulsory education

Written data	**First cycle (*n*=34) (*transferred items*: 91)**	**Second cycle (*n*=37) (*transferred items*: 62)**	**Post-compulsory (*n*=10) (*transferred items*: 2)**
Borrowings			
Learners who transfer	14 (41.18%)	16 (43.24%)	1 (10 %)
Number of transferred items	69 (75.82%)	45 (72.58%)	2 (100%)
Lexical inventions			
Learners who transfer	10 (24.18%)	8 (21.62%)	0 (0%)
Number of transferred items	22 (24.18%)	17 (27.42%)	0 (0%)

The following sample of written production (produced by PC51ESO1) illustrates *CLI* in the participants' output in EFL:

1. *Three persons its **preparecion** a picnic, a mum it cake (**portar**).*
2. *The mum it **un** mantel **para** (**comer**)*
3. *Mum it bll bll the girl and boy ball ball.*
4. *The gerl and boy its **montanya** a picnic*
   *The boy and girl **treure** bresfas.*
   *Look **a** **cesta** not its dog **correr**.*

In the above example of written production, 5 items were drawn from Spanish (in red), three were transferred from Catalan (in blue) and two were drawn either from Spanish or Catalan (in purple). All of them were instances of borrowings except for *preparecion*, which is a lexical invention.

Table 41 below displays the results concerning amount and type of *CLI* in the oral data. In contrast to the written task, oral *borrowings* accomplished three possible functions (HELP for clarification and help requests, COM for comments and FILL to complete gaps in the narrative task), while *lexical inventions* could only be found in the FILL function. Transferred tokens in HELP and COM, the two instrumental functions, were not intended to be produced in the target language. Therefore, the percentage for *borrowings* in the three functions and *lexical inventions* are not comparable. For this reason, the figures of *borrowings* for each function are given separately. As Table 41 shows, the production of *lexical inventions* is, like in the written data, lower than the number of *borrowings*, even when compared exclusively to *borrowings* in the FILL function. The comparison of percentages of *borrowings* and *lexical inventions* in the three groups indicates that the former increased with *school level*, while the latter decreased. However, the difference was small.

Table 41. *Borrowings* and *lexical inventions* in the oral data in First cycle, Second cycle and Post-compulsory education

	First cycle (n=38) (*transferred tokens*: 567)		Second cycle (n=37) (*transferred tokens*: 624)		Post-compulsory (n=4) (*transferred tokens*: 66)	
	Learners who transfer	Number of transferred tokens	Learners who transfer	Number of transferred tokens	Learners who transfer	Number of transferred tokens
Borrowings	35 (92.11%)	556 (98.06%)	32 (86.49%)	613 (98.24%)	4 (40%)	65 (98.48%)
HELP	9 (25.71%)	56 (10.07%)	8 (21.62%)	30 (4.89%)	1 (10%)	5 (7.69%)
COM	28 (80%)	339 (60.97%)	26 (70.26%)	290 (47.31%)	3 (30%)	49 (75.38%)
FILL	22 (62.86%)	161 (28.96%)	27 (72.97%)	293 (47.80%)	4 (40%)	11 (16.92%)
Lexical inventions	6 (15.79%)	11 (1.94%)	8 (21.62%)	11 (1.76%)	1 (10%)	1 (1.52%)

Below is an example of transcription of the oral production of one of the participatns (PC32ESO2):

SUBJECT: *Eh it's an dog and and girl and boy it's prepa prepared one eh one ehm dinner in mountain ehm ehm boy eh moon eh the the sun the sun ehm one map in boy and girl i ehm go eh boy and girl go to the mountain eh in mountain eh ehm have got a sister i # per agafar el dinner eh encon trob troben el dog que s'havia s'havia menj comido todo i el go dog ehm it's a salting jumping eh in mountain eh and boy and girl it's sorpres.*

RESEARCHER: *Ok. It's that the end?*

SUBJECT: *Qué?*

RESEARCHER: *Finished?*

SUBJECT: *Hmmm*

In the above sample, 6 of the transferred items were drawn from Catalan (in blue), two from Spanish (in red) and three from either Spanish or Catalan (in purple). Only one of these items was a *lexical invention* (*salting*). All of them were produced with the FILL function except for *Qué?*, which was was used to address the interlocutor (i. in the HELP function).

A Kruskal-Wallis test revealed that the difference in *amount* of written and oral *CLI* and oral *borrowings* (in the FILL function) in some of the groups attained statistical significance. A Mann-Whitney U test showed that the

difference was established between First cycle and Post-compulsory education. Table 42 shows the significance level of such differences.

Table 42. Significance level of the difference in the numbers of transferred tokens, *borrowings* and *lexical inventions* in the oral and written production in First cycle and Post-compulsory education (Kruskal-Wallis and Mann-Whitney U tests)

	Number of transferred items	Borrowings	Lexical inventions
Written production	-.017*	-	-
Oral production	-.001**	-.017*	-

Note: – indicates that the participants did not produce enough items

6.3.3. Indices of cross-linguistic Influence in the longitudinal study

The findings in the cross-sectional study pointed to a decrease in the percentage of **transferred items** from First cycle to Post-compulsory education. In the longitudinal study, the implication that the amount of *CLI* would decrease with *hours of instruction*, which involves increasing *age* and *achievement* in the target language, was partially confirmed. As Table 43 and Table 44 show, the mean and the average rank for transferred items decreased from the first collection time to the last in the participants' written and oral production in both ESO1-ESO2 and ESO2-ESO3 groups (albeit the difference in the mean for the written production of the ESO1-ESO2 group was small). However, a Wilcoxon Rank test indicated that the difference was statistically significant only in the oral data of the ESO2-ESO3 group (p=.012).

Table 43. Difference between the first and last collection times in the number of transferred items in the oral and the written data in the ESO1-ESO2 group (Wilcoxon test)

Number of transferred items	Collection	*n*	Mean	SD	Mean rank	*p*
Written production	First collection time	10	.70	.82	1.50	1.00
	Last collection time		.56	.53	1.50	
Oral production	First collection time	10	2.33	1.58	4.10	-.26
	Last collection time		1.70	1.06	3.75	

Table 44. Difference between the first and last collection times in the number of transferred item in the oral and written data in the ESO2-ESO3 group (Wilcoxon test)

Number of transferred items	Collection	*n*	Mean	SD	Mean rank	*p*
Written production	First collection time	14	.50	.76	4.75	-.380
	Last collection time		.29	.47	3.00	
Oral production	First collection time	14	3.14	2.32	5.44	-.012*
	Last collection time		1.17	1.19	1.50	

Results show that ***borrowings*** decreased from the first collection time to the last collection time in the written production of the ESO1-ESO2 group, while ***lexical inventions*** increased (see Table 45 below). However, opposite results were found in the oral production of this group, the percentages of *borrowings* slightly grew from the first collection time to the last and the percentages of *lexical inventions* fell.

Table 45. Difference between the first and last collection times in the number of *borrowings* and *lexical inventions* in written data in the ESO1-ESO2 group

Type of *CLI*	Collection	*n*	Percentages
Borrowings	First collection time	10	21 (65.63%)
	Last collection time		9 (45%)
Lexical inventions	First collection time	10	11 (34.37%)
	Last collection time		11 (55%)

Table 46. Difference between the first and last collection times in the number of *borrowings* and *lexical inventions* in oral data in the ESO1-ESO2 group

Type of *CLI*	Collection	*n*	Percentages
Borrowings (FILL)	First collection time	10	120 (96.77%)
	Last collection time		118 (99.16%)
Lexical inventions	First collection time	10	4 (16.88%)
	Last collection time		1 (0.84%)

The written results in the ESO2-ESO3 group are different from those in the ESO1-ESO2 group. In the written production of this group, the percentage of *borrowings* increased while the percentage of *lexical inventions* decreased (see Table 47). In the oral data of the ESO2-ESO3, the number of *borrowings* decreased from the first collection time to the last time, while the ratio of percentages of *lexical inventions* increased (see Table 48).

Table 47. Difference between the first and last collection times in the number of *borrowings* and *lexical inventions* in written data in the ESO2-ESO3 group

Type of *CLI*	Collection	*n*	Percentages
Borrowings	First collection time	14	23 (92%)
	Last collection time		32 (94.12%)
Lexical inventions	First collection time	14	2 (8%)
	Last collection time		2 (5.88%)

Table 48. Difference between the first and last collection times in the number of *borrowings* and *lexical inventions* in oral data in the ESO2-ESO3 group

Type of *CLI*	Collection	*n*	Percentage
Borrowings (FILL)	First collection time	10	234 (97.10%)
	Last collection time		104 (91.23%)
Lexical inventions	First collection time	10	7 (2.90%)
	Last collection time		10 (8.77.%)

6.3.4. Cross-linguistic influence and achievement

We have seen in section 6.3.2 that our findings suggested that the number of transferred items and of both *borrowings* and *lexical inventions* decreased as *school level*, which implied higher *age* and *achievement*, increased. However, as we have seen in the longitudinal study, only oral *CLI* significantly diminished with *hours of instruction* in the ESO2-ESO3 group. Likewise, the results in Table 49 and Table 50 for the written and oral data, respectively, point to only a few correlations between *CLI* and measures of *achievement*. None of these

correlations was established with *school mark* in English, which was included only as an additional measure. The few correlations established were negative, which indicates that higher *proficiency* in EFL is related to fewer transferred items in the TL production.

Table 49. Correlations between *CLI* and *achievement* in the written data in First cycle, Second cycle and Post-compulsory education (Spearman rho test)

	FIRST CYCLE	SECOND CYCLE	POST-COMPULSORY
Total CLI			
School mark in English	.618	-.336	-
Written mark	.834	*-.048**	-
Oral mark	-.677	*-.019**	-
Borrowings			
School mark in English	-.561	-.175	.832
Written mark	.209	*-.013**	.528
Oral mark	.494	-.062	.509
Lexical inventions			
School mark in English	.618	.832	-
Written mark	-723	.528	-
Oral mark	-.558	.509	-

Note: – indicates that the participants did not produce enough cases for Spearman rho test to calculate the correlation.

To begin with, the only correlations found in the participants' written production were established in Second cycle with numbers of transferred items and *borrowings* (see Table 44 above). The statistical relationship between written *amount of CLI* and *written mark* reached a statistically significant level of p=-.048. Interestingly, *amount of written CLI* correlated with *oral mark* at a higher significance level, i. e., *p*=-.019. *Borrowings* in the written narrative correlated with *written mark* (*p*=-.013), but not with *oral mark* (*p*=-.062). This suggests that learners in Second cycle with higher *achievement* in English produced fewer instances of CLI in general and fewer instances of *borrowings* (but not of *lexical inventions*). The data for Post-compulsory education were blank in some cases due to the extremely few instances of *CLI* produced in this group (only two) and the fact that they were produced by the same participant.

Table 50. Correlations between *CLI* and *achievement* in the oral data in First cycle, Second cycle and Post-compulsory education (Spearman rho test)

	FIRST CYCLE	SECOND CYCLE	POST-COMPULSORY
Total CLI			
School mark in English	-.411	-.076	-.178
Written mark	-.274	-.*001***	-.274
Oral mark	-.*000***	-.*000***	-.067
Borrowings			
School mark in English	-.066	-.103	-.310
Written mark	.841	-.055	-.345
Oral mark	-.515	-.*024**	-.178
Lexical inventions			
School mark in English	.715	-.700	-.504
Written mark	.770	-.304	.872
Oral mark	.788	.376	-.382

In our participants' oral production, like in the written data, amount of *CLI* significantly correlated with both *written* and *oral mark* (p=-.001 and p=-.000, respectively) in Second cycle. In addition, a correlation was established with *oral mark* (p=.000) in First cycle, a relationship that did not take place in the written data. These correlations between amount of *CLI* and indices of *achievement* just mentioned reached a very high level of significance, higher than in the written data. *Borrowings* only correlated with *oral mark* in Second cycle, with a significance level of p=-.024. In both First and Second cycle, higher *proficiency* in the oral task led to less *CLI*. In addition, it also led to fewer *borrowings* in the Second cycle learners' oral narrative. No correlation was established between measures of *achievement* and oral *CLI* in Post-compulsory education.

Again, the Post-compulsory education group showed results different to both First cycle and Second cycle. As Table 49 and Table 50 show, this particular group did not contain any correlations between indices of *achievement* and *CLI*. However the scarcity of transferred items in the written data of this group suggests a relationship between *achievement* and *CLI*, as it obtained the highest scores in *school mark* in English.

6.3.5. Cross-linguistic influence and L1, AoA, SP and RP

Table 51 and Table 52 below show the correlations between amount of *CLI*, *borrowings* and *lexical inventions* with the immigrant-specific variables included in the present study (*L1*, *AoA*, *SP* and *RP*) in the written and oral data, respectively. We recall here that the cases of written *CLI* in the Post-compulsory education group were too few for Spearman rho to calculate the statistical relationship between the variables. For this reason, there are no data in any of these tables for the total *amount of CLI* and numbers of *lexical inventions* in the written task produced by this group.

Table 51. Correlations between *CLI* and *L1* and *AoA* in the written data in First cycle, Second cycle and Post-compulsory education (Spearman rho test)

	FIRST CYCLE				SECOND CYCLE				POST-COMPULSORY			
	L1	*AoA*	*SP*	*RP*	*L1*	*AoA*	*SP*	*RP*	*L1*	*AoA*	*SP*	*RP*
Amount of CLI	.649	-.386	.738	.016*	-.242	.171	.242	.390	-	-	-	-
Borrowings	.347	-.427	.353	.868	-.492	.148	.492	.098	-.545	.844	.447	.662
Lexical inventions	.546	.405	.055	.077	.406	.944	.406	-.109	-	-	-	-

Table 52. Correlations between amount and type of *CLI* and L1 and AoA in in oral data data in First cycle, Second cycle and Post-compulsory education (Spearman rho test)

	FIRST CYCLE				SECOND CYCLE				POST-COMPULSORY			
	L1	*AoA*	*SP*	*RP*	*L1*	*AoA*	*SP*	*RP*	*L1*	*AoA*	*SP*	*RP*
Amount of CLI	-.961	.170	.854	.950	-.136	-.*045**	-.*317*	.*240*	-.226	-.439	-.629	.397
Borrowings	.873	-.955	.921	-.003**	-.718	.242	-.299	.056	-.359	.769	.675	.662
Lexical inventions	-.684	-.442	.905	.217	.298	-989	-.080	.815	-.545	.844	-.447	.489

The findings show that *L1* did not yield any significant correlations with *amount* or *type of CLI*. On the other hand, *AoA* only correlated with *amount of CLI* in the oral data produced by the Second cycle (p=-.045). The correlation was negative, which meant that as the participants in this particular group arrived in Catalonia at an older age, they transferred fewer items from other

languages in their oral production in English. As for *SP*, this particular variable did not correlate with any of the *CLI* variables in the written or oral production in any of the three cross-sectional groups. Finally, *RP* obtained two statistically significant correlations in First cycle: with *amount of CLI* in the written task and with *borrowings* in the oral narrative. The first of these correlations was positive and the latter was negative. The findings suggest that in this group those participants with no *RP* transferred more items in their written production, whereas those whose families had *RP* transferred fewer *borrowings*.

6.3.6. Cross-linguistic influence and affective variables

Table 53 shows the results of a Spearman rho test on the relationship between *affective variables* and *amount of CLI* in the written and oral data. Only two of the *affective variables* correlated with amount of *CLI*: *attitudes towards learning English* and *expected school mark in English*. The first attained two statistically significant correlations: with the written production of the Second cycle participants (p=-.049) and with the oral production in Post-compulsory education (p=-0.25). *Expected school mark in English* correlated with *amount of CLI* also in the oral production of the oldest group. The three correlations were negative: as indices in the mentioned *affective variables* were higher, the participants drew fewer tokens from other languages.

Table 53. Correlations between *affective variables* and *amount of CLI* in the written and oral narratives (Spearman rho test)

	Written CLI			Oral CLI		
Attitudinal factors	**First cycle**	**Second cycle**	**Post-compulsory**	**First cycle**	**Second cycle**	**Post-compulsory**
1. Attitudes towards learning English	.961	-.*049**	-	-.315	-.121	-.025*
2. Integrative attitudes	.109	-.475	-	-.630	-.206	.369
3. Interest in an international English-speaking community	.201	-.125	-	-.749	-.286	-.162
4. Instrumentality	.371	-.353	-	-.477	.983	.753
Self-perceived chances of success						
Expected school mark in English	.734	-.493	-	-.291	-.085	-.*026**

Note: - indicates that the participants did not produce enough items for Spearman rho test to calculate the correlations.

Table 54 below shows the correlations between *affective variables* and *type of CLI* (*borrowings* and *lexical inventions*) in the written data. Only two *affective variables* correlated with *type of CLI* and the statistical relationship was negative. To begin with, *interest in an international community* reached a statistically significant correlation with *borrowings* in the Second cycle (p=.031). *Instrumentality* correlated with both *borrowings* and *lexical inventions*, attaining a high significance level (p=.007 and p=.004 respectively). According to such results, Second cycle learners with positive instrumental *attitudes towards EFL* transferred fewer *borrowings* and *lexical inventions* from other languages in their written production in the TL. In a similar way, learners in the same group with lower indices in *interest in an international English-speaking community* transferred more *borrowings*. As no instance of *lexical invention* was produced in the written narrative of the Post-compulsory education group, Spearman rho test could not calculate the statistical significance of the relationship of this *CLI* category and *affective variables* (see Table 54).

Table 54. Correlations between *affective variables* and *type of CLI* (*borrowings* versus *lexical inventions*) in the written data in First cycle, Second cycle and Post-compulsory education (Spearman rho test)

	Borrowings			Lexical inventions		
Attitudinal factors	**First cycle**	**Second cycle**	**Post-compulsory**	**First cycle**	**Second cycle**	**Post-compulsory**
1. Attitudes towards learning English	.552	-.228	.413	-.166	.609	-
2. Integrative attitudes	.146	-.104	-.407	-.962	.228	-
3. Interest in an international English-speaking community	.103	*-.031**	.168	.377	.155	-
4. Instrumentality	.241	*-.007***	.233	-.407	*-.004***	-
Self-perceived chances of success						
Expected school mark in English	-.622	.390	1.000	.953	.958	-

Note: – indicates that the participants did not produce enough items for Spearman rho test to calculate the correlation.

The results of a Spearman rho test concerning the statistical relationship between *affective variables* and *type of CLI* in the oral data (see Table 55 below) show more correlations than in the participants' written production. However, only *borrowings* obtained correlations with *affective variables*, while *lexical inventions* did not correlate with any of the *affective variables* in the oral data. Like the rest of correlations between *CLI* categories and *affective variables*, all the correlations established between *borrowings* and *affective variables* were negative. The five *affective variables* included in the study correlated with *borrowings*, but not in the three groups. Thus, *borrowings* correlated with *attitudes towards EFL* in Second cycle and Post-compulsory education, with *integrative attitudes* in First cycle, with *interest in an international community* only in the Post-compulsory group, with *instrumentality* in First cycle and Second cycle and, finally, *expected school mark* with Post-compulsory education. The latter group presented three

correlations, whereas the rest showed only two. In addition, the only correlation that obtained a strong statistically significant level was established in this group (with *expected school mark*).

Table 55. Correlations between affective variables and type of CLI (*borrowings* versus *lexical inventions*) in the oral data in First cycle, Second cycle and Post-compulsory education (Spearman rho test)

	Borrowings			Lexical inventions		
Attitudinal factors	**First cycle**	**Second cycle**	**Post-compulsory**	**First cycle**	**Second cycle**	**Post-compulsory**
1. Attitudes towards learning English	.638	-0.14*	-.023*	-.172	-.252	-.241
2. Integrative attitudes	.035*	-.172	.875	-.630	-.916	-.871
3. Interest in an international English-speaking community	.135	-.157	-.043*	-.749	-.313	-.113
4. Instrumentality	.046*	-.050*	-.876	-.477	-.539	.744
Self-perceived chances of success						
Expected school mark in English	-.368	.265	-.005**	-.291	.662	-.406

6.3.7. Source language and function

6.3.7.1 Introduction

Section 6.3.7 deals with Research Question 2b (*If the participants make use of other languages, which are these languages and the factors of source selection? What functions do these languages perform?)*. In other words, the present section is concerned with source selection and the factors underlying it. To begin with, the indices of source selection will be presented in each of the *school levels* in 6.3.7.2. In order to test the role of *achievement* in the source language, the results for the correlations between such variables will be presented in 6.3.7.3. Then, the relationship between source selection and other possible factors related to the participants' specifity as immigrants (*L1*, *AoA*, *SP* and *RP*) will be dealt with in 6.3.7.5. Finally, 6.3.7.6 is concerned with

r*eported L1 use*, a qualitative variable that can shed light on the role of *L2-status* in source selection in the particiapnts.

6.3.7.2 Source selection and function at the three school levels

As mentioned before, the analysis of the data for source selection initially included four categories: *Spanish, Catalan, Spanish/Catalan* (for those cases in which it was difficult to distinguish whether Spanish or Catalan was the source) and *mother tongue* (different from Spanish) (see section 5.6). The analysis showed that no participant drew on their mother tongue when it was different from Spanish. The influence of the participants' *L1* was limited to an ambiguous syntatic influence of *L1* Arabic: *The children scare* (PC12ESO3, second oral narrative) for *The children are scared*. This error can be due either to the influence of the ommision of the copular verb in Arabic or of the structures "se asustaron" or "es van espantar" (*got scared*) in Spanish and Catalan respectively. On the other hand, the analysis of the data revealed sporadic occurrences of *CLI* from a source not envisaged in the analysis: French (i.e., PC04ESO3's use of *rue* instead of *street* and *gateau,* French for "cake", in PC50ESO3's and PC51ESO1's, produced in the oral task). However, the occurrences influenced by French were so scarce that no category was established for this language. Therefore, the only source categories finally taken into account were *Spanish, Catalan* and *Spanish/Catalan*.

Table 56 below provides the number and percentage of tokens transferred from each of the source categories (*Spanish, Catalan and Spanish/Catalan*) in the three groups. The percentage for each of the sources of transfer was calculated against the total number of transferred tokens. As Table 56 below indicates, the First cycle and Second cycle groups transferred mostly from Spanish in both written and oral data. The percentage for this particular source is higher in the oral task, as learners in First cycle and Second cycle transferred 79.37% and 93.11%, respectively, from Spanish, while the percentage for this source language was 39.56% and 48.39% in the written data. In the Post-compulsory group, Spanish is also the most common source of transfer (93.94%) in the oral narrative, but in the written task it is difficult to see which of the languages is the source, as the only language category

represented is *Spanish/Catalan*. We must bear in mind that this group transferred only two tokens in the written data. It seems that in the oral data learners with L1s other than Spanish selected Spanish as source language in the oral data and in the written data of the First cycle.

Table 56. Source selection in First cycle, Second cycle and Post-compulsory education (written and oral production)

	First cycle	Second cycle	Post-compulsory
Written data	***Transferred tokens=91***	***Transferred tokens=62***	***Transferred tokens=2***
L1 Spanish	***52 (57.14%)***	***36 (58.07%)***	***2 (100%)***
Others	***39 (42.86%)***	***26 (41.93%)***	***0 (0%)***
Spanish	*36 (39.56%)*	*30 (48.39%)*	*0 (0%)*
L1 Spanish	16 (30.77%)	18 (50%)	0 (0%)
Others	20 (51.28%)	12 (46.15%)	0 (0%)
Catalan	*30 (32.97%)*	*17 (27.42%)*	*0 (0%)*
L1 Spanish	16 (30.77%)	7 (19.44%)	0 (0%)
Others	14 (35.907%)	10 (38.46%)	0 (0%)
Spanish or Catalan	*25 (27.47%)*	*15 (24.19%)*	*2 (100%)*
L1 Spanish	20 (38.46%)	11 (30.56%)	2 (10%)
Others	5 (12.82%)	4 (15.38%)	0 (0%)
Oral data	***Transferred tokens=567***	***Tranferred tokens=624***	***Transferred tokens=66***
L1 Spanish	**384 (67.73%)**	**432 (69.23%)**	**64 (96.98%)**
Others	**183 (32.27%)**	**192 (30.77%)**	**2 (3.02 %)**
Spanish	*450 (79.37%)*	*581 (93.11%)*	*62 (93.94%)*
L1 Spanish	323 (84.11%)	405 (93.75%)	62 (96.88%)
Others	127 (69.40%)	176 (91.67%)	0 (0%)
Catalan	*70 (12.35%)*	*18 (2.88%)*	*1 (1.52%)*
L1 Spanish	38 (9.90%)	9 (2.08%)	1 (1.56%)
Others	32 (17.49%)	9 (4.69%)	0 (0%)
Spanish/Catalan	*47 (8.29%)*	*25 (4.01%)*	*3 (4.55%)*
L1 Spanish	23 (5.99%)	18 (4.17%)	1 (1.56%)
Others	24 (13.11%)	7 (3.65%)	2 (100%)

As we mentioned in Section 5.6 (Data analysis), *source langu*age was analysed according to the **functions** accomplished by transferred items: FILL (used to fill in gaps in the narrative), COM (to make comments) and HELP (for help or clarification requests) (see Section 5.6). As the data in Table 57 suggest, the two instrumental roles (COM and HELP) obtained higher indices than FILL in the three groups. The difference was smaller in Second cycle (51.28% vs 48.72%) than in First cycle (69.66% vs 30.34%) and, especially, Post-

compulsory education (81.82% vs. 18.18%). In the two latter groups, COM was the function accomplished by the highest number of transferred tokens (59.79% in First cycle and 74.24% in Post-compulsory education). In Second cycle, FILL (48.72%) was only slightly more frequent than COM (46.47%).

Table 57. Source language according to function in First cycle (*n*=38), Second cycle (*n*=35) and Post-compulsory group (*n*=10)

FIRST CYCLE **Transferred tokens=567**	***Instrumental role (HELP and COM)*** ***N=395***	**HELP** **N=56**	**COM** **N=339**	***FILL*** ***N=172***
Total amount	395 (69.66%)	56 (9.88%)	*339 (59.79%)*	*172 (30.34%)*
L1 Spanish (384)	283 (73.70%)	46 (11.98%)	237 (61.72%)	101 (35.69%)
Other *L1*s (183)	112 (61.20%)	10 (5.46%)	102 (55.74%)	71 (38.80%)
Spanish	*358 (90.63%)*	*53 (94.64%)*	*305 (89.97%)*	*92 (53.49%)*
L1 Spanish	*256 (90.46%)*	43 (93.48%)	213 (89.87%)	*67 (66.34%)*
Other *L1*s	102 (91.07%)	10 (100%)	92 (90.20%)	*25 (35.21%)*
Catalan	*28 (7.09%)*	3 (5.36%)	25 (7.37%)	*42 (24.42%)*
L1 Spanish	*20 (7.07%)*	3 (6.52%)	17 (7.17%)	*18 (17.82%)*
Other *L1*s	*8 (7.14%)*	0 (0%)	8 (7.84%)	*24 (33.80%)*
Spanish or Catalan	*9 (2.28%)*	*0 (0%)*	*9 (2.65%)*	*38 (22.09%)*
L1 Spanish	*7 (2.47%)*	*0 (0%)*	7 (2.95%)	*16 (15.84%)*
Other *L1*s	*2 (1.79%)*	*0 (0%)*	2 (1.96%)	*22 (30.99%)*
SECOND CYCLE **Transferred tokens=624**	***Instrumental role (HELP and COM)*** ***N=320***	**HELP** **N= 30**	**COM** **N=290**	***FILL*** ***N=304***
Total amount	320 (51.28%)	30 (4.81%)	290 (46.47%)	304 (48.72%)
L1 Spanish (432)	216 (50%)	15 (3.47%)	201 (46.53%)	*216 (50%)*
Other *L1*s (192)	104 (54.17%)	15 (7.81%)	89 (46.35%)	*88 (45.83%)*
Spanish	*308 (96.25%)*	*26 (86.67%)*	*282 (97.24%)*	*273 (89.80%)*
L1 Spanish	209 (96.76%)	11 (73.33%)	198 (98.51%)	196 (90.74%)
Other *L1*s	99 (95.19%)	15 (100%)	84 (94.38%)	77 (87.50%)
Catalan	*5 (1.56%)*	*4 (13.33%)*	*1 (0.35%)*	*13 (4.28%)*
L1 Spanish	*4 (1.85%)*	4 (26.67%)	0 (0%)	*5 (2.31%)*
Other *L1*s	*1 (0.96%)*	0 (0%)	1 (1.12%)	*8 (9.09%)*
Spanish or Catalan	*7 (2.19%)*	*0 (0%)*	*7 (2.41%)*	*18 (5.92%)*
L1 Spanish	*3 (1.39%)*	0 (0%)	3 (1.49%)	*15 (6.94%)*
Other *L1*s	*4 (3.85%)*	0 (0%)	4 (4.49%)	*3 (3.41%)*
POST-COMPULSORY **Transferred tokens=66**	***Instrumental role (HELP and COM)*** ***N=54***	**HELP** **N=5**	**COM** **N=49**	***FILL*** ***N=12***
Total amount	*54.00 (81.82%)*	5 (7.58%)	49 (74.24%)	*12 (18.18%)*
L1 Spanish (64)	54.00 (84.38%)	5 (7.81%)	49 (76.56%)	*10 (15.63%)*
Other *L1*s (2)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	*2 (100%)*
Spanish	*54 (100%)*	5 (100%)	49 (100%)	*8 (66.67%)*
L1 Spanish	54 (10%)	5 (100%)	49 (100%)	8 (80%)
Other *L1*s	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Catalan	*0 (0%)*	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	*1 (8.33%)*
L1 Spanish	*0 (0%)*	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (10%)
Other *L1*s	*0 (0%)*	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Spanish or Catalan	*0 (0%)*	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	*3 (25%)*
L1 Spanish	*0 (0%)*	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (10%)
Other *L1*s	*0 (0%)*	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2 (100%)

Table 57 also shows that Spanish is the preferred source of transfer among the participants in the three functions. In the HELP and COM uses (i. e., to comment on the task or address the interlocutor/researcher), the preference for this particular source is more noticeable than in FILL, as the participants in First cycle, Second cycle and Post-compulsory education drew 90.63%, 96.25% and 100%, respectively, from this source in instrumental roles. The number of items in the FILL function transferred from Spanish only achieved a similar percentage in Second cycle (89.80%), while it was smaller in First cycle (53.49%) and Post-compulsory education (66.67%). As for the rest of source categories, Catalan was the second most common source in both FILL and instrumental roles in First cycle (24.42% and 7.09% respectively). In Second cycle and Post-compulsory education, the ambiguous category Spanish/Catalan was slightly more frequently resorted to than Catalan for the fill function. In Second cycle, Spanish/Catalan was also more resorted to than Catalan in instrumental roles, but not in Post-compulsory education as at this level no item from languages other than Spanish were selected for instrumental roles.

Table 58 below shows the percentage for each type of *CLI* (***borrowings*** and ***lexical inventions***) and the preferred source in each of these categories in the written data. The percentage of *CLI* for each language category is calculated over the total number of transferred tokens in the *borrowing* or the *lexical invention* categories. In the written *CLI*, the preferred source language is Spanish for *borrowings*, with an exception in the control Post-compulsory group, where the only instance of *borrowing* was not clearly assigned to Spanish or Catalan. On the other *hand*, the most common language category for *lexical inventions* is *Spanish/Catalan*.

Table 58. Source selection according to *borrowings* or *lexical inventions* in the written production in EFL of First cycle, Second cycle and Post-compulsory education

FIRST CYCLE Transferred tokens= 91	***TOTAL***	**Spanish**	**Catalan**	**Spanish/Catalan**
Borrowings	*69 (75.82%)*	36 (52.17%)	29 (42.03%)	4 (5.80%)
Lexical inventions	*22 (24.18%)*	0 (0%)	1 (4.55%)	21 (95.45%)
SECOND CYCLE Transferred tokens= 62	***TOTAL***	**Spanish**	**Catalan**	**Spanish or Catalan**
Borrowings	*45 (73.44%)*	30 (66.67%)	12 (26.67%)	3 (6.67%)
Lexical inventions	*17 (26.56%)*	0 (17.65%)	5 (11.76%)	12 (70.59%)
POST-COMPULSORY Transferred tokens= 2	***TOTAL***	**Spanish**	**Catalan**	**Spanish or Catalan**
Borrowings	*2 (100%)*	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2 (100%)
Lexical inventions	*0 (0%)*			

In the oral data (see Table 59), the most frequent source of transfer in *borrowings* in the three groups was Spanish. In the Post-compulsory group, it was also the most important source in *lexical inventions* (100%), but only one occurrence of this *CLI* category took place. In First and Second cycle, the preferred source of transfer in *lexical inventions* was the Spanish/Catalan category.

Table 59. Source selection according to *borrowings* or *lexical inventions* in the oral production in EFL in First cycle, Second cycle and Post-compulsory

FIRST CYCLE Transferred tokens= 567	**TOTAL**	**Spanish**	**Catalan**	**Spanish or Catalan**
Borrowings	556 (98.06%)	446 (80.22%)	68 (12.23%)	42 (7.55%)
Lexical inventions	11 (1.94%)	4 (36.36%)	2 (18.18%)	5 (45.45%)
SECOND CYCLE Transferred tokens= 624	**TOTAL**	**Spanish**	**Catalan**	**Spanish or Catalan**
Borrowings	613 (98.24%)	581 (94.78%)	16 (2.61%)	16 (2.61%)
Lexical inventions	11 (1.76%)	0 (0%)	2 (18.18%)	9 (81.82%)
POST-COMPULSORY Transferred tokens= 66	**TOTAL**	**Spanish**	**Catalan**	**Spanish or Catalan**
Borrowings	65 (98.48%)	61 (93.85%)	1 (1.54%)	3 (4.62%)
Lexical inventions	1 (1.52%)	1 (100%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)

6.3.7.3 Source selection and function in the longitudinal study

In the longitudinal study, the preferred source of transfer was, like in the cross-sectional study, Spanish in both collection times (see Table 60 and Table 61), except for the written production in the ESO1-ESO2 group. Transfer from Spanish evolves from the first collection time to the last in a different way in each of the groups. Thus, the percentage of items transferred from Spanish increased in the ESO1-ESO2 group, while the items from Catalan decreased. In the ESO2-ESO3 group, the evolution was the opposite. It does not seem that learners with *L1* Spanish or the rest of participants prefer Spanish or Catalan in a different way or with a different frequency.

Table 60. Source language in the ESO1-ESO2 group

	First collection time	Last collection time
Written	***Transferred tokens= 32 (9.91%)***	***Tranferred tokens= 20 (6.12%)***
L1 Spanish	*28 (9.03%)*	*17 (5.63%)*
Other L1s	*4 (8.16%)*	*3 (12%)*
Spanish	***6 (18.75%)***	***6 (30%)***
L1 Spanish	6 (21.43%)	4 (23.53%)
Other L1s	0 (0%)	2 (66.67%)
Catalan	***14 (43.75%)***	***3 (15%)***
L1 Spanish	11 (39.29%)	2 (11.76%)
Other L1s	3 (75%)	1 (33.33%)
Spanish or Catalan	***12 (37.50%)***	***11 (55%)***
L1 Spanish	*11 (39.29%)*	*11 (64.71%)*
Other L1s	*1 (25%)*	*0 (0%)*
Oral	***Transferred tokens= 124 (23.13%)***	***Tranferred tokens= 119 (20.55%)***
L1 Spanish	*105 (23.28%)*	*102 (19.96%)*
Other L1s	*19 (23.35%)*	*17 (25%)*
Spanish	***81 (65.32%)***	***98 (82.35%)***
L1 Spanish	70 (66.67%)	86 (84.31%)
Other L1s	11 (57.89%)	12 (70.59%)
Catalan	***32 (25.81%)***	***6 (5.04%)***
L1 Spanish	28 (26.67%)	4 (3.92%)
Other L1s	4 (21.05%)	2 (11.76%)
Spanish or Catalan	***11 (8.87%)***	***15 (12.61%)***
L1 Spanish	*7 (6.67%)*	*12 (11.76%)*
Other L1s	*4 (21.05%)*	*3 (17.65%)*

Table 61. Source language in the ESO2-ESO3 group

	First collection time	Last collection time
Written	***Transferred tokens=25 (5.84%)***	***Transferred tokens=34 (4.05%)***
L1 Spanish	*17 (6.64%)*	*28 (4.46%)*
Other L1s	*8 (4.65%)*	*6 (2.83%)*
Spanish	***17 (68%)***	***14 (41.18%)***
L1 Spanish	16 (94.12%)	12 (42.86%)
Other L1s	1 (12.50%)	2 (33.33%)
Catalan	***5 (20%)***	***11 (32.35%)***
L1 Spanish	0 (0%)	9 (32.14%)
Other L1s	5 (62.50%)	2 (33.33%)
Spanish or Catalan	***3 (12%)***	***9 (26.47%)***
L1 Spanish	*1 (5.88%)*	*7 (25%)*
Other L1s	*2 (25%)*	*2 (33.33%)*
Oral	***Transferred tokens= 241 (25.53%)***	***Tranferred tokens= 114 (12.32%)***
L1 Spanish	*169 (25.88%)*	*93 (14.33%)*
Other L1s	*72 (24.74%)*	*21 (7.61%)*
Spanish	***190 (78.84%)***	***75 (65.79%)***
L1 Spanish	156 (92.31%)	64 (68.82%)
Other L1s	34 (47.22%)	11 (52.38%)
Catalan	***29 (12.03%)***	***19 (16.67%)***
L1 Spanish	6 (3.55%)	17 (18.28%)
Other L1s	23 (31.94%)	2 (9.52%)
Spanish or Catalan	***22 (9.13%)***	***20 (17.54%)***
L1 Spanish	*7 (4.14%)*	*12 (12.90%)*
Other L1s	*15 (20.83%)*	*8 (38.10%)*

As we have mentioned, the items transferred by the participants in their oral production accomplished three **communicative functions** (HELP, COM and FILL). As Table 62 shows, in the ESO1-ESO2 group, the function with the highest percentage of transferred items was COM, followed by FILL and, with the lowest percentage, HELP, in both collection times. The percentage of instrumental functions (HELP and COM) is superior to FILL, like in the cross-sectional study. In the last collection time, the percentage of transferred items in the HELP and FILL function decreased, while COM increased. The evolution in the ESO2-ESO3 group is different, as the FILL function was the most common one in the participants' CLI in the last collection time (see Table 63). In both longitudinal groups, the preferred source language was Spanish in both types of L1 participants.

Table 62. Source language according to function in the ESO1-ESO2 group (*n*=10)

FIRST COLLECTION TIME **Transferred tokens= *124 (23.13%)***	***Instrumental role (HELP and COM)*** ***n= 63 (50.81%)***	**HELP** **n=7 (5.65%)**	**COM** **n= 56 (45.16%)**	***FILL*** ***n= 61 (49.19%)***
Total amount	63 (50.81%)	7 (5.65%)	56 (45.16%)	61 (49.19%)
L1 Spanish (*105)*	63 (60%)	7 (6.67%)	56 (53.33%)	42 (40.00%)
Other *L*s (*19)*	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	19 (100%)
Spanish (65.32%)	*44 (69.84%)*	*5 (71.43%)*	*39 (69.64.%)*	*37 (60.66%)*
L1 Spanish	*44 (100%)*	5 (71.43%)	39 (69.64%)	*26 (61.91%)*
Other *L1*s	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	*11 (57.90%)*
Catalan	*17 (26.98%)*	2 (28.57%)	15 (26.79)	*15 (24.59%)*
L1 Spanish	*17 (100%)*	2 (28.57%)	15 (26.79)	*11 (26.19%)*
Other *L1*s	*0 (0%)*	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	*4 (21.05%)*
Spanish or Catalan	*2 (3.18%)*	*0 (0%)*	*2 (3.57.%)*	*9 (14.75%)*
L1 Spanish	*2 (100%)*	*0 (0%)*	2 (3.57.%)	*5 (11.90%)*
Other *L1*s	*0 (0%)*	*0 (0%)*	0 (0%)	*4 (21.05%)*
LAST COLLECTION TIME **Transferred tokens= 119 (20.55%)**	***Instrumental role (HELP and COM)*** ***N= 83 (69.75%)***	**HELP** **N= 4 (3.36%)**	**COM** **N= 79 (66.39%)**	***FILL*** ***N= 36 (30.25%)***
Total amount	83 (69.75%)	4 (3.36%)	79 (66.39)	*36 (30.25%)*
L1 Spanish (102)	83 (81.37%)	4 (3.92%)	79 (77.45%)	*19 (18.63%)*
Other *L1*s (17)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	*17 (100%)*
Spanish	*73 (87.95%)*	*4 (100%)*	*69 (87.34%)*	*25 (69.44%)*
L1 Spanish	73 (87.95%)	4 (100%)	69 (87.34%)	13 (68.42%)
Other *L1*s	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	12 (70.59%)
Catalan	*4 (4.82%)*	*0 (0%)*	*4 (5.06%)*	*2 (5.56%)*
L1 Spanish	*4 (4.82%)*	0 (0%)	4 (5.06%)	*0 (0%)*
Other *L1*s	*0 (0%)*	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	*2 (11.76%)*
Spanish or Catalan	*6 (7.23%)*	*0 (0%)*	*6 (7.60%)*	*9 (25%)*
L1 Spanish	*6 (7.23%)*	0 (0%)	6 (7.60%)	*6 (31.58%)*
Other *L1*s	*0 (0%)*	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	*3 (17.65%)*

Table 63. Source language according to function in the ESO2-ESO3 group (n=14)

FIRST COLLECTION TIME **Transferred tokens= 241 *(25.53%)***	***Instrumental role (HELP and COM)*** ***N= 168 (69.71%)***	**HELP** **N= 18(7.47%)**	**COM** **N= 150 (62.24%)**	***FILL*** ***N= 73 (30.29%)***
Total amount	168 (69.71%)	18 (7.47%)	150 (62.24%)	73 (30.29%)
L1 Spanish (169*)*	132 (78.11%)	18 (10.65%)	114 (67.46%)	37 (21.89%)
Other *L1*s (72*)*	36 (50%)	0 (0%)	36 (50%)	36 (50%)
Spanish (190)	*156 (92.86%)*	*18 (100%)*	*138 (92%)*	*34 (46.57%)*
L1 Spanish	*128 (96.97%)*	18 (100%)	110 (96.49%)	*28 (75.68%)*
Other *L1*s	28 (77.78%)	0 (0%)	28 (77.78%)	*6 (16.67%)*
Catalan (29)	*10 (5.95%)*	0 (.%)	10 (6.67%)	*19 (26.03%)*
L1 Spanish (6)	*2 (1.52%)*	0 (0%)	2 (1.75%)	*4 (10.81%)*
Other *L1*s (23)	*8 (22.22%)*	0 (0%)	8 (22.22%)	*15 (41.67%)*
Spanish or Catalan (22)	*2 (1.19%)*	*0 (0%)*	*2 (1.33%)*	*20 (27.40%)*
L1 Spanish (7)	*2 (1.52%)*	*0 (0%)*	2 (1.75%)	*5 (13.51%)*
Other *L1*s (15)	*0 (0%)*	*0 (0 %)*	0 (0%)	*15 (41.67%)*
LAST COLLECTION TIME **Transferred tokens= 114 (*12.32%*)**	***Instrumental role (HELP and COM)*** ***N= 38 (33.33%)***	**HELP** **N= 6 (5.26%)**	**COM** **N= 32 (28.07%)**	***FILL*** ***N= 76 (66.68%)***
Total amount (114)	38 (33.33%)	6 (5.26%)	32 (28.07%)	*76 (66.68%)*
L1 Spanish (93)	30 (32.26%)	6 (6.45%)	24 (25.81%)	*63 (67.74%)*
Other *L1*s (21)	8 (38.10%)	0 (0%)	8 (38.10%)	*13 (61.91%)*
Spanish (75)	*33 (86.84%)*	*6 (100%)*	*27 (84.38%)*	*42 (55.26%)*
L1 Spanish	25 (83.33%)	6 (100%)	19 (79.17%)	39 (61.91%)
Other *L1*s	8 (100%)	0 (0%)	8 (100%)	3 (23.08%)
Catalan (19)	*0 (0%)*	*0 (0%)*	*0 (0%)*	*19 (25%)*
L1 Spanish	*0 (0%)*	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	*17 (26.98%)*
Other *L1*s	*0 (0%)*	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	*2 (15.39%)*
Spanish or Catalan (20)	*5 (13.16%)*	*0 (0%)*	*5 (15.63%)*	*15 (19.74%)*
L1 Spanish	*5 (16.68%)*	0 (0%)	5 (*20.83%*)	*7 (11.11%)*
Other *L1*s	*0 (0%)*	0 (0%)	0 (%)	*8 (61.54%)*

Concerning the source language in *borrowings* and *lexical inventions*, the writen production of the ESO1-ESO2 group (see Table 64) and their oral production (see Table 65) showed that Catalan was the preferred source language for written *borrowings* at the first collection time, while it was Spanish in the last collection time and in their oral production. As for *lexical*

inventions, Spanish/Catalan was the most common source language in both collection times in both types of tasks.

Table 64. Source selection according to *borrowings* or *lexical inventions* in the written production of the ESO1-ESO2 group (*n*=10)

FIRST COLLECTION TIME Transferred tokens= 32	**TOTAL**	**Spanish**	**Catalan**	**Spanish or Catalan**
Borrowings	21 (65.63%)	6 (28.57%)	14 (66.67%)	1 (4.76%)
Lexical inventions	11 (34.37%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	11 (100%)
LAST COLLECTION TIME Transferred tokens= 20	**TOTAL**	**Spanish**	**Catalan**	**Spanish or Catalan**
Borrowings	9 (45%)	6 (66.67%)	2 (22.22%)	1 (11.11%)
Lexical inventions	11 (55%)	0 (%)	1 (9.10%)	10 (90.91%)

Table 65. Source selection according to *borrowings* or *lexical inventions* in the oral production of the ESO1-ESO2 group (*n*=10)

FIRST COLLECTION TIME Transferred tokens= 124	**TOTAL**	**Spanish**	**Catalan**	**Spanish or Catalan**
Borrowings	120 (96.77%)	81 (67.50%)	31 (25.83%)	8 (6.67%)
Lexical inventions	4 (16.88%)	0 (0%)	1 (25%)	3 (75%)
LAST COLLECTION TIME Transferred tokens= 119	**TOTAL**	**Spanish**	**Catalan**	**Spanish or Catalan**
Borrowings	118 (99.16%)	98 (83.05%)	6 (5.09%)	14 (11.86%)
Lexical inventions	1 (0.84%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (100%)

In the writen production of the ESO2-ESO3, Spanish was also the preferred source language in *borrowings* and Spanish/Catalan in *lexical inventions*, but the percentage of Spanish decreased in favour of Catalan at the last collection time (see Table 66).

Table 66. Source selection according to *borrowings* or *lexical inventions* in the written production of the ESO2-ESO3 group (*n*=14)

FIRST COLLECTION TIME Transferred tokens= 25	**TOTAL**	**Spanish**	**Catalan**	**Spanish or Catalan**
Borrowings	23 (92%)	17 (73.91%)	5 (21.74%)	1 (4.35%)
Lexical inventions	2 (8%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2 (100%)
LAST COLLECTION TIME Transferred tokens= 34	**TOTAL**	**Spanish**	**Catalan**	**Spanish or Catalan**
Borrowings	32 (94.12%)	14 (43.75%)	11 (34.38%)	7 (21.88%)
Lexical inventions	2 (5.88%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2 (100%)

The results in the oral production of the ESO2-ESO3 group show that Spanish was also the preferred source language in *borrowings* but, in contrast to the written data, it was also the preferred source language in *lexical inventions* as well (see Table 67). However, like in the written production of this group, the percentage of Spanish decreased in favour of Catalan in the last collection time.

Table 67. Source selection according to *borrowings* or *lexical inventions* in the oral production of the ESO2-ESO3 group (*n*=14)

FIRST COLLECTION TIME Transferred tokens= 241	**TOTAL**	**Spanish**	**Catalan**	**Spanish or Catalan**
Borrowings	234 (97.10%)	186 (79.49%)	29 (12.39%)	19 (8.12%)
Lexical inventions	7 (2.90%)	4 (57.14%)	0 (0%)	3 (42.86%)
LAST COLLECTION TIME Transferred tokens= 114	**TOTAL**	**Spanish**	**Catalan**	**Spanish or Catalan**
Borrowings	104 (91.23%)	69 (66.35%)	18 (17.31%)	17 (16.35%)
Lexical inventions	10 (8.77.%)	6 (60%)	1 (10%)	3 (30%)

6.3.7.4 Source language and achievement in the source language

The present section aims at analysing whether there is a relationship between source selection and *proficiency* in the source. As specified in Chapter 4, *proficiency* in the source language has been highlighted by previous research as a factor of source selection that facilitates transfer from a non-native language. We have seen that the participants drew from Spanish or Catalan (with a third category, Spanish/Catalan, for the cases in which it is not possible to distinguish the source). However, a Spearman rho test pointed to no significant correlations between numbers of transferred items from Spanish or Catalan and *achievement* in each of these two languages (see Table 68). We recall here that in the Post-compulsory group, only two tokens were transferred in the written production and, therefore, the Spearman rho test could not work out the statistical relationship between their source and *achievement* in this language. Likewise, only three items were transferred from Catalan in the oral production of this group.

Table 68. Correlations between source selection and proficiency in the source in the written and oral data (Spearman rho test)

Source	Proficiency in Spanish		Proficiency in Catalan	
First cycle	*Written CLI*	*Oral CLI*	*Written CLI*	*Oral CLI*
Spanish	.537	.203	.506	.094
Catalan	.844	.782	.578	-.330
Spanish/Catalan	.053	-.055	.347	-.093
Second cycle				
Spanish	.213	-.149	.104	-.366
Catalan	.759	.098	.308	.066
Spanish/Catalan	.931	-.634	.364	.843
Post-compulsory				
Spanish	-	-.572	-	-.080
Catalan	-	-	-	-
Spanish/Catalan	-.733	-.094	.423	-.080

Note: – indicates that the participants did not produce enough items for Spearman rho test to calculate the correlation.

6.3.7.5 Source language and L1, AoA, and SP

According to the results presented in Table 69 and Table 70, source language selection did not correlate with ***L1*** and only occasionally correlated with *AoA* and *SP*. To begin with, ***AoA*** correlated with the selection of Spanish in the oral production of the First cycle participants (p=.007). The statistical relationship was positive, which means that as *AoA* increases, so does the preference for Spanish as source of transfer in the oral production among First cycle learners. ***SP*** obtained a negative correlation with the ambiguous category Spanish/Catalan in Second cycle, in both written and oral production, with similar significance levels (p=-.023 and p=-.026, respectively). The data for Spanish and Catalan are blank because no item from any of these source languages were transferred.

Table 69. Corrrelations between source language and L1, AoA and SP in the written data (Spearman rho test)

	L1	*AoA*	*SP*
First cycle			
Spanish	.593	.818	-.362
Catalan	.208	-.080	-.961
Spanish/Catalan	-.780	-.834	.838
Second cycle			
Spanish	.706	-.949	-.130
Catalan	.288	-.992	-.820
Spanish/Catalan	-.223	.273	*-.023**
Post-compulsory			
Spanish	-	-	-
Catalan	-	-	-
Spanish/Catalan	-.545	.844	-.447

Note: – Indicates that no enough items were transferred

Table 70. Corrrelations between source language and *L1, AoA, SP* in the oral data (Spearman rho test)

	L1	*AoA*	*SP*
First cycle			
Spanish	-.789	*.007***	-.540
Catalan	.786	-.410	.689
Spanish/Catalan	.279	-.60	-.919
Second cycle			
Spanish	-.458	.059	-.635
Catalan	.209	-.673	.698
Spanish/Catalan	-.491	-.913	*-.026**
Post-compulsory			
Spanish	-.224	-.368	-.904
Catalan	-	-	-
Spanish/Catalan	.133	-.083	-.447

Note: – Indicates that no enough items were transferred

6.3.7.6 Reported L1 use and reported L1 purposes in class

Reported L1 use in class and *reported L1 purposes* complemented our results concerning source selection. More specifically, it shed light on the lack of transfer from *L1s* other than Spanish in our sample. In general, the results on *reported L1 use* and *reported L1 purposes* confirm that learners who are not *L1* Spanish speakers suppress or, at least, rely less on their *L1* in EFL.

As Table 71 shows, 76.09% of the participants, irrespective of their *L1*, reported using their *L1* in class (***reported L1 use***). However, the informants

who answered that they "always" used their L1 did it in a lower percentage (21.74%) than both those who stated that they "sometimes" resorted to it (54.35%) and those who stated that they never used it (23.91%). If we have a look at the participants' answers across the three groups, we see that learners in First cycle reported using their L1 in a higher proportion than the rest of groups, while those who use it with the least frequency are in Second cycle. The group with the highest percentage of learners who, according to the answers in the questionnaire, always used their L1 in class is the Post-compulsory group (36.36%). As indicated above, the data for the Post-compulsory group must be taken with caution as its size was small.

Table 71. Percentages of reported frequency of use of L1 in class

	No L1 use reported		*Total L1 use reported*		L1 use reported			
					"always"		*"sometimes"*	
First cycle (n=41)	***7***	*(17.07%)*	*34*	*(82.92%)*	6	(14.63%)	28	(68.29%)
Second cycle (n=40)	***12***	*(30%)*	*28*	*(70%)*	10	(25%)	18	(45%)
Post-compulsory (n=11)	***3***	*(27.27%)*	*8*	*(72.72%)*	4	(36.36%)	4	(36.36%)
TOTAL (n=92)	***22***	***(23.91%)***	***70***	***(76.09%)***	**20**	**(21.74%)**	**50**	**(54.35%)**

If the participants reported to use their *L1* in class, they were asked to specify the purpose of such use (***reported L1 purposes***) through three multiple-choice questions: a) "to do exercises and translate them into English", b) "to think what I want to express", c) "to ask the teacher and talk to my classmates". *Purpose c* is clearly linked to Spanish or Catalan and, therefore, excludes the use of an L1 different from the two official languages in Catalonia. The participants could choose more than one of the options offered concerning their use of the L1 in class, so the percentages for each use were calculated in relation to the total number of participants who reported to use *always* or *sometimes* the L1 in class (see Table 72 below).

Table 72. *Reported L1 use in class* in First cycle, Second cycle and Post-compulsory

Reported L1 use in class	First cycle (*n*=34)	Second cycle (*n*=28)	Post-compulsory (*n*=8)
a) "to do exercises and translate them into English"	9 (26.47%)	5 (17.86%)	0 (0%)
b) "to think what I want to express"	10 (29.41%)	4 (14.29%)	3 (37.50%)
c) "to ask the teacher and talk to my classmates"	8 (23.53%)	3 (10.71%)	1 (12.50%)
More than one type of use reported	5 (14.71%)	5 (17.86%)	0 (0%)
Didn't answer	2 (5.88%)	11 (39.29%)	4 (50%)

In the three groups, the average answers show that the most frequenly *reported pur*pose was *b* ("to think what I want to express"). The percentages of learners who reported using their L1 in class are higher among native speakers of Spanish than among participants with an L1 different from Spanish. In the First cycle group, 30 out of 31 learners with L1 Spanish (96.77%) reported that they used their L1 in class. On the other hand, only 4 out of 10 (40%) learners who did not speak Spanish as their L1 reported to use their *L1* in class.

In Second cycle, 25 participants had Spanish as their *L1* and all of them reported to use their L1 in class. Among those with a different *L1*, only 20% (3 out of 15) reported using their *L1*. In the Post-compulsory group, 7 out of 8 learners (87.5%) with *L1* Spanish reported using their *L1* in class, while only 1 out of the 3 (33.33%) participants with *L1* different from Spanish reported using their *L1* in class. In the three groups, the participants with an *L1* different from Spanish did not mark *purpose c*, i. e., to talk with their classmates or their teacher, which must be related to the fact that their peers would not understand a message in a language that they do not command.

Figure 21 illustrates the percentage for each *reported L1 purposes* in the sample (i. e., *purposes a*, *b* or *c*), calculated out of the total number of times that at least one of the purposes is reported. The results indicate that in First cycle and Second cycle, the *reported L1 purpose* with the highest endorsement was *purpose a*, while *purpose c* was mentioned with the lowest frequency. In the Post-compulsory group, findings are very different, as the highest percentage was obtained by *purpose b*, followed by *purpose c*, while *purpose a* did not obtain any endorsement.

Figure 21. *Reported L1 purposes* in First cycle, Second cycle and Post-compulsory education

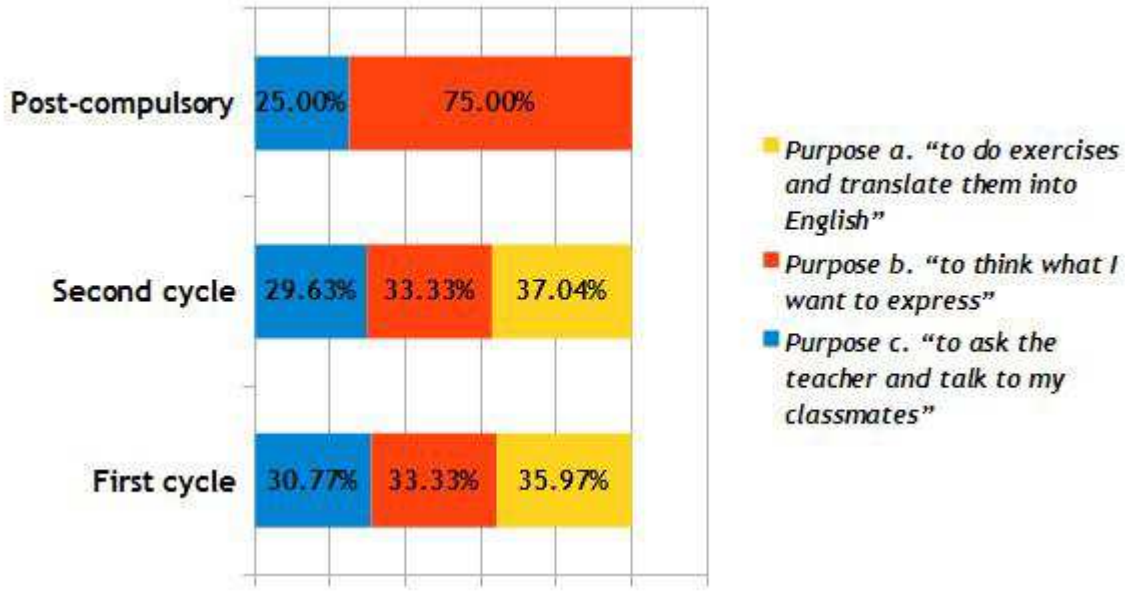


Figure 22, Figure 23 and Figure 24 show the relative percentages of *reported L1 purposes* among *L1* Spanish participants and the rest of subjects in, respectively, First cycle, Second cycle and Post-compulsory education. The comparison of indices of *reported L1 purposes* of both types of *L1* participants indicates that learners with an *L1* different from Spanish report to use it less in learning EFL than Spanish-speaking learners (see Table 73). Obviously, the fact that one of the uses or purposes (use *c*) implies communication or interaction with Spanish-speakers (teacher and classmates) has surely affected this lower percentage of *L1* use among speakers of L1s other than Spanish. However, a closer look at the relationship between *L1* and the two *reported L1 purposes* which do not involve interaction with the teacher or classmates (i .e . a) "to do exercises and translate them into English" and b) "to think to I want to express") confirm that the participants with *L1* different from Spanish reported to use their *L1* in lower percentages than those who speak L1 Spanish (see Table 73). Thus, in First cycle and Second cycle, learners with *L1* Spanish report using their native tongues for uses that do not involve talking to the teacher or classmates in higher percentages than their peers with a different *L1*. In the Post-compulsory group, the distribution is different. In contrast to the other

two groups, no participant in the Post-compulsory group used their *L1* for *purpose a* (i. e., "to do exercises and translate them into English") and *purpose b* ("to think what I want to express") was the only one mentioned by the participants with other *L1*s and the most common among *L1* Spanish participants.

Figure 22. *Reported L1 purposes* in First cycle among *L1* Spanish and other *L1s* participants

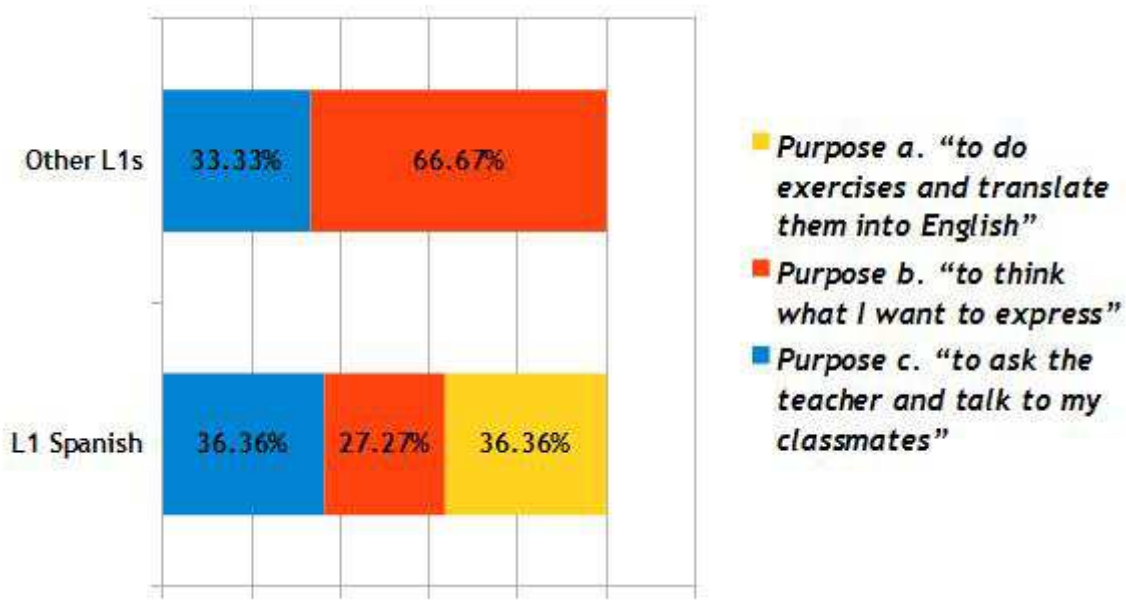


Figure 23. *Reported L1 purposes* in Second cycle among *L1* Spanish and other *L1s* participants

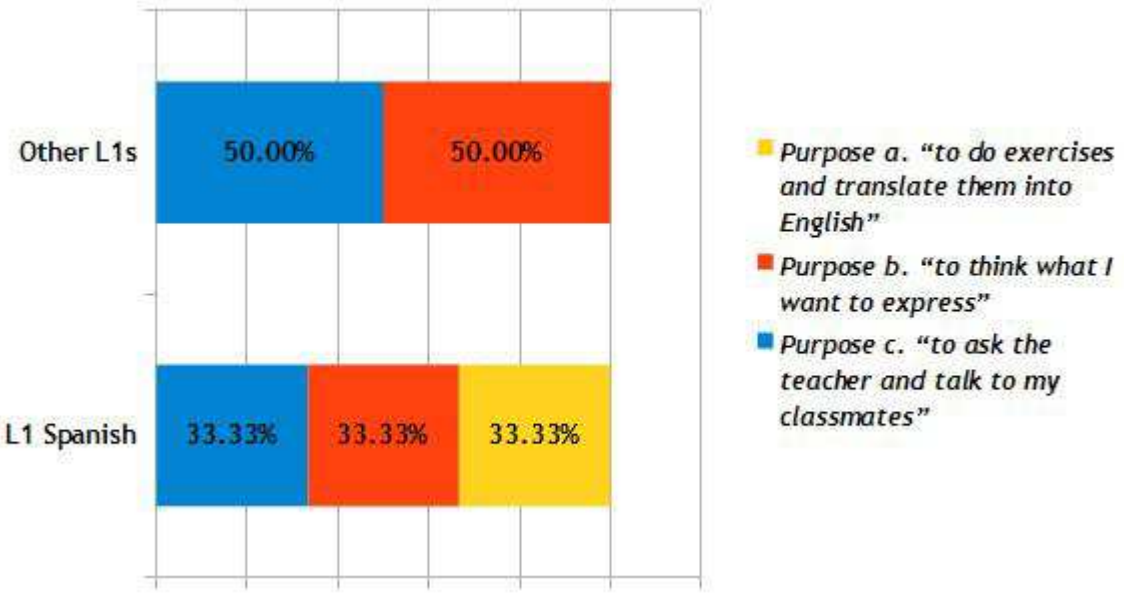


Figure 24. *Reported L1 purposes* in Post-compulsory education among *L1* Spanish and other *L1s* participants

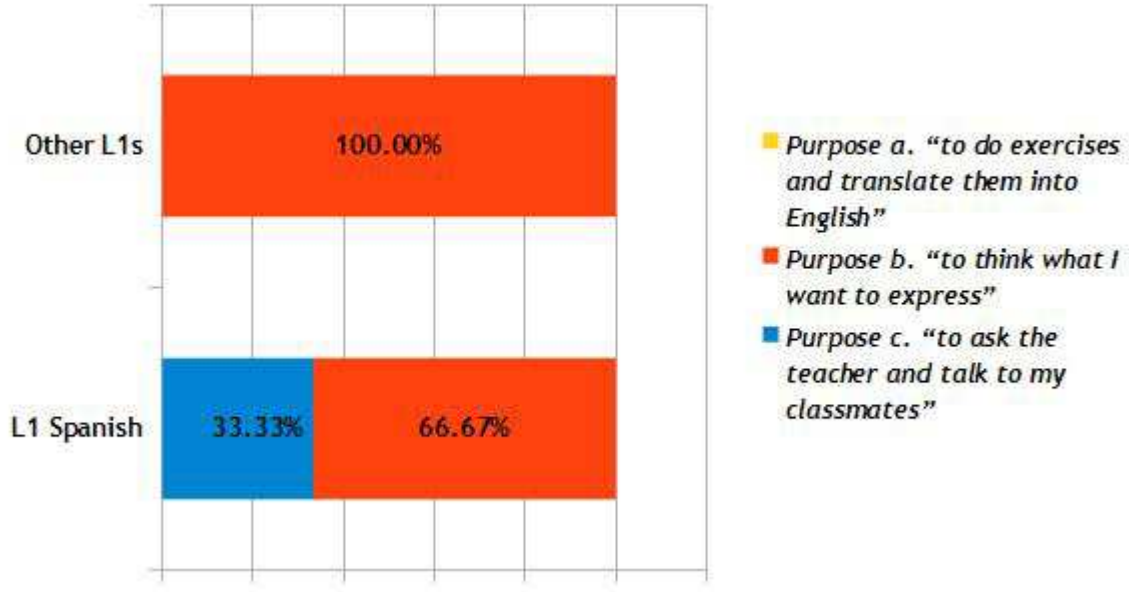


Table 73 shows the percentages of *reported L1 purposes a* ("to do and translate exercises") and *b* ("to think what I want to express") among the

participants who are speakers of *L1* Spanish and those who have other *L1*s. These two purposes imply no communication with the teacher or other learners with whom they could not communicate in their own *L1* when it is different from Spanish. The comparison confirms that participants who are speakers of *L1*s different from Spanish report using their *L1* in lower percentages in First cycle and Second cycle (61.29% versus 50% and 56% versus 20% respectively). However, in the Post-compulsory group, the participants with mother tongues different from Spanish reported using their *L1* for these two purposes in higher percentages (33.33%) than *L1* Spanish (25%).

Table 73. *Reported L1 purposes a* ("to do and translate exercises") and *b* ("to think what I want to express") in the three groups according to their L1.

	L1 Spanish	%	L1 different from Spanish	%
First cycle (n=41)	19 (31)	61.29%	5 (10)	50%
Second cycle (n=40)	14 (25)	56%	3 (15)	20%
Post-compulsory (n=11)	2 (8)	25%	1 (3)	33.33%

6.4. Summary

Chapter 6 has presented the results obtained on both ***affective variables*** and the participants' use of other languages or *CLI*. As an answer to Research Question 1a, it was found that the participants' *attitudes towards EFL* were mostly positive in the three groups. However, *integrative attitudes*, with the lowest endorsement, were *moderate* in the three groups. The results also indicated that Second cycle showed the lowest indices in the four *attitudes*, while the highest scores were found in Post-compulsory education. *Expected school mark in English* was also higher in this particular group, which showed a score of *Good*, while it was *Pass* in First and Second cycle. However, statistical tests showed that the difference in both types of *affective variables* between First and Second cycles and, on the other hand, Post-compulsory education was not significant. As for *perceived ability in EFL according to L1*, the participants believed that *L1* had no bearing on ability to learn EFL in higher percentages. There were no great differences between participants with *L1* Spanish and the rest of the sample in their answers. Most of those who endorsed the statement that both types of learners were equally able to learn EFL justified their belief

because success in EFL or in any other activity depends on effort or *motivation* or just because anyone can learn EFL. Among those who believed that EFL learners who speak *L1*s different from Spanish have a higher aptitude in learning the language, the most endorsed justification for such a belief was the fact that this type of foreign students "had already studied or spoken English in their countries". Finally, many of the participants who believed that *L1* Spanish and L2 Catalan were more successful in EFL, which was the least endorsed opinion, justified their beliefs learning EFL besides Spanish and Catalan entails an extra effort for this type of L1 learners.

In the longitudinal study, only the evolution of *attitudes towards learning English* and *integrative attitudes* attained statistical significance. These two variables were the ones that differed the most between the group with the lowest indices (Second cycle) and the one with the higest scores (Post-compulsory education). The answers concerning the type of *L1* learner who is better at EFL and their justifications did not change substantially from the first to the last collection times.

Precisely, the role of the *L1* and other personal variables -linked to the fact of being immigrants- in *achievement* in English was analysed in order to answer Research Question 1b. Each of the four personal variables (*L1*, *AoA*, *SP* and *RP*) correlated with one of the *affective variables* included in the study (*attitudes towards learning English*, *integrative attitudes*, *instrumentality* and *expected school mark in English*), but the same correlations were not found in the three groups.

Research Question 1c inquired into the relationship between *affective variables* and *achievement* in English in our sample. The statistical analysis showed that only *attitudes towards learning English* and *expected school mark* obtained significant correlations in the three groups.

In order to answer Research Question 2a, this section has presented the results concerning the amount of *CLI*, the number of *borrowings* and *lexical inventions* and their factors: *school level* and *achievement* in EFL, *task effect*, factors related to the specifity of being immigrants (*L1*, *AoA* and *SP*) and *affective variables*. The results showed that their impact was almost non-existent in the production of *borrowings* versus *lexical inventions*. As for their

role on amount of *CLI*, the findings indicated that higher *school level* and the oral narrative triggered higher numbers of transferred items. The role of other factors on amount of *CLI* was less clear.

Research Question 2b addressed source selection and its factors. The findings showed that Spanish was the preferred source language in both instrumental and FILL uses and participants with *L1*s other than Spanish seemed to suppress their *L1* in EFL. The results also showed that *proficiency* in Catalan and Spanish did not play a significant role in the selection of either language.

The following chapter will aim at discussing and explaining the results presented in this chapter in the light of previous research conducted with local and immigrant participants. First, our findings on *affective variables* will be discussed. Then, the discussion will tackle results on *CLI*.

7. Discussion

7.1. Introduction

This chapter discusses the results provided in Chapter 6 concerning the participants' *affective variables* (Research Questions 1a, 1b and 1c) and use of other languages (Research Questions 2a and 2b). Our discussion will start with the participants' scores in their *affective variables* and the extent to which our findings confirm or contradict previous research. More specifically, this section will tackle a*ttitudes* with a focus on social *attitudes* and *instrumentality* (7.2.1), *perceived chances of success* (7.2.2), their relationship with *school level*, *age* and *hours of instruction* (7.2.3), with *L1*, *AoA*, *SP* or *RP* (7.2.4) and *achievement* in EFL (7.2.5).

Our discussion will continue with findings on the participants' use of other languages (Section 7.3). More specifically, section 7.3.1 aims at answering Research Question 2a, which inquired into the *amount* and *type of CLI* (*borrowings* versus *lexical inventions*) transferred by the participants and the role of *achievement* in EFL, their personal variables as immigrants (*L1* and *AoA*) and their *affective variables,* together with the influence of *school level* and *task effect*. We will also analyse the *numbers of CLI* and the *type of CLI* (*borrowings* and *lexical inventions*) and source selection. In section 7.3.2, concerned with Research Question 2b, source selection and its related factors in our participants' production in EFL will be discussed.

7.2. Affective variables

7.2.1. Attitudes towards EFL: indices and factors. Integrative attitudes and instrumentality in a foreign language context

This section will start with the individual scores for each of the four *attitudes*. It will also discuss the relationship between *attitudes* and *school mark* and

other factors. Finally, the discussion will address the role of *integrative attitudes* and *instrumentality* in a foreign language learning context.

As we saw in Chapter 6, findings in the cross-sectional and longitudinal studies point out that **positive attitudes** predominate in our **immigrant sample** (in three of the four *attitudes* in First cycle and Post-compulsory education and two of them in Second cycle). In addition, *positive attitudes* obtained percentages higher than *moderate* and *negative attitudes*. Our results also indicate that, except for *attitudes towards learning English*, related to the academic aspects in EFL, our immigrant sample showed more positive *attitudes* than the **local** participants, but the differences were not statistically significant. The slightly lower interest in *attitutes towards learning English* among our immigrant participants must be explained for other characteristics related to the fact of being immigrants (differences in their learning background or adaptation to the educational system in Catalonia).

In light of the results cast by previous research, it is difficult to decide whether immigrant learners of EFL in Catalonia or Spain hold in general more favourable attitudes to EFL than their local peers. The comparison of our results with studies conducted with local learners points to lower attitudinal levels (from low to moderate) among local learners in both Catalonia (Saravia i Terricabras, 2004) and other regions of Spain (Uribe, Gutiérrez & Madrid., 2008; Ibarraran *et al.*, 2008). However, the findings yielded by studies comparing *attitudes* to EFL among immigrant and local learners do not always support this fact. While Ibarraran *et al.* (2008) found more positive *attitudes* towards EFL among immigrants in the Basque country, the results in Comajoan & Gomàriz (2008a) and Bernaus *et al.* (2004) were different. Thus, Comajoan & Gomàriz (2008a) found that *attitudes* to EFL were higher among participants born in Catalonia than both immigrant learners and Spain-born pupils. Bernaus et al (2004) found no significant differences in *attitudes* or *motivation* in EFL among their Spanish and their international immigrant participants in Catalonia. Therefore, it seems that some immigrant learners of EFL in Catalonia and other regions of Spain hold more favourable attitudes in learning this language while others do not. This would indicate that some characteristics associated with being an immigrant (having a different *L1* or a different

cultural background, for example) can have a bearing on higher or lower *attitudes towards EFL* among immigrant pupils in comparison with their local peers. Nevertheless, the difference in attitudinal level shown among immigrant and local learners in the present study and other studies is not too large.

Previous research in **other countries** with local samples show that learners have a positive attitudinal level, similar to our immigrant participants, and, therefore, usually more favourable than in most of the studies conducted with local learners in Catalonia or other regions of Spain (see above). For instance, local learners of EFL showed positive *attitudes* in China (Liu, 2007; Pan & Block, 2011), Japan (Seki, 2004), Iran (Chalak & Kassaian, 2010; Sayadian & Lashkarian, 2010; Vaezi, 2008), Turkey (Çolak, 2008; Karahan, 2007), Israel (Aronin, 2004), Palestine (Musleh, 2011) or Hungary (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005a; Csizér & Lukács, 2010; Dörnyei and Csizér, 2002; Kormos & Csizér, 2008). Thus, it is possible to argue that *attitudes* towards EFL are slightly less favourable in Spain than in other national contexts. Probably, the reason lies in the presence of Spanish, which, like English, holds an **international status**. In many of the studies revised, an important source for favourable *attitudes* towards English was precisely the fact that it was regarded as the most important foreign language (Bernaus *et al.*, 2004; Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005a; Csizér & Lukács, 2010; Dörnyei & Csizér, 2002; Kormos, Kiddle & Csizér, 2011; Kormos, Csizér, Menyhárt & Török, 2008; Ibarraran *et al.*, 2008; Pan & Block, 2011; Seki, 2004; Uribe *et al.*, 2008).

In addition, the positive influence of an international status on the learners' *attitudes* towards a foreign language is probably the reason why foreign languages are not popular in English-speaking countries (Stables & Wikely, 1999). As González-Davies (2007) puts forward, English-speaking people do not need to master another international language. The importance that learners may attach to international languages is also seen in Bernaus *et al.* (2004) and Ibarraran *et al.* (2008), conducted with samples of local and immigrant secondary-school learners in Catalonia and the Basque country, respectively. Both studies found that *attitudes* towards EFL were more favourable than they were towards the minority language. Bearing in mind the role of the international status of a language, it is possible to argue that

learners with *L1* Spanish may be less interested in learning EFL than immigrants with other language backgrounds. However, the results in our study showed only one correlation between *L1* and *affective variables*. Such a correlation was established in Second cycle and it did not support our claim, since it showed that the participants with *L1*s other than Spanish at this level displayed lower indices of *integrative attitudes*.

Concerning the relative weight of ***integrative attitudes*** and *instrumentality* in our sample, the former obtained the lowest scores in all the cross-sectional groups, at both collection times in the longitudinal study and in the local group. Besides, *integrative attitudes* appears as the only attitudinal category within the moderate range. On the other hand, *interest in an international community*, also a type of social *attitudes*, attained the second highest scores after *instrumentality*.

The superiority of *instrumental attitudes* over *integrativeness* is coherent with previous results in Catalonia (Bernaus *et al.*, 2004), the rest of Spain (Madrid & Pérez Cañado, 2001; Madrid, Ortega *et al.*, 1993) and other EFL contexts among secondary-school students and university learners, like Hungary (Dörnyei, 1990), the Netherlands (Kuhlemeier *et al.*, 1996), Iran (Ahmadi, 2011; Mehrpour & Vojdani, 2012; Vaezi, 2008), Turkey (Çolak, 2008), Palestine (Musleh, 2011), China (Liu, 2007) or Japan (Leung, 2006) In some of these studies, the difference was, nevertheless, slight. What is more, the few studies that found higher indices of *integrative orientation* versus *instrumental attitudes* (Seki, 2004; Chalak & Kassian, 2010; Ghanea, Pisheh & Ghanea, 2011; Lasagabaser, 2002), the difference was also small.

The lesser impact of *integrative attitudes* is found in national contexts with specific and different linguistic, cultural and political situations. These characteristics seem to have less impact than the lack of frequent, face-to-face contact with the L2 community, but they may also play a role. For instance, in Palestine, even young students may be aware of the support given by the United States to Israel and this may affect learners' *attitudes* towards the Americans as part of the Anglo-saxon community (Musleh, 2011). This fact, together with the above-commented lack of direct contact with the TL group, may explain the lower scores obtained by *integrative attitudes* in Musleh

(2011). Another example is provided by studies conducted in Hungary, where the development of political and economic issues after the end of the communist rule could also have affected *attitudes towards English* (see Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005a).

However, research suggests that learners of a FL can form *attitudes* toward the TL community through tourism (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2005; Wilson, 2012b), use of media in the TL (Csizér & Kormos, 2008)) or the vision of the TL group in the learners' environment (Csizér & Kormos, 2008). It is possible to argue that some of these·"promoters" of social attitudes explain why the participants in the present study have formed social *attitudes* towards the TL community. Most likely, however, contact through tourism may be less important in our sample as the area in which they live is not a touristic place.

In relation to the possibility to use media products in English, our results in the cross-sectional study are similar to Csizér & Dörnyei's (2005b) and Dörnyei's (1990) assumption that the desire to integrate into a foreign language group is partially instrumental. The results yielded a statistically significant **relationship between *integrative* and *instrumental attitudes*** in our sample but it was only partial. The two social attitudinal factors in our study, *integrative attitudes* and *interest in an international English-speaking community*, correlated with *instrumentality* in First and Second cycle but not in the Post-compulsory group. In both First and Second cycles, the correlations between *attitudes towards an international English-speaking community* and *instrumentality* attained a significance level of p=.000, higher than the relationship between *instrumentality* and *integrative attitudes*. This is related to the conceptual nature of this variable: *attitudes* towards English as a means to access media and culture in this language may be more purely instrumental in nature than *attitudes* towards the communities that speak it as an L1.

The lack of relationship between *instrumentality* and social *attitudes* in the Post-compulsory education participants may be related to the fact that all of these participants reported having a high level of *instrumentality*. Previous research has also yielded contradictory results on such relationship. Thus, some studies have found correlations between *instrumentality* and *attitudes* towards other speakers of English in Catalonia (Saravia i Terricabras, 2004; Wilson,

2012b) and other FLL contexts (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005b; Musleh, 2011; Wilson, 2012b). On the other hand, Bernaus & Gardner (2008) and Csizér & Kormos (2008) found no significant correlations between such variables. It could be the case that some learners of EFL, like our First cycle and Second cycle immigrant participants, with high indices of *instrumentality,* also display positive social *attitudes*, while others do not. In other words, social *attitudes* and *instrumentality* may be independent from each other in some learners, whereas other learners can show either high or low indices in both types of variables. Despite the partially instrumental nature of social attitudes in FLL pointed out by Csizér & Dörnyei (2005b) and Dörnyei' (1990), *instrumentality* in the present study contained items different to the instrumental value of social attitudes.

There were other positive correlations among the *affective variables* included in the present study. To begin with, *integrative attitudes* and *interest in an international community* correlated positively in First cycle and Second cycle, which is coherent with the fact that they are conceptually similar. However, the correlation was not established in Post-compulsory education. There are three possible reasons for such a difference between groups. The first of them is the above-mentioned small size of this particular group. In addition, a high percentage of Post-compulsory participants showed a high level of *attitudes towards an international community* (90.91%), while no learner in this group showed a negative level in this type of *attitudes*. It is also possible that learners in First and Second cycle may be less aware of the difference between the British/English and Americans and, on the other hand, an international community that transcends these two national groups. In Post-compulsory education, in contrast, they may be aware of such difference, with a more clear idea of the kind of community they are more interested in.

Finally, i*nstrumentality* also correlated significantly with *attitudes towards learning English* in First cycle and Second cycle but not in Post-compulsory education. It is not surprising that learners with high instrumental indices also attach a high academic value to English. The lack of such a statistical relationship in the Post-compulsory group may be related to the low variance of attitudinal level in both *affective variables* in this group, as

attitudes towards learning English obtained predominantly high indices (72.73%) and a percentage of 0% of *negative attitudes*.

7.2.2. Perceived chances of success

As explained before, *perceived chances of success*, related to our participants' expectations in EFL, is comprised of *expected school mark in English* and *perceived ability in EFL according to L1*. *Expected school mark in English* refers to the participants' perceived ability in EFL at the end of the academic year. For the relationship between *expected school mark in English* and *achievement in EFL*, see section 7.2.5. *Perceived ability in L1* refers to the participants' perception of whether there is a relationship between *L1* and ability in learning EFL. In other words, this particular variable addressed the participants' beliefs concerning what type of learner was better at EFL: *L1* Spanish and L2 Catalan speakers, L2 Spanish and Catalan learners with other *L1*s or both types.

We saw that the mean ***expected school mark*** in English reported by our immigrant participants ranged from *Pass* to *Good* in both the cross-sectional study and the longitudinal study. The indices of some of the participants were the same or inferior to those in the local group, who showed an *expected school mark* of *Good*. Similar results were obtained in the only study that has been found concerned with a similar construct (*self-confidence*) with immigrant learners. In this study, Comajoan & Gomàriz (2008a) found that immigrant learners in Catalonia had similar or lower levels of *self-confidence* in EFL than their local peers. The comparison with previous studies conducted with local samples (Lamb, 2007; Mori & Gobel, 2006; Schmidt *et al.*, 1996, conducted in other national contexts) showed that the participants had an expectancy of success in EFL slightly higher than the *expected school mark* levels in our sample. In light of these findings, we could argue that immigrant learners in Catalonia have lower indices of expectations of success in EFL than local learners in this Spanish region and other contexts, but the difference seems to be small.

Expected school mark in English correlated in our data with other *affective variables*: with *instrumentality* in First cycle (p=.011) and with *attitudes towards learning English* in Post-compulsory education (*p*=.005). The

relationship between *expected school mark* and *attitudes towards learning English* may be due to the fact that the latter variable correlated in the three cross-sectional groups with *school mark* in English. As the participants in the study had extremely realistic expectations regarding their *school mark in English* at the end of the year (see sections 6.2.1.4, 6.2.1.5 and 6.2.1.6) and they were probably based on school marks obtained before taking the instruments in the present study, those learners with more positive *attitudes towards learning English* had obtained better results in the subject and, therefore, had higher expectations. However, it is more difficult to answer why this correlation appeared only in Post-compulsory education. The participants in this group showed the strongest statistical correlations between *attitudes towards learning English* and *school mark*. This higher level of significance may have affected their expectations in a positive way. As for the correlation between *expected school mark* and *instrumentality* in First cycle, this same argument cannot be applied given the fact that there was no interaction between *instrumentality* and *school mark* in English (see Chapter 6). The origin of the relationship between both variables remains, therefore, obscure.

Our findings on ***perceived ability in EFL according to L1*** in both the cross-sectional and the longitudinal studies showed that the participants believed in higher percentages that **both L1 and L2 Spanish learners were equally able to learn EFL**. In the justifications given to support this belief, the participants put forward that *motivation* and effort are more important factors in successul EFL than ability. As we saw in Chapter 3, research has shown that *affective variables* leads to higher indices of *achievement* in Catalonia among immigrant (Bernaus *et al.*, 2004; Comajoan & Gomàriz, 2008b; Wilson, 2012b) and local learners (Bernaus *et al.*, 2009; Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Gardner, 2006, 2007; Muñoz & Tragant, 2001; Saravia i Terricabras, 2004; Tragant, 2006), in other regions of Spain (Madrid *et al.*, 1994; Prada Credo, 1990), as well as in other national contexts (Clément, 1980, 1986; Clément & Kruidenier, 1985; Clément, Gardner & Smythe, 1977, 1980; Clément *et al.*, 1994; Gardner, 1960, 2000, 2006; Gardner, Day, & MacIntyre, 1992; Gardner & Lambert, 1959, 1972; Gardner, Tremblay & Masgoret, 1997; Ghanea, Pisheh & Ghanea, 2011; Hsieh, 2008 ; Hsieh & Kang, 2010; Kang, 2001; Kuhlemeier, Van den Bergh &

Melse, 1996; Mahyuddin *et al.*, 2006; Noels, Clément & Pelletier, 1999; Oller, Hudson & Liu, 1977; Pae, 2010; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995; Tremblay & Masgoret, 1997; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995; Warden & Lin, 2000; Wen, 1997).

Concerning the selection of the **learners with L1s different from Spanish as more able in learning EFL**, the most frequently mentioned reason to support this claim in the cross-sectional study is the assumption that this type of students "had already studied or spoken English in their countries". This reason was also present in both longitudinal groups and may be related to the common belief held in Catalonia and Spain that English is learnt or taught better than in other countries. Other participants believed that "It is easier to learn English if your *L1* is a Germanic language or if it is more similar to English than Spanish or Catalan." This is related to the facilitating effect that transfer can have when the languages are closer (Mägiste, 1984; Odlin, 1989; Ohlander, 2009). Another reason that was put forward was: "The more languages you command or you are taught, the easier it is to learn additional languages". Precisely, the opposite view, i.e, "Learning EFL is an extra effort for foreign students who speak a language different from Spanish/Catalan as an *L1*" was the most frequently endorsed reason for believing that **students who only speak Spanish and Catalan are better learners of EFL** in the cross-sectional study. Research contradicts that claim and supports the belief that bilinguals and multilinguals obtain better results as language learners due to higher metalinguistic awareness (Brohy, 2001; Lasagabaster, 2005b; Cenoz, 2011; Cenoz & Jessner, 2009; Jessner, 1999; Muñoz, 2000).

7.2.3. The role of school level and hours of instruction

We saw in Chapter 4 that the indices of *affective variables* in the present study were fairly stable across *school level*s in the cross-sectional study and throughout the two school years in the longitudinal groups. Thus, in our cross-sectional study the decline in indices of *affective variables* from First cycle to Second cycle was slight and the rise from these two groups to Post-compulsory education was not significant (see section 6.3.2). In the longitudinal study, only the evolution of *integrative attitudes* was significant (see Footnote 20 for discarding *instrumentality* in the longitudinal analysis). The weakness of the

role of *school level* or *hours of instruction* on *affective variables* is probably due to the fact that our four attitudinal factors are general and less dependent on classroom variables than variables such as evaluation of the teacher or the course materials, which are not analysed in the present study.

Despite the fact that the difference between First cycle and Second cycle is small, the decline in the indices of *affective variables* in Second cycle is coherent with previous research, which suggests that *attitudes* towards the foreign language decrease around grade 7 (equivalent to ESO2), i. e., at *age* 13 (Chambers, 1999; Lamb, 2007; MacIntyre *et al.*, 2002; Williams *et al.*, 2002) Different reasons have been given to explain such a loss of enthusiasm, like the methodology used by the teacher (Chambers, 1999; Lamb, 2007; Williams *et al.*, 2002), or the impression of not making any progress in the learning process (Lamb, 2007). These explanations could be applied to explain why the participants in Second cycle showed less favourable attitudes toward EFL. The increase in attitudinal levels in the Post-compulsory participants is most probably due to the fact that, at this educational level, schooling is not compulsory and learners may be more interested in studying in general and studying English as a school subject in particular.

As for the role of *school level* and *hours of instruction* on each of the individual quantitative *affective variables*, the results yielded by the present study and previous research are not conclusive. To begin with, our results concerning the stability of ***attitudes towards learning English*** contradict previous research, which is, neverheless, scarce. Thus, both Gardner, Masgoret, Tennant & Mihic (2004) and Lamb (2007) -two longitudinal studies conducted, respectively, with North-American university learners of French and Indonesian junior high-school learners of English- found that *attitudes* towards learning the TL significantly decreased from the beginning of the academic year to the end. It is possible to argue that *attitudes* towards learning the TL are more bound to change than *integrative attitudes* and *instrumentality*, since the latter variables depend less on the classroom environment. *Attitudes towards learning English* in our study is the closest to the fact of actually learning the language, which can be influenced by variables related to the factors in the classroom, like the role of the teacher.

The divergence in results between our study and Gardner *et al*. (2004) and Lamb (2007) can be explained by the fact that the changes in the classroom environment experienced by the learners in these two studies that did not take place in relation to our participants. This same explanation can cast light on the fact that *attitudes towards learning English* experienced the most drastic change from First cycle to Second cycle (p=.29). In other words, the evolution of this particular *attitude* was more acute in the cros-sectional study than the other *attitudes* because it is more subject to classroom variables.

We mentioned above that ***integrative attitudes*** was the only *affective variable* in our longitudinal study that significantly changed from the first collection to the last, which occurred in both longitudinal groups: more specifically, they increased from one collection to the following. Our results on this particular *affective variable* are in line with Gardner *et al*. (2004). However, they contradicted two longitudinal studies: Seki (2004) and Lamb (2004), conducted, respectively, with Japanese university students and Indonesian secondary-school learners. Our findings also contradict the results of a cross-sectional study, Kormos & Csizér (2008), which did not find significant differences in *integrative attitudes* between secondary-school learners, University students and young adults. The results cast by previous research are, therefore, contradictory and this may point to other factors associated with *school level* or *hours of instruction*, which can be the focus of further research.

In addition, the evolution of the other social attitude in the present study, ***interest in an international community***, can shed light on the role of *school level* and *hours of instruction* in this type of *attitudes*. We saw in Chapter 6 (Results) that in the cross-sectional study the increase in *interest in an international community* from First cycle to Post-compulsory education was more acute than in the case of *integrative attitudes*. However, the difference between Compulsory education (First cycle and Second cycle) and Post-compulsory education was not significant. In the longitudinal study, *interest in an international community* did not change significantly from the first collection time to the last. However, a similar construct in Kormos & Csizér (2008), *international posture* (which also addresses *attitudes* towards English

as an internacional language) obtained significantly higher indices in the adult group than among university students, while it was not present in the secondary-school learners. We argue that, in spite of the higher stability of social *attitudes*, these may increase with *hours of instruction* depending on the amount of exposure to cultural contact. We have seen that several studies suggest that contact with English through communication media or tourism is associated with more positive social *attitudes* (Csizér & kormos, 2008; Dörnyei & Csizér, 2005b; Wilson, 2012b). In the cross-sectional study, *interest in an international community* and *integrative attitudes* showed the sharpest increase from First cycle to Post-compulsory education (p=.35 and p=.31, respectively). Such growth may be related to higher awareness of the Anglo-Saxon community and an international community as *age* and access to such a community through English lessons and exposure to the media in English increase. It seems, therefore, that the role of *school level* or *hours of instruction* is stronger in social attitudes than the other variables contemplated in the present study.

As for ***instrumentality***, the scores obtained by this variable in the cross-sectional and the longitudinal studies show that they kept fairly stable. Similar resuts have been obtained in other longitudinal studies (Gardner *et al.*, 2004; Seki, 2004) and cross-sectional studies (Kormos & Csizér, 2008; Leung, 2006), which have found no significant change in the participants' scores in *instrumental orientation*. However, in a longitudinal study, Lamb (2007), and two cross-sectional studies conducted in Barcelona (Muñoz & Tragant, 2001; Tragant, 2006), *instrumentality* increased with *hours of instruction*. Despite the differences between the findings of the current study and the studies revised, the results may suggest that *attitudes* towards the instrumental value of English are usually high and do not significantly decrease with *school level* or *hours of instruction*.

Interestingly, three out of the five items in our ***instrumentality*** construct were career-oriented and all of them obtained high scores. Such *positive* indices in First cycle and Second cycle seem surprising if we bear in mind that the participants in both groups are below working age in Spain (16). Our results contradict those in Leung (2006), who found that Japanese learners

aged 13-15 deemed “getting a good job” as a benefit of studying English as "not important" (Leung, 2006:26), but they are in line with other studies conducted with learners aged 16 or below (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005b; Kormos & Kiddle, 2013; Lamb, 2007; Wilson, 2012b). In the qualitative analysis of some of these studies, the learners claimed that English was useful in finding a good job with high frequency. In light of the findings yielded by the present study and previous research, we may argue that secondary-school learners, even those who are below working age, are aware of the benefits of learning English for future prospects because of views put forward by both parents and teachers. Therefore, the diverging results in Leung (2006) can be explained by the fact that the adults in the participants’ environment did not share the idea that learning English was relevant to find a good job or did not transmit such a view.

We mentioned above that ***expected school mark*** in English was fairly stable in our sample. In our cross-sectional study, Post-compulsory education showed a higher *expected school mark* in English (*Good*) than both First cycle and Second cycle (*Pass*). However, the contrast between the two Compulsory groups and Post-comulsory education was not significant. Likewise, our longitudinal study showed that the difference in *expected school mark* between both collection times was not statistically significant. Our results agree with those in Lamb (2007), in which a similar construct did not significantly change throughout the school year. However, three cross-sectional studies have found significant changes in their participants' *expectations of success* according to *school level*. Thus, Williams *et al*. (2002) found that *perceived success* and *perceived ability* significantly fell from grade 7 to grade 9. Similar results were obtained by Schmidt *et al*. (1996) among learners older than the sample in Williams *et al*. (2002); the researchers found that *expectancy of success* and *attribution of success* decreased with *age*. On the other hand, the findings in MacIntyre *et al*. (2002) pointed to the opposite direction, as the participants' perceived competence raised from grade 7 to grade 8. Thus, expectations of success can be either stable or decrease and increase. We argue here that the evolution of expectations of success with *school level* or *hours of instruction* depends on *attitudes* and *motivation* in learning the TL, as it seems that the latter can have an influence on the learners’ expectations of success (Chen &

Sheu, 2005; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995). In our sample, we assumed that *expected school mark* in English was based on previous academic results, influenced, on their turn, by *attitudes towards EFL*. As *attitudes* among our participants were in general stable, as well as their *school mark* in English, the resulting *expected school mark* did not change significantly.

As for ***perceived ability in learning EFL according to L1***, the participants in the cross-sectional and the longitudinal studies generally endorsed the belief that *L1* has no bearing on being a better learner of EFL. However, it seems that as *school level* and *hours of instruction* increase, the participants tend to believe in higher percentages that learners with *L1*s different from Spanish are better at EFL. This is related to the increase in the percentages of learners who justify such belief through the reason "It is easier to learn English if your *L1* is a Germanic language or if it is more similar to English than Spanish or Catalan". Such results suggest that *school level* or *hours of instruction* increase the awareness of the role of *language distance* and the facilitating effect of transfer, which, as we saw above, have been pointed out by research as relevant factors (Mägiste, 1984; Odlin, 1989; Ohlander, 2009).

7.2.4. The role of L1, AoA, SP and RP

In this section, the focus is on the relationship between *attitudes* and factors related to the participants' idiosyncratic features as immigrants, i. e. we will address Research Question 1b: *Is there a relationship between the participants' affective variables* and their specific personal *variables as immigrants (L1, AoA*, SP *and* RP*)?* It was assumed that our participants' scores in the attitudinal factors could be related to variables unique to the fact that they are immigrants, i .e, their *L1* and *AoA*, their parents' SP (we assumed that our participants' SP would be inferior to local learners) and whether their parents have Return Plans. However, **correlations between attitudinal factors and *L1, AoA, SP* and *RP*** are few and they are different in the three cross-sectional groups. This makes it difficult to draw conclusions about the relationship between such variables. In addition, no fully comparable study has been found, so our results cannot be discussed in light of previous findings.

To begin with, the lack of significant correlations between ***L1*** and *instrumentality* in our sample contradicts previous research conducted in Spain. Thus, Bernaus *et al*. (2004) found that learners from Africa were more instrumentally oriented in EFL, Spanish and Catalan than Asians. The findings in Lasagabaster (2002) pointed out that L1 Basque learners had lower instrumental attitudes than L1 Spanish learners (Lasagabaster, 2002).

The relationship found between *L1* and *integrative attitudes* in Second cycle, according to which L1 Spanish learners had higher *integrative attitudes* than the rest of participants in this group, is coherent with the results in a previous study conducted by Lasagabaster (2002). This author found that L1 Spanish learners had more favourable *integrative attitudes* than L1 Basque. According to the author, the influence of the *L1* on the participants' *attitudes* towards English is related to being a speaker of a minority language, as they may feel that an international language is a threat for a minority language. The same influence of *L1* Spanish or Basque on general attitudes toward EFL was found by the same author in another study (Lasagabaster, 2005a). Lasagabaster's (2002, 2005a) results suggest an interesting finding in the relation of English as a global language and *attitudes* towards it. It seems that favourable *attitudes* towards an international language are less common among speakers of minority languages. However, the explanation put forward by Lasagabaster (2002, 2005a) to explain differences in attitudes to English according to *L1* does not seem to fit in our sample. As for the absence of a relationship between *L1* and *integrative attitudes* in First cycle, we may argue here that it may be necessary to reach a certain age for the *L1* to have an effect on *integrative attitudes*.

L1 also correlated significantly with *expected school mark* in Second cycle, which indicates that learners with an L1 different from Spanish in this group have a lower expectation of success. Possibly, the 12 learners in Second cycle who were speakers of *L1* Moroccan Arabic, Arabic and Bereber (5%) or *L1* Georgian (2.50%) may feel that English is more difficult for them as they have to deal with an alphabet different to that of their mother tongue. If we bear in mind our assumption that learners with Moroccan origin have lower self-perception of their ability in EFL and the fact that this group included the

highest percentage of Moroccan Arabic and Bereber speakers, these two facts may explain why this correlation appeared only in this group. However, our results contradict the only previous study on such relationship between language background and *self-confidence*. Comajoan & Gomàriz (2008a) found that Moroccan learners had higher self-confidence than South-American learners. It is possible to argue that a combination of factors influences immigrants' expectations of success and other *affective variables* in EFL and the relative weight of the *L1* can be enhanced in some situations depending on a number of factors.

Concerning the relationship between the participants' *L1* and *perceived ability according to L1*, the results indicated that such a relationship did not exist. In Chapter 6 (Results), we saw the general percentages of endorsement concerning *perceived ability according to L1* in each of the cross-sectional groups and the percentages among participants with *L1* Spanish and the the rest of the group. The most common belief in First cycle and Second cycle (i. e., that both learners of EFL with L1 Spanish and those who are speakers of other mother tongues were equally able to learn English) was independent of the participants' L1. However, statistics revealed that in First cycle and Second cycle *L1* had a relationship with *achievement* (see section 7.2.5), as participants with L2 Spanish obtained higher indices in *written mark* (First cycle) and *oral mark* (Second cycle). This finding partially contradicts, therefore, most of the participants' view.

The second of the personal variables considered, ***AoA,*** presented a negative correlation (p=-.048) with *attitudes towards learning English* in First cycle, which meant that learners who had arrived in Catalonia at an older *age* showed lower scores in this particular attitudinal factor. This relationship may be due to an element in the school and the social background in their country of origin in opposition to Catalonia. The fact that the correlation between the two types of variables appears only in one group is again difficult to explain and contradicts the only similar study found. Thus, in Wilson (2012b) there were no differences between immigrants with more than six years of residence in Catalonia and those with less time of residence in their *attitudes* and *motivation* in EFL.

The third variable related to our sample's specifity as immigrants is parental ***SP.*** In First and Second cycle groups, no correlation between this personal variable and the *affective variables* considered in the study was obtained. This is in line with a previous study conducted in Catalonia (Huguet, 2007). Surprisingly, the results showed that this variable correlated negatively with *instrumentality* in the Post-compulsory group. In other words, the participants in Post-compulory education whose parents had a higher *SP* showed less positive *attitudes* to EFL from an instrumental point of view. The fact that the correlation is negative is intriguing. It is reasonable to argue that parents with higher education are aware or feel the importance of English for their children's future studies and career and, consequently, they have transmitted these views to their children. Such a relationship between parental social and educational level and their children's *attitudes* or *motivation* to learn EFL has been found in other studies, like Aronin (2004), Kormos & Kiddle (2013) and Musleh (2011). A possible explanation for the appearance of a negative correlation between *SP* and *instrumentality* only in the Post-compulsory group is the fact that in this group there is higher variability in the *SP* (see section 5.3.2).

Finally, the negative correlations obtained between ***RP*** and *interest in an international community* (*p*=-.046) and *instrumentality* (*p*=-.044) in the First cycle group indicate that those participants in First cycle whose families have plans to return to their countries of origin showed higher scores in these two *attitudes*. The statistical relationship of *RP* with *interest in an international community* may be due to the fact that these learners are bound to return to their countries of origin with the experience of a new culture and are, consequently, more open to the English-speaking international community. In addition, those participants in First cycle whose families have *RP* to their countries of origin may see that English is useful for instrumental reasons in their countries.

7.2.5. Correlations between affective variables and achievement in EFL

The present section seeks to discuss Research Question 1c (*Is there a relationship between the participants'* affective variables *and their*

achievement *in EFL?)* by analysing the relationship between *affective variables* and *achievement* in the cross-sectional study. It will be preceded by a discussion of **attainment in EFL** among our participants. As the results in Chapter 6 showed, the three measures of *achievement* in English showed progress from the lowest to the highest *school level*s. On the other hand, there is progress in both *written mark* and *oral mark*, which was expected as the bands are common to all the *school level*s and attainment was supposed to increase from one *school level* to the following.

In order to explain why *school mark* increased from First cycle to Post-compulsory education, it may be argued that students with lower academic success or those with lower *motivation* remain at the lowest *school level*s as repeaters and indices of *school mark in Spanish* and *Catalan* partially confirm it. *School mark in Spanish* and *school mark in Catalan* increased from one *school level* to the following (with the exception of *school mark in Catalan*, which in the Post-compulsory group was lower than in Second cycle: 5.30 vs 5.35), although the difference was less acute than in English.

As for the correlations of *achievement* in English with the participants' variables as immigrants, it is difficult to draw conclusions, as they were only established in some groups. ***L1*** correlated with *written mark* in First cycle and *oral mark* in Second cycle, but it did not correlate with any of the *achievement* measures in Post-compulsory education. At the two lower *school levels*, learners with an *L1* different from Spanish attained higher *proficiency* in English, but the correlations were established with only one measure related to one skill. Therefore, the statistical relationship between *L1* and *achievement* in English was only partially confirmed.

AoA correlated with *achievement* in English in each of the groups, but the correlations were established with different measures and they were negative in First cycle and Second cycle and positive in the Post-compulsory group. It is surprising that both correlations in First cycle and Second cycle were established with measures that refer to only one skill. As a tentative explanation, we can aduce that schooling and the teaching of English in the countries of origin of the participants in First cycle and Second cycle place more emphasis on written and oral skills, respectively. The different results in

the Post-compulsory group, which pointed to higher general *achievement* among those participans who arrived at an older age, were even more surprising as we may assume that learners with a younger *AoA* are better adapted to the Catalan school system. We can only argue that the participants at this *school level* achieved higher attainment in their countries of origin. The only study comparable on the relationship between *AoA* and *achievement* in EFL in immigrant learners in Catalonia showed no significant difference in self-assessed *proficiency* in EFL between immigrants with a short length of stay and long-term immigrants or native learners in Catalonia (Wilson, 2012b). In order to account for such diverging results, we argue here that *AoA* interacts with schooling in the countries of origin and other variables and this explains why AoA established positive and negative correlations with different measures of *achievement* in the present study and no correlation with *achievement* in Wilson (2012b).

As we mentioned before, in the study of the relationship between *affective variables* and *achievement* in our sample, we did not address the direction of **causality**. We assume, following the Socio-Educational model and the empirical results of research inspired by it (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Gardner, 2000, 2006, 2007; Gardner, Tremblay & Masgoret, 1997; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995), that higher *achievement* is the result of more positive *attitudes* through *motivation*. In other words, *attitudes towards learning English*, *interest in an international community* and *expected school mark* in English correlated with several measures of *achievement* in the present study because they had an influence on *motivation*. In the study hereby reported, *attitudes towards learning English* and *instrumentality* correlated with several of the measures of *achievement* across the three immigrant groups, whereas *expected school mark in English* correlated with both *written mark* and *oral mark* at the two higher *school levels*. The absence of significant correlations between *expected school mark in English* and *achievement* in First cycle is probably related to the fact that this group shows the lowest *school mark* in the sample and there is not enough variability in the scores for this variable. In agreement with results obtained by previous research under the Socio-Educational model, we assume that *integrative attitudes* and *instrumentality*

did not correlate with *achievement* in English in our sample because these two *affective variables* did not contribute to *motivation*. On the other hand, *attitudes towards learning English* and *expected school mark* in English correlated with *achievement* because they must have exerted an influence on *motivation*.

Attitudes towards learning English correlated positively with *achievement* in English in the three groups. Our results confirm previous research, like Bernaus & Gardner (2008), Tremblay & Gardner (1995) and Gardner, Tremblay & Masgoret (1997), who found that *attitudes towards the learning situation* or *towards learning the TL* correlated with *achievement* through *motivation*[23]. As we mentioned above, we assume that, among our participants, *attitudes towards learning English* influenced *motivation*, which, in turn, promoted *achievement* in EFL. The correlation was higher in the Post-compulsory group (p=.016). It could be again related to higher academic *motivation* in Post-compulsory education. As they are more trained than the younger groups in learning EFL, their *positive attitudes* -and the higher *motivation* derived from them- may lead to higher a*chievement* through higher academic skills.

Integrative attitudes did not correlate with any of the measures of *achievement* in English in our immigrant sample. The absence of significant correlations between *integrative attitudes* and *achievement* in the TL is in line with similar research conducted with local learners in Eastern countries (Asakawa & Oller, 1977; Chen *et al.*, 2005; Çolak, 2008; Liu, 2007; Musleh, 2011; Pae, 2010) and other regions of Spain (Madrid & Pérez Cañado, 2001; Madrid *et al.*, 1993). On the other hand, it contradicts findings obtained by Gardner and other researchers using the AMTB or the mini-AMTB in different countries among local samples: the United States (Gardner & Lambert, 1972), Croatia, Poland, Romania, Brazil, and Japan (as reported in Gardner, 2006, 2007) and Catalonia with both local learners (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Bernaus *et al.*, 2009; Gardner, 2007) and immigrant participants (Wilson, 2012b).

[23] However, in Bernaus & Gardner (2008), *attitudes towards the learning situation* could have a direct influence on *achievement* and, in this case, such influence could be negative.

Therefore, the lack of correlations between *integrative attitude*s and *achievement* in our sample cannot be attributed to the national context, as both variables correlated in previous research conducted in Catalonia.

As a possible explanation for divergent findings on the relationship of *integrative attitudes* with *achievement*, we could point to the different measures of *affective variables* and *achievement* in previous studies. In order to assess the participants' *motivation*, research inspired by the Socio-Educational Model has made use of the AMTB or the mini-AMTB, which differs to some extent to the questionnaire used in the present study. However, the statistical relationship between *integrative attitudes* and *achievement* was found in studies that did not include Gardner's AMTB (1985a, 1985b): Kuhlemeier *et al*. (1996) and Ghanea *et al*. (2011), conducted, respectively in The Netherlands and in Iran. As for the effect of the use of different measures of *achievement,* two of the above studies which found correlations between *integrative attitudes* and *achievement* in Catalonia, Bernaus *et al*. (2004) and Wilson (2012b), used, in contrast to the present study, self-assessment measures of *proficiency*.

Finally, despite the contradictory results on the relationship between *integrative attitudes* and *achievement* among immigrant learners in Catalonia obtained in the present study and Wilson (2012b), the fact that the participants are precisely immigrants can explain such divergent findings. To begin with, in our local Second cycle group, *integrative attitudes* correlated significantly with *achievement*. This would suggest that *integrative attitudes* promote *achievement* among local learners in Catalonia but not necessarily in immigrant students. We argue here that in immigrant participants' ultimate attainment, factors such as the influence of the *L1, AoA*, different learning background, school absenteeism, etc. are at play and their contribution may be more powerful than *motivation* spurred by positive *integrative attitudes* according to different immigrant samples. The intervening role of variables other than *integrative attitudes*, whose number is higher among immigrant learners, may explain why some studies conducted with local participants did not find significant correlations between *integrative motivation* and *achievement* in EFL.

The other social attitudinal construct, ***interest in an international English-speaking community***, correlated with *achievement in English* (*school mark* in English, *p*=.032, and *written mark*, *p*=.010) only in Second cycle. Explaining such a correlation is difficult because of two reasons. First of all, the lack of statistical relationship between *interest in an international community* and *achievement in English* in First cycle and Post-compulsory education contradicts the findings in the only study found between a construct similar to ours (*international posture*) and *achievement*. According to the results in Yashima (2002), *International posture* had an indirect influence on L2 *proficiency* through L2 *motivation*. In addition, it is difficult to explain why this relationship appeared only in Second cycle. Perhaps, First cycle learners did not have enough exposure to global media in English for their scores in this variable to be high enough to have an influence on *motivation* and, therefore, *achievement*. In addition, the relative effect of other variables specific to being immigrant learners suggested above may have had a more powerful role in the participants' *achievement* than amount of *motivation* determined by *interest in an international community*. In Post-compulsory education, the small size of the group may have affected the results. Further research will be needed to explain the relationship of *attitudes* related to a global community which expresses itself in English with *achievement* in this language.

Finally, the fact that ***instrumentality*** obtained no relationship with *school mark* in English in any of the groups contradicts previous research both abroad (Çolak, 2008; Ghanea *et al.*, 2011; Musleh, 2011; Obeitan, 2005), and in other areas of Spain (Madrid & Pérez, 2001; Madrid *et al.*, 1993), where *instrumental orientation* correlated with *achievement*. Our study is, however, in line with Chen *et al.* (2005) and Pae (2010), who found that neither *instrumentality* nor *integrative motivation* correlated with *achievement* in EFL. In the case of Catalonia, the results of previous studies are not conclusive. Thus, Bernaus & Gardner (2008) found that *instrumental orientation* contributed to *motivation* and, therefore, to language *achievement*. However, Gardner (2007) found no significant influence of *instrumental orientation* on *motivation*. As in our discussion of *integrative attitudes*, we assume that other variables related to the participants' specifity as immigrants and other types of

factors may have had a role in their *achievement*. Our results are coherent with Gardner's (2006) assumption that *instrumentality* can support or influence *motivation* in some situations but not in all. It is also possible that the fact that the participants are still young may have affected the influence of this factor, which contained mostly items related to future work prospects, on *motivation* and, therefore, *achievement*, regardless the higher importance attached to the instrumental values of English. In other words, the participants may be aware of the importance of English for their future career but this belief has not spurred their *motivation* in EFL.

We have seen, then, that the only attitudinal variable that correlated with *achievement* in our data was *attitudes towards learning English,* which was the attitude more closely related to actually studying the TL in an academic or FL context. It seems that *instrumentality* and social *attitudes* did not spur the participants to put more effort on EFL. In addition to the above-mentioned interplay of immigrant-specific variables, it may be argued that *instrumentality* and social *attitudes*, in contrast to *attitudes towards learning English*, imply a gain in learning EFL that is not immediate and are weak supporters of *motivation* in EFL.

As for the consistent correlations found between *expected school mark* in English and *achievement* in both the immigrant and local samples in the present study, they point to the participants' precise expectations about their *school mark* in English, i. e. their accurate self-perceived attainment at the end of the academic year. We believed that *expected school mark* had an influence on *motivation* in our participants' attainment in English at the end of the school year, as higher expectations of success encouraged them to put more effort and perseverance in EFL. Our results are in line with previous research on the relationship between *achievement* in the TL and variables conceptually similar to our *expected school mark* in English in both SL and FL contexts: *self-efficacy* (Hsieh, 2008; Hsieh & Kang, 2010; Piechurska-Kuciel, 2013; Rahimi & Abedini, 2009) or *self-confidence* (Clément *et al.*, 1994; Gardner, Tremblay & Masgoret, 1997; Pae, 2010; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995). Many of such studies claim that the influence is exerted from *self-efficacy* or *self-confidence* to *achievement*, either directly or indirectly through

motivation or other *affective variables*. Only one of the studies revised, Gardner, Tremblay & Masgoret (1997), revealed a significant path from *achievement* to *self-confidence*. We assume that *expected school mark* in English could have an influence on *achievement*, but we also believe that our participants based their *expected school mark* in English on previous feedback received in this subject. As Bandura (1994) points out, outcomes can influence expectancy of success in learning. At the same time, the participants' perceived chances of success at the end of the school year can enhance their *motivation* and, therefore, their *achievement*. The fact that the other two measures of *achievement*, *written mark* and *oral mark*, obtained strong correlations with *expected school mark* in English in Second cycle and Post-compulsory education reinforces this suggestion that the relationship between *achievement* and *expected school mark* is not only based on the learners' previous *school marks* in English.

7.3. Use of other languages: Cross-linguistic influence and source selection

7.3.1. Cross-linguistic influence: indices and factors

Section 7.3.1 discusses findings related to Research Question 2a (i. e., *Do the participants draw on other langu*ages *in their oral and written lexical production in English? If so, what is the relationship between* cross-linguistic influence *and the participants'* achievement *in EFL, their personal variables and their* affective variables*?*). As we saw in Chapter 6, the results in both the cross-sectional and the longitudinal studies show that our participants drew on other languages within their linguistic repertoire in their production in English. In the discussion below, the role of *school level* and *hours of instruction*, which comprise *age* and TL *proficiency*, together with *task effect*, *affective variables*, *L1* and *AoA* will be discussed in relation to *CLI* in our participants' production in EFL.

The outcomes in the previous chapter indicate a steady decrease in the percentage of transferred items from First cycle to Post-compulsory education as ***school level*** progresses, with a significant difference between First cycle and Post-compulsory education, the groups with the lowest and highest attainment levels, respectively. However, the longitudinal study, which analysed *amount of CLI* in the written and oral tasks in the ESO1-ESO2 and ESO2-ESO3 groups (see Footnote 20), showed that *hours of instruction* had little effect, as only the decrease in amount of oral *CLI* in the ESO2-ESO3 reached statistical significance. Previous studies conducted in Catalonia and the Basque country have also found that numbers of *CLI* decreased with *school level* (Celaya, 2006; Celaya & Ruiz de Zarobe, 2010; Celaya & Torras, 2001; Navés *et al.*, 2005). Probably, the lack of statistical significance in three of the four indices of *CLI* in the longitudinal study is related to the fact that (approximately) 200 *hours of instruction* imply little time of instruction for it to have an effect and to the fact that it must combine with *task effect* in order to play a role (see below for the discussion on the role of *school level* and *task effect*).

As for the individual contribution of *age*, we remind that *school level* (in the cross-sectional study) and *hours of instruction* (in the longitudinal study) entailed increasing *age at testing*. In our data, as school level and hours of instruction and, therefore *age*, increased, the numbers of transferred items decreased. The effect of *age* on indices of *CLI* was also found in Navés *et al*. (2005) and Celaya & Torras (2001). As suggested by Celaya & Torras (2001), increasing *age* may be related to higher linguistic awareness on the differences between the TL and the source language and, therefore, older learners may be less eager to transfer from a previous language or draw on the *L1* in a different way. We must bear in mind, though, that in a school context *age* and *hours of instruction* or *school level* cannot always be separated (as explained by Navés *et al.*, 2005).

In the cross-sectional study, despite the fact that increasing *school level* led to less *CLI* among our participants (the difference in numbers of transferred items between First cycle and Post-compulsory education was statistically significant, as well as in the number of *borrowings* in the oral task) and the

implication that higher *school level* also involves higher ***proficiency*** in EFL, *CLI* only consistently correlated with *written mark* and *oral mark* in Second cycle. In First cycle, such a negative correlation was only found between *oral mark* and the *amount of CLI* in the oral narrative. Despite the lack of correlations between numbers of *CLI* and *achievement* in First cycle and Post-compulsory education, transferred items decreased as *school level* increased. This is in line with previous studies which have also found that *proficiency* or *increased hours of instruction* led to less *CLI* (Celaya, 2006; Hammarberg, 2001, 2006; Lindqvist, 2009; Muñoz, 2004; Williams & Hammarberg, 1998).

Research has also shown that different levels of *achievement* are not only related to variance in the *amount of CLI* but also to the relative frequency of two types of transferred items: ***borrowings*** and ***lexical inventions***. Both would fall under what Ringom (1987) calls *form-based transfer*, but they differ in the fact that *lexical inventions* require higher *proficiency* in the target language as they imply, in contrast to *borrowings*, knowledge of morphological structures in such a language (Agustin, 2010; Celaya, 2006).

The results in the cross-sectional study also show that the relative percentages of *lexical inventions* increased from First cycle to Second cycle, while the ratio of *borrowings* decreased. In Post-compulsory education, both *borrowings* and *lexical inventions* fell. The different effect of *school level* on *borrowings* and *lexical inventions* found in First cycle and Second cycle is coherent with previous research conducted in the area of Barcelona with local learners, in which the percentages of *lexical inventions* either reduced in lower amounts than *borrowings* or increased with *school level* (Celaya, 2006; Celaya & Torras, 2001; Navés *et al.*, 2005). The contradictory results in Post-compulsory education, in which 100% of transferred items were *borrowings*, may be explained by the scarce numbers of transferred items, which were only two. On the other hand, the longitudinal study, in contrast to the results cast by First cycle and Second cycle, shows that *hours of instructions* had no clear effect on the number of *borrowings* or *lexical inventions*. In some cases, the percentage of one of these categories increased, while in others it decreased. The weaker role of *hours of instruction* on *borrowings* and *lexical inventions* in

the longitudinal study may be explained by the fact that they involve a shorter span of time than *school level*.

As has seen above, *school level* involves increased attainment in the EFL and higher *school level* was related to less *CLI*. However, *achievement* in English was related only to *borrowings* and such a relationship was found exclusively in Second cycle. Probably, *achievement in English* among our participants is not high enough for it to have an effect on the use of *lexical inventions* in any of the groups. On the other hand, the lack of a significant relationship between *borrowings* and *achievement* in English in First cycle and Post-compulory education is intriguing. It is possible that variance in *achievement* in English in each of these groups is too low for *achievement* to play a role on each individual *type of CLI*.

As explained before, *borrowings* in the oral data could accomplish three communicative functions (HELP, COM, FILL, see Chapter 6). A closer analysis of the number of *borrowings* in each of the three possible functions reaveals that they did not evolve in the same way. Thus, the ratio of items with the COM function and those with HELP function decreases from First cycle to Second cycle, but it increases in Post-compulsory education. However, transferred items in the FILL function fell from First cycle to Second cycle and Post-compulsory education (see Section 6.3.2). The difference in the percentages of *borrowings* in the instrumental and the FILL functions in First cycle and Second cycle is similar to the evolution of *CLI* in these three fuctions in the ESO2-ESO3 longitudinal study, as only at the last collection time of this latter group, the percentage of COM was superior to FILL. We could argue that, as *proficiency* increases, the need to make comments on one's poor performance is less frequent.

Therefore, the above-commented increase of oral *borrowings* with the COM and HELP functions in Post-compulsory education is surprising if we bear in mind that both functions can be related to lower levels of *proficiency*. We agree here with Gost & Celaya's (2005) explanation on results similar to those found in the present study: higher indices of *CLI* in instrumental uses related to eliciting TL items and metalinguistic comments in later starters of EFL, who

also had a higher *age at testing*, can be related to the fact that they were more aware of the gaps in their knowledge of EFL.

Some of the behaviour in *CLI* seems to be at random, which can be explained by the participants' personal differences. The effect of the latter may be stronger in the longitudinal study because of the small size of the two groups in this study.

The findings in the present study confirm that **oral task** lead to higher numbers of transferred items than in writing (Agustín Llach, 2010). In all the groups, the oral narrative showed a higher *amount of CLI* than the written task in both the number of learners who transferred and the percentage of transferred items. Our results are in line with those in Celaya (1992) and Ortega (2009). Interestingly, the difference between *CLI* in the oral task and the written narrative decreased as *school level* increased (17.39% in First cycle, 13.27% in Second cycle, 7.26% in Post-compulsory education). Probably, *task effect* combined with the role of *school level*: as the participants became more linguistically aware and they became more proficient, they were more able to counteract the need to draw from other languages and this higher ability is more noticebale in the most demanding task. This combined influence of *task effect* and *hours of instruction* can also explain why only oral amount of *CLI* in the ESO2-ESO3 group significantly decreased from the first collection to the last.

Task effect also had an influence on the number of *borrowings* and *lexical inventions*, like in Viladot & Celaya (2006). Thus, the percentage of *borrowings* was higher in the participants' oral narrative than in their written production. As the oral narrative is a more demanding task, learners may not have enough time to apply for a morphosyntactic or phonological rule and, instead, retrieve a *borrowing* from other languages in their linguistic constellation.

Our findings also show that specific variables related to the fact that the participants are immigrants (*L1*, *AoA*, *SP* and *RP*) did not have a clear role in *CLI*. Besides, the comparison of our results on the role of *L1* and *AoA* on *amount of CLI* with previous research is difficult to establish as only one study concerned with the acquisition of EFL by immigrant learners has been found

(Ohlander, 2009, which did not analyse the role of *SP* or *RP*). To begin with, we saw in section 4.4.2 that having a language that is typologically close to the TL can lead to higher numbers of transferred items. Thus, previous research conducted with local learners of a FL (Agustín *et al.*, 2005) and immigrants acquiring the host languages in Catalonia (Chireac, 2010; Garganta, 2008; Gràcia, 2007; Serrat *et al.*, 2008) found that the typological distance between the *L1* and the TL led to higher numbers of *CLI*. Among our participants, however, ***L1*** did not correlate with *amount of CLI* or the number of *borrowings* versus *lexical inventions* in First cycle and Second cycle. In the Post-compulsory group, it was not possible to establish the relationship between *L1* and *CLI* in the written production of the participants as the cases of transferred items were scarce. The contradictory results in our study can be explained by the fact that our non-Spanish L1 participants have two L2s which are more similar to English than their *L1* and this can be a trigger of *CLI*. These participants had at least one year of residence in Catalonia and their level of Catalan and Spanish was high enough to ensure that they could use these languages. Therefore, we can argue that, in the specific case of immigrants learning a FL, the influence of an *L1* typologically distant from the TL on number of transferred items can be overridden by a closer L2 provided there is enough *proficiency* and exposure to this language.

AoA attained only one correlation with number of transferred items. According to this correlation, learners in Second cycle who arrived in Catalonia at a younger age transferred higher numbers of terms in their oral production of EFL. This group was the only one that showed a negative correlation between *AoA* and *oral mark*, which indicated that learners with a younger *AoA* obtained higher indices in this measure. Therefore, these two correlations in which *AoA* entered are contradictory, as we may have expected that learners with a younger *AoA* and a higher *achievement* in the TL would also transfer less. Nevertheless, the presence of such a correlation in the oral production of Second cycle participants may be explained by both *task effect* (see above) and the higher presence of L2 Spanish participants in this group. Thus, in these learners, higher exposure and related *proficiency* in Spanish and Catalan, typologically closer to English than their respective L1s, may have had a

bearing on higher numbers of CLI. In a similar way, Ohlander (2009) found that immigrant learners who were born in Sweden benefited more on positive transfer in EFL from Swedish than their peers who were born in other countries.

The results showed that ***SP*** did not correlate with any of the measures of *CLI*, while, in First cycle, those participants whose families had ***RP*** transferred fewer oral *borrowings* and those with no *RP* transferred more items in their written production. As a tentative explanation of why the First cycle participants whose families have not planned to return to their countries of origin transfer more, we could argue that First cycle learners are more influenced by Catalonia's official languages and, therefore, they draw more from them. Unfortunately, the fact that such correlations appeared only in First cycle is difficult to explain. Besides, there is no previous research to compare our results with.

Following Odlin (1989), Hall & Ecke (2003) and Jarvis (2000), we assumed that *motivation* or ***affective variables*** are likely to be a factor of *CLI*. We also assumed that such a relationship is both indirect (through *motivation* and higher indices of *achievement*) and direct, as a learner with positive *attitudes* towards the target language may show higher accuracy in order to sound as native-like as possible. However, the results confirmed such an expectation only partially, as few correlations between *affective variables* and *amount* or *type of CLI* were found. Despite the fact that correlations between *affective variables* and *CLI* did not take place consistently in the three cross-sectional groups, all the correlations between *affective variables* and *CLI* were negative: learners with more positive *attitudes* towards EFL and higher *expected school mark* in the mentioned groups transferred less.

The only two *affective variables* that correlated with *numbers of CLI* were *attitudes towards learning English* and *expected school mark in English*. The former obtained two correlations with *amount of CLI*: one in the written production of the Second cycle (p=-.049) and another in the oral production of the Post-compulsory learners (p=-.025). *Expected school mark in English* correlated with oral *CLI* in the oldest group (p=-.26). *Attitudes towards learning English* also correlated with *borrowings* in the oral data of the Second cycle and Post-compulsory participants, while *expected school mark* in English

correlated with the same oral *CLI* category in Post-compulsory education. Such correlations between *affective variables* and *amount of CLI* and oral *borrowings* involved only the two *affective variables* (*attitudes towards learning English* and *expected school mark*) that achieved statistical interaction with *school mark*, which would confirm the mediating role of *achievement* in the influence of *affective variables* on amount of *CLI*.

Other *affective variables* that did not obtain any relationships with *achievement* correlated with *type of CLI* in the written and oral narratives. Thus, *integrative attitudes* correlated with *borrowings* in the oral production of the First cycle participants. *Instrumentality* correlated with *borrowings* and *lexical inventions* in the written production of the Second cycle. *Interest in an international community* correlated with *borrowings* in the written production of the Second cycle participants. This finding may point to the argued possibility of *affective variables* also having a direct influence on *CLI*. In other words, our results may indicate that those learners with high indices of *affective variables* desire to produce as target-like output as possible.

Affective variables obtained more correlations with *borrowings* than any of the other *CLI* variables. If we assume that higher indices of *affective variables* are related to higher *achievement* and a desire to sound native-like, the negative correlations obtained by *borrowings* indicate that those participants with a higher level in *affective variables* borrow fewer items because they have higher attainment in the TL and they are less willing to produce instances in a language other than the TL.

The variability in the appearance of correlations between *affective variables* and *CLI* according to *school level* is difficult to explain. To begin with, First cycle did not show any statistical relationship between *affective variables* and any of the measures of *CLI*, except for the correlation between *integrative attitude* and oral *borrowings* in this group. Our findings in this particular group are fairly consistent with the results in a previous study conducted by Agustín Llach & Fernández Fontecha (2009) in La Rioja (Spain), in which no relationship was found between *motivation* and lexical transfer, *borrowings* or *lexical inventions* in the written production of a sample of young learners (aged 13 and 14). Therefore, it is possible to argue that the differences found between the

results in Agustín Llach & Fernández Fontecha (2009) and in our First cycle and, on the other hand, in our Second cycle and Post-compulsory learners, is precisely related to the age of the participants. The data in Agustín & Fernández (2009) were gathered from participants in ESO2 (First cycle). We argue therefore that older learners with higher *motivation* or more *positive attitudes* are more willing to sound native-like and they may be more mature in directing their behaviour towards both successful learning and suppressing the influence from other languages.

Another difference with Agustín Llach & Fernández Fontecha (2009) is related to the fact that no oral task was included in Agustín & Fernández (2009). We suggest here that more *positive attitudes* and higher *expected school mark* in the oldest group had an effect on oral *CLI* as it is more demanding than written production, where variance in *affective variables* does not lead to variance in *amount of CLI*.

7.3.2. Source language and the factors of source selection

The present section aims at discussing findings related to Research Question 2b (*If the participants use other languages, which are these languages and the factors of source selection? What functions do these languages perform?*). As we saw in Chapter 6 (Results), the participants drew mostly on Spanish and, to a lesser extent, on Catalan, while they did not use their *L1* when it was not Spanish. An exception was provided in the written production of the Post-compulsory group, where the only two occurrences of *CLI* belonged to the ambiguous source category *Spanish/Catalan*. We recall here that this category comprised items which could not be adscribed to either Spanish or Catalan. The difficulty to distinguish which of the two local languages was the source of transfer was more frequent in *lexical inventions*, as Spanish and Catalan share many semantic structures. Not surprisingly, the highest percentage of *lexical inventions* was due to ambiguous Spanish or Catalan influence in all of the cross-sectional groups, in the ESO2-ESO3 longitudinal group and in the oral production of the ESO1-ESO2 longitudinal group. The following discussion aims to answer why no *L1* other than Spanish was used and why this local language, whether it was an *L1* or an L2, was the preferred source of language. In the

discussion of the factors that determined source selection in our sample, we will discuss the role of individual, contextual and linguistic factors.

To begin with, we will discuss *source selection* when oral transferred items accomplish **instrumental functions** (HELP and COM). These roles did not take place in the written task as the only function accomplished by written *CLI* was FILL. Source selection in the HELP and the COM functions is clearly conditioned by contextual factors, as transferred items in these functions are not attempts to communicate in the target language, but intended to be understood by the interlocutor. For the same reason, the percentages for *function c* in *reported L1 use* ("to ask the teacher and talk to my classmates") among non-Spanish *L1* speakers attained 0% of endorsement. As we mentioned in the Literature review (see Chapter 4), previous research has also found that, in an instrumental use, source selection was heavily dependent on **contextual factors**, especially on the association of the interlocutor with a particular language (Cenoz, 2003a, 2003c; Hammarberg, 2001, 2006; Lindqvist, 2009; Williams & Hammarberg, 1998). However, our findings concerning the source for instrumental uses contradict previous research conducted in Catalonia (Muñoz, 2006b) and the Basque country (Cenoz, 2003a, 2003c). In these studies, Catalan and Basque were, respectively, the most important sources to address the researchers because they were the language of school in the corresponding Spanish autonomies and the participants associated them with teachers -with whom they are expected to use the school language. On the other hand, the results in the present study show that Spanish was the preferred source of transfer in the instrumental roles, even in higher numbers than in the FILL function. A possible explanation for the divergent findings of our study may lie in the fact that in the schools where the data were collected teachers may address their learners in Spanish in higher frequency than in Muñoz (2006b) and Cenoz (2003a, 2003c). A further factor may be the dominant presence of Spanish in the participants' sociolinguistic environment, which has also affected source selection in the FILL function (Cemnoz, 2003a, 2003c) (see below).

The preference for Spanish and the absence of *L1*s other than Spanish in the **FILL** function, found both in oral and written production, cannot be

explained by contextual factors. We saw in the literature review that the factors of source selection in such a role were less clear-cut and varied according to the situation and the learners' linguistic constellation (Lindqvist, 2009). In our sample, both the speakers of *L1* Spanish and those with other *L1*s transferred from **Spanish** in a higher percentage than they did from Catalan. In those participants who are not speakers of Spanish as their *L1*, the combination of several factors seem to be at play in the selection of L2 Spanish and Catalan and they confirm the results in a previous study in Catalonia (Ciruela Castillo, 2007). To begin with, research has shown that transfer from a non-native language occurs if *proficiency* and *exposure* to this language are high (Hammarberg, 2001, 2006; Lindqvist, 2009; Muñoz, 2006; Ortega, 2009; Tremblay, 2006; Trévisiol, 2006; Williams & Hammarberg, 1998). In our participants, *proficiency* and *exposure* to L2 Spanish and Catalan is high and this makes transfer from these languages possible. Another variable that may have borne an influence in source selection among our non-Spanish immigrants is ***recency***, which has also been identified as a factor of non-native language selection (Hall & Ecke, 2003; Hammarberg, 2001, 2003; Muñoz, 2006b; Ortega, 2008; Tremblay, 2006; Trévisiol, 2006; Williams & Hammarberg, 1998).

In addition to *exposure* and *recency*, previous research with non-native languages closer to the TL than the *L1* have also found that an interlanguage is more frequently selected for *CLI* than the *L1* when **proficiency** in the latter is high, as in Bardel & Falk (2007), De Angelis & Selinker (2001), Kirkici (2007), Sánchez (2011a, 2011b) and Trévisiol (2006). Our participants are proficient in both Spanish and Catalan, but the measures *school mark in Catalan* and *school mark* in *English* showed that our participants were slightly more proficient in Spanish than in Catalan. However, statistical tests did not find significant relationships between indices of *proficiency* in the source language and selection of this language. The only significant correlation was established between the ambiguous category Spanish/Catalan and *school mark in Spanish* (with a significant level of p=.045). Probably, the lack of correlations between these variables is due to the high *proficiency* in both Spanish and Catalan among the participants, which did not guarantee enough variation, as the small difference between the *school marks* in the local languages indicated.

Therefore, we argue that the reasons for our non-Spanish speakers' selection lie, among other factors, in *exposure*, in their slightly higher *proficiency* in Spanish and in the fact that our participants' sociolinguistic environment is predominantly Spanish-speaking (see Context). The results in Cenoz (2003a, 2003c) also point to the role of the participants' sociolinguistic background.

Moreover, the selection of two non-native languages in the participants who were speakers of *L1*s other than Spanish was also motivated by ***language distance*/typology** or ***psychotypology*** and ***L2-status***. All our participants' *L1*s other than Spanish are more distant from English than the two L2s. This makes it difficult to decide whether the effect of *langu*age *distance* or that of *L2-status* is more important in our participants. However, *reported L1 use* can shed some light on the influence of *L2-status* in our participants with an *L1* other than Spanish. Interestingly, the percentage of learners in First and Second cycle groups who reported using their *L1* in class while they do exercises or think about what they mean is higher among those who speak Spanish as their L1 than in the other participants. However, in the Post-compulsory group, the results are the opposite, albeit the difference is not high (25% versus 33.33%). The different behaviour in the Post-compulsory education may be again due to the small size of the group (the number of speakers with an *L1* other than Spanish at this *school level* was only 3).Therefore, we argue that the lesser L1 use reported by non-Spanish L1 speaker learners in First cycle and Second cycle points to *L2 status* having a greater weight in their transfer from Spanish and Catalan.

In addition, we assume that our participants were aware of transferring from other languages, which would support the influence of *L2-status* in the selection of a non-native language. First of all, as we commented before, the awareness of transferring from a language different to the TL may be higher in lexical transfer, at least in *borrowings,* rather than in syntax, an area which is not analysed in the present study. Besides, the fact that one participant (PC53ESO2) wrote *borrowings* from Spanish in brackets points to awareness in using non-target elements. Therefore, it is possible to argue that the learners would be aware of using lexical items from a given language, especially in the *borrowings* category, and they suppressed the L1 for *L2-status*, i. e., not to

sound native in their L1s. Our finding on the superiority of *L2-status* over *langu*age *distance* in our sample is also confirmed in previous research in which the L2 was closer to the TL (Bardel & Falk, 2007; De Angelis & Selinker, 2001; Kirkici, 2007; Sánchez, 2011a, 2011b), but contradicts similar studies in which *psychotypology* appeared as a more determinant factor of source selection (Cenoz, 1997, 2001, 2003a, 2003c; Ilomaki, 2005; O'Laoire & Singleton, 2009; Ringbom, 1987; Singleton & O'Laoire, 2006).

Finally, the preference of Spanish over Catalan as source language shows that *L2-status* is not an important factor of source selection among the **L1 Spanish-speaking participants**. They selected Catalan in even lower percentages than the other L1s speakers in First cycle (30.77% versus 35.90% in the written data; 9.90% versus 17.49% in the oral data) and Second cycle (19.44% versus 38.46% in the written data; 2.08% versus 4.69% in the oral data). In Post-compulsory education, Spanish was the source language in 96.88% of the oral items transferred by L1 Spanish participants[24]. Such findings suggest that *L2 status* did not affect their source selection as, if this were an important factor, Catalan would have been used in similar percentages as Spanish. Other factors seem to play a more important role among L1 Spanish speakers. The first of such factors is the weight of the L1, the language in which the learners are more proficient. Similar findings were shed by a previous study conducted in Catalonia (Ortega, 2008). In addition, the selection of Spanish as the preferred source of transfer is, like in the rest of participants, influenced by the dominant presence of Spanish in their sociolinguistic environment (Cenoz, 2003a, 2003c).

As for the role of ***school level*** and ***hours of instruction***, the results yielded by the cross-sectional and the longitudinal studies are not conclusive. In the longitudinal study, *hours of instruction*, which involves increasing age, seem to have a bearing in source selection only in the ESO2-ESO3 longitudinal group, as the participants in this group drew higher percentages of items from Catalan at the last collection time. *Hours of instruction* may have increased both the participants' exposure to Catalan and their awareness that it is a more

[24] In the written production of the Post-compulsory education, the only two items transferred by this group belonged to the ambiguous Spanish/Catalan category.

appropriate language to be used as it is the language of school. However, the fact that the selection of Catalan decreased at the last collection time in the ESO1-ESO2 longitudinal group and across school levels in the cross-sectional study contradicts the results cast by the ESO2-ESO3 group. It may be argued that a threshold level in *hours of instruction* and *age at testing* must be reached in order for both factors to have an effect in a more frequent selection of Catalan and that other factors are also at play.

The factors commented above may interact with ***task effect*** in the preference for **Spanish** as source language. This particular language was more frequently drawn from in the oral data than in written production in both the cross-sectional and the longitudinal studies. Oral production is a more demanding task in which the participants did not have the time to retrieve a word from Catalan, which would be perceived as a more appropriate language in a school-context. They resorted to a language in which they are (slightly) more proficient in and is more available in their social context.

Finally, the relationship between the participants' **personal variables** as immigrants and the source language showed that *L1*, *AoA* and *RP* did not clearly play a role in source selection. In spite of the lack of statistically significant correlations between *L1* and source selection, we saw that learners with Spanish as mother tongue drew from Catalan in lower percentages than the rest of participants. On the other hand, statistics shed an interesting finding on the relationship between their parents' *SP* and source language. In Second cycle, *SP* correlated with the ambiguous category labelled *Spanish/Catalan* in both the participants' written and oral production in EFL. The correlation was negative, which indicated that higher socio-professional status is related to lower amount of transfer from this source category. As the source category is ambiguous, such a finding does not shed light on the selection of Spanish versus Catalan. As a tentative explanation, we could argue that it is possible to adscribe the items in this category to Spanish, which is the preferred source in the written production of the Second cycle. This would indicate that participants with higher *SP* transferred less from Spanish. It is possible to argue that immigrant families with higher *SP* attribute higher importance to Catalan than other families. However, the findings in Janés (2006) showed that a low family *SP* was

related to more favourable *attitudes* to Catalan, while a higher socioprofessional condition was associated with more positive *attitudes* towards Spanish. Janés (2006) argues that families with a higher *SP* status may deem Spanish as a more useful language from a pragmatic or instrumental point of view.

7.3.3. Summary

In the present chapter we have discussed the results obtained concerning both ***affective variables*** and *CLI* in our sample. As in other studies of EFL, *attitudes* towards EFL were mostly positive. It seems that *attitudes towards EFL* among local learners in Catalonia and other regions of Spain are slightly less positive than among immigrant learners and local learners in other national contexts. The main reason for this lies in the fact that Spanish is also an international language, which makes learning English less necessary. Regarding scores on individual attitudinal factors, *integrative attitudes* obtained lower indices than *instrumentality*. Neither *integrative attitudes* nor *instrumentality* correlated with *achievement* in EFL, which enters in conflict with other studies conducted in Catalonia and other national contexts. The only *affective variables* that reached statistically significant interaction with *achievement* measures were *attitudes towards learning English* and *expected school mark*.

As for the role of ***school level***, the results in First cycle and Second cycle show the same decline in enthusiam towards the TL found in previous research at around *age* 13. The increasing attitudinal level in Post-compulsory education, which was not statistical significant, must be related to the fact that it is not a compulsory school level and the learners at this level are therefore expected to be more motivated to learn EFL and the rest of school subjects.

It seems that, among **specific variables** in immigrant samples (*L1, AoA, SP* and *RP*), the variable that has a stronger impact on *affective variables* is *L1*. In our sample, South-American learners in Second cycle held more positive *integrative attitudes* and higher *expected school mark* in EFL. On the other hand, *L1* did not seem to influence the participants' beliefs concerning perceived ability according to *L1* as, in general, most of the participants,

irrespective of their *L1*, believed that *L1* had no bearing in EFL learning success.

School level and ***task effect*** played a role on *amount of CLI*, as higher school levels and the written task were related to lower numbers of *CLI*. On the other hand, the role of ***hours of instruction*** in the longitudinal study seemed to be weaker. Concerning *type of CLI*, the influence of *school level* and *task effect* was less clear than it was in *amount of CLI*. Our results also showed that ***L1*** had no bearing on *CLI* in our sample and that the effect of ***AoA*** was only found in Second cycle. Such results on the role of the *L1* contradict previous research with immigrant learners in which both an *L1* typologically closer to the TL and a younger *AoA* in a host country with a local language less distant to the TL than the *L1* led to lower *CLI* in EFL (Ohlander, 2009). We argue here that the role of the *L1* can be overriden by *AoA* and *exposure* and *proficiency* in the local languages when the latter are closer to the TL than the *L1*. According to our results, *affective variables* are a potential factor of *amount* and *type of CLI*, but, as suggested by the comparison with the only similar study found (Agustín Llach & Fernández Fontecha, 2009), its effects interact with *school level,* which involves inreasing *age*, as correlations were found exclusively in Second cycle and Post-compulsory education, and *task effect*, as the relationship between *affective variables* and *CLI* was more frequent in the oral task.

The preferred source languages in our participants' *CLI* were Spanish and, to a lesser extent, Catalan. Like in previous research, **source selection** was determined by a number of factors that depend on the communicative function: contextual factors in instrumental roles and a combination of *proficiency*, *exposure* and *recency* combined with *task effect* for the FILL function. In the *L1* Spanish participants, it seems that the role of Spanish as their *L1* also played a role in its selection. On the other hand, among those participants with other *L1s*, both *langu*age *distance* and *L2-status* also intervened as important factors. The scores of *reported L1 use* pointed out to *L2-status* as a more relevant factor of *source selection* among these participants.

8. Conclusions, Limitations and Further Research

8.1. Conclusions

The present study investigated different aspects of *EFL* among immigrant secondary-school students in the area of Barcelona. The first Research Question addressed indices of *affective variables* (which included *attitudes* to EFL and *perceived chances of success*, which in turn comprised *expected school mark* in English and *perceived ability in EFL according to L1*). The indices in the immigrant participants were compared to those in a group of local learners. The second Research Question inquired into issues of lexical *CLI* in the participants' written and oral production in EFL. More specifically, it addressed numbers and *type of CLI*, source selection and their factors.

The results showed that our immigrant participants had mostly **positive attitudes** in EFL, slightly higher than those among the local participants, a difference that did not attain statistical significance. The only attitudinal factor which attained lower indices in the immigrant Second cycle in comparison with their local peers was *attitudes towards learning English*, which may be explained by differences in the immigrant participants' learning background. It also seems that local learners in Spain hold slightly less favourable *attitudes* (Ibarraran *et al.*, 2008; Saravia i Terricabras, 2004; Uribe *et al.*, 2008) than local learners in other countries (Aronin, 2004; Chalak & Kassaian, 2010; Çolak, 2008; Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005a; Csizér & Lukács, 2010; Dörnyei and Csizér, 2002; Karahan, 2007; Kormos & Csizér, 2008; Liu, 2007; Musleh, 2011; Pan & Block, 2011; Sayadian & Lashkarian, 2010; Seki, 2004; Vaezi, 2008). Less favourable attitudes to EFL among local learners in Catalonia may lie in the presence of another international language, Spanish, which may persuade learners that studying English is less necessary.

Previous research conducted in the Basque country (Ibarraran *et al.*, 2008) confirms higher attitudes towards EFL immigrant learners than among

their local peers, but not in Catalonia (Comajoan & Gomàriz; 2008a; Bernaus *et al.*, 2004). Higher or lower attitudinal levels among immigrants may be due to their different cultural background and other characteristics inherent to being an immigrant learner. However, research is too scarce and more studies would be needed to confirm this assumption.

The indices of each of the *attitudes* indicated that ***integrative attitudes*** obtained lower indices than *instrumentality* in both immigrant and local participants, which confirms previous research in Catalonia (Bernaus *et al.*, 2004; Saravia i Terricabras, 2004), in other regions of Spain (Madrid & Pérez Cañado, 2001; Madrid, Ortega *et al.*, 1993) and in other national contexts (Ahmadi, 2011; Dörnyei, 1990; Gonzales, 2010; Leung, 2006; Liu, 2007; Musleh, 2011; Vaezi, 2008). On the other hand, the indices of a second type of social *attitudes*, ***interest in an international community***, were higher than *integrative attitudes* and only slightly inferior to *instrumentality*. Constructs similar to *interest in an international community* also obtained high indices in other countries among local learners (Ghonsooly *et al.*, 2012; Lamb, 2004; Yashima, 2002). We argue here that *interest in an international community* that expresses itself in English attained superior levels of endorsement because the speakers of such a community are more available in a FL context than Anglo-Saxon speakers through media in English. In addition, belonging to an international community may seem more desirable than belonging to the Anglo-Saxon community.

Expected school mark, which referred to *expectations of success* at the end of the school year, ranged from *Pass* to *Good* in our participants. In Second cycle, *expected school mark* was lower in the immigrant group than in the local participants (*Pass* versus *Good*). The findings cast by previous research comparing immigrant and local learners in Catalonia (Comajoan & Gomàriz, 2008a) and other studies carried out with local participants in other countries (Lamb, 2007; Mori & Gobel, 2006; Schmidt, Boraie & Kassabgy, 1996) point out that immigrants have lower or similar perceived attainment in EFL in comparison with their local peers. However, further research is needed to confirm this.

As for ***perceived ability in EFL according to L1***, the participants thought that both L1 and L2 Spanish were equally able to learn the TL and their own L1 did not influence their opinion. As for the justifications given by the participants to justify this assumption, many of them included reference to effort and motivation to learn EFL.

The results in the cross-sectional study showed that the role of ***school level*** was not significant, as the difference between First cycle and Second cycle and, on the other hand, Post-compulsory education, who displayed more positive *attitudes*, did not attain statistical significance. Despite this fact, the **decline of *attitudes towards EFL*** from First cycle to Second cycle is in line with previous research (Chambers, 1999; Lamb, 2007; MacIntyre et al, 2002 and Williams *et al.*, 2002). Such a decline may be explained for several developmental changes in the learners at this age and the teaching methodology used at secondary school. The increase in the Post-compulsory group is due to higher *motivation* in English and other subjects as the participants at this level are pursuing non-compulsory studies.

The commented differences in attitudinal scores between *school level* groups in the cross-sectional study did not attain statistical significance because our measures included social and instrumental *attitudes* and *expectations* in the TL, which are general and more **stable variables** than those associated to the classroom environment, like school methodology, the textbook or the teacher. Such findings are coherent with previous research (Gardner *et al.*, 2004; Kuhlemeier *et al.*, 1996; Lamb, 2007; Seki, 2004). Therefore, only the scores for one of the *affective variables* included in the present study changed significantly from the first collection time to the last in the longitudinal study. This factor was *integrative attitudes*, which significantly increased in both ESO1-ESO2 and ESO2-ESO3 groups. This suggests that social *attitudes* are more susceptible to change than *instrumentality* and this potential change may be due to differences in exposure to culture products in English.

We assumed, following the Socio-Educational Model, that *attitudes* would influence *motivation*, which, in turn, would have a bearing on language *achievement*. However, only two *affective variables* correlated with

achievement in EFL across the three cross-sectional groups: *attitudes towards learning English* and *expected school mark* in English. The lack of statistical relationship of *integrative attitudes* with *achievement* contradicts previous research in Catalonia (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Bernaus *et al.*, 2009; Gardner, 2007; Wilson, 2012b) and the findings cast in the local Second cycle sample, but confirmed other studies conducted in the rest of Spain (Madrid & Pérez Cañado, 2001; Madrid *et al.*, 1993). In addition, the fact that *interest in an international community* did not correlate with *achievement* in the TL is at odds with the only study found on such a relationship (Yashima, 2002). Positive social *attitudes* and high levels of *instrumentality* do not spur *motivation* and effort in our learners, in contrast to *attitudes towards learning English* and *expected school mark*, because of a number of factors. First of all, the effect of *attitudes towards learning English* and *expected school mark* may be more immediate. Secondly, it is also possible to argue that different instances of *affective variables* can promote *achievement* according to different national contexts and whether the learners are locals or immigrants. In immigrant learners, other variables related to the fact of being immigrants may be at play and counteract the effect of *integrative attitudes* or *instrumentality*.

Our results concerning *the* participants' **use of other languages** partially confirms previous research on the factors influencing *CLI* and source selection conducted with local learners. To begin with, the ***amount of CLI*** produced by the participants increased as *school level* decreased, which confirms previous research on the role of *school level* (Celaya, 2006; Celaya & Ruiz de Zarobe, 2010; Celaya & Torras, 2001; Navés *et al.*, 2005). However, the role of *hours of instruction* in the longitudinal study only had a bearing on the oral data of the ESO2-ESO3. Surprisingly, measures of *achievement* in the written and oral task only correlated with numbers of transferred items in Second cycle and in the oral production of the First cycle. *School level* or *hours of instruction* did not seem to have a clear influence in the production of *borrowings* versus *lexical inventions*, despite the fact that higher attainment is needed to produce the latter type of *CLI*.

A second factor of *CLI*, *task effect* (Celaya, 1992), had an influence on both *amount of CLI* and *type of CLI* as the relative percentage of transferred

items and transferred *borrowings* were higher in the oral task. In addition, the influence of *task effect* combined with that of *school level* and *hours of instruction*. In the cross-sectional study, the reduction of *CLI* across *school levels* was clearer and comparatively more acute in the oral data. In the longitudinal data, the reduction of *CLI* from the first collection time to the last only attained statistical significance in the ESO2-ESO3 groups.

We also analysed a third factor of *CLI* that has not attracted in general the attention of research, i. e., *affective variables*. The comparison with a previous study, Agustín Llach & Fernández Fontecha (2009), suggest that *affective variables* is a potential factor in *amount* and *type of CLI*, but it seems that two conditions must be met in order for the influence of *affective variables* to have an effect on *CLI*: an older *age at testing* (older learners may be more mature and able to direct their effort in suppressing *CLI*) and oral production (a more demanding task may reflect higher variance in *achievement* and effort to be target-like in *CLI*).

The present study also cast interesting results on source selection in multilingual learners. The results clearly indicated that the participants, irrespective of their *L1*, preferred Spanish as **source of transfer** for both instrumental purposes (i.e. to address the interlocutor or to make comments on the task) and for the FILL function (i.e. to complete the narrative). Like in previous studies, source selection in our sample in both types of uses does not necessarily obey to the same factors (Lindqvist, 2009). Thus, instrumental uses were conditioned by contextual factors, especially by the language associated with the interlocutor. This factor blocked the use of the *L1* when it was different from Spanish. In addition, the dominance of Spanish in the participants' sociolinguistic context can also be a factor of source selection in the instrumental function. In addition to language dominance in the sociolinguistic context, source selection in the FILL function was affected by the dominance of Spanish in the participants' environment and a number of other factors depending on the participants' *L1*. Among those participants with *L1* Spanish, the selection of Spanish was motivated by the role of the *L1* (more powerful in these participants than L2 Catalan *proficiency* and *exposure*). In the use of items from Spanish and the suppression of the *L1* in the participants

with mother tongues different to Spanish, the relative contribution of *typology* and *L2 status* was difficult to determine. However, the participants' *reported L1 use* in class point to their desire not to use their *L1* and to the higher influence of *L2-status* over *langu*age *typology,* which is in line with other studies (Bardel & Falk, 2007; De Angelis & Selinker, 2001; Kirkici, 2007; Sánchez, 2011a; 2011b).

Finally, we also addressed the role of **immigrant-specific variables** in our participants' *affective variables* and *CLI*. Therefore, we analysed the role of *L1*, *AoA* and *SP* on both issues and *RP* exclusively in relation to *affective variables,* as they could have a bearing in the participants' *affective variables* and transfer in EFL. However, our results showed that their role was minimal in our sample. To begin with, *L1*, *AoA*, *SP* and *RP* correlated with one or two of the *affective variables* analysed but only at one of the *school level*s. This suggests that the role of immigrant-specific variables may combine with *school level* or *age*. In addition, one of these correlations, established between *SP* and *instrumentality* in Post-compulsory education, contradicted previous research (Musleh, 2011), as it indicated that learners in this group with higher *SP* showed lower indices of *instrumentality*. Concerning *CLI*, *L1* did not have a bearing on *amount of CLI*, *type of CLI* or source selection. *AoA* and *SP* obtained occasional correlations with indices of *CLI*.

8.2. Limitations and recommendations for further research

In the present section, several limitations of the study described in the present thesis, related to the sampling and the instruments used, will be pointed out. To begin with, one of the limitations of the present study lies in the limited number of **participants**, especially in the Post-compulsory group and in the longitudinal study. In the cross-sectional study, the small size of the Post-compulsory group compromised the reliability of the data. In the longitudinal study, the scarce number of participants who were in ESO3, ESO4 and PSC1 at the first collection time and ESO4, PSC1 and PSC2 at the last made it impossible to include them in the study. In addition, the reduced size of the ESO1-ESO2

(*n*=10) and the ESO2-ESO3 (*n*=14) groups did not enable us to conduct some statistical tests. Furthermore, a larger sample in the cross-sectional study could have allowed performing a regression analysis test of the direction of the influence of *affective variables* on *achievement*. However, it is also true that it was difficult to gather immigrant learners in Post-compulsory education as not many immigrant students enroll at this educational level. Despite the difficulties, future research should include more participants in the Post-compulory education and the longitudinal study, especially in higher grades.

Another weakness in the immigrant sample was the lack of enough variance in the *socio-professional status* variable, since it was believed to have been affected the accountability of *SP* for the variance in *affective variables* and language transfer. Nevertheless, it must be acknowledged that the high percentage of learners with a low *socio-professional status* in our sample is a reflection of the immigrant population in the area of Barcelona.

Another limitation related to sampling is the fact that all the immigrant participants' *L1*s were Spanish or a language more distant from English than the two local languages (Catalan and Spanish), which has made the elucidation of the role of *language typology* difficult to disentangle from that of *L2-status*. Therefore, future research on source selection among multilingual immigrants should include languages closer to English than Spanish and Catalan (i. e., Germanic languages or other Romance languages) to gauge the weight of *langua*ge *typology* in source selection in the participants' production in EFL. However, the majority of immigrant learners in Catalonia do not have a Germanic language background and this type of immigrant may not be representative of the majority of the immigrant school population in the area of Barcelona from a social and economic point of view.

The last shorcoming in the sampling of our study was related to the absence of a **local** sample in First cycle and Post-compulsory education and the small size of the local Second cycle group. However, it was decided not to collect data from local participants in First cycle and Post-compulsory education with a view to reduce the interference of our collection with the lessons in the schools where the data were collected. We chose Second cycle to include local participants because it is an intermediate *school level*, closer to

both First cycle and Post-compulsory education. Also in order not to interfere with lessons in the participants' schools, only 16 learners in the local group were selected. Despite the small size of the local group, it was believed that it was necessary to include it as it could cast interesting results on indices of *affective variables* and their relationship with *achievement* in immigrant learners in contrast to local learners. In addition, 16 is close to 20, which is half the total number of immigrant participants in Second cycle and, therefore, the minimum desirable number of local participants in the same school cycle.

Limitations in the **instruments** affect the *affective variables* questionnaire**.** To begin with, the information gathered through this instrument could have enhanced our understanding of our participants' *affective variables* and processes in *CLI* if we had included other items (related to classroom variables, to exposure to media in English and to expectations of success). In addition to these measures, further interviews should have been included to shed further light on the participants' *affective variables* and *CLI*. Nevertheless, it was decided not to include such instruments so as not to overload the participants with too many instruments and tasks. Beides, despite the fact that classroom factors may have a bearing in our participants' *affective variables*, we considered that only more general variables were essential in depicting *affective variables* in our sample. Similarly, *expected school mark* lacked scales on *language anxiety*, but we felt that knowing our immigrant learners' perceived *proficiency* was enough in order to get insight into our participants' expectations of success. Perhaps, future research should include measures of intercultural contact through media in English, through opinions on the TL community in the learners' environment or through tourism because this kind of contact can shed light on social *attitudes* in a FLL environment.

The present study was not concerned with the directionality between *affective variables* and ***achievement* in EFL** or the mediating role of *motivation*. We assumed the Socio-Educational paradigm tenet that *attitudes* and *motivation* triggered the learner's effort in pursuing language learning. The present study did not include constructs related to *motivation* (desire to learn English, effor put in learning it, etc.) or statistical procedures to test the

structure of the relationship between *affective variables* and *achievement* through *motivation*, either. The reason was that the study included a large number of variables and such a relationship was beyond the scope of our research. For the purpose of calculating the relationship between *affective variables* and *achievement* in English, statistics (path analysis) could be resorted to in future research.

8.3. Pedagogical implications

The present section is concerned with the pedagogical implications derived from our results concerning both *attitudes* and *use of other langu*ages in EFL. In our study, **social attitudes** correlated with language *achievement* in the local sample but not in the immigrant participants. In addition to our findings in the local group, previous research conducted in the area of Barcelona also points to a significant relationship between *integrative attitudes* and *achievement*. As for the role of *interest in an international community*, our results showed that they correlated with language *achievement* only in the Second cycle group. The discrepancies point out that, depending on the sample and probably under the influence of other variables, social attitudes can have an influence on *achievement* and, therefore, the former must be enhanced in order to improve FLL. The pupils' social attitudes can be increased through contact with the target language community, which, according to Dörnyei & Csizér (2005), Huguet (2007), Pettigrew & Tropp (2004) or Uribe *et al*. (2008), seems to promote not only social attitudes but also language attitudes in general. Direct cultural contact can be established through trips exchange programmes or correspondence with penpals. Despite the usefulness of such measures, we must bear in mind that exchange programmes and especially trips may not be feasible in a context of crisis and spending cuts in education. However, as Csizér & Kormos (2008) found, indirect contact through media, like music, television, cinema or the internet can promote language attitudes toward the TL group. Therefore, the school syllabus for the English subject should include the use of media, since they are likely to promote positive attitudes towards EFL and, at the same time, they enable cultural and social knowledge.

Another recommendation to increase the learners' *attitudes* and *motivation* in EFL would be to advance the ***AO in EFL***. Research seems to indicate that starting learning EFL as an earlier age leads to more positive attitudes toward the learning of the TL (Cenoz, 2003b; Karahan, 2007; Uribe *et al.*, 2008). Despite the fact that research has also found contradictory results on the influence of an early AO on more positive language attitudes (see Huguet, 2007), we believe that starting at a young AO entails positive results in FLL. Cenoz (2003b) points out that learning a FL since an early age does not only entail, contrary to a wide-spread belief, cognitive difficulties for the learners. At the same time, it can also increase their metalinguistic awareness, their use of learning strategies and creativity. It is true, however, that, depending on their *AoA*, immigrant pupils that may arrive in the future would not benefits of introducing the FL at earlier school stages.

Our results showed that the immigrant participants in Second cycle had lower ***expectations of success*** than their local peers. However, as we discussed in section 7.2.2, the scarce evidence provided by previous research in Catalonia does not enable us to argue that immigrant participants have lower expectations of success than their local peers. In any case, the positive correlations between expectations of success with *achievement* in our immigrant participants show that it is important to enhance the former. In order to achieve accurate expectations of success, pupils must be made aware of their progress. This can be achieved through self-assessment and through partial and progressive evaluation instruments. Another teaching technique that enhances *self-efficacy* is the use of learning diaries, which do not only enable the pupils to record their own attainment level but also, as Piechurska-Kuciel (2013) points out, to set their own goals and choose their own strategies to achieve them. Piechurska-Kuciel (2013) also suggests the use of co-operative learning because this creates a stress-free environment as it enables learners to know their classmates better.

The results in our study also showed that the participants drew on **other languages** in their lexical production of EFL, as previous research with local learners in Catalonia have shown (Celaya, 2006; Celaya & Ruiz de Zarobe, 2010; Celaya & Torras, 2001; Navés *et al.*, 2005). Despite the lack of appearance of

the participants' *L1* when it was different from Spanish in their lexical production in English, *reported L1 use* showed that the participants claimed to use their *L1* in the English class "to do exercises and translate them into English" and "to think what I want to express". Thus, we believe, like Agustin, Fernández & Moreno (2005), Jessner (1999, 2010) and Ohlander (2009) that knowledge of previous languages should be activated and they should explicitely be compared with the TL. This would enhance the learners' metalinguistic awareness so that they can benefit from similarities of their other languages with the TL. Recent globalization and immigration waves have made this fact more complex. In the case of immigrant learners with an L1 different from the host community languages, like in some of our participants and as Ohlander (2009) points out, it is necessary for teachers to be aware of the fact that their *L1* can affect the students' language learning through a facilitating or hindering effect. It is true that in the present study, the participants' L1 did not have an influence on the learners' lexical production in EFL when it was different from Spanish. However, it does not mean that the L1 is not affecting their learning (it may have influenced syntactical production, which was not analysed in the present study).

We agree with Ohlander (2009) that, if possible, teachers should also know typological differences of the learners' L1 if they are different from the local language or laguages. Nevertheless, we are aware that it may be difficult for teachers to have knowledge of different L1s. As influence from Spanish and Catalan is evident in our sample, teaching explicitely differences between English and, on the other hand, Spanish and Catalan should be a minimum goal to be achieved in the Catalan context. In relation to this, translation exercises should be implemented so that learners become aware of the difference structures between English and their previous languages.

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Appendices

Appendix 1. Structured questionnaires 1 and 2 (Spanish version)

Cuestionario 1

Este cuestionario recoge datos para realizar un estudio en el programa de doctorado que estoy cursando en la Universidad de Barcelona.

No influirá en la nota de inglés.

Se garantiza el anonimato. El nombre se pide para poder pediros alguna aclaración en caso de duda.

Muchas gracias *Fecha: ...../ ...../2010*

Nombre:..... Centro: .....Grupo:.....

1. Edad: ..... años. Fecha de nacimiento: .....
2. Sexo: ❒ hombre ❒ mujer.
3. ¿Has nacido en Cataluña?

❒ Sí ❒ No, nací en..... (país) y llegué en el año....., cuando tenía .....años.

4. Curso:.....de ESO/ .....de *Batxillerat*.
5. La lengua que hablas en casa desde pequeño:

   con tu madre es:.....

   con tu padre es:.....

   con tus hermanos y/o hermanas es: .....

   ¿Quién vive en tu casa? .....

   Edad de tus hermanos que viven en tu casa: .....

   La lengua de tu padre es: .....

   La lengua de tu madre es:.....
6. ¿En qué lengua te sientes más cómodo?.....
7. ¿Qué lengua hablan tus padres entre ellos?.....
8. Fuera de casa (en el instituto, en la calle, etc.), la lengua en la que normalmente hablas es (puedes marcar más de una):

   ❒ catalán ❒ castellano ❒ otras. Especificar: .....
9. ¿Has estado antes en otra zona de España que no sea Cataluña o en otro país donde se hable español/castellano?

   ❒ Sí

   ¿Dónde? .....

   ¿Durante cuánto tiempo?.....

   ¿A qué edad llegaste? .....

   ❒ No

Continúa en la página siguiente ↳

Cuestionario 1

10. ¿Cuántos años tenías cuando empezaste a estudiar inglés

    en el colegio?..... años.

    en clases de repaso?..... años.

    en academia?..... años.

11. ¿Estudias inglés fuera de las clases?

    ❒ Sí, en repaso. ¿Cuántas horas a la semana?.....

    ❒ Sí, en academia. ¿Cuántas horas a la semana?.....

    ❒ No

12. ¿Has vivido en algún país de habla inglesa?

    ❒ Sí

    ¿Dónde? .....

    ¿Durante cuánto tiempo? .....

    ¿A qué edad llegaste? .....

    ¿Estudiaste inglés allí? ❒ Sí ❒ No

    ❒ No

13. Has realizado alguna estancia en un país de habla inglesa?

    ❒ Sí

    ¿Dónde? .....

    ¿Durante cuánto tiempo? .....

    ¿A qué edad llegaste? .....

    ❒ No

14. ¿Estudiaste inglés allí?

    ❒ Sí. ¿Dónde?.....

    ❒ No

15. Profesión de tu padre: .....

16. Profesión de tu madre: .....

17. ¿Tiene tu familia planes de volver a tu país?

    ❒ Sí

    ¿Cuándo? .....

    ❒ No

Continúa en la página siguiente ↳

Cuestionario 2

Nombre:.....

Por favor, responde marcando con una cruz 1, 2, 3, 4 o 5 teniendo en cuenta que:

1= *no/ nada* 2= *poco* 3= *ni mucho ni poco* 4= *bastante* 5= *sí/mucho*

1. Para mí aprender inglés es fácil.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Merece la pena aprender inglés.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Me gustaría que la asignatura de inglés no fuera obligatoria en la ESO.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Me gustaría que la asignatura de inglés no fuera obligatoria en el Bachillerato.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Es importante hablar bien el inglés.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Me gustaría tener un certificado oficial de inglés.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Preferiría estudiar otras asignaturas en lugar del inglés.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Me gusta aprender inglés.	1	2	3	4	5

9. La mayoría de mis artistas (cantantes, actores o actrices, etc.) favoritos son de habla inglesa.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Los ingleses son en general simpáticos.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Los americanos son en general simpáticos.	1	2	3	4	5

12. Me gustaría vivir en un país de habla inglesa.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Me gustaría entender películas y vídeos en inglés.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Me gustaría entender la televisión en inglés.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Me gustaría entender las canciones que están en inglés.	1	2	3	4	5
16. El inglés es muy útil para navegar por internet.	1	2	3	4	5

Continúa en la página siguiente ↪

Cuestionario 2

17. Me gustaría conocer extranjeros con los que pudiera hablar en inglés.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Estudiar inglés es importante para mí porque me gustaría hacer amigos extranjeros.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Me gustaría parecerme a los americanos.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Me gustaría parecerme a los ingleses.	1	2	3	4	5

21. Si sigo estudiando, necesitaré el inglés en mis estudios.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Saber inglés hace más fácil encontrar trabajo.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Sabiendo inglés se gana más dinero en el trabajo.	1	2	3	4	5
24. Las personas que hablan inglés encuentran trabajos más interesantes.	1	2	3	4	5
25. El inglés es útil para viajar por el extranjero.	1	2	3	4	5

26. ¿Qué **nota** crees que sacarás en inglés al acabar tus estudios actuales (ESO o *Batxillerat*)? Marca la opción adecuada:

❒ Insuficiente ❒ Suficiente ❒ Bien ❒ Notable ❒ Excelente

27. ¿Quién tiene más facilidad para aprender inglés?

❒ Los alumnos extranjeros que hablan un idioma diferente del castellano/español y del catalán.

❒ Los alumnos que sólo hablan castellano/español y catalán

❒ Los dos tipos de alumnos por igual.

¿Por qué? .....

28. ¿Utilizas tu lengua materna en la clase de inglés?

❒ Nunca ❒ Siempre ❒ A veces

Si has contestado "a veces", di para qué:

❒ hago los ejercicios y luego los traduzco.

❒ pienso lo que quiero decir.

❒ pregunto al profesor y hablo con los compañeros.

Gracias.

Appendix 2. Structured questionnaires 1 and 2 (Catalan version)

Qüestionari 1

Aquest qüestionari recull dades per realitzar un estudi dins el programa de doctorat que estic cursant a la Universitat de Barcelona.

No influirà a la nota d'anglès.

Es garanteix l'anonimat. El nom es requereix per poder demanar alguna aclaració en cas de dubte.

Moltes gràcies. *Data: ...../ ...../ .....*

Nom: ..... Centre: .....Grup: .....

1. Edat: .....anys. Data de naixement: .....
2. Sexe: ❒ home ❒ dona.
3. Has nacut a Catalunya?

❒ Sí ❒ No, vaig nèixer a .....(país) i vaig arribar l'any ....., quan tenia .....anys.

4. Curs: ..... d'ESO/ .....de Batxillerat.
5. La llengua que parles a casa desde petit:

   amb la teva mare és:.....

   amb el teu pare és:.....

   amb els teus germans i/ o germanes és: .....

   Qui viu a casa teva? .....

   Edat dels germans que viuen a casa: .....

   La llengua del teu pare és: .....

   La llengua de la teva mare és:.....
6. En quina llengua et sents més còmode? .....
7. Quina llengua parlen els teus pares entre ells? .....
8. Fora de casa (a l' institut, al carrer, etc.), la llengua en la que normalment parles és (pots marcar més d'una):

   ❒ català ❒ castellà ❒ altres. Especificar:.....
9. Has estat abans en un altra área d'Espanya que no sigui Catalunya o en una altre país on es parli espanyol/castellà?

   ▫ Sí

   On?.....

   Durant quan de temps? .....

   A quina edat vas arribar? .....

   ▫ No

Continua a la pàgina següent ▫

Qüestionari 1

10. Quants anys tenies quan vas començar a estudiar anglès

al col·legi? ..... anys.

a classes de repàs?..... anys.

en acadèmia? ..... anys.

11. Estudies anglès fora de les classes?

❒ Sí, a repàs. Quantes hores la setmana? .....

❒ Sí, a acadèmia. Quantes hores la setmana? .....

❒ No

12. Has viscut en algun país de parla anglesa?

❒ Sí

On?.....

Durant quant de temps? .....

A quina edat vas arribar? .....

Vas estudiar anglès allà? ❒ Sí ❒ No

❒ No

13. Has realitzat alguna estada en un país de parla anglesa?

❒ Sí

Ón?.....

Durant quant de temps? .....

A quina edat vas arribar? .....

14. Vas estudiar anglès allà?

❒ Sí. Ón? .....

❒ No

15. Professió del teu pare: .....

16. Professió de la teva mare: .....

17. Té la teva família plans de tornar al teu país?

❒ Sí

Quan?.....

❒ No

Continúa a la pàgina següent ▫

Qüestionari 2

Nom: .....

Si us plau, respon marcant amb una creu 1, 2, 3, 4 o 5 tenint en compte el següent:

1= no/ res 2= poc 3= ni massa ni poc 4= bastant 5= sí/molt

1. Per a mi és fàcil aprendre anglès.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Val la pena aprendre anglès.	1	2	3	4	5
3. M'agradaria que l'assignatura d'anglès no fos obligatòria a l'ESO.	1	2	3	4	5
4. M'agradaria que l'assignatura d'anglès no fos obligatòria en el Batxillerat.	1	2	3	4	5
5. És important parlar bé l'anglès.	1	2	3	4	5
6. M'agradaria tenir un certificat oficial d'anglès.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Preferiria estudiar altres assignatures en comptes de l'anglès.	1	2	3	4	5
8. M'agrada aprendre anglès.	1	2	3	4	5

9. La majoria dels meus artistes (cantants, actors o actrius, etc.) preferits són de llengua anglesa.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Els anglesos són en general simpàtics.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Els americans són en general simpàtics.	1	2	3	4	5

12. M'agradaria viure en un país de parla anglesa.	1	2	3	4	5
13. M'agradaria entendre pel·lícules i vídeos en anglès.	1	2	3	4	5
14. M'agradaria entendre la televisió anglès.	1	2	3	4	5
15. M'agradaria entendre les cançons que estan en anglès.	1	2	3	4	5
16. L'anglès és molt útil per navegar per internet.	1	2	3	4	5

Continua a la pàgina següent ▫

Qüestionari 2

17. M'agradaria conèixer estrangers amb qui pogués parlar en anglès.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Estudiar anglès és important per a mi perquè m'agradaria fer amics estrangers.	1	2	3	4	5
19. M'agradaria semblar-me als americans.	1	2	3	4	5
20. M'agradaria semblar-me als anglesos.	1	2	3	4	5

21. Si segueixo estudiant, necessitaré l'anglès en els meus estudis.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Saber anglès fa més fàcil trobar feina.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Quan es parla anglès es guanyen més diners a la feina.	1	2	3	4	5
24. Les persones que parlan anglès troben feines més interessants.	1	2	3	4	5
25. L'anglès és útil per viatjar per l'estranger.	1	2	3	4	5

26. Quina **nota** creus que treuràs en anglès en acabar els teus estudis actuals (ESO o Batxillerat)? Marca l' opció adequada:

☐ Insuficient ☐ Suficient ☐ Bé ☐ Notable ☐ Excel·lent

27. Qui té més facilitat per aprendre anglès?

❒ Els alumnes estrangers que parlen un idioma diferent del castellà/espanyol i del català.

❒ Els alumnes que només parlen castellà/espanyol i català.

❒ Els dos tipus d'alumnes per igual.

Per què? .....

28. Fas servir la teva llengüa materna a la classe d'anglès?

❒ Mai ❒ Sempre ❒ De vegades

Si has contestat "de vegades", di per a què:

❒ faig els exercicis i després els tradueixo.

❒ penso allò que vull dir.

❒ pregunto al professor i parlo amb els companys.

Gràcies.

Pàgina 4/4

Appendix 3. Structured questionnaires 1 and 2 (English version)

Questionnaire 1

This questionnaire collects data for a study in the doctoral programme I have enrolled at University of Barcelona.

It will not influence your English grade.

Anonymity is granted. Your name is asked in order to be able to ask you for any clarifications in case I have any doubts.

Thank you very much *Date: ...../ ...../ .....*

Name:..... School: .....Group:.....

1. Age: .....years old. I was born on (date): .....
2. Sex: ❒ male ❒ female.
3. Have you been born in Catalonia?

❒ Yes, I have. ❒ No, I was born in..... (country) and came here in ..... (year), when I was .....years old.

4. School year:..... Secondary Compulsory Education/ .....Post-Compulsory Education.
5. The language you have spoken at home since you were a little child

with your mother is:.....

with you father is: .....

with your brother(s) and/or sister(s) is:.....

Who lives at home with you?.....

How old are your brother(s) and/or sister(s) who live at home with you? .....

Your father's language is: .....

Your mother's language is: .....

6. What language do you feel more at ease with? .....
7. What language do your parents speak with each other? .....
8. Outside home (at school, in the street, etc.), the language you normally speak in is (you can cross more than one answer):

❒ Catalan ❒ Spanish ❒ others, which are: .....

9. Have you ever been in another area of Spain apart from Catalonia or another country where Spanish is spoken?

❒ Yes, I have.

Where? .....

For how long? .....

How old were you when you arrived there? .....

❒ No

Please, turn the page over

Page 1/4

Questionnaire 1

10. How old were you when you started learning English

    at school? ..... years old.
    in revision lessons?..... years old.
    In a language school?..... years old.

11. Do you study English in addition to your English lessons at school?

    ❒ Yes, in revision lessons. How many hours?.....

    ❒ Yes, in a language school. How many hours a week?.....

    ❒ No

12. Have you ever lived in an English-speaking country?

    ❒ Yes

    Where? .....
    For how long? .....
    How old were you when you arrived there? .....

    Did you study English there? ❒ Yes ❒ No

    ❒ No

13. Have you ever been on a stay abroad in an English-speaking country?

    ❒ Yes

    Where? .....
    For how long? .....
    How old were you when you arrived there? .....

    ❒ No

14. Did you study English there?

    ❒ Yes. Where? .....

    ❒ No

15. Your father's job:.....
16. Your mother's job: .....
17. Have your family plans to go back to your country?

    ❒ Yes

    When? .....

    ❒ No

Please, turn the page over ↪

Questionnaire 2

Name:.....

Please, cross the answer 1, 2, 3, 4 or 5, bearing in ming that:

1= *no/ nothing* 2= *a little* 3= *so so* 4= *quite* 5= *yes/a lot*

1. Learning English is easy for me.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Learning English is worthwhile.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I'd like English not to be a compulsory subject in secondary education.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I'd like English not to be a compulsory subject in Post-compulsory *Education*	1	2	3	4	5
5. It is important to speak English well.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I'd like to have an official certificate in English.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I'd like to study other subjects instead of English.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I like learning English.	1	2	3	4	5

9. Most of my favourite artists (e.g. actors, musicians) are native speakers of English.	1	2	3	4	5
10. In general, the English are nice people.	1	2	3	4	5
11. In general, the Americans are nice people.	1	2	3	4	5

12. I'd like to live in an English-speaking country.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I'd like to understand films and videos in English.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I'd like to understand TV in English.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I'd like to understand songs in English.	1	2	3	4	5
16. English is very useful to surf the net.	1	2	3	4	5

Please, turn the page over

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Questionnaire 2

17. I'd like to know foreigners and speak English with them.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Learning English is important for me because I'd like to make foreign friends.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I'd like to be like the Americans.	1	2	3	4	5
20. I'd like to be like the English.	1	2	3	4	5

21. If I keep learning, I will need English in my studies.	1	2	3	4	5
22. It is easier to find a job if you speak English.	1	2	3	4	5
23. If you speak English, you earn more money at work.	1	2	3	4	5
24. The people who speak English find more interesting jobs.	1	2	3	4	5
25. English is useful to travel abroad.	1	2	3	4	5

26. What grade do you think you will get when you finish your present studies (Compulsory Secondary Education or Post-compulsory Education? Mark the appropriate option:

❒ Fail ❒ Pass ❒ Good ❒ Very good ❒ Excellent

27. Who finds it easier to learn English?

❒ Foreign learners who speak a language different from Spanish and Catalan.

❒ The learners who only speak Spanish and Catalan.

❒ Both types of learners.

Why? .....

28. Do you use your mother tongue in the English class?

❒ Never ❒ Always ❒ Sometimes

29. If you have answered "sometimes", say what for:

❒ I do exercises and then I translate them.

❒ I think what I mean.

❒ I ask the teacher and talk to my classmates.

Thank you.

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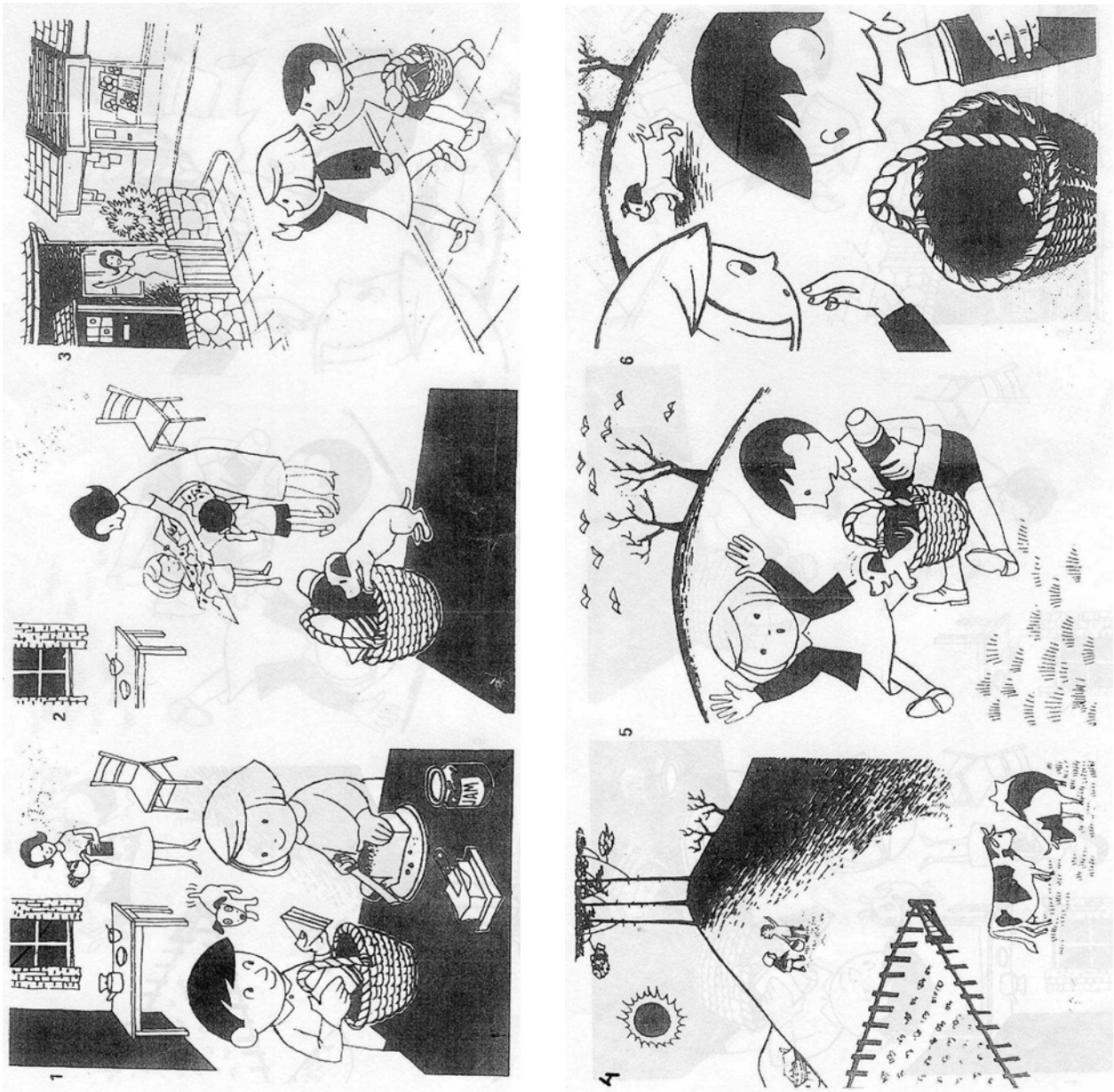
Appendix 4. Picture story: “The Dog Story” (Heaton, 1966)



Appendix 5. Bands for written assessment

BANDS for language production assessment WRITTEN TASK

BAND 5 Grades 9-10	Band description
FLUENCY	The text shows an acceptable length measured in terms of the amount of clauses and the number of words sper clause and the description and narration of the main ideas in the picture story.
COMPLEXITY	The text displays complex and compound sentences and the use of connectors in a correct way. The range of grammatical structures and vocabulary is wide, rich and varied, and they are used in an effective way.
ACCURACY	The text shows occasional grammatical lexical and spelling mistakes that do not hamper intelligibility.
BAND 4 Grades 7-8	**Band description**
FLUENCY	The length of the text is slightly below an acceptable level, but the main ideas in the picture story are covered. The ideas expressed in the text are clear and well organized in most cases.
COMPLEXITY	The text displays both simple and, on the other hand, complex and compound sentences. Connectors are generally expressed in a correct way. There is moderate variation in grammatical structures and vocabulary.
ACCURACY	The text shows occasional gammatical, lexical and spelling mistakes that do not hamper intelligibility in general.
BAND 3 Grades 5-6	**Band description**
FLUENCY	The text is short in terms of the amount of clauses and the number of words per clause and only the essential elements in the picture story are mentioned The main ideas and their progression in the text are not clear in some parts.
COMPLEXITY	The text displays mainly simple clauses and occasionally complex and compound sentences. Very simple structures (active voice, present simple) and basic vocabulary are used in a repetitive way.
ACCURACY	The language in the text shows a number of grammatical, lexical and spelling mistakes that affect the intelligibility of parts of the text.
BAND 2 Grades 3-4	**Band description**
FLUENCY	The text is quite short, with few clauses and words per clauses, so that essential aspects in the picture story are covered with little logical cohesion and progression.
COMPLEXITY	The text displays mainly simple clauses, there may be a few compound sentences but they are linked through very basic connectors (i. e. *and*). Only very simple structures (active voice, present simple) and basic vocabulary used.
ACCURACY	Very poor command of grammar and vocabulary. There are many errors or mistakes, which make the text unintelligible.
PRONUNCIATION	The language in the text presents many mistakes that make substantial parts of it unintiligible.
BAND 1 Grades 1-2	**Band description**
FLUENCY	Extremely short text with very poor or no logical cohesion and progression.
COMPLEXITY	Very simple structures, consisting of totally or mainly isolated words.
ACCURACY	Very poor command of grammar and vocabulary. There are many errors or mistakes, which make the text unintelligible.
BAND 0 Grade 0	**Band description**
	Either the student has not produced anything, the speech is produced entirely in a language other than English or the text is completely incomprehensible in English.

Appendix 6. Bands for oral assessment

BAND 5 Grades 9-10	**Band description**
FLUENCY	The learner produces clauses of an acceptable length ina reasonable speed, similar to that of a native speaker. The learner hardly hesitates. The speech shows clear ideas, sequenced in an acceptable way.
COMPLEXITY	The sample displays a wide range of grammatical structures which include simple, complex and coumpound sentences, as well as basic connectors. The vocabulary is rich, varied and it is used in an efficient manner.
ACCURACY	Good and efficient use of grammar and vocabulary with occasional mistakes that do not hamper intelligibility.
PRONUNCIATION	The sample shows an accurate pronunciation for a non-native speaker. Frenquently-used words are pronounced in an accurate way. The intonation is acceptable.
BAND 4 Grades 7-8	**Band description**
FLUENCY	The length of speech and the length of clauses is enough to cover all the important ideas in the picture story. The learner hesitates sometimes or corrects what has just been said but it does not affect the flow of speech. The ideas are expressed and sequenced in an acceptable way.
COMPLEXITY	The speech displays in general simple cluses with a few complex and compound sentences. Connectors are generally ued in a correct way. There is moderate variation in grammatical structures and vocabulary.
ACCURACY	Good and efficient use of grammar and vocabulary with occasional mistakes that do not hamper intelligibility.
PRONUNCIATION	The pronunciation in the sample differs form that of a native speaker but is correct enough to be understood. Frenquently-used words are pronounced in a quite accurate way. The intonation is acceptable.
BAND 3 Grades 5-6	**Band description**
FLUENCY	The learner produces clauses of an acceptable length although some clauses are very short or consists of only one or two wrds. The main ideas in the text are clear and progress in a comprehensible way.
COMPLEXITY	Use of moderate number of grammatical structures in which simple clauses dominate. The use of connectors is limited. The vocabulary is in general simple but varied to a moderate extent.
ACCURACY	The language in the text is in general correct and adequate. There are some mistakes that, in most cases, do not hamper intelligibility.
PRONUNCIATION	A non-native accent is perceived and many words are pronounced in an incorrect manner, but pronunciation and intonation is normally comprehensible.
BAND 2 Grades 3-4	**Band description**
FLUENCY	The learner produces short clauses that do not capture alll the important apects in the picture story. The learner frquently hesitates, stops to retrieve words or correct what has just been said, which renders the speech quite sslow. The lack of command does not enable speech to progres adequately.
COMPLEXITY	The grammatical structures and the vocabulary in the sample are very simple and repetitive. Only very basic connectors (i.e. *and*) are used.
ACCURACY	There are numerous mistakes that in many cases hamper intelligibility.
PRONUNCIATION	The pronunciation in the sample reveals a clearly non-native accent that makes some words difficult to understand for a native speaker.
BAND 1 Grades 1-2	**Band description**
FLUENCY	Very slow speed of speech. The participant continually hesitates and stops to retrieve words.
COMPLEXITY	Clauses consist of one or two words (mainly nouns).
ACCURACY	Extremely poor command of grammar and vocabulary that makes an important part of the speech inintelligible or very difficult ot understand. The sample shows a great deal of mistakes in the structures. The vocabulary is limitred, repetitive and?or confusing.
PRONUNCIATION	Extremely unclear pronunciation with a strong accent, which makes comprehension difficult for a native speaker.
BAND 0 Grade 0	**Band description**
	Either the student has not produced anything, the speech is produced entirely in a language other than English or the text is completely incomprehensible in English.

Appendix 7. Distribution of participants among schools in the cross-sectional study

Table 74. Distribution of participants among schools (*n*=92)

SCHOOLS	**School 1**		**School 2**		**School 3**	
ESO1 (*n*=13)	1	(7.69%)	1	(7.69%)	11	(84.62%)
ESO2 (*n*=28)	2	(7.14%)	8	(28.57%)	18	(64.29%)
First cycle (*n=41*)	*3*	*(7.32%)*	*9*	*(21.95%)*	*29*	*(70.73%)*
ESO3 (*n*=28)	7	(25%)	9	(32.14%)	12	(42.86%)
ESO4 (*n*=12)	4	(33.33%)	2	(16.67%)	6	(50%)
Second cycle (*n=40*)	*11*	*(27.50%)*	*11*	*(27.50%)*	*18*	*(45%)*
Post-compulsory education 1 (*n*=8)	0	(0%)	1	(12.50%)	7	(87.50%)
Post-compulsory education 2 (*n*=3)	0	(0%)	0	(0%)	3	(100%)
Post-compulsory education *(n=11)*	*0*	*(0%)*	*1*	*(9.09 %)*	*104*	*(90.91%)*
TOTAL	14	(15.22%)	21	(22.83%)	57	(61.96%)

Appendix 8. Distribution of the local learners among schools in the cross-sectional study

Table 75. Distribution of the local learners among schools (*n*=16)

SCHOOL	**School 1**		**School 2**		**School 3**	
ESO3 (*n*=15)	0	(0%)	8	(36.36%	7	(31.82%)
ESO4 (*n*=1)	0	(0%)	1	(4.55%)	0	(0%)
Second cycle *(n=16)*	*0*	*(0%)*	*9*	*(56.25%*	*7*	*(43.75%)*

Appendix 9. Distribution of participants among schools in the longitudinal study

Table 76. Distribution of participants according to school level and school (*n*=31)

Academic years		**Participants**					
2009/2010	**2010/2011**	**School 1**		**School 2**		**School 3**	
ESO1 (n=10)	**ESO2** (n=10)	1	(10%)	1	(10%)	8	(80%)
ESO2 (n=14)	**ESO3** (n=14)	2	(14.29%)	6	(42.86%)	6	(42.86%)
	TOTAL	**3**	**(12.50%)**	**7**	**(29.17%)**	**14**	**(58.33%)**

Appendix 10. Example of written production 1 (PC06ESO2; band 1, mark 2)

1. Moder priper diner and sons.
2. Moder spic and sons and dog eat de diner sit in the **sistella**.
3. Moder spic gut bai and the sons.
4. broder and sister ap an de moungtain
5. broder and sister sit in the mountain and de luc in the **sistella** a dog.
6. broder and sister luc the **sistell** in the mo. Dog eat de diner.

Appendix 11. Example of written production 2 (PC02ESO3; band 3, mark 6

There is one time that two guys were doing sandwich for eat, because they wanted go at the mountain.

The mother was give at ours friends, one map, for they never lost.

While they took the map, the dog was eating the sandwichs. When the child went very happie, whithout know that they didn't have sandwichs.

When they arrive at the mountain very happie, they were lool sandwich. They saw that didn't have nothing. But they knew that their dog was eating.

Appendix 12. Example of written production 3(PC27ESO4; band 2, mark 3)

1. The childrens **porting** food in the bag.
2. The dog eting the food in the bag.
3. The childrens going to mountain.
4. The childrens up the mountain.
5. The chilrens Down in the earth, opening the bag.
6. The childrens wach in the bag, the bag is…

Appendix 13. Example of written production 4 (PC28BAT1; band 3; mark 5)

1. In the picture one, your mother **prepara** the food fast and the childrens too.
2. In the picture two, your mother learn the map.
3. Your mother said Goodbye and the children too.
4. The boy and the girll go to the park.
5. The dog appear in the park because he **estaba dentro del canasto**.
6. The children expressed surprise because the food is desapared! The dog was eat the food.

Appendix 14. Example of written production 5 (PC23BAT2; band 5; mark 10)

All these pictures represent a story.

The story is about two kids going for a walk in the forest.

In the morning, the boy and the girl were preparing the sandwiches while their mother was preparing the tea. When they had all prepared, their mother showed to their children where they need to go, using a map. In this moment the dog has ate all that the children prepared.

They said “Goodbye” to their mother and went to the forest.

When they were at the place that their mother showed them, the little girl was hungry.

They sat down and the boy opened the bag, looking for sandwiches. They didn’t find anything to eat. These was only the dog which ate all that they have made for the picnic.

Appendix 15. Example of transcription of oral production 1 (PC46ESO1; band 1; mark 1)

SUBJECT: Mom, eh boy, girl, eh dog. Ehm, table, hmm, milk (?), hmm, child, and, child, map, ehm, dog, table, boy, girl. Eh, two, xx girl, boy, eh, # hmm

RESEARCHER: Here. Where are they?

SUBJECT: Eh, boy, eh jewel.

RESEARCHER: Hmm, here. What's that? Or that? Or that?

SUBJECT: Xx # Hmm, no sé.

RESEARCHER: Don't worry. What's that? Where are they?

SUBJECT: Mountain.

RESEARCHER: This?

SUBJECT: Sunny. Hmm. #

RESEARCHER: Look at the children. How are they?

SUBJECT: Girl.

RESEARCHER: Hmm. What's inside?

SUBJECT: OK. No sé.

RESEARCHER: Nothing? OK. Are you finished?

SUBJECT: Si.

Appendix 16. Example of transcription of oral production 2 (PC02ESO3; band 1; mark 2)

SUBJECT: **Bueno**, is a mother, is a where, a tea, ehm, ehm. The picture two is a table and window. And the mother and, and speaking the children and basket eh, is a, is dog play a basket. Eh, picture, in the picture number three is a mother y, and children the street in the mother ehm **le dice** bye, the picture number two is the children in the mountain, ehm, play in the mountain. In the mount, in the mountain he play dog, the dog, **y**.. hmm y hmm picture number six is a... children eh, looking for basket ehm were eating. **Y** finished!

RESEARCHER: Finished?

SUBJECT: Yes.

Appendix 17. Example of transcription of oral production 3 (PC02ESO4; band 3; mark 5)

SUBJECT: The que que quiet (?) that preparing a ? lunch, taking it to a camping (?) at the mountain. OK? And... Here preparing a breakfast, a lunch, and in the basket. When... when her mother and.. was give me, them, giving them a map to avoid the lost. So the dog... was eating the breakfast (xxx) and... the dog is (xxx) in their eye (off they went?) OK? When they, when they went to the mountain... Ahm when they, they arrive to the mountain there are that the dog eat was there in, in the basket and they xxx to that the breakfast is. It isn't. And this is so.

Appendix 18. Example of transcription of oral production 4 (PC87BAT1; band 2; mark 3)

SUBJECT: She is prepared the sand the sandwich. The dog eh look the mom prepared the *te*, the tea, the ehm the dog look the cooking. Eh childrens **se van cómo se dice?**

RESEARCHER: Say it in another language.

SUBEJCT: Xx # the childrens are xx go the camping. And five, **bueno la cuatro** (?), eh the childrens # eh the dog, the dog the childrens **se van es que claro ahí ya...**

Appendix 19. Example of transcription of oral production 5 (PC22BAT2; band 1; mark 2)

SUBJECT: hmm the history is a boy and girl hmm and mother hmm is hmm

hmm **es que no sé qué decir de verdad**.

RESEARCHER: don't worry xx what's that ?

SUBJECT: **qué** ?

RESEARCHER: what's that ?

SUBJECT: **el niño** ?

RESEARCHER: uhhuh .

SUBJECT: ¿**qué pasa** ?

RESEARCHER: in English ?

SUBJECT: **que qué está haciendo** ?

RESEARCHER: uhhuh for instance .

SUBJECT: ehi **no de verdad es que mi inglés es muy malo** ehi .

RESEARCHER: don't worry it's ok it's ok # what's that ?

SUBJECT: the table .

RESEARCHER: and that ?

SUBJECT: **hmm va es que me pone nerviosa**, **de verdad que no** .

RESEARCHER: ok .

SUBJECT: hmm is the boy and girl preparing a sandwhich hmm a mother is a tee hmm and **gos** and table and windows hmm mother no the Boy and girl start (?) go to the mountain hmm and the dog hmm a picnic y hmm and surprise hmm but hmm in the **cest** is nothing.