## FACULTY OF ARTS AND EDUCATION

### MASTER’S THESIS

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Abstract

The aim of the present thesis was to investigate the roles of motivation and ELF in the development of the Norwegian language among NOMSA students. NOMSA is a one-year Norwegian language learning program at the University of Stavanger, which acts as the linguistic certificate to study or work in the Norwegian society. This specific feature of the NOMSA attaches higher significance to the students’ linguistic developments and factors affecting the developments. In the current research, it has been tried to investigate two major elements influencing the students’ learning of Norwegian.

The study was conducted with a specific group of NOMSA students who were supposed to have an equal English proficiency as an admission requirement and an A1 level of proficiency in the Norwegian language based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. Thus, it was assumed that in the Norwegian society with the prevalence of English, the students’ motivation to practice and learn the Norwegian language would affect their choice of language for out-of-class exposures. Regarding the role of ELF, it has to be noted that English, which was the common language used for the instruction in the multilingual classroom of NOMSA, could be both a facilitator and a blocker in the students’ use and practice of Norwegian.

Semi-structured qualitative interviews were conducted with ten students who were randomly selected among thirteen volunteers, as well as two teachers. With a focus on listening and speaking skills, the interviews were designed to obtain detailed information about students’ backgrounds, linguistic proficiencies in English and Norwegian, motivational attributes, and language choices for different situations.

The results which were analyzed based on the Gardner’s Socio-educational model (1985), revealed that the combination of both instrumental and integrative orientations existed in the NOMSA students, though the instrumental orientation played a more prominent role. However, based on their individual differences, the students invested different amounts of desire, time, and effort in the language learning process and opted for English and/or Norwegian in different out-of-class exposures. The ELF, though playing a crucial role in the development of the students’ Norwegian language at the beginning of the NOMSA program, was identified as a blocker in the students’ further use of Norwegian. It was also found that the type and extent of the linguistic
proficiency needed for a specific situation, affected the students’ choice of language for that specific situation.

Although the findings of the present thesis revealed great individual variations among the learners of the Norwegian language, the general issues observed might be beneficial in providing conditions which lead to efficient linguistic development. Thus, this study suggests that in the Norwegian society, in which a great deal of English is used, there is a need for teachers, authorities, and educational policy makers to consider motivation-increasing aspects. The need to devise opportunities for the language learners to receive more exposure to the local language emerged as a priority for NOMSA students.
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- I would also like to express my love and affection to my parents, without whose encouragements, the fulfillment of my studies would not have been possible.
To my beloved husband, Nima,

For his endless love, support and encouragements
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List of abbreviations

AMTB: Attitude Motivation Test Battery
ELF: English as the Lingua Franca
ELFA: English as the Lingua Franca in the Academia
L1: First Language
L2: Second Language
NNS: Non-Native Speaker
NOMSA: Norsk Med Samfunnkunnskap (an old abbreviation or Norwegian language and culture program)
NS: Native Speaker
SA: Study Abroad
SLA: Second Language Acquisition
SLL: Second Language Learning
UiS: Universitetet i Stavanger (University of Stavanger)
Chapter One: Introduction

1.1. Introduction

In the present study, two factors which are believed to influence the language development in a specific group of foreign language learners were investigated. The first was the role of English as the lingua franca (ELF) in the development of Norwegian and the second was the students’ motivation as affecting their language choice for the exposures outside the classroom. Both factors were expected to be influential in the learning of the Norwegian language. The target group for the study were the students in the ‘Norwegian language and culture’ program, abbreviated as NOMSA, at the University of Stavanger (UiS).

With the global prevalence of the English language in the political and economic areas, English serves properly as the common language for the teaching in the international settings as well. Academic contexts are no exception in having English as the common language or the lingua franca. In a multilingual classroom like NOMSA, English can be beneficially used as the medium of instruction. In such a setting students from different linguistic backgrounds come together to learn the foreign language of Norwegian. However, English, which acts as an aid in the learning of the new language, might later act either as a facilitator or blocker in the further progress toward learners’ language learning.

Motivation as the second aspect of the present study has been emphasized in second language learning research during the past decades. Both teachers and researchers agree on the issue that motivation is influential in the learning process and that learners’ impetus affects their level of success (Dornyei, 1998:117). In the case of learning a foreign language, Dornyei (2004:425) defines motivation as “involving all those affects and cognitions that initiate language learning, determine language choice, and energize the language learning process”. Regarding the NOMSA students who can use English in their daily communication in the Norwegian society and also have learnt some Norwegian, motivation can potentially affect their choice of language for the interactions outside the classroom. The students’ continuous use of Norwegian means more practice, probably leading to higher proficiency in the Norwegian language.
Using the qualitative approach, the present research aims to shed light on the contribution of the following factors to NOMSA students’ learning of Norwegian: the role of ELF, motivation for learning Norwegian, as well as their exposure and interaction outside the classroom and in the educational setting. The objective was to find an answer for the following research questions:

1. What is the role of motivation in NOMSA students’ choice of language for the exposures outside the classroom?
2. What is the role of English language as the lingua franca in the development of Norwegian in NOMSA students?

1.2. Scope

The present study did not focus on all the students enrolled in the program and the choice of the subjects was limited by two factors. The first was the study participants’ level in the Norwegian language which reduced the scope. In order to investigate the students’ motivation in the process of learning Norwegian the researcher intended to know about their choice of language for the communication outside the classroom. As a result, the subjects needed to be students with a medium level of Norwegian and English language knowledge. In such a situation the students could opt for either Norwegian or English for the interactions outside the classroom. All of the NOMSA students had a certain level of proficiency in English (will be stated in Background section) as a qualification for admission into the program, but they were classified into three groups based on their Norwegian proficiency. Thus, the scope was limited to one group of NOMSA students, the group with a medium level of Norwegian.

Due to the width of the study and time constraints, the scope of the study was restricted to the oral modality; only the participants’ language behaviors concerning speaking and listening skills were studied. As a result, when investigating students’ language choice for the exposures outside the classroom, the researcher did not inquire them about any occasions on which they might use reading or writing skills.

1.3. Background

The present thesis is a study mainly focusing on the role of ELF and motivation in the learning of Norwegian as a foreign language. The specific investigation was done on NOMSA students
learning the Norwegian language in the University of Stavanger (UiS). NOMSA is a one-year program at UiS, at the end of which “students should be able to either study or work in Norway in a Norwegian language environment” (www.UiS.no).

Though NOMSA is usually the starting point for the students who intend to further their studies (other than language learning) at UiS, it is not necessarily followed by programs taught in Norwegian as the only option. If the students wish to and have the qualifications for continuing in a Master program, they have the opportunity to attend a variety of programs which are conducted in English. However, considering the fact that most of these students either already reside in Norway, or plan to live there, studies in Norwegian might be prioritized for them.

The students admitted to the NOMSA program have different language backgrounds, and they are all required to have a certain level of proficiency in English to be admitted. The English language proficiency requirements are stated as follows at the UiS website: Test of English as a Foreign Language (ETS TOEFL) with a minimum score of 550 (paper-based), 213 (computer-based) or 80 (Internet-based) or International English Language Testing Service (IELTS) with a minimum score of 6.0 (www.uis.no). The reason for the requirement is that the teaching medium for the beginning of the program is English. English is used as a common language for the instruction in the first months of the program and this issue highlights the role of ELF in a multilingual academic setting.

Nonetheless, there are some students who are exempted from providing English test scores. At the UiS website three groups of students are considered exempted. The first group of exempted students includes applicants from Australia, Canada, Ireland, the UK, the USA and New Zealand. The same rule applies to the students who have completed at least one year of their university education in one of these countries. The second group includes applicants from some African countries with a BA/BSc/BEng degree where the language of instruction has been English and those who have passed English as a subject at GCE A-level with grade C or better. The third group of exempted students are also applicants from countries which are members of the EU/EEA and/or the Council of Europe/UNESCO-Cepes, who studied English as their “first foreign language over a period of minimum 7 years at compulsory upper secondary school” (uis.no). The applicant must document this or provide proof of having taken a recognized examination/test (www.uis.no).

At the beginning of the NOMSA program, students who are admitted take a placement test to be classified into 3 different groups, based on their Norwegian language proficiency.
Group 1 students are those who have no knowledge of the Norwegian language and mostly include those who have newly arrived in Norway. Group 2 are the students who have some knowledge in Norwegian (Approximately at the A1 level of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages); they have either spent a period learning the Norwegian language, or have been exposed to Norwegian for some time. These are the students who were studied as the subjects of the present research. Students in group 3 have the highest Norwegian language knowledge (Approximately at the A2 level of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages); they might have attended some other Norwegian courses earlier, or lived in Norway for some extended time. A pass/fail exam at the end of the program determines students’ proficiency in the Norwegian language and their qualification for continuing studies in Norwegian. However, if the program they wish to study is taught in English (including most of the Master programs), they will not need the degree from the NOMSA. It has to be noted that the completion degree for the NOMSA program equals passing the Bergen test, the Norwegian proficiency test which students find both expensive and difficult to pass.

During the first semester of the NOMSA program, which was the focus of the present research, group 2 students attended a total of 11 hours of class instructions per week. They attended 3 different types of classes during a week: 6 hours of lessons in class, 3 hours in the computer room and 2 hours in the language laboratory. Their lessons in class included studying chapters of ‘På Vei’ book and focusing on the written and grammatical aspects of Norwegian. It has to be noted that the instructions in the classroom were done in the Standard dialect, as different from the Stavanger dialect which was used among the people from Stavanger. As explained by the teacher for the classroom sessions, the teaching in the first semester will be done in the Standard dialect and after the January the students will be familiarized with other dialects as well.

In the computer room, the students’ attention was directed to more grammatical tasks on the computers, while they also worked with the book ‘Norwegian Grammar in English’. In the language laboratory however, the focus was more on the listening skill. The NOMSA students listened to music, interviews on television or radio, fairytales, dramas, and idiomatic expressions in the Norwegian language. The aim was to familiarize the students with the flow, rhythm, intonation, dialects of Norwegian. The students were also asked to produce audio files at home, which were evaluated by the laboratory teacher.
They also had pre-set hours on their schedule to study on their own, either at home or in the campus, which counted for 12 hours per week. Moreover, 3 hours in a week were devoted to studying in groups, which started some weeks after the beginning of the program and the students worked in groups and in specified rooms.

1.4. Significance of the study

While studying as an international student in a foreign country, learning the language of that country becomes one of the priorities. In a program such as NOMSA, high importance is attached to the students’ linguistic achievements and factors influencing their language learning. It has to be noted that in the context of the Norwegian society, using the English language is quite prevalent and one can easily use it as a communication tool. Thus, the students might choose English for their communication outside the classroom as the lingua franca which is not the native language either for international students or the Norwegian people. On the other hand, living in Norway while learning the Norwegian language can be looked upon as an opportunity to practice and learn the language through interactions outside the classroom. Though the significance of English proficiency and motivation in L2 learning are generally accepted, no research has been done on this particular group of L2 learners in this specific context.

The present qualitative research investigates the role of ELF, motivation and exposure might have in the case of NOMSA students’ learning of Norwegian. The findings might be beneficial for researchers, teachers and learners in identifying these elements and their roles in language learning in this specific setting and hopefully contribute to a better understanding of the students’ learning experiences. In addition, the results of this study might be useful in considering what to emphasize in the learning process, which learning outcomes to expect or what conditions to allow for in the learning context, and thus, helping the administrators offer a more efficacious program.

1.5. Limitations and delimitations

The limiting and delimiting factors in the present study concerned resources, time, the Norwegian language knowledge of the researcher, and the choice of participants. Regarding the sources, the
researcher was unable to find any resources which specifically discuss learning Norwegian as an L2. Thus, the information which is relied on is taken from the literature on second language learning (SLL) in general. Furthermore, there existed another limitation regarding obtaining information about the participants’ level of Norwegian. Due to time limits, it was not possible to wait till the end of the program, when there is a test for the evaluation of students’ Norwegian proficiency. So, students’ self-assessments are relied on regarding their language abilities and proficiencies.

The other consequence of the time limit was that the conduction of the study could not be postponed to the end of the program, in order to wait for further developments of the Norwegian language in the students. Nonetheless, the results could probably be indicators of various factors influential in NOMSA students’ learning of Norwegian. The researcher’s unfamiliarity with the Norwegian language was another factor which confines the information about students’ Norwegian language proficiency to self-assessments. Otherwise, the interviews could have included some questions in Norwegian to obtain some information about their proficiencies directly.

The delimiting factor in the current research was related to the choice of participants for the study. Considering the focus of the study, which was students’ choice of language for their communication outside the classroom, only the students in group 2 met the requirements. Students in group 2 were those with the medium level of the Norwegian language at the time of the study. It implies that they could opt for either Norwegian or English for their interactions outside the classroom. Due to this fact, the results of the present research might not be generalizable to all the students in the other groups.

1.6. Summary

The information provided in chapter one was an introductory presentation of the current research aimed to familiarize the reader with the specific setting. After explaining the title, the researcher stated the research questions of the study to inform the reader about the objectives. In the next two sections an effort was made to shed light on the context of the research, which was followed by the issues imposing constrains on the study. The emphasis in the next chapter will be on the previous research done in the field focused on in the current research. Definitions, models, and studies will be provided to illuminate the related background on the topic.
Chapter Two:
Literature Review

2.1. Introduction

The present study on NOMSA students investigates two elements influential in their learning of Norwegian as an L2. The first element is the psychological item of motivation, which has come to attention in the field of second language learning (SLL) in the recent decades. The significant role of motivation in learning an L2 comprises the first part of the literature review chapter. Motivation, generally viewed as a key influential factor in determining the success of an individual in learning an L2, was systematically studied for the first time in 1950s by Gardner and his Canadian associates (Dornyei, 2004:425). The research conducted by Gardner and his identification of various motivational constructs was a turning point in the study of motivation in the context of SLL and led to the formulation of Socio-educational model in 1985. The socio-educational model, as a fundamental model in the field of SLL and also the framework for the present research, will be explained in detail in the following chapter, as well as some of the other influential models.

The second factor to be considered is the role of ELF or English as the common language for instruction in the academic context of NOMSA. The role of English as a common language in the political and economic fields is well-accepted and there have been many books and articles discussing the benefits and threats of this phenomenon and considering the future of different languages accordingly (House, 2002; Andrade, 2006; Smit, 2010, etc). Yet, the mobility of students round the globe has added a rather new dimension to the uses of ELF, the use of English as a common language in the academic contexts (ELFA) of international universities. Chapter two will also provide an overview of the studies and theories in this field.

The NOMSA program is considered as an example of international study programs, a study abroad (SA) program. SA programs as the cause for the growing number of international students have led to the spread in the use of ELF in the academic settings and are of great importance in the debates about language learning. The presence of the international students in a foreign country, though considered a challenge due to the variety of cultural differences, is at the
same time an opportunity for the students to get exposed to the local language of the foreign country in a natural context. Thus, SA programs with their unique features regarding language use and experience, as well as social networks which the students get engaged in will also be referred to in the following chapter.

In the final section of chapter two, having introduced the frameworks and theories, the researcher will refer to relevant studies. The studies have single or mixed focuses on SA programs, international students’ motivation, and exposures to the foreign language as influential factors in the development of the foreign language. Their findings will be elaborated.

2.2. Motivation in second language learning

Motivation as a multifaceted complex phenomenon is of concern in many different disciplines and thus, many researchers in the psychology, linguistics, business or other fields have provided definitions for motivation. Kleinginna and Kleinginna (1981: 263) state 102 motivation definitions which were classified in nine groups with different emphases: two focusing on internal mechanisms, three on functional processes, two groups with restrictive emphasis, and two emphasizing the comprehensive nature of motivation. Finally, to provide a consensual definition of motivation, Kleinginna and Kleinginna (1981) defined motivation as an internal state or condition that serves to activate or energize behavior and give it direction.

Gardner, in his Socio-educational model looks at motivation as “the primary variable that influences the individual’s degree of success in learning a second language” (2010:23) and believes a motivated individual to possess some general features. These people have goals and make efforts to reach their goals, along with showing persistence in attaining their goals. While being inspired to achieve their goals, they have specific expectancies about success and failure, and once succeeded, they show traits of self-efficacy and self-confidence. The reasons for their behavior are often called ‘motives’ (Gardner, 2010:8). In general, a motive reflects cognition, affect and behavioral intentions at the same time (9).

Dornyei (2004:425) in the ‘Rutledge encyclopedia of language teaching and learning’ introduces motivation as “one of the two key learner characteristics that determines the rate and success of foreign language (L2) learning” and considers it a significant element in the development of a second language (L2). Motivation in learning an L2 is one of the main issues that contribute to different individual stances toward learning; some people claim to really enjoy
learning new languages and cultures, while others find it difficult and hard to accomplish (Gardner, 2010: VIII). Dornyei (1998:118) defines motivation as the learner’s interest and tendency towards the learning of a new language, and states that it is even considered a precondition for the other elements influential in language learning.

From the social aspect, Dornyei (2004:425) states that language is a social phenomenon and part of the individual’s identity, thus learning a second language means acquiring a second identity and the learner might be open or closed to acquiring a second identity. According to Dornyei (2004:425) “motivation to learn a foreign language involves all these affects and cognitions that initiate language learning, determine language choice, and energize the language learning process”. Similarly, Gardner and his Canadian associates believe that L2 learning cannot be considered a socially neutral subject matter at all, and that acquiring an L2, which means a second identity, bears a strong social angel (Dornyei, 2004:426).

The focus on the individual differences among the learners led to the emergence of a new research paradigm and there have been many researches done in the field of language learning which admit the importance of motivation (Clement, Gardner & Smyth, 1977; Dornyei, 1990; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; etc). Gardner’s socio-educational model (1985) has been the pioneer and also the most influential model of motivation in the field of second language learning. The details about the socio-educational model as the framework of the present research will be explained in a separate section (section 2.2.1.1). While the later emerged models expand and rectify rather than dismissing the socio-educational model (Dornyei, 1990), they put a stronger focus on the pragmatic and educational aspect of motivation, an issue the researchers considered the weak point in Gardner’s model (Dornyei, 1994:273). The identification of motivation in the field of SLL has been started decades ago, around 1950s and since then, many researchers have proposed models with various aims and various foci. Examples of models of motivation in SLL will be provided in the next section.

2.2.1. Models of motivation in SLL

According to Dornyei (2004:427) after the introduction of the socio-educational model (Gardner, 1985) in the field of L2 motivation that had a social psychological basis, there emerged a shift in L2 motivational studies during 1990s. As Dornyei (1994:273) stated, the later models tended to emphasize the pragmatic aspect and be more education-centered, so that the implications of the
models be more consistent with the perceptions of practicing teachers and in line with the results of mainstream educational psychological research. As a result of converging psychological theories with the cognitive dimensions, a new paradigm emerged. As a prime example, Dornyei (2004:427) points to Crookes and Shmidt’s (1991) study that distinguished 4 different levels for the connection between motivation and second language (SL) learning (Crookes and Schmidt, 1991:483). Their levels of analysis included:

1. the micro level, which deals with the motivational effect on the cognitive processing of SL stimuli; 2. the classroom level, dealing with techniques and activities in motivational terms; 3. the syllabus level at which the content decisions come into play; 4. considerations relevant to informal, out of class and long term factors.

(Crookes and Shmidt, 1991:483)

The next model of motivation in L2 which will be pointed to is the one introduced by Trembley and Gardner (1995). As a proper representation of the cognitive shift in the L2 motivation studies, Trembley and Gardner’s (1995) model integrated some significant cognitive concepts with the socio-educational model. The two researchers admit that their new model is an expansion of the socio-educational model, with the new dimension of motivation antecedents. Motivation antecedents are referred to as “factors that cannot be readily perceived by an external observer, but still influence motivational behavior (effort, persistence, attention) through their cognitive or affective influence” (Trembley and Gardner, 1995:507). They go on to explain the newly incorporated concepts in the socio-educational model as characteristics of the individual that indicate motivation. The concepts include:

1. Expectancy and self efficacy: (the former) our cognitive ability to anticipate events or to form expectancies, (the latter) an individual’s belief that he or she has the capability to reach a certain level of performance or achievement. 2. Valence: the subjective value that an individual associates with a particular outcome (Lee, Locke and Latahm, 1989). 3. Causal attributions: a concept based on Attribution theory which assumes individuals seek to understand why events have occurred (Schuster, Forsterlung, & Weiner, 1989) 4. Goal setting: based on Goal-setting theory suggests that individuals who have accepted specific and difficult goals will outperform individuals who have unspecific and easy goals (Tremblay and Gardner, 1995:507-508).
Dornyei (1994) also designed what he called a model of motivation, but Dornyei (2004:427) named it an elaborate framework, since it is consisted of “extensive lists of motivational components, categorizing them in broad clusters, without however defining directional relationships between them”. Dornyei’s (1994) framework incorporates items from the theories of other researchers, including Clement (1980), Crookes and Schmidt (1991), and Gardner (1985). Dornyei (1994:283) explains his construct to be comprised of three broad levels, namely the language level, the learner level, and the learning situation level, and admits them to correspond to the three basic constituents of the learning process, which are the L2, the L2 learner, and the L2 learning environment. The three levels also reflect the three different aspects of language including, the educational subject matter aspect, the personal aspect, and the social aspect. Dornyei believes his comprehensive construct to be helpful for language teachers in gaining “a better understanding of what motivates their students in the L2 classroom” (Dornyei, 1994:283).

Considering that Gardner’s Socio-educational model has been chosen as the model of motivation in L2 learning for the present research, the next section will be devoted to provide a thorough explanation of the model, including its history, focus, and the two types of orientation which Gardner referred to as energizers of learners’ motivation. Moreover, the criticisms about the socio-educational model will be mentioned in a separate subsection.

2.2.1.1. The Socio-educational model

The pioneering studies on the role of motivation in language learning date back to 1950s and started with the work of Gardner and Lambert (1959). Gardner’s Socio-educational model (1985) was the first social-psychological consideration of motivation in language learning and it continued to play a fundamental role in the field (1994:273). As Dornyei stated “the main problem with Gardner’s social psychological approach, appeared to be, ironically, that it was too influential” (1994: 273). Or, as described by Crookes and Schmidt, the socio-educational model “was so dominant that the alternative concepts have not been seriously considered” (1991: 501).

The fundamental of the socio-educational model is the fact that learning a second language involves accepting various features of the target language community. These features which are all culture-bound in the case of language learning require openness and willingness on the part of learner, since achieving a high proficiency in a new language means taking on the
cultural elements of the new linguistic community (Gardner, 2010:2). Accepting the new sets of cultural elements then leads to a new self-identity; learners start to identify themselves with the new culture and that is the reason learning an L2 at school is different from other subject matters. As its name suggests, the Socio-educational model is has two dimensions. The social/cultural dimension of the Socio-educational model of L2 learning is accessed through the cultural component of integrativeness. The learners’ level of integrativeness is reflected in their motivations and individual differences based on each person’s degree of acceptance (2010:9). The other dimension of the Socio-educational model, which is the educational one, involves considering the teacher, the classroom environment, and learning material, which according to the socio-educational model, are deemed influential in determining the degree of success among learners (Gardner, 2010:3).

Gardner based his model on three components to investigate the learner’s motivation in SLL. The three components include “the desire to learn the language, attitude towards learning the language, and motivational intensity (effort extended to learn the language)” (Gardner, 2010:9). Gardner admitted that while any of these three elements on its own is not a good indicator of a learner’s motivation, the combination of the three provides “a fairly good estimate of motivation in all of its complexity” (2010:9). He goes on to state that adding extra features to the motivation assessment model is examined by Tremblay and Gardner (1995) and led to results consistent with the motivation investigation done with the three components named above. In addition, Gardner (Gardner, 2010:10) differentiates between reason and motive through focusing on the features of a motivated person. He argues that one might have some reasons for embarking on something, but unless s/he is occupied with motivated behavior, those reasons are not considered motives. He expects a motivated person to possess some specific characteristics, including having reasons for engaging in the relevant activities, persisting in the activities, attending to the tasks, showing desire to achieve the goal, enjoying the activities, etc.

The socio-educational model attaches significance to the primary determinants of achievement rather than the sources or reasons of motivation, such as instrumental/integrative. The primary determinants are hypothesized to be motivation and ability; the former has been referred to earlier in the study and the latter is defined in the following. Gardner defines ability (language aptitude) as different cognitive capacities of individuals in the adaption of the sounds and symbols of the language, which leads to different levels of success (2010:22). He claims the socio-educational model of language learning to be compatible with most other social
psychological models of school learning, in being based on the two relatively independent elements of ability and motivation. Yet, the idea that motivation in this model is seen as affected by cultural and educational contexts makes it different from the other models. In Gardner’s words, “attitudes toward the learning situation and integrativeness are hypothesized to serve as the foundation of the motivation to learn the language, and any association of these two constructs with achievement is assumed to be mediated through motivation” (2010:26). Figure 1 below represents the outline of the socio-educational model.

![Figure 1: A slightly adapted version of the first published formulation of the socio-educational model (Gardner, 1979 in Gardner 2010:83).](image)

According to figure 1, the cultural beliefs of the learners are perceived as the dominant element in the whole process of language learning, which affects all the four learner variables. Gardner and his associates simply hypothesized that if the cultural context, either the society in general or the home setting, supported the acquisition of an L2, the chances would be higher for the learners to acquire the L2. In that case, Gardner (2010: 84) admits that the cultural context would possibly affect both the nature of the instruction and the perceived goals of instruction. The individual variations among the learners, which are all affected by the cultural beliefs, are shown as playing different roles in different learning contexts. Gardner classifies the four individual variables
presented in figure 1 into two larger groups; intelligence and language aptitude are classified as ability variables, while motivation and situational (language) anxiety are considered affective variables. Regarding the influence of four individual variables, Gardner (2010:84) makes a distinction between contexts where higher achievements are expected and the contexts where lower proficiency levels are assumed to be achieved. Gardner and his colleagues hypothesize that the four individual variables play less important roles in the former contexts as compared to the latter case.

Though all the four individual variables in the figure play roles in a formal setting, such as a classroom, only the two affective variables were expected to have influences in informal settings. Gardner believes this to be caused by the features of the two settings. He mentions that in order to learn a language in the classroom, the students need to be present, specific tasks are presented and particular material is taught, while in an informal learning situation, none of these requirements exist and students would learn as much as they avail themselves of the experience (2010:84). Gardner admits that the two variables which have no arrows toward the informal context would only affect the language learning if the learners took the opportunity to participate in those contexts. In the case of learners’ participation in the informal learning contexts, their language learning would be affected positively by motivation and negatively by language anxiety (2010:84-85).

In spite of the fact that the roles played by different individual variables in formal and informal contexts were different, the learning experiences in both contexts led to both linguistic and non-linguistic results. Gardner (2010:85) explains the linguistic results include language material and the skills students learn, and non-linguistic results to involve various affective consequences such as interest in the material, general attitudes toward bilingualism, language learning motivation, and interest in using the language.

The socio-education model manifests the interplay between various individual differences in both formal and informal settings and the linguistic and non-linguistic outcomes. As implied by the name of the model, the socio-educational model focuses on both of the social and educational dimensions in the process of L2 acquisition. In this model, culture inevitably affects both dimensions and as a result, gives prominence to personality and unique characteristics of an individual, which Gardner and his associates define as ‘integrativeness’. Integrativeness and instrumentality as two important terms used by Gardner will be elaborated in the next section.
2.2.1.2. Integrative and instrumental orientations

Gardner defines orientations as “the overall aim, purpose, direction, and/or goal of the activity”. Integrative orientation, he defines as an inclination that reflects a desire, feeling or ability to become psychologically closer to another language community. Instead if the inclination stresses the practical benefits for the individual, it would be classified as instrumental (Gardner, 2010: 17). In the socio-educational model, L2 learning is modeled on the basis of a social psychological perspective; Gardner looks at motivation as a mental engine which is switched on either with a desire to communicate with the members of L2 community (Integrative orientation), or through a desire to achieve higher education or better jobs (Instrumental) (Dornyei, 2004:426).

The two orientations, integrative and instrumental, were first mentioned in Gardner and Lambert’s (1959) study of the students in Montreal, Canada. In that study, they classified students as having either orientation, based on their choice of the reasons for studying the French language. Four reasons were provided and if students believed they were studying French to “be helpful in understanding the French Canadian people and their way of life” or “to permit meeting and conversing with more and varied people”, they would be called integratively oriented learners. On the other hand, if they opted for each one of the other two reasons, “to be useful in obtaining a good job” or “to make one a better educated person”, they were categorized as having instrumental orientations (Gardner, 2010:12). Later on, in 1972, Gardner and other researchers conducted a study at the University of Western Ontario, focusing on the two scales: integrative and instrumental orientations, not the identification of different other types of orientations. The results indicated that the two scales were highly correlated, quiet general and not forming unitary factors on their own (2010:12).

In order to know which reasons are considered integrative, and which ones instrumental, Gardner (2010:16) recommends looking at the purpose of the learner. If s/he is seeking communication with the people in the new linguistic and cultural community, either through spoken or written language, s/he has integrative orientation in learning the new language. And if s/he is looking for some personal and pragmatic use of the new language, s/he is instrumentally motivated (2010:16). He adds that an individual might have both orientations and that if someone is instrumentally/integratively oriented, it does not mean that s/he should possess all the reasons which reflect that specific orientation. In the socio-educational model of motivation, Gardner admits, the focus is on instrumental orientation. Due to its nature, instrumental orientation was
argued not to be as significant as integrative orientation and since it was concerned with some kind of need achievement, it was argued to be effective till the satisfaction of the need (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991, in Gardner, 2010:25). In his 2010 book, Gardner states that though the instrumental orientation lacks sufficient affective support, if practiced under the proper circumstances, it could also lead to high levels of competence (2010:25).

Gardner strongly rejects accepting the two orientations as two separate types of motivation and also believes them to be antecedents to the motivation itself (Dornyei, 2004:426). His statement implies that integrative and/or instrumental orientations exist before an individual get motivated. Though some researchers (e.g. Soh, 1987) have pointed to integrative and instrumental orientations as dichotomies or the two opposite sides of a motivation continuum, Gardner agrees with the researchers who have found them to be positively correlated (Clement, Gardner & Smythe, 1977; Gardner & Smythe, 1975, cited in Clement, Dornyei, Noels, 1994: 420). Gardner himself points to the relatedness of the two scales and even calls them dependant; an individual who is integratively motivated, might at the same time notice the existence of instrumental reasons in his language learning (2010:17).

There were a number of studies which identified more reasons for studying a second language and tried to identify various orientations. The first of them was the study done by Clement and Kruidenier (1983) which led the researchers identify 22 new factor names, such as prestige, career instrumental, school instrumental, and etc (Gardner, 2010:13). Gardner also points to two other studies which identified other orientations: Ely (1986) who explored three factors through investigating American University: integrative, instrumental, and required, as well as Clement, Dornyei and Noels (1994) that added 6 more factors to the orientations, such as xenophilic, identification, socio-cultural, and etc (Gardner, 2010:15).

Gardner continues by questioning the necessity of so many orientations. He argues that too many different variations might have appeared as a result of different wordings of the researchers, the cultural context of the study, or simply various interpretations of the researchers. He believes these to be “groups of reasons” rather than clusters of orientations. As an example, Gardner (2010:16) mentions the item of travel, and clarifies that interpreting it as integrative or instrumental depends on the purpose for travel. When mentioning travel as the reason for language learning, if the individual means visiting new cultural communities and meeting people with new ways of life, the existence of an integrative inclination is clear. But, if the learner is
only concerned with spending the holidays somewhere and experiencing new sights, without any emphasis on the communication aspect, then the orientation is an instrumental one.

Having defined the socio-educational model and its main components, the next section will be focusing on the method used by Gardner and Lambert in their study of French Canadian students’ motivation in language learning: the Attitude motivation test battery aimed to ‘‘measure the major affective individual variables identified by the socio-educational model of second language acquisition.

2.2.1.3. The Attitude Motivation Test Battery

In the socio-educational model, hypotheses testing regarding the individual differences in second language learning were done through the application of the Attitude Motivation Test Battery (AMTB), as an objective verifiable method. AMTB was developed by Gardner and Smythe (1975a) and Gardner (2010:107) acknowledges that their concern was how to measure attitudes and motivation. However, the objectivity is not aimed to assist teachers in exploring the reason for some students being motivated and some others not, or to provide some guidelines on how to get motivated, rather it helps to scrutinize the general relationships, based on a testable, verifiable and replicable structure. AMTB was originally initiated to assess what seemed to be main affective factors in the learning of a second language (Gardner, 2010:26).

Smyth and Gardner developed AMTB to use in their study with English speaking Canadians learning French as an L2 in Ontario, London. They aimed at obtaining some internally valid and reliable scales (Gardner & Smyth, 1975, 1981, in Gardner, 2001: 7). AMTB is comprised of 11 subtests, occurring in 5 groups. The groups involve: integrativeness, attitudes toward the learning situation, motivation, instrumental orientation, and language anxiety. The language anxiety group includes anxious reactions when using the second language, in an in- or out-of-class context. All the items on the subtests, except for two of the subtests, were taken from the research done by Gliksman, Gardner and Smythe (1982, in Gardner, 2001:8). Table 1 summarizes the main items and constructs focused on in the AMTB.
### Integrativeness

**Integrative orientation (4 items)**
- Sample: Studying French can be important to me because it will allow me to participate more freely in the activities of French Canadians.

**Interest in foreign languages (10 Items)**
- Sample: If I planned to stay in another country, I would make a great effort to learn the language even though I could get along in English.

**Attitudes toward French Canadians (10 Items)**
- Sample: If Canada should lose the French culture of Quebec, it would indeed be a great loss.

### Attitudes toward the learning situation

**Evaluation of the French teacher (10 items)**
- Sample: I really like my French teacher.

**Evolution of the French course (10 items)**
- Sample: If I knew that more advanced French classes would be like the one I’m in this year, I would definitely take more in the future.

### Motivation

**Motivational Intensity (10 items)**
- Sample: I keep up to date with French by working on it almost every day.

**Desire to learn French (10 Items)**
- Sample: I want to learn French so well that it will become second nature to me.

**Attitudes toward learning French (10 items)**
- Sample: I really enjoy learning French.

### Instrumental orientation

**Instrumental orientation (4 items)**
- Sample: Studying French can be important for me because I think it will someday be useful in getting a good job.

### Language anxiety

**French Class anxiety (10 items)**
- Sample: It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in our French class.

**French use anxiety (10 items)**
- Sample: I would get nervous if I had to speak French to someone in a store.
2.2.1.4. The Criticisms of the Socio-educational model

In the early 1990s, as stated by Gardner (Gardner, 2010:xi), researchers had some doubts about the socio-educational model, suggested that “it was not teacher-friendly, that it was too focused on a social psychological perspective, that it ignored motivational constructs from mainstream psychology, and that it limited investigation of other conceptualizations”. While Gardner did not believe this to be the case, he admitted the doubts to be signs of interest in the field of motivation and thus appreciated these. Due to most of the research being done in Canada, there existed claims that the findings and generalizations of the study account for the Canadian context. To this aim, Gardner and his colleagues developed the international AMTB for English as a foreign language, to be used in other contexts as well (2010: xiii).

Another disadvantage proposed by other researchers (Gardner, 2010: xiii) was that the socio-educational model would be less relevant for the language communities which use a language that is not clearly identifiable. It was doubted that in such communities which utilize a global language like English, many other motivational features must be looked at which reduce the efficiency of the model. To solve this problem, Gardner conducted several researches using the socio-educational model with the assistance of other colleagues in many other countries, including Croatia, Romania, Poland, Brazil ,and Japan (2010: xiii). He declared that also in the other countries, he has found the socio-educational model still relevant.

The next criticism about the socio-educational model was put forward by Crookes and Schmidt (1991: 501-502), according to whom the model was an old and limited one. They argued:

The failure to distinguish between social attitude and motivation has made it difficult (1) to see the connection between motivation as defined in previous SL studies and motivation as discussed in other fields, (2) to make direct links from motivation to psychological mechanisms of SL learning, and (3) to see clear
implications for language pedagogy from such previous research. This is at least partly because of an overly narrow set of investigative techniques.

(Cited in Gardner, 2010:4)

Gardner agrees with the Crookes and Schmidt in that considering the complex phenomenon of motivation from various perspectives is valuable, but disagrees with their claim that the socio-educational model and making use of AMTB are limited paradigms. This claim is contrary to the fact that the socio-educational model has been totally consistent with more recent research agendas. The other concern expressed by Crookes and Schmidt (1991) was that they mistakenly stated Gardner and Lambert (1959) as distinguishing between integrative and instrumental motivations, rather than orientations. They stated “motivation is identified primarily with the learner’s orientation toward the goal of learning a second language. Integrative motivation is identified with positive attitudes toward the target language group, or at least an interest in meeting and interacting with members of the target language group” (Crookes and Schmidt, 1991: 471-472, in Gardner, 2010:4). Gardner rejected the definition they attributed to him (1985, 1988) and elsewhere later in Crookes and Schmidt’s article (1991:475), they also pointed to the fact that the definition was not Gardners’ (Gardner, 2010:4).

In this section, the concept of motivation in the field of SLL has been pointed to. While a number of motivation models in language learning have been briefly described, the main focus has been on Gardner’s Socio-educational model (1985). The Socio-educational model, as both the fundamental motivation model in SLL, and the framework of the present research received more attention and was discussed in detail. The reasoning behind the choice of the Socio-educational model as the framework of the present research will be presented in the next chapter in the data analysis section (3.5).

2.3. English as the lingua franca (ELF)

With the rapid growth of globalization, linguistic, cultural and political borders are fading and people from different backgrounds need to communicate together. This necessitates in the first place understanding the others’ intention and expressing one’s own intention. Thus, a common language was chosen to serve this purpose. This common language is known as the ‘lingua franca’ and Mauanen defines it as “a vehicular language spoken by people who do not share a native language” (2003:513, in Bjorkman, 2008:12). The expansion of the English language
round the globe dates back to 17th century, originating from the British Isles. It has evolved into different varieties in different countries, some using it as the native language (America and Australia) and some others as the second language, also known as “new Englishes” or “world Englishes” (some countries in Africa and Asia) (Mauranen in Mauranen and Renta, 2010:1).

Kachru’s (1985, cited in Jenkins, 2014: 41) notion of circles of English types also point to the varieties of English around the world. For Kachru, the ‘Inner circle’ refers to the English used as the mother tongue in countries like the US, Canada, the UK, Australia, and New Zealand, as different from the ‘Outer circle’ English, which is the variety spoken in countries which were colonized by native English speakers. His last circle is the ‘Expanding circle’, which includes countries in which English is learnt and used. ELF as another variety of English is used by people for whom it is not the native language, but rather an additional one (Mauranen in Mauranen and Renta, 2010:1). Mauranen believes that:

English has established its position as the global lingua franca beyond any doubt; along with this status, it has become one of the main symbols of our time, together with globalization, networking, economic integration and the internet. Like other zeitgeist symbols, it has been subject to much debate and has raised many fears. English has been seen as a threat to local languages and a culture, or alternatively, its global uses have been seen as a threat to Standard English.

(Mauranen in Mauranen and Renta, 2010:1)

Smit (2010:2) provided a list of the reasons for English to have been chosen as the lingua franca. He believed ELF to be the result of “sociohistorical developments, the military power exerted by English speaking nations and, more recently, the socioeconomic power of (English dominated) international companies and organizations”. He argued that the English language has been the leading global language of “international relations and trade, international media and communications, international business and academia” (Smit, 2010:2). The domains of ELF use and research are spreading rapidly and the main ones as pointed to by Jenkins (2014:29) include “business, primary, secondary and higher education, academia more generally, diplomacy, tourism, the media, and technology”, among which academia (especially higher education or HE) and business are known to have had more extensive and longer uses of ELF.

Studies have identified some particular features of the contexts where English is being used as the lingua franca, when it is not the native language for neither of the parties interacting. According to Firth (1996), as well as House (2002) and Meierkord (1998, 2004), special
Efficiency and adaptability patterns were found between two non-native speakers (NNS) of English or ELF users; “a pragmatic pattern of persistence, tolerance, and successful inferencing about the other’s intention” were observed (Shaw, Caudery and Petersen, in Mauranen and Ranta, 2010:178). In addition, Klimpfinger (in Mauranen, 2010:348) refers to forms and functions of code switching (switching to the alternative languages in the course of language use) as an inevitable characteristic of ELF. Considering the fact that in each ELF contact situation, at least three languages are present (the first languages of interlocutors and the ELF), he believes code switching to all of the languages to be plausible. Klimpfinger concludes that code switching in an ELF interaction might have various functions. It could serve as a tool to direct the speech to some particular addressees, or as a signal of the speaker’s membership in a particular cultural group. Code switching might also act as a call for assistance, when the speaker lacks information in English, or simply be used because the speaker considers an idea better to be expressed in a certain language (in Mauranen, 2010:367).

Since the current research is concerned with the use of ELF in the academic context of NOMSA, next section will focus on this specific context of ELF use, as one of the most important and growing fields of ELF.

2.3.1. ELF in academic contexts (ELFA)

Education as an integral part of human life has also been influenced by the spread of globalization and consequently, international education opportunities have developed around the world. As a result of the mobility of learners, and the increased focus on intercultural and transcultural learning, multilingual classrooms have become common in most European cities since 1990 (Byram, 1997; Flechsig, 2000; cited in Smit, 2010: 16). Since students from different language backgrounds are admitted to international programs, their language of communication in the multilingual classroom is of great significance. Bjorkman (2008:104) states that English, being “the most widely studied and the best known second language” has been chosen as the ELFA.

Smit (2010:3) states that tertiary education is a field newly adopting English as the medium of instruction, due to its being intelligible in multilingual classrooms and to the students coming from various linguistic backgrounds. Bjorkman (2008:103) believes the linguistic diversity of the European universities to be the consequence of their choice to participate in the
Bologna process (1991), according to which, they allowed for student mobility and the emergence of exchange programs. The wave of internationalization in the case of universities has been discussed by many scholars (e.g. Smit, 2010, Jenkins, 2014, Mauранen and Renta, 2010, etc). Bjorkman (2010:103) believes the transformation from a monolingual to a multilingual university in the Swedish context necessitated a common language. While previously, studying in Europe required being proficient in the local language, now Europeans realized the significance of admitting international students and started to establish international programs, and as a result to use ELF (Smit, 2010:3). Smit mentions this decision is caused by European thinking about the financial support and kudos the international students brought with them (2010:3). Jenkins (2014:29) also argues that with the universities attracting students from around the globe, and their teachings occurring partly or totally in English, more spread of ELF and more international campuses are resulted. In this regard, she quotes Bolton (2011) as identifying higher education as one of the driving forces behind the spread of ELF (Jenkins, 2014:29).

The admission of students to the international programs around the world has led to an additional focus on language learning research. During the last two decades, the majority of studies in the field of language learning in study abroad (SA) contexts were concerned with the acquisition of English as a second language in one of the countries which used it as the native language (Matsumura, 2001; Ortaçtepe, 2013; Serrano, Llanes, & Tragant, 2011; Tanaka, 2007, in Kaypak and Ortactepe, 2014: 356). While Kaypak and Ortactepe (2014: 356) believe SA programs to refer to contexts where English is just a common language between the student and the host community and not natively spoken in that setting, it might also be possible to practice English with native speakers on an SA program. What is particular about SA programs is that learners are exposed to a language in the community which uses it as the native language (Freed, 1995:2). Thus, it can be concluded that if the host country is an English-speaking country, the students have the opportunity to practice English with the native speakers (NSs) of English, and if the country is not an English speaking country, students will be exposed to both the local language which is natively used, and English as the common language either among the international students, or between the international student and the host community.

SA programs as special cases of language learning exert unique influences on learners’ motivations and choice of any language from their linguistic repertoire, thus the nature of the SA program and its features will be clarified in the next section and some relevant studies will be briefly discussed.
2.4. Study abroad

Nowadays learning a second language while living in the country which has it as the native language (in-country studies), has become very common and every year thousands of students travel to other countries to attend such language learning programs (Freed, 1995:2). These programs might be called immersion, study abroad (SA), exchange and in-country studies, depending on their focus, length and quality. However, SA as the cover term which includes all these learning programs, refers to “the combination of language and/or content learning in a formal classroom setting with the immersion in the native speech community” as a rule (Freed, 1995:5).

As discussed by Freed (1995:4) the language learning in an SA context, might be the result of two situations. According to him, the learning might occur in a non-educational and informal setting, through residing in the country, or might have been a mixture of some periods of classroom learning along with the input from out-of-class experiences (1995:4). In the case of students who spend some time abroad to learn the language of that country, a terminological problem arises as to title them programs involved in either ‘foreign language learning’ or ‘second language acquisition’ (SLA). In this regard, Freed (1995:4) suggests SA to be ‘a special case of second language acquisition’, which has led to the possibility of investigating the SA phenomenon from different aspects and changed it to a “major subfield of SLA studies”.

Ferguson (in Freed, 1995: xi), admits that the works of researchers like Freed (1990) and DeKeyser (1986, 1991) was influential in this field. There have been both positive and negative research results about the linguistic effects of an SA program, as a combination of formal classroom teaching and informal out-of-class experiences. As a concluding statement by most of the researchers in the field, Ferguson (in Freed, 1995:xiv) states that if considering two groups of learners, one learning a foreign language in the country it is natively spoken, and the other learning it at the home country, and given equal exposure, the former group would be more fluent. Nonetheless, the importance of variations among individual learners cannot be neglected.

There has been a wide range of research focusing on different aspects of SLA in an SA program. For instance some studies investigated the achievements in the learners’ acquisition of an L2, focusing on the oral production ability (Brecht et al, 1993; Kaplan, 1989; Milleret, 1990; Polanyi, 1995; Freed, 1990a, 1990b; Collentine, 2004, cited in DuFon and Churchill, 2006:231) and found SA was of great value. Other researchers studied the grammatical (Collentine, 2004;
Duperron, 2006; Isabelli, 2004, 2007) and pragmatic competences (Barron, 2003; Cohen and Shively, 2007; Magnan and Back, 2006, cited in Hernandez, 2010:600). However, a wide range of contradictory studies also exist on the effect of out-of-class interactions with native speakers on the development of language skills in SA learners. While the dominant assumption considers communication with the native speakers of a certain language as being effective in language development (Bialystok, 1978; Rubin, 1975; Seliger, 1977; Stern, 1983), there are still others which reject this position (Day, 1985; DeKeyser, 1986; Freed, 1990, etc) or even believe that such a communication impedes students’ learning (Higgs and Clifford, 1982, in Freed, 1995:6). Nonetheless, the dominant perspective is that learning an L2 in the host country and among the native speakers (NSs) of that language is privileged to learning it in home country. This superiority of the former context is attributed to various interactive situations that occur in learners’ everyday lives, during which the learners engage in social and interpersonal interactions with NSs and as a result, construct different linguistic, as well as sociocultural aspects of the particular language (Hernandez, 2010:601).

The case studies conducted by Moehle (1984) and Raupach (1984, 1987) can be referred to as an example of the studies conducted to investigate the achievements in an SA program. Their case studies were done with the German students learning the French language, and French students learning German through attending in-country programs. The attributes which reflected the learners’ fluency in speaking were the speed of learners’ speaking, the time spent between two utterances, and the use of proper modifiers, fillers and compensation strategies. Thus, the researchers concluded that SA would help learners achieve native-like speaking skills (in Freed, 1995: 10).

2.4.1. Social networks

Learners as social beings are engaged in social relations, and in the course of second language acquisition, learners’ relations with the important fellow-persons of their lives increase the opportunities to learn the L2 (Van Lier, 1998, in Kurata, 2007: 05.1). The term ‘social networks’, first introduced by Milroy (1987), refers to all the informal relations contracted by an individual. Social networks of an individual can be looked upon as L2 learning tools, which the learner uses in natural contexts to access the linguistic reservoir of L2 (Kurata, 2007:05.2). This way, the diverse linguistic patterns during everyday natural relations among individuals are considered
beneficial for a language learner. Bochner’s (1982, in Yu, 2010:306) idea of ‘local friendship networks’ refers to the same phenomenon. He believes these networks act as facilitators in international students’ achievements on the academic and professional levels.

The study conducted by Network Research Committee of the Japanese Language Education Society which focused on the influence of learners’ networks in Japanese language acquisition is worth mentioning here. Based on the network perspective (Nihongo Kyooiku Gakkai Nettowaaku Choosa Kenkyuu Iinkai, 1997), the committee conducted several case studies and concluded that learners’ active participation in diverse activities with the NSs and establishing close mutual relationships with them was beneficial for the development of the learners’ Japanese language proficiency.

Yet, it has to be noted that not every kind of interaction leads to linguistic gains and there have been various research results regarding the characteristics of the interaction which is assumed beneficial for linguistic gains. For instance, Segalowitz and Freed (2004, in Magnan and Back, 2007:45) concluded that the in-country and at-home American students who were learning Spanish, showed no notable distinction in their oral proficiency levels. They proposed that this might be due to the short duration of the program, which limited the amount of interactions, or the fact that the input they received in their interactions with NSs was not rich enough. The researchers felt that the NSs did not use a fluent and native level of language in their interactions with the learners.

The study conducted by Magnan and Back (2007) also revealed noteworthy points about the consequences of different types of exposures to and interactions in the target language. They focused on American learners of French language in France and the contribution of different elements in their L2 proficiencies. While the students who had spent some time watching TV in French, or reading French news and novels, showed little improvements in their proficiency levels (based on OPI), those who spent their time speaking French with their American classmates showed negative results. In fact, at the time of post-program questionnaires, there were several students who regretted spending their time with Americans, while living in France, even though they conversed in French. Thus, Magnan and Back state that “the critical language contact factor then seems to be with whom students spend their time speaking French” (Magnan and Back, 2007:52). The other result was “not uncommon in the professional literature”, was the students’ weakness in establishing friendship with French NSs. Magnan and Back identified the
reasons to be the lack of self-confidence in communicating with NSs, not finding the opportunity to do so, or seeking the emotional support from American fellows (Magnan and Back, 2007: 55).

In addition, Brecht, Davidson and Ginsberg (1993, in Magnan and Back, 2007: 46) considered students’ proficiency level at the start of the SA program to be the defining element for their linguistic gains. Their investigation was done on the students in an SA program in Russia and they found that the students who were at the advanced level of spoken Russian before entering the program, showed no improvement in Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) after one semester abroad. The issue of differences in the starting proficiency was also found to be important in Regan’s (2003, in Magnan and Back, 2007:46) study and led to the conclusion that in the case of short SA programs, the development of linguistic skills was more traceable in the students with lower proficiency levels.

In the concluding remarks of his study, Yu (2010:317) points to some supporting programs which international students might find beneficial if they are looking for linguistic achievements. He suggests that through helping students establish friendship networks with native peers and also encouraging them to engage in activities together, institutions can be influential in higher levels of academic achievements among students. Moreover, findings of the study done by Clement and Kruidenier (1985, in Kormos, Csizer and Iwaniec, 2013:153) supported the idea by indicating that during an SA experience, frequent and pleasant contacts in the host language had a positive influence on linguistic self confidence of the learners, which in turn, resulted more positively motivated learners. Similarly, Allport (1954, Kormos et al, 2013:152) stated the certain conditions which facilitate further contact among the learners in a group, including equal status, common goals, cooperation, and institutional support.

Up to this point in chapter two, the researcher has tried to provide the relevant theoretical backgrounds of the present research. Since the current study is focusing on the roles of ELF, motivation, students’ out-of-class language choice in an SA context, studies with similar objectives will be summarized in the next section.

2.5. Previous research

To start the review on the studies which had relevant focuses to the current research, the study conducted by Shaw et al (2010, in Mauranen and Renta, 2010:178) with a mixed focus on motivation, interaction, and ELF development will be summarized. Shaw et al (2010)
investigated motivation and language development in 240 exchange students attending SA programs in two traditional universities and two specialized ones in Denmark and Sweden. They were not language learning students in particular and had very different nationalities, but all planned to spend one or two semesters abroad. The students were interviewed 3 times at the course of their studies; in the beginning, half-way and at the end of the program. They were interviewed to provide information regarding their language experiences and motivation, and also took tests to assess their English and Scandinavian language proficiencies (2010:182). Researchers perceived that regardless of some similarities in some of the basic features of these students, there existed vast individual varieties among them. For instance, while all were students and on an exchange program in Sweden/Denmark, their levels of English proficiency, their motivations, and their interest in language learning greatly differed (2010:184).

The results from Shaw et al’s (2010: 183) study contradicted the finding of Maiworm (2001) in terms of the language used by exchange students. In his study, Maiworm found that for the traditional Erasmus students who went on SA programs, learning the language of the host country was considered “one of the major motivations”. An Exchange program is a program for the countries within the European Union to exchange students among their universities since 1980 (erasmusprogramme.com). However, Shaw et al (2010:183) realized that in the case of exchange students who came to Scandinavia, the situation was different. Few of these students had any knowledge about the local language of the country they would be studying in and the majority expected to use English for their studies. According to the students’ answers to open-ended questions about their motivations, 3 categories were observed to have the highest percentages: “improving English skills, personal development and a new life experience, and encountering a new culture” (2010:184). Most of the students had language learning motivations and the main inclination was toward improving their English proficiency. There were some students who considered learning the language of the host country as well, and only a few students who solely focused on learning the local language (2010:187).

In the investigation done by Shaw et al (2010) the students who were found to be more interested in improving their English were also divided into three categories. The first group included those who looked at the exchange program as an opportunity to practice English when using it as the lingua franca. The second group thought that their stay in Sweden or Denmark would lead to their English improvement in any case, whether or not they make efforts for improving their English. The third group was a minority who regarded themselves “ELF users
rather than English learners” and was not looking for improvements in their language abilities (2010:185). Regarding the students’ motivation to learn the local languages, it was noticed that students of the Swedish universities were more interested in learning the Swedish language, compared to the students who were studying in Denmark and were less interested in learning the local language. The researchers believed this to be the result of the study opportunities provided for the students; the students in Swedish universities had the possibility of taking some courses conducted in the Swedish language, but the academic studies in Denmark were done solely in English (2010:188).

Nonetheless, Shaw et al (2010:189) admit that motivation is not the only element which determines the language in which exchange students interact. They believe (2010:189) students’ “communicative needs in their studies and everyday lives, the opportunities presented for interaction by the way their lives were organized in the exchange situation, and the desire to speak their own language at times” are influential as well. In any case, speaking with the NSs of the local language is not favorable for the beginners, since based on the researchers’ language tests; there are many students who never get to a level in the local language at which they can easily practice meaningful conversation. In addition, the native people are not always patient enough for the fluent speaker of their native language and at times prefer to have a more fluent talk in a common language (2010:189).

Another dimension investigated by Shaw et al (2010) is the patterns of interaction which involved studying closely knit groups, and their language of communication. As the results showed, the interactions of the students were almost limited to communicating with other students; half of which were other international students, one third (up to 40-42% in the two specialized universities) were the speakers of students’ first languages (L1), and the rest were local students. Focusing on the language in which these communications occurred, the researchers came to the following results. The students with a common L1 interacted mostly in their L1s, but interesting was the fact that communicating in English also rated rather high (20-40%) among them. English was also found to be the dominant language for the communication among international students with different linguistic backgrounds and between international students and local students of Sweden or Denmark (191).

Shaw et al (2010:192) looked at the ELF development during this exchange program as well, considering students with various start levels of English proficiency. According to the patterns of interaction among their subjects, the researchers witnessed that exchange students
used English widely, either among themselves or when communicating with local people. Improvements or degradations in the English proficiency level were revealed in the students’ self-reports and their descriptions about the sample pictures. The results indicated that the students’ interactions in ELF during the exchange program led them to accommodate to a stable, yet particular version of ELF which was unlike the English used by less proficient individuals and native-like speakers. While the students who had a low level in English proficiency reported improvements, those who were more proficient at the beginning of the program, reported degrading in their English levels. Both types of the results were considered normal in the case of accommodating to the lingua franca environment. The less proficient students learned more English as the result of adapting their English to the more proficient students, while in the same context, the higher level students hindered themselves from using difficult expressions and structures (2010:192).

The focus on the attitude-related and motivational dimensions of language learning can also be traced in Kormos et al’s (2013) study. The researchers quote the statement of the Modern Language Association (2010) to emphasize language as a culture-bound phenomenon and to pinpoint that learning a new language embraces entering a whole new range of cultural, historical and literary issues pertaining to the new language (Kormos et al, 2013:151). Kormos et al state that this is especially true about the SA learners who are exposed to and immersed in the new language and culture, and engage in direct intercultural contacts with the members of the host community (2013:151). Kormos et al (2013) conducted a mixed-method research (using both questionnaires and interviews) with a combined focus. In their study, they investigated the learning of English in 70 international students who spent an academic year abroad, in the UK and at three different stages of the program: early, mid and final stages.

Kormos et al (2013) tried to shed light on students’ direct (spoken contact with NSs) and indirect (written and media contact) intercultural contacts, as well as their attitudes and motivation in language learning. They examined the students’ motivated behavior as reflected in their willingness to invest efforts in L2 learning. The results indicated that the subjects felt the necessity of learning English either as a tool for getting a better job or continuing their studies (instrumental orientation), or due to the high status of English as a global language (international orientation). Also, it was found that though the students were instrumentally or internationally motivated, the amount of effort they made for language learning was low. The researchers believed this to be the result of cultural definitions of the students’ responsibility in learning (in
their own culture, the learners had not experienced a responsibility to make efforts for their learning), or their extended communication with social networks at home as a result of modern communication technologies (2013:159).

Moreover, in the research conducted by Kormos et al (2013) self-efficacy was obvious in most of the students; they considered themselves capable of reaching the proficiency level required for continuing their university studies. The lack of self-efficacy in some others could be attributed to their less intercultural contact with NSs and high anxiety levels (Kormos et al, 2013:159). While the students stated that they felt ignored by the NSs and/or they lacked enough language competence to communicate, the teachers admitted that the students did not have any opportunities to interact with members of the host culture (2013:160).

Both frequency of contact with NSs and motivational variables were shown to have reductions at the final stage of data collection in the study conducted by Kormos et al (2013). The reduction in the amount of time spent with NSs was suggested to be the result of the coincidence of the studies done at the final stage with the students’ final exams and the end of academic year. Thus, they were more engaged with studying and preparation for the exams, and as a result had fewer opportunities and less time to spend with each other or NSs. Yet, the drop in the motivational variables was suggested to be the result of a shift in the focus of the program. While early in the program, the focus was to learn the English language, later it changed to learning the content of the academic discipline, and as also emphasized by the teachers, at the time the students “paid less attention to the development of their language skills” (Kormos et al, 2013:163).

Yu’s (2010) research focuses on the roles of attitude and motivation for learning Chinese in the study abroad context. Pointing to the business dominance of China and people feeling the necessity to learn the Chinese language, Yu refers to the huge number of international students who attend Beijing University to learn the Chinese language. In his study, Yu used questionnaires to investigate the learners of Chinese at two sessions during a nine months period. Considering that Yu and Watkins (2008) had found that learners faced more problems in their language learning, while on an SA, Yu (2010) embarked on this longitudinal study to have a closer look at this specific group of students. At the beginning of his study, Yu defined ‘adaptation’ in the case of international students as “integration with the target language group, both socioculturaly and academically” (2010:302) and summed up the major adaptation challenges encountered by the students attending SA programs:
...international students encounter problems pertaining not only to sociocultural adaptation, such as adjustment to social customs and norms (Schwarzer, Hahns and Schröder, 1994), and psychological adaptation, such as feeling depressed, anxious and lonely due to the loss of their social support networks (Sandhu and Asrabadi, 1994; Yang and Clum, 1995), but also academic adaptation, such as worrying about their language proficiency and academic performance.


Yu also argues that proficiency in the host language can be the solution for most of the SA students’ problems and believes most of the learners’ discomforts in an SA program to be the result of their inability to interact with the members of the host community. In the background section of his study, Yu points to some studies which support his ideas in the different dimensions of his research. About the adjustment processes of the SA students, Yu refers to studies which have found that having learnt the host language, students would be able to communicate with the members of the host community (Ward and Kennedy, 1993). Interaction with the members of the host society was proved to lead to more interaction and social support and as a result (Ward, 2004), easier adjustment processes socioculturally, psychologically and academically (Andrade, 2006, in Yu, 2010: 303).

Regarding the motivational aspect of his study, Yu (2010:303-4) mentions Gardners’ socio-educational model (1985, 2000, 2005a) as a foundation for the belief that motivations with either an instrumental or integrative orientation are positively correlated to each other and negatively to the language anxiety. In addition, high levels of motivation are found to be linked with high levels of intercultural contact (Masgoret and Gardner, 1999), which consequently lead to high self-esteem in L2 achievements (Clement, Gardner and Smythe, 1980) and effective communication (Gudykunst and Hammer, 1988; McGuire and McDermott, 1988). Based on all these previous studies and his own research, Yu proposed that academic adaptation, in a similar way to sociocultural adaptation, has a positive relation with integrative motivation, and a negative relation with language anxiety (2010: 315).

The other study which can be referred to as a proof for the positive relation between motivation, social interaction, and linguistic achievements is the one conducted by Isabelli-Garcia (2006). Isabelli-Garcia (2006) investigated the roles of attitude, motivation and social interaction in four students attending a study abroad program in Buenos Aires, Argentina. He employed quantitative pre- and post-tests along with qualitative studies of the students’ diaries,
questionnaires and social logs. Isabelli-Garcia concluded that motivation highly influenced the learners’ contact with NSs, and also a positive relationship was found between the learners’ contact with NSs and their speaking proficiency development (in Hernandez, 2010:601).

The research done by Hernandez (2010) is also an example for the examination of SA experience, students’ motivations, and their interactions. Hernandez investigated the roles of motivation and interaction with L2 native speakers in the development of speaking skills in 20 students learning Spanish in a study abroad program. His instruments included a 2-part questionnaire (to obtain information about students’ backgrounds and motivations), a language contact profile, and a pre-test and post-test on their oral proficiency. Regarding the students’ speaking proficiency, Hernandez observed that improving the speaking abilities is possible during a one semester study abroad program and that the students’ contact with Spanish NSs had a positive influence on this improvement (Hernandez, 2010:600).

The final study which is referred to is the one with contradictory results. Freed’s (1995, in Freed, 2010: 601) research on 40 undergraduate students in a 6 week SA program in France. Freed used questionnaires to assess the students’ motivation and attitudes toward the French language studies and utilized the students’ language contact profiles (LCPs), diaries, interviews and observations as estimates of their contact with French NSs. Moreover, the students’ grammatical and oral reading comprehension skills were assessed through taking the College Examination Board Language Achievement Test and an American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) and OPI. Hernandez (2010: 601) believes the results were rather unexpected, since Freed observed no significant relationship between the students’ motivation/interaction with French NSs and their test scores. Freed suggested that the unexpected results might have been the result of the short period of this specific SA program and that the relation among the variables might be more evident in a longer program.

2.6. Summary

In chapter two the focus has been on the background theories and the previous studies done in the fields associated with the current research. The literature in this chapter has been focusing on motivation in SLL and the socio-educational model of motivation, ELF and its role in the international higher education which was chosen as the model for the present research, as well as SA programs. In order to provide an overview of the researches conducted in the field, the
researcher has tried to mention studies that had taken a combination of these particular elements into consideration. The next chapter will focus on the details about the methodology of the present research, such as its participants, the data collection method, the procedures and instruments employed. The issues of trustworthiness and ethics will be referred to as well.
Chapter Three:
Methodology

3.1. Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to define and justify the procedures conducted in different stages of this study. As mentioned earlier, the purpose of this study was to find an answer for the following research questions:

1. What is the role of motivation in NOMSA students’ choice of language for the exposures outside the classroom?

2. What is the role of English language as the lingua franca in the development of Norwegian in NOMSA students?

An investigation was done on two of the important aspects of language learning. The first aspect is the role of English that was used as the lingua franca and the medium of instruction in the NOMSA classroom, as well as a communication tool outside the classroom. The second aspect was students’ motivation for the learning of Norwegian, since NOMSA was not a school subject to be passed; rather the students needed to learn Norwegian as a qualification for their further studies or job in the Norwegian society. Thus, while living in the Norwegian-speaking country, the NOMSA students’ motivation was expected to influence their choice of language for the interactions outside the classroom, as well as the time and effort they invest on language learning and consequently their amount of language learning.

According to the aims of the research, a particular group of students’ individual experiences regarding their language use were acquired. Semi-structured interviews were conducted to obtain detailed information from each student, which included self-report to derive their perceptions about their language proficiencies. Though the researcher had provided a framework for the students’ answers through using an interview guide, they had the opportunity to elaborate on the points needed. Since every research has its own unique features and conditions, the full description of them renders the research credibility. In the following section,
all the steps taken, the method and approach, the participants and the instruments will be clarified in detail.

3.2. Research Approach

In order to investigate the roles of the English language and motivation in the Norwegian language development among NOMSA students, there was a need to acquire some information about students’ individual learning experiences and their different linguistic backgrounds. Using qualitative approach permitted the researcher to acquire detailed information about some of the issues influential in the language learning in the NOMSA program. The aims of the present research and its features prioritized the qualitative approach as the most suitable approach for this study.

Motivation is a complex phenomenon which might exist or disappear due to many other individual, social, political or religious elements, and is among the items which Patton (2002:341) refers to as “not directly observable”. He believes human thoughts, feelings and beliefs are not directly accessible and using qualitative methods, the researcher would be able to seek for the meanings of various behaviors in people. In the present research, interviews were the tool to gain insights into each individual’s situation and attitudes in the process of second language learning. Other attributes of the qualitative approach which make it suitable for the current study are pointed to by MacKey and Gass (2005). They state that qualitative studies are intensive and holistic researches of a few subjects, in the form of rich descriptions about human behaviors in natural contexts (2005: 162-166). Employing the qualitative approach let the researcher investigate the detailed descriptions provided by the students and study the contribution of particular elements in their language development.

3.3. Participants

The participants in the present research included both students and teachers. As described in the section 1.3 (Background), due to the aims of the study, one particular group of NOMSA students qualified to take part in the present research. The participants were volunteers among group 2 students (approximately at the A1 level of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages). After arranging with one of the teachers in group 2, the researcher presented the
project in one of the class sessions. 13 volunteers to participate in the study were identified and their contact information, as a form of written consent, was collected by the researcher. Within 4 days, interview sessions were arranged with 10 students who were chosen randomly. Regarding the age range, they were in the range of 20 to 31 years old. There was no limitation as for the gender of the participants; and the interviewees consisted of 2 male and 8 female subjects. Six of the students had jobs and they had very different experiences regarding their length of stay in Norway, ranging between 4 to 30 months. Conducting the research in an international classroom, the students had different nationalities and thus, different language backgrounds: Polish, Palestinian, Chinese, Belorussian, Spanish, Bulgarian, Vietnamese, Serbian, Cypriot, and Ukrainian.

Two teachers were also involved in the present study, to provide information about the NOMSA program in general and the classroom setting. One of the teachers was a 54 years-old female native speaker of Norwegian, who taught them ‘På vei’ book in the classroom and also devised tasks for their self-study hours. She holds an old ‘hovedfag’ degree (an old version of Masters Degree which lasted for 7 years) in ‘Germanistic’ and had been teaching Norwegian students the German linguistics and German business and tourism language for 22 years at UiS. Afterwards, she attended ‘Norwegian as a second language’ course for 1 year from 2011 and it is now 3 years that she is working as the NOMSA teacher. She had 6 hours of teaching with group 2, plus 3 hours of self-study for which she was not present. The other teacher was a 51 years-old male native speaker of Norwegian who helped the students mainly with the Norwegian grammatical points in the computer room. He had a Master of Arts in foreign language teaching and has been teaching in the NOMSA program for 3 years now. They spent 3 hours per week in the computer room, during which the students are supposed to do some oral practice on the grammatical rules they have learnt from the book and also do some related tasks on the computers.

3.4. Data collection

From among various methods to collect data for a qualitative research, semi-structured interviewing seemed proper for the current research project. Interviews are the method useful in investigating phenomena which are not directly observable (Patton, 2002; MacKey & Gass, 2005), like ideas, thoughts and beliefs. Interviews which make use of interview guides, known as
semi-structured interviews, were suitable for the present research. The interview guides, as mentioned by Patton (2002:343) “ensure that the same basic lines of inquiry are pursued with each person interviewed”. The pre-set questions not only help the interviewer to ask the same questions from everyone, but also are beneficial to keep to the aims of research. Since during the conversation, it is possible that either interviewer or interviewees digress from the topic. Nonetheless, interview guides are not rigid in semi-structured interviews, meaning that the interviewer has the opportunity of adding/removing some words and questions from the guide to keep to the conversation going and obtain the information needed. This aspect was especially important while interviewing NOMSA students, since the interview was conducted in English, which was the foreign language for most of them. According to Patton, individuals’ perceptions and experiences were “captured in their own terms and based on interviewer’s provided framework” (Patton, 2002:348).

Two Interview guides were designed by the researcher, one for the students and one for the teachers. The guide for the students contained 19 questions, which were classified into 3 main temporal sections: background, current status, and future. Based on Gardner’s Socio-educational model of motivation, which was chosen as the model of the current research, motivation acts as an ‘energy center’, providing the language learner with sufficient impetus towards the learning of the new language. Gardner (1985) believes this type of motivation to contain three components, which he names as effort, cognition, and affect. The questions in the interview guide were designed so as to seek for these elements in the students’ answers and one of the tasks in the data analysis was to identify the components of motivation. Moreover, Gardner recognized two different orientations for motivation, which are influential in prompting motivation, one being ‘integrative’ and the other ‘instrumental’. The former is involved with an interpersonal function, and the latter with a practical one, meaning that language learners possess either one or both types of goals in the process of learning. Questioning the NOMSA students about their past, present and future status, the researcher tried to identify their goals and as a result their motivation.

The questions in the background section concerned both students’ personal information, such as age and nationality, and facts about their experiences with foreign languages. The questions about their present life situation, with the purpose of investigating their choice of language for interaction and Norwegian/English self-assessments were included in the current status section. Questions in the future section targeted their motivation indirectly, through asking
about their future plans after taking the final test. One example question from each section is provided below and the full version of the interview guide can be found in Appendix 1:

- **Background:** How common was English back in your home country?
- **Current status:** How much time in a week do you spend studying Norwegian?
- **Future:** What are your plans for the future, after finishing the NOMSA course?

All of the questions, except for those investigating students’ language proficiency, were open-ended and the interviewees were free to elaborate within the framework of the interview. But the questions on language proficiency were followed by choices from 1 to 5 (Likert scale), in order to help the students express their level more easily. An example of an open-ended question and a multiple choice question follows.

- **Open-ended:** What is the nationality of your close friends? Please focus on the language you use in your communications.
- **Multiple choices:** How do you assess your speaking ability in English?
  1) Very good       2) Good       3) Middle       4) Poor       5) Very poor

The questions were piloted with a friend who had attended the NOMSA program last year and had experienced the same situation of learning Norwegian, using English both as the medium of instruction and an option for the communication outside the classroom. Consequently, the following two questions were added to the interview guide:

- Why did you choose to study in Norway?
- Do you work? If yes, which language do you use at work?

On average, each interview lasted for 41 minutes, ranging from 24 to 58 minutes. On total, 286 minutes of interviews were done with the 10 students and 2 teachers of the NOMSA program.

The teacher interview guide consisted of 10 questions, which focused on the teachers’ background information, classroom processes and tasks, the students’ motivational traits and behaviors, and the language choice for classroom interactions and activities. The interviews were conducted in the two final weeks of the first semester in November 2013. The location of the interviews was in one of the language laboratories at the Department of Humanities at UiS. A digital voice recorder and an mp3 recorder were used to record the interviews, while at the same time the researcher took notes on some parts which were of interest or significance to her.
3.5. Data analysis

As for the analysis of the data in the present qualitative research, transcriptions were done for the recorded interviews and the students’ answers were analyzed according to the Socio-educational model of motivation by Gardner (1985). Different components of motivation and also their orientations towards motivation, as being instrumental and/or integrative, as identified by Gardner, were sought for in the answers students provided.

There are features in the Socio-educational model which render it to be the selected framework for the current study. The first feature has been considered a disadvantage of the socio-educational model in 1990s and led to the new wave of studies, is considered suitable for the present research. While the Socio-educational model and the AMTB used for the evaluation of the learners contain an educational dimension and assess several education-related items, the model was perceived as focusing on the general motivational components in the social milieu. The researchers believed the model should have been focusing more on the motivational items in the foreign language classroom (Dornyei, 1994:273). Since one of the focuses of the present research is to investigate the role of motivation in the NOMSA students’ choice of language for out of class interactions, the consideration of the students’ motivation out of the classroom and in the society led to the appropriateness of the model for the current study.

The other aspect fitting Gardner’s model for the current study is its identification of integrative and instrumental orientations. Due to the nature of NOMSA program, the students might be occupied with either or both of the orientations and obtaining information about this issue will make the findings of the research beneficial in assisting students with their language learning.

The data will be presented in the form of summaries and to keep the information anonymous, letters were used instead of students’ real names, for example ‘A’ instead of ‘Peter’. Finally, considering the major and recurring issues in the students’ various experiences, some conclusions were made (MacKey and Gass, 2005:179).

3.6. Trustworthiness

In the following section, aspects in the present research which make it accordable to trustworthiness criteria are clarified. In spite of the fact that semi-structured interviews are time-
consuming and involve elaboration on the part of interviewees, their utilization ensured the researcher and the probable readers that the established method in motivational studies was used. The second factor leading to the credibility of the present research is the ‘random sampling’. Though not completely random, through choosing 10 students out of 13 randomly, the researcher provided the assurance in the following issues: the subjects were typical samples of the same larger group (Bouma and Atkinson in Shenton, 2004:65), unknown influences, such as individual different features which were not directly addressable and observable were equally distributed (Preece in Shenton, 2004:65), no favoritism was exerted from the part of the researcher in the selection of subjects, and attention was paid to the similarities and dissimilarities among the members of a group (Shenton, 2004:65). The fact that it was the researcher herself who did the topic presentation, data collection (interviews), and data analysis was another aspect which led to the credibility of the present research as well.

Moreover, according to Basit (2010:69-70) reliability criteria in the case of qualitative researches are also different from quantitative studies. He argues that for a quantitative research to be reliable, it should be duplicable in another setting and leads to the same results. On the contrary, a reliable qualitative research is the one which is “unique and particular to a setting”. He also admits the influence of researchers on a qualitative research, through pointing to the fact that a similar research, done in a similar setting, but by two different researchers might “yield different data and findings, which may still be reliable because they will interpret the data and report their findings in their own unique and idiosyncratic ways” (Basit, 2010:70).

The students’ voluntary engagement in the study and also the opportunity to withdraw at any time secured their honesty in the answers. The results from the present qualitative research are according to MacKey and Gass (2005:180) “rarely directly transferrable from one context to another”. This is because qualitative studies involve a few participants and are done in a specific context with its unique features. However, Stake (1994) and Denscombe (1998)(in Shenton, 2004:69) suggest that apart from the uniqueness of a qualitative research, the results could be indicators of the situation in larger groups and thus transferrable. The point that is of significance for the researchers in rendering a qualitative study confirmable is the sufficient and in depth description of context and methodologies of study (Shenton, 2004:73; MacKey and Gass,2005: 180). The required information was provided in the chapter one and three of the present research and led to transferability and confirmability of the current research.
3.7. Ethical issues

The current study involved some ethical issues, which are to be explained in this section. Like any other qualitative research which was conducted with people, ethics act as an assurance for considering ethical issues about participants. Before starting the current study, the researcher applied for the approval from the Norwegian Social Science Data Services (NSD) and received it in approximately two weeks. In the NSD application, the researcher explained all the details involved in the study, including the title, the participants, the procedure, approach and methodology. In addition, she promised to keep the data confidential and delete them after finishing the study.

Before conducting the data collection, the research topic was presented in one of NOMSA class sessions. After informing the students about the aims and procedures of the research, volunteers to take part in the study were identified. This way, they were assured that there was neither any obligation for them to join the study, nor there would be any harm to their privacy. The contact information which was collected from the volunteers, acted as a form of written consent and they were also told that they could withdraw from the study, at any point they wished to. As a commitment to the rules of confidentiality during the data analysis, the names of the participants were not referred to and single letters were used to distinguish different subjects.

In the case of NOMSA teachers, their emails were collected from the university email group and emails were sent to inform them about the objectives and procedures of the current thesis. Their consent to take part in the study and permission to present the topic in one of the class sessions was obtained through emails. All the aforesaid measures were taken to comply with the ethical rules of qualitative research.

3.8. Summary

The present study is a qualitative type of research which aimed to investigate two elements in the development of the Norwegian language among NOMSA students at UiS: the role of motivation in their choice of language for the exposures outside the classroom, and the role of English as the lingua franca. Similar to other research, the current study also bears its own unique features and conditions, which were referred to in detail in this chapter. The reasons for choosing one specific approach, method and group of participants rather than any other, were provided in chapter three.
Gardner’s socio-educational model was also pointed to as an instrument in the data analysis. In addition, issues pertaining to the study’s ethics and trustworthiness were clarified in the related sections. The steps taken by the researcher for each single stage of the present research were also discussed so that the reader can easily keep track of the procedures.
Chapter Four:
Results

4.1. Introduction

In this chapter the summaries of the interviews with the students and teachers will be provided. The researcher transcribed the recordings from the interviews and to keep the information anonymous, letters were used to refer to each student or teacher, instead of their real names. Each student’s answers are presented in a separate section, in a continuous script, rather than a question to question pattern. While the results written in this chapter are mostly paraphrases by the researcher, at some points the exact wordings of the interviewees are quoted. It has to be noted that the length of the transcriptions might differ from person to person, since some interviewees tended to elaborate more on the issues inquired, and some were less informative. The findings of the present research will be presented in two separate sections, as of interviews with the students and interviews with the teachers.

4.2. Student interview summaries

4.2.1. Student A

Student A was a 27-year-old male and came from Palestine. At the time of the interview he had been in Norway for 7 months. His aim for coming here was to get a good job and he had the plan to start from learning the Norwegian language. Thus, before the start of the NOMSA program in August, he was preparing for the course for about 3 months. He attended the Norwegian language classes at a language learning center and had finished A1 level. During that period, he used English for his interactions in daily life. In Palestine, he got a Bachelors degree in Computer Engineering and the language of instruction for the program was English.

Student A noted that though Palestinians have Arabic as their mother tongue, people speak quite good English in Palestine. He believed this to be the result of extended English teaching from the 1st to the 12th grade, and afterwards, depending on the subject of one’s studies at the university, one might have further opportunities to learn English (like Student A himself).
Nonetheless, he admitted that using English is not common among ordinary people and for daily life in Palestine; rather the English language is used more in the contexts of higher education and international business. He mentioned that he could speak almost 4 languages: Arabic, Hebrew, English and some Norwegian. He was single and said he had no girlfriend or partner to be in close contact with. The only foreign country he had visited before coming to Norway was Egypt. He went there several times as a tourist and used the Arabic language for communication during his trips.

He had taken the TOEFL test in the past, but not as an application requirement for the NOMSA program. He was exempted from providing English test scores, because he had worked at the United Nations for 2 years, using the English language. Regarding his English proficiency, student A assessed himself as ranking 5 (very good) in listening and 4 (good) in speaking. As for his proficiency in the Norwegian language, he estimated himself as scoring 3 (intermediate) in the listening skill and 2 (poor) in the speaking skill.

Focusing on his contacts, he admitted that his friends were mostly Palestinian, using Arabic to communicate. Student A lived in a home which was shared with two other Palestinians and their interactions were in Arabic, as well. He had a part-time job in a supermarket, dealing with the voice system. He stated that he used Norwegian at work, but also noted that the Norwegian he used at work was a limited version, since there were some limited words included in the voice commands he receives. Totally, including his working hours, he spent 15 hours per week with native speakers of Norwegian and mentioned that the Norwegian people preferred to talk in English with a foreigner. The time he allotted to studying Norwegian, apart from the classroom sessions, was 6 hours in a week. There was no specific learning strategy which he used; he stated he just did the homework using a Norwegian to English dictionary.

When student A went shopping, he preferred to use the Norwegian language, as long as he could convey his intention. However, if he did not know a word in Norwegian, he would switch to English. For the TV programs, he preferred to watch the ones in Arabic language, but sometimes he also watched English speaking channels. The same was true about the music he listened to, both Arabic and English. He used both English and Norwegian when communicating with other students on the campus.

In the future and after finishing the NOMSA program, he intends to study in the Master Program in Computer Engineering, taught in English. Student A is looking forward to getting a good job after finishing his studies and stay in Norway. Yet, if he cannot pass the final exam for
the NOMSA program, he will go back to the language learning school and continue his learning of the Norwegian language, and then proceed with the rest of his plans.

4.2.2. Student B

Student B was a Spanish male, who had a Bachelor degree in Tourism Management from Spain. The program was taught in the Spanish language, Student B’s mother tongue. Also, he had a Masters degree in Tourism Management from UiS, Norway, which was taught in English. He was 31 and had no close partner or girlfriend. At the time of the interview, it had been two and a half years that he was staying in Norway. First, he came here on an exchange program, for a period of six months. The Spanish students had the option to choose among 8-9 countries to go to for a semester and student B chose Norway, mainly because its people speak good English and it is a nice place. Then he had to be back to Spain to finish his Bachelors program and afterwards applied for the Masters program in tourism management at UiS. He came back to Norway again and studied for two years in the Masters program. He stated that he could speak four languages: Spanish, Catalan, English, French.

Before the start of the NOMSA program in August, when he was studying for the Masters in Tourism Management, he used English as the main language for his daily life communication. However, he also added that after spending some months in Norway and having attended the Norwegian language courses at UiS\(^1\), he made efforts to speak some Norwegian with Norwegian people. The other opportunity he used for learning Norwegian was the classes from the Red Cross, in which conversation groups were formed to practice speaking in Norwegian. He stated that he attended those classes sometimes, but not regularly.

Regarding the level of English in the Spanish community, he stated that it was very poor. He believed this issue to be the result of too much emphasis on grammar and writing, and not on speaking. In Spain, he said, English is not used even in the context of higher education and business, let alone the daily life. In the case of student B himself, he used it while working in hotels as summer jobs. There, he dealt with tourists who preferred to use English and it was an opportunity for him to practice English.

\(^1\) It has to be noted that UiS provides two semesters of Norwegian language learning for all the international students, which are free and optional.
Student B stays in one of the university dormitories, where he has friends from different linguistic backgrounds. As a general classification, he said that he used Spanish or Catalan with Spanish friends and English with other international students. But with his classmates for the NOMSA program, he spoke in Norwegian. Out of the dormitory and university, he also had some Norwegian friends to whom he tried to speak in Norwegian, but sometimes he felt the need to switch to English. Student B stated that he spent up to 5 hours per day with native speakers of Norwegian, which means approximately 35 hours per week.

When I asked him whether he had provided TOEFL or IELTS scores for his application for NOMSA, he rejected. Student B said because he had been a Master student at UiS previously and had provided a TOEFL score then, the university was not so strict about the issue. He had forgotten his score for the rather old TOEFL he had taken. He scored his ability in English listening as being 5 (very good) and speaking as 4 (good), and for the Norwegian language he estimated his listening ability as being 3 and the speaking ability as 2 (poor). He also mentioned that he studied Norwegian for 2 hours at home every day, and when I asked for any specific learning strategy that he might use, he pointed to repetitions and using visual aids; he used images to remember different words.

As a language learner, he had different language choices for various occasions. When Student B went shopping, he surely used Norwegian. About the TV programs, he added that he normally watches channels and programs in English, but sometimes if he intentionally wants to practice Norwegian, he switches to Norwegian speaking ones. His preferences in music were Spanish and English, rather than the Norwegian ones. While on the campus and out of the classroom, student B said he started with speaking Norwegian, but then as a “natural” process he shifted to English.

Regarding his future plans, he intended to study in the Business and Administration Bachelors program, which was taught in Norwegian, either in the University of Stavanger or Oslo. He saw no other option for himself other than passing the final exam for the NOMSA program. After completing his studies, he mentioned that he will stay in Norway.

4.2.3. Student C

Student C was a 24-year-old female from Bulgaria. She had a Bachelor in International Economic Relations from Bulgaria which was taught in the local language, Bulgarian. She had a Lithuanian
boyfriend to whom she spoke in English, but since he knew the same level of Norwegian, sometimes they chose to talk or text in Norwegian. She started her trips to Norway from 2006, when her sister first came to Norway. Her sister has married a Norwegian man and they have a kid. Student C stated that from 2006 (5 years ago) she came to Norway one or two times per year to visit her sister and take care of her nephew and each of her visits lasted from minimum 10 days to maximum 3 months. Her main intention in choosing Norway was to live was her sister, and knowing that the first step was to learn the language, she started from NOMSA.

Student C pointed to the low level of English in the Bulgarian society, admitting that at the university level, there were some English courses, which were not obligatory. She was exempted from providing English test scores, because she had had English lessons at school for 7 years. In her previous visits to Norway, she used English language for daily communication. She had not been to any other country other than Norway and she had not attended any other Norwegian language courses before NOMSA.

When I wanted her to assess her ability in English listening skill, she assessed herself as good (4) and for English speaking, she believed herself to be at the intermediate level (3). Student C attributed this to some problems with the grammatical aspect of the English language while speaking in English. Inquiring the same information about the Norwegian language, she ranked herself between intermediate (3) and poor (2) for the listening skill, and believed the difference to exist because of different dialect in the Norwegian language. Considering the speaking skill, she scored herself higher, 2 or 1 (good or very good).

Telling me about her friends and their nationalities, she said that she spent most of her time with some Russian friends, speaking the Russian language. Due to the similarity of the Russian and Bulgarian languages, she could easily use her mother tongue in her communications with them. She lived in the dormitory, but admitted that there were no Norwegian students there, and among the rest, she preferred to be with Russian students. At the time of interviews, she worked as a waitress and she used English for her job. The only Norwegian NSs she interacted with were her sister’s husband and her sister’s friends. Her Norwegian interactions were limited to 8-10 hours per week, and most of the time it was Student C who wanted to switch to English. In a week, she spent an average of 12 hours studying Norwegian and her specific strategy was to learn words through practicing them in sentences.

Student C mentioned the different languages she used on different occasions. When she went shopping, she started with Norwegian, but soon she needed to switch to English. In the case
of the movies she watched, she said she preferred watching movies in Bulgarian on the internet, but added that there was one Norwegian TV show which she tried to watch, but she could not, “it is very hard” she said. While on the campus, she admitted using English with other students and as for the music she listened to, she favored mostly English and sometimes maybe Norwegian.

Thinking about her future, student C said she had decided to study in the Master program for Tourist Management, for which the language of instruction would be English. She was planning to take more chances for passing the final NOMSA exam, if she could not pass it in the first round, but if it could not happen at all, she said she would continue with her Master anyway, since that was taught in English. At this point, she emphasized that she had chosen NOMSA because she has decided to live in Norway and needed to know the language anyway. Also, she explained that attending the NOMSA program was both cheaper and easier than passing the Bergen test, as a qualification in the Norwegian language.

4.2.4. Student D

The next interviewee was a 25-year-old Belarusian girl. She knew the Russian language as her mother tongue and added that she could speak Belarusian and English as well. She had a Bachelor in Economy from her country which was taught in the Russian language. She was single and had a Norwegian boyfriend, with whom she communicated in English. She stated that in Belarus, they had compulsory English courses at public schools for 10 years; this is while there are also some schools which are specialized in English. She added that they also had 2 years of obligatory English at the universities, nonetheless, in the course of daily life and among ordinary people English is not common at all. However, with the spread of English and the overall interest among young people to know English, nowadays, if the youth were asked something in English, she believed they could answer. She attributed the low level of English in the Belarusian society first to the great focus on the English grammar and second to the bad pronunciation of Belarusian teachers.

Though she has been in Norway only from the start of the NOMSA program in August, she had a rich experience of staying abroad as a student. On an exchange program, she had the opportunity to go to the U.S.A. for a summer job for two consecutive years. In the first year she went to the East Coast, and in the second year she stayed in the West Coast. The whole period she could stay in the U.S. was 3 months each year, 2 months to work in a summer job and 1
month just to stay there and experience the society. So, totally she stayed in the U.S. for 6 months. While she accepted her low level of English when first entering the English speaking community of America, she noticed her improvement in the English language during the first 2 or 3 weeks of her stay. She had also visited some European countries, including the Czech Republic as a tourist and mentioned using the English language on her trips.

Student D’s reasons for coming to Norway included her boyfriend (whom she knew before coming here) and the opportunity to have free education. She had chosen to be in the NOMSA program, because she thought “it was good to know a second language”. She believed her listening skill in English to be good (4), but her speaking skill to be very good (5). When assessing the same skills in the Norwegian language, she rated her listening ability as 1 (very poor), and noted that she could only understand a little of the Bokmål dialect, which was limited to her classroom and not applicable outside the classroom. She ranked her speaking ability in Norwegian as 2 (poor). When applying for the NOMSA program, she provided TOEFL score of 94.

Student D lived in the dormitory, and complained about the lack of Norwegian students in the dorm. Now her friends were mostly other international students, with whom she communicated in English. But she admitted that “if we had some Norwegian students in the dorm, I would have the opportunity to use more Norwegian”. Other than her native Norwegian boyfriend, to whom she talked in English, she spent 30 minutes per week with the native NSs of Norwegian, and usually it was her who needed to switch to the English language. She also had some friends here who had been living in Stavanger before she arrived in Norway. They worked in the oil industry and spent most of their time offshore. These were the only people she practiced some Norwegian with and asked them about the words she needed to know.

The Belarusian interviewee spent 2 hours per day (a total of 14 hours a week) to study Norwegian, which was limited to doing her homework. The particular learning strategy she made use of in learning Norwegian was writing down word lists. She had had no job in Norway till the time of interview and had not attended any other Norwegian language courses before the start of the NOMSA program.

Student D’s preferred languages for different occasions were as follows. When she went shopping, she tried to do it in Norwegian. As for the TV programs, she admitted that they had no TV sets in their dormitory. If she wanted to watch something, she would look for English movies with Norwegian subtitles on the internet. As for music she listened to music in English, and when
I continued with a curious face asking “any Norwegian music?” she replied “I have no favorite musician yet”. When on the bus she preferred to communicate in Norwegian, but if she needed more vocabulary, she switched to English.

Her plans for the future were to continue her studies in either the Master program in Business and Administration, or the Bachelor in Interior Design, both of which were taught in the Norwegian language. In the case of the Master program, she had the opportunity to study it in English, but she simply said “when I have spent a whole year learning the Norwegian language, what was its use then?”. She was not thinking about the possibility of failure in the final exam and was sure that she would pass it.

4.2.5. Student E

The next student interviewed was a 27-year-old female who was married. She came from Bangladesh and her mother tongue was Bengali. She also married to a Bengali man and the couple communicated in Bengali. She spoke Bengali, Urdu, Hindi, English and a little Greek. In Bangladesh, English is the obligatory subject from the level of nursery to Bachelor. However, there were no Master programs in English. She believed the younger generation in Bangladesh could speak good English and they like to do so, because they consider it to be prestigious. At the time of the interview she had been in Norway for 2 years and was searching for a job. But she found out that she needed to learn the local language, Norwegian, in order to find a good job. Before the start of NOMSA she used the English language for her daily communications. Then, she attended the church course for the Norwegian language, which was at the very basic level. The classes were held once a week and in every 5 learners worked with one teacher in a class, using half English and half Norwegian language.

The couple had lived in Cyprus for 4 years, but student E moved to Sweden and her husband stayed in Cyprus. She went there to study in a Bachelor program in Tourism Management, but she did not finish her studies. She only continued her studies in Sweden for 4 semesters (2 years), and quit it then. The reason was that she realized Tourism Management was not her favored subject; rather she loved to study Nursing. In Sweden, she added, they had many requirements for studying Nursing, including being a native speaker of the Swedish language and having a Science background.
Meeting none of the requirements for studying Nursing in Sweden, she decided to be in Norway, a more convenient country to follow her favorite subject. The couple moved to Norway; the wife coming from Sweden and the husband from Cyprus. At that time, she had found out that if she knew the Norwegian language, she could study in the Nursing program in Norway. When they arrived in Norway, the husband started learning the Norwegian language, and had finished learning the Norwegian language at the time of the interview. He was then studying in a Master program in Business Administration. But the interviewee was looking for a job from the time of their arrival till the start of the NOMSA program. As a general comparison, she thought that “if you know the language, the chances are higher to find a job in Norway than in Sweden”.

Living away from her home country for almost 8 years, student E had the experience of using English in her communications. While they were living in Cyprus, for a period of 4 years, she used English language for most of her communications and also learned a little Greek. Afterwards, when studying in Sweden for 2 years, she also used the English language, since it was the language of instruction for the Bachelor program she was studying. Then she came to Norway, using English for her daily communications and when applying for the NOMSA program, she was asked to provide an English proficiency test score. She took the IELTS test and scored 6. She admitted that “since I have spent so much time in foreign countries, the language of which I did not know, I had to use the English language”. On the other hand, she also emphasized that if one speaks in English, rather than the local language of a country, other people might have negative and nationalistic attitudes toward you as a foreigner, especially the elderly. Finally, she pointed to English as her preferred language to be used in her communications.

When asking her about her working experience, she mentioned that in Sweden, she used to work in a ‘money transfer office’ and used English for her job. In Norway, she was working part-time as a waitress and mostly used English at work, but she pointed that “sometimes I intentionally use some small words in Norwegian, in order to learn”. Student E assessed both her listening and speaking abilities in English as 4 (good). About the Norwegian language, both listening and speaking ranked 1 (very poor). In the case of speaking in Norwegian, she added that she might be able to produce some words or sentences, but she needed some time and “people get impatient”.

The interviewee lived in a couple’s dormitory with her husband, where they could not make so many friends, adding that “we even do not know who is living next door”. Her friends mostly consisted of people from her own country and this was not because of the language. She
believed the other nationalities did not respect Asian people and disappointedly said “it hurts me”. The only Norwegian people she knew were the husbands of her Bengali friends to whom she spoke in English, but they preferred to talk in Norwegian. She did not have any European friends at the university. She confessed that “I know I have to start speaking in Norwegian, but for now, it takes so much time for me to say something in Norwegian; so, I prefer to use English”. In fact, student E spent no time communicating in Norwegian with NSs, since she knew she had problems with pronunciation and was not able to convey her meaning to the interlocutors. She spent 1/5-2 hours per day studying Norwegian and her most-used strategy was memorization. The hardest part of learning the Norwegian language for her was grammar; since she spent most of her study time on it, but still could not use it actually. She supposed that “if you are using a language for everyday life, you don’t need to care about the grammar so much. There are certain other things to focus on”.

Focusing on her language choice for different situations, she pointed to the following. She said she has started to use Norwegian when she went shopping, but she had to switch to English mostly. About the TV programs, she added that they had no TV at the dormitory and the internet connection was too slow to watch something online, however, she sometimes watched English movies with Norwegian subtitles. She would rather listen to English music as well. After finishing the NOMSA program, student E considered two opportunities available to her, either to study in a Bachelor program in nursing, which was taught in Norwegian, or to study the Master in Business and she had not decided about its language yet. She confessed that even if she has the option to choose between the Norwegian and English languages for the Master program, she would definitely choose the English language, since Business is an international subject and English is also the language used at the international level. In case she will not pass the final exam of the NOMSA program, she decided to take the test again. However, it was possible for her to start the Master program, since she had both the Bachelor degree and the IELTS score as the requirements.

4.2.6. Student F

The next interviewee was a 29-year-old girl from Lithuania, who came to Norway one year ago, along with her boyfriend. She knew Lithuanian as her mother tongue and also good English, but admitted her Russian (learned in a private school) and Norwegian language abilities were at the
A1 level both. She had taken a Bachelor degree in Economy from her home country, which was taught in Lithuanian. At the Lithuanian schools, she declared, the teaching of English started from grade 5th and continues to grade 12, but the levels of English are different in each school. Yet, generally speaking she thought the English level which was taught at schools was enough in the Lithuanian society. She also added that English is taking over the Russian language in Lithuania; more and more businesses were run in English nowadays. She also attended a Norwegian language course in her home country for one month before she came to Norway and learned the basics Norwegian. The teaching and activities were in the Norwegian language, but if they had any problems, there would be explanations in Lithuanian. When she arrived in Norway, before the start of the NOMSA program, she practiced the Norwegian language by herself, using the book she had, because she wanted to communicate with the customers at her shop as soon as possible.

She managed a clothing shop in Lithuania, but had plans to close her shop and do some changes in her life. Thus, with the suggestions from her boyfriend and a friend who was a university professor, they chose to come to Norway. Before arriving in Norway, she started to look for a job in Stavanger and could find one like the one she had in home country. So, student F and her boyfriend moved to Stavanger one year ago, but soon her boyfriend realized that he did not like to live here and went back after a few months. She stayed here and later found a Norwegian boyfriend. In their spoken communication they used English; in fact she tried hard to speak in Norwegian, but it was not possible at the time of interview. However, their text messages were written totally in Norwegian. After finishing the 12th grade, that was 10 years ago, she had been in the U.S. for 6 months. The objective was to study there and finish her Bachelor degree, but instead she found the course more like an English language teaching course. However, she did not regret going to the U.S., because she admitted her bad feelings about her level of English when she arrived there, and the progress she made in the U.S. regarding her level of English.

Before starting her job in the shop in Lithuania, she worked in a bank and also a real estate office, for both of which she used the English language, particularly in the meetings and for the reports. Regarding her current level of English, her perception was that both of her listening and speaking skills scored 4 (good), but she acknowledged that her English was getting worse from the time she started the NOMSA program. Since the language of instruction in the classroom was English, she thought it was “tough to translate the information from English to
Lithuanian, and then from Lithuanian to Norwegian”. She had been exempted from providing English test scores, since she had spent 8 years learning English at school. She ranked her listening skill in the Norwegian language to be 2 and her speaking ability as 2 or 3.

Student F lived in a home with 4 colleagues who were all Lithuanian and they interacted using their mother tongue. Two of her home mates could produce some sentences in Norwegian, but the two others could not. She explained that she tried to switch to English in their talks, but they refused to do so. Her friends were limited to her classmates, with whom she spoke in English at the time, but admitted that they are gradually shifting to Norwegian. At work, she mostly used Norwegian with the customers who were NSs themselves; this occurred 5 hours per day. When I asked her about the amount of time she spent studying Norwegian, she answered usually between 2 to 3 hours per day, and emphasized that she also spent some time reading newspapers and watching TV programs in Norwegian. Student F’s choice of language for different communication occasions are provided beneath. When she went shopping, she was able to do it in Norwegian and also, she preferred the Norwegian language about the TV programs. While on the campus, she used English with other students and staff and for the music she would choose the English ones.

The future plan for student F was to continue her studies in Master degree in Economy, using the Norwegian language. She was sure that she would pass the final exam and never thought about failing. She had decided to stay in Norway, since she loved the country.

4.2.7. Student G

A 21-year-old Serbian girl was the next interviewee. Her mother tongue was Serbian and she could speak Serbian, English and a little Russian. She had a Serbian boyfriend and they communicate in Serbian. She had finished her high school and then came to live in Norway with the whole family. Due to the economic crisis in Serbia, the family planned to come to Norway and the first one to come was the mother, who came 2 years ago. Then, the next year all the other family members came to Norway. Now, she stated that her mother was perfect in the Norwegian language, her brother and sister were also good, but it was still hard for the father to use the language.

Last year before residing in Norway, she came here once, for 2 months as a volleyball player. She liked the country then and applied for the university. Now she plays volleyball here in
a team and the majority of the other volleyball players are Norwegian, with whom she tried to speak in Norwegian and if she had any problems she would switch to English. Student G lives with her family, and admits that “though I still do not know enough Norwegian, I try to use the language with the other family members who are more fluent”. Particularly, she points to the influential role her mother plays in her learning of Norwegian.

She had been taught English at school for 9 years (as normal in the Serbian schools, which have English as a foreign language), but then she stated that there was no use of English in the society. She has never been to any other foreign country as a place to use English, but now she confessed that there is one Canadian girl in her volleyball team and student G had the opportunity to practice English with her. Student G was exempted from providing English test scores to be admitted to NOMSA, due to her 9 years of English learning at school. Though she admitted that it was hard for her to assess her own language proficiencies, she scored both her listening and speaking abilities in the English language as 5 (very good) and regarding her Norwegian, the listening skill was stated to be 3, noticing that she could understand everything in the classroom, and her speaking was assessed as 3 as well.

Regarding her practice with the Norwegian language, she admitted that she intentionally tried to mix with the Norwegian team-mates and communicated with them in Norwegian, but sometimes she needed to switch to English. Totally she spent 7 hours with the NSs of Norwegian and 15 hours studying Norwegian at home. The specific strategies she used were listening and concentrating, and practicing the words in sentences. Before coming to Norway she had not attended any other courses for learning Norwegian, but she did some self-study and chatted with her mother on Skype to practice some Norwegian. She confessed that she had no job at the interview time.

When student G went shopping, she had no problems in using Norwegian, but as for the TV programs, she chose to watch the English ones. In this part of the interview, she pointed to the problem of translating between different languages for a language learner. She mentioned the problem in the case of watching a movie in English which has Norwegian subtitles. She said she first had to listen to English words, translate them to the Serbian language and then adjust it to the Norwegian equivalents which appeared in the subtitles, and commented on the whole process as being confusing and time-consuming. While she used half English and half Norwegian when communicating with other students on the campus, she would rather listen to English music. For her future, she had plans to continue her studies in the Bachelor program in Petroleum
Engineering and stay in Norway. She believed it was impossible for her to fail the final NOMSA exam.

4.2.8. Student H

Student H was a 22-year-old female from Vietnam. She had Vietnamese as her mother tongue, and knew English and a little bit of German languages. She had attended the Bachelor program in Tourism Management in Vietnam, only for 2 years and as a requirement for applying for the NOMSA program. All the subjects in that Bachelor program had been in English, and she attributed this to the nature of the program which dealt with an international issue: tourism. She had a Vietnamese boyfriend, who was born and grown up in Germany, and they communicated in English. However, she had succeeded in teaching him a little Vietnamese, so that they could talk in Vietnamese.

In Vietnam, teaching of English starts as an obligatory subject from the 6th grade, she stated; but student H had attended English learning courses from the 1st grade. She admitted that due to the low quality of English teaching at schools, people usually pay and go to private classes. At the high school level, she declared that she had been admitted to the school for the gifted student, where they had a high focus on the English language. As a useful way to practice English, she pointed to the different student clubs she joined, including the drama club and the music club. Then, to apply for the NOMSA program, she took the TOEFL test and scored 92. In the Vietnamese society, and in the course of daily life, the use of English was not common previously; yet, nowadays with the increasing number of foreign companies, she confessed that knowing English has become obligatory in most of the job interviews.

After finishing high school, she moved to Norway, because she had some relatives here. She worked in Norway as an au pair for 2 years and she took care of Norwegian kids. She was able to use few Norwegian words with children, but the parents, knowing that she was a foreigner, interacted in English with her. The Norwegian families, whose children she took care of, sent her to the Norwegian language courses for two months. At that course, they studied the first few chapters of the same book they studied in the NOMSA program (På Vei). She explained that since most of her classmates were foreign women married to Norwegian men and knew no English, the instructions in the classroom were in easy Norwegian.
While she was au pairing, she learned about the opportunity of free studies here in Norway and decided to apply for the Norwegian language and culture program. To meet the requirements, she went back to Vietnam and studied in Tourism management for 2 years and then returned here again. Student H scored her listening skill in English as 5 and her speaking skill as 4, and she attributed the difference to the different amount of focus the two skills had on grammar; she believed the speaking skill require more proficiency in the grammatical aspect of the language. Regarding the Norwegian language, she ranked herself as 3 in the listening skills and 2 in speaking skills. She expressed that she was more proficient in writing, and knew herself a shy person who was poor in face to face communications.

Telling me about her friends, she pointed that she has no Vietnamese friends here and her friends were limited to international friends at the university with whom she interacted in English. She attended the university choir and all of the other students at the choir were Norwegian, but she talked to them in English all the 6 hours she spent there per week. Again, she reminded that her writings (messages, notes, mails) were in Norwegian mostly. As for the place of her stay, she stated that she was staying with her uncle’s family and they used the Vietnamese language at home. The Vietnamese girl also worked in a Vietnamese restaurant 12 hours per week and communicated with the customers in Norwegian. While mentioning that she spent 10 hours studying Norwegian at home, she added that she preferred to stay in the library for her studies. As her specific learning strategy, she explained that she first read the text, and when facing new words or structures, she wrote them down and tried to focus on learning them.

When student H went shopping, she used Norwegian rather easily, but for watching TV programs she preferred the English language. She also confessed that she would choose English movies with Norwegian subtitles, but she said she was not still “confident enough to listen to the movie in full Norwegian”. On the campus, her choice of language was dependent upon whom she was communicating with; in the case of other students, she used English, but for the university staff, she chose the Norwegian language. The music she listened to was also in English.

She had been admitted to continue her studies in the Tourism management Bachelor program, which she intended to change to Linguistics; both of the programs were taught in Norwegian. She was confident that she would pass the final exam of the NOMSA program, but if she could not she had plans to go back to Vietnam, because she had saved her studies there and could continue her studies.
4.2.9. Student I

Student I was a 20-year-old Ukrainian girl. While she mentioned Ukrainian as her mother tongue, she added that she spoke Russian most of the time, adding that all her family and most parts of Ukraine (as a part of the Soviet Union) used the Russian language in their communications. She had studied for Bachelor in Mathematics for 3 years in Ukraine and then came to Norway, since she always wished to spend some time studying abroad and get a European diploma. The other reason for Student I to be in Norway was that “there was no working future in Ukraine” and she thought it was easier for her to find a job in Norway. Her mother had come to Norway 3 years ago and married to a Norwegian man. At the time of interview she was single and had no boyfriend.

Her incentive for attending the NOMSA program was that she had plans to live and study in Norway for a long period of time, and believed that for people like her the primary necessity is to learn the language of the host country. NOMSA, she stated, was the best option for a student to learn the Norwegian language. She claimed the English language was not so common in the Ukrainian society and that only the younger generation were able to communicate in English. Student I acknowledged that the English taught at Ukrainian schools was at the lowest level and she had attended private English classes for 13 years. Though in the past she could not understand why she was attending English classes for such a long period, she said “now I understand the value of those classes”. She was also among the students who were exempted from providing English test scores, due to 11 years of studying English at school and one year at the university.

She had been in Norway for visits earlier and she only used English in her communications. Yet, at the interview time it was 5 months that she had been staying here permanently. She added that she used to help children with English for 3 years, when in Ukraine. At the time of interview, she lived with her mother and stepfather and explained that they used Norwegian to interact with each other. She accepted that her mother speaks good Norwegian and student I also spent 8 hours per day with her stepdad (as an NS), trying to practice Norwegian. Her friends were a combination of both Russian and international friends; with the former she used the Russian language, and interaction with the latter group was in English. She estimated her level in the listening skill of the English language to be 3, and the speaking as 4. However, as expected, she had lower results in Norwegian, assessing herself as scoring 2 in the listening skill.
and 3 in the speaking skill. She stated herself as studying 10 to 15 hours per week, and her specific learning strategy was practicing the new words or tenses in speech. Student I worked in a hotel and used English while at work.

Similar to the other interviewees, student I had different language choices for different situations. Going shopping, she would rather use the Norwegian language; the same was true about her choice when watching TV. The music she listened to was in Russian and when on the campus, she preferred to use the English language with others. Regarding her future plans, she mentioned that she would study in the Bachelor program for Mathematics and Physics which is taught in Norwegian, and would definitely stay in Norway. She expressed certainty in passing the final NOMSA exam and when I asked her about any other plans if she failed the exam, she replied “why should I fail?”.

4.2.10. Student J

The last student interviewee was a 20-year-old Polish girl, who was born in the U.S.A. She had lived in the U.S. for 10 years from her birth date, then she had moved to Poland with her family and lived there for 9 years and then came to Norway 14 months ago. She could speak 3 languages: English, Polish and German (mentioned that she had good grades in German). She told the story about her development of the English language when she was a kid. Before going to the preschool she only used the Polish language at home, with her parents. But when she started preschool, she realized that nobody understood her. She continued “I remained silent for 2 weeks and suddenly I started to speak fluent English”. Then, after spending 9 years in Poland, she said she had forgotten everything about the English language, but when she arrived in Norway, she said “I noticed that I had to use it again and started to gradually remember English”.

Student J mentioned that the family moved to Norway as a decision made by her father, due to the economic crisis in Poland. The father came to Norway 3 years ago, the mother 2 years ago, and student J along with her sister 14 months ago; the sister was waiting for her to finish high school. She explained that her dad simply did not want to learn the Norwegian language, her mother went to a Norwegian class, but she was shy to talk, and her sister was attending the Norwegian language course for 1 year then and was quite good at Norwegian. Student J was single and had no boyfriend, but added that her best friend’s boyfriend was Norwegian and 3 of them spent most of the time together. While their communications were mostly in English, she
sometimes tried to use some Norwegian with them; the others could understand her, but she had problems understanding the Stavanger dialect.

Back in Poland, she stated that children learnt English from elementary school, but since the focus was on essay writing, the speaking skill as the skill used in daily life was not practiced. She stated that English was not common in the Polish society. In her case, she did not have to provide English test scores, because she had had 7 years of English learning at school and had spent at least 1 year in the U.S. At the time of the interview, she assessed her ability in the English language, both in listening and speaking skills as 5. However, in the case of Norwegian, she estimated her listening skill as scoring 4, if their teacher spoke in the classroom, and 2, if she faced someone speaking in a dialect other than Bokmål. As for the speaking skill in Norwegian she scored herself as 3.

She had Polish friends with whom she talked in Polish language, and also Norwegian friends with whom she used either English or Norwegian. But she admitted her best friend to be a Polish girl and she used the Polish language to talk to her friend. At home also, the family communicated in Polish, but student J sometimes switched to Norwegian to talk with her sister, in order to practice. She explained that she spent 10 hours per week with Norwegian NSs, and when I asked her that who usually wanted to switch to English? She replied “if they notice that I do not understand them, they switch to English, and if I feel out of words, I decide to switch to English”. Explaining that she worked in a cleaning company, she said mostly she preferred to use the English language, because she was shy. Then she remembered an old Norwegian lady for whom student J cleaned the house. Student J added that she was very talkative and only used Norwegian.

Student J spent 8 hours studying Norwegian per week and her specific strategy was to relate the Norwegian words to their equivalents in one of the languages she already knows. In this regard, she added that “if I did not know English, learning Norwegian would have been a tragedy for me”. She stated that when she went shopping she still preferred to use English, especially when she needed to say what she needed exactly. She did not watch TV so often; rather she was used to watching things on her laptop and in Polish. On the campus, she explained that her language choice was dependent upon the individual she communicated with, but mostly the English language was used. The music she listened to could be English, Polish or Norwegian.

After finishing the NOMSA program, she had plans to continue her studies in the Bachelor program for English language and literature, which was taught in Norwegian. She
decided to study for Master and PhD afterwards. She liked to be a journalist, but admitted that only native Norwegians had the opportunity to attend the program. She was among the few students who had considered failing the final exam, and said she would try again, and if not possible at all, she would take the Bergen test instead.

The summaries provided in this section included NOMSA students’ various background experiences; linguistic or social, communication patterns, different objectives, and future plans were observed. In the next section, summaries from the interviews with two of the teachers for group 2 will be presented.

4.3. Teacher interview summaries

In the following section, the interview summaries from two of the teachers for the NOMSA program will be provided. While they were asked about different focuses in the class sessions, the main focus was to investigate how they dealt with the issues of ELF and motivation in their classes. Similar to the students, there were differences in the amounts of explanation each of the teachers provided.

4.3.1. Teacher A

The first teacher interviewee was a female aged 54. She was a native speaker of Norwegian and held an old ‘Hovedfag’ degree (an old version of Masters Degree which lasted for 7 years she explained) in ‘Germanistic’. She had been teaching the German linguistics and also the German Business and Tourism Language to the Norwegian students for 22 years at UiS. Then after such a long period, those programs were no more offered at the University of Stavanger. Thus, she decided to switch to teaching the Norwegian language and attended ‘Norwegian as a Second Language’ course for 1 year in 2011 and at the time of the interview, it was 3 years that she was teaching in the NOMSA program. She taught the ‘På Vei’ book in the classroom and also devised tasks for the students’ self-study hours. She had 6 hours of teaching with group 2, plus 3 hours of self-study for which she was not present. What she provided for the students was a mixture of vocabulary, grammar, written and oral exercises, both for her class hours and the students’ self-study hours. She admitted that she emphasized communication and activity among students.
Teacher A explained that at the beginning of the program, English was used for the teaching. Gradually she would start to use the Norwegian language as well; she explained and wrote on the board both in English and Norwegian. From the start, she always reminded the students that they were going to use solely the Norwegian language from the October 1st. However, she added that it might not be possible to set an exact and strict deadline for stopping the usage of English and she mainly used the date to push the students to switch to Norwegian as soon as possible. The teacher admitted that “since the students come from different nationalities and study backgrounds, they are interested in knowing each other, and thus use English mostly”. As an encouragement, she always reminded the students that nobody expected them to speak perfect Norwegian, and asked them to make efforts to use the Norwegian language. Then she pointed to the student life and that the students needed to work to earn some money. At work the students mostly used English, first because they still did not know enough Norwegian, and secondly because the use of English was common in the Norwegian society. At this point of the interview she pointed to the English language as a problem. Considering the fact that workplace for the student jobs in Stavanger mostly meant supermarkets, restaurants, bars, and hotels, it could be an opportunity to interact with NSs or even practice with NNSs.

She pointed to the features of motivated students in her classroom and said “they work a lot, study hard, submit the tasks on time, and ask for a second correction on a piece of writing”. Teacher A stated that she always encouraged the students to join student clubs and sports club to meet the Norwegian students and communicate with them. When I asked Teacher A about her reaction in case a student asked something in English, she answered “I will stop him and ask him to try to say it in Norwegian; my answer is in Norwegian anyway”. When trying to talk to the teacher, the students were allowed to get help from the student sitting next to them. She pointed that “the amount of help a student might get from English, depends upon himself, but if it continues for a long time, it will be counter-productive”. She mentioned herself as always emphasizing one principle in the classroom, which was “if you work hard, I will work hard; that is if you show motivation, I will work more”. The students themselves must be motivated to use opportunities to learn Norwegian, rather than abusing their chances with using English, she believed. She added that Stavanger dialect, as different from the Bokmål dialect which is used in the classroom, would be introduced to the student from January.
4.3.2. Teacher B

Teacher B was a 51-year-old male, also a native speaker of Norwegian. He was responsible for helping the students in the computer room. He explained that his background studies were Master of Arts in Foreign Language Teaching and added that he has been teaching in the NOMSA program for 3 years, at the interview time. He emphasized that their main focus at the computer room to be on the grammatical points of the Norwegian language. He also admitted that the language used in the first 3 or 4 weeks of the program was English, but from October they would switch to Norwegian. Asking him about his language choice when students asked questions in English, he replied “I would always answer in Norwegian, because I believe they understand more than they can speak”.

Teacher B emphasized one characteristic of unmotivated students in his classroom and that was their use of languages other than Norwegian. He believed students who choose to communicate to each other in their L1 (if they have a common one) or English (as a common language among NOMSA student) were the unmotivated language learners. Stating the same procedures for the placement of students in different groups, as teacher A did, he pointed to the fact that if the students failed the final exam, they had the opportunity to take the exam two more times. He continued by saying that after three unsuccessful attempts, the students can go for the Bergen test. However, the fact was that without passing either the final NOMSA exam or Bergen test, they would not have the opportunity to continue their studies in programs which were taught in Norwegian.

4.4. Summary

In order to conduct the current research, there was a need to access NOMSA students’ and teachers’ individual experiences regarding the learning of Norwegian. Thus, applying qualitative interviews and with the use of interview guides, the researcher tried to shed light on the following issues: students’ motivation in learning the Norwegian language, their use of English as the lingua franca, and their language choice for the out-of-class exposures. The needed and relevant information was obtained and Chapter four was the presentation of the data collected during the interviews, in the form of summaries. The summaries were provided in two different sections for
students and teachers. In the next chapter, the results presented in this chapter will be analyzed based on the previous researches and the Socio-educational model.
Chapter Five:
Discussion

5.1. Introduction

Motivation and ELF have been recognized as being among the significant and influential elements in learning a foreign language in an SA program. Particularly, in contexts such as NOMSA, where there is a great deal of cultural and linguistic diversity among the students, the role of motivational features and English as the common language became more highlighted. The present research aimed to shed light on different motivations among NOMSA students, their use of English as the language of communication, and their choice of language for out of class interactions as an indicator of their motivation. To this aim, the students’ individual experiences regarding their language use and motivational features were focused on. The teachers of the specific target group of the current study were also interviewed about the students’ learning behaviors and language use in the classroom.

The data were collected through the application of qualitative interviews and presented in the previous chapter in the form of summaries. Though each student had his/her unique experiences in the past, specific concerns at the present time, and particular future plans, some common patterns might be observed. In this chapter, the experiences and ideas of students and teachers, which were presented in chapter four, will be analyzed. The discussions will be based on the recurring themes and compared to the previous research in the fields under investigation in the current research: the roles of motivation and ELF in the learning of Norwegian among NOMSA students.

5.2. The role of motivation

In this section the specific results revealed in the interviews with the NOMSA students regarding their motivation in learning the Norwegian language will be focused on. In the current research, the students’ motivation is studied mainly as reflected in their choice of language for various situations out of the classroom and also the amount of effort and desire they spent on learning the
Norwegian language. As discussed earlier, the language learning for the students on an SA program, as argued by Freed (1995), is a combination of the formal learning which occurs inside the classroom, and the informal learning which is the result of natural out of class exposures. As for the formal part, the students would most likely receive an equal form of teaching, the same learning material, and the same classmates to interact with. Though individual differences and motivation levels also affect what students learn in the classroom, their roles become more transparent when the language learners have other language choices outside the classroom. They are language learners, who inspired by their motivation opt how to spend the remaining hours of their day. This way, the life plans, the time and effort the students spend on language learning, the students’ social networks, and their language choice could be indicators of their motivation to learn the language and consequently, predictors of linguistic gains.

According to the interviews, almost all of the students had preset plans to stay in Norway. While most of them had started their lives in Norway some time before the start of the NOMSA program (ranging from 5 months to 30 months), only one student had planned to start her stay with learning the language and through applying for the NOMSA. This fact implies that for these students, NOMSA did not mean learning the language of the country in which they would spend one or two semesters, rather they had planned to live in Norway. The students’ long stay in Norway acted as a main stimulus to be motivated to learn the Norwegian language. Most of the students admitted that in order to live in a foreign country easily, to be able to communicate in the Norwegian society (integrative orientation) and/or to find a good job (instrumental orientation), it was necessary to learn the local language. Since their stay in Norway was not limited to the NOMSA duration and they had plans to continue their higher education and live in Norway afterwards, a combination of both integrative and instrumental orientations was revealed among the interviewees. They looked at the NOMSA program as the starting point to familiarize themselves with the Norwegian language and culture, which could assist them in handling their main challenges on an SA program. The mixture of both instrumental and integrative motivations was also explored in the case of international students, by Yu (2010). The mixed motivations of the students in the SA program caused more interaction with NSs, leading to easier processes of sociocultural, linguistic, and academic adaptations (Yu, 2010).

The plans for staying in Norway were not in all the cases set by the students individually, leading to stronger motivational forces. In some cases, the whole family had decided to move to Norway, in some others the students had chosen Norway because they already had a family
member residing in Norway, yet in some other cases it was the couple’s decision to come to Norway. In all of the cases of family relocation, the reason was economic crisis in the students’ home countries, and for couples and individual students the main aim acknowledged was to find a good job, as pointed out by 6 students directly. Some other objectives were also pointed to including: getting a European degree, free education, or simply a change in life.

Based on what Shaw et al (2010) had noticed in their study of the international students in 4 Scandinavian universities, learning the local language of the host country was not a concern for the students in the Scandinavian SA programs, unless they had the opportunity to further their studies in the local language. Actually, for the subjects of their study, this opportunity worked as a stimulus to arise students’ motivation for learning the local language. In the current research, the possibility of continuing studies acted as an instrumental orientation, based on Gardner’s (2010) definition: learning the language for practical reasons. The students in the Swedish universities in Shaw et al’s (2010) study were also shown to have received the same inspiration for learning the local language. In the current research, getting a Bachelor or Master degree in a Norwegian University also meant more job opportunities for the students. This stimulating factor can be observed to be embedded in the nature of the NOMSA program, since it is a pre-requisite for further higher education for all of the Bachelor programs and some Master programs, as well as getting a job in the Norwegian market.

For the international students at UiS, being proficient in the Norwegian language is documented either through passing the Bergen test, or having the NOMSA degree. As a matter of fact, and as pointed by the students, Bergen test was both expensive and harder than the NOMSA exam. Although a few students regarded Bergen test as a second opportunity in case they could not pass the final NOMSA exam, they generally believed NOMSA to be the proper program for a student to learn the Norwegian language and continue studies afterwards.

The students’ choice of the Norwegian language outside the classroom was investigated as indicating their motivation to learn the language and related to their oral proficiency. According to Isabelli-Garcia (2006), the learners’ motivation to learn the language would positively influence the learners’ contacts with NSs. The increased contact with NSs, as supported by Isabelli-Garcia would result in higher proficiency in the speaking skill. NOMSA students all seemed to be aware of this fact and knew that they had to interact with NSs, yet they did not feel fluent enough and admitted they needed to switch to English. The relation between interaction with NSs and the self-perception of the development of the speaking skill is clear in
the case of Student E. While on average all the students assessed themselves as 3 or 4 (intermediate or poor) regarding the speaking skill in Norwegian, she was the only one who estimated her speaking skill as 1 (very poor). Her low level could be attributed to the fact that she did not have any international or Norwegian friends to practice Norwegian with and that even the few Norwegian NSs she met preferred to use English in their interactions with her.

Several factors appear to contribute to the rare use of Norwegian in speech by student E and thus leading to the low development of the speaking skill. She was the only student who complained about the negative nationalistic attitudes of Norwegian people to the Asians. Also, she had trouble learning the Norwegian grammar and acquiring the pronunciation of the Norwegian words. Moreover, she admitted that she could not convey her intention when she used Norwegian and since producing a sentence took a long time, she noticed her interlocutors got impatient. The beginner students’ difficulty in communicating with NSs was also supported in the studies conducted by both Shaw et al (2010) and Magnan and Back (2007). In the former study, the difficulty was reflected in the students’ preference to interact with other international students and the students with whom they shared the same L1 on the SA program. In the latter study, however, the American students who were learning French in France favored communicating with their American classmates using French, which was revealed to have negative results on their speaking development. Less use of Norwegian in speech by student E in the present research can also be attributed to her over-reliance on English as the result of staying abroad for 8 years as well as working experiences in English.

Considering the NOMSA students’ choice of Norwegian as an indicator of their motivation, different patterns were observed for different situations. Shopping was the situation in which most of the students chose the Norwegian language. The few exceptions stated that they would start their shopping with Norwegian, but would soon need to switch to English. Student J was the only one who did her shopping in English. To do shopping in Norway, one needs to know some limited words and phrases, thus, it can be considered one of the first places the learners tried to use Norwegian. The fact that NOMSA students made efforts to use Norwegian, even if they did not have enough knowledge and needed to switch to English soon, revealed their motivation to start using the language. This fact is in compliance with the element of motivational intensity or effort in the three components of motivation, as identified by Gardner (2010:9).
Regarding the exposure to spoken language through media, half of the students preferred to watch English movies with Norwegian subtitles, some watched Norwegian programs, and some others said they watched movies in their L1s. The fact that 7 of the students exposed themselves to Norwegian through TV programs, either written (subtitles) or audio, indicated their inclination to learn the language. However, for the music the patterns were quite different and English was dominant. The majority of the students preferred to listen to English music; besides English, 2 students also listened to Norwegian music and 4 students listened to music in their L1s. There was only one student who only listened to the music in her L1, which can be attributed to the emotional aspect of the music. The issue that most of the students preferred the music in English language might be reflective of the popularity of English music on the one hand, and the individuals’ need to understand the content of the songs, on the other.

The results about the exposure to media were similar to what Magnan and Back (2007) explored in their study. Regarding the speaking proficiency in the American students who were learning French in France, they observed little improvement among those who were involved in the non-interactive exposure to media. In the current research, NOMSA students who watched English movies with Norwegian subtitles, showed no significant superiority regarding their self-perceptions of listening/speaking proficiencies in Norwegian.

The relationships of the NOMSA students, in contrast to the international students in Shaw et al’s (2010) study, were not limited to their university friends. Half of the students in the current research had families or close relatives in Stavanger. Thus, their interactions could be divided into two different parts of interactions at home and interactions with friends. At home, it was observed that L1s played more important roles. According to the students’ statements, those who had moved to Norway with their families and lived with them used their L1s; this was the case with half of the students. Yet, students G and J, who lived with their families, sometimes intentionally switched to Norwegian in order to practice, and student I, who had a Norwegian stepfather, only used Norwegian at home. The whole family’s decision to make efforts to learn Norwegian reveals their higher motivation levels and stronger urge to learn the language. Moreover, the students who shared homes with their compatriots used their L1s for their interactions.

Regarding the students who lived in dormitories, English was the most commonly used language; due to the variety of linguistic backgrounds among the students, English was used as a common language. It has to be noted that two of the students, one living in a couples’ dormitory
and one in a singles’ dormitory complained about the fact that there were no Norwegian students in their student houses. They were aware and motivated to communicate with NSs at their places of stay, but they did not have the opportunity. The issue reflected the desire to learn the language, in Gardner’s (2010:9) identified components of motivation. These students were motivated and had the desire to interact with Norwegian students, as an aid in their process of language learning, but could not find the opportunity.

The students’ communication within the closely knit groups, similar to what Shaw et al (2010) observed, was reflective of their motivation levels and influential in their linguistic development. However, in contrast to Shaw et al’s study, the closely knit groups for the NOMSA students were not limited to the university students, since some of them were living with their families. Regarding their friends, the majority of the students (7 out of 10) admitted their close friends were their compatriots, with whom they used their L1s. The students who lived in student houses reported having friends with different nationalities, interacting with whom necessitated the use of ELF. While student J said that she had Norwegian friends besides her Polish friends, student G was the only student whose friends were limited to her Norwegian volleyball team mates. She tried to communicate with them in Norwegian, but admitted that she needed to switch to English. Student H also attended the University choir group and the group members were all Norwegian, but she preferred to use English while interacting with them.

As expected, NOMSA students’ communication in the University campus was limited to English and Norwegian, yet with different proportions. The different proportions were reflective of two facts about the participants in the communication: first was the presence of international students who had various linguistic backgrounds, and second was the NOMSA students’ beginner level in the Norwegian language. Though English was the language mainly used with the other students and staff in the campus, 5 students pointed out that they tried to use some Norwegian words, but they would need to switch to English soon.

Six of the NOMSA students worked at the time of the interview and the language they used at work was also regarded as an indicator of their motivation. Three students stated that they used Norwegian at work and the three others used English. One of those who used Norwegian admitted that he just listened to some limited voice commands in Norwegian at his work. The other student, who had a high level of desire to learn Norwegian and was very interested in communicating with her customers at the clothing shop, stated that due to this aim, she had started learning Norwegian on her own before the start of the NOMSA program. Yet, another
student who said she had no problems in communicating with the Norwegian customers at the restaurant she worked in, felt shy to communicate in Norwegian with her Norwegian friends at the university choir group. The three examples highlight both the students’ desire and effort (Gardner, 2010:9) and the importance of the level of Norwegian knowledge required at different situation as affecting their language choice. Type of these three students’ jobs was so that they just needed some limited and definite words about specific issues, consequently they felt confident enough to choose Norwegian. While in the choir group, the local students might have talked about different issues, which necessitated higher proficiency and more vocabulary in Norwegian, acting as inhibitors for the NOMSA student’s use of Norwegian. The students who preferred to use English at work had reasons such as being shy to use Norwegian, being an experienced user of ELF, and lacking enough Norwegian knowledge.

Among the 10 students who were interviewed in the current research, 6 had plans to study in Bachelor programs in the Norwegian language and 1 intended to get a Master which was taught in Norwegian. These students admitted that in order to work and live in the Norwegian society, it was better to have their education in Norwegian and student I emphasized that if she did not continue her studies in Norwegian, then “what was the good point about attending the NOMSA program?” Yet, there were 3 students who preferred to continue their studies in Master programs which were taught in English. The reasons for their choice of English were quite clear: students A and C emphasized that they needed the Norwegian language mainly because they had decided to live in Norway rather than studying in Norwegian, and student E had a strong background in using English during the years she had stayed abroad as well as in the jobs she had.

The motivational traits were also obvious in the NOMSA students’ consideration of failure for the final exam. Except 2 students who had plans for returning to their home countries if they could not pass the final exam after several attempts, and another 2 who considered Bergen test a second opportunity, the others were sure that they would pass the exam. The students’ certainty in passing the final exam indicates the item of ‘self-efficacy’ which was observed by Kormos et al (2013) who studied 70 international students learning English in the UK in an SA program. They witnessed that the students considered themselves capable of reaching the proficiency level for continuing university studies and the researchers admitted this to be an indicator of the students’ motivation. Another student in the present research explained that she might continue her studies in a Master program in English, but the point was that she had planned
to live in Norway and needed the language for her life. These statements were reflective of the fact that the NOMSA students had set various future plans based on passing the final exam; they intended to continue their studies, find a good job, and live in Norway in the coming years.

The amount of time the students spent on studying Norwegian also showed their motivation and desire to learn the language. The time the students spent studying Norwegian out of the class sessions varied between 6 and 15 hours per week. Considering the indicators of motivation in the other aspects of students’ life patterns, it could be assumed that the motivated students spent more than 10 hours studying Norwegian per week. The issue was reflective of the motivational intensity component, as defined by Gardner (2010:9), they made efforts to get proficient in the Norwegian language.

Comparing the two students who had the highest and the lowest self-reported scores in their listening and speaking skills in the Norwegian language, a host of variables might be considered influential. Yet, the most important seemed to be the amount of interaction they had in the Norwegian language. On the one hand, all the Serbian family members of student G intentionally tried to practice Norwegian at home and she emphasized her mother’s high proficiency in Norwegian. She added that she even used Norwegian when chatting with her mother on Skype, before coming to Norway. Student G also spent 15 hours with Norwegian NSs in the volleyball practice sessions, although she needed to switch to English often. On the other hand, student E’s interactions at home were limited to L1, which she used with her husband. She stated that she had no friends either in the university or in the dormitory to use Norwegian with; her friends were her compatriots, using the same L1. Though student E had lived in Norway longer than student G, the former 2 years and the latter 1 year, her longer stay did not lead to more experience in Norwegian. The fact that student E had 4 years of experience in using English for her jobs, study, and stay abroad periods, in addition to the negative attitude she had, hindered her use of the Norwegian language.

Language anxiety though not considered in the students’ behaviors, was implicitly referred to by some students’ choice of language for out of class interactions. Examples could be student H, who mentioned that she was shy to use the Norwegian language in face-to-face interactions and that she was still not confident enough to watch movies in Norwegian and preferred subtitles. The same issue was also pointed to by student J, who said she was shy to use Norwegian at work. Another example was student E, who was afraid of the interlocutors getting impatient, since she needed time to produce something in Norwegian.
To sum up, it can be stated that motivation, being a sociocultural phenomenon, was shown to be highly affected by individual elements and situational features. Different students were observed to have various choices and reactions in different situation. Students’ attitudes, desire and efforts (Gardner, 2010:9) were shown to be indicators of their motivation.

5.3. The role of ELF

The role of English as the accepted common language around the globe was also prominent in the case of the participants of the present research. While NOMSA students had English which served inevitably as the common language in their multilingual classroom in the beginning weeks, it was also extensively used as the communication tool out of the classroom. The prevalence of English in the Norwegian society and the students’ higher fluency in English as compared to Norwegian would be the influential factors in the students’ preference to use English.

The NOMSA classroom was an example of the contexts using ELF as the language understood by everyone. The teachers acknowledged the significance of English for teaching the Norwegian language in the classroom and students also admitted the usefulness of English in their learning of Norwegian. As student J stated, English played a great role in her learning of Norwegian and added that without English knowledge, “learning Norwegian would have been a tragedy for her”. Moreover, the fact that the students who had been exempted from providing English proficiency test scores outnumbered those who had provided the test scores implied the prevalence of English in different countries: 7 out of 10 students were exempted. The main exemption reason among the interviewees was that they had studied the English language for at least 7 years at school in their home countries.

However, almost all of the students who had received the minimum of 7 years of instruction in English in their home countries complained about the insufficient or improper English teaching. They believed this to be the result of too much focus on grammar and/or bad pronunciation of their teachers. Thus, in order to become more proficient, most of them had attended extra and specialized courses to learn English fluently. For example, Student I had attended private classes to learn the English language for 13 years in Ukraine. At that time, she said she did not realize the reason she was spending so much time learning English, but now she could understand the value of her knowledge. Student H also learned English in the high school
for the gifted students, to which she was admitted, and she described them as having a high focus on English. Moreover, 6 out of the 10 interviewees held Bachelor degrees from their home countries, half of which were taught in English and the other half in the students’ L1s. These examples pinpoint the spread of English as the international language in different educational fields and levels.

Considering the non-educational settings, 4 students directly pointed to the rapid growth of ELF in their countries: in Vietnam more and more jobs were getting international, and in Bangladesh the younger generations have found it both necessary and prestigious to know English. In this regard, the students from Lithuania, Belarus and Vietnam talked about private classes and specialized English schools as popular in their countries nowadays, and the Lithuanian student added that English was taking over Russian as the main foreign language in Lithuania.

Comparing and contrasting the NOMSA students’ self-assessments of English and Norwegian proficiencies in the listening skill, a rather constant relation was observed. All the students had a certain level of proficiency in English as the requirement for the NOMSA program and no great difference was observed among the students. Regarding the English listening skill, the students assessed themselves as either good or very good. All of the students who self-assessed themselves as very good (5 students) in English listening, estimated themselves as intermediate in the Norwegian listening. Yet, those who estimated their proficiency as good (4 students) in English listening had assessments ranging between poor and very poor in Norwegian listening, depending on the motivational differences. Thus, a rather stable relation might be observed between English and Norwegian languages regarding the participants’ perception of their listening skill.

The relation between English and Norwegian speaking proficiencies of the NOMSA students was also a direct one. Being a productive skill, the speaking ability of the students was estimated to be lower than the receptive skill of listening in both languages. In the case of English, most of the students scored themselves as good (4), while for Norwegian the majority assessed themselves as poor (6 out of 10). Moreover, from the students’ reports, it can be observed that the speaking skill was more affected by individual motivational variables. For example, due to being shy, having problems with pronunciation, impatience of the interlocutors, and incapacity in conveying the intended meaning, the students engaged in speaking Norwegian less and as a result they did not have enough practice.
A similar relationship could be observed considering the students who self-reported the highest and the lowest proficiencies in English. The two students who estimated themselves as very good at both listening and speaking skills in English, also ranked the highest (intermediate) among the others for both of the skills in Norwegian, according to their self-assessments. On the other hand, the two students who scored the lower sets of scores in English proficiencies had different proficiency estimates for Norwegian, not necessarily the lowest. The noteworthy point is that the student who scored higher in English listening rather than speaking, showed the same relation in her Norwegian proficiencies. The same was true about the other student, who had assessed herself to be more proficient in the speaking rather than the listening skill.

In spite of the fact that English had a pivotal role at the beginning of the NOMSA program, after approximately eight weeks and some initial teachings, both teachers regarded it a barrier for the students’ further use, practice, and progress in Norwegian. The teachers regarded the students who continued to use English in the classroom unmotivated students. However, none of the students directly pointed to English as a blocker for their learning of Norwegian, rather the students were too much dependent on their English and it acted as an aid in conveying their meanings. Their reliance on English was implied in their choice of language for out-of-class exposures.

After approximately two months the students received strong persuasion from the NOMSA teachers to embark on using the Norwegian language. As a rule, both of the teachers said that they answered students’ questions which were in English using the Norwegian language. One of the teachers even asked the students to formulate their questions in Norwegian. The students reported that they continued to use English because they did not know enough Norwegian vocabulary or grammatical rules to establish a meaningful communication with an NS. They admitted that they might start a conversation in Norwegian, but they would soon need to switch to English. The number of switches to English by the learners further verifies their reliance on English. Moreover, due to the fact that it took the learners so long to produce sentences in Norwegian (as was the case for student E), they felt their native interlocutor might get impatient and switched to English. Such findings were also supported in the study conducted by Shaw et al (2013), which revealed the international students’ refusal to use the local language with the NS in Sweden and Denmark universities.

The students’ expression of their difficulty in understanding different dialects in the Norwegian language was another reason for many of them to switch to English outside the
classroom. Since in the NOMSA class sessions the teaching was done in the Bokmål dialect (at least until the time of the interview), the students were not familiar with the Stavanger dialect, the common dialect in the society. For example, student J spent a lot of time with her best friend and her Norwegian boyfriend, and had the opportunity to practice Norwegian with them. They talked in Norwegian, but she could not understand it all, due to the different dialect they used and preferred to switch to English. The issue was referred to by two more students.

Though the students’ choice of either English or Norwegian languages was mainly considered an indicator of their motivation, the fact that some students opted for English in some specific situations might also be reflective of the pervasive role of ELF. Based on the interviews it was revealed that English was the students’ preferred language not only in their out-of-class communication for which they felt lacking enough Norwegian proficiency, but also in the case of the media. According to the interviews, 6 out of 10 students watched English movies and 4 of these 6 students preferred to have Norwegian subtitles along. Though the act of watching English movies with Norwegian subtitles was reported as being confusing, due to the students’ need to translate between English, L1, and Norwegian, this choice of the students reflected their motivation to expose themselves to Norwegian. This is while all of the students listened to English music, either as the only choice or along with music in their L1s and rarely Norwegian.

To further verify the role of English as a support for the students’ communication, the students’ code-switching to English can be pointed to. In the course of their interactions with Norwegian NSs, the students were the ones who preferred to switch to English. All of the 10 students declared that due to lack of enough Norwegian words and grammar, they felt more comfortable using English. However, student A also added that Norwegian people preferred to talk in English with the foreigners and student J said if her Norwegian friends noticed that she had problems understanding the issue, they themselves would switch to English.

Among 10 student interviewees, 2 had Norwegian boyfriends who might be considered as the most commonly contacted NSs in their daily lives. While both students used English in their spoken interactions with the Norwegian boyfriends, one of them pointed that she used Norwegian in their written communication. Yet, another student who had a Lithuanian boyfriend felt comfortable interacting with him in Norwegian, because they knew the same level of the Norwegian language. This issue might lead to a tentative conclusion that if the beginner language learners know that their interaction partner is not superior to them regarding the linguistic knowledge (such as an NS), the learners might switch to the language they are learning more
easily and practice the new language. It has to be noted that in contrast to the findings of Magnan and Back (2007), interaction among the NNSs (non-native speakers) of Norwegian was found to be beneficial in their linguistic developments. In their study of American students learning French in France, Magnan and Back observed that NNSs’ interactions were not beneficial for language development among the learners. In the current research, the positive effects of such an interaction were highlighted when comparing the two students self-reported Norwegian proficiencies: the student who had a Norwegian boyfriend and interacted in English, and the student who had a Lithuanian boyfriend and tried to interact in Norwegian to practice.

As also supported by Shaw et al (2010), the level of English used in an ELF environment among the NNSs was particular to that context and unlike the English of NSs. This specific version of English had positive effects on the English proficiency of some students and yet, negative effects on some others’, depending on their level of English at the start of the program. As the Polish student in the present study noted, though she was born and had lived in the U.S. for 10 years, she had forgotten English after 9 years of living in Poland. But she noticed that staying in the ELF context of Norway had helped her remember her English proficiencies. On the other hand, student F stated her English abilities were weakening in the NOMSA classroom, and believed this to be the result of translating the instructions in the classroom which were in English to her L1 and then back to Norwegian.

The present section revealed that English as the common language in both the Norwegian society and NOMSA classroom had different roles regarding the different aspects of the students’ Norwegian and English proficiencies. While it acted as a facilitator in the development of the Norwegian language in the beginning sessions of NOMSA, later it hindered the students’ use of Norwegian knowledge. The findings on the effects of ELF in the development of the Norwegian language were discussed as supported or contradicted by previous literature.

5.4. Limitations

The elements involved in the process of language learning seem to be multiple and interrelated. In the context of the present research on the motivational attributes of the international students in the NOMSA program, some additional and relevant factors also appeared to be influential, like language anxiety and self-efficacy. Yet, due to the width of the study, it was not possible to consider all the other motivation-related features of the students.
As for the students’ language proficiencies, lack of reliable test scores could be considered another limitation. Due to the fact that there was no Norwegian proficiency test taken at the time of the interview, i.e. at the end of the first semester, students’ self-perceptions and assessments of their abilities regarding the Norwegian language were relied on.

5.5. Recommendations for further research

The current study dealt with the two supposedly main issues influential in learning the Norwegian language including motivation and ELF and among the students in a specific SA program of NOMSA. Further studies could be recommended by changing the focal points of the research. While the present study focused on the NOMSA program, other studies might be conducted with any other SA language learning programs. NOMSA was a prerequisite language learning course which was followed by studies that focused on content learning. Another investigation might be conducted with other programs which are solely aimed at language learning, or content learning in a foreign linguistic community.

Changing the theoretical framework of the current study might also lead to some new results, different from those obtained in the present research. Since there are many other models of motivation in language learning, opposite or complementary to the Socio-educational model, which have many different foci, other researchers might use them in their studies.

It has been noted that due to time constrains in the conduction of the present research, and also considering the width of the study, only the oral modality was studied. However, another study might be done which focuses on the written modality or maybe both modalities. It would also be beneficial to study the linguistic gains of NOMSA students at the end of the program.

While in the present research the role of ELF in the development of L2 among the students has been investigated, the role of students’ L1s in this process might be focused in another study since all of the languages in the linguistic repertoire of the learners could be influential in their learning of a new language.
5.6. Summary

In this chapter the researcher tried to interpret the findings of the current study according to the main themes and subthemes of the research. Along the lines of the research aims, comparisons and contrasts have been made to the literature which has been reviewed in chapter two. Moreover, the recommendation section indicated the possibilities of further research on different aspects of the present research. The final conclusions and interpretations will be presented in the next chapter.
Chapter Six:

Conclusion

The present thesis has aimed to investigate the roles of two influential elements in the process of language learning in a particular group of Norwegian language learners (NOMSA students) in the University of Stavanger, Norway. The first was the role of motivation in the students’ choice of language for the out-of-class interactions, as indicated by their exposures to Norwegian. The second element was the ELF and its role in the development of Norwegian as an L2. English could have a significant role due to its wide usage both in the beginning sessions of the NOMSA program and in the Norwegian society.

The researcher employed the qualitative approach, in the form of semi-structured interviews to obtain detailed data about the NOMSA students’ linguistic backgrounds, language use, and motivation. Self-assessments in the form of Likert scale questions were also included in the interview to obtain information about the students’ perceptions of their English and Norwegian proficiencies. In addition, two of the NOMSA teachers were interviewed to inform the researcher about the classroom processes and behaviors of the students. For the data analysis, the recordings were transcribed, and contrasts and comparisons were conducted among different cases to reach conclusions. The students’ language choice for out-of-class interactions was considered reflective of the students’ motivation to start using Norwegian in their communication, which meant more practice in Norwegian and thus its development. Choosing the English language, on the other hand, was regarded an indicator of both the students’ lack of motivation to switch to Norwegian and the widespread usage of ELF.

The findings of the present research suggest that NOMSA students had both types of orientations, as defined by Gardner (2010) in the socio-educational model, for their learning of the Norwegian language. Though integrative orientation has always been referred to in the SLL literature as more influential and enduring than instrumental orientation, the NOMSA students had a combination of both orientations with the larger proportion belonging to the instrumental orientation. The prominence of the instrumental orientation among the NOMSA students was revealed by the fact that a better economic situation and more job opportunities were the main reasons for them to be in Norway and learn the local language. The students’ integrative
orientation was reflected in the issue that they were not students for one or two semesters, rather they had planned to live in Norway after their educations. They were aware that in order to live in a foreign country, they needed to learn the local language to be able to integrate with the community.

One advantageous point about the NOMSA program was the fact that it acted as a linguistic certificate for the international students to study or work in the Norwegian society (www.uis.no). The opportunity, which was embedded in the nature of the program, encouraged the students to invest more desire, time, and effort in the learning procedure. However, it has to be noted that almost all of the students had left their home countries due to economic crisis and unemployment, and as a result entered Norway with the objective of finding good jobs. Thus, they were already instrumentally oriented and found NOMSA as the easiest and cheapest way to learn the local language and enter the University or the job market.

All of the NOMSA students seemed to be aware of the necessity to switch to Norwegian in their interactions and expose themselves to the language. Yet, the fact that the students’ self-assessments regarding the speaking ability were lower than their listening skills confirms the existence of some blocking factors for them to use Norwegian in speech. There were various elements which acted as inhibitors in the students’ speaking in Norwegian. The most important reason observed was their lack of enough vocabulary and grammatical knowledge: they might start a conversation in Norwegian, but soon needed to switch to English. Since the present research was conducted at the end of the first semester, the students’ linguistic knowledge was not fully developed yet. Another reason was that some of the students just could not find the opportunity to interact with the NSs and this point has to be considered by the University authorities. They should be careful to mix local students with international students as much as possible, both in their events and in the dormitories, to increase the chances of interactions among the two groups. Another obvious reason was the students’ language anxiety, though not focused on in the present study. According to their statements, the students did not feel confident enough, they were shy, or had problems with conveying meaning because of their mispronunciation. In addition, they were worried about the fact that the native interlocutor might get impatient because of their imperfect command of Norwegian.

According to the findings of the present research and based on the students’ and teachers’ perceptions, communication in Norwegian even among the NNSs is beneficial for the development of linguistic proficiencies. Though it would be more beneficial to interact with an
NS who used the native version of the language, the significant point is to encourage the students to interact in the Norwegian language. In addition, it was revealed that the productive skill of speaking was affected by the motivational elements more and as a result, further encouragement and attention should be spent on this skill by the teachers and educational policy makers.

The NOMSA students’ choice of language for different situations seemed to be different and affected by various factors. Other than their level of motivation, the type of the language use context and the required proficiency level also influenced their choices. Regarding the type of language use context affecting the language choice, the interactions at home and among the friends can be pointed to as examples. L1s were the languages dominantly used both at homes and among the friends who shared the same L1. Most of the NOMSA students lived with their family members or in homes shared with their compatriots. Also, as observed in the study, the close friends for most of the students were those who used the same L1. Thus, it can be concluded that the need for the emotional support in the close relationships with the family members, compatriots, and the friends who used the same language could be the reason for the dominance of L1 in these contexts. As for the required proficiency level, it was observed that in the situations which the students had to produce few specific words and did not need extensive Norwegian knowledge, most of them used Norwegian or at least started with the Norwegian language and later switched to English, i.e. at work or shopping.

Regarding the media, including TV programs, movies, and music, the most preferred language was observed to be English. This was caused by the fact that in the case of media, understanding the content is a priority, to know what is happening in the movie or what the content of the song is. Moreover, the language which is used in the media is not as simple and basic as the one used for shopping, and the students need to be quite proficient in a language to choose it in the case of media. On the other hand, the prevalence of ELF in the field of media cannot be neglected either. Thus, the motivated students might not be able to find new favorite movies and series in the Norwegian language and could only use Norwegian subtitles.

A direct relationship might be concluded between NOMSA students’ self-assessed English proficiencies and their Norwegian language skills. Thus, it might be beneficial for both teachers and students if the English language requirements for the NOMSA program become stricter and the exemptions be revised. As witnessed in the current research, many of the students were exempted from providing English proficiency test scores, due to the fact that they had studied English as their first foreign language over a period of minimum 7 years at compulsory
upper secondary school in their home countries. Yet, as reported by the students, the English taught at the schools in their countries was not rich enough and at the lowest level. They complained about too much focus on grammar and neglected speaking skills.

As for the role of ELF in the development of Norwegian among the NOMSA students, both advantageous and disadvantageous effects were evident, depending on the time. On the one hand, the contribution of the English language in the initiation of the NOMSA students into Norwegian cannot be dismissed, as supported by the fact that a student’s higher proficiency in any of the investigated skills in English was observed to lead to the higher proficiency in the same skill in Norwegian. On the other hand, the assisting role of English in the learning of Norwegian started to fade after some time, when the students were supposed to expose themselves to Norwegian and get more practice. In fact, their higher fluency in English and lower fluency in Norwegian, in the English-prevalent society of Norway caused the continuous usage of English.

Yet another point to be considered about the NOMSA students is their problems in understanding the Stavanger dialect. The students would be familiarized with the Stavanger dialect early in the second semester as different from the standard dialect they had been taught in the classroom. From the motivational perspective, it might be better to acquaint the students with the Stavanger dialect early in the program, since as beginners, they felt disappointed and discouraged from using what they had learnt in the classroom, in the society. Their unfamiliarity with the Stavanger dialect hindered them from interacting with NSs and practicing Norwegian. In fact, NOMSA students who are unfamiliar with the Stavanger dialect lack the effort element which was identified in the Socio-educational model (1985) as one of the stimuli for motivation. This way, students would lose their interest in using the language, as a non-linguistic outcome.

As concluding remarks, it has to be noted that NOMSA might be different from many other SLL programs and when dealing with NOMSA students, many aspects should be regarded by the university authorities, teachers, and educational policy makers. These students should be looked upon as Norwegian residents, rather than students, and a host of economic, cultural, and religious challenges should be considered about them.
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Appendix 1:
The interview guide for the student interviews

As I stated in my presentation in your class, your answers will help me collect data for writing my Master’s thesis. The focus of the interview is your abilities in English language and its role in the development of your Norwegian language. Your motivation will also be addressed in the interview. The aim is to know about your individual learning characteristics and experiences in the procedure of language learning. Knowing your names just lets me keep track of the data about you, during the data analysis. The names will be kept confidential and real names are not going to be used.

A: Background

1. Introduce yourself please. I mean your name.... age.... level of education.... nationality and mother tongue... Marital status... (I will look for the nationality of their partner; spouse or boyfriend/girlfriend, and consequently their language of communication)
2. How many languages do you speak?
3. How long have you been in Norway? (Focusing on the language they used for daily life)
4. Why did you choose to study in Norway?
5. Please tell me how common English was in your country? In which contexts was it used? (Daily life, higher education, business,...)
6. Did you live in any foreign country before coming to Norway? If yes, let me know about the language you used over there.
7. How do you describe your own experience in using English? Have you had any previous studies or jobs which were done in English?

B: Current status

8. How do you assess your ability to understand spoken English in daily communications?
9. How do you assess your ability to speak in English?
10. How do you assess your ability to understand spoken Norwegian in daily communications?
11. How do you assess your ability to speak in Norwegian?
12. What are the nationalities of your mostly-contacted friends? Please tell me about the language you use in your communications with your friends.
13. How much time do you spend with native speakers of Norwegian per week? Do you need to switch to English in your communication or is it the Norwegian friend who prefers to switch?
14. How much time do you spend studying Norwegian per week? Which learning strategies you use? For example repetition, memorizing, visual aids, relating to some other words you know, etc.
15. Do you work? If yes, where do you work? Which language do you use at work?
16. Which language(s) you use in the following situations?
   a) Shopping
   b) At your place of stay (home or dormitory)
   c) In the campus
   d) TV programs (examples: TV series, news, movies)
   e) Listening to music
17. Do you attend or have you attended any other Norwegian language courses? What is/was the language of communication in the classroom and for group activities?

**C: Future**

18. What are your plans for the future, after the NOMSA program? Focusing on the country to stay and your occupation, and consequently the language you will be using.
19. Imagine you do not have the degree from the NOMSA program, what are your plans then?
Appendix 2:

The interview guide for the teacher interviews

1- Introduce yourself please. Tell me about your age, nationality and level of education.

2- How long is it that you are teaching in the NOMSA program?

3- How many hours of teaching do you have with group 2 students?

4- What do you do in your classroom? What are the students supposed to do?

5- What is the role of ELF in your classroom?

6- How long do you continue using English as the common language in your classroom?

7- What are the criteria for placing the students in group 2?

8- What are your criteria to distinguish between motivated or unmotivated students in your classroom?

9- What will your reaction be if the students code-switch to English, when they are expected to use Norwegian?

10- What do you expect the students to achieve at the end of the first semester?