



HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ
EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ

The Department of Foreign Language Education

English Language Teaching Program

WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE: A PATH-ANALYTIC MODEL FOR
TERTIARY LEVEL LEARNERS OF ENGLISH IN TURKEY

Tutku BAŞÖZ

Ph.D. Dissertation

Ankara, 2018



With leadership, research, innovation, high quality education and change,

To the leading edge... Toward being the best...



HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ
EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ

The Department of Foreign Language Education

English Language Teaching Program

WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE: A PATH-ANALYTIC MODEL FOR
TERTIARY LEVEL LEARNERS OF ENGLISH IN TURKEY

İLETİŞİM KURMA İSTEKLİLİĞİ: TÜRKİYE'DE ÜNİVERSİTE DÜZEYİNDE
İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRENEN ÖĞRENCİLER İÇİN BİR YOL ANALİZİ MODELİ

Tutku BAŞÖZ

Ph.D. Dissertation

Ankara, 2018

Acceptance and Approval

To the Graduate School of Educational Sciences,

This thesis entitled "Willingness to Communicate: A Path-analytic Model for Tertiary Level Learners of English in Turkey" has been approved as a thesis for the Degree of **Ph.D.** in the **Program of English Language Teaching** by the members of the Examining Committee.

Chair Prof. Dr., Paşa Tevfik CEPHE



Member (Supervisor) Prof. Dr., İsmail Hakkı ERTEN



Member Assoc. Prof. Dr., Hüseyin ÖZ



Member Assoc. Prof. Dr., Kadriye Dilek AKPINAR



Member Assist. Prof. Dr., İsmail Fırat ALTAY



This is to certify that this thesis/dissertation has been approved by the aforementioned examining committee members on 25/01/2018 in accordance with the relevant articles of the Rules and Regulations of Hacettepe University Graduate School of Educational Sciences, and was accepted as a **Ph.D. Dissertation** in the **Program of English Language Teaching** by the Board of Directors of the Graduate School of Educational Sciences on/...../.....

Prof. Dr. Ali Ekber ŞAHİN
Director of Graduate School of Educational Sciences

Abstract

The present study aimed to probe Turkish EFL learners' perceived levels of WTC in English inside and outside the classroom as well as to explore the probable interrelationships between L2 WTC, ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, L2 learning experience, imagery capacity, L2 motivation, L2 anxiety, vocabulary size and course achievement. Besides, Turkish EFL learners' perceptions of the factors which affect their WTC in English inside and outside the classroom were examined in the study. The study, which employed a mixed methods sequential explanatory research design, was conducted at Balıkesir University Faculty of Tourism in Balıkesir, Turkey in the 2016-2017 academic year. Quantitative data were collected from 701 EFL learners, 32 of whom also participated in the qualitative phase of the research. The data collection instruments consisted of a composite survey instrument, a vocabulary size test, and semi-structured interviews. The quantitative data were analyzed descriptively using IBM SPSS 21. The hypothesized relationships between the variables of interest were tested by means of the path analysis technique, which was conducted using LISREL 8.80. The qualitative data collected from the interviews were analyzed through qualitative content analysis. The results indicated that the tertiary level Turkish EFL learners have a moderate level of WTC in English both inside and outside the classroom. The final model of L2 WTC showed good fit to the data. Among the variables tested, L2 motivation and imagery capacity were found as the most significant predictors of L2 WTC. Both direct and indirect influences of ideal L2 self on in-class and out-of-class L2 WTC were also revealed. The qualitative findings demonstrated that L2 WTC is affected by various factors including L2 classroom environment, affective factors, topic, interlocutor, personal characteristics, linguistic factors, self-perceived communication competence, past communication experience, opportunity for communication, group size, ideal L2 self, and ought-to L2 self.

Keywords: willingness to communicate in English, tertiary level EFL learners, individual difference variables, affective factors, linguistic factors, path analysis

Öz

Bu çalışma Türkiye'de İngilizceyi yabancı bir dil olarak öğrenen üniversite öğrencilerinin sınıf içinde ve sınıf dışında İngilizce iletişim kurma isteklilik düzeylerini belirlemenin yanı sıra İngilizce iletişim kurma istekliliği ile ideal yabancı dil benliği, zorunlu yabancı dil benliği, yabancı dil öğrenme yaşantıları, görselleştirme becerisi, yabancı dil öğrenme motivasyonu, yabancı dil öğrenme kaygısı, sözcük dağarcığı ve ders başarısı arasındaki olası ilişkileri ortaya çıkarmayı hedeflemektedir. Ek olarak, çalışmada, öğrencilerin sınıf içi ve sınıf dışı İngilizce iletişim kurma istekliliklerini etkileyen faktörlere yönelik algıları da incelenmiştir. Ardışık açıklayıcı karma yöntem deseninin kullanıldığı bu çalışma, 2016-2017 eğitim öğretim yılında Balıkesir Üniversitesi Turizm Fakültesi'nde gerçekleştirilmiştir. Çalışmanın nicel verileri İngilizceyi yabancı bir dil olarak öğrenen 701 üniversite öğrencisinden toplanmış, bu öğrencilerden 32 tanesi aynı zamanda çalışmanın nitel bölümüne de katılmıştır. Veri toplama aracı olarak karma bir anket, bir sözcük dağarcığı testi ve yarı yapılandırılmış görüşme tekniği kullanılmıştır. Nicel veriler IBM SPSS 21 aracılığıyla betimsel olarak analiz edilmiştir. Değişkenler arasında kurulan ilişkiler LISREL 8.80 ile gerçekleştirilen yol analizi aracılığıyla test edilmiştir. Görüşmelerden elde edilen nitel veriler ise nitel içerik analizi tekniği ile çözümlenmiştir. Bulgular, öğrencilerin hem sınıf içinde hem de sınıf dışında orta düzeyde İngilizce iletişim kurma isteğine sahip olduklarını göstermiştir. İkinci dilde iletişim kurma istekliliği modelinin son halinin iyi bir uyum değerine sahip olduğu belirlenmiştir. Test edilen değişkenlerden, yabancı dil öğrenme motivasyonunun ve görselleştirme becerisinin İngilizce iletişim kurma istekliliğinin en önemli yordayıcıları olduğu bulunmuştur. İdeal yabancı dil benliğinin hem sınıf içi hem sınıf dışı İngilizce iletişim kurma istekliliği üzerinde doğrudan ve dolaylı etkili olduğu da ortaya çıkmıştır. Nitel veri analizinin sonuçları, İngilizce iletişim kurma istekliliğinin, yabancı dil sınıf ortamı, duyuşsal faktörler, konu, konuşulan kişi, kişisel özellikler, dilsel faktörler, algılanan iletişim yetkinliği, geçmiş iletişim deneyimleri, iletişim fırsatı, grup büyüklüğü, ideal yabancı dil benliği ve zorunlu yabancı dil benliği gibi çeşitli faktörler tarafından etkilendiğini göstermiştir.

Anahtar sözcükler: İngilizce iletişim kurma istekliliği, İngilizceyi yabancı bir dil olarak öğrenen üniversite öğrencileri, bireysel farklılık değişkenleri, duyuşsal faktörler, dilsel faktörler, yol analizi



Acknowledgements

First and foremost, I would like to thank my supervisor Prof. Dr. İsmail Hakkı ERTEN who both academically and psychologically supported me throughout the entire process. I would like to express my sincere gratitude to him for his limitless efforts, valuable time, patience, wisdom and invaluable guidance.

I would also like to thank the members of the dissertation progress committee, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Hüseyin ÖZ and Assoc. Prof. Dr. Kadriye Dilek AKPINAR who helped me to structure the dissertation to its current form with their guidance and encouragement. Moreover, I should thank Prof. Dr. Paşa Tevfik CEPHE and Asst. Prof. Dr. İsmail Fırat ALTAY for their constructive feedback and comments during the dissertation defense.

I also owe thanks to the Dean of Balıkesir University Faculty of Tourism, Prof. Dr. Cevdet AVCIKURT for creating the necessary atmosphere for the data collection process.

I am grateful to the participants of this study, who spent their time and energy to take part in this study and completed the procedure quite willingly.

I thank all supportive people who have not been mentioned here.

I wholeheartedly thank my mother Nurten AVCI and my father Kamil AVCI for their unconditional love and support throughout my life.

Although a PhD dissertation is known to be a challenge to one's personal life, it was not the case for me because I have the best husband ever. I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my husband Ali İhsan BAŞÖZ for always being there for me, his patience and tolerance for long working hours, and all the clever ideas to work things out with this dissertation. It would not be possible to complete this dissertation without his love, belief in me, peaceful talks, and limitless support.



Dedicated to Alya, my soon-to-be-born baby girl...

Table of Contents

Abstract	ii
Öz	iii
Acknowledgement	v
List of Tables	xii
List of Figures	xiv
Abbreviations	xvi
Chapter 1 Introduction	18
Statement of the Problem	18
Purpose of the Study	20
Research Questions	22
Significance of the Study	23
Assumptions of the Study	24
Limitations of the Study	25
Definitions of Terms	25
Chapter 2 Literature Review	28
Individual Differences in Second Language Acquisition	28
Willingness to Communicate	33
The Concept of Communication	33
The Origin and Definitions of Willingness to Communicate	35
Willingness to Communicate: Trait-like Predisposition versus.....	
Situational Construct	36
Willingness to Communicate in the First Language	38
Willingness to Communicate in the Second Language	41
Individual Difference Variables Affecting Willingness to Communicate	
in the Second Language	47
L2 Motivational Self System	51
Ideal L2 Self	52

Ought-to L2 Self.....	53
L2 Learning Experience	54
L2 Motivation	55
L2 Anxiety	61
Imagery Capacity	66
Vocabulary Knowledge	68
Relevant Studies on Willingness to Communicate in the Second Language .	72
Relevant Studies on Willingness to Communicate in the Turkish EFL.....	
Context	87
Gaps in the Literature	90
Chapter 3 Methodology	92
Methodological Framework.....	92
Quantitative, Qualitative and Mixed Methods Research Designs	92
Triangulation	94
Pilot Study.....	95
Aims of the Study.....	95
Setting.....	95
Participants	95
Instrumentation	96
Composite Survey Instrument.....	96
Vocabulary Test	100
Interviews	101
Procedure for Data Collection.....	101
Findings of the Pilot Study	102
Implications for the Main Study.....	104

Main Study.....	105
Aims of the Study.....	105
Setting.....	106
Participants	107
Instrumentation	110
Composite Survey Instrument.....	110
Vocabulary Test	113
Interviews	114
Procedure for Data Collection.....	115
The Data Analysis Techniques Employed in the Study	116
Chapter 4 Findings	118
Quantitative Findings	118
Research Question 1: What are the Turkish EFL Learners' Perceived Levels of WTC in English inside and outside the Classroom?	118
Research Question 2: What are the Turkish EFL Learners' Perceived Levels of their Ideal L2 Self?.....	121
Research Question 3: What are the Turkish EFL Learners' Perceived Levels of their Ought-to L2 Self?	122
Research Question 4: What are the Turkish EFL Learners' Perceived Levels of their L2 Learning Experience?.....	122
Research Question 5: What are the Turkish EFL Learners' Perceived Levels of their Imagery Capacity?.....	123
Research Question 6: What are the Turkish EFL Learners' Perceived Levels of their Motivation to Learn English?	124
Research Question 7: What are the Turkish EFL Learners' Perceived Levels of their English Learning Anxiety?	124

Research Question 8: What are the Interrelationships between the Turkish EFL Learners' WTC in English inside the Classroom, WTC in English outside the Classroom, Ideal L2 self, Ought-to L2 self, L2 Learning Experience, L2 Motivation, L2 Anxiety, Imagery Capacity, Vocabulary Size and their Course Achievement?.....	125
Preliminary Analyses	128
Assessing the Normality of Data	128
Exploring the Construct Validity of the Scales.....	135
Research Question 9: Is the Hypothesized Model of L2 WTC Appropriate for the Turkish EFL Learners in terms of Explaining the Relationships between their WTC in English, Ideal L2 self, Ought-to L2 self, L2 Learning Experience, L2 Motivation, L2 Anxiety, Imagery Capacity, Vocabulary Size and their Course Achievement?.....	155
Qualitative Findings	162
Research Question 10: What are Factors Affecting the Turkish EFL Learners' Levels of WTC in English inside and outside the Classroom? .	162
Summary of the Findings	182
Chapter 5 Discussion	186
EFL Learners' Perceived Levels of Willingness to Communicate in English inside and outside the Classroom.....	186
Evaluation of the Hypothesized Model.....	187
The Factors Influencing EFL learners' Willingness to Communicate in..... English inside and outside the Classroom	193
Chapter 6 Conclusion and Suggestions	201
Summary of the Study.	201
Conclusion of the Study.	205
Methodological Implications of the Study.....	206
Pedagogical Implications of the Study	207
Limitations of the Study.....	209

Suggestions for Further Studies	210
References	212
APPENDIX -A: Participant Consent Form	268
APPENDIX -B: Composite Survey Instrument (TURKISH)	269
APPENDIX -C: Composite Survey Instrument (ENGLISH)	275
APPENDIX -D: Productive Vocabulary Size Test.....	281
APPENDIX -E: Vocabulary Levels Test	286
APPENDIX -F: Semi-Structured Interview Guide (TURKISH)	292
APPENDIX -G: Semi-Structured Interview Guide (ENGLISH).....	297
APPENDIX -H: Ethics Committee Approval	302
APPENDIX -I: Permission Letter For Data Collection.....	303
APPENDIX -J: Declaration of Ethical Conduct	304
APPENDIX -K: Dissertation Originality Report	305
APPENDIX -L: Yayımlama ve Fikrî Mülkiyet Hakları Beyanı	306

List of Tables

Table 1 <i>Taxonomies of Individual Learner Differences</i>	30
Table 2 <i>Demographic Information about the Participants</i>	96
Table 3 <i>Reliability Analysis Results of the Pilot and Original Studies</i>	102
Table 4 <i>Reliabilities for Each Level of the Test</i>	103
Table 5 <i>Reliability of the Levels Sections</i>	104
Table 6 <i>Demographic Information about the Participants</i>	108
Table 7 <i>Demographic Information about the Interviewees</i>	109
Table 8 <i>An Overview of the Composite Survey Instrument Items</i>	110
Table 9 <i>Reliability of the Levels Sections</i>	114
Table 10 <i>Timeline of the Data Collection Procedures</i>	116
Table 11 <i>Descriptive Statistics: WTC in English inside and outside the Classroom Including Scale Items</i>	119
Table 12 <i>Descriptive Statistics: EFL Learners' Perceived Levels of their WTC in English inside and outside the Classroom</i>	120
Table 13 <i>A Comparison of the EFL Learners' Perceived Levels of their WTC in English inside and outside the Classroom</i>	121
Table 14 <i>Descriptive Statistics: EFL learners' Perceived Levels of their Ideal L2 Self</i>	121
Table 15 <i>Descriptive Statistics: EFL Learners' Perceived Levels of their Ought-to L2 Self</i>	122
Table 16 <i>Descriptive Statistics: EFL Learners' Perceived Levels of their L2 Learning Experience</i>	123
Table 17 <i>Descriptive Statistics: EFL Learners' Perceived Levels of their Imagery Capacity</i>	123
Table 18 <i>Descriptive Statistics: EFL Learners' Perceived Levels of their Motivation to Learn English</i>	124
Table 19 <i>Descriptive Statistics: EFL Learners' Perceived Levels of their English Learning Anxiety</i>	125
Table 20 <i>Pearson Product-moment Correlations between the Variables</i>	126
Table 21 <i>Descriptive Statistics of the Variables</i>	128
Table 22 <i>Tests of Normality</i>	129
Table 23 <i>Fit Indices and their Acceptable Thresholds</i>	137

Table 24 <i>Fit Indices of the L2 WTC inside the Classroom Scale</i>	140
Table 25 <i>Fit Indices of the L2 WTC outside the Classroom Scale</i>	143
Table 26 <i>Fit Indices of the Ideal L2 Self Scale</i>	144
Table 27 <i>Fit Indices of the Ought-to L2 Self Scale</i>	147
Table 28 <i>Fit Indices of the L2 Learning Experience Scale</i>	148
Table 29 <i>Fit Indices of the L2 Motivation Scale</i>	151
Table 30 <i>Fit Indices of the L2 Anxiety Scale</i>	152
Table 31 <i>Fit Indices of the Imagery Capacity Scale</i>	154
Table 32 <i>A Summary of the Psychometric Properties of the Scales</i>	155
Table 33 <i>Step-by-step Modification of the Hypothesized Model</i>	158
Table 34 <i>Standardized Direct, Indirect, and Total Effects for the Model</i>	160
Table 35 <i>EFL Learners' Perceptions of the Factors Affecting their WTC in English inside the Classroom</i>	163
Table 36 <i>EFL Learners' Perceptions of the Factors Affecting their WTC in English outside the Classroom</i>	164

List of Figures

<i>Figure 1.</i> The hypothesized model of L2 WTC.	21
<i>Figure 2.</i> The communication process.	34
<i>Figure 3.</i> MacIntyre's (1994) causal model for predicting WTC by using personality-based variables.	39
<i>Figure 4.</i> Conceptual model.	40
<i>Figure 5.</i> MacIntyre and Charos' (1996) model of L2 WTC.	42
<i>Figure 6.</i> The heuristic model of variables affecting WTC.	43
<i>Figure 7.</i> Normal probability plot of L2 WTC inside the classroom scale.....	130
<i>Figure 8.</i> Normal probability plot of L2 WTC outside the classroom scale.	130
<i>Figure 9.</i> Normal probability plot of ideal L2 self scale.	131
<i>Figure 10.</i> Normal probability plot of ought-to L2 self scale.....	131
<i>Figure 11.</i> Normal probability plot of L2 learning experience scale.	132
<i>Figure 12.</i> Normal probability plot of L2 motivation scale.	132
<i>Figure 13.</i> Normal probability plot of L2 anxiety scale.	133
<i>Figure 14.</i> Normal probability plot of imagery capacity scale.	133
<i>Figure 15.</i> Normal probability plot of vocabulary size test.	134
<i>Figure 16.</i> Normal probability plot of course achievement scores.	134
<i>Figure 17.</i> Results of the CFA for L2 WTC inside the classroom scale (t-values). ...	138
<i>Figure 18.</i> Results of the CFA for L2 WTC inside the classroom scale (standardized coefficients).	139
<i>Figure 19.</i> Results of the CFA for L2 WTC outside the classroom scale (t-values). ...	141
<i>Figure 20.</i> Results of the CFA for L2 WTC outside the classroom scale (standardized coefficients).....	142
<i>Figure 21.</i> Results of the CFA for ideal L2 self scale (t-values).....	143
<i>Figure 22.</i> Results of the CFA for ideal L2 self scale (standardized coefficients)....	144
<i>Figure 23.</i> Results of the CFA for ought-to L2 self scale (t-values).	145
<i>Figure 24.</i> Results of the CFA for ought-to L2 self scale (standardized coefficients).	146
<i>Figure 25.</i> Results of the CFA for L2 learning experience scale (t-values).....	147
<i>Figure 26.</i> Results of the CFA for L2 learning experience scale (standardized coefficients).	148
<i>Figure 27.</i> Results of the CFA for L2 motivation scale (t-values).....	149

<i>Figure 28. Results of the CFA for L2 motivation scale (standardized coefficients)..</i>	150
<i>Figure 29. Results of the CFA for L2 anxiety scale (t-values).....</i>	151
<i>Figure 30. Results of the CFA for L2 anxiety scale (standardized coefficients).....</i>	152
<i>Figure 31. Results of the CFA for imagery capacity scale (t-values).</i>	153
<i>Figure 32. Results of the CFA for imagery capacity scale (standardized coefficients).</i>	154
<i>Figure 33. L2 WTC model to be tested.....</i>	156
<i>Figure 34. The path coefficients of the initial model (with t-statistics).....</i>	157
<i>Figure 35. The structural model of L2 WTC (final model).....</i>	159



Abbreviations

CA:	Communication Apprehension
CLIL:	Content and Language Integrated Learning
DMC:	Directed Motivational Current
EAP:	English for Academic Purposes
EFL:	English as a Foreign Language
EI:	Emotional Intelligence
ESL:	English as a Second Language
FLA:	Foreign Language Anxiety
FLL:	Foreign Language Learning
FNE:	Fear of Negative Evaluation
ICC:	Intercultural Communicative Competence
ID:	Individual Difference
IDs:	Individual Differences
L1:	First Language
L2:	Second Language
L2LE:	Second Language Learning Experience
L2MSS:	Second Language Motivational Self System
L2 WTC:	Willingness to Communicate in a Second Language
LISREL:	Linear Structural Relations
MI:	Multiple Intelligences
NNSS:	Non-native Speakers
NSs:	Native Speakers
SEM:	Structural Equation Modeling
SLA:	Second Language Acquisition
SPCC:	Self-perceived Communication Competence

SPSS: Statistical Package for Social Sciences

SR: Self-regulation

TA: Tolerance of Ambiguity

WTC: Willingness to Communicate



Chapter 1

Introduction

Statement of the Problem

Recent second language pedagogy has attached great importance to the use of L2 both inside and outside the classroom with the intention of developing language learners' communicative competence. There has been an intensive focus on communicative approaches to language teaching, which place greater emphasis on the engagement of language learners in communication (Savignon, 2005). This emphasis upon the active use of the target language in L2 classrooms posits the idea that "learners have to talk in order to learn" (Skehan, 1989, p. 48). Theories of language acquisition such as Long's (1985) Interaction Hypothesis and Swain's (1985) Comprehensible Output Hypothesis have also highlighted the importance of interaction and comprehensible output in second language learning and made significant contributions to the recent emphasis attached to Communicative Language Teaching.

As the use of target language has been widely acknowledged as an indicator of and an important prerequisite to successful L2 learning (Ellis, 2008; Seliger, 1977; Swain, 1985), willingness to communicate in a second language (L2 WTC), a recent addition to individual difference variables, is regarded as a construct of obvious relevance to L2 learning and as "the most immediate determinant of L2 use" (Clément et al., 2003, p. 191). A greater L2 WTC will result in better L2 development and more effective communication in various communication settings (MacIntyre et al., 1998). To put it differently, as "a means and an end at the same time" (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 210), L2 WTC takes the role of both the individual difference variable facilitating the second language learning process, and the final objective of the L2 instruction (MacIntyre et al., 1998). It is a complex individual difference variable that integrates a number of learner variables which have been widely accepted to exert influence on second language acquisition (SLA) (Dörnyei, 2005).

The aforementioned advantages of L2 WTC have provided the main impetus for researchers to examine a range of variables underlying the construct (Ellis, 2008). Over the last two decades, L2 WTC has received enormous interest

in the realm of L2 acquisition and an increasing number of studies have been conducted so as to determine the factors affecting learners' WTC in a second language. The majority of these studies have employed self-report data rather than utilizing qualitative data collection techniques such as observations, reflective journals and interview data and investigated learners' L2 WTC and its relation to other individual difference variables in the English as a second language (ESL) context. In spite of these studies conducted in different L2 learning contexts, WTC research in the Turkish EFL (English as a Foreign Language) context is still in its infancy. Therefore, the central problem of the present study is to probe the interrelationships between tertiary level Turkish EFL learners' WTC in English, ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, L2 learning experience, imagery capacity, L2 motivation, L2 anxiety, vocabulary size and their course achievement. Their perceived levels of WTC in English inside and outside the classroom will also be explored. What is more, their perceptions about the factors influencing their WTC in English will be investigated in the current study. Being different from the previous studies in the field, this study will include the L2 motivational self system (ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, L2 learning experience), imagery capacity, vocabulary size and course achievement as the probable predictors of L2 WTC. Moreover, the study will employ both qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis methods to examine the extent to which Turkish EFL learners are willing to communicate in English and unfold the variables that influence their L2 WTC. It is likely that this research study will contribute to the related literature with respect to the interrelationships between WTC in English and some major affective (i.e. ideal L2-self, ought-to L2 self, L2 learning experience, L2 motivation, L2 anxiety, imagery capacity) and linguistic factors (i.e. vocabulary size, course achievement) and will serve to fill a gap in the literature. The present study will also enlighten foreign language teachers, teacher trainers and curriculum developers in terms of the existence of an important learner variable that directly affects learners' actual L2 use and makes significant differences in their overall L2 learning success.

Purpose of the Study

This study aims to probe Turkish EFL learners' perceived levels of WTC in English inside and outside the classroom. The study also aims to explore the probable interrelationships between L2 WTC and some major affective (i.e. ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, L2 learning experience, imagery capacity, L2 motivation, L2 anxiety) and linguistic factors (i.e. vocabulary size and course achievement). Besides, Turkish EFL learners' perceptions about the factors influencing their WTC in English will be examined.

Based on the earlier research, this study proposes a model to test the interrelationships of affective and linguistic variables through path analysis. The model integrates ten variables: L2 WTC inside the classroom, L2 WTC outside the classroom, ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, L2 learning experience, L2 anxiety, L2 motivation, imagery capacity, vocabulary size and course achievement. Model specification is based on the following theoretical considerations.

Of the three dimensions of the L2 motivational self system, ideal L2 self has been speculated to be closely linked to L2 anxiety (Peng, 2015), L2 WTC inside the classroom and L2 WTC outside the classroom (Kanat-Mutluoğlu, 2016; Munezane, 2013, 2014; Öz, 2016; Öz et al., 2015). An indirect path from ought-to L2 self to L2 WTC inside the classroom has been hypothesized. Ought-to L2 self has been proposed to indirectly influence L2 WTC only inside the classroom via L2 anxiety and L2 learning experience (Peng, 2015). Meanwhile, a direct path from L2 learning experience to L2 WTC inside the classroom has been hypothesized (Papi, 2010; Peng, 2015). Direct paths from L2 anxiety to L2 WTC inside the classroom and L2 WTC outside the classroom have been anticipated in the model based on the previous empirical evidence (Chu, 2008; Hashimoto, 2002; Kang, 2005; MacIntyre & Charos, 1996; MacIntyre & Clément, 1996; MacIntyre et al., 1999; Matsuoka, 2005; Peng, 2007, 2015; Peng & Woodrow, 2010; Yashima, 2002; Yu, 2009; Yu et al., 2011).

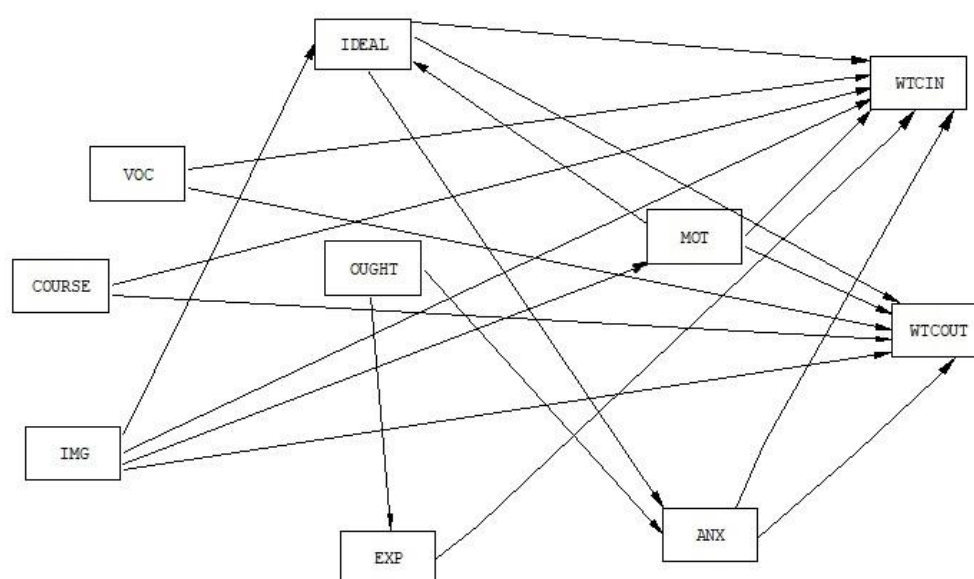


Figure 1. The hypothesized model of L2 WTC.

Note. WTCIN=L2 Willingness to Communicate inside the Classroom; WTCOUT=L2 Willingness to Communicate outside the Classroom; IDEAL=Ideal L2 Self; OUGHT=Ought-to L2 Self; EXP=L2 Learning Experience; MOT=L2 Motivation; ANX=L2 Anxiety; IMG=Imagery Capacity; VOC=Vocabulary Size; COURSE=Course Achievement.

L2 motivation has been proposed to be directly associated with both in-class L2 WTC and out-of-class L2 WTC (Baker & MacIntyre, 2000; Fallah, 2014; Hashimoto, 2002; Jung, 2011; MacIntyre et al., 2002; Peng, 2007; Yashima, 2002; Yu, 2009). Moreover, a path leading from L2 motivation to ideal L2 self (Demir Ayaz, 2016; Dörnyei, 2005, 2010; Dörnyei & Chan, 2013; Khan, 2015) has been added to the model. It has also been reported that imagery capacity is closely associated with L2 motivation (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013; Murray, 2013; Ueki & Takeuchi, 2013; Williams, Mercer, & Ryan, 2015) and ideal L2 self (Al-Shehri, 2009; Dörnyei & Chan, 2013; Kim, 2009; Kim & Kim, 2011; Yang & Kim, 2011). This means that a high capacity of vision is required for learners to be able to create a vivid ideal L2 self. Learners who have a high imagery capacity can create a clearer and more reachable vision of that desired self. Experiencing an achievement of their ideal L2 self in their vision stimulates learners to reach that self and finally results in high levels of L2 motivation. This, in turn, may influence their communication behavior and WTC both inside and outside the classroom. Therefore, paths from imagery capacity to in-class L2 WTC and out-of-class L2

WTC have been hypothesized in addition to the paths leading from imagery capacity to ideal L2 self and L2 motivation.

As a linguistic variable, vocabulary size has been speculated to contribute to learners' L2 WTC (Cao, 2005, 2011; Peng, 2012; Yaghoobi, 2010). Thus, paths leading from vocabulary size to L2 WTC inside the classroom and L2 WTC outside the classroom have been respectively hypothesized. Furthermore, it is expected that L2 WTC could be influenced by learner achievement in the English course (Baghaei et al., 2012; Mahmoodi & Moazam, 2014; Rastegar & Karami, 2015). Accordingly, a path from course achievement to in-class WTC in English and another path from course achievement to out-of-class WTC in English have been added to the model. In brief, the variance in the learners' WTC in English has been hypothesized to be predicted by the above-mentioned affective and linguistic factors in the model.

Research Questions

Regarding the research gap on the interrelationships between WTC in English, L2 motivational self system (ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, L2 learning experience), L2 motivation, L2 anxiety, imagery capacity, vocabulary size and course achievement, the study aims to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the Turkish EFL learners' perceived levels of WTC in English inside and outside the classroom?
2. What are the Turkish EFL learners' perceived levels of their ideal L2 self?
3. What are the Turkish EFL learners' perceived levels of their ought-to L2 self?
4. What are the Turkish EFL learners' perceived levels of their L2 learning experience?
5. What are the Turkish EFL learners' perceived levels of their imagery capacity?
6. What are the Turkish EFL learners' perceived levels of their motivation to learn English?

7. What are the Turkish EFL learners' perceived levels of their English learning anxiety?
8. What are the interrelationships between the Turkish EFL learners' WTC in English inside the classroom, WTC in English outside the classroom, ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, L2 learning experience, L2 motivation, L2 anxiety, imagery capacity, vocabulary size and their course achievement?
9. Is the hypothesized model of L2 WTC appropriate for the Turkish EFL learners in terms of explaining the relationships between their WTC in English, ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, L2 learning experience, L2 motivation, L2 anxiety, imagery capacity, vocabulary size and their course achievement?
10. What are the factors influencing the Turkish EFL learners' WTC in English inside and outside the classroom?

Significance of the Study

The significance of the study can be explained from four different aspects. Firstly, so far, none of the studies on L2 WTC has examined the effect of imagery capacity, vocabulary size and course achievement on learners' WTC in English. The model proposed in the present study will mark the first step toward making use of ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, L2 learning experience, L2 motivation, L2 anxiety, imagery capacity, vocabulary size and course achievement to account for EFL learners' willingness to communicate in English. In this context, this study is planned to be the first doctoral dissertation in Turkey which explores the influence of both affective and linguistic factors on learners' WTC in English and thus it will be expected to fill the gap in the literature.

Secondly, most of the previous studies have investigated language learners' L2 WTC and its relation to other individual difference variables in the ESL context. Being different from these studies, the present study will be carried out in the EFL context. Hence, the findings of the study will allow us to gain a deeper understanding of L2 learning in a setting in which language learners usually do not have the opportunity to use English outside the classroom.

The study is also significant in that it employs a mixed methods research design, which combines quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis methods. Unlike most studies employing quantitative data only, this study will investigate the theoretically hypothesized L2 WTC model through multiple data collection and analysis methods. The findings of the quantitative data analysis will be elaborated by using the findings obtained from the semi-structured interviews. Lastly, as the study will be carried out with a great number of participants, the findings of this study will be quite generalizable and will provide valuable implications for language teachers, instructors, teacher trainers and material and curriculum developers in the Turkish educational context.

Assumptions of the Study

The present study has the following assumptions as a basis for the research:

1. The sample taken for the current study is the representative of the entire population.
2. All of the participants take part in the study voluntarily in accordance with the purpose of the study as they sign a consent form.
3. The data collection instruments are appropriate for the goal of the study.
4. The participants respond to the questionnaires sincerely and completely.
5. The participants answer the questions in the vocabulary test conscientiously.
6. The interview group participants answer the semi-structured questions faithfully and express themselves honestly.
7. The results of the study reflect the real perceptions of the learners' WTC in English inside and outside the classroom, ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, L2 learning experience, L2 motivation, L2 anxiety, and their imagery capacity.

Limitations of the Study

The main limitation of the current study lies in the number of items in the composite survey instrument. As the study consisted of a large number of variables to be examined in relation to each other, the composite survey instrument had many items. In order to overcome this limitation, the participants were given sufficient time to fill in the questionnaire. Another limitation is that the WTC scale which was employed in this study was originally developed for the ESL context. Situations like “read an advisement in the paper to find a good bicycle you can buy” or “a stranger enters the room you are in, how willing would you be to have a conversation if he talked to you first?” are naturally encountered if the language is learned as an L2. In foreign language learning (FLL) contexts, these opportunities never arise since authentic communications take place in the learners’ native language. In other words, limitations in communication possibilities and purposes of communication make the foreign language WTC and L2 WTC very different. To overcome this limitation, the L2 WTC Scale was adapted slightly to consist of communication situations and tasks more prevalent in the EFL context. For example, the item “write an advertisement to sell an old bike” was changed to “write an invitation to invite your classmates to a weekend party”. The word ‘French’ was also replaced with ‘English’. Lastly, the study was carried out with the participation of only tertiary level EFL learners. Although the current study had a large number of participants, it did not cover every type of language learner profile in Turkey. Thus, the findings gained from this study can be generalized only to tertiary level EFL students in Turkey.

Definitions of Terms

The following key terms have been defined to facilitate the understanding of the terms within the context of this study:

Willingness to communicate (WTC): The concept of WTC, which was originally developed by McCroskey and Baer (1985), is described as the intention to engage in communication when given the opportunity. It refers to “an individual’s personality-based predisposition to approaching or avoiding the initiation of communication when free to do so” (McCroskey, 1997, p. 77).

Willingness to communicate in a second language (L2 WTC): It refers to “a readiness to enter into a discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using an L2” (MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clément, & Noels, 1998, p. 547).

Ideal L2 self: Csizér and Dörnyei (2005) defines ideal L2 self as “the representation of all the attributes that a person would like to possess (e.g., hopes, aspirations, desires)” (p. 616). It is also described as “the L2-specific dimension of one’s ideal future self-representation, whereby motivation is shaped by aspirations towards desirable future images of oneself as a proficient L2 user” (Mercer, Ryan, & Williams, 2012).

Ought-to L2 self: It refers to “the attributes that one believes one ought to possess (i.e., various duties, obligations or responsibilities)” (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005, p. 617).

L2 learning experience (L2LE): It concerns “situated, executive motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience (e.g. the impact of the teacher, the curriculum, the peer group)” (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 29).

L2 motivation: It is defined as “the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity” (Gardner, 1985, p. 10).

L2 anxiety: Anxiety, in general, is described as “the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system” (Spielberger, 1983, p. 15). Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) define L2 anxiety as “the apprehension experienced when a situation requires the use of a second language with which the individual is not fully proficient” (p. 5).

Imagery capacity (Vision): It is simply defined as “the ability to create visual imagery in one’s mind” (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013, p. 446). Within the context of SLA, it refers to learners’ personal illustrations of their future goal states (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013).

Individual differences (IDs): IDs are defined as “characteristics or traits in respect of which individuals may be shown to differ from each other” (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 1).

English vocabulary size: It represents the total number of English words that learners know. Nation (2001) differentiates between receptive and productive vocabulary size. The former refers to perceiving and recognizing a word while listening or reading and understanding its meaning. The latter, on the other hand, refers to expressing and conveying a message through speaking or writing and producing an appropriate spoken or written form to do this (Nation, 1990; Read, 2000).

English course achievement: It refers to how much attainment learners get to reach the objectives of their English course in one academic term.



Chapter 2

Literature Review

Individual Differences in Second Language Acquisition

Since the day it appeared, the domain of psychology has been making attempt to attain two different and rather conflicting aims: to comprehend the basic codes of the human mind and to scrutinize the unique nature of it. The latter concern has led to the emergence of a separate subfield within the domain that has commonly been termed differential psychology but lately more often labeled as individual differences (IDs) research (Dörnyei, 2005). IDs are described as “characteristics or traits in respect of which individuals may be shown to differ from each other” (Dörnyei, 2005, p.1). Individual difference (ID) constructs are also described as dimensions of long-lasting individual characteristics that are believed to belong to all human beings and on which individuals differ by degree. To put it differently, they relate to “stable and systematic deviations from a normative blueprint” (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 4).

The importance of individual differences has been widely accepted in educational settings (Dörnyei, 2005). Interest in ID constructs has increased considerably since the 1960s to the point in which it has evolved into a key area of inquiry in second language acquisition (SLA) (Ellis, 2004). Having had a long history, individual differences predate the beginning of second language acquisition (Ellis, 2008). In the past fifty years of SLA research, the focus of second language acquisition has shifted from the language as a system of rules to the learner (Nagy, 2009), which in turn resulted in an increased interest in the psychological aspects of second language learning. A substantial body of research (Andreou & Galantomos, 2009; Cohen & Dörnyei, 2002; Cornwell & Robinson, 2000; Dörnyei, 2005, 2006, 2009; Dörnyei & Skehan, 2003; Ehrman, 1996; Ellis, 2004; Oxford, 1999c; Oxford & Ehrman, 1993; Robinson, 2002d; Segalowitz, 1997; Skehan, 1989, 1991) has ascertained the importance of IDs in the SLA process. Most of the researchers have established that second language learners’ linguistic development and variation in their ultimate attainment do not merely relate to external variables like the social and educational setting of L2 learning, but they are also considerably affected by internal factors, that is, individual

difference variables such as learners' cognitive abilities and their psychological states (Clément & Gardner, 2001; Cohen & Dörnyei, 2002; Ellis, 2008). Therefore, individual learner differences are regarded as the most important predictors of L2 learning achievement, exerting strong influences on ultimate L2 attainment in instructed settings (Dörnyei & Skehan, 2003; Sawyer & Ranta, 2001).

It has been long observed that L2 learners differ from each other not only in the rate of L2 learning but also in their success in mastering an L2 (Ellis, 2004). Although this variation in language learning outcomes can be ascribed to numerous variables like the quantity and quality of L2 experience, the length of instruction, the teaching methodology, and textbooks, it is IDs that seem to be of crucial importance in terms of determining success or failure in L2 learning (Pawlak, 2012). According to Cohen & Dörnyei (2002), individual differences are like 'considerable personal baggage' carried by L2 learners when they start to study an L2 and they have strong influences on how fast and how well learners are likely to learn that second language (p. 170). In other words, IDs are considered to be mediating variables which influence the way people learn and succeed in learning another language (Andreou, Andreou, & Vlachos, 2006) and account for a significant proportion of learner variation in L2 achievement (Dörnyei, 2009).

While there is a general agreement that the speed of L2 learning and the ultimate attainment are largely influenced by a variety of cognitive, affective and social learner characteristics, controversy exists as to the identification, description and classification of IDs (Pawlak, 2012). As Ellis (1985) states, individual difference variables are possibly limitless and not easy to categorize in a reliable way. A number of psychologists and applied linguists have tried to describe and classify IDs so as to determine factors that explain second/foreign language achievement. A chronological overview of selected taxonomies of individual differences is illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1

Taxonomies of Individual Learner Differences

Researcher	Taxonomy
Ellis (1985)	personal factors, general factors
Gardner (1985)	language aptitude, personality, attitudes and motivation, orientation
Chastain (1988)	self-concept, attitude, perseverance, internal versus external locus of control, introversion versus extroversion, interests and needs
Gardner & Clément (1990)	cognitive characteristics, attitudes and motivation, personality variables
Cook (1991)	motivation, attitudes, aptitude, age, other factors
Larsen-Freeman & Long (1994)	age, aptitude, socio-psychological factors, personality, cognitive style, hemisphere specialization, learning strategies, other factors
Williams & Burden (1997)	intelligence, cognitive style, motivation, anxiety, aptitude, learning strategies
Brown (2000)	styles and strategies, personality factors, sociocultural factors, age, aptitude, intelligence
Robinson (2002d)	intelligence, motivation, anxiety, language aptitude, working memory, age
Ehrman, Leaver, & Oxford (2003)	learning styles, learning strategies, affective variables
Dörnyei & Skehan (2003)	aptitude, cognitive and learning styles, learner strategies and motivation
Ellis (2004)	learner cognitions about L2 learning, propensities, learner actions, abilities,
Dörnyei (2006)	motivation, personality, aptitude, learning styles, learning strategies
Johnson (2008)	cognitive variables, affective variables, personality variables, learning strategies
Pawlak (2012)	cognitive and learning styles, aptitude, age, intelligence, learning strategies, motivation, beliefs, anxiety, willingness to communicate
Cohen (2010)	characteristics outside the teacher's control, characteristics that can be shaped during the process of L2 learning

As can be understood from the list above, the categorization of IDs has proved to be problematic as different researchers focus on a range of characteristics. Ellis (1985), for instance, prefers to distinguish between personal factors and general factors. While personal factors consist of nesting patterns,

transition anxiety and the wish to preserve an individual L2 learning agenda, general factors include modifiable (e.g. motivation) and unmodifiable factors (e.g. aptitude). Gardner (1985) divides IDs into four categories, language aptitude, personality, attitudes and motivation, and orientation. According to Chastain (1988), the development of L2 skills is influenced by such affective factors as self-concept, attitude, perseverance, internal versus external locus of control, introversion versus extroversion, interests and needs. Gardner & Clément (1990) provide a selection of IDs embracing cognitive characteristics (e.g. aptitude and learning strategies), attitudes and motivation (e.g. integrativeness, attitudes towards the learning situation, and motivation), and personality variables (e.g. anxiety, sociability, extroversion, field dependence/independence and empathy). The taxonomy proposed by Cook (2008) centers mainly around variables such as motivation, attitudes, aptitude and age whereas Larsen-Freeman and Long (1994) provide a comprehensive taxonomy which is comprised of eight IDs categories; age, language aptitude, cognitive style, socio-psychological factor, hemisphere specialization, personality, learning strategies and other variables including memory and sex.

Another classification comes from Williams & Burden (1997) who classify IDs into two categories: obvious and less obvious variables. The former refer to such variables as age, gender, personality, aptitude, intelligence and motivation whereas the latter encompass cognitive styles and strategies, anxiety and readiness to take risks. Brown (2000) focuses his attention on styles and strategies, personality factors, sociocultural factors, age, aptitude, and intelligence. As for the taxonomy of Robinson (2002), one can observe that IDs are confined to intelligence, motivation, anxiety, language aptitude, working memory, and age. Ehrman et al. (2003) argue that learning styles, learning strategies, and affective variables are the IDs which have an impact on L2 learning success or failure.

According to Dörnyei & Skehan (2003), IDs encompass a variety of variables including aptitude, cognitive and learning styles, learner strategies and motivation. In his succeeding taxonomy, Ellis (2004) divides IDs into four groups: abilities (e.g. intelligence, aptitude), propensities (e.g. learning style, personality, motivation, anxiety, and WTC), learner cognitions about L2 learning (e.g. learner beliefs), and learner actions (e.g. learning strategies). Dörnyei (2006) views

personality, motivation, learning styles, learning strategies and aptitude as key individual difference variables. The taxonomy of IDs proposed by Johnson (2008) consists of three main categories: cognitive variables (e.g. intelligence and aptitude), personality variables (e.g. extroversion/introversion, tolerance of ambiguity, empathy or ego permeability and cognitive style) and learning strategies. A comprehensive classification of IDs provided by Pawlak (2012) embraces many factors including intelligence, age, aptitude, motivation, cognitive and learning styles, learning strategies, anxiety, willingness to communicate and beliefs. Focusing on a different point, Cohen (2010) makes a distinction between the individual learner variables outside the teacher's control and the ones that can be shaped during the process of L2 learning. While age, gender and language aptitude are considered as the ones outside the teacher's control, such characteristics as motivation, learning styles, and learning strategies are the ones that can be formed in the course of L2 learning.

All in all, it is evident that there is no consensus on the number of ID variables or the degree of their importance. Just a brief look at the literature discloses that there exists great discrepancy in this regard, with different researchers suggesting differing classifications (Pawlak, 2012). This can be ascribed to the relative looseness of the concept of IDs (Dörnyei, 2005). Among individual learner differences, language aptitude (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1992; Harley & Hart, 1997; Skehan, 1989) and motivation (Dörnyei, 2005; Gardner, 1985; Gardner & Lambert, 1972) are viewed as the two key variables which have the potential to either facilitate or debilitate learning an L2 (Dörnyei, 2005). Two other learner characteristics, which are acknowledged as significant contributors to achievement in L2 learning are learning styles (Ehrman, 1994; Ehrman & Oxford, 1995; Ehrman et al., 2003) and learning strategies (Oxford, 2001). Some other well-known ID constructs consist of anxiety (Ely, 1986; Eysenck, 1979; Eysenck & Chan, 1982; Horwitz, 2001; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991a; Woodrow, 2006) personality (Dewaele & Furnham, 1999), willingness to communicate (Ellis, 2004; McCroskey & Baer, 1985; Pawlak, 2012), learner beliefs (Abraham & Vann, 1987; Park, 1995; Tanaka & Ellis, 2003), intelligence (Genesee, 1976; Skehan, 1990), attitudes (Dörnyei, 2005; Kormos, Kiddle, & Csizér, 2011), and self-concept (Csizér & Magid, 2014). ID variables are considered to affect each other and also

be influenced by various contextual factors. It is this interaction rather than the influence of only one characteristic that explains L2 learning outcomes (Pawlak, 2012). Therefore, it seems necessary to show how they relate to each other in order to make pedagogical recommendations for L2 classroom practice.

Willingness to Communicate

The concept of communication. Communication, which plays a major role in almost every aspect of our lives, is acknowledged to be of vital importance for the growth of human relations (Sallinen-Kuparinen, McCroskey, & Richmond, 1991). According to Adler & Proctor (2014), people communicate as they physically need it. Communication allows individuals to find out what their identity is and they also need others to provide stimulation as they are social beings (Adler & Proctor, 2014). Being reluctant to communicate with other people or being a poor communicator is regarded as an improper behavior in society (McCroskey & Richmond, 1987).

Communication, which has been derived from the Latin word 'communis' meaning 'to share' (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 97), has been variously described. In broad terms, communication is defined as a process in which information is exchanged between animals to the mutual adaptive advantage of both (Klopfer & Hatch, 1968). It is also described as the exchange of ideas and information between at least two individuals through the use of verbal (i.e., speaking and writing) and nonverbal (e.g., gestures, eye contact, and sign language) symbols (Canale, 1983). Another definition comes from Newman & Summer (1977) who describes it as the transfer of ideas, knowledge, or beliefs from one person to another.

Communication is referred to as an ongoing, dynamic, and ever-changing process (Berlo, 1960). There are three fundamental elements that are necessary for communication to occur: at least one speaker (the sender), a message which is transferred, and a person or persons for whom the message is planned (the receiver) (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 97). The basic communication process is presented in the figure below:

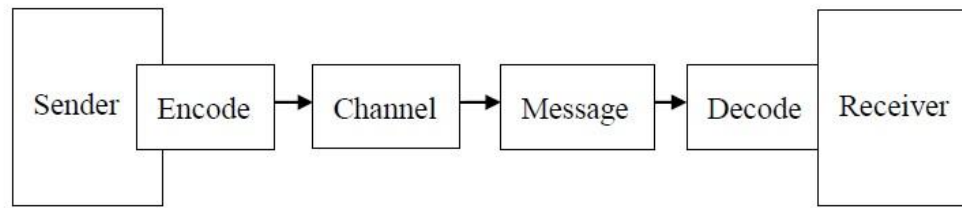


Figure 2. The communication process (Adler & Towne, 1978, p. 16).

Communication originates as mental images (i.e. ideas, thoughts, and emotions) within a sender who wants to communicate those images to a receiver. In order to transfer an image to the receiver, the sender translates the images into symbols that can be understood by the receiver. This process is referred to as encoding. Once the message has been encoded, the sender conveys the message to the receiver through transmission channels like verbal, written, and visual media. After the message is received, a decoding process, in which the receiver interprets the symbols and then decodes the information back into images, emotions, and thoughts that make sense to him/her, occurs. When the images of the sender and those of the receiver match, an effective communication takes place (Adler & Towne, 1978).

Although the process of communication seems to be straightforward, it is not reasonable to consider communication as a simple information transfer. It is a complex process which entails multiple aspects of the message such as verbal, non-verbal and behavioral aspects, the context in which communication takes places, the characteristics of the speaker and the audience, and the relationship between them (Pearson, Nelson, Titsworth, & Harter, 2003). As Beebe, Beebe, Ivy, & Watson (2005) suggest, all of these factors influence the communication process.

It is a well-known principle of communication that communication messages are both verbal and nonverbal (Civikly, 1997). While the verbal message is created through language, namely through words and phrases we draw on to communicate, nonverbal messages are formed via non-linguistic signs such as gestures, eye contact, and tone of voice. Another principle of communication proposed by Civikly (1997) is that communication is a system of rules and that most of the rules are embedded in our culture and discussed verbally rather than written in a rulebook.

As aforementioned, communication is a constant process of verbalization, interpretation, and negotiation. The communication opportunities are endless and involve a range of signs and symbols including language (Akay, 2009). Since language is the most important tool for human communication that offers a much greater degree of flexibility in expressing feelings, passing on information and ideas (Genç, 2007), language and communication are closely related (Sellars, 1969). Actually, the human being, through communication with other people, progressively learns language, whether it be first language or second language (Moazzam, 2014). Modern language pedagogy advances the notion that an individual must talk so as to learn (Skehan, 1989), usually endorsing a broadly-defined communicative approach to second language teaching. Moreover, the final objective of L2 learning is presently described as real communication between people of diverse cultures and different languages (MacIntyre et al., 1998). Therefore, communication is considered as more than a tool of assisting the progress of language learning, it is an essential aim itself (MacIntyre & Charos, 1996).

The origin and definitions of willingness to communicate. Individual difference variables in language learning such as motivation, anxiety, language aptitude, and others (Dörnyei, 2005), have been the subject of intensive research for more than 50 years (Gardner, 2009). One of the individual difference variables that have been the center of attraction in L2 research is WTC; a recent addition to the individual difference variables originating in the area of first language (L1) communication (Ellis, 2008). The concept of WTC, which was first developed by McCroskey and Baer (1985), is described as the intention to engage in communication when given the opportunity. To further specify the concept of WTC, McCroskey (1997) describes it as “an individual’s personality-based predisposition to approaching or avoiding the initiation of communication when free to do so” (p. 77). As such, WTC is understood as a construct that represents a psychological readiness to initiate communication, specifically talk.

The origins of the WTC construct go back to the first language communication research and can be seen in some related constructs (MacIntyre, 2007). The WTC evolved from the studies of Phillips (1968) on reticence, McCroskey (1977) on communication apprehension, Burgoon (1976) on

unwillingness to communicate, Mortensen, Arntson and Lustig (1977) on predispositions to verbal behaviour, and McCroskey and Richmond (1982) on shyness (McCroskey and Richmond, 1990). Later, McCroskey and Baer (1985) introduced WTC as a slightly more specific construct with its focus on speaking. It was conceptualized as a personality-based, trait-like construct, which is constant across diverse communication situations and receivers (McCroskey & Richmond, 1990). Moreover, it was regarded as a personality orientation, which explains why some people appear to be more willing to communicate than others under identical constraints (McCroskey and Richmond, 1990). Such variability in communicative behavior among people paved the way for the introduction of a new concept called WTC. WTC, as an overpowering communication personality construct, is considered to influence every aspect of one's life and contributes enormously to one's social, educational, and organizational success (Richmond & Roach, 1992).

Originally introduced by McCroskey and Baer (1985) with regard to L1 communication, the WTC construct was later applied to second language (L2) communication situations and redefined as "a readiness to enter into a discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using an L2" by MacIntyre and his associates (MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clément, & Noels, 1998, p. 547). A more classroom-specific definition of L2 WTC comes from Oxford (1997) who describes it as a learner's intention to interact with other learners in the target language when given the opportunity to do so. To Ellis (2008), who defines L2 WTC as the extent to which learners are ready for starting communication when they are given choice to do so, L2 WTC represents a complex construct leading to individual differences in language learning. It refers to a multifaceted construct that integrates psychological, linguistic, educational and communicative dimensions of language (MacIntyre, Burns and Jessome, 2011).

Willingness to communicate: trait-like predisposition versus situational construct. As in other individual difference variables such as motivation and anxiety, a distinction was often made between personality trait WTC and situational or state WTC (Dörnyei, 2005). Even though the influences of situational variables on a person's level of WTC were acknowledged, WTC was primarily considered as a stable personality trait (McCroskey & Baer, 1985). In his causal model of L1 WTC, MacIntyre (1994) also supported the notion of trait-like

WTC focusing exclusively on the influences of personality variables on the construct without regard to the situational variations of WTC. When the concept of WTC was adapted to L2 communication and learning by MacIntyre and Charos (1996), a number of additional influences were detected, resulting in a new perspective that considers L2 WTC as situational. Yet, L2 WTC was still conceived as mainly trait-like predisposition. Along with the introduction of the heuristic model of L2 WTC (MacIntyre et al., 1998), WTC was no longer viewed as a fixed personality trait. On the contrary, it was reconceptualized primarily as a situational variable, subject to change across a variety of contexts (MacIntyre et al., 1998).

The situation-specific nature of L2 WTC was further emphasized by other researchers (Cao & Philp, 2006; Kang, 2005). Kang's (2005) qualitative study, which explored changes in L2 WTC during communication between non-native speaker learners and native speaker tutors, demonstrated that WTC in an L2 may dynamically arise from the combined effect of excitement, responsibility, and security and show some moment-to-moment fluctuations. Topic, interlocutors, and conversational context were found to be other major situational factors that exert influence on L2 WTC. Hence, Kang (2005) introduced a new description of WTC as "an individual's volitional inclination towards actively engaging in the act of communication in a specific situation, which can vary according to interlocutor(s), topic, and conversational context, among other potential situational variables" (291). Likewise, Cao & Philp (2006) highlighted the dynamic nature of WTC in a second language. The inconsistency found between the L2 learners' self-perceived WTC (trait-like WTC) and their actual WTC behavior in the classroom (situational WTC) indicated that situational WTC was influenced by a number of contextual factors (Cao & Philp, 2006). In this way, the dual characteristics of L2 WTC were acknowledged in the field of L2 WTC research with a growing emphasis on the dynamic nature of L2 WTC and the mediating effects of contextual factors.

All in all, WTC in a second language is regarded both as a trait-like predisposition and a situational construct. The trait level WTC represents a learner's stable personality or enduring influences that show consistency across various circumstances (McCroskey & Baer, 1985). The situational or state level WTC, on the contrary, refers to a situation-based variable which is likely to change

over time and vary from situation to situation (MacIntyre et al., 1998). It is claimed that the trait level WTC and the state level WTC complement each other and can be integrated in second language learning (MacIntyre, Babin, & Clément, 1999). Trait-like WTC makes individuals ready for communication by building an inclination to put themselves in communication situations while situational or state level WTC affects their intention to initiate communication within a specific situation (MacIntyre, Babin, & Clément, 1999).

Willingness to communicate in the first language. The concept of WTC, which was originally viewed as a sort of personality trait, was advanced by McCroskey and Baer (1985) with respect to L1 communication. Naturally, research on L1 WTC has tended to center on communication-relevant individual difference variables that influence trait-like WTC (Richmond & Roach, 1992). McCroskey and Richmond (1987), for instance, suggested that WTC is positively correlated to other individual difference factors like communication apprehension, self-perceived communication competence, introversion, self-esteem, and cultural diversity. In a cross-cultural comparative study (McCroskey & Richmond, 1990) in which the probable relations among WTC, communication apprehension (CA), self-perceived communication competence (SPCC) and introversion in the USA, Sweden, Australia, Micronesia and Puerto Rico were investigated, it was found that both the degree of the individual difference variables under investigation and the degree of the relationships among these variables differ from country to country. The results of the study also indicated that the students from the USA were more eager to communicate while the Micronesian students were less willing to involve in communication. The Swedish learners were found to possess the highest SPCC whereas Micronesians had the lowest. Likewise, the difference between Swedish and Micronesian learners in relation to the correlation between WTC and SPCC was quite high. However, the correlation between WTC and SPCC of Americans and Australians were moderate. Additionally, the correlations between WTC and CA of different nations were moderate. In the light of the findings, it was concluded that culture can also be influential in individuals' orientations towards communication (McCroskey & Richmond, 1990).

In another study (Sallinen-Kuparinen, McCroskey, & Richmond, 1991), the communication orientations of Finnish college students were compared to those of

American students. The findings of this comparative study showed that the differences in communication-oriented behaviors of the participants were confined to WTC and introversion. The data concerning CA and SPCC for the two cultures were alike. Nevertheless, these two variables seemed to be much less determinant of WTC for Finns than they were for Americans. MacIntyre (1994) probed whether individual difference variables such as anomie, alienation, self-esteem, introversion, CA and SPCC are interrelated with each other as predictors of WTC in the first language using the causal model presented in the figure below:

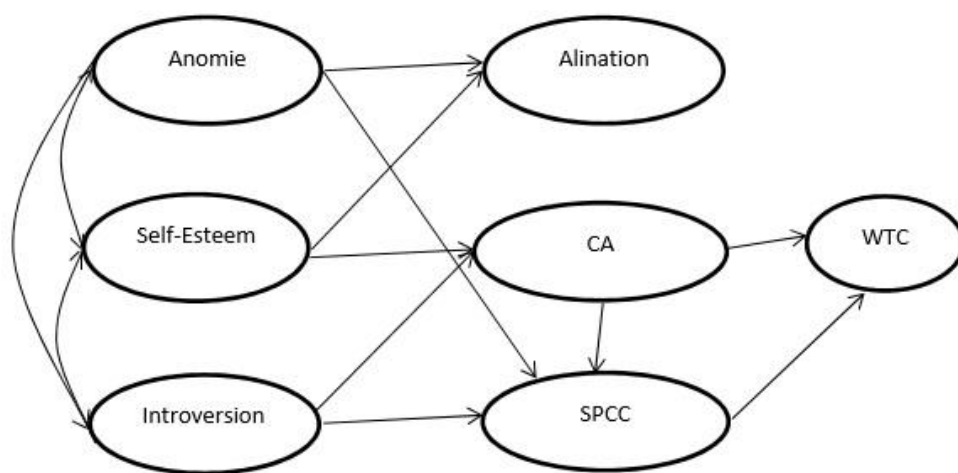


Figure 3. MacIntyre's (1994) causal model for predicting WTC by using personality-based variables.

The model starts with more general personality dispositions like anomie, self-esteem, and introversion, which are followed by more specific predispositions such as CA and SPCC. It ends with WTC, which is contemplated as the last step before an individual initiates communication. According to the model, WTC is considered to be most directly affected by a combination of CA and SPCC. In other words, individuals are more likely to be eager to communicate when they are not anxious and see themselves as capable communicators. This causal model also shows that CA and SPCC are associated with introversion, self-esteem, and to a certain extent, anomie. The model was revealed to indicate a good fit to data being able to explain nearly 60% of the variance in WTC (MacIntyre, 1994).

So as to delve into the antecedents of L1 WTC at both trait and state levels, MacIntyre, Babin & Clément (1999) carried out a study with the participation of

tertiary level students. A conceptual model describing the antecedents of WTC was proposed and tested using a structural equation modeling (see Figure 4). The variables under investigation were extraversion, emotional stability, self-esteem, CA and SPCC.

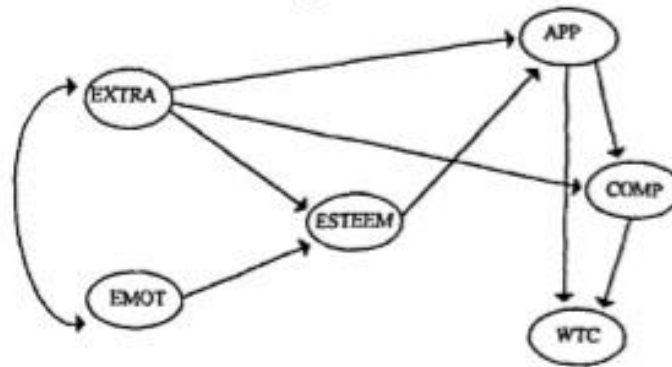


Figure 4. Conceptual model (MacIntyre, Babin & Clément, 1999).

Note. EXTRA=Extraversion; EMOT=Emotional Stability; ESTEEM=Self-esteem; APP=Apprehension; COMP=Competence; WTC=Willingness to Communicate.

Consistent with McCroskey and Richmond's (1987) analysis, self-esteem is assumed to affect WTC through communication apprehension. The two most significant determinants of WTC are CA and SPCC, which is in parallel with MacIntyre's (1994) model. Furthermore, there exists a path between CA and SPCC drawing on the assumption that individuals who experience high levels of anxiety are more inclined to perceive themselves as less capable communicators (MacIntyre, Noels, & Clément, 1997). The results of the study revealed that the path from SPCC to WTC was significant. CA, on the other hand, was not a significant predictor of WTC. CA had an impact on WTC only through SPCC, a finding that was akin to MacIntyre's (1994). Moreover, there was no significant correlation between SPCC and CA. Lastly, extraversion was detected to be correlated with self-esteem and SPCC.

Apart from the abovementioned antecedents of L1 WTC identified in the previous studies, there are other factors that may influence an individual's WTC. The topic of conversation, the formality of the context, the extent of prior acquaintance between the interlocutors, the level of evaluation of the speaker, the number of people present, and other factors have the potential to

change a person's WTC. Nevertheless, the most remarkable variable that an individual can change in the communication setting appears to be the language of communication. It is obvious that changing the language of discourse makes an important change in the communication setting since it has the potential to influence many factors that have an impact on WTC (MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1998).

Willingness to communicate in the second language. The advancements in research on WTC in L1 began to draw researchers' attention in the realm of SLA in the late 1990s. The conceptualization of WTC was extended from a simple personality trait to a more comprehensive variable, manifesting the decision to talk at a particular moment in time with a particular person or group using an L2 (MacIntyre, 2007). It was suggested that communicative competence is not adequate to enable learners to communicate effectively in the L2 and that other individual and situational factors affect their inclinations to start or involve in L2 communication as well (MacIntyre et al., 1998). Furthermore, it was observed that learners who have a high level of linguistic competence are reluctant to use their L2 for communication while other learners with limited linguistic competence appear to communicate in the L2 at every opportunity, which means again that learners' high level of communicative competence alone does not guarantee their spontaneous and incessant use of L2 (MacIntyre et al., 1998). Therefore, researchers have attempted to explore the interrelationships between linguistic, communicative and social psychological factors that may influence L2 WTC since the late 1990s.

MacIntyre & Charos' (1996) study was the first study that brings in the notion of WTC to second language learning and teaching literature and investigates learners' tendency to speak in an L2. As a modification of MacIntyre's (1994) model of L1 WTC, MacIntyre and Charos (1996) proposed the path model of L2 WTC in a Canadian university context and included perceived L2 competence, L2 anxiety, integrativeness, attitudes toward the learning situation, motivation, the big five personality traits (intellect, extraversion, agreeableness, emotional stability and conscientiousness) and L2 communication frequency in their model presented in Figure 5. The model incorporated Gardner's (1985) socio-educational model from which integrativeness, attitudes and motivation were

adapted (Matsuoka & Evans, 2005). As a result of the path analysis, it was revealed that perceived L2 competence and motivation were directly linked to L2 WTC. Both L2 anxiety and integrativeness had some indirect effects on WTC. L2 anxiety influenced WTC via perceived L2 competence and integrativeness had an impact on L2 WTC through motivation. It was concluded that the WTC model fits well to the L2 context.

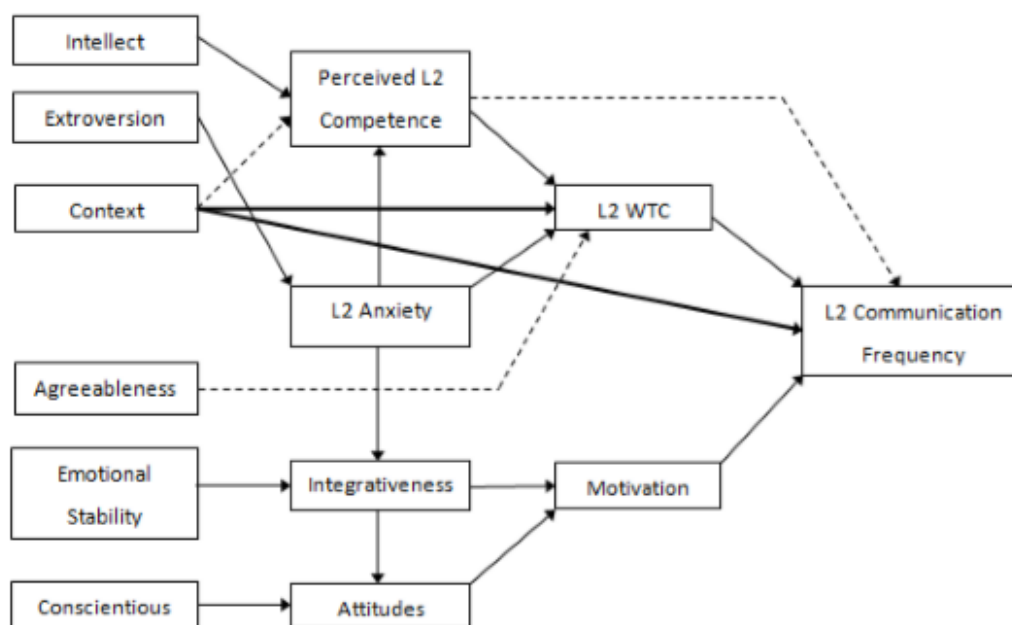


Figure 5. MacIntyre and Charos' (1996) model of L2 WTC.

MacIntyre and associates (1998) broadened what was suggested by MacIntyre and Charos (1996) on the assumption that WTC in L2 is not a straightforward manifestation of WTC in the L1 and made a clear distinction between WTC in one's first language and WTC in one's second language. Building on the empirical data, they attributed the non-transferability of WTC from L1 to L2 to the considerable variation in L2 users' communicative competence and social factors influencing L2 use (Burroughs et al. 2003; Cao & Philp, 2006; Charos, 1994; MacIntyre et al., 1998; MacIntyre et al., 2003). To MacIntyre et al. (1998), it is likely that L2 competence level ranges from approximately no L2 competence to full L2 competence while L1 speakers achieve much competence with that language. Besides, L2 use is considered to carry a wide variety of intergroup

issues with social, cultural and political implications that are generally unrelated to L1 use (MacIntyre et al., 1998).

The often-cited heuristic model presented in Figure 6 (MacIntyre et al., 1998) is comprised of a number of variables in a six-layered pyramid and provides a comprehensive account of linguistic, communicative and social psychological factors that potentially influence WTC in a second language and thus the real use of L2 (Jung, 2011). As can be seen in Figure 6, at the base of the pyramid, there are comparatively fixed factors, such as personality and intergroup climate. At the highest point of the pyramid, there is real L2 use in a particular situation. In between these two ends there exists an array of situational and contextual factors that merge with learner characteristics such as communicative competence and/or L2 self-confidence. The first three layers (i.e. communication behavior, behavioral intention and situated antecedents) represent situation-specific influences on WTC at a given moment in time. The other three layers (i.e. motivational propensities, affective-cognitive context and social and individual context), on the other hand, portray long-term effects on L2 communication process. Hence, from the highest point to the base of the pyramid, the layers indicate a transition from the most instant, situation-specific circumstances to the more constant, lasting effects on L2 communication circumstances. In this model, a large number of contextual and individual factors harmonize at any one moment to cause a learner using or not using the L2 (Williams et al., 2015).

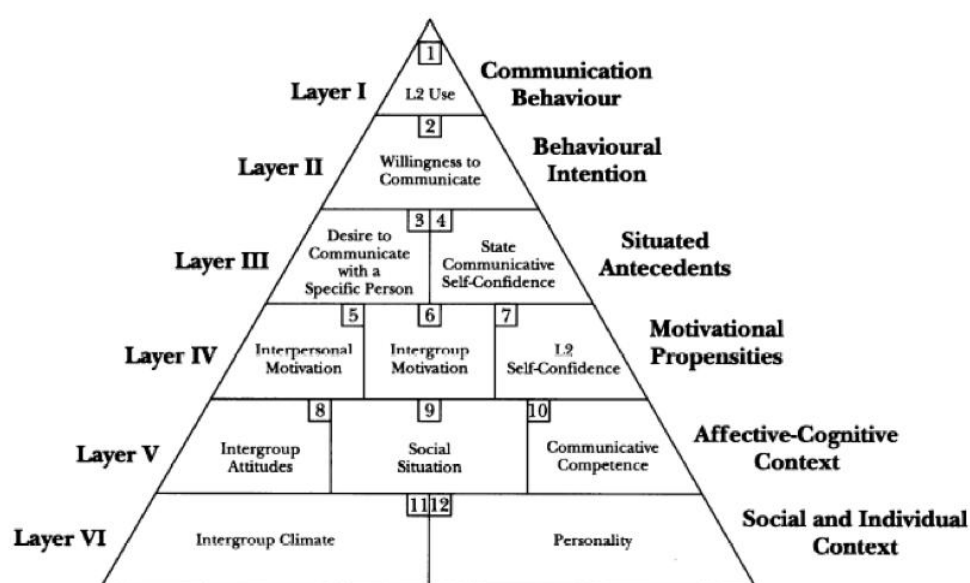


Figure 6. The heuristic model of variables affecting WTC (MacIntyre et. al, 1998).

At the base of the pyramid, there exists Layer VI, social and individual context, which encompasses an interaction between society and the individual (MacDonald, Clément, & MacIntyre, 2003). This layer is comprised of two components; intergroup climate and personality. Intergroup climate is described as the position of the target language within the society in which it is being learned (Williams et al., 2015). Positive intergroup climate promotes learning and use of a second language, while unsatisfactory intergroup climate might lower the willingness to learn and communicate in a different language (Gardner & Clément, 1990). Thus, the societal context offers opportunities for individuals to learn and use a second language (Clément, 1980, 1988). Personality is the second component that accounts for how individuals react to and communicate with the L2 community members. The big five personality traits including extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, and openness to experience affect L2 learning and the WTC in that second language (Goldberg, 1993; Lalonde & Gardner, 1984; MacIntyre & Charos, 1996). Different types of personalities may involve more or less readiness to learn an L2 and use it in actual communication (Ehrman, 1990; Ehrman & Oxford, 1990).

The next layer in the model, Layer V, is affective-cognitive context and includes three components. The first component is intergroup attitudes which entail the notion of integrativeness. While an individual's eagerness to identify with L2 community members may facilitate L2 learning (Gardner, 1985), a fear of assimilation may cause them to avoid learning or using that language (Clément & Kruidenier, 1985). The intergroup attitudes also include attitudes towards the second language itself. If an individual has positive attitudes towards learning the second language, they are more likely to use it in the future (MacDonald, Clément, & MacIntyre, 2003). The second component of the Layer V is communicative experience which results in different levels of WTC in the same individual in various contexts. Prior exposure to some communication situations may allow a person to be more eager to communicate in other similar situations although that experience may not be transferable to all situations. The last component making up the fifth layer is communicative competence. It is assumed that one's perception of their own communicative competence can either promote or impede their L2 WTC (Simić, 2014).

Layer IV deals with motivational propensities which consist of three variables with some enduring effects on WTC: interpersonal motivation, intergroup motivation, and L2 self-confidence. Interpersonal motivation is defined as an individual's relationship to the L2 and the speakers of that L2 and covers the link between the speaker and the L2 itself. Intergroup motivation refers to the attitudes, and relations between speakers as individuals and agents of language communities as well (MacIntyre et. al, 1998). The last variable in this layer is L2 self-confidence to which communicative competence contributes significantly together with experience. As the level of perceived communicative competence of an individual increases, so does their self-confidence, which leads to higher WTC in a second language (MacIntyre, Burns, & Jessome, 2011).

The third layer is referred to as situated antecedents which include two variables: desire to communicate with a specific person and state communicative self-confidence. The variables in this layer have situational influences on WTC and differ across situations. Desire to communicate with a specific person is affected by affiliation and control motives. While affiliation is considered as the most important motive in initiating a conversation in casual L2 communication situations, control may lead to L2 use as long as communicators feel comfortable with that second language. State communicative self-confidence is determined by SPCC and CA (Clément, 1980, 1986). According to MacIntyre and associates (2011), individuals experience different levels of competence and anxiety at different times, which leads to different levels of WTC in an L2 depending on the situation.

The last two layers in the heuristic model are WTC and actual L2 use. The culmination of the processes mentioned so far is variation in the L2 WTC. This implies the level of behavioral intention to speak which is described by Dörnyei & Otto (1998) as similar to the notion of crossing the Rubicon, the point at which an irrevocable decision has been taken to initiate communication in the second language. Sometimes an individual crosses this threshold with ease, but at other times only with unwillingness, hesitation, and even apprehension (MacIntyre, 2005). L2 use is placed at the peak of the pyramid since it is viewed as the main and final aim of the L2 learning (MacIntyre et al., 1998). The real use of the second language, also known as communication behaviour, seems to be directly reliant on the WTC. Therefore, people with high WTC tend to use L2 more

frequently and put themselves in situations calling for a second language more often (MacIntyre et al., 1998). To sum up, all these abovementioned variables in the model interact at the moment an individual decides to speak in an L2 (MacIntyre, 2007).

The importance of this multi-layered model lies in its being “the first attempt at a comprehensive treatment of WTC in the L2 as a situation-based variable” (MacIntyre et al., 1998, p. 558). It provides a detailed overview of personal and situational factors inherent in the WTC construct. The hypothesis it posits has inspired some other researchers (e.g. Atay & Kurt, 2007; Clément et al., 2003; Çetinkaya, 2005; Ghonsooly et al., 2012; Jung, 2011; Kang, 2005; Kim, 2004; MacIntyre et al., 1999; MacIntyre et al., 2001; MacIntyre et al., 2002; MacIntyre et al., 2003; Matsuoka, 2005; Peng, 2007; Wen & Clément, 2003; Yashima, 2002; Yashima et al., 2004; Yu, 2009) to test this model in various language learning contexts, which has contributed to the verification of many of the enduring factors presented in the model including motivation, communicative competence, attitudes, language anxiety and L2 self-confidence. However, there are some shortcomings of the model which are also acknowledged by MacIntyre and associates (1998). Firstly, the pyramid is one-dimensional resembling a triangle, and consequently shows neither the interrelations between the variables nor the weighting of these variables (Dörnyei, 2005). Secondly, the transition from enduring influences to immediate ones is not a simple hierarchy as sometimes enduring influences like social situation may bypass immediate ones (Cao, 2009). Lastly, the model has some components that may not be suitable for EFL contexts as it was advanced and assessed in the ESL context (Elwood, 2011).

To put it in a nutshell, as an intriguing construct, WTC in second language provides an integration of psychological, linguistic, educational and communicative approaches to second language research that has been commonly carried out independently (MacIntyre, 2007). An interesting fact claimed by MacIntyre (2007) is that WTC takes the role of both the individual difference variable facilitating second language acquisition process, particularly in an educational system that gives priority to communication, and the non-linguistic outcome of the second language learning. It is also considered as “the most immediate determinant of L2

use” (Clément et al., 2003, p. 191). It is in this connection that the WTC has been considered to be a key concept in L2 learning and teaching.

Individual difference variables affecting willingness to communicate in the second language. The complex and multifaceted nature of WTC is related to some individual difference factors such as CA, SPCC, communication self-confidence, motivation, personality, language attitude, and international posture. Some of these variables influence one’s WTC in L2 directly while others lead to differences in an individual’s WTC indirectly. These individual difference variables, which are also referred to as determinants of WTC, are considered to be essential to successful L2 learning (McCroskey & Richmond, 1987).

CA and SPCC have been indicated as the two key predictors of one’s L2 WTC (Bahadori & Hashemizadeh, 2018; Baker & MacIntyre, 2000; Clément et al., 2003; Çetinkaya, 2005; Hashimoto, 2002; Hodis, 2009; MacIntyre, 1994; MacIntyre & Clément, 1996; MacIntyre et al., 2001; MacIntyre et al., 2002; MacIntyre & Charos, 1996; Matsuoka, 2005; Piechurska-Kuciel, 2014; Weaver, 2010; Yashima, 2002). Communication apprehension, which was originally conceptualized by McCroskey (1977), refers to the fear or anxiety that an individual experiences in relation to real or expected communication. Language anxiety, which has become the preferred term when discussing communication apprehension in the L2 (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; Horwitz & Young, 1991), is defined as “the apprehension experienced when a situation requires the use of a second language with which the individual is not fully proficient” (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993, p. 184). Research on CA has consistently showed a negative correlation between CA and L2 WTC (Atay & Gökçe, 2007; Baker & MacIntyre, 2000; Chu, 2008; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Hashimoto, 2002; Kang, 2005; MacIntyre & Charos, 1996; MacIntyre & Clément, 1996; MacIntyre et al., 1999; Matsuoka, 2005; McCroskey & McCroskey, 2002; Peng, 2007; Peng & Woodrow, 2010; Sallinen-Kuparinen et al, 1991; Yashima, 2002; Yu, 2009; Yu et al., 2011). That is to say, students with high levels of anxiety about L2 communication tend to stay quiet and reluctant or less willing to take part in communication (Dörnyei, 2005; MacIntyre & Charos, 1996).

Self-perceived communication competence, the second key variable underlying WTC, is conceptualized as the belief in having ability to communicate in

the L2 appropriately and successfully (MacIntyre et al., 1998). It is associated with an individual's self-perception of his/her communication abilities rather than his/her actual competence (McCroskey, 1982). It is argued that it is not what individuals actually can do but what they believe they can do which affects their willingness to communicate (Barracough et al., 1988; McCroskey & Richmond, 1990a; McCroskey, 1977). This, in turn, implies that one's perceived level of communication competence may be more important than his/her actual ability to communicate. An individual, for instance, may be unwilling to communicate with other people using an L2 just because s/he considers him/herself incapable of getting into a conversation, even though s/he is actually equipped with high communicative competence (Yu et al., 2011). Conversely, a person who perceives him/herself as competent in L2 communication may tend to be more confident when communicating with others and therefore more enthusiastic about entering into a discourse using the L2 (MacIntyre, 1994). A positive relationship between SPCC and L2 WTC was found in a number of empirical studies (Atay & Kurt, 2009; Burroughs et al., 2003; Cao, 2011; Clément, 1986; Çetinkaya, 2005; Ghonsooly et al., 2012; Hashimoto, 2002; Knell & Chi, 2012; Kunitomo, 2007; Lahuerta 2014; Lu, 2007; Lu & Hsu, 2008; MacIntyre & Charos, 1996; McIntyre et al., 1999; McIntyre et al., 2002; Matsuoka, 2005; Peng, 2007; Peng & Woodrow, 2010; Piechurska-Kuciel, 2014; Wu, 2008; Yashima, 2002; Yashima et al., 2004). Accordingly, related research appears to validate the opinion that SPCC has a great potential to predict L2 WTC (McCroskey & Richmond, 1990).

CA and SPCC regarding the L2 were related through Clément's (1980) superordinate construct of self-confidence. In their pyramid model, MacIntyre et al. (1998) also integrated the two communicative variables, CA and SPCC, into the variable communication self-confidence. Thus, communication self-confidence might be described as a mixture of SPCC in L2 and lack of CA in L2 (Clément, 1980, 1986; Clément & Kruidenier, 1985). In general, the integration of low CA and sufficient SPCC (i.e. self-confidence) has been discovered to be a major determinant of L2 WTC (Barracough et al., 1998; Cao & Philp, 2006; Clément et al., 2003; Compton, 2004; Çetinkaya, 2005; Ghonsooly et al., 2012; Hashimoto, 2002; Hodis, 2009; MacIntyre, 1994; MacIntyre et al., 2003; MacIntyre & Charos, 1996; Peng & Woodrow, 2010; Weaver, 2010; Yashima, 2002; Yu, 2009). These

similar results suggest that learners who have a lower level of CA and experience a higher SPCC tend to be more eager to participate in L2 communication (Şener, 2014; Wattana, 2013; Yashima, 2002). To put it differently, communication self-confidence can enrich one's WTC in L2.

Another individual difference variable that contributes significantly to the enhancement of WTC in L2 is motivation (Clément & Gardner, 2001) although it is more closely linked to L2 learning and achievement than to L2 communication per se (Dörnyei, 2005). It is described as “a combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitudes towards learning the language” (Gardner, 1985, p. 10). It provides the main stimulus for L2 learning and the power to maintain the long and often boring learning process (Dörnyei, 2005). It is claimed that even learners with notable capabilities cannot achieve their goals unless they are sufficiently motivated to learn the L2. A significant body of research in SLA (e.g. Hashimoto, 2002; Yashima, 2002; Yashima et al., 2004; Peng, 2007; MacIntyre et al., 2001; MacIntyre, 2007) has demonstrated that motivation influences L2 WTC, which leads to greater frequency of actual L2 use. It has been suggested that learners who have higher levels of motivation to learn the L2 are more willing to use that L2 in class than those who have lower motivation (Bo-tong, 2012; Çetinkaya, 2005; Hashimoto, 2002; MacIntyre & Charos, 1996; MacIntyre et al., 2001; Peng, 2007; Peng & Woodrow, 2010; Yashima, 2002; Yashima et al., 2004). It has been revealed that motivation is directly (Baker & MacIntyre, 2000; Fallah, 2014; Hashimoto, 2002; Jung, 2011; MacIntyre et al., 2002; Peng, 2007; Yashima, 2002; Yu, 2009) or indirectly (Al-amrani, 2013; Çetinkaya, 2005; Kim, 2004; MacIntyre & Charos, 1996; MacIntyre et al., 2002; Öz et al., 2015; Yashima, 2002) related to WTC. As indicated in the heuristic model (MacIntyre et al., 1998), the impact of motivation on L2 WTC is hypothesized to be mediated by more immediate determinants of WTC such as CA and SPCC (MacIntyre et al., 2002). Motivation has been found to have an effect on L2 communication self-confidence, which in turn enhances students' L2 WTC (Yashima, 2002). It is also suggested that anxiety overrides the more distal influence of motivation on WTC (Munezane, 2014).

Personality is another significant variable that has been reported to exert influence on learners' WTC in L2. Personality is defined as those characteristics of

the individual that explain 'consistent patterns of feeling, thinking and behaving' (Pervin & John, 2001, p. 4). Recent research in personality is dominated by the two taxonomies of personality traits: the three-component model of personality (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985) and the Big-five model (Goldberg, 1993). The former encompasses contrasting extraversion with introversion, neuroticism and emotionality with emotional stability and psychoticism and tough-mindedness with tender-mindedness while the latter consists of extraversion, neuroticism, conscientiousness, agreeableness and openness to experience. Drawing on the previous findings that extraverts tend to talk more than introverts, McCroskey & Richmond (1990) claims that extraversion is a determinant of WTC. Apart from extraversion, agreeableness and openness to experience are also asserted to have a significant bearing on L2 WTC (Öz, 2014; Takač & Požega, 2011). Much as personality is not assumed to have a direct effect on one's L2 WTC, it still seems to play a role on WTC via other psychological factors like motivation, communication self-confidence and attitudes (Chu, 2008; Çetinkaya, 2005; Khany & Nejad, 2017; MacIntyre & Charos, 1996; MacIntyre et al, 1998; MacIntyre et al, 1999; MacIntyre, 2007; Matsuoka, 2005; Sallinen-Kuparinen et al., 1991; Sun, 2008; Yashima et al., 2004).

Language attitude has also been indicated as one of the key factors predicting the level of WTC in L2. Baker (1992) defines attitude as "a hypothetical construct used to explain the direction and persistence of human behavior" (p.10). Nevertheless, for learners, the attitudes they develop are not just towards the L2, but represent all the inner feelings related to learning a novel subject (Jung, 2011). To Gardner (1985), language attitude is composed of two components: the wish to learn the L2 so as to communicate with the people from the target language community (i.e. integrativeness) and the evaluation of the L2 teacher, the course and the curriculum (i.e. attitudes towards the learning situation). The importance of learners' language attitudes in explaining their WTC has been emphasized in many WTC studies (Clément et al., 2003; Dörnyei & Kormos, 2000; Ghonsooly et al., 2012; Hashimoto, 2002; Jung, 2011; MacIntyre et al., 1998; Şener, 2014; Yu, 2009).

Drawing on the pyramid model of WTC (MacIntyre et al., 1998) and the socio- educational model (Gardner, 1985), Yashima (2002) proposes the concept

of international posture as a substitution for learners' language attitudes. International posture refers to an interest in political events in other countries, eagerness to go to foreign countries for education or job, and willingness to communicate with people from different cultural backgrounds (Yashima, 2002). It is argued that international posture directly (Aubrey, 2010; Çetinkaya, 2005; Yashima, 2002; Yashima et al., 2004) or indirectly (Clément et al., 2003; Kim, 2004; Min, 2010) affects language learners' WTC in L2. Thus, it can be concluded that learners who show a higher interest in international affairs, occupations, and events tend to have a higher L2 WTC (Yashima, 2002).

To conclude, WTC in L2 is a complex ID variable that incorporates a large number of learner variables. CA and SPCC have been recognized to be the direct predictors of L2 WTC, whether they are conceptualized individually or described as a single construct (i.e. communication self-confidence). They amalgamate to build a state of L2 communication self-confidence which results in WTC in a particular situation (MacIntyre et al., 1998). Among other variables, motivation, language attitude and international posture have also been proved to exert an impact on one's desire to enter into a discourse in L2. Additionally, personality influences language learners' WTC in L2 although it appears to have an indirect effect on it through other learner variables. The aforementioned individual difference variables assist to make clear why some L2 learners who attain high levels of linguistic competence remain silent and others with restricted linguistic abilities speak constantly. These learner variables have been well established to have significant effects on L2 acquisition and use, leading to a construct in which psychological and linguistic variables are harmonized organically (Dörnyei, 2005).

L2 Motivational Self System

Over the last two decades, L2 motivation has received much attention in the realm of L2 acquisition due to its centrality to successful language learning. Although research on L2 motivation has been profoundly affected by Gardner's (1985) socio-educational model which acknowledges integrativeness as being the key construct (Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1994; Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015; Gardner, 1985, 2001), there has been a shift from traditional conceptualization of motivation towards more process-oriented approaches such as L2 motivational self system (Dörnyei, 2009). Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS) (Dörnyei, 2005)

is a novel conceptualization of motivation as part of the learner's self system and views the motivation to learn an L2 as being closely connected with the learner's self-imagery and ideal L2 self (Dörnyei, 2005, 2010; Dörnyei & Chan, 2013).

Dörnyei's non-traditional framework is deeply rooted in Higgins' (1987) Self-discrepancy Theory and the Possible Selves Theory proposed by Markus and Nurius (1986). According to Higgins (1987, 1998), the core content of motivation lies in the desire for individuals to decrease the inconsistency between their real self and ideal/ought to selves (Dörnyei, 2009; Taguchi, Magid, & Papi, 2009). The possible selves refer to visions of one's self in future possible states. These visions can include both desirable and undesirable images (Markus & Nurius, 1986) which refer to the various images people have of who they might become: (1) a possible future self that they would very much like to become (the ideal self), (2) a possible future self that they believe we ought to possess (the ought-to self), and (3) a possible future self they are afraid of becoming (the feared self) (Williams et al., 2015).

The L2MSS integrates the influences of psychological research on self and research on integrative motivation in the field of second language acquisition (Dörnyei, 2009). It is concerned with the L2-specific dimension to these visions and how they direct efforts to learn a second language. The model is composed of three main dimensions: the ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self and the L2 learning experience (Dörnyei, 2005, 2014).

Ideal L2 self. As the essential dimension of the L2MSS, the ideal L2 self is defined as "the L2-specific aspect of one's ideal self" (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 106). It symbolizes an individual's L2-specific hopes, aspirations, and desires (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005). It is regarded as the most effective motivator of the L2 learning process because it is closely related to a person's mastery of L2 (Ryan & Dörnyei, 2013). For example, if a person wishes to be a fluent speaker of a second language, the mental image of his/her self as a fluent second language speaker may act as an influential motivator to decrease the gap between his/her actual self and this ideal image (Papi, 2010).

Dörnyei (2014) emphasizes that amotivation may be attributed to the lack of a well-developed ideal L2 self. Therefore, ideal L2 self enormously contributes to

the gradual growth of L2 motivation and directs the rate and success of L2 learning (Huang, Hsu, & Chen, 2015; Lanvers, 2016). If a learner's ideal self involves becoming proficient in an L2, then this shows an integrative disposition. Besides, instrumentality can be linked to the learner's ideal L2 self when extrinsic motives have become internalized (Kim, 2009). If the learner genuinely wishes to learn English, for instance, he or she can imagine a successful ideal English self and thus create promotion-based instrumentality (e.g. being offered a good job, gaining promotion). The learners with ideal L2 self personalize the value of learning English and this in turn enables them to internalize their reasons to learn the language (Kim, 2009). Thus, the ideal L2 self involves the long-established motives of both integrativeness and instrumentality (Dörnyei, 2009).

The connection between ideal L2 self and L2 willingness to communicate has been confirmed by some researchers (e.g. Bursalı & Öz, 2017; Kanat-Mutluoğlu, 2016; Kim, 2009; Munezane, 2013, 2014; Noels, 2009; Öz, 2016; Öz et al., 2015). Munezane (2013), for instance, stated that the ideal L2 self, as an individual difference variable, is a direct determinant of L2 WTC. Having reported the indirect effect of ideal L2 self on L2 WTC through the mediation of SPCC and CA (Öz et al., 2015), Öz (2016) suggests that learners' ideal L2 self images enable them to create L2-specific visions and thus motivate learners to communicate in the L2 and contribute to their L2 learning achievement. Thus, learners' visualization of their future selves as L2 speakers has great potential to give them confidence to become effective communicators in that second language (Kanat-Mutluoğlu, 2016).

Ought-to L2 self. The ought-to L2 self, which relates to the characteristics that an individual assumes he/she ought to have to meet expectations and to refrain from potential undesirable consequences of their actions (Dörnyei, 2005), is the second dimension of Dörnyei's model. It corresponds to the less internalized (i.e. more extrinsic) types of instrumental motives and is more associated with one's perceived duties, obligations or responsibilities as a language learner (Dörnyei, 2005). For example, if an individual desires to learn an L2 so as to meet the expectation of his/her boss or teacher, the ought-to L2 self may function as the foremost stimulus for him/her to learn an L2 (Papi, 2010). Therefore, the ought-to

L2 self represents an instrumental drive with a prevention-focus like learning an L2 so as not to get fired from a job (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005).

As the ought-to L2 self is regarded as another major indicator of L2 motivation, some researchers (e.g. Dörnyei & Chan, 2013; Kim, 2009, 2011) have examined the link between the ought-to L2 self and L2 motivation. According to Dörnyei & Chan (2013), like the ideal L2 self, the ought to L2 self plays a key role in determining learners' motivational states. Nevertheless, it plays a more minor role than the ideal L2 self in activating the motivated behaviour of learners. In a study conducted by Kim (2011), it is also stated that the ought-to L2 self has a weaker impact on L2 motivation in comparison with the ideal L2 self because the ought-to L2 self functions only at the cognitive level and there is no emotional attachment to it by the learner. In other words, a learner who has ought-to L2 self image does not personalize the foundations of L2 learning and just perceives L2 learning as a duty or obligation. However, as Kim (2009) suggests, self-images are variable and transferable. This means that the ought-to L2 self can be converted into the ideal L2 self if the learner accomplishes to internalize his/her ought-to L2 self. Therefore, the ought-to L2 self may operate at both cognitive and affective levels. On the other hand, just a slight connection between the ought-to L2 self and L2 motivation has been reported by some researchers (Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Csizér & Lukács, 2010). By focusing on a different dimension of the ought-to L2 self, Peng (2015) claims that ought-to L2 self may indirectly affect learners' WTC in a second language through L2 anxiety. The ought-to L2 self has been found to exert negative influence on L2 anxiety (Papi, 2010; Peng, 2015). This suggests that externally imposed self-construal may heighten learners' language learning anxiety, thereby decreasing their WTC in the L2 (Peng, 2015).

L2 learning experience. The last dimension of L2MSS is the L2 learning experience (L2LE), which is described as the situational motives associated with the actual learning setting and experience (Dörnyei, 2009). These motives encompass the effect of the teacher, the school, the curriculum, the peer group, classroom environment, and so forth (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2009). This dimension of the L2MSS is conceptualized at a different level from the two self-guides. Unlike the ideal and ought-to L2 self-guides, L2LE is not associated with self-guides and it is also not generalizable as it includes situation-specific factors about L2

motivation (Azarnoosh & Birjandi, 2012). For some students, the primary impetus to master an L2 does not arise from internally or externally created self-images but rather from effective involvement in the immediate L2LE (Dörnyei, 2009).

L2 learning experience has been revealed to have a direct influence on intended learning efforts (Papi, 2010) and motivated learning behaviour (Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Papi, 2010; Papi & Teimouri, 2012). According to Papi (2010), L2 learning experience decreases learners' L2 anxiety. Learners' immediate learning environment and experience has also been reported to have a direct impact on their ideal L2 self (Csizér & Kormos, 2009) and classroom L2 WTC (Peng & Woodrow, 2010). Besides, L2LE has been discovered to indirectly affect L2 WTC outside the classroom through other variables such as L2 anxiety and international posture (Peng, 2015).

To sum up, Dörnyei's (2005) theory of L2MSS postulates that learners' vision of their future selves as L2 users offers the major driving force for L2 learning (Peng, 2015). The intense longing for minimizing the difference between the learners' real L2 self and ideal or ought-to L2 self can wisely express their continuous future state of L2 motivation. As Dörnyei & Chan (2013) claims, there exist three main sources of L2 motivation: (1) learners' inner wish to become a successful second language user, (2) external pressures from the learner's immediate surroundings to learn the second language, and (3) the real experience of being involved in the process of second language learning.

L2 Motivation

Motivation, which is recognized to be one of the major individual difference variables determining the achievement in all kinds of learning, is a difficult concept to define although myriad definitions have been proposed in the literature (Dörnyei, 1994, 2001). Broadly speaking, it refers to a driving force that initiates and directs the human behavior and impels people to do things so as to achieve certain tasks (Brown, 2000; Harmer, 1994). Gardner (2001) defines motivation as the inner drive affected by internal and external orientations which embody motives for students to feel encouraged and energized to learn something. Similarly, it is described by Williams and Burden (1997) as a mental and sentimental arousal which causes 'a conscious decision to act', and leads to a

period of continuous 'intellectual and/or physical effort' so as to achieve a predetermined objective or objectives (p. 120). According to Dörnyei (2001), motivation is an abstract and hypothetical concept, which accounts for 'why people decide to do something, how hard they are going to pursue it and how long they are willing to sustain the activity' (p. 7). Additionally, Pintrich and Schunk (2002) conceptualize it as the process by which purposive action is initiated and maintained. In other words, it represents the extent to which individuals set themselves (a) goals to follow and (b) the exertion they put into that pursuit (Brown, 2000).

Within the context of L2 learning, there have been also many attempts to conceptualize the term by different scholars. Pioneering the research of motivation in L2 learning and providing the most commonly recognized definition of motivation, Gardner (1985), for instance, characterizes it as the mixture of effort and desire to attain the aim of L2 learning and positive attitudes towards learning an L2. Motivation has been widely acknowledged as a vital factor which provides the main stimulus for initiating L2 learning and then the incentive to maintain the prolonged and commonly boring process of L2 learning (Dörnyei, 1998). It is regarded as a psychological factor that controls the amount of effort that L2 learners put into second/foreign language learning (Nunan, 1999). Thus, it is a key variable that leads to success or failure in L2 learning (Dörnyei, 2001, Gardner, 1985; MacIntyre, 2002; Oxford & Shearin, 1994).

L2 motivation has always been an intriguing issue for SLA researchers since the 1950s. The complex and multifaceted nature of motivation has resulted in the existence of many different theories in the realm of L2 learning (Dörnyei, 2001). The study of L2 motivation was initiated by Gardner and Lambert's Socio-educational model (1972), which dominated the field for decades (Dörnyei, 1994). According to the model, learning a language was not the same as learning other subjects since language learning was seen as a social action. Thus, the underlying tenet of the model was that students' L2 learning achievement is related to their attitudes towards the L2 community and their willingness to become a member of that community (Gardner, 1985; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003). Although the model consists of three main components including integrativeness, attitudes toward the learning situation and motivation, Gardner and Lambert (1972) focused on the

integrative that is described as a need or desire to learn an L2 due to positive attitudes towards the L2 community (Gardner, 1985). Integrativeness also represents a real interest in acquiring an L2 with the aim of communicating with people from the L2 community (Gardner, 2010). In the model, Gardner & Lambert (1972) distinguish between integrative motivation and instrumental motivation. While the former is described as positive disposition towards the L2 community and culture and strong wish to interact with the members of that community, the latter is defined as a student's enthusiasm for learning an L2 so as to use it for a certain purpose, like having a better job, passing an exam and a higher salary (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). The integrative motive was at the core of Gardner's model of L2 motivation (Root, 1999) and it was suggested that students who have integrative orientation put more effort into learning an L2, and, therefore, attain greater L2 proficiency (Gardner & Lambert, 1972).

Until the early 1990s, the focus of L2 motivation was primarily on large groups of people such as society and very little information about the individual learners in the classroom environment was attained (Ushioda, 2012). This caused some problems for language teachers because they had no practical information that would enable them to deal with unmotivated learners (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991). Thus, alternative viewpoints and theories turned out to emerge as a result of cognitive revolution in psychology and the desire to focus on motivation in specific learning context (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985), which marked the beginning of the Cognitive-situated Period, was one of the most significant theories of L2 motivation (Dörnyei, 2003). Self-determination is explained as participating in an activity 'with a full sense of wanting, choosing, and personal endorsement' (Deci, 1992, p. 44). According to this theory, the motivation types can vary depending on the degree to which the goal for carrying out an action is self-determined (Noels, 2001). The theory makes a distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation involves enjoyment and pleasure of learning an L2 for its own sake without any external pressure. Extrinsic motivation, on the contrary, refers to learning a second/foreign language so as to attain an instrumental end (Noels, Clément & Pelletier, 1999). Deci and Ryan (1985) state that intrinsically motivated learners, who are considered to be highly self-determined, are likely to sustain their endeavor to

learn an L2 without any external reward. Also, they are ready to engage in the task willingly and try to improve their skills, which will lead them to success (Wigfield, Guthrie, Tonks, & Perencevich, 2004).

Following the Cognitive-situated Period, the dynamic nature of L2 motivation drew attention around the beginning of the new millennium (Dörnyei, 2005). Rather than centering on the context or the individual's self alone, a move towards a more integrated research of L2 motivation with the self and the context emerged at this time, and the dynamic interactions among them became crucial (Ushioda, 2012). Dörnyei (1994) proposed a three-level framework, which looks at motivation from a classroom viewpoint and combines language-related and learner-internal variables with learning situation variables (Ushioda, 2008). As a more pragmatic education-centered view of L2 motivation, the framework is made up of the Language Level, the Learner Level and the Learning Situation Level. The first one encompasses components regarding various aspects of L2 such as culture, community as well as the practical principles and advantages that the L2 provides. The second level involves the learner characteristics involved in the language learning process. As for the last level, it includes situation-specific motives concerning the course, the teacher and the learning group (Dörnyei, 1994). As it is stated by Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011), each of the three levels of motivation affects the others individually in the language learning process and possesses enough potential to negate the influences of the drives related to the other two levels.

Having explored the temporal dimension of L2 learning motivation, Dörnyei and Otto (1998) proposed the Process Model of L2 Motivation, which is comprised of three phases indicating the instability of motivation. At the preactional stage, which is the starting point of the motivated behaviour, the decision of acting was made. The actional stage involves the maintenance of the action, that is, the continuation of the motivated behavior. Lastly, at the postactional stage, the process and the actions were evaluated to decide on subsequent behaviors (Williams et al., 2015). The process model is based on the premise that motivation is not a fixed individual trait and can change over time.

Williams and Burden (1997) studied motivation from a social constructivist perspective and proposed a dynamic model based on this perspective. The

underlying principle behind the Social Constructivist Model of L2 Motivation is that one's motivation is liable to be influenced by social and contextual factors although every individual is motivated differently from each other. Thus, the model places further emphasis on social context as well as the uniqueness of motivation among learners (Williams & Burden 1997). Based on the idea that motivation is far beyond stimulating interest (Williams & Burden, 1997), the model consists of three stages that affect one another in a non-linear way: reasons for doing something, choosing to do it and maintaining the effort to achieve goals. Williams & Burden (1997) further explain that there are internal and external factors influencing learners' motivation along all these stages. While internal factors are what an individual has inside himself, the effects of the social context on the learner comprise the external factors, and the relationship between them is dynamically interactive.

The variability of L2 motivation has been the main tenet of the last two periods of motivation studies. There has been a paradigm shift to the Socio-Dynamic Period, which is based on the L2MSS developed by Dörnyei (2005). The model includes three key dimensions: the ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self and the L2LE. It is a novel conceptualization of motivation as part of the learner's self system and views motivation to learn an L2 as being closely connected with the learner's self-imagery and ideal L2 self (Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei & Chan, 2013). Although the model brought a future-oriented perspective to the field, it was later self criticized by Dörnyei and his associates (Dörnyei, Henry, & Muir, 2016, p. 32) since its main components did not account for the 'dynamics of motivated behavioral process itself'. In order to overcome this deficiency, the future self-guides were extended into the concept of vision, which refers to the learners' personal illustrations of their future goal states (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013). Vision of the learners' ideal L2 self led to long-term motivated behavior in L2 learning and gave reason for the sustained motivated behavior (Dörnyei et al., 2016). As a result, Directed Motivational Current (DMC), which is a vision-oriented concept, appeared in the field. A Directed Motivational Current is a motivational phenomenon that arouses an ongoing effort to accomplish a goal through the vision of it (Muir & Dörnyei, 2013). Although a DMC may seem alike to the general motivational dynamics, it differs from them in the "optimal level of cooperation" of a

range of motivational basics which eventually cause “optimal form of engagement” by the learners (Dörnyei et al., 2016, p. 33). Another distinctive feature of DMC is that it is directional and well-organized. It starts from a point at the beginning and always moves forward to reach a final goal (Dörnyei et al., 2016). According to Muir and Dörnyei (2013), classroom is a great place for the creation, maintenance and finalizing of a DMC since it is a well-structured context. To conclude, motivation has been handled from different perspectives including socio-educational, cognitive-situated, process-oriented, social-constructivist, socio-dynamic, and vision-oriented models in the realm of L2 learning. However, no single theory or model to date provides a comprehensive account of the dynamic and complex circumstances involved in language learning motivation (Dörnyei, 2001; Spolsky, 1989). In this regard, Dörnyei (2001) asserts that researchers should approach motivation in an eclectic way in which they integrate multiple aspects.

Motivation is widely acknowledged to be one of the most significant ID variables that determine the success and failure in the process of L2 learning (Dörnyei, 1994, Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998; Ehrman & Oxford, 1995; Gardner, 1985; MacIntyre, 2002; Oxford & Shearin, 1994). The question of why learners master an L2 or fail to learn it effectively has been an issue of concern to researchers over the past decades and a great role has been attributed to the concept of motivation (McGroarty, 2001). According to Gardner and Lambert (1972), all the other factors being equal, motivation is the factor that makes a difference and leads to success among learners because the other things involved in second/foreign language learning require motivation to some degree (Dörnyei, 2005). In a similar vein, Dörnyei (2001) notes that motivated students can become proficient in learning an L2 without regard to their aptitudes or other cognitive features while even highly intelligent learners fail to learn an L2 without motivation. The relationship between learners’ motivation and success in L2 learning has long been the focus of a substantial body of research (Dörnyei, 2001; Gardner, Lalonde & Moorcroft, 1985; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Lukmani, 1972; Gardner, Masgoret, Tennant, & Mihic, 2004; Hiesh, 2008; MacIntyre, 2002; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Strong, 1984). As most of the studies reveal, motivated learners actively engage in second language learning and consequently become more successful whereas unmotivated

learners engage in L2 learning inadequately and generally lack achievement (Oxford & Shearin, 1994). Briefly, in the process of L2 learning which is usually believed to be complex and tedious, motivation serves not only an initial power but also a sustaining force, which affects the whole process of L2 learning (Dörnyei & Cheng, 2007).

L2 Anxiety

Second language researchers have long been in quest of the reason why some learners learn an L2 better than others (Ellis, 2004). In order to find out the underlying reasons of this phenomenon, much research has been devoted to probing the correlation between L2 learning and affective factors like motivation, attitude and beliefs (Dörnyei, 2005; Pawlak, 2012). Anxiety ranks among the major affective variables that exert influence on L2 learning, whatever the learning setting is (Oxford, 1991). In its simplest form, anxiety is often linked to frustration, fear, uneasiness, insecurity, and self-doubt (Arnold, 1999; Brown, 2000; Kring, Davison, Neale, & Johnson, 2007; Powell & Enright, 1990). The most commonly cited description of anxiety is provided by Spielberger (1983) as an unpleasant emotional state that typically involves 'the subjective feelings of tension, apprehension, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system' (p. 15). Arising from a special blend of phenomenological and physiological features (Freud, 1936), anxiety also refers to 'a state of being concerned about a possible future event' (Samimy & Tabuse, 1992). From an educational psychology perspective, Hilgard, Atkinson, and Atkinson (1971) define the concept as an emotional condition characterized by apprehension and fear which is indirectly related to an object. From the aforementioned definitions, it can be suggested that it is difficult to narrow down anxiety to a single concise definition as it is a multifaceted psychological construct that encompasses many variables (Sellers, 2000).

When the available literature on anxiety is examined, it is seen that researchers propose two major classifications related to the types of anxiety. To begin with, anxiety is categorized into three groups: trait anxiety, state anxiety, and situation-specific anxiety (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989). Considered as a personality characteristic, trait anxiety is described by Scovel (1978) as an enduring predisposition to feel worried or nervous. It is also referred to as a

relatively stable tendency to exhibit anxiety more often and more strongly than other individuals and an emotional state which affects individuals in a negative way (Bekleyen, 2004; Oxford, 1999; Philips, 1992). According to Spielberger (1983), an individual suffering from intense trait anxiety is more prone to be anxious under some circumstances as they consider them as more threatening than they actually are. State anxiety, nonetheless, represents the type of anxiety which fluctuates over time and varies in intensity (MacIntyre, 1999). As Young (1991) highlights, it is an unpleasant but temporary state and varies according to the characteristic of the individuals. As for the situation-specific anxiety, it refers to the type of anxiety which is felt in some specific situations such as examinations, classroom discussions and speaking English in front of other people (Ellis, 2008). This type of anxiety is constant over time but may vary depending on the situation (Cassady, 2010). Considering the above-mentioned definitions, it can be said that the three kinds of anxiety closely resemble 'Russian Matryoshka dolls' which cover one another (Gürman-Kahraman, 2013, p. 26).

Foreign language anxiety (FLA), which is commonly referred to as clearly a different kind of complex of self-perception, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors stemming from the distinctiveness of the L2 learning process (Horwitz et al., 1986), is also considered as situation-specific anxiety (Horwitz, 2001; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991a). It is a variety of anxiety unique to L2 learning (Clément & Kruidenier, 1985; Ely, 1986; Horwitz, 2001; Oxford, 1999; Woodrow & Chapman, 2002). It represents the apprehension experienced when the learner is obliged to use an L2 in which he/she is not completely proficient (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993).

According to Horwitz and his associates' theory of FLA (1986), anxiety is made up of three components: CA, FNE and test anxiety. To begin with, CA is described as one's apprehension related to either real or expected communication with another individual or individuals (Mejias, Applbaum, Applbaum, & Trotter, 1991). Likewise, Horwitz and his associates (1986) consider it to be a kind of shyness which embodies fear of or anxiety about communicating with individuals. This type of anxiety arises when learners feel themselves unable to express their own thoughts or ideas to others (Brown, 2000). MacIntyre & Gardner (1991c) state that speaking in a foreign language causes anxiety in classroom. Most learners

feel anxious while speaking in front of their peers (Daly, 1991; Young, 1986). Thus, learners may not show their real performance in learning an L2 due to CA (Horwitz et al., 1986). As McCroskey (1977) suggests, a learner who has a high level of CA tends to avoid communication since s/he does not want to have the fear or anxiety s/he has while communicating. However, the fact that the learner suffers from high levels of CA does not necessarily mean that he/she never participates in the speaking activities, but that learner will have the choice of having less participation than those with lower levels of CA (McCroskey, 1977).

The second component of FLA suggested by Horwitz et al. (1986) is FNE, which refers to the fear or anxiety experienced about 'people's evaluations, avoidance of evaluative situations, and the expectation that other people would evaluate oneself negatively' (Watson & Friend, 1969, p. 449). It may be activated by a fluent teacher or classmates who are better in speaking the foreign language (Andrade & Williams, 2009). Aida (1994) claims that learners with a FNE are likely to sit passively in the classroom and avoid participating in classroom activities. FNE may even cause learners to avoid the L2 learning process entirely (Öztürk, 2012) since learners who experience FNE consider language errors as a threat to their image, and a source of negative evaluation (Tsiplakides & Keramida, 2009). As the last component of FLA, test anxiety involves the feeling of uneasiness on the assessment of academic performance which comes out as a result of the fear of failure (Horwitz et al., 1986; Horwitz & Young 1991). In L2 classrooms in which language learners usually have tests, quizzes, and exams; learners with this type of anxiety have considerable difficulty in the process of L2 learning (Horwitz et al., 1986). Young (1991) argues that learners who fear failure set unrealistic goals for themselves. This causes even the brightest and well-prepared learners to make errors and have difficulty in such tests (Horwitz et. al., 1986), which in turn lead them not to be able to show their real performance in exams.

The second classification of anxiety is related to its effects on learners' performance. When the influences of FLA on learners are considered, anxiety is categorized into two groups as facilitating (helpful) and debilitating (harmful) anxiety (Alpert & Haber 1960; Bailey, 1983; Horwitz & Young, 1991; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991a; Oxford, 1990; Scovel, 1978). The former is considered to be a motivational phenomenon that helps learners to adjust to a positive perspective

and it encourages them to cope with the new learning situation (Bacham, 1976; Scovel, 1978; Şakrak, 2009; Zhanibek, 2001). The latter, on the other hand, provokes learners to develop a tendency to avoid the new learning situation by creating an avoidance manner (Bailey, 1983; Tucker, Haymahan, & Genesee, 1976; Chan & Wu, 2004). While debilitating anxiety affects learners' performance adversely, facilitating anxiety has some positive effects on learners' achievement (Papi, 2010). Oxford (1999) illustrates the difference between the functions of the two anxieties by stating that the harmful type of anxiety harms learners' performance in many ways and causes them to flee whereas the helpful type of it stimulates them to struggle for accomplishing the new learning task. FLA is believed to have both facilitating and debilitating effects on L2 learning (Chan & Wu, 2004; Huang, 2012; Papi, 2010). The impact of anxiety on performance can be either facilitating or debilitating, depending on the extent of anxiety that individuals suffer from and on the type of the task (Tasnimi, 2009). Furthermore, it is asserted that learners may possess different quantities of facilitative and debilitating anxiety simultaneously (Alpert & Haber, 1960). The two types of anxiety is assumed to actually work in tandem, simultaneously motivating or demotivating L2 learners in the learning environment (Scovel, 1978).

Being one of the most significant affective factors, FLA has been the subject of a large number of studies (Andrade & Williams, 2009; Cheng, 2001; Horwitz et al., 1986; Katalin, 2006; MacIntyre, 1995; Pappamihel, 2002; Von Wörde, 2003; Young, 1991; Zheng, 2008) and is generally accepted to have a tremendous role in second/foreign language learning (Dörnyei, 2005; Horwitz et al., 1986; Krashen, 1987; Liu & Huang, 2011; Olivares-Cuhat, 2010). Some researchers have tried to identify the potential factors causing FLA. Young (1991), for instance, proposes six primary sources of FLA which are personal reasons, teachers' beliefs about language teaching, classroom procedures, teacher-learner interactions, learners' beliefs about the learning process, and language testing. In another study, Von Wörde (2003) identifies non-comprehension, speaking activities, error correction, native speakers and instructional practices as the potential sources of FLA. Low self-esteem, low tolerance of ambiguity, fear of risk-taking, competitiveness, shyness, and classroom activities have also been found to be the reasons why learners feel anxious (Oxford, 1999). Additionally, learners' personal concerns, the

teacher's behaviors, and the teaching methods used by the teacher have been reported as the main causes of FLA (Aydin, 2001).

Another line of research has focused on the impacts of FLA on learners' level of achievement in L2 learning. Most of the studies (e.g. Aida, 1994; Batumlu & Erden, 2007; Ganschow, Sparks, Anderson, Javorsky, Skinner, & Patton, 1994; Kitano, 2001; Lee, 2014; Phillips, 1992; Sparks, Ganschow, & Javorsky, 2000) have revealed a negative relationship between FLA and L2 performance. In these studies, it is implied that learners who experience high levels of FLA tend to be less successful in learning an L2 than those with lower levels of anxiety (Awan et al., 2010; Chen & Chang, 2004; Gedikoğlu & Öner, 2007; Horwitz, 1991; Lu & Liu, 2011; Saito & Samimy, 1996; Tallon, 2006; Wang, 2005). It is also claimed that FLA lowers learners' motivation level, causes them to be reluctant to take part in L2 activities and slows down the acquisition process (Nagahashi, 2007). FLA has also been claimed to have a negative effect on vocabulary retention (Bailey, Daley, & Onwuegbuzie, 1999). Additionally, the debilitating impact of FLA on learners' oral performance has been reported in some studies (Ay, 2010; Park & Lee, 2005; Subaşı, 2010; Woodrow, 2006). Although much research has shown that FLA is likely to hinder the language learning process in most cases (Horwitz, 2010; Awan et al., 2010; McIntyre & Gardner, 1991a), there are some studies which disclose a positive relationship between FLA and language learning success (Bekleyen, 2004; Campbell & Ortiz, 1991; Chastain, 1975; Kleinmann, 1977; Sellers, 2000). Keeping learners alert and motivated, a certain amount of FLA has been found to serve just like what motivation does and provide learners with a strong wish to learn that language (Zhanibek, 2001).

A considerable amount of research has also been carried out to determine the relationships between FLA and other learner variables (Arnaiz & Guillen, 2012; Bailey et al., 1999; Batumlu & Erden, 2007; Gardner, Smythe, Brunet, 1977). Motivation (Liu, 2012), self-esteem (Weiten, 1989), emotional intelligence (Chao, 2003; Rouhani, 2007), and self-confidence (Crookall & Oxford, 1991) have been found to negatively correlate with FLA. Moreover, anxiety has been reported to directly relate to WTC in a second/foreign language (MacIntyre & Charos, 1996). Research (Çetinkaya, 2005; Hashimoto, 2002; MacIntyre & Doucette, 2010; Matsuoka, 2005; Peng & Woodrow, 2010; Yashima, 2002) has consistently

showed a negative relationship between anxiety and L2 WTC. To put it differently, learners with high levels of anxiety are more likely to remain silent and reluctant or less eager to take part in L2 communication (Dörnyei, 2005; MacIntyre & Charos, 1996).

All in all, anxiety is regarded as one of the affective aspects that have received great attention in the field of L2 learning (Ellis, 2008). It is a key ID variable affecting learners' L2 performance (Liu & Huang, 2011). Although there is wide agreement about the sources of language anxiety, particularly in classroom settings, there is less agreement about the relationship between FLA and L2 learning. Two different positions can be identified: (1) anxiety facilitates L2 learning and (2) anxiety impedes L2 learning. In general, however, FLA has been revealed to exert negative influence on language learning (Aida, 1994; Batumlu & Erden, 2007; Kitano, 2001; Lee, 2014; Saito et al., 1999; Sparks et al., 2000). Thus, as a crucial factor in L2 learning, anxiety is viewed as a factor that contributes in differing degrees in different learners, depending in part on other individual factors such as their motivational orientation and personality (Ellis, 2008).

Imagery Capacity

The term "vision" or "imagery capacity" has gained importance as the key characteristic of the L2 Motivational Self System recently even though it has been emphasized in a variety of domains of L2 learning such as vocabulary learning (Ellis & Beaton, 1993) and reading (Arnold, 1999; Krasny & Sadoski, 2008) for decades. The motivational function of vision has been first stated in Paivio's (1985) influential work on the impact of vision on sport performance and described as one's ability to create clear, controllable images and to keep these images for enough time to achieve the desired imagery rehearsal (Morris, 1997).

Within the context of SLA, vision is defined as the learners' personal illustrations of their future goal states (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013). It can be understood as referring to the capability to build visual imagery in one's mind (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013). Likewise, it is described by Muir & Dörnyei (2013) as 'the mental representation of the sensory experience of a future goal state' (p. 357). Thus, it represents 'a personalized goal that a learner has made his/her own by adding to it the imagined reality of the goal experience' (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013, p.

455). Vision is grounded on the Markus and Nurius' (1986,1987) theory of possible selves as well as the L2MSS (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009), which have facilitated the application of the concept to the area of L2 teaching.

Vision has been acknowledged to be one of the most important antecedents of L2 motivation and long-term intended effort (Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014). To a certain extent, the strength of motivation is determined by learners' ability to create mental imagery (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013). Imagery capacity gives rise to strong emotional reactions for learners. Since they have already experienced and enjoyed the achievement in their imagination, the strong desire to make it real does not enable them to quit their effort (Ueki & Takeuchi, 2013). According to Moulton & Kosslyn (2009), the visions that individuals construct are produced by the same neural mechanisms as if they were to experience the event in reality. In other words, the processing of the real and imagined events is identical in the human brain (Cox, 2012). It is due to this that learners feel as if they have experienced the events in their ideal L2 self vision prior to the real event itself, which in turn motivates them to learn the language (Muir & Dörnyei, 2013). Therefore, learners' imagery capacity plays a significant role in shaping their L2 learning motivation via fostering a more intense mental picture of an individual's self in forthcoming cases (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013).

The relationship between visualization and motivation has been validated by recent empirical research (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013; Murphey, Falout, Fukada, & Fukada, 2012; Jones, 2012; Magid & Chan, 2012; Murray, 2013; Sampson, 2012). It has been noted that learners who have a stronger and clearer ideal L2 self-image tend to be more motivated to pursue their language goals than learners with no pre-determined desired future goal-state (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013). Moreover, learners with more vivid ideal L2-self images can better estimate the difference between their existing L2 self and ideal L2 self and invest more effort in making the current L2 self match the ideal one as closely as possible (Ueki & Takeuchi, 2013). It has also been suggested that a clearer ideal L2 self-image decreases learners' language learning anxiety while a more vivid ought-to L2 self-image considerably enhances learners' L2 anxiety (Papi, 2010). To put it differently, learners are motivated either through an inner-directed vision of their future L2 self or an other-directed imaginary view created to meet others' expectations (Papi,

2010). Besides, imagery capacity is expected to potentially contribute to learners' WTC in a second language although it has not been empirically proven. It is likely that learners' self-created ideal L2 self visions, which result in high levels of L2 motivation, influence their communication behavior and in-class and out-of-class L2 WTC.

As the capability to create clear and detailed mental pictures of learners' future selves is crucial to the successful use of imagery as a motivational tool (Muir & Dörnyei, 2013), the importance of imagery training cannot be disregarded. Imagery training has great potential to increase second language learning motivation by assisting learners to create individual visions supported by animated images and then to maintain them in the demanding process of language learning (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013; Magid & Chan, 2012). A study conducted by Magid & Chan (2012) shows that vision training programmes are beneficial for learners with regard to enhanced language learning motivation. It is suggested that language teachers should create learning environments which will engage learners' imaginations and help them to build up and retain such visions. They might promote learners' motivation by aiding them to imagine themselves as L2 speakers and visualize the situations in which they may make use of the target language (Murray, 2013).

Vocabulary Knowledge

Vocabulary, which is an essential component of a language (Lewis, 1993; Nandy, 1994; Nation, 2001; Thornbury, 2002), is described as the knowledge of words and word meanings (Kamil & Hiebert, 2005). Barcroft, Sunderman, and Schmitt (2011) simply define vocabulary as 'all the words in a language' (p. 571). A linguistic-based definition of vocabulary comes from Read (2000) who defines it as building blocks of language from which the larger structures are constructed.

In fact, vocabulary is more complex than what the aforementioned definitions suggest (Read, 2000). It is a multifaceted concept and does not only refer to single words. It also involves word families, inflections, and derivatives (Schmitt, 2000) along with such multi-word items as lexical chunks and phrases (Read, 2000). As a word is made up of different aspects which go beyond its meaning and form, there are many aspects of knowing a word. These consist of

meaning, pronunciation, grammatical patterns, spelling, collocations, word parts, associations, frequency, and register (Nation, 1990, 2001; Richards, 1976).

Nation (2001) lists the aspects of word knowledge in a comprehensive framework, making a distinction between receptive and productive knowledge. According to him (2001), a learner who wants to learn the words like a native speaker or speak fluently, should realize the three major aspects of vocabulary knowledge: form, meaning and use. The knowledge of the word form refers to the recognition of the word parts, spoken and written forms of the words. It encompasses how a word is pronounced, how a word is spelled and what word parts are necessary to give the meaning. The knowledge of the word meaning involves the knowledge of meaning, concepts and referents, and associations as well. Finally, the knowledge of word use includes knowing in what patterns this target word is used, what type of words come together with that word and where, when and how often the word is used (Nation, 2001).

Nation (2001) differentiates between receptive and productive vocabulary size. Basically, the former involves perceiving and recognizing a word while listening or reading and understanding its meaning. The latter, on the other hand, refers to expressing and conveying a message through speaking or writing and producing a suitable spoken or written form to do this (Nation, 1990; Read, 2000). Some researchers (Asselin, 2002; Corson, 1995; Kamil & Hiebert, 2005; Meara, 1990) prefer to use the terms active and passive vocabulary instead of productive and receptive vocabulary. Passive word knowledge is activated by seeing or hearing the forms of the words while active vocabulary is activated through linking the words to other words (Corson, 1995; Meara, 1990).

It is acknowledged that developing productive vocabulary is more difficult than developing receptive vocabulary as productive vocabulary knowledge calls for additional learning of novel verbal or written output patterns (Laufer, 1998; Nation, 1990). That is the reason why students' receptive word knowledge outnumbers their productive word knowledge (Fan, 2000; Waring, 1997; Webb, 2005). In typical language learning circumstances, the main focus is on receptive activities (i.e. looking up words in a dictionary, guessing from the context) rather than the productive ones like writing exercises. Therefore, it is normal for learners to achieve larger receptive word knowledge than productive vocabulary knowledge

(Aitchison, 1989; Chanell, 1988; Fraser, Bellugi, & Brown, 1963; Laufer, 1998). Henriksen (1999) and Schmitt (2000) assert that gaining receptive knowledge precedes acquiring productive vocabulary knowledge. Nation (1990) also points out that productive knowledge builds on receptive knowledge and views vocabulary knowledge as a continuum on which a word grows from receptive to productive status.

The common belief that there is an interrelationship between receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge is reinforced by some studies comparing learners' receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge (Waring, 1997; Webb, 2008). The results reveal that learners' receptive vocabulary size might be a good indicator of their productive ability, which means that learners with greater receptive vocabulary size are more likely to know much more productive words than those with smaller receptive vocabularies (Webb, 2008). Although the distinction between receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge may seem clear-cut at first sight, there is uncertainty as to whether these two types of vocabulary knowledge constitute a dichotomy or continuum which starts with receptive knowledge and proceeds towards productive knowledge (Laufer & Goldstein, 2004).

Vocabulary has a key role in language learning, whether the language is first or second (Coady, 1997; Decarrico, 2001; Laufer, 1997). Richards and Renandya (2002), who views vocabulary as the core component of language proficiency, claim that vocabulary knowledge forms a basis for using the four basic language skills. Likewise, Schmitt (2010) suggests that vocabulary knowledge contributes enormously to overall language learning success. It is widely acknowledged that there exists a strong link between vocabulary knowledge and L2 use, and that vocabulary size is regarded as a sign of general ability in an L2 (Graves, 2009; Nagy & Townsend, 2012; Şener, 2010).

The centrality of lexical knowledge for communication is highlighted by Wilkins (1972) who declares that very little can be communicated without grammar whereas nothing can be communicated without vocabulary. Similarly, Lightbown and Spada (2006) claim that a message can be conveyed despite grammar or pronunciation mistakes whereas it is much harder to understand if the wrong word is used. Accordingly, it is evident that vocabulary serves an important role in

conveying messages both in written and spoken language and that lack of it creates a major obstacle in communication (Read, 2004; Zimmerman, 1997). Furthermore, Krashen (1989) lays emphasis on the superiority of vocabulary to grammar by stating that learners prefer to carry dictionaries rather than grammar books when they travel. Harmer (1994) also highlights the importance of vocabulary in his own words: "If language structures make up the skeleton of language, then it is vocabulary that provides the vital organs and the flesh" (p. 153). Therefore, vocabulary, much more than grammar, is considered to be the key to our understanding and communicating successfully with other people (McCarthy, 1990).

Vocabulary knowledge is also central to reading comprehension (Milton, 2005). It is a fact that reading comprehension primarily requires vocabulary knowledge. Research has also revealed a direct connection between lexical knowledge and the ability to comprehend a text (Barrett & Graves, 1981; Baumann, Kame'enui, & Ash, 2003; Becker, 1977, Davis, 1942; Hayes & Tierney, 1982). Learners' vocabulary size is reported to strongly relate to their reading comprehension performance (Daneman, 1988). Hence, learners need to have large vocabulary knowledge so as to comprehend what they read (Nation & Waring, 2001).

Having a wide vocabulary also has a great impact on learning the grammatical rules of that language. In this respect, Ellis (1995) claims that knowing the words in a text enables learners to learn grammatical functions better because they grasp the discourse functions better. In other words, vocabulary knowledge makes the grammatical rules more visible to learners (Cameron, 2001). Thus, learners may easily understand the meaning of grammatical functions by means of a large vocabulary size (Tokaç, 2005). On the whole, with its critical role in ensuring communication among people, vocabulary constitutes an indispensable component of learning a language. The centrality of vocabulary knowledge for comprehension and use of an L2 is therefore a prominent aspect to be kept in mind.

Relevant Studies on Willingness to Communicate in the Second Language

As fostering language learners' communicative competence and their use of target language are recognized as the main focus of recent communicative language teaching approaches, the last two decades have seen a huge increase in the number of research studies into L2 WTC that is considered to lead to the actual use of L2. The first studies in the realm of L2 learning probed the link between L2 WTC and biological variables. MacIntyre et al. (2002), in an endeavor to explore the relationship between sex, age and L2 WTC, discovered that both gender and age affected learners' readiness to enter into a discourse in L2. While there was an increase in male's WTC as they became older, females' WTC decreased with age. Besides, females generally demonstrated higher level of WTC compared to males. In a similar vein, Lu (2007) scrutinized the influence of age on WTC and asserted that learners' degree of WTC increased with age. Lin and Rancer (2003) investigated the differences between males and females on WTC and found that males were less willing to communicate interculturally than their female counterparts. In a study (Maftoon & Sarem, 2013) conducted in the Iranian EFL context, it was also revealed that female students were keener to communicate when compared to male students. In contrast, some studies showed that male students were generally keener to communicate in English than females (Ahmadian & Shirvani, 2012; Taheryan & Ghonsooly, 2014). In some other studies, no significant difference was revealed between male and female students with respect to their L2 WTC Afghari & Sadeghi, 2012; Alemi, Tajeddin, & Mesbah, 2013; Arshad, Shahbaz, & Al-Bashabsheh, 2015; Bashosh, Nejad, Rastegar, & Marzban, 2013; Valazi, Rezaee, & Baharvand, 2015). Donovan & MacIntyre (2004) who probed both age and sex differences in WTC also found that there was no significant difference in learners' WTC in terms of gender.

The second line of research tended to pinpoint the role of psychological variables in L2 WTC. Yu (2009), for instance, inspected the relationships between WTC, CA, SPCC, integrativeness, attitudes towards the learning situation, motivation, instrumental orientation and teacher immediacy in the Chinese EFL context and discovered that CA and SPCC were the direct determinants of L2 WTC. Teacher immediacy and motivation were found to have an indirect effect on L2 WTC via CA and SPCC. In a recent study (Piechurska-Kuciel, 2015), similar

findings were noted with regard to the direct influence of SPCC and language anxiety on L2 WTC. Peng (2007), in an endeavor to test the connection between college students' WTC in English and anxiety in the English classroom, discovered that there was a significant negative correlation between CA and L2 WTC, with anxiety negatively affecting the learners' WTC inside the classroom. The studies of Liu (2017), and Wang and Liu (2017) yielded the same results as those of Peng's (2007) study. In a study conducted by Lahuerta (2014) with the participation of Spanish EFL learners, a positive link was identified between SPCC and WTC and that there was a negative correlation between CA and WTC, which were in parallel with the results of the similar studies (Ghonsooly et al., 2013; Liu & Jackson, 2008) carried out in the Iranian and Chinese EFL contexts respectively. Baran-Lucarz (2014) carried out a study which focused on the link between pronunciation anxiety and WTC in the Polish EFL context. The findings demonstrated that the learners' readiness to communicate in the EFL classroom was associated with their pronunciation anxiety level. Learners with a high level of pronunciation anxiety were less willing to communicate than those with low pronunciation anxiety. In another study (Rahmatollahi & Khalili, 2015), which probed the relationships between CA, WTC and speaking ability with respect to different contexts and receivers, it was found that learners' speaking ability was neither linked to their level of CA nor to their WTC. Furthermore, the results demonstrated that CA and WTC were negatively correlated.

Motivation to learn English was also revealed to have an important effect on learners' WTC in English. Ghanbarpour (2014) aimed to disclose the influences of instrumental and integrative orientations on L2 WTC. The findings showed that instrumental motivation was a better predictor of WTC than integrative motivation. Bo-tong (2012), who attempted to examine the relation between integrative motivation and WTC in English inside the classroom among EFL learners in China, claimed that integrative motivation was positively correlated to L2 WTC whereas integrative motivation explained only a slight amount of difference in WTC in English in a previous study (Peng, 2007). The findings of the research conducted by MacIntyre et al. (2001) and Zarrinabadi and Abdi (2011) revealed that there was a positive correlation between learners' L2 learning orientations and in-class and out-of-class L2 WTC. Social support was related to greater out-of-

class L2 WTC. In a recent study (Pourhasan & Zoghi, 2017), which focused on exploring the role of WTC and L2 motivational self system in relation to Iranian EFL learners' language achievement, it was found that both WTC and L2 motivational self system predicted learners' language achievement. In other words, learners' WTC and future self-guides were considered as two important factors improving their language achievement.

In another study (Wu, 2008), the relationship between Chinese EFL learners' SPCC and WTC was investigated. As a result of the study, it was discovered that there was a positive correlation between SPCC and WTC. Additionally, it was noted that learners' WTC was higher than their out-of-class SPCC while it was lower than their in-class SPCC. Likewise, in a study (Piechurska-Kuciel, 2014) carried out with the participation of Polish EFL learners, SPCC was identified as an important determinant of WTC in English, which corroborated the results of Yue's (2009) study. The study of Bukhari and Cheng (2017), which aimed to find out whether there are significant relationships between Pakistani students' SPCC, CA, and WTC, revealed a positive correlation between WTC and SPCC. CA was also found to be negatively correlated with SPCC. The results of the study of de Saint Leger and Storch (2009), which was conducted with learners of French (L2) to delve into the influences of their opinions about their speaking abilities, their influences on oral classroom tasks and their attitudes towards these tasks on their WTC in English, revealed that such perceptions and attitudes affected their WTC to a great extent. Furthermore, as their self-confidence enhanced, so did their WTC inside the classroom. In a recent study (Bahadori & Hashemizadeh, 2018) carried out in the Iranian EFL context, a negative correlation was found between CA and WTC in English whereas it was revealed that there was a positive correlation between SPCC and WTC in English.

Focusing on a different point, Mahdi (2014) examined the influence of personality traits on learners' WTC in English and discovered that the personality traits had a strong impact on WTC. Another study (Mohammadian, 2013), which probed the impact of shyness on Iranian EFL students' WTC, showed that there was no relationship between shyness and WTC. However, the study of Chu (2008) indicated that shyness and WTC were negatively correlated with each other.

Having explored the possible link between learners' L2 WTC and their emotional intelligence (EI), Alavinia and Alikhani (2014) found that the two constructs were positively correlated with each other. Apart from stress management, all subscales of EI, i.e. intrapersonal, interpersonal, adaptability, and general mood, were related to WTC in English. In a similar study (Birjandi & Tabataba'ian, 2012), a positive relationship between EFL learners' WTC and the four components of the EI (general mood, stress management, adaptability and intrapersonal skills) was identified, with stress management indicating the highest correlation. It was concluded that learners communicate when they are in the mood for it and when they can overcome their stress. The ability to adapt to the situation and others was also found to influence learners' desire to communicate in L2. Additionally, intrapersonal skills positively correlated with WTC whereas interpersonal skills surprisingly did not correlate with learners' WTC. The results of another study (Ketabdar, Yazdani & Yarahmadi, 2014) demonstrated a positive relationship between EFL learners' WTC and the four components of EI, i.e. intrapersonal relationship, empathy, assertiveness and emotional self-awareness. In another study (Vahedi & Fatemi, 2015), probable relationships between Iranian EFL learners' EI, tolerance of ambiguity (TA) and WTC were investigated. The results indicated that the relationship between EI and TA was not statistically significant while the two constructs were positively correlated with the learners' WTC. Mohammadzadeh and Jafarigor (2012) carried out a research to probe the association between WTC and multiple intelligences (MI) and discovered that the linguistic, musical and interpersonal intelligences correlated significantly with learners' WTC. It was suggested that learners with high linguistic, musical and interpersonal intelligences are more likely to initiate and engage in communication in English.

Nosratinia and Deris (2015) examined the link between EFL learners' self-regulation (SR) and WTC and discovered that there was a positive relationship between SR and WTC. In another study (Soureshjani, 2013), the interrelationships between EFL learners' SR, WTC and their oral presentation performance were probed. Conversely, the findings indicated that there was no correlation between learners' WTC and SR although learners' oral presentation performance was positively correlated with their WTC in English. In his study, Khaki (2013)

discovered that learner autonomy and WTC in English were significantly correlated with each other. From a different perspective, the study of Shahsavari (2014) focused on the link between WTC and identity processing styles of students. Informal identity processing style was identified to be the most important determinant of WTC in English. In a similar vein, Zarrinabadi & Haidary (2014) investigated the association between WTC and identity styles of students and found that WTC was positively linked to informative and normative identity styles whereas it was negatively related to diffuse-avoidance. The study of Mehrgan (2013) centered on the probable association between the use of socio-affective strategies and WTC and yielded the finding that there was a significant connection between learners' WTC in L2 and their use of socio-affective strategies.

The third line of research inspected the role of contextual variables in learners' WTC in L2. Aubrey (2010), for instance, probed the influence of class size on WTC and suggested that class size is an important factor that affects learners' WTC in English. Class observations showed that learners' WTC decreased as class size increased. The data collected from the interviews revealed that the students in a larger class had less opportunity to talk than those in a smaller class, which was also reported in another study (Khazaei, Zadeh, & Ketabi, 2012). Besides, topic relevancy, group cohesiveness, anxiety, perception of teacher participation and difficulty of the activity were the other factors that had a direct bearing on EFL learners' WTC inside the classroom. Cao & Philp (2006) who aimed to examine learners' perceptions of factors affecting their in-class WTC declared that group size, interlocutor, topic familiarity and interest, and medium of communication were the factors identified as influencing their WTC. In a study (Pawlak & Mystkowska-Wiertelak (2015), the Polish EFL learners' WTC was found to be affected by factors like topic, time, collaboration and interlocutor, the chance to convey opinions, and the mastery of necessary lexis. Several studies focused on the effect of the teacher factor on learners' WTC. In a study conducted by Zarrinabadi (2014), teacher's wait time, error correction, and support were found to have an impact on learners' WTC while Riasati (2012, 2015) reported that task type, topic of discussion, interlocutor and seating location in class exerted strong influence on learners' readiness to communicate in the classroom. In a study in which the effects of teacher's nationality, position and teaching style on learners'

WTC were investigated (Miller & Pearson, 2013), it was reported that learners were more willing to communicate with an American teacher when compared to a Chinese teacher. Another finding was that learners favored teachers who use lecture rather than discussion in the classroom. The position of the teacher, on the other hand, did not have any significant impact on learners' WTC. The study of Khodarahmi and Nia (2014) disclosed a statistically significant relationship between learners' WTC and the discipline strategies employed by their teachers such as involvement, recognition/reward, aggression and punishment. To put it differently, the discipline strategies employed by teachers had a great impact on learners' WTC, in either heartening them to participate more actively in classroom communication or preventing them from entering into communication with the teacher or other learners.

In a different study (Bukhari, Cheng, & Khan, 2015), Pakistani university students' opinions of their WTC in English across different kinds of contexts and different kinds of receivers were explored. The results showed that Pakistani university students' WTC was at high levels. They were keener to interact with their friends than with strangers and acquaintances, which was also stated in a similar study conducted again in the Pakistani EFL context (Mari, Pathan, & Shahriar, 2011). They appeared to prefer to engage in communication in private rather than speaking in front of a group and public speaking. They were keenest to communicate in a small group of friends whereas they were most reluctant to give a presentation in English. Having examined the nature of WTC inside the classroom from a micro-perspective, Pawlak, Mystkowska-Wiertelak, and Bielak (2015) discovered that Polish EFL learners' WTC fluctuated depending on a host of contextual factors. They had a higher level of WTC while communicating with familiar receivers in small groups or pairs on topics related to personal experiences. In another study (Barjesteh, Vaseghi, & Neissi, 2012) which explored learners' WTC across different context and receiver types, it was stated that learners were too keen to communicate in group discussions and meetings. They were willing to communicate only with their friends. The study of Taheryan and Ghonsooly (2014) addressed the influences of single-sex and mixed-sex classroom context on Iranian EFL learners' WTC. The findings demonstrated that

learners studying in single-sex contexts had higher levels of WTC in English than those studying in mixed-sex contexts.

The fourth line of research centered around the relationships between linguistic factors and WTC in L2. The findings of the studies carried out by Alemi et al. (2013), Alemi, Daftarifard, and Pashmforoosh (2011), and Alemi and Pashmforoosh (2012) revealed that learners' level of language proficiency was significantly related to their level of WTC in English. In another study (Imran & Ghani, 2014), it was asserted that learners who were relatively less willing to communicate in English tended to perform poorly on English language proficiency test. With a more specific focus on the effect of oral proficiency on L2 WTC, Valadi and associates (2015) identified a strong correlation between EFL learners' WTC and their oral proficiency. However, there were also some studies in which no relationship between L2 proficiency and L2 WTC was found (e.g. Afghari & Sadeghi, 2012; Bashosh et al., 2013; Matsuoka, Matsumoto, Poole, & Matsuoka, 2014). In an endeavor to delve into the relationship between EFL learners' WTC and academic achievement, Rastegar and Karami (2015) discovered that there was a significant relationship between WTC and achievement. Baghaei and associates (2012) suggested that WTC in the classroom context was reasonably associated with L2 achievement whereas WTC with non-native speakers (NNSs) of English was not linked to success in FLL. In a study (Mahmoodi & Moazam, 2014), which probed the case of Arabic language learners, a two-way relationship between learners' WTC and L2 achievement was noted. In other words, learners with higher WTC were more successful in learning the L2 and more successful L2 learners were more eager to communicate in class. In the study of Cao (2012), which aimed to pinpoint the relationship between communication quality and learners' WTC inside the L2 classroom, it was also reported that learners with higher WTC tended to produce more complex language than those with lower WTC during classroom interactions. In a qualitative study (Wood, 2016), the fluid relationship between WTC and L2 fluency was examined from a dynamic systems perspective. The results demonstrated that there was a link between the Japanese EFL learners' fluency and WTC in L2. It was reported that fluency breakdowns caused lowered WTC and lowered WTC led to fluency to suffer. That is, learners' WTC and fluency in English took part in a dance in which each took turns in

leading. Focusing on a different point, Zarrinabadi and Khodarahmi (2017) probed whether and how Iranian EFL learners' perceptions about their/others' accent in interacting with other NNSs affect their WTC. The results of this qualitative study showed that accent-related attitudes might influence L2 WTC. For example, accent strength was found to arouse feelings of being stigmatized which, in turn, caused learners to be unwilling to communicate. Perceived accent quality was also reported to make a difference in learners' L2 WTC by affecting their SPCC and L2 self-confidence.

The next line of research centered on the role of instructional and educational factors in learners' WTC in L2. Wattana (2013), for instance, investigated the influences of online games on communication and L2 WTC at a university in Thailand. Thai EFL learners' WTC seemed to be increased by participating in the games, implying that language learners took full advantage of more relaxed language learning environments thanks to the game and therefore were more eager to take part in classroom communication. The study of Shea (2014) focused on the impact of a mobile augmented reality game on learners' WTC in English. The findings revealed that these games offered the learners the opportunity to take L2 learning out-of-class, which had a positive influence on their WTC. Likewise, Wang and Erlam (2011) cited games as the reason for learners' increased L2 WTC. In another study (Lewis, 2011), the effects of students' mode preferences (face-to-face versus oral computer-mediated communication) on their WTC in English were inspected. A significant correlation between WTC and the number of turns and words produced in the face-to-face setting was detected whereas no significant correlation was found for the oral computer-mediated communication group, which contradicted the results of the study of Iino and Yabuta (2015). Therefore, it was concluded that the students interacted differently via oral computer-mediated communication and face-to-face communication. In addition to these studies, in another study (Reinders & Wattana, 2015), it was also reported that digital game-based learning was useful in softening Thai EFL learners' psychological obstacles to language learning and enhancing their WTC. Experience of communicating in English through online chatting was also found to provide learners with a more relaxed atmosphere than face-to-face communication, boosting their WTC in English (Freiermuth & Jarrell, 2006).

Revolving around a different aspect of the issue, Kang (2014) delved into the impact of study-abroad experiences on Korean EFL learners' WTC and discovered that learners who participated in classes taught by the native English-speaking teacher during their study-abroad experience were more willing to communicate in English. Fatemipour and Nourmohammadi (2014) examined the role of information-gap activities in enhancing EFL learners' WTC. The findings of the study suggested that missing information activities and finding the differences activities exerted influence on promoting the learners' willingness to communicate while jigsaw activities had no bearing on their WTC. In a study conducted by Mirsane and Khabiri (2016), communicative strategy training was revealed to have a significant impact on improving EFL learners' WTC in English. In another study, which addressed the influence of oral presentations on Japanese EFL learners' WTC in English, the learners reported that they attained higher SPCC, felt more relaxed about speaking and thus were more willing to communicate due to the oral presentations they gave in class. Lepore (2014) emphasized the significant positive effect of interpersonal audio discussions on language learners' WTC. The learners' ongoing involvement in the audio discussions was observed to have a prolonged impact on their WTC until the end of the semester. In an endeavor to explore if learners in content and language integrated learning (CLIL) contexts and formal instruction contexts differed in terms of their level of WTC in English, Menezes and Juan-Garau (2015) discovered that learners in the content and language integrated learning group indicated higher levels of WTC than their non-CLIL counterparts.

There were also some studies in which immersion and non-immersion programs were compared with respect to their effects on learners' WTC. The study of Knell and Chi (2012), for instance, demonstrated that immersion learners displayed significantly greater WTC than their non-immersion counterparts. MacIntyre and associates (2003) also suggested that prior immersion experience among learners appeared to result in an increased WTC and frequency of communication in French. In an earlier research conducted by MacIntyre and associates (2002), it was noted that immersion and non-immersion students significantly differed in their L2 WTC. Furthermore, among immersion French students, CA was a better determinant of L2 WTC whereas SPCC was a better

predictor of L2 WTC among non-immersion learners. In his study, Moazzam (2014) attempted to scrutinize if EFL learners and EAP learners differ in their WTC. As a result of the study, EFL learners were detected to display higher WTC in English than EAP learners. In another study (Munezane, 2015) conducted in the Japanese EFL context, the relative influences of visualization and goal setting on learners' WTC were examined. Learners in the first group were given the opportunity to imagine themselves as prospective specialists in their field. They discussed worldwide issues and offered their imaginative ideas for the solution of these problems. In the second treatment group, on the other hand, learners expressed their verbal communication goals in each class. In the third treatment group, visualization plus goal setting activities were introduced to learners. The results suggested that visualization plus goal setting group had the highest level of WTC in L2 among the three treatment groups.

Following the sixth line of research, some researchers examined the probable interrelationships between some psychological, linguistic, contextual, instructional factors and L2 WTC by hypothesizing a causal model to be tested. To begin with, Yashima (2002) investigated the relationships between L2 WTC, self-confidence, L2 proficiency, international posture, and L2 motivation among Japanese EFL learners. An indirect path from motivation to L2 WTC through the mediation of self-confidence was identified while international posture directly affected L2 WTC. In another study carried out in the Japanese EFL context, SPCC and CA were found to be the direct determinants of WTC in L2 (Hashimoto, 2002). Moreover, motivation was discovered to exert a significant effect on L2 WTC. In a study (Clément et al., 2003) conducted with the participation of Anglophone and Francophone learners enrolled in a Canadian bilingual university, the relationships between L2 contact, normative pressures, L2 self-confidence, WTC, identity and amount of L2 use were probed. Only L2 self-confidence appeared to be associated with L2 WTC, which exerted a direct influence on frequency of L2 use. Based on Yashima's (2002) previous model, Yashima et al. (2004) proposed a causal model including the variables of frequency of communication in L2, L2 WTC, SPCC, motivation and attitude and discovered that SPCC was the best determinant of L2 WTC. A learner's perception of his/her communication competence was directly associated with how willing s/he was to communicate in

L2. The model proposed by Matsuoka (2005) consisted of introversion, motivational intensity, CA, international posture, self-confidence, L2 proficiency and compulsivity. Having tested the model through structural equation modeling, Matsuoka (2005) found that introversion, motivational intensity, CA and international posture were the determinants of WTC in English. Introversion and CA were negatively correlated with the learners' WTC while motivational intensity and international posture were positively correlated with the learners' WTC in English.

In another study, Nishida and Yashima (2009) who attempted to find out the relationships between interest in foreign countries, classroom atmosphere, extraverted personality tendencies, SPCC, motivation and L2 WTC, suggested that the learners' perceptions of classroom environment directly affected their motivation to learn L2, which in turn had a direct effect on their interest in foreign countries. Moreover, when the learners considered the classroom environment as positive and supportive, their SPCC significantly increased, which contributed directly to their WTC. Drawing on Kuhl's Action Control Theory (1985), MacIntyre and Doucette (2010) tested a model including preoccupation, hesitation, volatility, SPCC, CA, in-class WTC and out-of-class WTC. The findings revealed that volatility was directly linked to WTC in the classroom and indirectly to WTC outside the classroom, which implied that the inclination to abandon tasks would result in lower WTC in the long run. More specifically, Fushino (2008) probed the interrelationships between Japanese EFL learners' L2 WTC in a group work, their opinions about L2 group work, readiness for group work, SPCC in L2 group work and CA in L2 group work. The results of the structural equation modeling demonstrated that WTC was indirectly influenced by opinions on L2 group work via the mediation of SPCC in L2 group work. The model proposed by Khajavy, Ghonsooly, Fatemi and Choi (2014) incorporated affective, contextual, and linguistic variables which were hypothesized to contribute to Iranian EFL learners' WTC in L2. Having tested the model, the researchers found that classroom environment was the major determinant of L2 WTC. SPCC also directly influenced learners' WTC in English while motivation and English language proficiency made an indirect impact on the construct via SPCC.

The study of Munezane (2014) explored the probable relationships between WTC, amount of L2 use, L2 anxiety, motivation to learn an L2, integrativeness, international posture, ought-to L2 self, ideal L2 self, L2 self-confidence and valuing of global English. According to the analyses, the model was confirmed to show good fit to the data. The best predictor of L2 WTC was ideal L2 self, which was a finding similar to that of Munezane's (2013) previous study. It was also stated that WTC directly affected actual L2 use in the classroom. Having marked the initial step toward making use of L2MSS to explain EFL learners' WTC in L2, the causal model of Peng (2015) encompassed ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, L2LE, international posture, L2 anxiety, and L2 WTC. The learners' in-class L2 WTC was directly affected by language learning anxiety, learning experience and international posture. As for their out-of-class WTC in English, it was affected by only international posture.

In a recent study, Khany and Nejad (2017) probed the relationships between L2 WTC, L2 unwillingness to communicate (L2 UWTC) and the personality traits of openness to experience and extraversion. In the study conducted with the Iranian EFL learners, it was found that openness to experience and extraversion were the major determinants of L2 WTC whereas a negative path was found from L2 UWTC to L2 WTC. On the contrary, the results of the study of Ghonsooly and associates (2012) showed that the path from openness to experience to L2 WTC was non-significant. Nevertheless, self-confidence and attitudes were the main determinants of L2 WTC. Extraversion was also reported to be the direct predictor of EFL learners' L2 WTC in another study carried out in Japan (Elwood, 2011). Jung (2011) employed structural equation modeling to determine the relationships between WTC in English, communication self-confidence, motivation, attitudes and personality. The results indicated that communication self-confidence and motivation directly affected L2 WTC whereas learners' WTC in English was indirectly influenced by attitudes through motivation. In order to examine the structural relationships between WTC, SPCC, CA, frequency of communication, motivation, attitudes towards learning situation, integrativeness and instrumental motivation, Al-amrani (2013) conducted a study with Arab EFL learners and found that SPCC and CA were the direct predictors of L2 WTC while motivation had an indirect path to L2 WTC via SPCC. These

findings were consistent with those derived from earlier studies (Yousef, Jamil, & Razak, 2013; Yu et al., 2011). Peng and Woodrow (2010) hypothesized a model including L2 WTC, self-confidence, motivation, learners' opinions and classroom atmosphere. The findings demonstrated that classroom environment was the direct determinant of L2 WTC while motivation indirectly affected L2 WTC through communication self-confidence. The significant contribution of classroom environment to EFL learners' WTC in English was also confirmed in the study of Robson (2015). The study of Fallah (2014) in which the interrelationships between WTC in English, shyness, motivation, communication confidence and teacher immediacy were investigated, indicated significant positive paths from motivation and communication self-confidence to L2 WTC. Besides, shyness and teacher immediacy were detected to be the two indirect predictors of L2 WTC through the mediation of self-confidence and motivation. Recently, Joe, Hiver, and Al-Hoorie (2017), which employed a structural equation modeling approach, suggested that classroom social climate directly influenced the satisfaction of learners' basic psychological needs, thereby positively affecting the development of the more autonomous forms of motivation which, in turn, predicted higher levels of L2 WTC and achievement. Recently, Khajavy, MacIntyre, and Barabadi (2017) investigated the relationships between emotions, classroom environment, anxiety and WTC using a different methodological procedure; doubly latent multilevel analysis. A positive classroom environment was found to foster WTC and enjoyment while it reduced anxiety among students. It was also found that enjoyment increases WTC at a both student and classroom level whereas anxiety reduces WTC only at the student level.

The next line of research examined language learners from various cultures and with different experience and inspected whether cultural differences led to any significant effects in their WTC in L2. Burroughs et al (2003), for instance, made a comparison between Micronesian learners and American learners in terms of their WTC in English and investigated the relationships between SPCC, CA and L2 WTC within the two cultures under investigation. According to the findings, Micronesian learners perceived themselves as more anxious, less competent and less willing to communicate than American learners, which supported the conclusion that SPCC and CA made significant contributions to learners' WTC in

L2. In a similar vein, the comparative study of Lu and Hsu (2008) concentrated on the dissimilarities in WTC between American and Chinese learners. As a result of the study, the American learners were discovered to be more enthusiastic about communicating with the Chinese learners than were the Chinese learners with the American learners. The findings gained from the Chinese students showed that WTC was positively correlated with SPCC, immersion time and motivation. As for the Americans, the results were similar with the exception of immersion time exerting no influence on WTC. Simić (2014) made a comparison between Austrian and Serbian learners in terms of their perceptions of factors affecting WTC in English and communication behavior. No complete matches but rather similar patterns between the two countries were observed. Both Austrian and Serbian learners agreed that a relaxing classroom atmosphere leading to a more enjoyable speaking environment made a great contribution to their WTC in the classroom. Interest in the topic and confidence in speaking skills played a key role in Serbian learners' WTC. Austrian learners, on the other hand, suggested that interest in the topic, wish to get a good grade, mood and pair work were the major factors affecting their WTC in English.

Following the last line of research, some researchers made a comprehensive analysis of change in the level of learners' WTC in L2 over long periods of time. In a longitudinal study (Watanabe, 2013), it was investigated whether the level of EFL learners' WTC would change over the three years of high school or not. The findings indicated that neither their WTC with friends and acquaintances nor willingness to communicate with strangers changed. Furthermore, their WTC with strangers remained lower than their WTC with friends and acquaintances. Likewise, Hodis, Bardhan, and Hodis (2010) examined whether language learners' WTC in public speaking contexts would change over a semester and found that there was a significant increase in the level of the learners' WTC in public speaking contexts. Besides, significant intraindividual differences were found in learners' WTC, partially caused by differences in CA. A longitudinal study (Nishida, 2012) conducted with young Japanese EFL learners yielded some findings on changes in learners' motivation, interest in language and other subjects, WTC and SPCC throughout the year. Some learners with high levels of WTC in the first term, for instance, turned out to be less eager to

communicate in English during the second and third terms. So as to check dynamism in WTC, Cao (2013) conducted a longitudinal study with the ESL learners for five months. As a result of the study, the ESL learners' WTC in English was revealed to fluctuate and dynamically change over time. It was concluded that there was a joint effect of learners' cognitive condition, linguistic factors and contextual factors on their WTC in L2. MacIntyre and Legatto (2011) aimed to capture the rapid changes in L2 learners' WTC and observed both stability and fluctuation in their WTC even among a fairly alike sample of learners. Searching memory for vocabulary was determined as a central process influencing WTC. Language anxiety also affected learners' decision to engage in L2 communication. In an attempt to explore the situated nature of L2 learners' WTC, Cao (2009) carried out a multiple case study with learners of English throughout an academic year. The data gained from classroom observations, interviews and reflective journals demonstrated that classroom WTC was influenced by individual variables, classroom environment and linguistic factors. These factors either facilitated or impeded learners' WTC in L2 classrooms (Cao, 2011; Kang, 2005; Pattapong, 2015; Peng, 2012). Similarly, Yashima, MacIntyre, and Ikeda (2016) cited individual characteristics and contextual factors as the reason for changes in learners' WTC in English.

In conclusion, empirical research has shown that biological factors such as age and gender generally have significant effects on learners' WTC in L2, with females generally indicating higher levels of WTC compared to males and with the degree of WTC increasing with age. Psychological, contextual, linguistic, instructional and educational factors have also been found to exert negative or positive influences on learners' inclination to engage in L2 communication. Moreover, some cross-cultural studies have also provided the evidence that cultural differences lead to considerable effects on language learners' communicative behavior and L2 WTC. Lastly, the dynamic and situated nature of WTC has been highlighted in some longitudinal studies in which changes in learners' WTC in L2 due to a host of variables such as classroom environment, individual characteristics and linguistic factors are detected.

Relevant Studies on Willingness to Communicate in the Turkish EFL Context

Even though much research has been carried out on WTC in different L2 learning contexts, few studies have been conducted in the Turkish EFL context. To begin with, Çetinkaya (2005) examined the extent to which Turkish EFL learners were eager to communicate in English and the probable relationships between WTC in English, language learning motivation, CA, SPCC, personality and attitude towards the international community. In addition to the questionnaires administered, interviews were also conducted with the participants in order to extend and elaborate the quantitative findings of the study. The findings showed that tertiary level Turkish EFL learners were moderately willing to communicate in English when given a choice. Additionally, their WTC in English was revealed to be directly associated with their attitudes towards the international community and SPCC while their motivation and personality were discovered to indirectly affect their WTC through the mediation of SPCC.

Öz and his associates (2015) conducted a quantitative study with the participation of the learners enrolled in an EFL teacher education program at a major state university in Turkey so as to disclose the perceived levels of EFL learners' WTC as well as to detect the factors underlying it. The effect of gender on learners' L2 WTC was also explored. A casual model of L2 WTC for EFL learners including L2 WTC, SPCC, CA, integrativeness, attitudes, motivation, and ideal L2 self was proposed. The findings indicated that EFL learners had a satisfactory level of WTC in English. Concerning the effect of gender on L2 WTC, males were found to have higher levels of WTC than their female counterparts. Finally, a positive direct path was found from SPCC to L2 WTC whereas a negative direct path was detected from CA to L2 WTC. Furthermore, motivation indirectly affected L2 WTC via SPCC and CA.

In another study (Asmalı, 2016), the researcher aimed to unfold the factors affecting tertiary level EFL learners' readiness to enter into an L2 discourse by means of a structural model. The hypothesized structural model consisted of L2 WTC, attitude, personality, L2 motivation, and communication confidence. According to the results, the learners' confidence in English communication, attitudes towards international community and motivation to learn English were

directly linked to their WTC in English while the learners' personality had an indirect influence on their WTC through confidence in English communication.

Conducted with the learners studying in a state university, the study of Atay and Kurt (2009) pinpointed the variables contributing to the pre-service EFL teachers' WTC in English. Besides, the participants' opinions about communicating in English were qualitatively investigated through interviews. As a result of the study, a positive strong relationship was found between the learners' SPCC and WTC in English. Besides, international posture was identified to be a major predictor of WTC in English, implying that learners who had positive attitudes towards the international community were more eager to take part in L2 communication. Furthermore, the findings gained from the qualitative data demonstrated that topic, background knowledge, teacher, and peers had some bearings on learners' WTC.

In order to explore the extent to which Turkish learners of English were willing to communicate in English as well as to scrutinize the relations between L2 WTC, self-confidence, motivation, attitudes and personal characteristics, Şener (2014) carried out a mixed-methods research study with pre-service EFL teachers. As a result, it was found that the level of pre-service EFL teachers' WTC was between moderate and high. The participants' linguistic self-confidence was the major determinant of their WTC. Their L2 motivation and attitudes towards international community were also closely related to their WTC in English.

Focusing on a different dimension, Öz (2014) sought to determine the relationship between the big five personality traits (i.e. extraversion, agreeableness, openness to experience, neuroticism, and conscientiousness) and L2 WTC among tertiary level EFL learners. Extraversion, agreeableness and openness to experience were revealed to be positively related to the EFL learners' WTC in English. Nevertheless, no significant correlations were found between neuroticism, conscientiousness and WTC in English. It was stated that the interplay of personality traits might significantly contribute to EFL learners' L2 WTC.

In another study (Alishah, 2015), the level of Turkish EFL learners' L2 WTC and factors influencing their WTC were probed. The study was conducted in the

four different universities located in the four different cities of Turkey. The impact of gender on L2 WTC was also examined. According to the results, the Turkish EFL learners had a low level of WTC. SPCC was found to be the strongest predictor of the learners' WTC in English. As for the gender factor, no statistically significant difference was detected among the participants.

In a recent study, Bursalı & Öz (2017) investigated the relationship between ideal L2 self and L2 WTC. The results of the study, which was carried out with 56 university students majoring in EFL, demonstrated that there is a significant relationship between the EFL students' ideal L2 self and L2 WTC inside the classroom. This was consistent with the findings of an earlier research conducted by Öz (2016), which revealed that the pre-service EFL teachers' ideal L2 self significantly contributed to the prediction of their WTC in English. It was concluded that ideal L2 self, as an individual difference variable, might enrich learners' communication behavior and enhance their WTC in English.

Kanat-Mutluoğlu (2016) explored the predicting effect of ideal L2 self, academic self-concept and the level of intercultural communicative competence (ICC) on L2 WTC. The participants of the quantitative study included tertiary level EFL students. The findings indicated that ideal L2 self was the only determinant of the learners' WTC in English. In other words, there was no significant effect of the learners' academic self-concept and levels of ICC on their WTC in English. Therefore, it was suggested that learners' positive future selves as L2 users might enable them to become confident speakers in English, which might in turn enhance their WTC in L2.

Having adopted a cross-cultural perspective, Asmalı, Bilki, and Duban (2015) carried out a comparative study with the Turkish and Romanian learners enrolled in the department of English Language and Literature at state universities in Turkey and Romania. They made a comparison between the Turkish and Romanian learners in terms of their WTC, CA and SPCC in English. Moreover, they aimed to determine the relationships between WTC, CA and SPCC in English for both groups. The results showed that the Romanian learners display more willingness to communicate in English than the Turkish learners. They were also more competent in using English in communication. Nevertheless, the two groups did not differ in their CA. The learners' level of WTC was positively correlated with

their level of SPCC in English whereas a negative correlation was found between CA and L2 WTC for both groups.

To sum up, not much research on WTC has been conducted in the Turkish EFL context. The available research on the issue has focused on determining the relationships between WTC in English and some major affective, communication, and contextual variables in addition to investigating the extent to which Turkish EFL learners are ready for initiating communication when they are given opportunity to do so. The roles of gender and culture in learners' WTC in English were also examined.

Gaps in the Literature

Over the last two decades, there has been a huge increase in the amount of research into L2 WTC. The first studies in the realm of L2 learning explored the association between L2 WTC and biological variables. The second line of research tended to pinpoint the role of psychological variables in L2 WTC. The third line of research inspected the role of contextual variables in learners' WTC in L2. The fourth line of research centered around the relationships between linguistic factors and WTC in L2. The next line of research centered on the role of instructional and educational factors in learners' WTC in L2. Following the sixth line of research, some researchers examined the probable interrelationships between some psychological, linguistic, contextual, instructional factors and L2 WTC by hypothesizing a causal model to be tested. The next line of research examined language learners from various cultures and with different experience and inspected whether cultural differences led to any significant effects on their WTC in L2. Following the last line of research, some researchers made a comprehensive analysis of change in the level of learners' WTC in L2 over long periods of time. The available literature has clearly shown that L2 WTC is a dynamic construct which is under the influence of a range of psychological, linguistic, contextual, and instructional factors. Although empirical research on L2 WTC was conducted in different contexts, it predominantly focused on just some of the key variables (i.e. SPCC, CA, self-confidence, and motivation) of the L2 WTC pyramid model (MacIntyre et al., 1998), which are assumed to have a strong effect on L2 communication. However, none of the studies examined the role of imagery capacity, vocabulary size and course achievement in L2 WTC. The probable

interrelationships between L2 WTC, ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, L2LE, motivation, anxiety, imagery capacity, vocabulary size and course achievement still remain an unexplored area in WTC research.

It is noteworthy that most of the previous studies have investigated language learners' L2 WTC and its relation to other individual difference variables in the ESL context with some notable exceptions. In order to gain a better understanding of L2 in a setting in which learners generally do not have the opportunity to use English except for the classroom context, it seems necessary to gain further insight into this key ID variable in the EFL context. The literature review has also shown that researchers usually collected data through a single instrument, namely, a questionnaire and employed quantitative methods including SEM to test the causal relationships between WTC and its underlying factors. Nevertheless, as MacIntyre and his associates (2001) point out, the self-report technique merely taps trait-like WTC and more in-depth qualitative methods should also be employed to capture the dynamic nature of the construct and identify the factors contributing to situational L2 WTC (Dörnyei, 2005; Ellis, 2008). Therefore, a mixture of quantitative and qualitative methods is likely to offer a more holistic insight into the dual characteristics of L2 WTC (Xie, 2014).

Even though many studies have been conducted on WTC in different L2 learning contexts, only a limited amount of research has been conducted in the Turkish EFL context. The studies on WTC are quite new in Turkey and that is why they are highly intriguing in the foreign language learning context. When the available research on the issue is examined in more detail, it is seen that researchers have concentrated mainly on determining the relationships between WTC in English and some major affective, communication, and contextual variables in addition to investigating the extent to which Turkish EFL learners are ready for initiating communication when they are given opportunity to do so. The role of gender and culture in EFL learners' WTC in English were also examined. However, the relationships between EFL learners' WTC in English, ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, L2LE, L2 motivation, L2 anxiety, imagery capacity, vocabulary size and their course achievement is still an uncharted territory in Turkey. Considering that these variables are highly context-bound, there is a great need to see their interaction in the Turkish EFL context and fill the gap in the literature.

Chapter 3

Methodology

Methodological Framework

Quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods research designs. Concerning a variety of research methods, Patton (1990) highlights the significance of acknowledging that different methods are suitable for different circumstances. Thus, when planning a study that is suitable for a particular context, the aim of the research, the research questions, and the existing sources are considered (Patton, 1990). Taking into account the restrictions related to only one research method, a mixed-method research design which integrates both quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis methods (Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann & Hanson, 2003), has been adopted in the present study.

Quantitative research design is defined as “data collection procedures that result primarily in numerical data which is then analyzed primarily by statistical methods” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 24). It uses procedures of investigation such as experiments and surveys (Creswell, 2003) and focuses on generalizing the results across groups of people (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). Alternatively, quantitative research design entails data collection practices which lead mostly to open-ended, non-numerical data that is analyzed mainly using non-statistical methods (Dörnyei, 2007). It employs strategies of inquiry such as narratives, phenomenologies, ethnographies or case studies (Creswell, 2003).

There are major similarities and differences between quantitative and qualitative methods (Taylor & Trumbull, 2005). According to Muijs (2004) and Creswell (2014), quantitative and qualitative research methods have different underlying philosophies. The former is based primarily on realism or positivism whereas the latter is based on constructivist perspectives and the subjectivist worldview (Creswell, 2003). As the most extreme form of the realism, positivism explains the truth with a cause and effect relationship and describes reality as standing out there independently of people (Muijs, 2004). Hence, in the quantitative research method, the investigator examines the issue as an outsider in order not to destroy its nature and employs proper instruments serving that purpose. The qualitative paradigm, on the other hand, is based on the premise

that reality is not standing out there independently, but rather is partly shaped by people and their observations. To put it differently, quantitative research is designed to provide objective descriptions of phenomena and to show how phenomena can be managed via certain treatments while qualitative research is planned to build up understanding of individuals in their natural environments that cannot be objectively examined (Taylor & Trumbull, 2005).

Quantitative and qualitative research designs have both advantages and disadvantages. The quantitative method generates consistent and replicable data that can be generalized to other populations. Yet, it is usually not very sensitive in revealing the causes of specific observations or the dynamics underlying the investigated fact. In other words, the exploratory power of quantitative research is fairly restricted (Dörnyei, 2007). On the contrary, qualitative research has commonly been the preferred method of investigating new, unexplored areas (Dörnyei, 2007). Nevertheless, it is suggested by Duff (2006) that even though qualitative approach enables the researcher to offer insights into a phenomenon, the specific circumstances or observations may not be appropriate to others. Hence, a mixed-method research design, which consists of both procedures, has become prevalent recently (Bryman, 2006). It is a research paradigm which builds a bridge between quantitative and qualitative research methods (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). With the use of the mixed method research design, it is not intended that it will replace qualitative or quantitative research methods. Instead, it combines both approaches in creative ways that make use of the strengths of each within a single research project (Tavakoli, 2012). Dörnyei (2007) claims that a combination of qualitative research and quantitative research offers deeper, more complete, and more significant responses to just one research question and enhances the capability of the investigator to come to conclusions about the research problem.

As aforementioned in the literature review section, previous studies of L2 WTC attempted to gather data through questionnaires and typically employed the quantitative research design. Nonetheless, it has been suggested that qualitative approach possibly will help uncover more variables affecting situational second language willingness to communicate and provide new perspectives on the situational nature of it (Dörnyei, 2005). As Cao and Philp (2006) argue, the

inclusion of the qualitative method might be crucial to the exploration of the situational characteristics of the L2 WTC and the situation-specific factors influencing it. Therefore, the present study was conducted within a mixed methods research paradigm and employed a mixed methods sequential explanatory research design, which consists of both quantitative and qualitative methods in two distinct interactive phases (Creswell et al., 2003). The study started with the collection and analysis of quantitative data, which was followed by the collection and analysis of qualitative data. Findings of the quantitative data analysis gained from the questionnaires were extended and elaborated by means of the qualitative data collection instrument (i.e. interviews). Semi-structured interviews helped the researcher to better explore the interrelated intricacies of L2 WTC and other proximal factors contributing to it. While the quantitative data analysis provided a common understanding of the research problem, the qualitative data analysis refined and explained those statistical findings by probing the participants' opinions in a more detailed manner (Plano Clark & Creswell, 2011). Thus, the researcher interpreted to what extent and in what ways the qualitative results explained and added insight into the initial quantitative results.

Triangulation. The term triangulation refers to the employment of various separate techniques of collecting data in a research so as to reach the similar results (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). It is a procedure in which the investigator looks for correspondence and confirmation of findings obtained from different procedures examining the same phenomenon by using various data sources (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). Triangulation allows the researcher to gain information which employs the strengths of both quantitative and qualitative procedures (Creswell, 2008). It decreases bias and increases validity and reliability of the information (Johnson, 1992).

There exist four different kinds of triangulation: theoretical triangulation, time triangulation, investigator triangulation, and methodological triangulation (Denzin, 1978). Methodological triangulation is the most frequently used one since it has the most to provide (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011). In the current research, methodological triangulation was utilized to strengthen the analysis of the data. The qualitative methods were combined with the quantitative ones and the data were gathered from a variety of sources in order to increase the credibility of the

research (Brown, 2001). The quantitative data were collected from the questionnaires and the productive vocabulary size test whereas the qualitative data were gained through the semi-structured interviews.

Pilot Study

Aims of the study. Before the main study, all the instruments and procedures were piloted on a small group of volunteers. The aim was to see whether there were any problems with the instruments which were going to be employed in the main study. The pilot study also aimed to test the reliability of the instruments, and see how well they worked in practice so that any potential practical problems in the research procedure could be identified.

Setting. The pilot study was conducted at Balıkesir University Faculty of Tourism in the spring semester of 2016-2017 academic year. The faculty consists of five departments including Tourism Guidance, Tourism Management, Travel Management, Recreation Management, and Gastronomy and Culinary Arts. Only the students enrolled in the departments of Tourism Guidance and Tourism Management participated in the pilot study. Double shift education is available in the faculty. The students studying in the department of Tourism Guidance have six hours of English per week each year while the students enrolled in the department of Tourism Management have four hours per week in their first, second, third and fourth years. These course hours are largely used as a main course which integrates four language skills in one lesson. They have a midterm exam and a final exam as assessment tools. When they get a minimum of 50 out of 100 as a composite score of the term, they pass the course.

Participants. The study was conducted with the participation of 146 Turkish EFL learners studying in the departments of Tourism Guidance and Tourism Management. Demographic information about the participants is presented in Table 2.

Table 2

Demographic Information about the Participants

Variables		N	%
Age	18	6	4.1
	19	21	14.4
	20	37	25.3
	21	39	26.7
	22	26	17.8
	23	11	7.5
	24	2	1.4
	25	4	2.7
	Total	146	100
Gender	Male	89	61.0
	Female	57	39.0
	Total	146	100
Department	Tourism Guidance	65	44.5
	Tourism Management	81	55.5
	Total	146	100
Class	1	20	13.7
	2	71	48.6
	3	47	32.2
	4	8	5.5
	Total	146	100
Type of Instruction	Day	51	34.9
	Evening	95	65.1
	Total	146	100

The mean age of the participants was 20.81 (SD = 1.49, minimum = 18; maximum = 25), displaying a close age band. Of the participants, 57 (39%) were female and 89 (61%) were male. 65 (44.5%) of the participants were enrolled in the department of Tourism Guidance whereas 81 (55.5%) of them were studying in the department of Tourism Management. Freshmen (n = 20; 13.7%), sophomores (n = 71; 48.6%), juniors (n = 47; 32.2%), and seniors (n = 8; 5.5%) were included into the pilot study. Both day (n= 51; 34.9%) and evening (n = 95; 65.1%) students participated in the study.

Instrumentation. The data collection instruments included a 109-item composite survey instrument, a 90-item vocabulary test and semi-structured interviews. More detailed information on each instrument is presented below.

Composite survey instrument. The main variables in the composite survey instrument were WTC in English inside the classroom, WTC in English outside the classroom, ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, L2LE, L2 motivation, L2 anxiety, and imagery capacity (see Appendix B). The instrument was made up of

two parts. The first part consisted of some demographic questions about the participants' age, gender, department, and class. In the second part, on the other hand, 109 items were employed to explore the participants' perceptions about their WTC in English inside the classroom (1-27), WTC in English outside the classroom (28-54), ideal L2 self (55-64), ought-to L2 self (65-74), L2 motivation (75-92), imagery capacity (93-97), L2 anxiety (98-103), and L2 learning experience (104-109). A brief description of each scale is presented below.

Willingness to communicate in English inside and outside the classroom.

The participants' perceived levels of WTC in English were determined using the adapted version of the L2 WTC Scale (MacIntyre et al., 2001). The scale was selected to find out EFL learners' perceived levels of WTC in English as it was designed specifically to assess L2 WTC while other measures of WTC such as McCroskey's (1992) scale estimate the degree of general WTC. The L2 WTC Scale was adapted to consist of communication activities more prevalent in the EFL classroom. For example, the item "write an advertisement to sell an old bike" was changed to "write an invitation to invite your classmates to a weekend party". Drawing on the aim of the current study, the word 'French' was also replaced with 'English'. It is a 54-item scale, which is composed of two sections: WTC in the classroom and WTC outside the classroom. The participants were asked to specify on a scale from 1 to 5 how willing they were to communicate. In the first part of the scale, a total of 27 items are presented. All of the items refer to the participants' willingness to take part in communication activities during class time. The items are grouped into four skill areas: speaking, comprehension, reading and writing. The Cronbach's alpha level for each skill was reported to show reliability estimates: speaking ($\alpha=.81$), comprehension ($\alpha=.83$), reading ($\alpha=.83$), and writing ($\alpha=.88$) (MacIntyre et al., 2001). The second part of the scale consists of 27 items, all of which refer to the learners' willingness to take part in communication outside the classroom. These items are again grouped into four skill areas: speaking ($\alpha=.89$), comprehension ($\alpha=.90$), reading ($\alpha=.93$), and writing ($\alpha=.96$) (MacIntyre et al., 2001).

So as to prevent any influence because of the low proficiency levels of the participants, such as misunderstanding the statements, or not understanding at all, the scale was translated into Turkish. Both translation and back translation

methods were performed to ensure that no significant semantic loss/shift would occur between the original and translated versions of the scales (Brislin, 1980). The scale was first translated into Turkish by three different professional English majors. An academic Turkish specialist examined the translations of the professionals for naturalness of Turkish. Secondly, a back translation was performed by a different set of three translators with similar qualifications. The translation was performed from the Turkish version with no reference to the original English version (Geisinger, 1994). Both translations were then compared and combined into one single version by two academic professionals for the equivalence check.

Later, six expert bilingual raters majoring in and holding a minimum of a Master's degree in English were asked to rate the synonymy between items in the English and Turkish versions on a scale of 10, 10 being 100% synonymous and 1 being not related at all. The results of the analysis of the raters' responses demonstrated a mean score of 9.7/10, indicating a high level of equivalence. As the last step, the synonymy between the original English version and the back-translated English version was rated by a different set of six expert raters with similar qualifications. The results of the analysis of the raters' responses as to how synonymous the two versions were on a scale of 10 revealed a mean score of 9.1/10, signifying a satisfactorily high level of semantic correspondence between the original English version and the back-translated English version. Thus, it was safe to believe that the Turkish version used in this study to collect data sufficiently represented the content presented in the scale items of the original L2 WTC scale.

Ideal L2 self. The 10-item ideal L2 self measure, one of the subscales of Taguchi, Magid, and Papi's (2009) questionnaire was utilized to measure the participants' desired L2 self-images or their views of themselves as successful L2 learners in the future. The learners were asked to respond to the statements on a 5-point Likert-type scale and mark one of the responses ranging from *never* to *all the time*. Having applied Taguchi et al.'s (2009) questionnaire in their research, Dörnyei and Chan (2013) reported that the Cronbach's alpha coefficient for ideal L2 self was $\alpha = .78$ which is quite satisfactory. In the pilot study, the Turkish version of the scale adapted from the study of Demir Ayaz (2016) was used. The

Cronbach's alpha value was reported to be $\alpha = .92$ which is highly satisfactory (Demir Ayaz, 2016).

Ought-to L2 self. The Turkish EFL learners' ought-to L2 selves, which emerge from their perceived obligations and responsibilities to others as a language learner, were measured using another ten items from Taguchi et al.'s (2009) questionnaire. The scale is scored on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from *never* to *all the time*. Based on the Cronbach's alpha coefficient, the internal consistency of the scale was calculated to be $\alpha = .77$ (Taguchi et al., 2009). Considering the low proficiency levels of the participants, the translated version of the scale (Demir Ayaz, 2016) was used in the current study. The Cronbach's alpha value for the Turkish version of the scale was $\alpha = .87$ (Demir Ayaz, 2016).

L2 learning experience. The participants' L2LE was measured by using the six items adapted from the study of Papi (2010). The 5-point Likert scale consisted of question-type items to which the participants were expected to respond by marking one of the choices ranging from *not at all* to *very much*. The internal consistency of the scale was measured as $\alpha = .83$ (Papi, 2010). The scale was translated into Turkish using translation and back translation methods. Six expert bilingual raters majoring in and holding a minimum of a Master's degree in English were invited to rate the synonymy between the items in the original version in English and the Turkish version. Following the examination of the raters' responses, a mean score of 9.5/10 was found, which implied a high level of semantic correspondence between the two versions. As for the synonymy between the original English version and the back-translated English version, a mean score of 9.7/10 was found as a result of the analysis of the responses of a different set of raters with the same qualifications as the first group of raters. Therefore, it was noted that the Turkish version satisfactorily represented the content presented in the scale items of the original L2 learning experience scale.

L2 motivation. A questionnaire developed by Al-Shehri (2009) was used to measure the motivated behaviour of the participants. The questionnaire was used by other researchers such as Kim (2009), Kim and Kim (2011), and Yang and Kim (2011) either in its original version or with some adaptations. The internal consistency of the scale was reported to be $\alpha = .89$ (Al-Shehri, 2009). In the pilot study, the Turkish version of the scale adapted from Demir Ayaz (2016) was used.

The Cronbach's alpha value of it was measured as $\alpha = .94$, which indicates that the instrument has a high level of reliability. The scale includes 18 items and it is scored on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from *never* to *all the time*.

L2 anxiety. To measure the level of L2 anxiety of Turkish EFL learners, a questionnaire from Ryan (2009) was used. It includes six items and it is scored on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from *not at all* to *very much*. The Cronbach's alpha value of the scale was reported to be $\alpha = .81$ in the reference study (Ryan, 2009). In order to prevent any misunderstandings, the scale was translated into Turkish through translation and back translation methods. Six expert bilingual raters majoring in and holding a minimum of a Master's degree in English were asked to rate the correspondence between the Turkish and English versions on a scale of 10. The result of the analysis of the raters' responses revealed a mean score of 9.3, showing a high level of synonymy. A different set of raters with similar qualifications rated the synonymy between the original English version and the English version back-translated from the Turkish version. The mean score was 9.1 on a scale of 10, indicating a satisfactorily high level of equivalence.

Imagery capacity. The imagery capacity scale adapted from Richardson (1994) was used to examine the participants' ability to create visual imagery in their minds. The scale was used by Dörnyei and Chan (2013) as well ($\alpha = .68$). The 5-point Likert scale ranging from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (5) consists of five self-report items. The Turkish version of the scale (Demir Ayaz, 2016) was employed in the pilot study. In the reference study, the reliability of the questionnaire was reported as .84 according to the Cronbach's alpha coefficient.

Vocabulary test. The Productive Vocabulary Size Test Version C (Laufer & Nation, 1999) was used to measure the productive vocabulary size of the participants (see Appendix D). It consists of five sections: the 2000, the 3000, the 5000, the 10000, and the university word list level. The test provides an estimate of productive vocabulary size at each of the above four levels in addition to offering an estimation of the level of the examinees' academic vocabulary. In each section, the participants have to complete the underlined words. A total of 90 target words are used per section. Each section includes 18 words. Each correct answer, i.e. completing the underlined word correctly is given one point and the maximum score of the test is 90 points. No time limit will be set for the test. A

learner's percentage score on a level is a very rough indication of the number of words known at that level (for example, 9 out of 18 equals 50%; and this would roughly equal 500 out of 1000 words). The Productive Vocabulary Test Version C was reported to have a reliability of .91 on Kuder-Richardson 21 (KR21) and discriminate between learners of different proficiency levels (Laufer & Nation, 1999).

Interviews. In order to collect qualitative data and enrich the quantitative data, face-to-face interview data collection method was employed. The interview questions were prepared in the light of the previous studies on WTC in English (Çetinkaya, 2005; Şener, 2014) and in line with the items of the scales used in the study. The interview questions prepared by the researcher were reviewed by an expert in the field to ensure that they were open-ended, appropriately worded and aligned with the overall research questions. Moreover, the grammaticality and comprehensibility of the questions were checked by an academic Turkish specialist. Based on the feedback received from them, the questions were revised and piloted with four Turkish EFL learners in their native language, i.e., Turkish. This provided the opportunity to fine-tune the interview questions.

The interviews were semi-structured in nature. Namely, the questions were prepared in advance, yet it could occur that different and/or additional questions were asked when this appeared to be necessary or interesting (Dörnyei, 2007). In addition to some background questions, there were some questions about the learners' English learning experiences, opinions about both in-class and out-of-class WTC in English, motivation to learn English, ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, English learning anxiety, course achievement, and their vocabulary size.

Procedure for data collection. The data were collected during the students' regular class time in the 3rd and 4th weeks of the spring semester of 2016-2017 academic year. The administration of the survey instrument lasted about 20 minutes for each class. In a different session, the participants were asked to take the vocabulary test. The test session lasted between 30-40 minutes for each class. In another session, semi-structured interviews were conducted with four randomly chosen participants in Turkish. Each participant's interview lasted between 20-35 minutes. The interviews were audio-recorded with the permission of the participants.

Findings of the pilot study. In order to estimate the internal consistency of the eight scales adapted, Cronbach's Alpha was calculated. The reliability coefficients reported in the original studies and the ones gained from the pilot study were examined. The findings of the comparative reliability analyses of the scales are illustrated in the table below.

Table 3

Reliability Analysis Results of the Pilot and Original Studies

Variable	Original Study Cronbach's alpha	Pilot Study Cronbach's alpha
WTC in English inside the classroom	.83	.93
WTC in English outside the classroom	.92	.93
Ideal L2 self	.78	.90
Ought-to L2 self	.77	.90
L2 learning experience	.83	.75
L2 motivation	.89	.74
L2 anxiety	.81	.90
Imagery capacity	.68	.86

In the pilot study, the reliability coefficients of each section of the questionnaire were found as the following: WTC in English inside the classroom: (27 items, $\alpha=.93$), WTC in English outside the classroom: (27 items, $\alpha=.93$), Ideal L2 self: (10 items, $\alpha=.90$), Ought-to L2 self: (10 items, $\alpha=.90$), L2 learning experience: (6 items, $\alpha=.75$), L2 motivation: (18 items, $\alpha=.74$), L2 anxiety: (6 items, $\alpha=.90$), and Imagery capacity (5 items, $\alpha=.86$). As presented in Table 3, the reliability indices for all of the scales were above .70, which was an acceptable reliability coefficient (Büyüköztürk, 2009; Özdamar, 2004).

The Productive Vocabulary Test Version C was reported to have a reliability of .91 on KR21 in the reference study (Laufer & Nation, 1999). The reported reliability coefficients for each level of the test and the ones gained from the pilot study are presented in the table below:

Table 4

Reliabilities for each Level of the Test

	Original Study	Pilot Study
Level	KR21	KR21
2000 level	.80	.74
3000 level	.47	.68
UWL	.61	.38
5000 level	.47	.44
10000 level	.38	.29
Total	.91	.68

The overall reliability coefficient of the test reported in the original study was .91 (Laufer & Nation, 1999). However, it was calculated as .68 in the pilot study, indicating that the internal consistency of it was not satisfactory. Moreover, there were some problems encountered during the administration of the test. Most of the participants complained that the test was too difficult. Some of them found the test boring and were reluctant to complete the test. Due to these problems, the researcher decided to use the Vocabulary Levels Test Version 2 (Schmitt, Schmitt, & Clapham, 2001) to measure the vocabulary size of the participants. Although the test was a receptive test and might not give direct information about the capability to employ the English words productively, it was suggested that productive vocabulary knowledge can be predicted on the basis of receptive vocabulary knowledge (Webb, 2008). Thus, it was believed that the findings of the receptive vocabulary test would be a good indicator of the participants' productive vocabulary ability (Webb, 2008).

In the original study (Schmitt et al., 2001), the reliability indices for all levels sections were calculated by Cronbach's alpha coefficient formula. However, both Cronbach's alpha and Kuder Richardson 21 (KR21) coefficients were calculated to measure the reliability of the vocabulary test in the pilot study since the test was a dichotomously scored test and the test items were marked as either right or wrong. The reported reliability indices for each level of the Vocabulary Levels Test and the ones gained from the pilot study are illustrated in the table below:

Table 5

Reliability of the Levels Sections

Level	Original Study	Pilot Study	
	Cronbach's alpha	Cronbach's alpha	KR21
2000 level	.92	.90	.92
3000 level	.93	.94	.89
5000 level	.93	.89	.91
10000 level	.92	.88	.86
Academic level	.96	.90	.90
Total	.91	.92	.93

As shown in the table above, the Vocabulary Levels Test had a high degree of internal consistency, as evidenced by both coefficients ($\alpha=.92$, $KR21=.93$). Therefore, it was found to be a reliable tool that could be used to measure the participants' vocabulary size in the main study.

As semi-structured interviews were piloted with four participants in Turkish, the participants expressed their feelings without being inhibited by language barriers. None of the participants refused audio recording and they seemed relaxed during the interview session. The interview questions were comprehensible to the participants. During the pilot interviews, it appeared that the interview questions were well formulated but that there were some questions stating similar things. Those questions were omitted from the list and the interview questions were redesigned for the main study.

Implications for the main study. As a result of the pilot study conducted to see whether there were any problems with the instruments to be used in the main study, it was found that each instrument in the composite survey instrument had a good level of reliability: WTC in English inside the classroom: (27 items, $\alpha=.93$), WTC in English outside the classroom: (27 items, $\alpha=.94$), Ideal L2 self: (10 items, $\alpha=.90$), Ought-to L2 self: (10 items, $\alpha=.90$), L2 learning experience: (6 items, $\alpha=.75$), L2 motivation: (18 items, $\alpha=.74$), L2 anxiety: (6 items, $\alpha=.90$), and Imagery capacity (5 items, $\alpha=.86$). Besides, there were no observed or reported problems with respect to the administration of the composite survey instrument.

The overall reliability of the Productive Vocabulary Size Test was calculated as .68 in the pilot study, which showed that the test did not have a sufficient level

of internal consistency (Büyüköztürk, 2009; Özdamar, 2004). Furthermore, because of the problems detected in the administration of the test in the pilot study, the researcher decided to use the Vocabulary Levels Test (Schmitt, et al., 2001) instead of the Productive Vocabulary Size Test (Laufer & Nation, 1999) so as to determine the vocabulary size of the participants. In the reference study (Schmitt et al., 2001), the Vocabulary Levels Test was reported as a receptive test. However, the test was expected to be a good indicator of the participants' productive vocabulary ability since productive vocabulary knowledge can be predicted on the basis of receptive vocabulary knowledge (Webb, 2008). The reliability of the Vocabulary Levels Test was measured as .92 (Cronbach's alpha) in the pilot study, which demonstrated that it had a high internal consistency.

During the interview sessions conducted in the pilot study, it was observed that some of the semi-structured interview questions stated similar things. Thus, those questions were omitted from the list and the questions were redesigned for the main study. Apart from that, there were no observed problems regarding the administration of the interviews. To sum up, the vocabulary test and the interview questions were modified whereas no changes were made to the design or content of the composite survey instrument.

Main Study

Aims of the study. This study aimed at probing Turkish EFL learners' perceived levels of WTC in English inside and outside the classroom. The study also aimed to explore the probable interrelationships between L2 WTC and some major affective (i.e. ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, L2 learning experience, imagery capacity, L2 motivation, L2 anxiety) and linguistic factors (i.e. vocabulary size and course achievement). Besides, Turkish EFL learners' perceptions of the factors which affect their WTC in English inside and outside the classroom were examined.

The study aimed to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the Turkish EFL learners' perceived levels of WTC in English inside and outside the classroom?

2. What are the Turkish EFL learners' perceived levels of their ideal L2 self?
3. What are the Turkish EFL learners' perceived levels of their ought-to L2 self?
4. What are the Turkish EFL learners' perceived levels of their L2 learning experience?
5. What are the Turkish EFL learners' perceived levels of their imagery capacity?
6. What are the Turkish EFL learners' perceived levels of their motivation to learn English?
7. What are the Turkish EFL learners' perceived levels of their English learning anxiety?
8. What are the interrelationships between the Turkish EFL learners' WTC in English inside the classroom, WTC in English outside the classroom, ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, L2 learning experience, L2 motivation, L2 anxiety, imagery capacity, vocabulary size and their course achievement?
9. Is the hypothesized model of L2 WTC appropriate for the Turkish EFL learners in terms of explaining the relationships between their WTC in English, ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, L2 learning experience, L2 motivation, L2 anxiety, imagery capacity, vocabulary size and their course achievement?
10. What are the factors influencing the Turkish EFL learners' WTC in English inside and outside the classroom?

Setting. The study was conducted at Balıkesir University Faculty of Tourism in the spring semester of 2016-2017 academic year. The faculty consists of five departments including Tourism Guidance, Tourism Management, Travel Management, Recreation Management, and Gastronomy and Culinary Arts. Only the students who were enrolled in the departments of Tourism Guidance and Tourism Management and were taking the English course participated in the study. Double shift education is available in the faculty. The students studying in

the department of Tourism Guidance have six hours of English per week each year while the students enrolled in the department of Tourism Management have four hours per week. These course hours are largely used as a main course, which integrates four language skills in one lesson. They have a midterm exam and a final exam as assessment tools. When they get a minimum of 50 out of 100 as a composite score of the term, they pass the course.

Participants. From the non-probability sampling procedures, convenience sampling method was employed to collect quantitative data from the participants as they were selected on the basis of certain practical criteria such as geographical proximity, availability at a certain time, easy accessibility and willingness to volunteer. The participants of the study consisted of 701 Turkish EFL learners enrolled in the departments of Tourism Guidance and Tourism Management at Balıkesir University Faculty of Tourism in Balıkesir, Turkey with a nearly balanced distribution between day ($n = 383$; 54.6%) and evening ($n = 318$; 45.4%) classes. Demographic information about the participants is presented in the table below.

Table 6

Demographic Information about the Participants

Variables		N	%
Age	18	50	7.1
	19	110	15.7
	20	160	22.8
	21	158	22.5
	22	100	14.3
	23	66	9.4
	24	28	4.0
	25	18	2.6
	26	4	0.6
	27	3	0.4
	28	2	0.3
	29	1	0.1
	34	1	0.1
	Total	701	100
Gender	Male	417	59.5
	Female	284	40.5
	Total	701	100
Department	Tourism Guidance	274	39.1
	Tourism Management	427	60.9
	Total	701	100
Class	1	204	29.1
	2	235	33.5
	3	147	21.0
	4	115	16.4
	Total	701	100
	Day	383	54.6
Type of Instruction	Evening	318	45.4
	Total	701	100

The mean age of the participants was 20.90 (SD = 1.88, minimum = 18; maximum = 34). Of the participants, 284 (40.5%) were female and 417 (59.5%) were male. 274 (39.1%) of the participants were enrolled in the department of Tourism Guidance whereas 427 (60.9%) of them were studying in the department of Tourism Management. Freshmen (n= 204; 29.1%), sophomores (n= 235; 33.5%), juniors (n= 147; 21%), and seniors (n= 115; 16.4%) were included into the study.

In order to collect the qualitative data, on the other hand, criterion sampling method was used as the researcher aimed to collect data from both the students who were more willing to communicate and the ones who were less willing to communicate in English. A total of 32 learners, 16 with highest and 16 with lowest mean scores in WTC were selected for interviews. Table 7 demonstrates the distribution of the interviewees according to age, gender, department, class, and type of instruction.

Table 7
Demographic Information about the Interviewees

Variables		N	%
Age	18	1	3.1
	19	8	25.0
	20	3	9.4
	21	6	18.8
	22	8	25.0
	23	2	6.3
	24	4	12.5
	Total	32	100
Gender	Male	15	46.9
	Female	17	53.1
	Total	32	100
Department	Tourism Guidance	13	40.6
	Tourism Management	19	59.4
	Total	32	100
Class	1	8	25.0
	2	10	31.3
	3	8	25.0
	4	6	18.8
	Total	32	100
Type of Instruction	Day	19	59.4
	Evening	13	40.6
	Total	32	100

The interviewees were composed of 15 (46.9%) males and 17 (53.1%) females, with a mean age of 21.06 years (SD = 1.75, minimum = 18; maximum = 24). Of the interview participants, 13 (40.6%) were studying in the department of Tourism Guidance whereas 19 (59.4%) of them were enrolled in the department of Tourism Management. Freshmen (n= 8; 25%), sophomores (n= 10; 31.3%),

juniors (n= 8; 25%), and seniors (n= 6; 18.8%) participated in the interviews. Of the interviewees, 19 (59.4%) were from the day classes and 13 (40.6%) were from the evening classes.

Instrumentation. The data collection instruments consisted of a 109-item composite survey instrument, a 150-item vocabulary test and semi-structured interviews. Course achievement was also a major variable in the study; however, it was evaluated based on composite scores of the term. More detailed information about the instruments is presented below.

Composite survey instrument. The survey instrument employed in the current study was the same as the one used in the pilot study (see Appendix B). It was comprised of two parts. The first part included some demographic questions about the participants' age, gender, department, and class. In the second part of the questionnaire, 109 items were employed to find out the participants' perceptions about their WTC in English inside the classroom (1-27), WTC in English outside the classroom (28-54), ideal L2 self (55-64), ought-to L2 self (65-74), L2 motivation (75-92), imagery capacity (93-97), L2 anxiety (98-103), and L2 learning experience (104-109) (see Table 8).

Table 8

An Overview of the Composite Survey Instrument Items

Scale	Items	Number of items	Type of scale
WTC in English inside the classroom	1-27	27	5-point Likert scale 1= almost never willing, 2= sometimes willing, 3= willing half of the time, 4= usually willing, and 5= almost always willing
WTC in English outside the classroom	28-54	27	
Ideal L2 self	55-64	10	5-point Likert-scale 1= never, 2= barely, 3= sometimes, 4= often, and 5= always
Ought-to L2 self	65-74	10	
L2 motivation	75-92	18	
Imagery capacity	93-97	5	
L2 anxiety	98-103	6	5-point Likert scale 1= not at all, 2= not so much, 3= a little, 4= quite a lot, and 5= very much
L2 learning experience	104-109	6	

In the first 54 items, the participants were asked to show on a 5-point Likert-type scale how willing they were to communicate in English. In the next 43 items (55-97), they were asked to answer the statements on a 5-point Likert-type scale and mark one of the responses ranging from *never* to *all the time* (1= *never*, 2= *barely*, 3= *sometimes*, 4= *often*, and 5= *always*). In the last 12 items (98-109), the participants were expected to respond by marking one of the choices ranging from *not at all* to *very much* (1= *not at all*, 2= *not so much*, 3= *a little*, 4= *quite a lot*, and 5= *very much*). The following section details the scales that compose the survey instrument.

WTC in English inside and outside the classroom. The adapted version of the L2 WTC Scale (MacIntyre et al., 2001) was employed to find out the participants' perceived levels of WTC in English. The original scale was translated into Turkish following the procedures of translation and back-translation (Brislin, 1980) (See Pilot Study section for more detail). It is a 54-item scale, which is composed of two sections: WTC in the classroom and WTC outside the classroom. The participants are asked to indicate on a scale from 1 to 5 how keen they are to communicate. The first part of the scale consists of a total of 27 items referring to the participants' eagerness to involve in communication activities in class. In the second part of the scale, on the other hand, there were 27 items, all of which refer to the participants' enthusiasm for participating in out-of-class communication. In the current study, the reliability coefficients of each section of the Turkish version of the scale were found as the following: WTC in English inside the classroom: (27 items, $\alpha=.93$), WTC in English outside the classroom: (27 items, $\alpha=.94$).

Ideal L2 self. In order to measure the participants' desired L2 self-images or their views of themselves as successful L2 learners in the future, the 10-item ideal L2 self measure, one of the subscales of Taguchi, Magid, and Papi's (2009) instrument, was utilized. The learners were expected to respond to the statements on a 5-point Likert-type scale and mark one of the responses ranging from *never* to *all the time*. In order to prevent any effect because of the low proficiency levels of the participants, such as misunderstanding the statements, or not understanding at all, the Turkish version of the scale adapted from the study of Demir Ayaz (2016) was used in the current study. The reliability coefficient of the

Turkish version of the scale was calculated as .92 (α), which was in line with the figure ($\alpha = .92$) reported in the original study (Demir Ayaz, 2016).

Ought-to L2 self. Another ten items from Taguchi et al.'s (2009) questionnaire were used to measure the Turkish EFL learners' ought-to L2 selves, which emerge from their perceived obligations and responsibilities to others as a language learner. The scale is scored on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from *never* to *all the time*. Based on the Cronbach's alpha coefficient, the reliability of the scale was calculated as $\alpha = .77$ (Taguchi et al., 2009). Taking into account the low proficiency levels of the participants, the translated version of the scale (Demir Ayaz, 2016) was used in the current study. The Cronbach's alpha value for the Turkish version was $\alpha = .87$ (Demir Ayaz, 2016). In the current study, the value was calculated to be .88, indicating a good level of internal consistency.

L2 learning experience. L2LE was measured by using the six items adapted from the study of Papi (2010). The 5-point Likert scale includes question-type items to which the participants are expected to respond by marking one of the choices ranging from *not at all* to *very much*. The scale was translated into Turkish through both translation and back translation methods (See pilot study section for more detail). The reliability of the original scale was .83 in the reference study (Papi, 2010). As for the Turkish version of the scale used in the current study, it was found to have a reliability of .80 (Cronbach's alpha).

L2 motivation. The motivated behaviour of the Turkish EFL learners was measured by a scale advanced by Al-Shehri (2009). The scale consists of 18 items and it is scored on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from *never* to *all the time*. The internal consistency of the scale was reported to be $\alpha = .89$ in the original study (Al-Shehri, 2009). In this study, the Turkish version of the scale ($\alpha = .94$) adapted from Demir Ayaz (2016) was used. The reliability coefficient calculated in the current study ($\alpha = .94$) was identical to the one found in the reference study (Demir Ayaz, 2016). This indicated that the scale has a high level of internal consistency.

L2 anxiety. A questionnaire from Ryan (2009) was employed to determine the level of L2 anxiety of EFL learners. It includes six items and it is scored on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from *not at all* to *very much*. In order to prevent any

misunderstandings, the scale was translated into Turkish using both translation and back translation methods (see Pilot Study section for more detail). The internal consistency of the instrument was reported to be $\alpha = .81$ in the reference study (Ryan, 2009) whereas the Turkish version was found to have a reliability of .87 (Cronbach's alpha) in the current study.

Imagery capacity. The imagery capacity scale adapted from Richardson (1994) was employed to find out the Turkish EFL learners' ability to create visual imagery in their minds. The 5-point Likert scale ranging from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (5) was comprised of five self-report items. The Turkish version of the scale adapted from Demir Ayaz (2016) was used in the present study. The reliability of the Turkish version of the scale was measured as .86 (α), which was in line with the figure ($\alpha = .84$) reported in the original study (Demir Ayaz, 2016).

Vocabulary test. The vocabulary size of the participants was measured using Schmitt and associates' Vocabulary Levels Test Version 2 (see Appendix E). It consists of 5 sections: the 2000, the 3000, the 5000, the 10000, and the academic vocabulary level. The test provides an estimate of vocabulary size at each of the four levels and also offers an estimation of the level of the examinees' academic vocabulary. The total number of test items is 150. Each section includes ten groups of six words and three definitions. The participants are instructed to match a target word with its definition. Each correct answer is given one point and the maximum score of the whole test is 150 points. No time limit was set for the test. A learner's percentage score on a level is a very rough indication of the number of words known at that level (for example, 15 out of 30 equals 50%; and this would roughly equal 1000 out of 2000 words).

Table 9

Reliability of the Levels Sections

Level	Original Study	Current Study	
	Cronbach's alpha	Cronbach's alpha	KR21
2000 level	.92	.91	.93
3000 level	.93	.94	.90
5000 level	.93	.90	.91
10000 level	.92	.89	.89
Academic level	.96	.94	.93
Total	.91	.90	.92

As shown in Table 9, The Vocabulary Levels Test Version 2 was found to have an overall reliability of .90 on Cronbach's alpha and .92 on KR21, meaning that it discriminates between learners of different proficiency levels. These figures were in parallel with the reliability coefficient ($\alpha=.91$) reported in the original study (Schmitt et al., 2001). Moreover, the reliability indices for all of levels were high, indicating that the test had a good level of internal consistency. As for the validity issue, the previous studies that gave information about the test (Read, 2000; Schmitt et al., 2001) also suggested that the test measured what it intended to measure.

Interviews. The face-to-face interview data collection method was used to gather qualitative data and enrich the quantitative data. The interview questions were prepared in the light of the previous studies on WTC in English (Çetinkaya, 2005; Şener, 2014) and in line with the items of the scales used in the study. The interview questions prepared by the researcher were reviewed by an expert in the field and an academic Turkish specialist. Taking into account the feedback received from them, the questions were revised and piloted with four Turkish EFL learners in their native language, i.e., Turkish (see Pilot Study section for more detail). During the pilot interviews, it seemed that the interview questions were well formulated but that there were some questions stating similar things. Those questions were omitted from the list and the interview questions were redesigned for the main study.

The interviews were semi-structured in nature. In other words, there were some questions prepared in advance, but it could occur that different and/or

additional questions were asked when this appeared to be necessary or interesting (Dörnyei, 2007). A semi-structured interview guide including a series of open-ended questions, elaboration probes and follow-up questions was prepared by the researcher (see Appendix F). In addition to some background questions, there were some questions about the learners' English learning experiences, opinions about in-class and out-of-class WTC in English, motivation to learn English, ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, English learning anxiety, course achievement, and their vocabulary size.

Procedure for data collection. Before starting the data collection process, the researcher applied for the permission of Hacettepe University Ethics Commission. Following the examination process, the commission approved that this study conformed to the ethical principles of Hacettepe University (see Appendix H) and it could be conducted as planned. Moreover, necessary permissions for data collection were granted from the Dean of Balıkesir University Faculty of Tourism (see Appendix I). All of the students who were enrolled in the departments of Tourism Guidance and Tourism Management and taking the English course were the target participants. The aim and the procedure of the research were elucidated to the instructors. The researcher consulted the department office and gained the schedules of each Foreign Language (English) class.

The study was conducted between the 6th and 14th weeks of the spring semester of 2016-2017 academic year. The data were collected throughout the students' regular class time. Before starting the data collection session, the aim of the study was clarified to the participants. The researcher informed the learners that the participation was voluntary and that their answers would be kept anonymous and confidential. They were also informed that they could leave even after they started filling in the survey instrument. After informing participants about their rights regarding the study, the researcher gave them an official participant consent form (see Appendix A). Approximately five minutes were given to the learners to read the consent form and raise any questions related to the study. Only the learners who were eager to take part in the study were given the survey instrument after they signed the consent form. The administration of the survey instrument lasted about 20 minutes for each class. The researcher was available

in classes during the process so that she could have an opportunity to clarify the points that might be confusing to the respondents.

Table 10

Timeline of the Data Collection Procedures

Method	Instruments	Participants	Date
Quantitative	Survey Instrument Vocabulary Test	701 EFL learners	March 13 rd -April 31 st , 2017
Qualitative	Interview	32 EFL learners	May 1 st -15 th , 2017

In another session, the participants were asked to take the vocabulary test. The test session lasted between 30-40 minutes for each class. Moreover, interviews were conducted with 32 participants in Turkish in a different session. The purpose of the interview was explained to each interviewee prior to each interview session. All of the interviewees were also guaranteed of the privacy of their answers and the protection of their identities. The researcher reminded the interviewees to choose a pseudonym to protect their identities. The researcher (interviewer) followed a semi-structured interview guide consisting of a series of open-ended questions, elaboration probes and follow-up questions. Each participant's interview lasted between 20-35 minutes. The interviews were audio-recorded with the permission of the participants.

Achievement in the English course was also one of the variables of this study and it refers to how much attainment EFL learners get to reach the objectives of their English courses in one academic term. It was measured through composite scores that were reached at the end of the academic term. The course achievement scores of the students were assessed based on their midterm and final exam results. They were obtained from the student affairs division of the faculty at the end of the academic term.

The data analysis techniques employed in the study. The researcher employed both quantitative and qualitative data so as to find an answer to the research questions of the study. Thus, the data were both qualitatively and quantitatively analyzed. So as to find an answer for the first seven research questions, the quantitative data obtained from the composite survey instrument

were analyzed descriptively through IBM SPSS 21. Descriptive statistics (frequencies, percentages, and means) were applied, and mean values and standard deviations of the variables were calculated. The eighth research question was analyzed through Pearson product-moment correlation analysis, which gives both the direction and the strength of the relationship between two continuous variables (Pallant, 2010). The relationships among the Turkish EFL learners' in-class WTC in English, out-of-class WTC in English, ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, L2LE, L2 motivation, L2 anxiety, imagery capacity, vocabulary size and their course achievement were explored through that analysis model.

The aim of the ninth research question was to reveal whether the hypothesized model of L2 WTC is appropriate for the Turkish EFL learners in terms of accounting for the relationships between their WTC in English, ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, L2LE, L2 motivation, L2 anxiety, imagery capacity, vocabulary size and their course achievement. The hypothesized relationships between the variables of interest were tested by means of the path analysis technique. Path analysis technique is a subset of the structural equation modeling (SEM) approach and it allows researchers to estimate hypothesized causal relationships among the observed variables (Kline, 2005). This technique is suitable when a multiple-indicator approach is not feasible (Kline, 2005). As the hypothesized model in the present study is complicated and consists of many variables, path analytic approach was employed rather than SEM. Path analysis was conducted using LISREL 8.80 (Linear Structural Relations) to scrutinize the probable relationships between the variables under investigation.

So as to find an answer for the last research question, the qualitative data gained from the semi-structured interviews were analyzed through qualitative content analysis (Dörnyei, 2007). As the first step, the audio-recorded interview data were transcribed. All transcribed data were read through to have a sense of the general meaning of the data. The data were coded for themes. After structuring the interview data, the coded data were interpreted. The researcher attempted to find any relevant qualitative evidence that may support the findings of the quantitative data analysis.

Chapter 4

Findings

The researcher used the quantitative data to answer the first nine research questions. So as to find an answer for the last research question, on the other hand, the qualitative data were used. In this section, the findings of the analysis of the quantitative data for each research question will be presented first. Then, the results of the analysis of the qualitative data gained from the interviews will be given.

Quantitative Findings

Research question 1: What are the Turkish EFL learners' perceived levels of WTC in English inside and outside the classroom? To explore the participants' levels of WTC in English inside and outside the classroom, descriptive statistics were employed. Following Kalra (2017), Lian and Budin (2014), and Wimolmas (2013), the mean scores were divided into three categories simply by using the formula '*maximum value of mean score (5.00) – minimum value of mean score (1.00) / number of categories (3)*'. Thus, the mean scores which were between 1.00-2.33 were categorized as low WTC, those which fell between 2.34-3.67 were accepted as moderate WTC and those between 3.68-5.00 were assumed to be high WTC. Table 11 presents the mean scores and standard deviations of each item in the L2 WTC scale.

Table 11

Descriptive Statistics: WTC in English inside and outside the Classroom Including Scale Items

Inside		Willingness to Communicate in English	Outside	
Mean*	SD	Item Description	Mean*	SD
2.76	1.24	Bir grup içinde yaz tatiliniz hakkında konuşmak	3.00	1.36
2.49	1.22	Öğretmeninizle ev ödeviniz hakkında konuşmak	2.44	1.31
3.77	1.14	İlk olarak o sizinle konuşursa bir yabancıyla sohbet etmek	3.87	1.17
3.27	1.27	Tamamlamanız gereken bir görevle ilgili kafanız karıştığında yönerge/açıklama istemek	3.17	1.34
2.96	1.27	Sırada beklerken bir arkadaşla konuşmak	3.14	1.38
2.28	1.39	Bir tiyatro oyununda oyuncu olmak	2.38	1.45
2.82	1.40	En sevdiğiniz oyunun kurallarını anlatmak	2.82	1.42
3.22	1.39	Monopoly gibi İngilizce bir oyun oynamak	3.26	1.43
2.73	1.33	İngilizce roman okumak	2.89	1.43
2.65	1.33	Bir gazetede İngilizce bir makale okumak	2.68	1.43
3.21	1.39	Bir mektup arkadaşınızdan gelen İngilizce yazılmış mektupları okumak	3.24	1.41
3.32	1.35	Yazarın bilerek basit sözcük ve yapıları kullanarak size yazdığı kişisel mektup veya notları okumak	3.26	1.37
2.71	1.32	Kitap gibi satın alabileceğiniz kaliteli bir eşya bulabilmek için gazetedeki bir reklamı okumak	2.80	1.38
3.23	1.38	Popüler filmlerin İngilizce inceleme yazılarını okumak	3.35	1.43
2.41	1.36	Okul arkadaşlarınızı bir hafta sonu partisine çağırmak için davetiye yazmak	2.52	1.41
2.60	1.33	En sevdiğiniz hobiniz için yönergeler yazmak	2.50	1.35
2.37	1.31	En sevdiğiniz hayvan ve alışkanlıkları hakkında bir yazı yazmak	2.41	1.39
2.23	1.29	Bir öykü yazmak	2.26	1.32
2.64	1.37	Bir arkadaşla mektup yazmak	2.77	1.45
1.94	1.23	Bir gazete makalesi yazmak	2.00	1.29
2.96	1.40	Bir dergideki "eğlence" testine cevaplar yazmak	3.08	1.42
2.49	1.38	Yarın yapmanız gereken şeylerin listesini yazmak	2.57	1.41
2.84	1.29	İngilizce yönergeleri dinlemek ve bir görevi tamamlamak	2.98	1.35
2.74	1.51	Tarifi İngilizce olan bir keki pişirmek	2.90	1.59
3.08	1.33	İngilizce bir başvuru formu doldurmak	3.16	1.34
3.37	1.32	İngilizce konuşan birinden yol tarifi almak	3.52	1.33
4.11	1.13	İngilizce bir filmi anlamak	4.17	1.12
2.86	1.32	Total WTC Score	2.93	1.37

* 1.00- 2.33: Low; 2.34-3.67: Moderate; 3.68-5.00: High.

The participants' overall WTC in English inside the classroom was found to be moderate ($M = 2.86$, $SD = 1.32$). The mean value for WTC in English outside the classroom was 2.93 ($SD = 1.37$), which means that the participants had a moderate level of WTC in English outside the classroom as well. As it is illustrated in the table, the learners were highly keen to understand an English movie ($M = 4.11$, $SD = 1.13$), and engage in a conversation with a stranger ($M = 3.77$, $SD = 1.14$) inside the classroom. The participants' WTC level outside the classroom ($M = 2.93$, $SD = 1.37$) was parallel with the level of willingness they demonstrated inside the classroom. As in inside the classroom, the participants were highly willing to understand an English movie ($M = 4.17$, $SD = 1.12$) and have a conversation with a stranger ($M = 3.87$, $SD = 1.17$) outside the classroom. The findings also revealed that the participants had a low level of willingness to write a newspaper article ($M = 1.94$, $SD = 1.23$), write a story ($M = 2.23$, $SD = 1.29$), and be an actor in a play ($M = 2.28$, $SD = 1.39$) inside the classroom. As for the outside of the classroom, the findings were similar with writing a newspaper article ($M = 2.00$, $SD = 1.29$) and writing a story ($M = 2.26$, $SD = 1.32$) having the lowest mean scores.

Table 12

Descriptive Statistics: EFL Learners' Perceived Levels of their WTC in English inside and outside the Classroom

	Rank	F	%	Mean*	SD
L2 WTC inside the classroom	High	229	32.7	4.01	.71
	Moderate	240	34.2	2.86	.78
	Low	231	33.1	1.76	.44
L2 WTC outside the classroom	High	227	32.4	4.03	.69
	Moderate	239	34.1	2.93	.86
	Low	234	33.5	1.67	.40

* 1.00- 2.33: Low; 2.34-3.67: Moderate; 3.68-5.00: High.

Frequencies and percentages were also calculated, and the participants were categorized into three groups according to their WTC level: low, moderate, and high. As given in Table 12, 32.7% of the participants had high, 34.2% had moderate, and 33.1% had low L2 WTC inside the classroom. According to the descriptive statistics for willingness to communicate outside the classroom ($M = 2.93$, $SD = .86$), 32.4% of the participants had high, 34.1% had moderate, and 33.5% had low WTC in English. In brief, the findings revealed that tertiary level

learners had a moderate level of WTC in English both inside and outside the classroom. A paired samples t-test was carried out to find out whether there was a significant difference between the participants' perceived levels of WTC in English inside the classroom and their perceived levels of out-of-class WTC in English. The statistical findings can be seen in the table below:

Table 13

A Comparison of the EFL Learners' Perceived Levels of their WTC in English inside and outside the Classroom

	N	Mean	SD	MD	t	df	Sig.
L2 WTC inside the classroom	700	2.86	.78				
L2 WTC outside the classroom	700	2.93	.86	-.071	-.4.594	700	.000

The descriptive statistics presented in Table 12 revealed that the participants had a moderate level of both in-class and out-of-class L2 WTC. However, the findings of the paired samples t-test illustrated in Table 13 demonstrated that there was a statistically significant difference between the participants' perceived levels of their in-class L2 WTC ($M = 2.86$, $SD = .78$) and their perceived levels of their out-of-class L2 WTC ($M = 2.93$, $SD = .86$), $t(700) = -4.594$, $p < .05$ (two-tailed). The eta squared statistic (.03) indicated a small effect size (Cohen, 1988, pp. 284-287).

Research question 2: What are the Turkish EFL learners' perceived levels of their ideal L2 self? Descriptive statistics were used to find out the participants' perceived levels of their ideal L2 self. Frequencies, percentages, and means were calculated. Descriptive statistics for the perceived level of ideal L2 self are presented in the table below.

Table 14

Descriptive Statistics: EFL Learners' Perceived Levels of their Ideal L2 Self

	Rank	F	%	Mean*	SD
Ideal L2 self	High	257	36.7	4.60	.27
	Moderate	210	30.0	3.59	.92
	Low	233	33.4	2.05	.65

* 1.00- 2.33: Low; 2.34-3.67: Moderate; 3.68-5.00: High.

The EFL learners were categorized into three groups with regard to their level of ideal L2 self. Accordingly, the mean scores between 1.00-2.33 were classified as low ideal L2 self, those which fell between 2.34-3.67 were accepted as moderate ideal L2 self and those between 3.68-5.00 were assumed to be high ideal L2 self. Descriptive statistics showed that the participants appeared to possess a moderate level of ideal L2 self ($M = 3.59$, $SD = .92$). 36.7% of the participants had high, 30% had moderate, and 33.4% had low ideal L2 self.

Research question 3: What are the Turkish EFL learners' perceived levels of their ought-to L2 self? To characterize the Turkish EFL learners' perceived levels of their ought-to L2 self, descriptive statistics were used. Mean score for ought-to L2 self was calculated. Frequencies and percentages were also computed and presented in the table below.

Table 15

Descriptive Statistics: EFL Learners' Perceived Levels of their Ought-to L2 Self

	Rank	F	%	Mean*	SD
Ought-to L2 self	High	225	32.1	4.06	.56
	Moderate	230	32.8	3.03	.81
	Low	245	35.1	1.60	.39

* 1.00- 2.33: Low; 2.34-3.67: Moderate; 3.68-5.00: High.

The participants were classified into three groups according to their ought-to L2 self scores. The mean scores between 1.00-2.33 were accepted as low ought-to L2 self. Those which fell between 2.34-3.67 were classified as moderate ought-to L2 self. The mean scores which were between 3.68-5.00, on the other hand, were accepted to be high ought-to L2 self. The findings demonstrated that the participants possessed a moderate level of ought-to L2 self ($M = 3.03$, $SD = .81$). 32.1% of the participants had high, 32.8% had moderate, and 35.1% had low ought-to L2 self.

Research question 4: What are the Turkish EFL learners' perceived levels of their L2 learning experience? Another research question was intended to identify the participants' perceived levels of their L2 learning experience. Frequencies, percentages, and means were calculated. Descriptive statistics for the perceived level of L2 learning experience are presented in the following table.

Table 16

Descriptive Statistics: EFL Learners' Perceived Levels of their L2 Learning Experience

	Rank	F	%	Mean*	SD
L2 learning experience	High	281	40.2	4.04	.66
	Moderate	136	19.4	3.31	.87
	Low	283	40.4	2.02	.46

* 1.00- 2.33: Low; 2.34-3.67: Moderate; 3.68-5.00: High.

Similar to previous analyses, the participants were classified into three categories depending on their L2 learning experience scores: low, moderate, and high. Accordingly, the mean scores between 1.00-2.33 were classified as low situation-specific motives, those which fell between 2.34-3.67 were accepted as moderate situation-specific motives and those between 3.68-5.00 were assumed to be high situation-specific motives. According to the descriptive statistics, the participants had a reasonable level of L2 learning experience ($M = 3.31$, $SD = .87$). 40.2% of the participants had high, 19.4% had moderate, and 40.4% had low motives associated with the actual L2 learning setting and experience.

Research question 5: What are the Turkish EFL learners' perceived levels of their imagery capacity? Determining the Turkish EFL learners' ability to create visual imagery in their minds was another aim of the present study. In order to do this, descriptive statistics (frequencies, percentages and means) were employed. Table 17 displays the descriptive statistics for the participants' perceived levels of their imagery capacity.

Table 17

Descriptive Statistics: EFL Learners' Perceived Levels of their Imagery Capacity

	Rank	F	%	Mean*	SD
Imagery capacity	High	200	28.5	4.70	.25
	Moderate	261	37.2	3.63	.94
	Low	239	34.2	2.32	.95

* 1.00- 2.33: Low; 2.34-3.67: Moderate; 3.68-5.00: High.

As seen in the table above, the participants were classified into three groups on the basis of their imagery capacity level. According to the descriptive statistics for imagery capacity ($M = 3.63$, $SD = .94$), 28.5% of the participants had high, 37.2% had moderate, and 34.2% had low ability to create visual imagery in

their minds. The mean value indicated that tertiary level Turkish EFL learners had a moderate level of imagery capacity.

Research question 6: What are the Turkish EFL learners' perceived levels of their motivation to learn English? To explore the learners' perceived levels of their English learning motivation, descriptive statistics were used. Mean scores for L2 motivation was calculated. Frequencies and percentages were also computed and presented in the table below.

Table 18

Descriptive Statistics: EFL Learners' Perceived Levels of their Motivation to Learn English

	Rank	F	%	Mean*	SD
L2 motivation	High	224	32.0	4.46	.84
	Moderate	243	34.7	3.40	.86
	Low	233	33.4	2.29	.75

* 1.00- 2.33: Low; 2.34-3.67: Moderate; 3.68-5.00: High.

The participants were categorized into three groups according to their L2 motivation scores. The mean scores between 1.00-2.33 were accepted as low L2 motivation. Those which fell between 2.34-3.67 were classified as moderate L2 motivation. The mean scores which were between 3.68-5.00, on the other hand, were accepted to be high L2 motivation. Descriptive statistics showed that the participants appeared to have a moderate level of L2 motivation (M = 3.40, SD = .86). 32% of the participants had high, 34.7% had moderate, and 33.4% had low motivation to learn English.

Research question 7: What are the Turkish EFL learners' perceived levels of their English learning anxiety? Descriptive statistics were employed to find out the participants' perceived levels of their English learning anxiety. Frequencies, percentages, and means were calculated. Descriptive statistics for the perceived level of L2 anxiety can be seen in the table below.

Table 19

Descriptive Statistics: EFL Learners' Perceived Levels of their English Learning Anxiety

	Rank	F	%	Mean*	SD
L2 anxiety	High	218	31.1	4.24	.50
	Moderate	220	31.4	2.90	.98
	Low	262	37.5	1.74	.50

* 1.00- 2.33: Low; 2.34-3.67: Moderate; 3.68-5.00: High.

All the learners who participated in the study were grouped into three categories according to their level of L2 anxiety. The mean scores between 1.00-2.33 were classified as low English learning anxiety, those which fell between 2.34-3.67 were accepted as moderate L2 anxiety and those between 3.68-5.00 were assumed to be high English learning anxiety. The findings of the descriptive statistics demonstrated that 31.1% of the participants had high, 31.4% had moderate, and 37.5% had low L2 anxiety. According to the findings, the mean score for L2 anxiety lies at the moderate level, neither high nor low ($M = 2.90$, $SD = .98$).

Research question 8: What are the interrelationships between the Turkish EFL learners' WTC in English inside the classroom, WTC in English outside the classroom, ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, L2 learning experience, L2 motivation, L2 anxiety, imagery capacity, vocabulary size and their course achievement? Preliminary analyses were carried out in order to guarantee that the assumptions of linearity and normality were met (see Preliminary Analyses section for more detail). Having explored the distribution of scores on the scatter plot and established that the relationships between the variables is roughly linear, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were computed to evaluate the relationships among WTC in English and each of the independent variables including ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, L2LE, L2 motivation, L2 anxiety, imagery capacity, vocabulary size and course achievement. Correlation coefficients can be seen in the table below.

Table 20

Pearson Product-moment Correlations between the Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1 L2 WTC inside the Classroom	1									
2 L2 WTC outside the Classroom	.879**	1								
3 Ideal L2 self	.552**	.584**	1							
4 Ought-to L2 self	.111**	.121**	.169**	1						
5 L2 learning experience	.492**	.478**	.476**	.202**	1					
6 L2 Motivation	.606**	.611**	.665**	.325**	.681**	1				
7 L2 anxiety	-.285**	-.244**	-.304**	.193**	-.127**	-.187**	1			
8 Imagery capacity	.449**	.453**	.447**	.070**	.351**	.458**	-.144**	1		
9 Vocabulary size	.292**	.312**	.361**	-.139**	.261**	.282**	-.230**	.231**	1	
10 Course achievement	.244**	.220**	.247**	.101**	.328**	.355**	-.069**	.127**	.292**	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

According to the findings, it can be clearly said that there was a positive and statistically significant correlation between L2 WTC inside the classroom and L2 WTC outside the classroom ($r_{(700)} = .879$, $p < .01$). L2 WTC inside the classroom had a positive correlation with all of the variables except for L2 anxiety ($r_{(700)} = -.285$, $p < .01$). The same situation existed with regard to L2 WTC outside the classroom. It was positively correlated with all of the variables but L2 anxiety. There was a negative correlation between L2 WTC outside the classroom and L2 anxiety ($r_{(700)} = -.244$, $p < .01$). Ideal L2 self was significantly and positively correlated with L2 WTC inside the classroom ($r_{(700)} = .552$, $p < .01$) and L2 WTC outside the classroom ($r_{(700)} = .584$, $p < .01$). A large correlation between L2 motivation and L2 WTC inside the classroom ($r_{(700)} = .606$, $p < .01$) was found, suggesting quite a strong relationship between the two variables. Similarly, a large and positive correlation between L2 motivation and L2 WTC outside the classroom was found ($r_{(700)} = .611$, $p < .01$). A negative correlation at a small level was attained between in-class L2 WTC and L2 anxiety ($r_{(700)} = -.285$, $p < .01$). L2 anxiety was also negatively correlated with L2 WTC outside the classroom ($r_{(700)} = -.244$, $p < .01$). Imagery capacity was significantly and positively correlated with L2 WTC inside the classroom ($r_{(700)} = .449$, $p < .01$) and L2 WTC outside the classroom ($r_{(700)} = .453$, $p < .01$). While a small and positive correlation was found

between vocabulary size and L2 WTC inside the classroom ($r_{(700)} = .292, p < .01$), a medium and positive correlation was detected between the same variable and L2 WTC outside the classroom ($r_{(700)} = .312, p < .01$). Finally, course achievement had a small positive correlation with both L2 WTC inside the classroom ($r_{(700)} = .244, p < .01$) and L2 WTC outside the classroom ($r_{(700)} = .220, p < .01$).

The results showed significant correlations among the independent variables as well. To begin with, ideal L2 self was positively correlated with all variables apart from L2 anxiety. A negative significant correlation was found between ideal L2 self and L2 anxiety ($r_{(700)} = -.304, p < .01$). Ought-to L2 self was revealed to have a significant correlation with all of the variables in the study but not with imagery capacity. This variable was negatively associated with vocabulary size ($r_{(700)} = -.139, p < .01$). Another variable of the study, L2 learning experience, had also positive correlation with all of the variables except for L2 anxiety. It was negatively correlated with L2 anxiety at a small level ($r_{(700)} = -.127, p < .01$). Similar to L2 learning experience, L2 motivation had positive correlation with all variables but L2 anxiety ($r_{(700)} = -.187, p < .01$). L2 anxiety was negatively correlated with in-class L2 WTC, out-of-class L2 WTC, ideal L2 self, L2 learning experience, L2 motivation, imagery capacity, vocabulary size and course achievement although it had statistically significant and positive correlation with ought-to L2 self ($r_{(700)} = .193, p < .01$). As for imagery capacity, it is clear from the table that this variable was also positively and significantly correlated with all of the variables in the study except for L2 anxiety. The findings showed that the variable was negatively linked to L2 anxiety ($r_{(700)} = -.144, p < .01$). Another variable of the study, vocabulary size was also positively correlated with all of the variables except for ought-to L2 self and L2 anxiety. Vocabulary size was detected to be negatively related to ought-to L2 self ($r_{(700)} = -.139, p < .01$) and L2 anxiety ($r_{(700)} = -.230, p < .01$). Finally, course achievement was positively correlated at a statistically significant level with all variables but L2 anxiety. To sum up, after the correlation between in-class L2 WTC and out-of-class L2 WTC ($r_{(700)} = .879, p < .01$), the largest statistically significant correlation in the study appeared between L2 WTC outside the classroom and L2 motivation ($r_{(700)} = .611, p < .01$) while the smallest was between L2 WTC inside the classroom and ought-to L2 self ($r_{(700)} = .111, p < .01$).

Preliminary analyses. Data screening preceded the model testing. First, missing data were screened, and it was revealed that there were no missing data among ten variables. Univariate outliers were also checked using descriptive statistics in SPSS. Only one case was identified as univariate outliers with a z-score of < 3.29 . It was excluded from further analysis, leaving an N-size of 700. Then, the distributions of the data were checked to examine whether the data met the path analysis assumptions. Univariate normality was examined using descriptive statistics in SPSS and the results were presented in the following section in detail.

Assessing the normality of data. A test of normality was performed to find out whether the data were normally distributed or not. Descriptive statistics of the variables are presented in Table 21 while an overview of the findings can be seen in Table 22. It is clear from the findings of the tests of normality that the quantitative data in the current study did not show a normal distribution. The results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test revealed that all of the independent variables in the study had values which were statistically significant ($p < .05$), suggesting violation of the assumption of normality. The findings of the Shapiro-Wilk test also indicated that the data were not normally distributed ($p < .05$) as the variables had statistically significant values.

Table 21

Descriptive Statistics of the Variables

Variable	M	SD	Min.	Max.	Skewness	Kurtosis
L2 WTC inside the classroom	2.86	.78	1.00	5.00	.054	-.477
L2 WTC outside the classroom	2.93	.86	1.00	5.00	.019	-.587
Ideal L2 self	3.59	.92	1.00	5.00	-.372	-.682
Ought-to L2 self	3.03	.99	1.00	5.00	.061	-.885
L2 learning experience	3.31	.87	1.00	5.00	-.298	-.247
L2 motivation	3.40	.86	1.00	5.00	-.525	-.113
L2 anxiety	2.90	.98	1.00	5.00	-.029	-.644
Imagery capacity	3.63	.94	1.00	5.00	-.480	-.298
Vocabulary size	37.53	29.03	.00	136	.867	-.214
Course achievement	63.35	18.45	4.00	100	-.469	.352

Note. N-size for 10 Variables = 700.

Table 22

Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
L2 WTC inside the classroom	.03	700	.016	.99	700	.015
L2 WTC outside the classroom	.03	700	.028	.99	700	.001
Ideal L2 self	.07	700	.000	.96	700	.000
Ought-to L2 self	.06	700	.000	.97	700	.000
L2 learning experience	.06	700	.000	.98	700	.000
L2 motivation	.06	700	.000	.97	700	.000
L2 anxiety	.05	700	.000	.98	700	.000
Imagery capacity	.07	700	.000	.96	700	.000
Vocabulary size	.14	700	.000	.90	700	.000
Course achievement	.03	700	.017	.98	700	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction.

The initial investigation of the analysis seemed to demonstrate a non-normally distributed data set. However, as Pallant (2010) states, this is a commonly observed situation in large samples and the real shape of the distribution can be viewed in histograms or normal probability plots (normal Q-Q plots). As the present study had a quite large sample, there was a need to look at these Q-Q plots so as to make sure that the data were normally distributed. Thus, normal probability plots (normal Q-Q plots) of each variable were analyzed. According to the results, nearly all of the tests used in the present study were revealed to display a normal distribution with perfect or reasonably straight lines. The findings for each variable can be seen in the following figures.

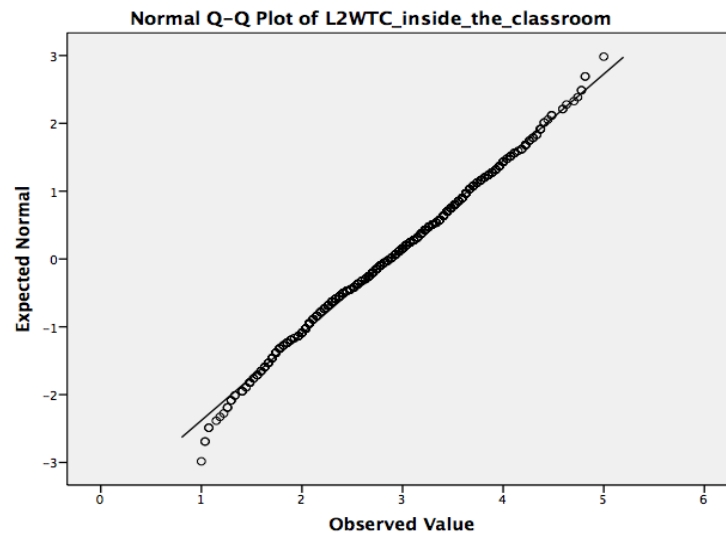


Figure 7. Normal probability plot of L2 WTC inside the classroom scale.

The data regarding the L2 WTC inside the classroom show a reasonably straight line of scores, suggesting that the data seems to be normally distributed. Figure 8, which indicates the normal probability plots of L2 WTC outside the classroom scale, also seemed to be normally distributed with a reasonably straight line.

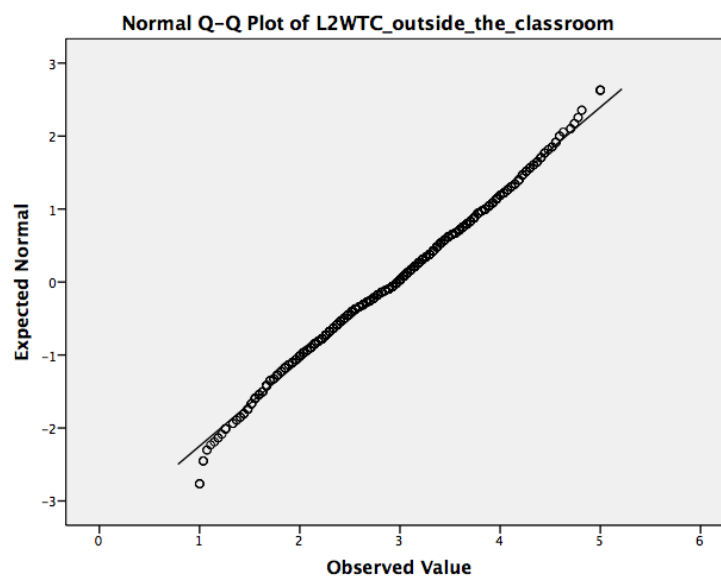


Figure 8. Normal probability plot of L2 WTC outside the classroom scale.

Figure 9 displays the distribution of ideal L2 self. A reasonably straight line with only very small deviations is observed. Thus, it is suggested that ideal L2 self data also indicate a fairly normal distribution.

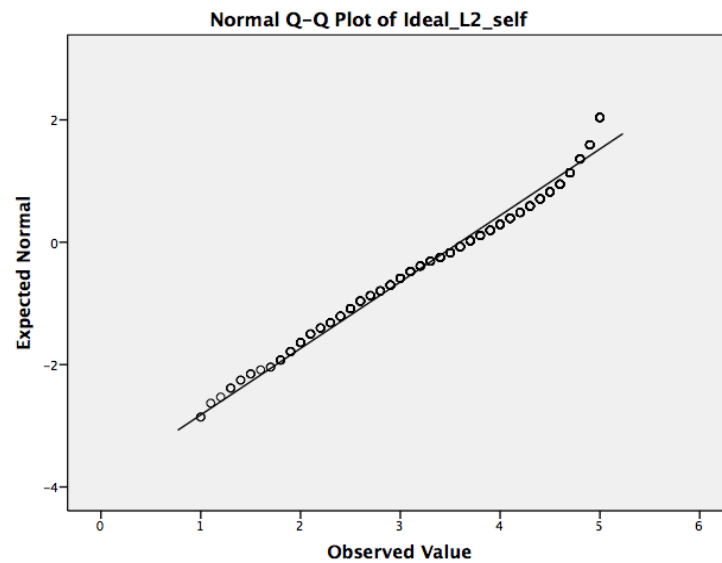


Figure 9. Normal probability plot of ideal L2 self scale.

The figure below demonstrates the normal probability plots of ought-to L2 self. The scores appeared to be lying on an approximately straight line, indicating a normal distribution for this test as well.

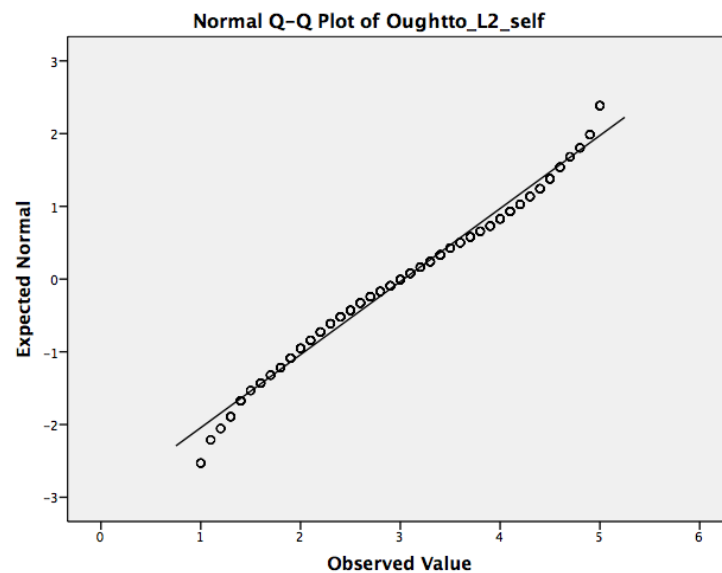


Figure 10. Normal probability plot of ought-to L2 self scale.

In Figure 11, a nearly perfect straight line of scores can be observed. Thus, the L2 learning experience data seem to be normally distributed.

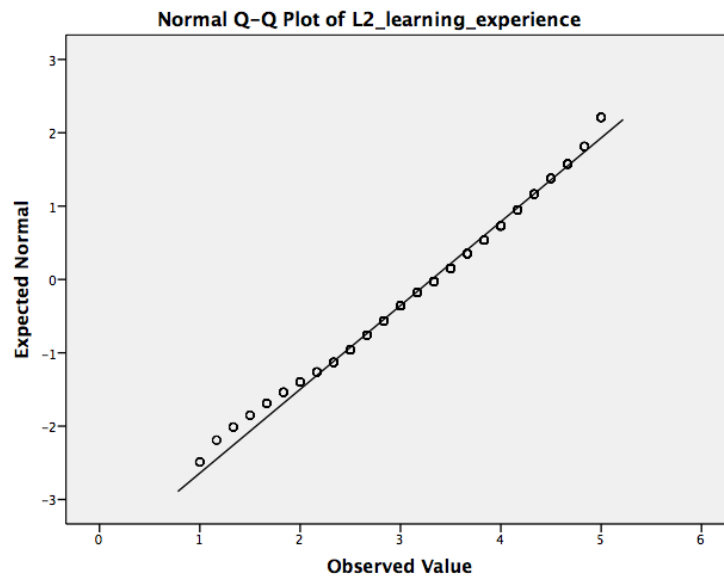


Figure 11. Normal probability plot of L2 learning experience scale.

Similar to the normal probability plot of ideal L2 self test, the normal Q-Q plot of L2 motivation scale illustrated in Figure 12 shows some minor deviations from the line. However, as the scores are still on the straight line to a great extent, the L2 motivation data appear to be normally distributed as well.

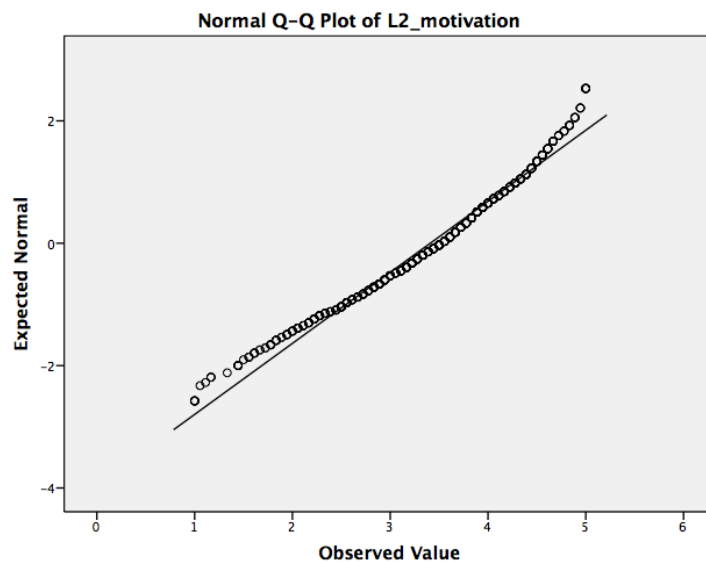


Figure 12. Normal probability plot of L2 motivation scale.

The figure below belongs to the normal Q-Q plot of L2 anxiety scale and presents very similar results to those of the Q-Q plot of L2 learning experience scale. A perfectly normal distribution can be viewed as the scores are totally on

the straight line with nearly no deviations. This is an obvious demonstration of perfect normal distribution.

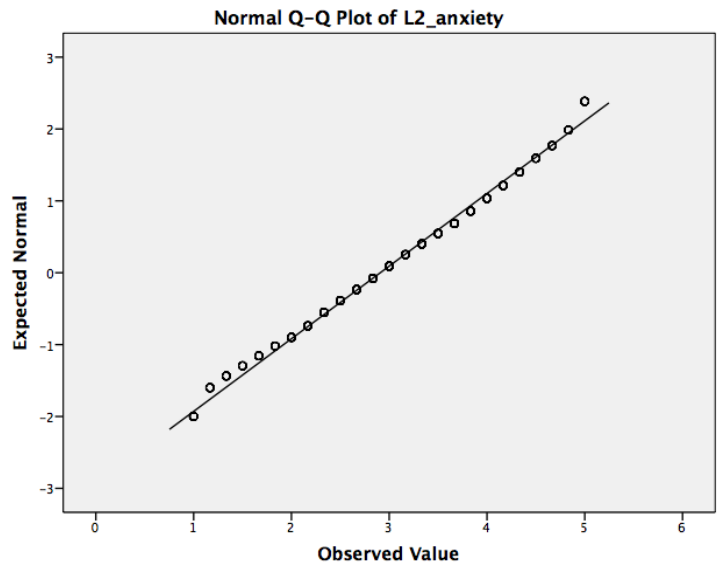


Figure 13. Normal probability plot of L2 anxiety scale.

The data regarding imagery capacity scale also display a reasonably normal distribution with small deviations from the line. This can be seen in the figure below.

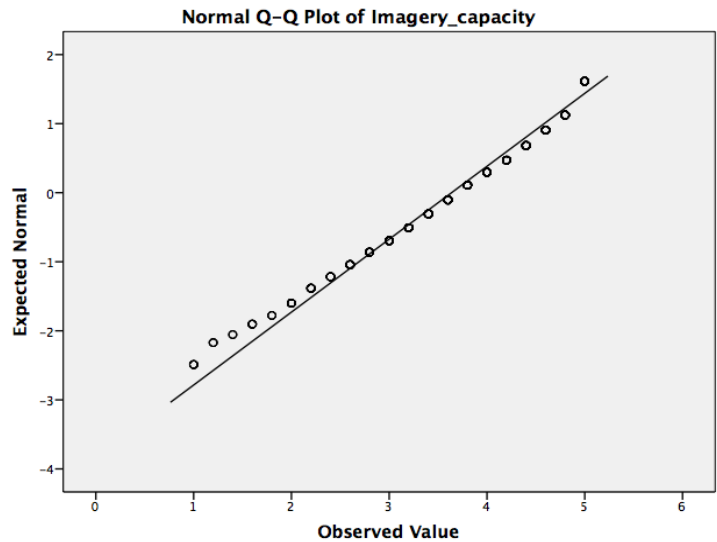


Figure 14. Normal probability plot of imagery capacity scale.

The data concerning vocabulary size were closely examined through the normal Q-Q plots. The results show that the scores of vocabulary size can also be

considered to be normally distributed at an acceptable level although they are not as reasonable as the previous ones.

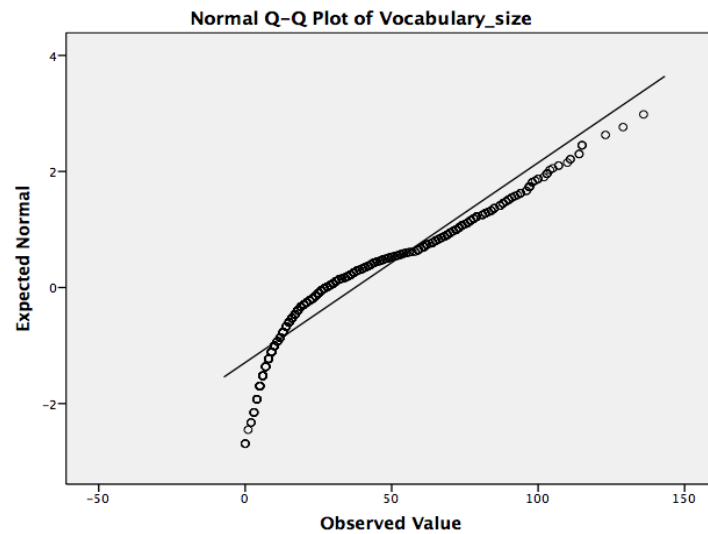


Figure 15. Normal probability plot of vocabulary size test.

Finally, Figure 16 displays the normal probability plots of course achievement. Although there seem to be some minor deviations from the line, the scores are still on the straight line to a great extent, indicating a normal distribution for his test.

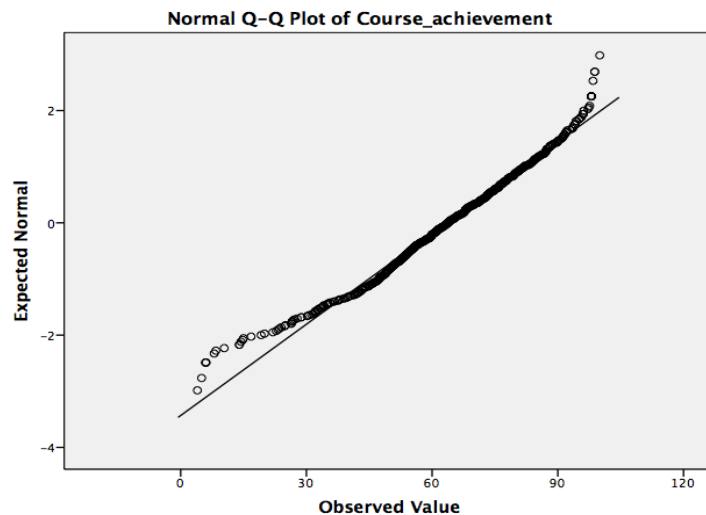


Figure 16. Normal probability plot of course achievement scores.

The visuals of normality tests (Q-Q plots) displayed normal distribution for nearly all tests even though the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests revealed numerical results of non-normal distribution. Moreover, as Table 21

shows, the assumption of normality was confirmed because the values of skewness and kurtosis of each variable seemed to fall between -2 and +2 (Kunnan, 1998). Hence, the researcher reached the conclusion that the data were normally distributed depending on the normal probability plots, and skewness and kurtosis values indicating normality.

The data were also examined for multivariate outliers using Mahalanobis distance in SPSS. Four multivariate outliers were detected, and they were excluded from further analysis. This reduced the sample size to 696. Descriptive statistics were calculated once again, and no further outliers were detected. Linearity was checked by examining the scatterplots of all pairs of the variables. No markedly curvilinear relationships were detected. Therefore, the linearity was assured. Moreover, it is highly recommended that before testing the dependence relationships of a group of variables in a path model, all measurement models of these variables should be validated using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) (Brown, 2015; Hair et al., 2006; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). The sample size of 696 (after univariate and multivariate outliers were excluded) was adequate for conducting a factor analysis. Thus, CFAs were performed to determine the construct validity of the scales. The findings of the CFAs conducted for each scale are presented in the following section in detail.

Exploring the construct validity of the scales. In an attempt to test the construct validity of the eight scales used in the current study, confirmatory factor analyses were performed via LISREL 8.80 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2006). Construct validity entails assessing a scale in terms of theoretically developed hypotheses regarding the nature of the underlying variable or construct (Pallant, 2010). CFA tests and confirms particular hypotheses or theories about the relationships between observed variables and latent variables (Pallant, 2010). CFA is an essential step prior to integrating these variables into a complete path model (Hair, Black, & Babin, 2006). CFA is appropriate when researchers have a well-developed theoretical foundation for hypothesized patterns of loadings of the scale items (Hurley, Scandura, Shriesheim, Brannick, Seers, Vandenberg, & Williams, 1997).

The normality of distribution was checked prior to the analysis. As aforementioned in this chapter, the assumption of normality was supported in the

current study. As the estimation method, the maximum likelihood was used since it is robust to violations of the normality assumption (Brown, 2015). Significance levels of the *t* values were assessed for the variables observed as a result of the CFA. The ratio of each parameter estimate to its standard error refers to a *t*-statistic and is significant at the 0.05 level if the value is greater than ± 1.96 and significant at the 0.01 level if the value exceeds ± 2.56 for large samples (Hoyle, 1995). A cut-off value of $t = \pm 1.96$ was used to determine whether loadings were statistically significant (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993). The standardized loading coefficients of the CFA were also examined. According to a rule of thumb, a factor loading for a sample size of at least 300 need to be at least .32 in order to be accepted as statistically significant (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

As no single statistic is universally acknowledged as an index of model adequacy, various fit statistics are employed to find out whether the model adequately fits the data or not (Doll, Raghunathan, Lim, & Gupta, 1995). The chi-square test shows the extent of variation between expected and observed covariance matrices. A chi-square value (χ^2) close to zero and a chi-square *p*-value higher than .05 show that there is little difference, which is one sign of good fit. The χ^2/df (degrees of freedom) ratio is also taken as a criterion for deciding if the model has a good fit for the data. A ratio of less than 2 is taken as an indicator of good fit while a ratio of 5 or less is also considered acceptable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Nevertheless, the chi-square test is generally accepted to be problematic since it is very sensitive to sample size (Jöreskog, 1969). Thus, it is often recommended that model fit should be interpreted by looking at other fit statistics such as the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), the Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), the Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index (AGFI), the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), and the Standardized Root Mean-Square Residual (SRMR). The acceptable cut-off point for GFI, AGFI, CFI is .90 and above (Byrne, 2006; McDonald & Moon-Ho, 2002; Schermelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger, & Müller, 2003; Thompson, 2000). Perfect model fit is shown by a CFI of .95 or greater (Byrne, 2006). As for RMSEA and SRMR, good model fit is typically signified by the RMSEA and SRMR values of .06 or less (Hu & Bentler, 1999), but a value of .08 or less is also regarded to be acceptable (Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Byrne, 2006).

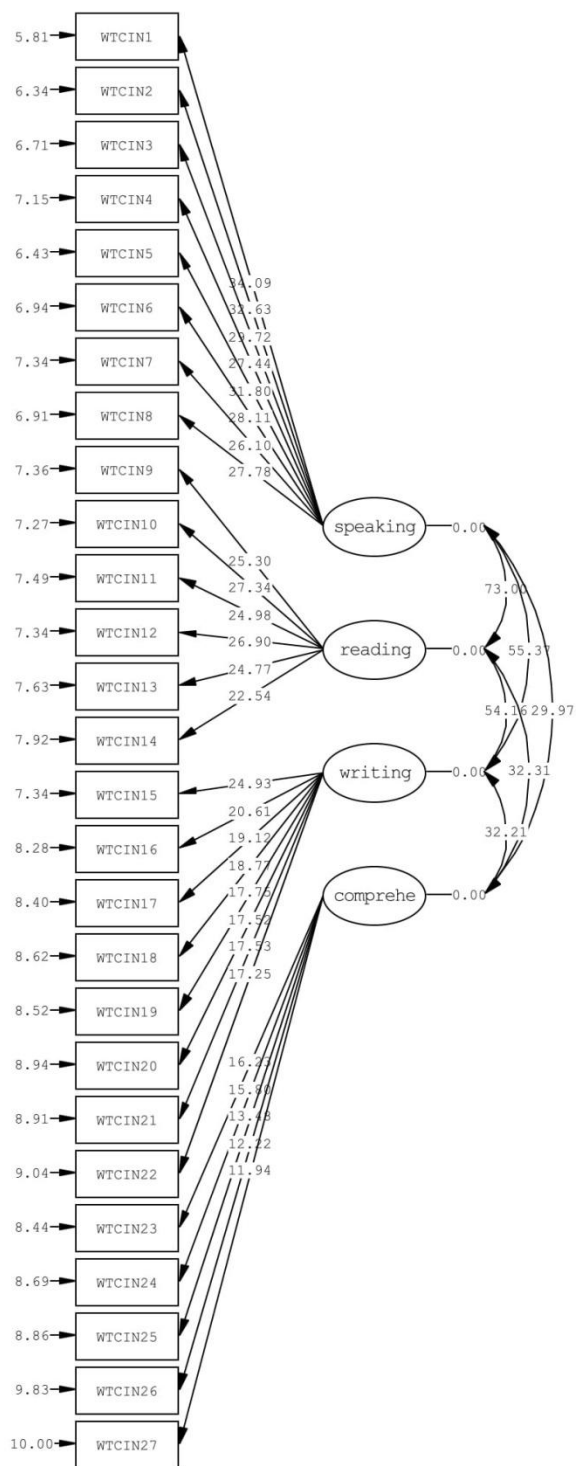
In the current study, indices of goodness-of-fit such as the χ^2/df ratio, GFI, AGFI, RMSEA and SRMR were employed to evaluate the individual models. The fit indices and their acceptable thresholds are presented in the table below.

Table 23

Fit Indices and their Acceptable Thresholds

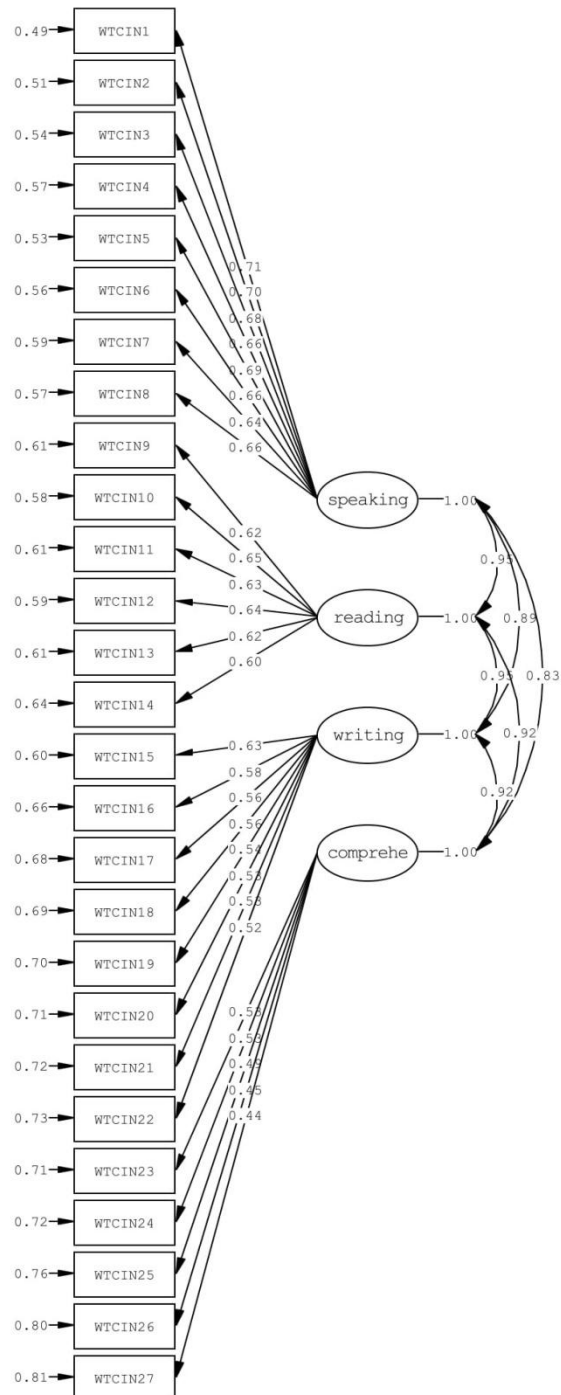
Fit Index	Acceptable Threshold	Reference
χ^2/df	A ratio of 5 or less	(Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007)
GFI	A value of 0.90 and above	(Byrne, 2006; McDonald & Moon-Ho, 2002; Schermelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger, & Müller, 2003; Thompson, 2000)
AGFI	A value of 0.90 and above	
CFI	A value of 0.90 and above	
RMSEA	A value of 0.08 or less	
SRMR	A value of 0.08 or less	(Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Byrne, 2006)

A four-factor measurement model was determined for the L2 WTC inside the classroom scale and a CFA was conducted on the data set. The results of the CFA for the scale of L2 WTC inside the classroom are displayed in Table 24, Figure 17 and Figure 18. Figure 17 illustrates the t-statistics whereas Figure 18 displays the standardized loading coefficients of the CFA. As can be seen in Figure 17, t-values of all items are higher than 1.96. Therefore, all factor loadings are significant at the $p < .05$ level. To put it differently, the scale items completely represent the implicit variable connected with L2 WTC inside the classroom. According to Figure 18, standardized factor loadings for the items demonstrate that they range from .44 to .71. This means that the factor loadings are above the cut-off point (.32) and they are considered to be statistically significant. The chi-square, GFI, AGFI, CFI, RMSEA, and SRMR were also calculated. Table 24 shows the fit indices of the L2 WTC inside the classroom scale.



Square=2530.41, df=529, P-value=0.00000, RMSEA=0.079

Figure 17. Results of the CFA for L2 WTC inside the classroom scale (t-values).



Square=2530.41, df=529, P-value=0.00000, RMSEA=0.079

Figure 18. Results of the CFA for L2 WTC inside the classroom scale (standardized coefficients).

Table 24

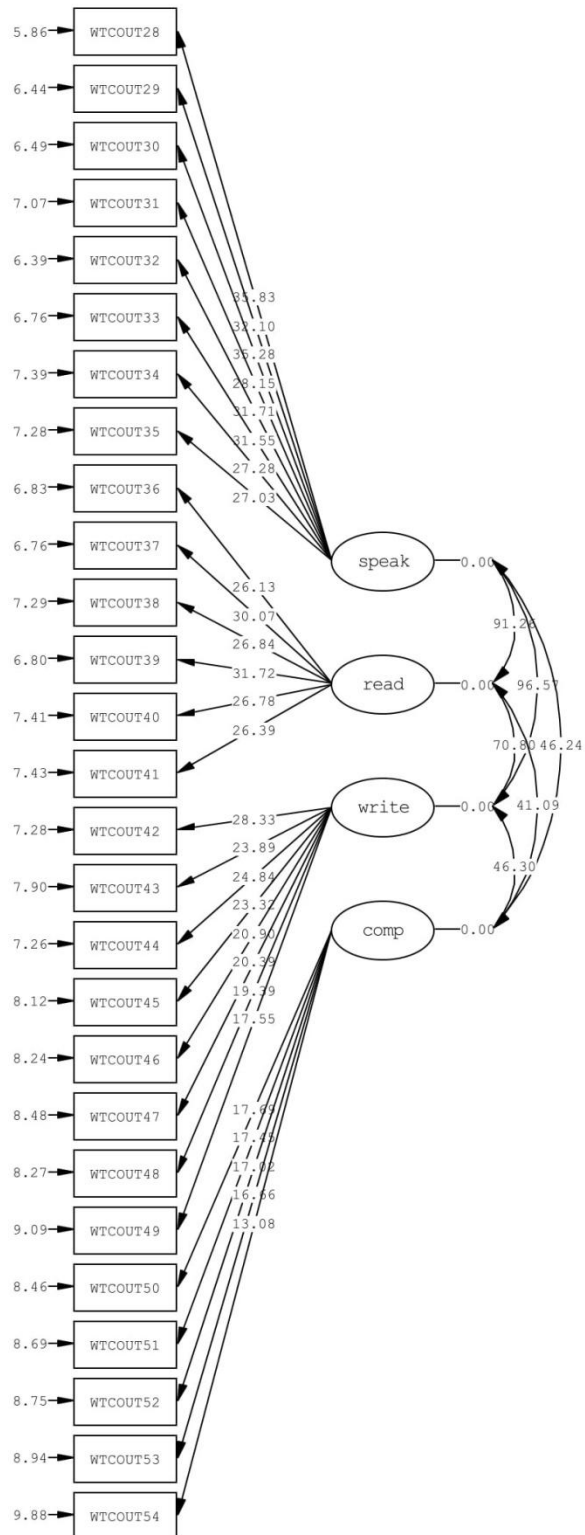
Fit Indices of the L2 WTC inside the Classroom Scale

χ^2	df	χ^2/df	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
2530.41	529	4.78	.97	.96	.92	.065	.078

Note. χ^2 =chi-square; df=degree of freedom; GFI=goodness-of-fit index; AGFI=adjusted goodness-of-fit index; CFI=comparative fit index; RMSEA=root mean square error of approximation; SRMR=standardized root mean-square residual.

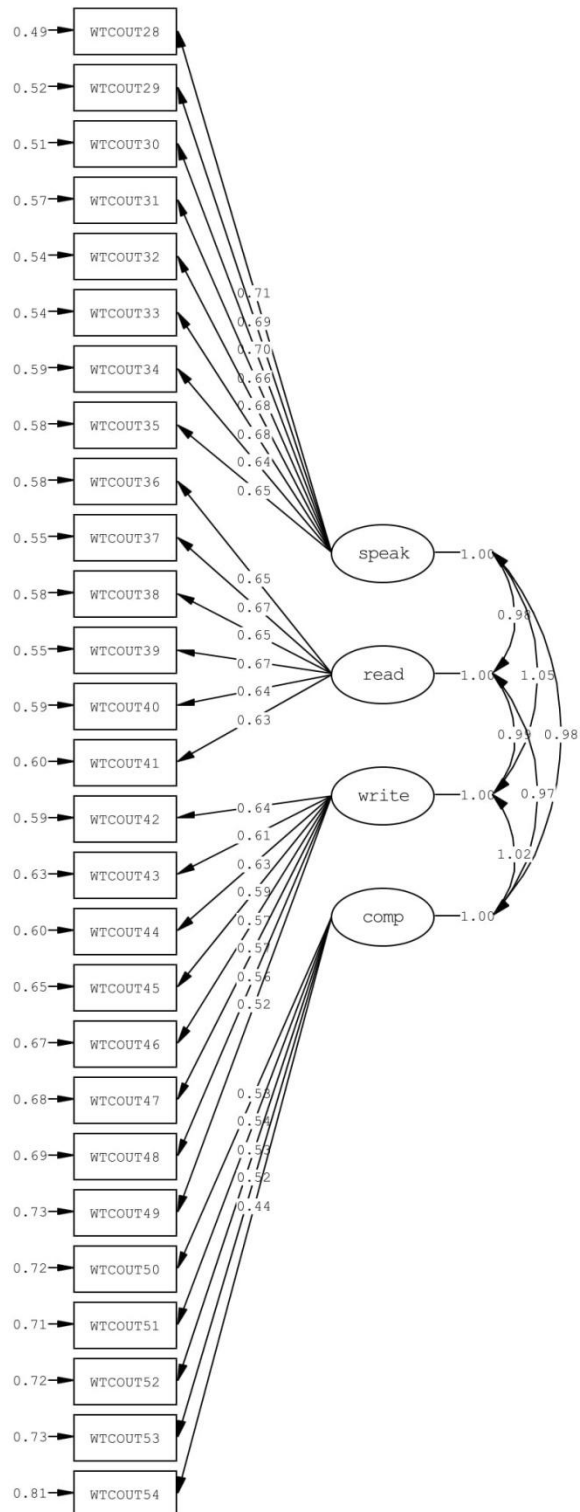
The fit indices showed that the χ^2/df ratio was 4.78, less than the cut-off value of 5. The GFI was .97, which indicated an overall perfect fit of the model to the data. Additionally, the values of AGFI (.96) and CFI (.92) suggested good fit for the model. As for the value of RMSEA, it was found .065, signifying that the model shows an adequate fit to the data. The value of SRMR (.078) was also acceptable. In general, based on the statistical values gained from the CFA, it can be said that the criteria for adequacy of fit were fulfilled.

As a second step, another four-factor measurement model was determined for the L2 WTC outside the classroom scale. Figure 19, Figure 20, and Table 25 demonstrate the t-statistics, standardized loading coefficients and fit indices respectively. It is seen that there are no insignificant variables with a t-value less than ± 1.96 ($p < .05$). Thus, the scale items can be considered to strongly represent the implicit variable associated with L2 WTC outside the classroom. As Figure 20 indicates, the standardized loadings range from .44 to .71. As the factor loadings are above the cut-off point (.32), they are regarded as statistically significant. According to Table 25, the χ^2/df ratio was 4.98, less than the cut-off value of 5. The GFI was .97 indicating an overall perfect fit of the model to the data. The AGFI was .96 and the CFI was .92, which suggested that the model fits the data well. The RMSEA was found to be .071, which is an acceptable value. As for the SRMR, it was found .069, signifying an adequate fit. In sum, the general fit of the CFA model, as signified by the fit indices, confirms the construct validity of the L2 WTC outside the classroom scale.



Square=3365.72, df=675, P-value=0.00000, RMSEA=0.069

Figure 19. Results of the CFA for L2 WTC outside the classroom scale (t-values).



Square=3365.72, df=675, P-value=0.00000, RMSEA=0.069

Figure 20. Results of the CFA for L2 WTC outside the classroom scale (standardized coefficients).

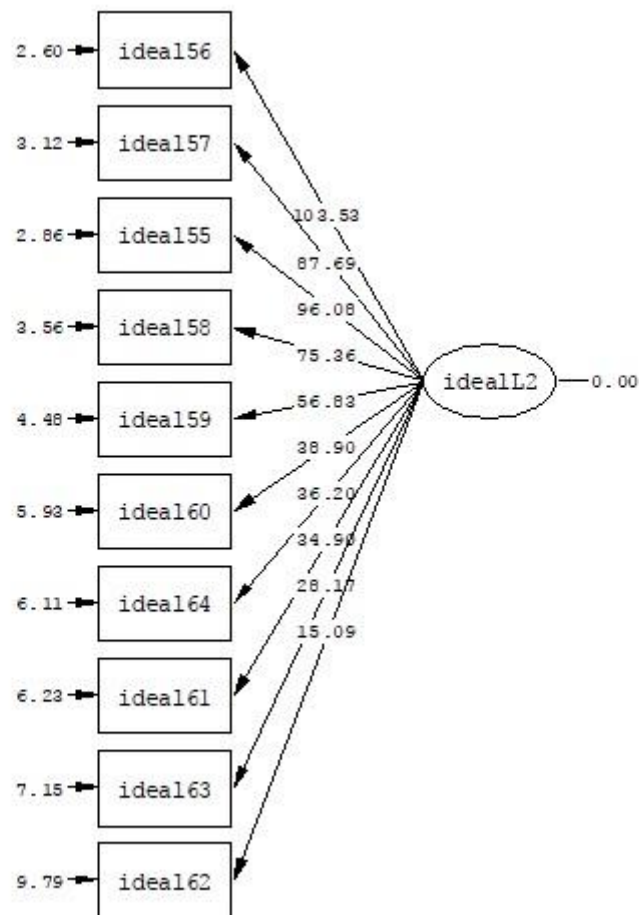
Table 25

Fit Indices of the L2 WTC outside the Classroom Scale

χ^2	df	χ^2/df	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
3365.72	675	4.98	.97	.96	.92	.071	.069

Note. χ^2 =chi-square; df=degree of freedom; GFI=goodness-of-fit index; AGFI=adjusted goodness-of-fit index; CFI=comparative fit index; RMSEA=root mean square error of approximation; SRMR=standardized root mean-square residual.

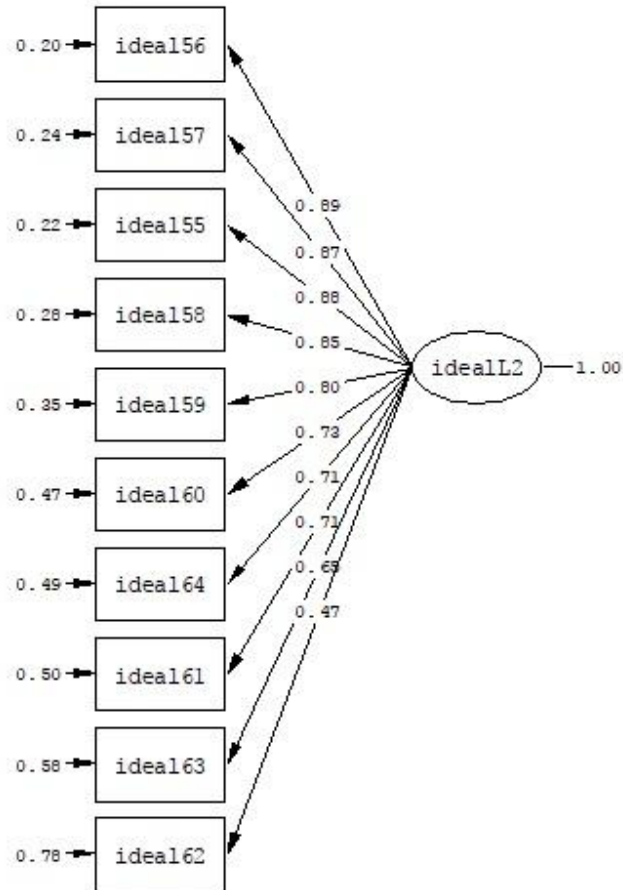
The t-statistics and the standardized loading coefficients of the CFA for the scale of ideal L2 self can be seen in Figure 21 and Figure 22 respectively. Table 26, on the other hand, demonstrates the fit indices for the scale of ideal L2 self.



Square=600.17, df=129, P-value=0.00000, RMSEA=0.047

Figure 21. Results of the CFA for ideal L2 self scale (t-values).

As illustrated by the figure above, t-values of all items are higher than ± 1.96 , which means that all factor loadings are significant at the $p < .05$ level. To put it differently, the scale items represent the construct of ideal L2 self well.



Square=600.17, df=129, P-value=0.00000, RMSEA=0.047

Figure 22. Results of the CFA for ideal L2 self scale (standardized coefficients).

It is clear from Figure 22 that standardized loadings range from .47 to .89. As the factor loadings are above the cut-off point (.32), they are accepted to be statistically significant. The chi-square, GFI, AGFI, CFI, RMSEA and SRMR were also calculated. Table 26 demonstrates the fit indices of the ideal L2 self scale.

Table 26

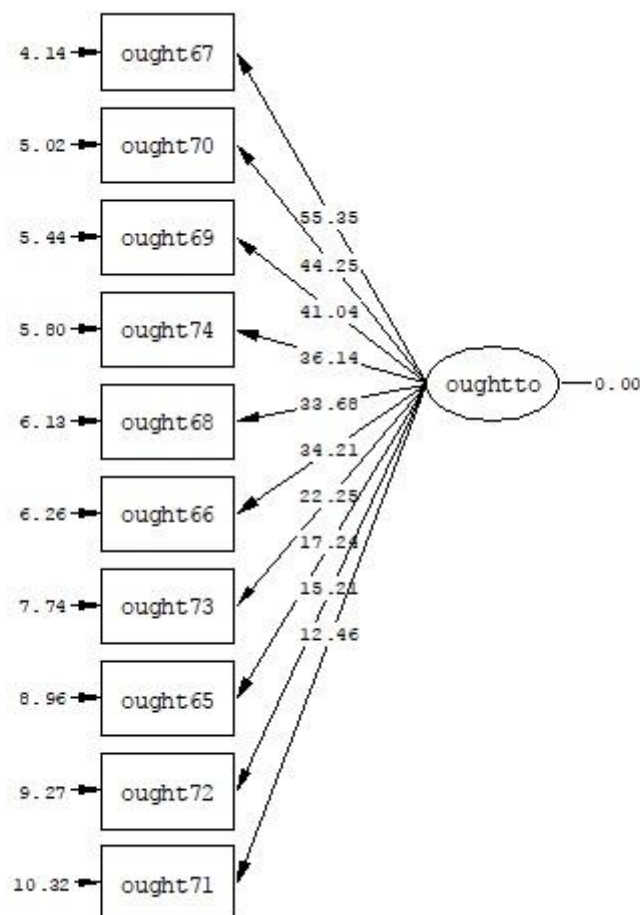
Fit Indices of the Ideal L2 Self Scale

χ^2	df	χ^2/df	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
600.17	129	4.65	.99	.99	.95	.047	.055

Note. χ^2 =chi-square; df=degree of freedom; GFI=goodness-of-fit index; AGFI=adjusted goodness-of-fit index; CFI=comparative fit index; RMSEA=root mean square error of approximation; SRMR=standardized root mean-square residual.

As shown in Table 26, the χ^2/df ratio was 4.65, less than the cut-off value of 5. The GFI was .99, indicating an overall perfect fit of the model to the data. Moreover, the values of AGFI (.99) and CFI (.95) also suggested good fit for the model. As for the fit indices of RMSEA and SRMR, the former was found to be .047 while the latter was .055, signifying the good fit of the model to the data. Hence, depending on the statistical values gained from the CFA, it can be said that the criteria for adequacy of fit were met.

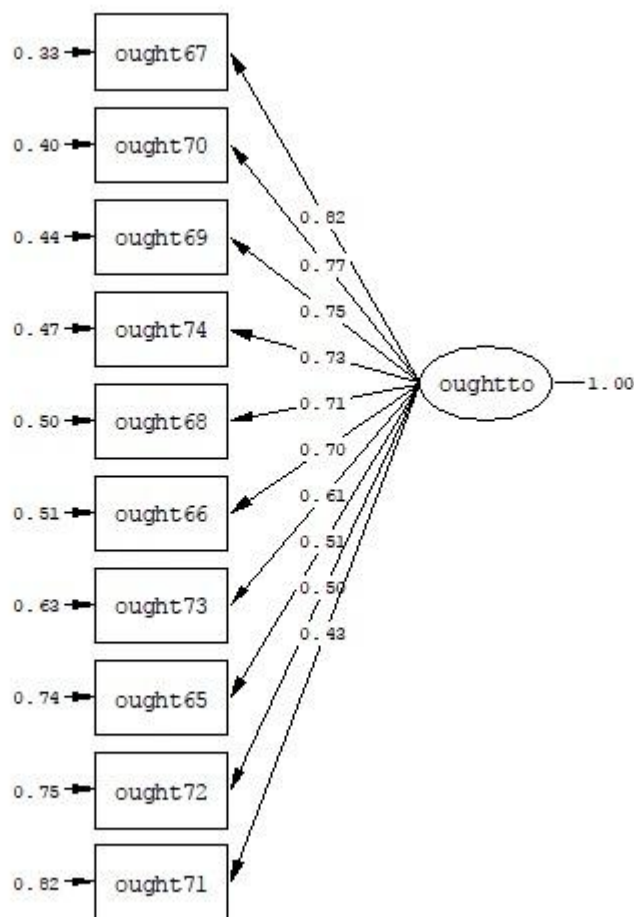
As for the ought-to L2 self scale, significance levels of the t values were assessed. The standardized loading coefficients of the CFA were also examined. Additionally, fit indices like chi-square, GFI, AGFI, CFI, RMSEA and SRMR were calculated. Figure 23 illustrates the t-values whereas Figure 24 displays the standardized loading coefficients of the CFA. The fit indices are given in Table 27.



Square=600.17, df=129, P-value=0.00000, RMSEA=0.053

Figure 23. Results of the CFA for ought-to L2 self scale (t-values).

The results of the CFA indicated no insignificant variables with a t-value less than ± 1.96 ($p < .05$). The scale items fully represent the construct of ought-to L2 self.



Square=600.17, df=129, P-value=0.00000, RMSEA=0.053

Figure 24. Results of the CFA for ought-to L2 self scale (standardized coefficients).

The figure above shows that the factor loadings for the items range from .43 to .82 and they are above the cut-off point (.32). Therefore, they are considered to be statistically significant. The fit indices of the ought-to L2 self scale including the χ^2 , χ^2/df ratio, GFI, AGFI, CFI, RMSEA and SRMR were also calculated and presented in the table below.

Table 27

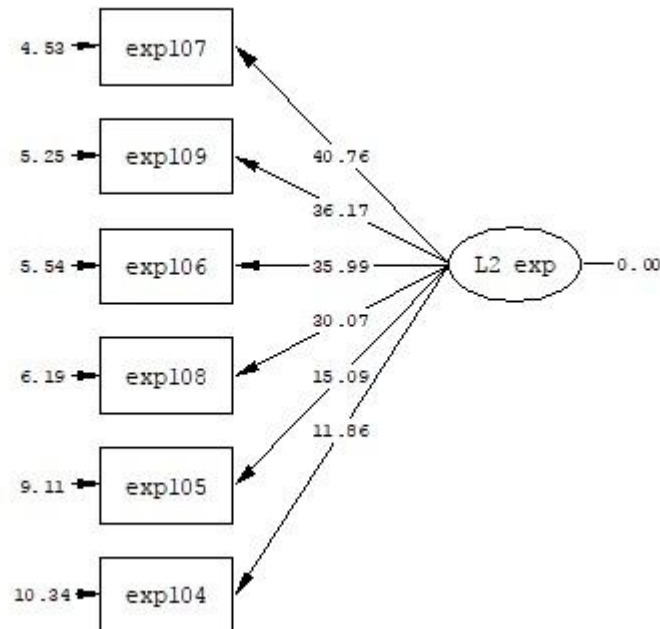
Fit Indices of the Ought-to L2 Self Scale

χ^2	df	χ^2/df	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
490.59	98	4.69	.98	.97	.93	.053	.045

Note. χ^2 =chi-square; df=degree of freedom; GFI=goodness-of-fit index; AGFI=adjusted goodness-of-fit index; CFI=comparative fit index; RMSEA=root mean square error of approximation; SRMR=standardized root mean-square residual.

According to Table 27, the χ^2/df ratio was 4.69, less than the cut-off value of 5. The GFI was .98 indicating an overall perfect fit of the model to the data. The AGFI was .97 and the CFI was .93, which suggested good fit for the model. The RMSEA was found to be .053, which is an acceptable value. The SRMR was .045, indicating a good fit. To sum up, the general fit of the CFA model, as indicated by the fit indices, confirms the construct validity of the ought-to L2 self scale.

The findings of the CFA for the scale of L2 learning experience are displayed in Table 28, Figure 25 and Figure 26. Both t-values and standardized coefficients were computed. The path diagrams pertaining to the t-values and standardized loading coefficients are presented in the figures below.



Square=106.08, df=23, P-value=0.00000, RMSEA=0.039

Figure 25. Results of the CFA for L2 learning experience scale (t-values).

As can be seen in the figure above, t-values of all items are higher than ± 1.96 . Thus, all factor loadings are significant at the $p < .05$ level. According to this result, it can be concluded that the scale items efficiently represent the construct of L2 learning experience.

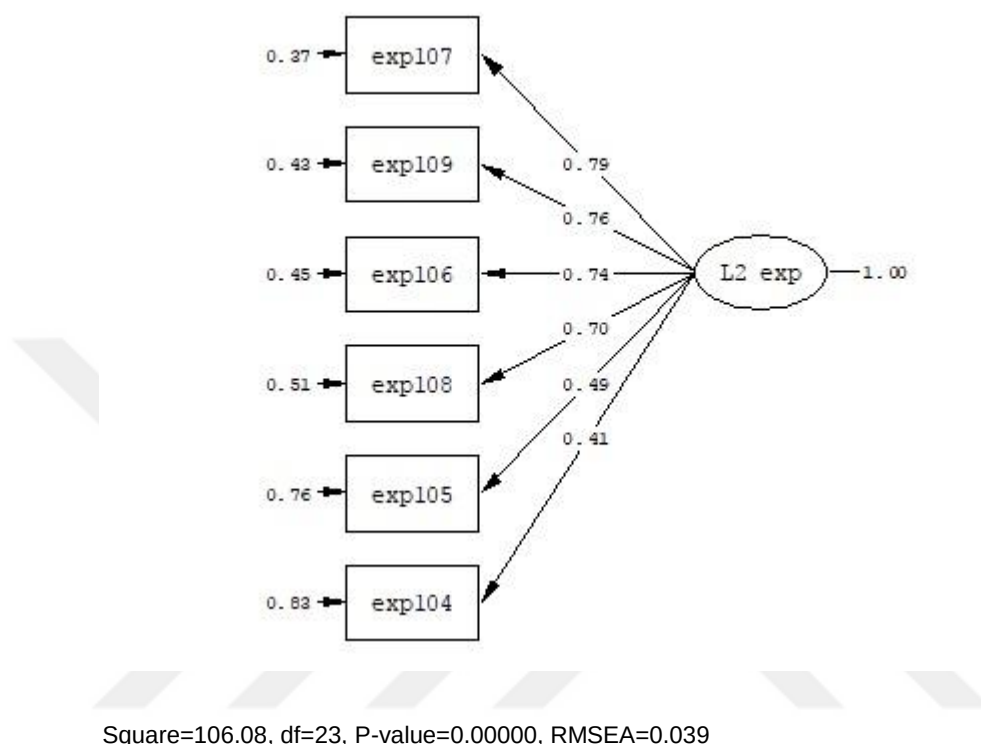


Figure 26. Results of the CFA for L2 learning experience scale (standardized coefficients).

The standardized loading coefficients of the CFA which are presented in the figure above indicate that they range from .41 to .79. This means that the factor loadings are above the cut-off point (.32) and, thus, are statistically significant. The chi-square, χ^2/df , GFI, AGFI, CFI, RMSEA, and SRMR were also calculated. Table 28 shows the fit indices of the L2 learning experience scale.

Table 28

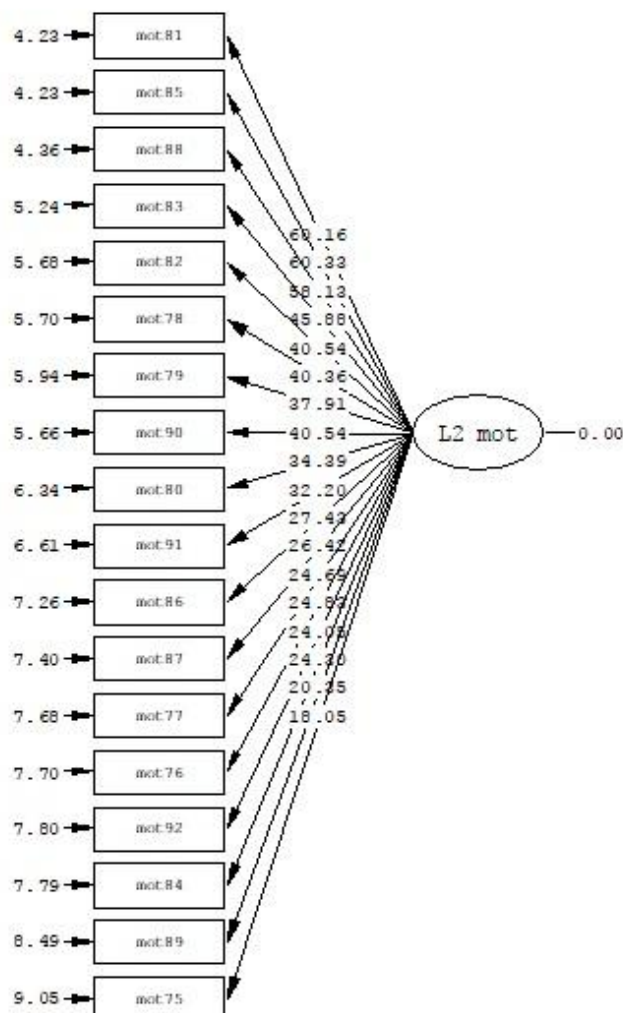
Fit Indices of the L2 Learning Experience Scale

χ^2	df	χ^2/df	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
106.08	23	4.61	.99	.98	.95	.039	.047

Note. χ^2 =chi-square; df=degree of freedom; GFI=goodness-of-fit index; AGFI=adjusted goodness-of-fit index; CFI=comparative fit index; RMSEA=root mean square error of approximation; SRMR=standardized root mean-square residual.

As shown in Table 28, the χ^2/df ratio was 4.61, less than the cut-off value of 5. The GFI was .99 indicating an overall perfect fit of the model to the data. Additionally, the AGFI (.98) and CFI (.95) suggested good fit for the model. As for the value of RMSEA, it was found .039, signifying the good fit of the model to the data. The SRMR was found .047, showing a good fit. Therefore, it is clear that the statistical values of CFA all met the criteria for goodness of fit.

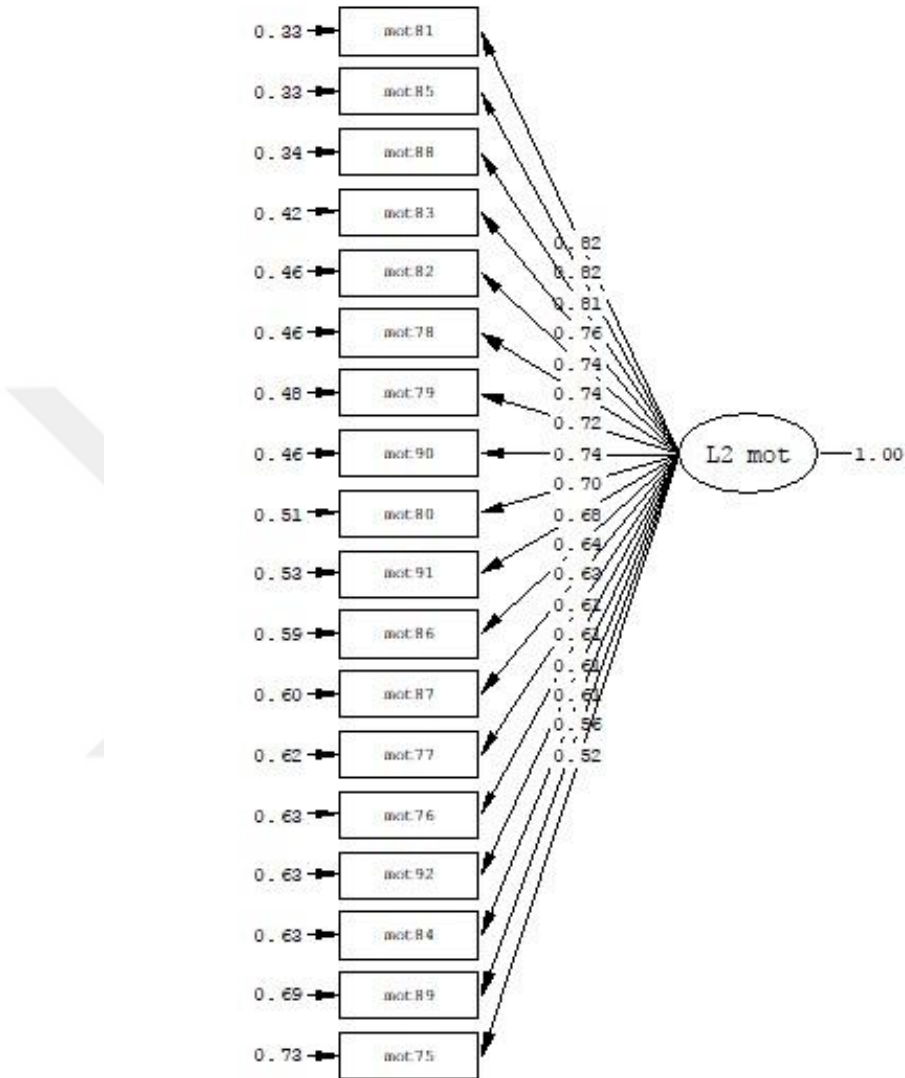
In order to ensure the construct validity of the L2 motivation scale, a CFA was conducted. The fit indices are displayed in Table 29. Figure 27 illustrates the t-statistics while Figure 28 displays the standardized loading coefficients of the CFA.



Square=1098.02, df=256, P-value=0.00000, RMSEA=0.025

Figure 27. Results of the CFA for L2 motivation scale (t-values).

The findings of the CFA demonstrated that there were no insignificant variables with a t-value less than ± 1.96 ($p < .05$). Thus, the scale items represent the construct of L2 motivation well.



Square=1098.02, df=256, P-value=0.00000, RMSEA=0.025

Figure 28. Results of the CFA for L2 motivation scale (standardized coefficients).

The figure above demonstrates that the factor loadings for the items range from .52 to .82 and they are above the cut-off point (.32). Hence, it can be said that the factor loadings are statistically significant. The fit indices of the L2 motivation scale including chi-square, GFI, AGFI, CFI, RMSEA and SRMR were also calculated and presented in the table below.

Table 29

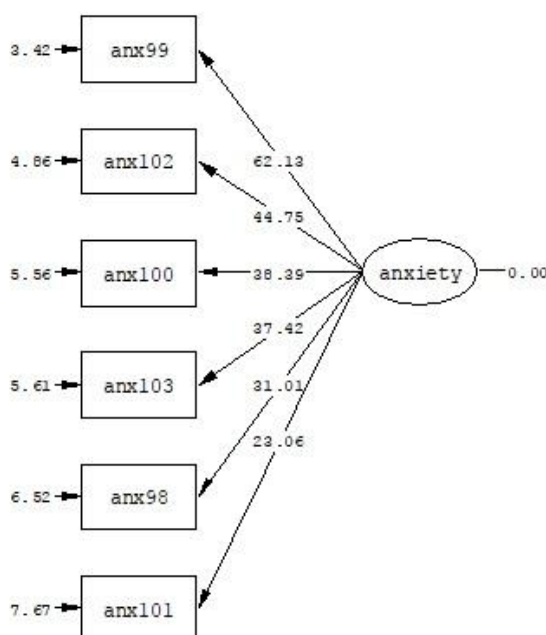
Fit Indices of the L2 Motivation Scale

χ^2	df	χ^2/df	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
1098.02	256	4.28	.99	.99	.96	.025	.053

Note. χ^2 =chi-square; df=degree of freedom; GFI=goodness-of-fit index; AGFI=adjusted goodness-of-fit index; CFI=comparative fit index; RMSEA=root mean square error of approximation; SRMR=standardized root mean-square residual.

According to Table 29, the χ^2/df ratio was 4.28, less than the cut-off value of 5. The GFI was .99, indicating an overall perfect fit of the model to the data. Moreover, the AGFI (.99) and CFI (.96) suggested good fit for the model. As for the value of RMSEA, it was found .025, which means that the measurement model matches the data well. The value of SRMR (.053) also indicated an adequate fit. Therefore, the specified measurement model can be said to fit the data well.

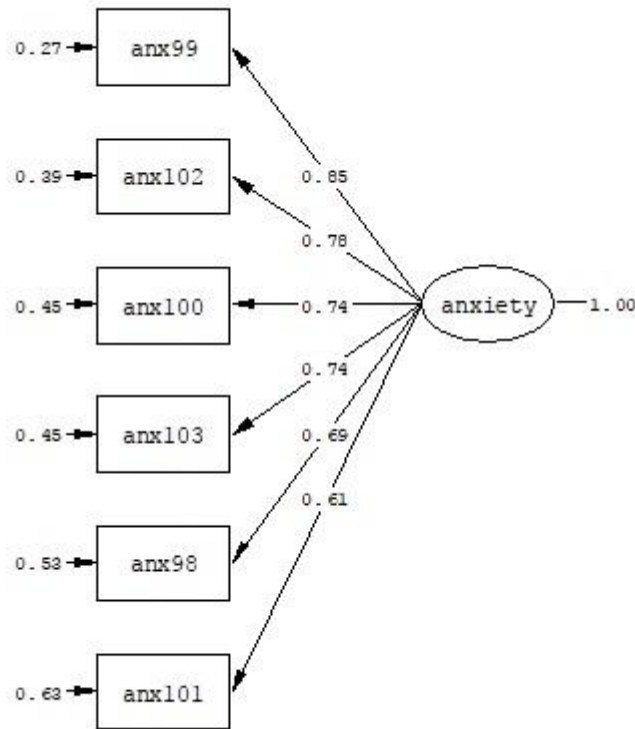
As for the L2 anxiety scale, significance levels of the t-values were measured. The standardized loading coefficients of the CFA were also checked. Additionally, the goodness-of-fit indices such as χ^2 , χ^2/df , GFI, AGFI, CFI, RMSEA and SRMR were calculated. Figure 29 illustrates the t-values whereas Figure 30 displays the standardized loading coefficients of the CFA. The fit indices are displayed in Table 30.



Square=169.75, df=35, P-value=0.00000, RMSEA=0.077

Figure 29. Results of the CFA for L2 anxiety scale (t-values).

As can be seen in the figure above, t-values of all items are higher than ± 1.96 , which means that all factor loadings are significant at the $p < .05$ level. To put it differently, it can be suggested that the scale items completely represent the construct of L2 anxiety.



Square=169.75, df=35, P-value=0.00000, RMSEA=0.077

Figure 30. Results of the CFA for L2 anxiety scale (standardized coefficients).

It is clear from Figure 30 that the standardized loadings range from .61 to .85. As the factor loadings are above the cut-off point (.32), they are accepted to be statistically significant. The chi-square, GFI, AGFI, CFI, RMSEA, and SRMR were also computed. Table 30 displays the fit indices of the scale.

Table 30

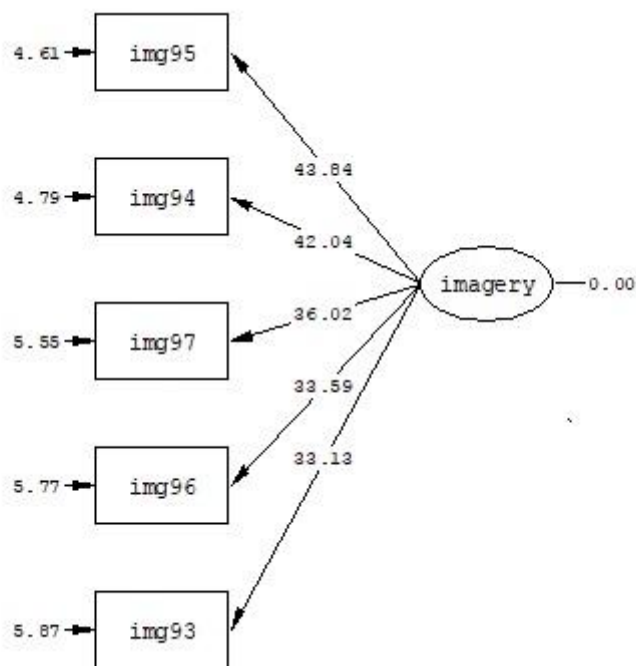
Fit Indices of the L2 Anxiety Scale

χ^2	df	χ^2/df	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
169.75	35	4.85	.99	.98	.95	.077	.051

Note. χ^2 =chi-square; df=degree of freedom; GFI=goodness-of-fit index; AGFI= adjusted goodness-of-fit index; CFI=comparative fit index; RMSEA=root mean square error of approximation; SRMR=standardized root mean-square residual.

According to Table 30, the χ^2/df ratio was 4.85, less than the cut-off value of 5. The GFI was .99, indicating an overall perfect fit of the model to the data. The AGFI was .98 and the CFI was .95, which suggested that the model shows a good fit to data. The RMSEA was found to be .077, which is an acceptable value. As for the SRMR, it was found .051, signifying a good fit. To sum up, the overall fit of the CFA model, as explained by the fit indices, supports the construct validity of the scale.

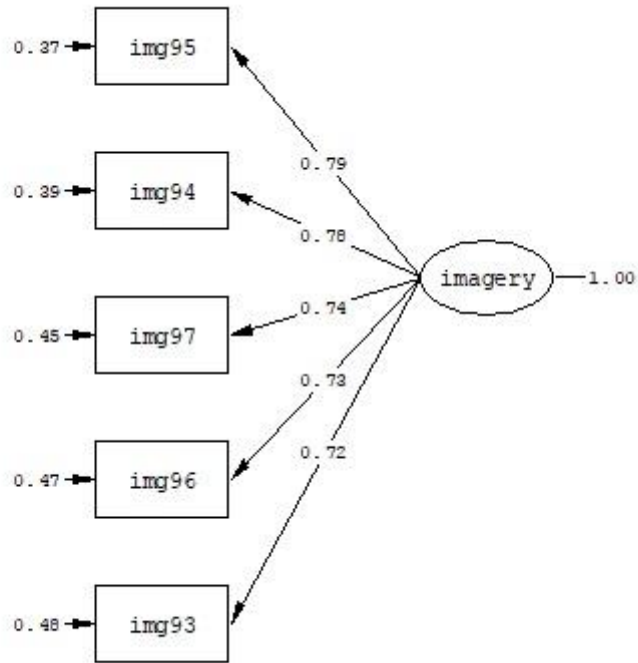
Lastly, a CFA was conducted to determine the construct validity of the scale of imagery capacity. The t-statistics and the standardized loading coefficients of the CFA can be seen in Figure 31 and Figure 32 respectively. The fit indices of the imagery capacity scale are illustrated in Table 31.



Square=91.57, df=19, P-value=0.00000, RMSEA=0.051

Figure 31. Results of the CFA for imagery capacity scale (t-values).

According to the findings of the CFA, t-values of all items are higher than ± 1.96 . Therefore, all factor loadings are significant at the $p < .05$ level. To put it simply, it can be said that all of the scale items adequately represent the construct of imagery capacity.



Square=91.57, df=19, P-value=0.00000, RMSEA=0.051

Figure 32. Results of the CFA for imagery capacity scale (standardized coefficients).

The standardized loading coefficients of the CFA are presented in Figure 32. Standardized factor loadings for the items demonstrate that they range from .72 to .79. This means that the factor loadings are above the cut-off point (.32) and, thus, are statistically significant. The chi-square, GFI, AGFI, CFI, RMSEA and SRMR were calculated. Table 31 demonstrates the fit indices of the imagery capacity scale.

Table 31

Fit Indices of the Imagery Capacity Scale

χ^2	df	χ^2/df	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
91.57	19	4.81	.99	.98	.96	.051	.043

Note. χ^2 =chi-square; df=degree of freedom; GFI=goodness-of-fit index; AGFI=adjusted goodness-of-fit index; CFI=comparative fit index; RMSEA=root mean square error of approximation; SRMR=standardized root mean-square residual.

According to the table above, the χ^2/df ratio was 4.81, less than the cut-off value of 5. The GFI was .99 showing an overall perfect fit of the model to the data. Besides, fit indices of AGFI (.98) and CFI (.96) suggested good fit for the model. As for the value of RMSEA, it was found .051, signifying the good fit of the model

to the data. The value of SRMR (.043) also provided a good fit. In brief, it can be said that the statistical values of confirmatory factor analysis all met the criteria standards for adequacy of fit.

To sum up, all the values of factor loading confirmed the existence of the construct validity of the scales employed in the present study. Moreover, the overall fit of the measurement models, as signified by the fit indices, supported the validity of each scale. A summary of the psychometric properties of the scales is illustrated in Table 32. The table also indicates the reliability coefficients of the scales calculated in the current study (see Main Study section for more detail).

Table 32

A Summary of the Psychometric Properties of the Scales

Scale	χ^2/df	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	α
L2 WTC inside the classroom	4.78	.97	.96	.92	.065	.078	.93
L2 WTC outside the classroom	4.98	.97	.96	.92	.071	.069	.94
Ideal L2 self	4.65	.99	.99	.95	.047	.055	.92
Ought-to L2 self	5.00	.98	.97	.93	.053	.045	.88
L2 learning experience	4.61	.99	.98	.95	.039	.047	.80
L2 motivation	4.28	.99	.99	.96	.025	.053	.94
L2 anxiety	4.85	.99	.98	.95	.077	.051	.87
Imagery capacity	4.81	.99	.98	.96	.051	.043	.86

The statistical values of CFAs conducted for all of the scales met the criteria for goodness of fit. The reliability coefficients of the scales calculated in the current study also showed that each scale had an acceptable level of internal consistency. Therefore, examining the table above and the descriptions in the previous sections, the researcher has decided that it is appropriate to continue further into using inferential statistics, namely path analysis method.

Research question 9: Is the hypothesized model of L2 WTC appropriate for the Turkish EFL learners in terms of explaining the relationships between their WTC in English, ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, L2 learning experience, L2 motivation, L2 anxiety, imagery capacity, vocabulary size and their course achievement? So as to test the overall fit of the hypothesized L2 WTC model (see Figure 33), a path analysis was performed using LISREL 8.80. Robust maximum likelihood method of estimation was

employed as it provides estimates robust to non-normal distribution (Brown, 2015). The significance levels of all hypothesized paths (direct effect) were assessed using two-tailed tests. Path coefficients with t-statistics equal or larger than ± 1.96 ($p < .05$) were accepted as statistically significant.

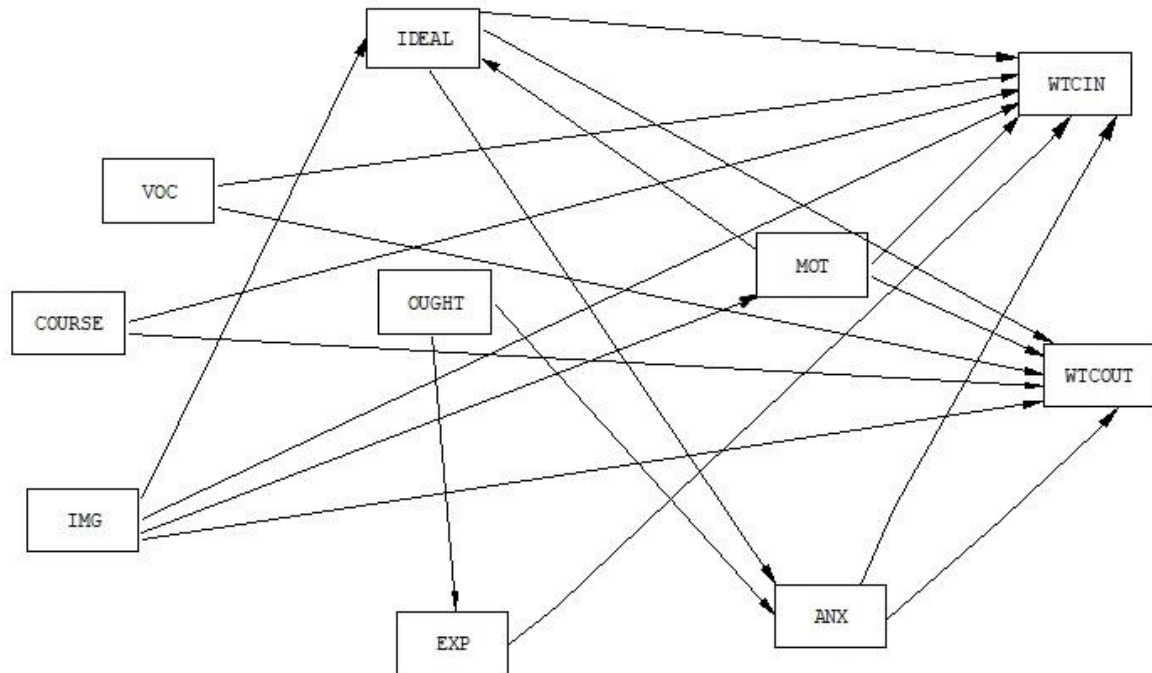


Figure 33. L2 WTC model to be tested.

Note. WTCIN=L2 Willingness to Communicate inside the Classroom; WTCOUT=L2 Willingness to Communicate outside the Classroom; IDEAL=Ideal L2 Self; OUGHT=Ought-to L2 Self; EXP=L2 Learning Experience; MOT=L2 Motivation; ANX=L2 Anxiety; IMG=Imagery Capacity; VOC=Vocabulary Size; COURSE=Course Achievement.

The initial data did not provide an acceptable fit to the data ($\chi^2/df = 11.53$, $GFI = .82$, $AGFI = .75$, $CFI = .85$, $RMSEA = .12$, $SRMR = .12$). The path coefficients with t-statistics are presented in Figure 34. As seen in the figure, there were some path coefficients with t-statistics less than ± 1.96 ($p < .05$).

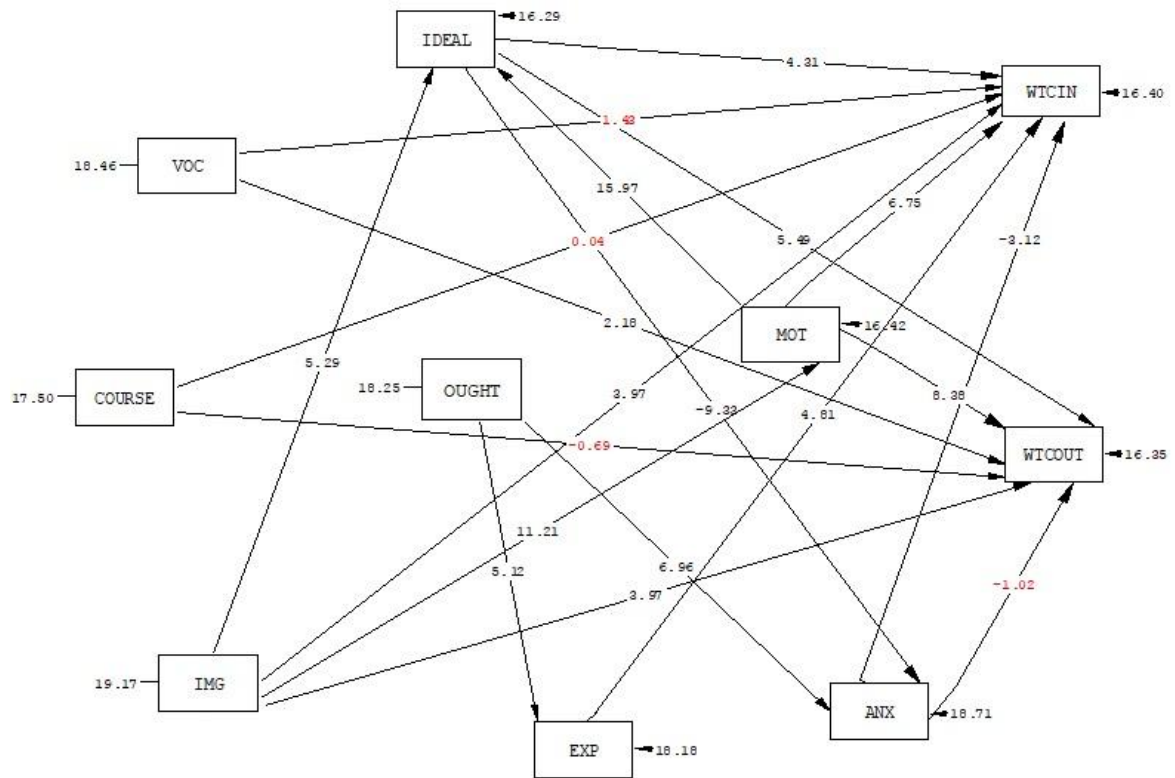


Figure 34. The path coefficients of the initial model (with t-statistics).

Note. WTCIN=L2 WTC inside the Classroom; WTCOUT=L2 WTC outside the Classroom; IDEAL=Ideal L2 Self; OUGHT=Ought-to L2 Self; EXP=L2 Learning Experience; MOT=L2 Motivation; ANX=L2 Anxiety; IMG=Imagery Capacity; VOC=Vocabulary Size; COURSE=Course Achievement.

The paths leading from course achievement to L2 WTC inside the classroom and L2 WTC outside the classroom, the path from L2 anxiety to L2 WTC outside the classroom, and the path leading from vocabulary size to L2 WTC inside the classroom were non-significant. For the sake of model parsimony, they were progressively removed from the model. Table 33 presents the steps involved in model modification and the fit indices.

Table 33

Step-by-step Modification of the Hypothesized Model

	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
Initial Model	196.06	17	11.53	.82	.75	.85	.12	.12
1. Delete the path from L2 anxiety to L2 WTC outside the classroom	165.56	18	9.19	.84	.79	.86	.11	.12
2. Delete the path from vocabulary size to L2 WTC inside the classroom	141.39	19	7.44	.85	.81	.87	.10	.11
3. Delete the path from course achievement to L2 WTC outside the classroom	127.05	20	6.35	.88	.85	.88	.09	.09
4. Delete the path from course achievement to L2 WTC inside the classroom	101.24	21	4.82	.91	.90	.92	.07	.08

Note. χ^2 =chi-square; df=degree of freedom; GFI=goodness-of-fit index; AGFI=adjusted goodness-of-fit index; CFI=comparative fit index; RMSEA=root mean square error of approximation; SRMR=standardized root mean-square residual.

As can be seen from the improved fit indices in Table 33, the final model provided a better fit to the data ($\chi^2/df = 4.82$, GFI = .91, AGFI = .90, CFI = .92, RMSEA = .07, SRMR = .08). The χ^2/df ratio was 4.82, which was less than the cut-off value of 5. The GFI was .91, which indicated an acceptable fit of the model to the data. Additionally, fit indices of AGFI (.90) and CFI (.92) suggested good fit for the model. As for the value of RMSEA, it was found .07, signifying that the model shows an adequate fit to the data. The value of SRMR (.08) was also acceptable. Based on the fit indices, it can be said that the criteria for adequacy of fit were met. The final model is displayed in the figure below.

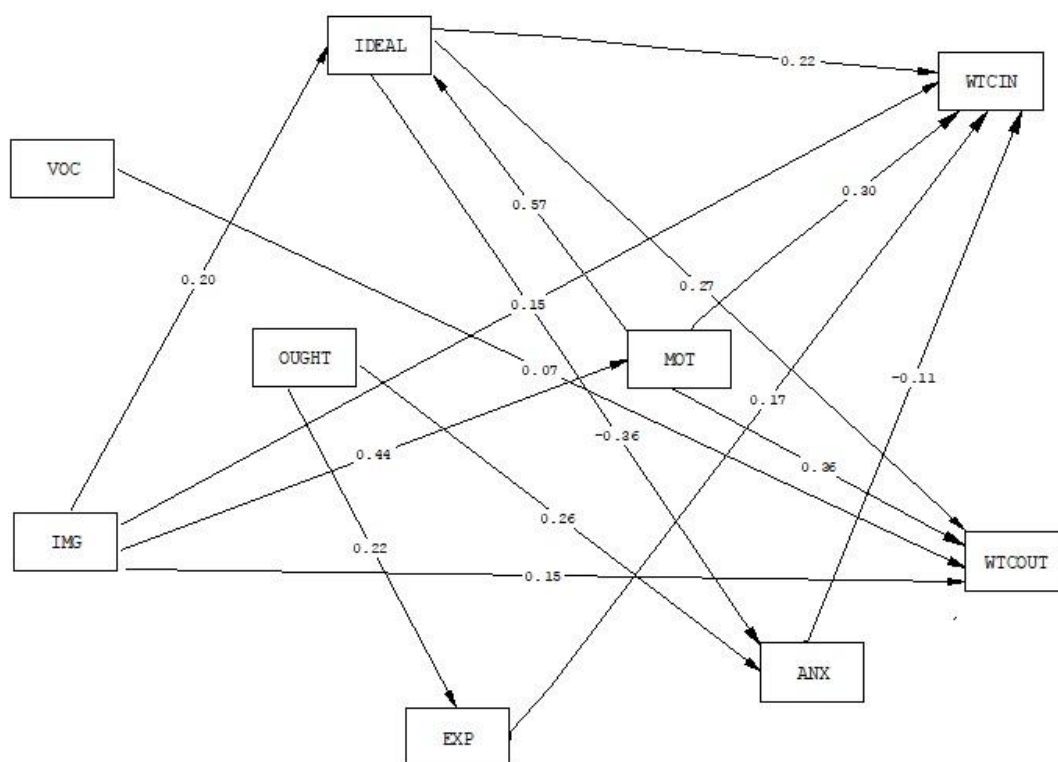


Figure 35. The structural model of L2 WTC (final model).

Note. WTCIN=L2 WTC inside the Classroom; WTCOUT=L2 WTC outside the Classroom; IDEAL=Ideal L2 Self; OUGHT=Ought-to L2 Self; EXP=L2 Learning Experience; MOT=L2 Motivation; ANX=L2 Anxiety; IMG=Imagery Capacity; VOC=Vocabulary Size. Standardized coefficients are presented. The error variances are not illustrated.

To further investigate the relationships between the variables, the direct, indirect, and total effects were checked. A direct effect represents the direct impact of one variable on another. Indirect effects are computed as the outcome of direct effects (Kline, 2005). The direct and indirect influences of one variable on another form the total effect. For example, as illustrated in Figure 35, ideal L2 self had a direct effect on L2 WTC inside the classroom (0.22) and an indirect effect on L2 WTC inside the classroom (0.0396, i.e., $-0.36 \times -0.11 = 0.0396$) through its direct influence on L2 anxiety (-0.36) and L2 anxiety's direct effect on L2 WTC inside the classroom (-0.11), which results in a total effect of 0.259 (i.e., $0.22 + 0.040 = 0.259$). Even though direct influences are of main interest, the relationships between variables in a structural model can be completely elucidated only when indirect influences are also determined (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2006). Table 34 presents the standardized direct, indirect, total effects between the variables.

Table 34

Standardized Direct, Indirect, and Total Effects for the Model

Predicted variable	Predictor variable	Direct effect	Indirect effect	Total effect
Ideal L2 self	L2 motivation	0.57		0.57
	Imagery capacity	0.20	0.25	0.45
L2 learning experience	Ought-to L2 self	0.22		0.22
L2 motivation	Imagery capacity	0.44		0.44
	Ideal L2 self	-0.36		-0.36
L2 anxiety	Ought-to L2 self	0.26		0.26
	L2 motivation		-0.20	-0.20
	Imagery capacity		-0.16	-0.16
	Ideal L2 self	0.22	0.04	0.26
L2 WTC inside the classroom	Ought-to L2 self		0.01	0.01
	L2 learning experience	0.17		0.17
	L2 anxiety	-0.11		-0.11
	L2 motivation	0.30	0.15	0.45
L2 WTC outside the classroom	Imagery capacity	0.15	0.25	0.40
	Ideal L2 self	0.27		0.27
	L2 motivation	0.36	0.15	0.51
	Imagery capacity	0.15	0.28	0.43
	Vocabulary size	0.07		0.07

As seen in Table 34, ideal L2 self was strongly predicted by L2 motivation (0.57) and imagery capacity (0.45), indicating that positive past L2 learning experience and high capacity for creating visual imagery in one's mind can stimulate EFL learners to imagine themselves as proficient L2 users. It is significant that when the direct influence of imagery capacity on ideal L2 self (0.20) and its indirect influence through L2 motivation ($0.44 \times 0.57 = 0.25$) were summated, its total influence on ideal L2 self was increased to 0.45. The influence of ought-to L2 self on L2 learning experience was comparatively lower (0.22), indicating less effect of external variables on L2 learning experience. L2 motivation was strongly influenced by imagery capacity (0.44), suggesting that high ability to create a vision of language goals could enable EFL learners to be more motivated to pursue their language goals.

The strongest predictor of L2 anxiety was ideal L2 self (-0.36), followed by ought-to L2 self (0.26), L2 motivation (-0.20), and imagery capacity (-0.16). The

results of the path analysis revealed a significant positive path from ought-to L2 self to L2 anxiety, a significant negative path from ideal L2 self to L2 anxiety, a significant negative path from L2 motivation to L2 anxiety, and a negative path from imagery capacity to L2 anxiety. That is, high levels of ideal L2 self, L2 motivation and imagery capacity negatively affect one's English learning anxiety whereas higher levels of ought-to L2 self enhance L2 anxiety.

L2 motivation exerted the largest direct effect (0.30) and total effect (0.45) on in-class L2 WTC. In other words, L2 motivation affects L2 WTC inside the classroom and L2 WTC outside the classroom both directly and indirectly through the mediation of ideal L2 self. Imagery capacity (0.40) and ideal L2 self (0.26) also exerted much greater influence on L2 WTC inside the classroom than did L2 learning experience (0.17), L2 anxiety (-0.11), and ought-to L2 self (0.01), which indicates that L2 motivation and imagery capacity play key roles in EFL learners' WTC in English in class. Like L2 motivation, imagery capacity also influences in-class and out-of class L2 WTC both directly and indirectly through the mediation of ideal L2 self and L2 motivation. Likewise, the results revealed both direct (0.22) and indirect effects (0.04) of ideal L2 self on L2 WTC inside the classroom, with L2 anxiety being the mediator. While significant positive paths leading from L2 motivation, imagery capacity, ideal L2 self, L2 learning experience and ought-to L2 self to L2 WTC inside the classroom were found, the results of the path analysis disclosed a significant negative path from L2 anxiety to L2 WTC inside the classroom. Therefore, it can be said that L2 anxiety negatively affects EFL learners' WTC in English inside the classroom whereas higher levels of L2 motivation, imagery capacity, ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self and positive past L2 learning experience increase learners' psychological readiness to initiate communication in English inside the classroom.

L2 WTC outside the classroom was strongly predicted by L2 motivation (0.51) and imagery capacity (0.43), signifying that high level of motivation to learn English and high ability to create a vision of language goals could encourage EFL learners to communicate in English outside the classroom. It is clear in Table 34 that L2 motivation affects L2 WTC outside the classroom both directly and indirectly through the mediation of ideal L2 self. It is notable that when the direct effect of imagery capacity on L2 WTC outside the classroom (0.15) and its indirect

effects via L2 motivation and ideal L2 self (0.28) were summated, its total effect on L2 WTC outside the classroom was increased to 0.43. The influence of ideal L2 self on L2 WTC outside the classroom was relatively lower (0.27), still implying that learners' conceiving themselves as proficient users of English leads to their higher willingness to communicate in English outside the classroom. A significant direct path from vocabulary size to L2 WTC outside the classroom was detected although the strength of the effect was small (0.07). Thus, it can be suggested that English vocabulary size could contribute to EFL learners' WTC in English outside the classroom.

Qualitative Findings

Research question 10: What are factors affecting the Turkish EFL learners' levels of WTC in English inside and outside the classroom? The qualitative data generated from the interviews were analyzed through qualitative content analysis (Dörnyei, 2007). The audio-recorded interview data were transcribed, which enabled the researcher to familiarize herself with the data at hand. Once the transcriptions had been completed, the researcher read the transcripts several times, looking for salient and recurring ideas emerging from the data. While analyzing the data, the researcher looked for the factors that the learners described as having an impact on their WTC in English. Coding was carried out to reduce the data into easily locatable segments. After the codes were developed, the researcher attempted to put the similar codes together to arrive at categories or themes. Having analyzed the data gained from the interviews, the researcher came up with a number of factors influencing in-class and out-of-class WTC in English. The proportion agreement method was used to check the intercoder reliability (Miles & Huberman, 1984). The codes determined by the researcher were compared against the ones undertaken by an independent researcher. The researcher divided the number of times that two coders used a code in the same text unit by the number of times that any coder used it in the transcript. For instance, with two coders, 21 text units were coded "My willingness to speak English varies depending on the topic" by at least one of them and in 17 of those cases both invoked the code on the same text unit. Thus, the level of intercoder reliability was 81 percent ($17/21 = .81$) for this code. Using the same

method, the overall intercoder reliability for all codes as a set was calculated. There were two coders and 224 instances when at least one of them invoked a code on a text unit and of these there were 190 instances when both coders did so for the same code on the same unit. Then the overall level of intercoder reliability was found to be 85 percent ($190/224 = .85$), which is a high degree of reliability (Fahy, 2001; Hodson, 1999; Kurasaki, 2000; Miles & Huberman, 1984). That is to say, the two coders were found to be highly consistent with each other.

The factors that the EFL learners considered as influencing their in-class WTC in English and the number of participants who noted each factor in the interviews are presented in the table below. L2 classroom environment (29 entries), affective factors (21 entries), topic (8 entries), personal characteristics (5 entries), linguistic factors (4 entries), self-perceived communication competence (2 entries) and past communication experience (1 entry) were found to be the main thematic categories.

Table 35

EFL Learners' Perceptions of the Factors Affecting their WTC in English inside the Classroom

Factors Affecting WTC in English inside the Classroom		f *	N/32
L2 classroom environment	Classmates	19	29
	Instructional methods	16	
	Teacher	15	
	Atmosphere	3	
	Materials	3	
	Class size	3	
	L2 motivation	16	
Affective factors	Fear of being ridiculed	9	21
	L2 anxiety	8	
	Fear of making mistakes	7	
Topic	Topic interest	5	8
	Topic familiarity	2	
Personal characteristics	Shyness	3	5
	Introversion	2	
Linguistic factors	Practice	4	4
	Pronunciation	3	
	Vocabulary size	2	
Self-perceived communication competence			2
Past communication experience			1

**The frequencies of the individual factors do not necessarily count up to the total frequencies because one student may have reported more than one factor.*

Table 36 illustrates the Turkish EFL learners' perceptions of the factors influencing their WTC in English outside the classroom. Affective factors (22 entries), interlocutor (16 entries), linguistic factors (12 entries), self-perceived communication competence (5 entries), past communication experience (5 entries), opportunity for communication (4 entries), group size (2 entries), topic interest (1 entry), ideal L2 self (1 entry), ought-to L2 self (1 entry), and shyness (1 entry) were found to be the main factors influencing learners WTC in English outside the classroom.

Table 36

EFL Learners' Perceptions of the Factors Affecting their WTC in English outside the Classroom

Factors Affecting WTC in English outside the Classroom		f *	N/32
Affective factors	L2 Motivation	15	22
	L2 Anxiety	7	
	Fear of making mistakes	4	
	Fear of being ridiculed	2	
Interlocutor	L2 proficiency of interlocutor	6	16
	Familiarity with interlocutor	4	
	Turkish/foreign interlocutor	4	
	Interlocutor participation	1	
Linguistic factors	Vocabulary size	8	12
	Practice	7	
	Pronunciation	3	
Self-perceived communication competence			5
Past communication experience			5
Opportunity for communication			4
Group Size			2
Topic Interest			1
Ideal L2 self			1
Ought-to L2 self			1
Shyness			1

**The frequencies of the individual factors do not necessarily count up to the total frequencies because one student may have reported more than one factor.*

The factors that the EFL learners considered as affecting their WTC in English and how each of these factors influenced learners' in-class and out-of-class WTC in English are described below. The sub-themes identified in the transcribed data are also presented. In the excerpts from the interviews, the acronyms *WTC* and *UnWTC* were used to describe the interview participants who

are keen to communicate in English and unwilling to communicate in English respectively.

Factors Affecting Turkish EFL learners' WTC in English inside the classroom

L2 Classroom Environment: One major factor that the interview participants described as having an impact on their willingness to speak English in class is L2 classroom environment. According to the Turkish EFL learners, there are six important sub-factors that have an impact on their willingness to communicate or unwillingness to communicate in English in L2 classroom environment; *classmates, instructional methods, teacher, atmosphere, materials, and class size*. More than half of the participants (19 out of 32) mentioned the influence of their *classmates* on their willingness to speak English inside the classroom. Some representative comments include:

"My classmates are far less proficient in English than me. They are always reluctant to speak English. Their indifference to English kills my enthusiasm for speaking English. When there is nobody speaking, I also become reluctant to speak English in class" (WTC, female participant, Lady in red).

"I feel more relaxed and become more willing to speak English if I see that my classmates make mistakes while they are speaking. But if my classmates are more proficient in English than me and they speak English more fluently than I do, I become very demotivated to speak English in class. I prefer to remain silent at those times" (UnWTC, female participant, Strawberry).

"There is a general tendency of Turkish people who cannot speak English to tease English-speaking people. The same situation exists in our classroom. Some of my classmates laugh at me when I make mistakes as if they knew more than me. Their irrespective behaviours really irritate me and discourage me from speaking English" (WTC, male participant, Harry Potter).

"The English proficiency level of my classmates is lower than mine. So, it gives me great pleasure to speak English in the classroom. I feel myself superior to them. This sense of superiority makes me feel a stronger desire to speak English in class" (WTC, female participant, Pumpkin).

It is clear from the participants' comments that the English proficiency level of their classmates, their level of willingness to speak English, and their disrespectful and mocking attitudes towards themselves play a major role in their WTC in English. Half of the interview participants (16) stated that their WTC in

English depends on the *instructional methods* used to teach the content. Here are some excerpts from the interviews with the Turkish EFL learners:

“Our instructor usually starts speaking English at the beginning of the lesson but then, after a few minutes, he continues in Turkish as most of my classmates refuse to respond to him in English. I think that the instructors should force us to speak English in class. It will help us to improve our English communication skills and make us more willing to speak English in class” (WTC, female participant, Coffee).

“Most of our class hours are allotted to preparation for the YDS exam. We just concentrate on grammar and ignore speaking entirely in class time. In my opinion, it is nonsense to learn the grammar of a language that I cannot speak. If we had an intensive speaking-based course, I would absolutely be eager to speak English in class” (UnWTC, male participant, Jigsaw).

“In one of our classes, we watched a movie in English and then we had a discussion with my classmates about the movie. I had a lot of fun. These kinds of speaking activities increase my willingness to speak English in class” (WTC, male participant, John Snow).

“My English teacher in high school was making our English lessons interesting and lively by using additional materials such as songs, videos, games etc. As a result, my learning became more meaningful and permanent. But my current instructor at university does not use any other materials apart from the coursebook. I get bored easily and I am often reluctant to speak English in his classes” (UnWTC, male participant, Amazon).

These explanations above show that the participants complain about the lack of instructional methods which gives them the opportunity to speak English in the classroom. Of the 32 learners who were interviewed, 15 pointed to the influence of the *teacher-related factors* on their eagerness to communicate in English. John Doe (UnWTC, male) believes that their instructor does not pay equal attention to all the learners in class and does not encourage them all to speak English.

“Not everyone in the classroom is at the same level of proficiency in English. Our instructor ignores the less proficient students and focuses on only more proficient ones during the course. As I am a low-proficient EFL learner, the instructor’s indifference towards me decreases my willingness to speak English in the classroom” (UnWTC, male participant, John Doe).

The sex of the teacher is another determinant in the learners’ level of WTC in English. It was mentioned by one of the participants to play an important role in

readiness to speak English inside the classroom. This was explicit in a statement by Panda (UnWTC, male) who claims:

"I have some problems with female teachers. They are often capricious and difficult to understand. I think that they are interested in satisfying their own egos rather than teaching us something useful. Now, I have a female English teacher and I really cannot learn anything from her. Last semester, I had a male teacher and there was no problem with him. I was quite willing to participate in the classes and speak English in the classroom" (UnWTC, male participant, Panda).

The participants also stated that their willingness to speak English in class increases when they have a foreign instructor. They blamed Turkish instructors for always correcting their mistakes and thereby dampening their enthusiasm for speaking English. John snow (WTC, male) makes this clear when he says:

"My willingness to speak English increases when a foreign teacher teaches English in class, Last semester, we had a foreign instructor. As he did not know any Turkish, we had to speak English with him. We were always chatting with him about different things. He was only attaching importance to our ability to express ourselves. He did not care whether we constructed grammatically correct sentences or not. Now, we have a Turkish instructor of English and he attaches great importance to correctness of the sentences that we form when we are speaking. He always corrects our mistakes, which decreases my enthusiasm for speaking English" (WTC, male participant, John Snow).

As can be understood from the excerpt above, having a foreign teacher increases the learners' desire to speak English in class. Other teacher-related factors which were believed to contribute to the learners' unwillingness to speak English in the classroom were the inadequacy of the teachers' professional teaching skills, their inadequate English language proficiency and lack of their support. The following excerpts may give a better idea about the participants' views on this issue.

"Our instructor expects us to speak voluntarily in the classroom. He is not trying to force us to speak. After he asks a question, he waits for a volunteer to answer that question. Typically, nobody answers and then he answers the question himself. Actually, if he pushed us to answer the question, we might get used to speak English. But he does not do that. Because of this attitude of the instructor, I do not want to talk too much in the classroom. I would definitely be much more willing to speak English if the instructor forced us to speak English a little bit" (UnWTC, female participant, Cinnamon).

"I am normally very eager to speak English. I actively take part in English classes. I learned that some of my classmates complained to the instructor about my willingness to take the floor in the English classes. They told him that I always prevent them from speaking. I think that the instructor was influenced by the things that they said. In one of our classes, he gave me no opportunity to speak and he said to me that "You are talking too much. It is time to shut up!" when I wanted to speak. Because of this awkward behavior of the instructor, I lost my willingness to speak English in class. I do not even want to attend the English classes" (WTC, female participant, Oasis).

"The English course does not mean anything to me unless the instructor teaches English in English. Our instructor speaks Turkish all the time. I think he should be a positive role model for us first. But he does not encourage us to speak English" (UnWTC, female participant, Babyface).

"Once I understand that the teacher is inadequate at teaching English properly, I immediately lose my interest in the English course and become unwilling to speak English in class. Whenever I ask our instructor the meaning of a word, he cannot give an answer to it and look it up in the dictionary" (WTC, male participant, Alf)

Three of the participants appeared to believe that the atmosphere of the classroom plays an important role in their WTC in English. They contend that they feel more willing to speak English in a stress-free environment where there is a friendly rapport between the teacher and the students. Moreover, they stated that a noisy class hinders their participation and learning.

"Classroom atmosphere directly affects my willingness to speak English. I generally do not want to talk when there is a tense atmosphere in the classroom. On the contrary, I tend to be more eager to speak English when the classroom atmosphere is warm. Mostly, there is a warm and friendly environment in our classroom which motivates me more to speak English" (WTC, female participant, Daisy).

"My desire to talk in English decreases when the class is noisy. I become more willing to speak English in a relaxed but serious classroom atmosphere which allows me to be actively involved in every learning process" (WTC, female participant, Queen).

Another important factor that is evident in the participants' interviews is the *materials* used to teach content. Three of the interviewees consider the materials as a key factor contributing to their degree of willingness to speak English. This was explicit in the statements by Southpark (UnWTC, male) and John Snow (WTC, male) respectively who claim:

"The coursebook that we use is so boring that I do not feel like speaking English in the English class. The level of the coursebook is extremely basic. We have been learning the same things over and over again for years. I think that the English that we studied in the fifth year of the high school is at a higher level than the English that we learn now. We should use a coursebook which is more appropriate to our level of English" (UnWTC, male participant, Southpark).

"My willingness level varies depending on the materials that our instructor uses in class. Sometimes we watch a movie in English and talk about it. Sometimes we listen to a song in English and try to translate the lyrics of it into Turkish. I am more willing to talk in class when our instructor uses these kinds of audio-visual materials" (WTC, male participant, John Snow).

Class size was also reported to have an impact on the participants' WTC in English inside the classroom. Of the 32 learners who were interviewed, three mentioned the influence of class size on their WTC in English. The following two excerpts demonstrate the importance of class size.

"I feel more comfortable and more willing to speak English at days when there are few students attending the class. I feel really nervous and hesitate to speak English when the class is crowded" (UnWTC, female participant, Crazy).

"My willingness to speak English decreases when the class is crowded. I feel more comfortable in a class in which there are fewer students attending. So, I become more willing to speak English" (WTC, female participant, Pepe).

Affective Factors: Affective factors were also reported by the participants to exert influence on their degree of WTC in English. According to them, there are four sub-factors that contribute to their WTC in English in this category; *L2 motivation, L2 anxiety, fear of making mistakes and fear of being ridiculed*. Half of the participants described their *language learning motivation* as having an impact on their willingness to speak English in class.

"I really admire English. It is a great language. Learning English makes me feel good. I like putting what I learned into practice. I even talk to my lovebird in English. I am always willing to speak English in class" (WTC, female participant, Daisy).

"I quit studying English in the first year of high school after I found out that it would be no use learning English in a state school. Since then, I have had no interest in English and made no attempt to learn it. Now, I look for no more than being able to pass the course. I do not feel like speaking English in classes" (UnWTC, male participant, Southpark).

"I love English too much. It means everything to me. I feel like that my dreams will never come true unless I learn English. I feel myself very special while I am speaking English in class. As I feel that way, I become more willing to speak English in class" (WTC, female participant, Umbrella).

"I do not want to pursue a career in tourism guidance. So, it does not really matter whether I learn English or not. I have no any interest in attending the English course and I am reluctant to speak English in class" (UnWTC, female participant, Pancake).

It is clear from the excerpts above that both motivation and amotivation for learning English affect the Turkish EFL learners' WTC in English. While the amotivated learners feel no desire to speak English, the motivated students are excited to speak English in the classroom. Nine of the participants stated that they are unwilling to speak English in class since they possess a *fear of being ridiculed* by their classmates.

"I do not want to speak English in class due to my fear of being ridiculed by my friends and teacher. I am afraid of making grammatical mistakes or having the wrong pronunciation" (UnWTC, female participant, Sunshine).

"Some of my classmates are hunting for the slightest mistake of the person who speaks English, laughing at it out loud and rubbing it into his/her face over and over again. Our instructor remains silent most of the time. Since I do not feel comfortable in class, I do not speak English unless I have to" (UnWTC, male participant, Madman).

L2 anxiety was also noted by eight of the learners as influencing their degree of willingness to speak English in the classroom. While some learners attributed their WTC in English to their relaxed manner in class, some openly expressed their anxiety about not being able to speak English. Babyface (UnWTC, female), John Snow (WTC, male) and Strawberry (UnWTC, female) make this clear when they say:

"My mind goes blank when it is my turn to speak in class. Although there are many words and structures that I know, and I can easily form the sentence at that moment, my anxiety level increases and I forget what I know. Later, I become angry at myself for not being able to cope with my anxiety. This kills all my enthusiasm for speaking English" (UNWTC, female participant, Babyface).

"I am calm and relaxed while speaking English in class. As there is nothing that makes me anxious in class, I am generally willing to speak English" (WTC, male participant, John Snow).

"I often have a fear of not being understood by others while speaking English. Even if I know the answer of the question that the instructor has asked, I cannot pronounce it loudly. That makes me anxious and decreases my willingness to speak English" (UnWTC, female participant, Strawberry).

Another affective factor that is evident in the participants' interviews is the *fear of making mistakes*. Seven of the interviewees consider their fear of making mistakes as an important factor leading to their unwillingness to speak English in class. Some representative comments include:

"I have intense fear of making mistakes while speaking English in class. That's why I prefer to remain silent in class. I do not know why I feel that way" (UnWTC, male participant, John Doe).

"I am so afraid of making mistakes that I cannot dare speak English. That is why I mostly hesitate to speak English in class" (UnWTC, female participant, Babyface).

Topic: Topic is another crucial factor that some of the participants referred to. Among the participants, eight stressed the importance of this factor in making them willing or unwilling to speak English in class. The features of the topic that were important for the participants were *topic familiarity* and *topic interest*. Two participants believed that when they have enough knowledge about a topic they are more willing to talk about it in English.

"I am more eager to talk about the topics that I am familiar with. However, I do not make any effort to talk about the topics that I do not know much about in the English classes" (UnWTC, female participant, Babyface).

"My desire to speak English increases when we talk about the countries that I know well in class. I cannot wait to talk about the culture and citizens of those countries" (WTC, female participant, Oasis).

Another characteristic of topic that the EFL learners refer to is *topic interest*. They believe that the more interested they are in a certain topic, the more willingness they show to talk about it. This was explicit in the statements by Ninegager (UnWTC, male), Picasso (WTC, male) and Jigsaw (UnWTC, male) respectively.

"I am more willing to talk about the topics that I am interested in. For example, I am much more willing to talk about my hometown, Ayvalık, and its traditional food in the English classes" (UnWTC, male participant, Ninegager).

"In the English classes, I usually become more willing to talk about the communication topics which are open to discussion" (WTC, male participant, Picasso).

"My willingness to speak English varies depending on the topic in question. I like talking about the topics that I am interested in. But I do not want to talk about the topics that I do not like" (UnWTC, male participant, Jigsaw).

In brief, the topic of discussion has an impact on the learners' willingness to speak English. According to them, topic familiarity and topic interest are the essential features of a certain topic which play a major role in making learners willing or unwilling to communicate in English. A learner's lack of knowledge of or interest in a certain topic may reduce his/her willingness to speak English in class.

Personal Characteristics: Another factor that was found to have an impact on the learners' degree of WTC in English is their personal characteristics. Five of the participants described this factor as an important contributor to their desire to enter into a discourse in English inside the classroom. *Shyness* (3 entries) and *introversion* (2 entries) were mentioned as two important sub-factors in this regard.

"It does not matter what the language is. As I am a shy person, it makes me nervous to speak in front of people. I become too much excited, feel embarrassed and blush readily. This makes me reluctant to speak English in class" (UnWTC, male participant, Panda).

"I usually do not like talking much. It is not specific to the English classes. I am quiet in other classes as well. I do not prefer to talk unless I have to" (UnWTC, male participant, John Doe).

As can be seen in the excerpts above, one reason why Panda (UnWTC, male) is unwilling to speak English is his *shyness*. John Doe (UnWTC, male), on the other hand, attributes his reluctance to speak English in class to his *introvert* personality. Thus, it can be said that personal characteristics of learners affect their readiness to speak English in class.

Linguistic Factors: Linguistic factors were also noted by four of the participants as having an impact on their in-class WTC in English. To the Turkish EFL learners, there are three important linguistic factors that contribute to their

WTC in English in class; *practice*, *pronunciation*, and *vocabulary size*. Of the 32 interview participants, four highlighted the importance of *practice* in their level of in-class WTC in English.

“There is a common problem in our class: we cannot put what we have learned into practice. We may communicate in English in written form, but we certainly cannot have verbal communication in English. I think that this stems from a lack of practice. The more we practise speaking English, the better we can speak English. As we realize that we can do it, we become more willing to speak English in class” (WTC, male participant, Frodo).

“We try to speak English with some of my classmates in our daily lives. This makes us happy and positively influences our in-class performance. Because we feel more confident about speaking English, we become more willing to speak English in class” (WTC, female participant, Candy).

Pronunciation is the second linguistic factor that the participants referred to. Three of the participants believed that this factor significantly influences their in-class WTC in English. This was clearly expressed by John Snow (WTC, male) and Coffee (WTC, female) when they stated:

“Good pronunciation is very important to me. My motivation drops a lot when someone says something negative about my pronunciation while I am speaking English. I immediately want to stop talking at that moment” (WTC, male participant, John Snow).

“If I think that there will be no trouble with my pronunciation, I will not hesitate to speak English. However, if I think that I cannot pronounce some words properly, I become reluctant to speak English in class. I believe that wrong pronunciation is something that may make a person feel humiliated” (WTC, female participant, Coffee).

Lastly, two Turkish EFL learners reported *vocabulary size* as a linguistic factor that makes a major contribution to their in-class willingness to speak English. Lady in Red (WTC, female), for instance, expressed that the more words she knows in English, the more willing she will be to speak English in class. To Babyface (WTC, female), his insufficient vocabulary knowledge is one of the reasons why he is reluctant to speak English. Here are the excerpts from the interviews with the participants:

“I am generally willing to speak English in class. However, if I knew more words in English, I would feel more competent in speaking and this, in turn, would increase my willingness to speak English in class” (WTC, female participant, Lady in red).

"I do not think that my vocabulary knowledge is sufficient to be able communicate in English. I can speak English only at a simple level. This is one of the reasons why I am reluctant to speak English in class" (UnWTC, female participant, Babyface).

Self-perceived Communication Competence: SPCC is another factor that was found to exert influence on the participants' readiness to speak English inside the classroom. Among the interviewees, two mentioned that their perceptions on how competent they think are in communicating in English language play a key role in their WTC in English. This was clear in the cases of Sunshine (UnWTC, female) and Southpark (UnWTC, male) who say:

"I completely quit studying English after I started university. That is why I forgot most things that I learned at high school. Now, I find myself incompetent in speaking English. As I think that I cannot speak English, I avoid speaking English in class as much as possible" (UnWTC, female participant, Sunshine).

"Most of my classmates can speak English easily and fluently. I find myself inadequate in speaking English because of my weak background in English. For this reason, I am usually silent in the English classes" (UnWTC, male participant, Southpark).

Past Communication Experience: Past communication experience was noted by only one of the participants as influencing her in-class WTC in English. Candy (WTC, female) explained in the interview how her positive past experience increased her enthusiasm for speaking English. She states:

"It was the first years of the high school. I was enrolled in a language course. One day, a foreign teacher came to our class and told us something in English. None of my friends could understand what he had said whereas I could easily understand and even respond to him. At that moment, I felt myself superior to everybody else. Since then, I have been having a special interest in speaking English. I like speaking English very much" (WTC, female participant, Candy).

Factors Affecting Turkish EFL learners' WTC in English outside the classroom

Affective Factors: As in inside the classroom, affective factors were noted by most of the participants (22 out of 32) as influencing their willingness to speak English outside the classroom as well. According to the Turkish EFL learners, there are four important sub-factors that contribute to their WTC in English outside the classroom; *L2 motivation*, *L2 anxiety*, *fear of making mistakes*, and *fear of*

being ridiculed. Nearly half of the participants (15 out of 32) mentioned the influence of their level of *English learning motivation* on their willingness to speak English. Here are some representative comments from the learners:

"I have always had great admiration for English. I can say that English is my life. I often listen to songs in English and watch all movies in English with English subtitles. I keep my diary in English, too. It gives me great pleasure to communicate with foreigners in English" (WTC, male participant, Harry Potter).

"I have no enthusiasm for learning English. I am fed up with learning the same things over and over again in school. Communicating in English is of no importance to me. I am very reluctant to speak English" (UnWTC, male participant, Panda).

"Most of my friends did their internships abroad through Erasmus program and visited so many different countries. They often share their experiences with us. As I see them having different friends from different countries, my enthusiasm for communicating with new people in English and learning about different cultures has increased. Now, I am much more willing to communicate in English" (WTC, female participant, Lipstick).

It is obvious from the participants' comments that their level of *L2 motivation* plays a leading role in their WTC in English. Considering their comments, it can be assumed that the more motivated they are to learn English, the keener they are to communicate with foreigners in English. Seven of the interviewees stated that their WTC in English outside the classroom depends on their level of *English learning anxiety*.

"I feel uneasy when I have to speak English. I become so excited and forget what I will say at that moment. Actually, I am well aware that I should cope with this problem but unfortunately, I cannot do it. Thus, I avoid speaking English as much as possible" (UnWTC, male participant, Panda).

"I do not feel any anxiety about speaking English. I worked as a receptionist in a hotel last summer and I could easily communicate with the foreign customers in English as if I was speaking in Turkish. Since I usually feel very comfortable while speaking English, I am willing to communicate in English" (WTC, female participant, Umbrella).

Fear of making mistakes was another affective factor influencing learners' level of WTC in English outside the classroom. Of the 32 learners who were interviewed, four pointed to the impact of this factor on their eagerness to

communicate in English. This was explicit in the statements by Umbrella (WTC, female) and Frodo (WTC, male) who claim:

“I do not want to talk with foreign customers who stay in the hotels in which I work in the summers because I am afraid of making mistakes while speaking English. I often ask some help from my friends who speaks English” (WTC, female participant, Umbrella).

“In situations where people asks me for help (e.g., when someone asks me for directions), my willingness to speak English decreases and I hesitate to communicate with people for fear that I might misinform them” (WTC, male participant, Frodo).

The last affective factor which was considered by the participants to affect their degree of L2 WTC outside the classroom is *fear of being ridiculed*. Two of the participants stated that they are reluctant to communicate in English since they are afraid of being ridiculed by others. Panda (UnWTC, male) makes this clear when he says:

“I have a fear of being ridiculed by others while speaking English. That makes me anxious and decreases my willingness to communicate in English” (UnWTC, male participant, Panda).

Interlocutor: The interlocutor factor was reported by half of the participants to exert influence on their degree of WTC in English outside the classroom. To the Turkish EFL learners, there are four sub-factors that contribute to their WTC or UnWTC in English in this category; *L2 proficiency of interlocutor*, *familiarity with interlocutor*, *Turkish/foreign interlocutor* and *interlocutor participation*. Six of the participants described the *L2 proficiency of interlocutor* as having an impact on their willingness to speak English outside the classroom. They expressed different views in this regard.

“If the person whom I was talking to did not know English very well, my willingness to communicate in English would increase. Because I would think that I am better than him/her at English. However, if he had advanced English knowledge, I would feel myself less competent than him to speak English and, as a result, I would be less willing to communicate in English” (UnWTC, male participant, John Doe).

"When the person whom I am talking with speaks much better English than I do, I become more willing to communicate with him/her" (WTC, female participant, Lady in red).

These explanations above indicate that the participants' level of WTC in English decreases or increases depending on the English proficiency level of the person whom they are talking to. *Familiarity with interlocutor* was another crucial factor that some of the participants referred to. Four of the participants stated that they are more eager to communicate in English with people whom they do not know than with people whom they know.

"I am much more willing to communicate with people whom I do not know. As I think that they will never see me again, I feel very comfortable in speaking English with them. I do not experience the fear of being put to shame while talking with people whom I do not know. However, I am usually hesitant to talk with people whom I have already known" (UnWTC, female participant, crazy).

"Sometimes I come across some tourists who ask for directions. I do not hesitate to talk with them because they do not know me and will not see me again. I am sure that they would appreciate my help even if I make some mistakes while speaking English. This does not demotivate me. Quite the contrary, this motivates me more to speak English" (WTC, male participant, Alf).

Among the participants, four mentioned that they are more eager to speak English when the interlocutor is a foreigner than a Turkish person. Thus, *whether the interlocutor is a Turkish person or a foreigner* has an impact on the learners' level of L2 WTC outside the classroom. The following two excerpts show the importance of this factor:

"I would rather talk to a foreigner than talk to a Turkish person. Foreigners usually have a very tolerant attitude towards the mistakes that the speaker makes whereas Turkish people are inclined to make fun of people who make some mistakes while speaking English" (WTC, female, Candy).

"I can speak English with a Turkish person to a certain level. The conversation usually stops after a while. But I have the opportunity to speak English as much as I want with a foreigner. For this reason, I am more willing to communicate in English when the interlocutor is a foreigner" (WTC, female participant, Snowwhite).

The importance of *interlocutor participation* was also noted by one participant as a factor which makes him willing or unwilling to communicate in

English. Ninegager (UnWTC, male) regarded the interlocutor's degree of WTC and participation as a motive for his contribution to the discussion. He claims:

"If the person whom I get into a conversation with is reluctant to talk, I do not want to talk either. Whether I am willing to communicate in English or not depends on the interlocutor's level of willingness to communicate" (UnWTC, male participant, Ninegager).

Linguistic Factors: Of the 32 learners who were interviewed, 12 described linguistic factors as influencing their WTC in English outside the classroom. As in inside the classroom, *vocabulary size*, *practice* and *pronunciation* were the linguistic factors regarded by the participants as the determinants of their L2 WTC outside the classroom. Eight EFL learners highlighted the importance of *vocabulary size* in their level of WTC in English outside the classroom.

"Although I am good at English grammar, I think that my English vocabulary knowledge is limited. Thus, I am very reluctant to communicate with foreigners in English in my daily life. I often avoid speaking English when I encounter a foreigner" (UnWTC, male participant, Ninegager).

"I believe that I will be more willing to communicate in English if I improve my vocabulary a bit more. For example, I want to refer to a printer as a printer not as 'a machine for printing text on paper' while I am talking" (WTC, female participant, Snowwhite).

Practice is the second linguistic factor that the participants referred to. Seven of the participants believed that this factor has a great impact on their WTC in English. This was clearly expressed by Madman (UnWTC, male) and Pepe (WTC, female) when they stated:

"I almost never use English in my daily life. I do not practise speaking English with anybody. As I am out of practice, I do not feel myself confident about speaking English. So, I am unwilling to communicate in English" (UnWTC, male participant, Madman).

"I often speak English with people from different countries through online applications. As I practise speaking English every day, I become more willing to communicate in English" (WTC, female participant, Pepe).

As the last linguistic factor, *pronunciation* was reported by three Turkish EFL learners to make a major contribution to their willingness to speak English outside the classroom. Cinnamon (UnWTC, female), for instance, expressed that she loses her enthusiasm for communicating in English when she makes some pronunciation mistakes while speaking English. Below is her statement in full:

"I feel that I have to pronounce all the words perfectly in order to speak English well. So, my pronunciation sounds strange to me when I am not able to pronounce some words incorrectly while speaking English. This dampens my enthusiasm for communicating in English" (UnWTC, female participant, Cinnamon).

Self-perceived Communication Competence: SPCC is another factor that was found to contribute to the participants' readiness to speak English outside the classroom. Among the interviewees, five mentioned that their perceptions on how competent they think are in communicating in English play a key role in their WTC in English. This was clear in the cases of Strawberry (UnWTC, female) and Picasso (WTC, male) who say:

"I do not find myself competent in English. I always think to myself what I will do if I come across a foreigner. My incompetence in English decreases my willingness to communicate in English. If I had a higher confidence in my ability to speak English, I would definitely be more willing to communicate in English" (UnWTC, female participant, Strawberry).

"I am very eager to communicate in English in my daily life because I feel confident about it. I can easily understand people no matter where they come from. I am familiar with different accents of the English language. Thus, I think that I do not have any communication problems" (WTC, male participant, Picasso).

Past Communication Experience: Past communication experience was noted by five of the participants as influencing their WTC in English outside the classroom. Snowwhite (WTC, female), Queen (WTC, female) and Lipstick (WTC, female) explained in the interviews how their positive past experiences positively contributed to their readiness to communicate in English in daily life. They state:

"My willingness to communicate in English comes from my positive past experiences on Erasmus. I had a lot of communication experiences with foreigners" (WTC, female participant, Snowwhite).

"I used to be reluctant to communicate in English. While I was living in Kırklareli, one day I met a Bulgarian woman in a shoe store. She was saying something in English to the store employee in English, but he did not understand what she said. I immediately got involved in their conversation and was able to solve the problem. At that moment, I felt confident that I could do it. Since that day, I have been more willing to speak English" (WTC, female participant, Queen).

"I used to avoid speaking English with customers in the hotels in which I had my summer internship. One day, a customer told me something in English and I was trying to sneak out from there. He stopped me and repeated the same thing more slowly. When I listened to him, I realized that I actually could understand what he said. I could even answer him back. It was a turning point for me. From that day on, I started not to run away from tourists anymore. On the contrary, I tried to initiate communication with them" (WTC, female participant, Lipstick).

Opportunity for Communication: Of the 32 learners who were interviewed, four emphasized the impact of opportunity for communication on their degree of L2 WTC outside the classroom. They mentioned that they do not have any opportunities to communicate in English with foreigners in Balıkesir. This was clearly expressed by Panda (UnWTC, male) and Queen (WTC, female) when they stated:

"I am reluctant to communicate in English because there is no inspiring environment in Balıkesir. If I lived in İstanbul, I would have a very good chance of communicating with so many tourists in English. I would try to communicate with them at least. But why do I speak English with Turkish people in Balıkesir when I can communicate with them in Turkish?" (UnWTC, male participant, Panda).

"I prefer face-to-face communication to online communication. Unfortunately, Balıkesir is not a place in which you have the opportunity to speak English outside the classroom. This affects my willingness to communicate English negatively. I cannot wait for summers to come as I usually work in hotels and have plenty of opportunity for communicating with tourists in English" (WTC, female participant, Queen).

Group Size: Another factor that was found to have an impact on the learners' degree of WTC in English is group size. Two of the participants described this factor as an important contributor to their desire to initiate communication in English. While Amazon (UnWTC, male) stated that he becomes more eager to speak English when he is in a group, Crazy (UnWTC, female) mentioned her willingness to engage in one-to-one conversations.

"I am more willing to communicate in English with other people when we are in a group. But I hesitate to communicate when I need to have a one-to-one conversation" (UnWTC, male participant, Amazon).

"When I have to speak English in a group, I become anxious and reluctant to talk. I am much more comfortable when I have a one-to-one conversation. For example, I am much keener on communicating with a tourist" (UnWTC, female participant, Crazy).

Topic Interest: Topic interest was another factor which makes the learners willing or unwilling to speak English outside the classroom. One of the participants believes that the more interested she is in a certain topic, the more willingness she displays to talk about it. Here is the full statement by Snowwhite (WTC, female):

"I easily get bored and become reluctant to communicate if the other person is talking about the topics that I am not interested in. I am more willing to talk about the topics that I like" (WTC, female participant, Snowwhite).

Ideal L2 Self: Among the 32 EFL learners who were interviewed, one expressed the crucial role of her ideal L2 self in her L2 WTC in daily life. It can be assumed that learners' inner wish to become a successful L2 user and their WTC in English run parallel to each other. Pepe (WTC, female) makes this clear when she says:

"My biggest dream in life is to be able to communicate in English with people from different countries and with different cultural backgrounds. Most of the time I find myself dreaming of it. As I dream of it, I become more motivated to make my dreams come true and thus, I put more effort into improving my English communication skills" (WTC, female participant, Pepe).

Ought-to L2 Self: The learners' ought-to L2 self was also revealed to be a key factor affecting their degree of WTC in English outside the classroom. External pressures from the learners' immediate surroundings to learn English result in their practising English so as to live up to their parents' expectations. This was explicit in a statement by Speedy Gonzalez (UnWTC, male) who claims:

"English is just a necessity for me. My parents constantly put pressure on me to learn English and communicate with foreigners in English. Until now, I have tried to learn English just in order not to fail to meet their expectations. As I have always felt a profound antipathy to learning English, I have no desire to speak English" (UnWTC, male participant, Speedy Gonzales).

Shyness: Shyness is the last factor affecting the Turkish EFL learners' WTC in English outside the classroom. As a personal characteristic, it was mentioned by an interview participant to have a negative effect on L2 WTC. Below is the excerpt from the interview with Crazy (UnWTC, female):

"I am such a shy person that I feel uneasy while I am talking with people even in Turkish. So, I do not prefer to communicate with people in English unless I have to" (UnWTC, female participant, Crazy).

Summary of the Findings

The findings of the study can be summarized in five aspects as follows: the EFL learners' perceived levels of WTC in English inside and outside the classroom; their perceived levels of their ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, L2 learning experience, L2 motivation, L2 anxiety and imagery capacity; the interrelationships between these variables; the evaluation of the hypothesized model of L2 WTC; and the factors influencing the EFL learners' in-class and out-of-class WTC in English. In the current study, the participants' overall WTC in English both inside and outside the classroom was revealed to be moderate. According to the findings, the participants were highly willing to understand an English movie, and engage in a conversation with a stranger inside the classroom. As in inside the classroom, they were also highly willing to understand an English movie and have a conversation with a stranger outside the classroom. The findings also revealed that the participants had a low level of willingness to write a newspaper article, write a story, and be an actor in a play inside the classroom. As for the outside of the classroom, the findings were similar with writing a newspaper article and writing a story having the lowest mean scores. Although the mean scores indicated that their level of in-class WTC in English and out-of-class WTC in English seemed alike to each other, the results of the paired samples t-test demonstrated that there was a statistically significant difference between the participants' perceived levels of their in-class L2 WTC and out-of-class L2 WTC. They appeared to be keener to communicate in English outside the classroom than they did inside the classroom.

The descriptive statistics employed to determine the participants' perceived levels of their ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, L2 learning experience, L2 motivation,

L2 anxiety and imagery capacity demonstrated that the EFL learners' perceived level of their ideal L2 self was moderate. In other words, they possess a moderate level of vision of their future selves as L2 speakers. The findings also revealed that they have a moderate level of ought-to L2 self. Another finding was that the tertiary level Turkish EFL learners have moderate motives associated with the actual English learning setting and experience. Moreover, the participants' perceived levels of their English learning and their English learning anxiety were found to be moderate. As for imagery capacity, the findings indicated that the participants have moderate ability to create visual imagery in their minds.

The results of the Pearson product-moment correlation analysis showed that L2 WTC inside the classroom had a positive correlation with all of the variables except for L2 anxiety. It was negatively correlated with L2 anxiety. Similarly, L2 WTC outside the classroom was positively correlated with all of the variables but L2 anxiety. After the correlation between in-class L2 WTC and out-of-class L2 WTC, the largest statistically significant correlation in the study appeared between L2 WTC outside the classroom and L2 motivation. The smallest significant correlation, on the other hand, was between L2 WTC inside the classroom and ought-to L2 self.

The findings of the path analysis, which was carried out to determine whether the hypothesized model explains the predictive relationships between the variables under investigation, revealed that the initial model did not provide an acceptable fit to the data. Thus, the non-significant paths leading from course achievement to in-class L2 WTC and out-of-class L2 WTC, the one from L2 anxiety to L2 WTC outside the classroom, and the one leading from vocabulary size to L2 WTC inside the classroom were removed from the model. The fit indices showed that the final model provided a good fit to the data. When the direct, indirect and total influences were examined, it was found that L2 motivation had the largest direct and total effect on L2 WTC inside the classroom. In other words, L2 motivation affects in-class L2 WTC and out-of-class L2 WTC both directly and indirectly through the mediation of ideal L2 self. Imagery capacity and ideal L2 self also had much larger influence on in-class L2 WTC than did L2 learning experience, L2 anxiety, and ought-to L2 self. Like L2 motivation, imagery capacity also influences in-class and out-of class L2 WTC both directly and indirectly

through the mediation of ideal L2 self and L2 motivation. Likewise, the results showed both direct and indirect influences of ideal L2 self on out-of-class L2 WTC, with L2 anxiety being the mediator. While significant positive paths leading from L2 motivation, imagery capacity, ideal L2 self, L2 learning experience and ought-to L2 self to L2 WTC inside the classroom were found, the path analysis disclosed a significant negative path from L2 anxiety to L2 WTC inside the classroom. Out-of-class L2 WTC was strongly determined by L2 motivation and imagery capacity. It is clear from the findings that L2 motivation affects L2 WTC outside the classroom both directly and indirectly through the mediation of ideal L2 self. The effect of ideal L2 self on L2 WTC outside the classroom was relatively lower than its effect on in-class L2 WTC. A significant direct path from vocabulary size to L2 WTC outside the classroom was detected although the strength of the effect was small.

The results of the analysis of the interviews demonstrated that L2 WTC inside the classroom is affected by a range of factors. The classroom environmental factors identified as having an impact on L2 WTC were classmates, instructional methods, teacher, atmosphere, materials and class size. Among affective factors, the role of L2 motivation was particularly concluded to be the most crucial factor in determining the learners' in-class WTC in English. L2 motivation was followed by fear of being ridiculed, L2 anxiety and fear of making mistakes respectively. Topic was another factor which was regarded by the participants as an important factor making them willing or unwilling to speak English in class. They highlighted the importance of both topic interest and topic familiarity in their degree of WTC in English. Personal characteristics including shyness and introversion were also reported by the participants to be key factors contributing to their readiness to speak English. Besides, the participants mentioned the effects of linguistic factors such as vocabulary size, pronunciation and practice on their desire to speak English in the classroom. Lastly, SPCC and past communication experience were found to exert influence on in-class L2 WTC.

As for the outside the classroom aspect, affective factors, interlocutor-related factors, linguistic factors, self-perceived communication competence, past communication experience, opportunity for communication, group size, topic interest, ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self and shyness were the factors which were reported by the learners to influence their WTC in English. The affective factors

consisted of L2 motivation, L2 anxiety, fear of making mistakes and fear of being ridiculed. Among the interlocutor-related factors, the role of L2 proficiency of the interlocutor was particularly assumed to be the most important factor in determining the EFL learners' WTC in English outside the classroom. L2 proficiency of the interlocutor was followed by familiarity with interlocutor, Turkish/foreign interlocutor and interlocutor participation respectively. Among the linguistic factors, the participants stressed the importance of their vocabulary size, practice and pronunciation skills in their degree of WTC in English. Other factors reported by the Turkish EFL learners to contribute to their readiness to communicate in English in their daily lives included self-perceived communication competence, past communication experience, opportunity for communication, group size, topic interest, ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self and shyness.

Chapter 5

Discussion

EFL Learners' Perceived Levels of Willingness to Communicate in English inside and outside the Classroom

In the current study, the participants' WTC in English both inside and outside the classroom was discovered to be moderate, which is considerably in line with the previous research studies (Ghonsooly, Hosseini Fatemi, & Khajavy, 2013; Bursalı & Öz, 2017; Çetinkaya, 2005; Mari et al., 2011; Nagy, 2007; Öz, 2014, 2016; Öz et al., 2015; Şener, 2014) in the literature. However, these findings are not consistent with those of Pavičić Takač and Požega (2011) and Wang and Liu (2017) who found that the learners had a low level of L2 WTC. In Bukhari and Cheng's study (2017), which was conducted in the ESL context, on the contrary, the learners' L2 WTC was revealed to be at a high level. This is perhaps because of the significant effect of L2 learning context on an individual's WTC as pointed out by Cameron (2013). It is noteworthy that the L2 WTC level of the EFL learners was found to be moderate in all studies (Bursalı & Öz, 2017; Çetinkaya, 2005; Öz, 2014, 2016; Öz et al., 2015; Şener, 2014) carried out in the Turkish EFL context. Moreover, ESL learners' high willingness to communicate in English reported in Bukhari and Cheng's study (2017) can be attributed to ample opportunities of them to use English in real-life communication. Conversely, EFL learners usually do not have the chance of using the target language outside the classroom (Oxford & Shearin, 1994), which may, in turn, lead to relatively lower levels of L2 WTC.

It was also revealed in this study that there was a statistically significant difference between the participants' perceived levels of their in-class L2 WTC and their out-of-class L2 WTC. The tertiary level Turkish EFL learners seemed to be slightly more willing to speak English outside the classroom than they did inside the classroom. Previous research (Ahola-Houtsonen, 2013; Kostinen, 2015; Nagy, 2007; Peng, 2015) supports the findings regarding learners' higher out-of-class WTC than in-class WTC in English. There may be some possible explanations for this finding. Conversations in a classroom setting usually lack a natural flow since learners must talk and participate in the activities to get a good grade; thus, they think that they must talk correctly, and they feel assessed all the

time (Nagy, 2007). The qualitative results gained from the interviews also demonstrated that teachers attach great importance to correctness of the sentences that the learners form when they are speaking, and that constant error correction of the teacher decreases their WTC in English. Thus, the learners are more likely to maintain their willingness to communicate when they are outside the class and are not being compelled to speak English as they were in the classroom (Peng, 2015). To put it differently, they are more willing to speak English outside the classroom as there is nobody who evaluates what they say (Kostiainen, 2015). Furthermore, the learners mentioned in the interviews that they feel much more comfortable and willing to communicate with people whom they do not know. They complain that their classmates are hunting for the slightest mistake of the person who speaks English, laughing at it out loud and rubbing it into his/her face over and over again. In brief, this study, consistent with previous research, suggested that out-of-class L2 WTC was higher than in-class WTC among EFL learners. This finding implies that L2 WTC is not likely to be one-dimensional phenomenon and its intricacy should be taken into consideration in any attempt to measure it (Peng, 2015).

Evaluation of the Hypothesized Model

The results of the path analysis demonstrated that the initial model did not provide an acceptable fit to the data. The paths leading from course achievement to in-class L2 WTC and out-of-class L2 WTC, the path from L2 anxiety to L2 WTC outside the classroom, and the one leading from vocabulary size to L2 WTC inside the classroom were non-significant. The findings regarding the effect of course achievement on L2 WTC are not in parallel with those of earlier studies (Baghaei et al., 2012; Mahmoodi & Moazam, 2014; Rastegar & Karami, 2015). In the reference studies, a two-way relationship between learners' WTC in English and L2 achievement was noted. Non-significant paths from course achievement to both in-class L2 WTC and out-of-class L2 WTC may be due to the fact that the tertiary level ELF learners' achievement in the English course was not assessed in a valid, reliable, and fair manner. The path from L2 anxiety to out-of-class L2 WTC was also not significant. This suggests that the learners' English learning anxiety exerts influence on their readiness to enter into discussion only

inside the classroom, which corresponds to the prior studies (Peng, 2015; Peng & Woodrow, 2010). Lastly, the non-significant path leading from vocabulary size to L2 WTC inside the classroom implies that vocabulary size, as a linguistic variable, contributes to learners' L2 WTC only outside the classroom.

After these non-significant paths were eliminated from the model, the fit indices showed that the final model indicated a good fit to the data. That is, the model explained the predictive relationships between the variables under investigation. When the direct, indirect and total effects were examined, it was found that L2 motivation had the largest direct and total effect on L2 WTC inside the classroom. The significant positive influence of motivation on L2 WTC was anticipated and supported the findings of the earlier studies (Bo-tong, 2012; Çetinkaya, 2005; Hashimoto, 2002; MacIntyre & Charos, 1996; MacIntyre et al., 2001; Peng, 2007; Peng & Woodrow, 2010; Yashima, 2002; Yashima et al., 2004). Therefore, it can be suggested that learners who have higher levels of motivation to learn an L2 are more eager to use that second language in the classroom than those with lower levels of motivation. As Peng (2007) claims, in an EFL context, motivation provides a key stimulus for learners' perseverance in both target language learning and possibly target language communication. The findings also showed that L2 motivation affects in-class and out-of-class L2 WTC both directly and indirectly through the mediation of ideal L2 self. Despite some exceptions (Ghonsooly et al., 2012; Peng & Woodrow, 2010, Yashima, 2002; Yashima et al., 2004; Yu, 2009), the findings concerning the direct influence of L2 motivation on L2 WTC are in line with the results of the previous studies carried out in EFL and ESL contexts (Baker & MacIntyre, 2000; Fallah, 2014; Hashimoto, 2002; Jung, 2011; MacIntyre & Charos, 1996; MacIntyre & Clément, 1996; MacIntyre et al., 2002; Peng, 2007). The indirect influence of L2 motivation on L2 WTC was also reported previously by some researchers (Al-amrani, 2013; Çetinkaya, 2005; MacIntyre et al., 2002; Öz et al., 2015; Yashima; 2002). However, it is noteworthy that the present study discloses the indirect influence of L2 motivation on L2 WTC by means of ideal L2 self contrary to previous studies which indicate an indirect path from L2 motivation to L2 WTC through the mediation of self-perceived communication competence (Al-amrani, 2013; Çetinkaya, 2005; MacIntyre et al., 2002; Öz et al., 2015), communication anxiety (Öz et al., 2015) and self-

confidence (Yashima; 2002). To put it simply, learners' L2 motivation is linked to their inner wish to become a successful second language user, which in turn affects their WTC in English. It appears that motivated learners imagine themselves as more fluent L2 speakers than less motivated ones, which leads them to display higher WTC in English.

As the second most significant predictor of L2 WTC, imagery capacity was also found to influence in-class and out-of-class L2 WTC both directly and indirectly through the mediation of ideal L2 self and L2 motivation. Thus, this study marks the first step towards demonstrating the significant effect of imagery capacity (i.e. vision) on L2 WTC. It can be said that learners' capabilities to build visual imagery in their minds significantly contribute to their L2 WTC. The findings of this particular study also confirm that imagery capacity is a strong predictor of ideal L2 self as supported by many earlier studies (Al-Shehri, 2009; Demir Ayaz, 2016; Dörnyei & Chan, 2013; Kim, 2009; Kim & Kim, 2011; Yang & Kim, 2011). This implies that the learners with a high imagery capacity can create a clearer and more accessible vision of their ideal L2 self, which results in higher L2 WTC.

As aforementioned, an indirect effect of imagery capacity on L2 WTC through the mediation of L2 motivation was found in this study. The link between imagery capacity and motivation revealed in this study has also been validated by previous empirical research (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013; Murphey et al., 2012; Magid & Chan, 2012; Murray, 2013; Sampson, 2012). It has been noted that learners who have a stronger and clearer ideal L2 self-image tend to be more motivated to pursue their language goals than learners who have not expressed a desired future goal-state for themselves (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013). Their high level of motivation to learn English, in turn, positively affects their communication behavior and in-class and out-of-class WTC in English. All in all, the dynamic and significant relationships between imagery capacity, ideal L2 self, L2 motivation, and L2 WTC can be summarized by Peng's (2015) argument that energized by imagination, learners envision themselves as "English-using selves" (Dörnyei, 2009), which positively affect their English learning motivation and WTC in English.

Another major finding of this research study is the significant relationship between ideal L2 self and L2 WTC. The significant direct effect of ideal L2 self on both in-class and out-of-class L2 WTC corroborates the results of previous studies

that report positive correlations between ideal L2 self and L2 WTC (Bursalı & Öz, 2017; Kanat-Mutluoğlu, 2016; Kim, 2009; Munezane, 2013, 2014; Noels, 2009; Öz, 2016; Öz et al., 2015). The direct path from ideal L2 self to L2 WTC means that EFL learners who envision more of their self-actualizing future selves using L2 as proficient speakers display more willingness to engage in L2 communication. More imagination leads to more L2 WTC, encouraging learners to connect the L2 classroom with their future (Munezane, 2014). As pointed out by Öz (2016), learners' ideal L2 self images have the potential to motivate them to communicate in the target language. In the current study, ideal L2 self was also revealed to have an indirect impact on in-class L2 WTC via L2 anxiety. Ideal L2 self had a negative impact on L2 anxiety, which corresponds to Papi's (2010) and Peng's (2015) findings. EFL learners who have strong ideal L2 selves tend to align their desires to L2-related attributes anticipated in L2 communication situations that might diminish their anxiety, thereby fostering their WTC in English.

L2 learning experience, which is another dimension of L2 motivational self system, was found to directly influence learners' WTC in English inside the classroom as hypothesized in the path model. Thus, it can be suggested that learners' situational motives associated with the actual learning setting and experience such as the effect of the teacher, the curriculum and the classroom environment have an impact on their readiness to enter into discourse in L2 classroom. It was also supported by the qualitative data obtained from the interviews. The classroom environmental factors including classmates, instructional methods, teacher, classroom atmosphere, materials and class size were identified as having an effect on tertiary level Turkish EFL learners' WTC in English. The direct influence of L2 learning experience on in-class WTC in English is in parallel with the previous results of the studies in the field (Peng, 2015; Peng & Woodrow, 2010). As the last dimension of L2 motivational self system, ought-to L2 self was revealed to have no direct effect on L2 WTC. Although the strength of the effect was small, it was discovered to indirectly affect learners' L2 WTC via L2 anxiety, which is a finding supported by Peng (2015). Interestingly, as the path model demonstrates, ought-to L2 self was positively correlated to L2 anxiety. This implies that externally imposed self-construal can raise EFL learners' English learning anxiety, thereby lowering their WTC in English.

A significant direct negative impact of English learning anxiety on in-class WTC in English was also a core finding of the study. It indicates that when Turkish EFL learners have a low level of English learning anxiety, they are more eager to speak English inside the classroom. This finding is consistent with the L2 WTC model of MacIntyre and Charos (1996) which brings in the notion of WTC to second language learning and earlier empirical research conducted across different contexts such as in Japan (Hashimoto, 2002; Matsuoka, 2005; Yashima, 2002), Turkey (Çetinkaya, 2005; Şener, 2014), South Korea (Kim, 2004), Iran (Alemi & Pashmforoosh, 2012; Bahadori & Hashemizadeh, 2018; Khajavy et al., 2014; Rastegar & Karami, 2015) and China (Peng, 2007, 2015; Peng & Woodrow, 2010; Xie, 2011). Therefore, it can be suggested that learners who have high levels of anxiety are likely to remain silent and reluctant or less eager to take part in L2 communication. In the EFL context, Peng (2007) discovered a number of factors causing anxiety in L2 classroom. Similar factors were found through qualitative inquiry in the present study. Qualitative content analysis of the interview data showed that the Turkish EFL learners develop speaking anxiety due to a fear of making mistakes and being ridiculed in the classroom, which results in their unwillingness to speak English in class. It is indisputable that speaking English is demanding for learners because of a variety of factors causing anxiety in language learning classrooms.

Finally, a significant direct positive path from vocabulary size to L2 WTC outside the classroom was detected although the strength of the effect was small. The results showed that learners' vocabulary knowledge is a predictor of their out-of-class WTC in English. Some studies in the realm of L2 learning which support that finding are available. As a linguistic variable, vocabulary size was found to significantly contribute to Iranian EFL learners' WTC in Yaghoobi's (2010) study. Similarly, Cao (2005) reported insufficient L2 vocabulary as an important factor influencing the learners' SPCC, which in turn affects their L2 WTC at times. In the interviews, the Turkish EFL learners reported that they find their English vocabulary size so small that they do not feel confident about conveying their ideas. This causes them to avoid communicating with foreigners in English. Peng (2012) also asserts that lack of vocabulary greatly restrains learners' L2 WTC as they experience some difficulties in retrieving correct words in English while

speaking. Although the quantitative findings did not indicate any significant effect of vocabulary size on L2 WTC inside the classroom, the qualitative findings indicated that the learners' vocabulary knowledge is a contributable factor to their in-class L2 WTC as well. The EFL learners attributed their unwillingness to speak English in the classroom to their insufficient vocabulary knowledge. Hence, as building blocks of language from which the larger structures are constructed (Read, 2000), vocabulary knowledge can be said to play a major role in learners' L2 communication behavior and their readiness to initiate communication in the target language.

To conclude, the results of the earlier research were well supported in the current study except for the finding regarding the non-significant effect of course achievement on L2 WTC. In parallel with the results of the earlier studies (Bo-tong, 2012; Çetinkaya, 2005; Hashimoto, 2002; MacIntyre & Charos, 1996; MacIntyre et al., 2001; Peng, 2007; Peng & Woodrow, 2010; Yashima, 2002; Yashima et al., 2004), a significant positive effect of L2 motivation on in-class and out-of-class L2 WTC was found. Therefore, it is suggested as a conclusion of the study that learners who have higher levels of motivation to learn the L2 are more willing to use that L2 than those with lower levels of motivation. This study marks the first step towards showing the significant effect of imagery capacity on L2 WTC, which implies that learners' capabilities to build visual imagery in their minds significantly contribute to their L2 WTC. Another major finding of this research study is the significant connection between ideal L2 self and L2 WTC, which corroborates the results of earlier studies (Bursalı & Öz, 2017; Kanat-Mutluoğlu, 2016; Kim, 2009; Munezane, 2013, 2014; Noels, 2009; Öz, 2016; Öz et al., 2015). This means that EFL learners who envision more of their self-actualizing future selves using L2 as proficient speakers are more willing to take part in L2 communication. The revealed direct positive influence of L2 learning experience on in-class L2 WTC is in line with the findings of the prior research in the field (Peng, 2015; Peng & Woodrow, 2010). Thus, it can be suggested that learners' situation-specific motives associated with the actual learning setting and experience have an impact on their readiness to enter into discourse in L2 classroom. Although the strength of the effect was small, ought-to L2 self was discovered to indirectly affect learners' L2 WTC through L2 anxiety, which is a finding supported by Peng (2015). It is

concluded from this finding that externally imposed self-construal can raise EFL learners' English learning anxiety, thereby lowering their WTC in English. A significant direct negative influence of L2 anxiety on L2 WTC inside the classroom was also a core finding of the study, which is consistent with previous empirical research carried out across different contexts. This implies that learners who have high levels of anxiety tend to stay quiet and reluctant or less eager to engage in L2 communication. Lastly, supported by the findings of several studies in the field (Cao, 2005, 2011; Peng, 2012; Yaghoobi, 2010), vocabulary size was revealed to play an important role in language learners' L2 communication behaviour and their readiness to initiate communication in English.

The Factors Influencing EFL Learners' Willingness to Communicate in English inside and outside the Classroom

The variables affecting EFL learners' WTC in English were generally similar to those found in the quantitative phase of the study. As a result of the qualitative content analysis of the interviews, L2 motivation, L2 anxiety, vocabulary size, ideal L2 self and ought-to L2 self were revealed to contribute to the learners' WTC in English. Different from the factors identified through the quantitative analysis, classmates, instructional methods, teacher, classroom atmosphere, materials, class size, fear of being ridiculed, fear of making mistakes, topic interest, topic familiarity, shyness, introversion, pronunciation skills, practice, self-perceived communication competence, and past communication experience were detected as having an impact on in-class L2 WTC. As for the out-of-class aspect, fear of making mistakes, fear of being ridiculed, L2 proficiency of interlocutor, familiarity with interlocutor, Turkish/foreign interlocutor, interlocutor participation, practice, pronunciation, self-perceived communication competence, past communication experience, opportunity for communication, group size, topic interest, ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self and shyness were found to contribute to the learners' WTC in English. It is clear from the findings that there are different determinants of L2 WTC inside and outside the classroom. This indicates that L2 WTC might function in different ways across situations (Peng, 2015).

To begin with, classmates is the factor which exerts the greatest influence on the learners' willingness to speak English in the classroom. The Turkish EFL

learners' different language proficiency, different attitudes, and their relationship with each other were reported to affect their in-class L2 WTC. Similar to the findings of Svensson's (2016) study, the learners experience that these differences between them often affect their L2 WTC negatively and thereby their oral production skills development. The EFL learners want to interact with their classmates who are at their level, who are willing to speak English, and who take the English course seriously. Furthermore, some learners mention that there is no time for them to speak as their classmates with high L2 WTC take up all of the communication space. This was also supported by Yu (2015) who argues that learners with high L2 WTC intrude on the communication space of the students with low WTC and that this reduces their L2 WTC even more. Thus, there is a risk that learners with high L2 WTC will dominate the whole conversation and demotivate the other learners (Pawlak & Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2015).

The EFL learners also stated that their WTC in English depends on the instructional methods and materials used to teach the content. They complained about the lack of instructional methods and materials which give them the opportunity to speak English in the classroom. They mentioned that they get bored easily and thus they are often reluctant to speak English in the English classes because their instructor does not use any other materials apart from the coursebook. According to Dörnyei (2007), long-lasting L2 learning occurs not just by offering cognitively sufficient instructional practices but learning settings should also give enough enjoyment and encouragement to generate motivation in the learners. Increased motivation, in turn, often leads to higher levels of WTC in English (Peng, 2007).

The teacher-related factors were also found to have an impact on the learners' eagerness to communicate in English. According to the qualitative findings, lack of support from the teacher leads to a decrease in the learners' in-class L2 WTC. Kang (2005) and Peng (2007) stress the importance of social support from teachers in creating security and situational L2 WTC. To put it simply, teacher support plays a key role in fostering a safe classroom environment to boost L2 communication (Cao, 2009). Similar to the findings of Khosravizadeh and Sadat Pakzadian's (2013) study which investigates the relationship between EFL teacher's gender and learners' WTC, the sex of the teacher was identified as a

factor influencing the learners' WTC in English in class in the current study as well. Another teacher-related factor having a role to play in affecting learners' L2 WTC was teacher's classroom management skills, which is in line with previous research (Cao, 2009). The participants also reported that they are more willing to communicate with a foreign teacher when compared to a Turkish teacher. This finding is consistent with that of Miller and Pearson's (2013) study, in which learners were reported to be keener to communicate with a native English-speaking teacher when compared to a Chinese teacher. According to the tertiary level Turkish EFL learners, foreign teachers only attach importance to their ability to express themselves and do not care whether they construct grammatically correct sentences or not. They mention that Turkish instructors of English, on the other hand, attach great importance to correctness of the sentences that they form when they are speaking. They complain that they always correct their mistakes and mention that this reduces their enthusiasm for speaking English. This is well supported by Zarrinabadi (2014) who concludes that when the teacher's correction immediately follows the learner's error, it is likely to decrease his/her L2 WTC. The significant effect of teacher's error correction on L2 WTC was also reported in other previous studies (Kang, 2005; MacIntyre et al., 2011). All in all, the aforementioned teacher-related factors lead to the inescapable conclusion that teacher has a significant effect on learners' L2 WTC in the classroom.

The qualitative findings of the current study confirm that classroom atmosphere contributes enormously to the learners' WTC in English as supported by many previous studies (Ghonsooly et al, 2013; Joe et al., 2017; Khajavy et al., 2014; Khajavy et al., 2017; Peng 2009; Peng & Woodrow, 2010; Riasati, 2012; Robson, 2015). The EFL learners contended that they feel more willing to speak English in a stress-free environment where there is a friendly rapport between the teacher and the students. Moreover, they stated that a noisy class hinders their participation and learning. As Joe and associates (2017) argue, classroom social climate directly influences the satisfaction of learners' basic psychological needs, thereby positively affecting the development of the more self-directed forms of motivation which results in higher levels of L2 WTC. A positive classroom environment also reduces anxiety among learners and fosters enjoyment and L2 WTC (Khajavy et al., 2017).

Class size was also revealed to have an impact on the EFL learners' in-class WTC in English. The findings indicated that the learners' WTC in English decreases as class size increases. This result is expected and in line with Wells and Chang-Well's (1992) claim that smaller classes are more conducive to produce higher participation. Aubrey (2010) also suggests that the learners in a larger class have less opportunity to talk than those in smaller class. On the contrary, the learners in smaller classes have enough opportunity to practise and build their self-confidence, which increases their enthusiasm for speaking English (Khazaei et al., 2012). Furthermore, group size was reported by the Turkish EFL learners as a factor influencing their degree of WTC in English outside the classroom, which is a finding similar to that of Cao and Philp's (2006) study. However, no generalization can be made about what is the ideal group size for promoting learners' L2 WTC. Some learners stated that they become more eager to speak English when they are in a group while others mentioned their higher willingness to engage in one-to-one conversations.

The results of the current study shed light on the fact that fear of making mistakes and fear of being ridiculed by others are important factors leading to both in-class and out-of-class unwillingness to speak English. The Turkish EFL learners feel ashamed and embarrassed when they make some mistakes, particularly in grammar and pronunciation, while speaking English. This may result from their tendency to be other-directed, which is a determinant of learners' L2 WTC (Jung, 2011; Wen & Clément, 2003). They are concerned about the way in which they are perceived by others (Matsuoka, 2005). Similarly, their second main concern is their fear of being ridiculed by others (Nagy, 2007). In the classroom context, for instance, they complained that some of their classmates are hunting for the slightest mistake of the person who is speaking English, laughing at it out loud and rubbing it into his/her face over and over again. Since they do not feel comfortable in class, they do not want to speak English unless they have to. Therefore, L2 WTC is partially influenced by how much the learners are ready to take the risk of losing face.

Topic of discussion is another factor which was found to have an impact on the EFL learners' WTC in English. According to the participants of this study, topic familiarity and topic interest are the essential features of a certain topic which play

a major role in making them willing or unwilling to communicate in English. Thus, a learner's lack of knowledge of or interest in a certain topic may reduce his/her WTC in English. This research study replicates the results of the previous studies (Cao, 2009; Cao & Philp, 2006; Kang, 2005; Liu, 2005; Nagy, 2007; Pawlak & Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2015; Riasati, 2012, 2015) regarding the effect of topic on learners' level of L2 WTC. In their model of L2 WTC, MacIntyre et al. (1998) argue that topic has a great influence on the ease of language use. Topic familiarity may result in a boost in an individual's linguistic self-confidence whereas lack of knowledge about a topic may impede communication. Moreover, learners appear to have the greatest degree of WTC about a topic they are interested in whereas they are unwilling to talk about the topics that they find boring (Kang, 2006; Liu, 2005)

Personal characteristics including shyness and introversion were also reported by the tertiary level Turkish EFL learners to be key factors contributing to their readiness to speak English. Shyness was identified to have a negative impact on learners' desire to enter into a discourse in English, which is consistent with previous research (Chu, 2008; Fallah, 2014; Riasati, 2012). As shy learners have too much self-focused attention, less self-confidence and low self-esteem (Crozier, 2001), they may tend to deliberately avoid participating in class discussions or daily conversations (Fallah, 2014). The missed opportunities for practising speaking cause low motivation to learn English, thereby decreasing their WTC in English. As for introversion, it was also found to be negatively correlated with the Turkish EFL learners' L2 WTC. Deducing from the findings that extroverts tend to talk more than introverts, McCroskey and Richmond (1990) argue that introversion is an antecedent of WTC. It is also suggested that extroverts appear to have a higher SPCC, which in turn leads them to have a higher level of WTC in English (Çetinkaya, 2005). Moreover, as extrovert learners are likely to be socially active individuals and thus have more opportunities to gain communicative experience, they tend to have lower communication anxiety and higher L2 WTC (MacIntyre et al., 1999).

In the current study, as linguistic factors, pronunciation and practice were found to influence L2 WTC. The EFL learners mentioned that their motivation drops a lot when someone says something negative about their pronunciation

while they are speaking English and that they immediately want to stop talking at that moment. Thus, it can be said that low self-assessment in pronunciation and fear of negative evaluation cause lack of L2 self-confidence and high unwillingness to speak English as also supported by Baran-Lucarz's study (2014). Besides, the EFL learners reported the positive effect of practice on their readiness to enter into a discourse. They believe that the more they practise speaking English, the more willing they become to communicate in English. This confirms Yashima and associates' (2004) finding that frequency and amount of L2 communication significantly contribute to L2 WTC.

SPCC, which is considered to be one of the key variables underlying L2 WTC (MacIntyre et al., 1998), was also revealed to be an important factor influencing the Turkish EFL learners' WTC in English in the current study. As shown by previous research (Bahadori & Hashemizadeh, 2018; Cao, 2011; Hashimoto, 2002; Khajavy et al., 2014; Matsuoka, 2006; Öz et al., 2015; Peng & Woodrow, 2010; Piechurska-Kuciel, 2014; Riasati, 2012; Şener, 2014; Yashima, 2002; Yashima et al., 2004; Yousef et al., 2013), learners who have higher SPCC are more eager to communicate in English than the ones who perceive their communication competence as low. Moreover, it is argued that it is not what learners actually can do but what they believe they can do which affects their willingness to communicate (Barracough et al., 1988; McCroskey & Richmond, 1990; McCroskey, 1977). This implies that a learner's SPCC may be more important than his/her actual ability to communicate.

The qualitative findings also demonstrated that the learners' past communication experience determines their choice to initiate a conversation in English with a particular person. The learners' previous negative experiences in English communication lead to their communication anxiety, which results in their unwillingness to communicate in English whereas positive past experiences motivate them to speak English. The results are similar to those of other WTC studies (Çetinkaya, 2005; Jung, 2011). It is asserted that learners' L2 anxiety stems mainly from their unpleasant past experiences in the L2 classroom (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989, 1991; Samimy & Rardin, 1994). Their communication anxiety leads to sense of helplessness and reluctance to communicate in English.

Similar to previous research findings (Cao & Philp, 2006; Cao, 2009; Kang, 2005; Kostiainen, 2015; Liu, 2005; Pawlak & Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2015; Riasati, 2012; Xie, 2011), the interlocutor factor seemed to exert influence on the learners' degree of WTC in English. The first interlocutor-related issue that came up in the present study was the L2 proficiency of interlocutor. In the interviews, several participants mentioned that it influences their WTC in English negatively when they need to speak with someone who is more proficient in the target language than they are. This corroborates the findings of the previous studies (Kang, 2005; Kostiainen, 2015). The EFL learners seem to feel less secure and unwilling to communicate in English when the interlocutor is more proficient than they are. However, there were some participants who expressed the opposite view. In line with the findings of Cao's (2009) study, the learners seemed to be more willing to talk to someone with higher proficiency since they could have the opportunity to benefit from being corrected by a more competent interlocutor. The second interlocutor-related issue was familiarity with interlocutor. Intriguingly, the Turkish EFL learners stated that they are more willing to communicate in English with people whom they do not know than with people whom they know. They added that they feel very comfortable in speaking English with people whom they do not know and that they do not experience the fear of being put to shame while talking with them. This contradicts the previous research findings (Cao & Philp, 2006; Kang, 2005), which suggest that learners are keener to communicate in English with people they know. Besides, whether the interlocutor is a Turkish person or a foreigner has an impact on the learners' level of out-of-class WTC in English. The learners reported that they are more eager to speak English when the interlocutor is a foreigner than a Turkish person as they believe that Turkish people are inclined to make fun of people who make some mistakes while speaking English. The last interlocutor-related issue was interlocutor participation. According to the learners, the interlocutor's degree of WTC and participation is a primary impetus for them to contribute to the conversation, which is a finding also supported by Kostiainen's (2015) and Cao and Philip's (2006) studies. Thus, it can be suggested that interlocutor's active participation in communication increases the L2 WTC of learners.

The last factor influencing EFL learners' WTC in English was opportunity for communication. The learners reported that they do not have any opportunities to communicate with foreigners in Balıkesir and that this affects their WTC in English negatively. The findings are congruent with those of the prior empirical research (Pathan & Shahriar, 2011; Xie, 2011) and support MacIntyre and Charos' (1996) assertion that increased opportunities for interaction have a positive impact on an individual's L2 WTC. Thus, learners' intention to take part in L2 communication is partially determined by how much opportunity they have to use that second language.



Chapter 6

Conclusion and Suggestions

Summary of the Study

The present study was conducted to investigate Turkish EFL learners' perceived levels of WTC in English inside and outside the classroom. It also aimed to explore the probable interrelationships between L2 WTC and some major affective (i.e. ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, L2 learning experience, imagery capacity, L2 motivation, L2 anxiety) and linguistic factors (i.e. vocabulary size and course achievement) through path analysis. Furthermore, Turkish EFL learners' perceptions about the factors influencing their in-class and out-of-class WTC in English were examined in this research study. It was expected that these investigations would shed light on the advancements in the realm of foreign language education in Turkey by providing new information that would be helpful and effective for EFL teachers, instructors, curriculum and material developers, and teacher trainers.

The study employed a mixed methods sequential explanatory research design, which consisted of both quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis methods in two distinct interactive phases. The study started with the collection and analysis of quantitative data, which was followed by the collection and analysis of qualitative data. From the non-probability sampling procedures, convenience sampling method was employed to collect quantitative data from the participants as they were selected on the basis of certain practical criteria such as geographical proximity, availability at a certain time, easy accessibility and willingness to volunteer. The participants of the quantitative aspect of the study consisted of 701 Turkish EFL learners enrolled in the departments of Tourism Guidance and Tourism Management at Balıkesir University Faculty of Tourism in Balıkesir, Turkey with a nearly balanced distribution between day and evening classes. In order to collect the qualitative data, on the other hand, criterion sampling method was used as the researcher aimed to collect data from both the students who were more willing to communicate and the ones who were less willing to communicate in English. A total of 32 learners, 16 with highest and 16 with lowest mean scores in L2 WTC were selected for the interviews. The

quantitative data were collected from the composite survey instrument and the vocabulary size test whereas the qualitative data were obtained from the semi-structured interviews. L2 WTC Scale by MacIntyre and his associates (2001), Ideal L2 Self Scale and Ought-to L2 Self Scale by Taguchi et al. (2009), L2 Learning Experience Scale by Papi (2010), Motivated Behavior and Effort Scale by Al-Shehri (2009), L2 Anxiety Scale by Ryan (2009) and Imagery Capacity Instrument by Richardson (1994) were combined to form the 109-item composite survey instrument of this study. For all instruments, 5 point Likert scale was used. Except for the scales of L2 WTC, L2 learning experience and L2 anxiety, the Turkish versions of the scales adapted from Demir Ayaz (2016) were used. The scales of L2 WTC, L2 learning experience and L2 anxiety were translated into Turkish through translation and back translation methods. The 150-item Vocabulary Levels Test Version 2 (Schmitt et al., 2001) was employed to measure the vocabulary size of the participants. The psychometric properties (reliability and validity) of the instruments were verified. Additionally, semi-structured interviews were employed to gather qualitative data and enrich the quantitative data. Course achievement of the participants was evaluated using the composite scores of the term. Preliminary analyses were conducted to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality and linearity. The data were both qualitatively and quantitatively analyzed. The quantitative data obtained from the questionnaires were analyzed descriptively using IBM SPSS 21. Descriptive statistics (frequencies, percentages, and means) were used. The relationships between the Turkish EFL learners' WTC in English inside the classroom, WTC in English outside the classroom, ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, L2 learning experience, L2 motivation, L2 anxiety, imagery capacity, vocabulary size and their course achievement were explored through Pearson product-moment correlation analysis. The hypothesized relationships between the variables of interest were tested by means of the path analysis technique which was conducted using LISREL 8.80. The qualitative data gained from the semi-structured interviews were analyzed through qualitative content analysis.

The main findings of the study are presented below:

1. The first research question aimed to explore the participants' perceived levels of WTC in English inside and outside the classroom. The participants were found to have a moderate level of WTC in English both inside and outside the

classroom. Furthermore, the findings revealed that there was a statistically significant difference between the participants' perceived levels of their in-class L2 WTC and their perceived levels of their out-of-class L2 WTC. They appeared to be more willing to communicate in English outside the classroom than they did inside the classroom.

2. The research questions 2-7 concerned the participants' perceived levels of their ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, L2 learning experience, L2 motivation, L2 anxiety and imagery capacity. The findings indicated that the Turkish EFL learners have a moderate level of ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, L2 learning experience, L2 motivation, L2 anxiety and imagery capacity.

3. The next research question investigated the interrelationships between the Turkish EFL learners' WTC in English inside the classroom, WTC in English outside the classroom, ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, L2 learning experience, L2 motivation, L2 anxiety, imagery capacity, vocabulary size and their course achievement. The results showed that L2 WTC inside the classroom had a positive correlation with all of the variables except for L2 anxiety. It was negatively correlated with L2 anxiety. Similarly, L2 WTC outside the classroom was found to be positively correlated with all of the variables but L2 anxiety. Other significant correlations were also revealed (see Table 20); however, after the correlation between in-class L2 WTC and out-of-class L2 WTC, the largest statistically significant correlation in the study appeared between L2 WTC outside the classroom and L2 motivation. The smallest one, on the other hand, was between L2 WTC inside the classroom and ought-to L2 self.

4. The purpose of the ninth research question was to determine if the hypothesized model explains the predictive relationships between the variables under investigation. The result of the path analysis indicated that the initial model does not provide an adequate fit to the data. Thus, the non-significant paths leading from course achievement to in-class L2 WTC and out-of-class L2 WTC, the one from L2 anxiety to L2 WTC outside the classroom, and the path leading from vocabulary size to L2 WTC inside the classroom were removed from the model. The fit indices showed that the final model provided a good fit to the data. When the direct, indirect and total effects were examined, it was found that L2 motivation exerted the largest direct effect and total effect on L2 WTC inside the

classroom. In other words, L2 motivation affects in-class L2 WTC and out-of-class L2 WTC both directly and indirectly through the mediation of ideal L2 self. Imagery capacity and ideal L2 self also had much greater effect on in-class L2 WTC than did L2 learning experience, L2 anxiety, and ought-to L2 self. Like L2 motivation, imagery capacity also influences in-class and out-of class L2 WTC both directly and indirectly through the mediation of ideal L2 self and L2 motivation. Likewise, the results showed both direct and indirect effects of ideal L2 self on L2 WTC inside the classroom, with L2 anxiety being the mediator. While significant positive paths leading from L2 motivation, imagery capacity, ideal L2 self, L2 learning experience and ought-to L2 self to L2 WTC inside the classroom were found, the results of the path analysis disclosed a significant negative path from L2 anxiety to L2 WTC inside the classroom. L2 WTC outside the classroom was strongly predicted by L2 motivation and imagery capacity. It is clear from the findings that L2 motivation affects L2 WTC outside the classroom both directly and indirectly through the mediation of ideal L2 self. The effect of ideal L2 self on out-of-class L2 WTC was relatively lower than its effect on in-class L2 WTC. A significant direct path from vocabulary size to L2 WTC outside the classroom was detected although the strength of the effect was small.

5. The last research question was related to the EFL learners' perceptions of the factors influencing their in-class and out-of-class WTC in English. In-class L2 WTC was found to be affected by classroom environmental factors (i.e. classmates, instructional methods, teacher, atmosphere, materials and class size), affective factors (i.e. L2 motivation, fear of being ridiculed, L2 anxiety and fear of making mistakes), topic (i.e. topic interest and topic familiarity), personal characteristics (i.e. shyness and introversion), linguistic factors (i.e. vocabulary size, pronunciation and practice), self-perceived communication competence and past communication experience. As for the outside the classroom aspect, affective factors (i.e. L2 motivation, L2 anxiety, fear of making mistakes and fear of being ridiculed), interlocutor-related factors (i.e. L2 proficiency of the interlocutor, familiarity with interlocutor, Turkish/foreign interlocutor and interlocutor participation), linguistic factors (i.e. vocabulary size, practice and pronunciation skills), self-perceived communication competence, past communication experience, opportunity for communication, group size, topic interest, ideal L2 self,

ought-to L2 self and shyness were the factors which were reported by the participants to influence their WTC in English.

Conclusion of the Study

This study examined tertiary level Turkish EFL learners' perceived levels of WTC in English inside and outside the classroom and tested a model of L2 WTC by exploring the causal paths among L2 WTC and a series of affective and linguistic variables among tertiary level Turkish EFL learners. The study also revealed the factors underlying L2 WTC within the classroom environment and outside the classroom as well. The findings emerged in the current study showed that tertiary level EFL learners in Turkish educational context have a moderate level of WTC in English both inside and outside the classroom. They were also found to be more eager to communicate in English outside the classroom than they are in the classroom.

The final model of L2 WTC showed a good fit to dataset concerning the evaluated variables. Among the variables tested, L2 motivation and imagery capacity seemed to be the most significant determinants of L2 WTC both inside and outside the classroom. It was found that L2 motivation affects L2 WTC inside the classroom and L2 WTC outside the classroom both directly and indirectly through the mediation of ideal L2 self. Like L2 motivation, imagery capacity was also revealed to influence in-class and out-of class L2 WTC both directly and indirectly through the mediation of ideal L2 self and L2 motivation. L2 WTC outside the classroom was also strongly predicted by L2 motivation and imagery capacity. It is clear from the findings that L2 motivation affects L2 WTC outside the classroom both directly and indirectly through the mediation of ideal L2 self. Another line of findings indicated both direct and indirect influences of ideal L2 self on L2 WTC inside the classroom, with L2 anxiety being the mediator. The effect of ideal L2 self on L2 WTC outside the classroom was relatively lower than its effect on in-class L2 WTC. Ought-to L2 self, L2 learning experience, and L2 anxiety proved to be significant predictors of L2 WTC only inside the classroom. While ought-to L2 self and L2 learning experience had a positive impact on in-class L2 WTC, L2 anxiety was revealed to have a negative influence on L2 WTC inside the

classroom. Moreover, vocabulary size was revealed to exert positive effect on L2 WTC outside the classroom although the strength of the effect was small.

It was further elaborated in the interviews that L2 WTC, as a complex construct, is affected by a great number of psychological, linguistic, contextual, and instructional factors. In the current study, L2 WTC inside the classroom was revealed to be affected by such factors as classmates, instructional methods, teacher, atmosphere, materials, class size, L2 motivation, fear of being ridiculed, L2 anxiety, fear of making mistakes, topic interest, topic familiarity, shyness, introversion, vocabulary size, pronunciation, practice, self-perceived communication competence and past communication experience. L2 WTC outside the classroom, on the other hand, was found to be influenced by a variety of factors including L2 motivation, L2 anxiety, fear of making mistakes and fear of being ridiculed, L2 proficiency of the interlocutor, familiarity with interlocutor, Turkish/foreign interlocutor, interlocutor participation, vocabulary size, practice, pronunciation, self-perceived communication competence, past communication experience, opportunity for communication, group size, topic interest, ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, and shyness.

Methodological Implications of the Study

This study was performed using a mixed-methods research design. Therefore, triangulation was achieved by collecting the data from different sources in such a way as to combine the advantages of both the qualitative and quantitative approach. The qualitative methods combined with the quantitative ones increased the credibility of the research (Brown, 2001). The quantitative data were collected from the questionnaires and the vocabulary size test whereas the qualitative data were gained from the interviews. While most previous L2 WTC research investigated variables affecting learners' L2 WTC through questionnaires, very few have examined the construct through interviews as in this study. Semi-structured interviews gave the researcher the opportunity to probe learners' self-reported opinions or attitudes (Mackey & Gass, 2005). However, such data collection instruments as classroom observations, stimulated-recalls, and reflective journals may be considered as more appropriate tools for measuring

situational L2 WTC and gaining a fuller understanding of the dynamic nature of L2 WTC.

There is, in addition, one further methodological implication to be drawn from this study. When previous studies on WTC are examined, it is seen that most of the studies used the WTC scale that belongs to McCroskey (1992). Nevertheless, as this scale measures the degree of general WTC, it is questionable whether it is suitable to be used in an L2 instructional context (Cao & Philp, 2006). In this study, the researcher used the L2 WTC scale developed by MacIntyre and his associates (2001), which was specifically designed to assess second language willingness to communicate. Although the scale was originally developed for the ESL context and it was mentioned as a limitation of this study, it has still contributed to the gaining of valuable results regarding the learners' willingness to communicate specific to an L2 instructional setting. However, it is evident that development of a WTC scale that focuses directly on our needs in an EFL context is necessary.

Pedagogical Implications of the Study

The findings of this research study provide some pedagogical implications that would be helpful for language teachers, instructors, teacher trainers, and curriculum and material developers. First of all, the results showed that although EFL learners are moderately willing to communicate in English, even the learners with low L2 WTC express their desire to communicate with foreigners in English. As they commonly do not have any chance to use English outside the classroom and do not have immediate access to foreigners to have real-life conversations, language teachers and instructors should create settings for EFL learners to communicate in English. They could invite English speakers from different countries to the classroom to interact with their students in English. They might also consider starting an English conversation club for all levels of learners in which they can interact freely with their friends without worrying about their grades. Moreover, teachers need to provide various types of interactive tasks for pair, small or large group, or whole class work so that learners can engage in various modes of communication contexts.

The findings of the present study demonstrate that EFL learners' WTC in English is significantly influenced by their motivation to learn English, imagery capacity, and ideal L2 self. From these findings, it can be suggested that language teachers and instructors should design English classes to motivate learners to learn and use English. In order to do this, they should first create a positive and encouraging classroom environment for learners. They should also pay more attention to affective domains, understand learners' individual differences and encourage them to build up their self-confidence by providing positive feedback and acknowledging their achievements. These may lead learners to be more willing to speak English. Furthermore, since learners' positive future selves as L2 users was revealed to be likely to enrich their communication behaviour and enhance their WTC in English, instructors should trigger learners' ideal L2 selves by motivating them to envision more of their self-actualizing future selves using L2 as proficient speakers.

This study also sheds new light on the significant relationship between imagery capacity and L2 WTC. It is likely that learners' capabilities to build visual imagery in their minds significantly contribute to their L2 WTC. This implies that learners with a higher imagery capacity can create a clearer and more accessible visualization of their ideal L2 self, which increases their English learning motivation and results in higher levels of L2 WTC. Thus, the importance of imagery training cannot be disregarded. Vision training programmes may be beneficial for learners with regard to enhanced English learning motivation and WTC in English. It is recommended, therefore, that language teachers and instructors should create learning environments which will engage learners' imaginations and help them to build up and retain such visions. They might promote learners' L2 motivation and L2 WTC by aiding them to imagine themselves as L2 speakers and visualize the situations in which they may make use of the target language.

As a result of the study, anxiety was revealed to be an important factor influencing EFL learners' WTC in English negatively. EFL learners are unwilling to speak English and prefer to remain silent in the classroom because of fear of making mistakes. Hence, efforts should be made to create a non-threatening and safe classroom environment in which learners feel secure and do not feel any apprehension about making mistakes and being laughed at. As fear of making

mistakes seems to make learners hesitant to speak English in the classroom, it is of the utmost importance that teachers accept learners' mistakes as a natural part of the L2 learning process and encourage learners to take part in L2 communication in spite of their mistakes in grammar, pronunciation etc. This, in turn, will help to boost learners' SPCC, which is a major determinant of WTC in English. Besides, it may be advisable for teachers to give learners with low L2 WTC more chance to speak in class and develop their self-confidence.

This study has clearly shown that L2 WTC is a dynamic construct which is influenced by a range of affective, linguistic, contextual, and instructional factors. As the construct of L2 willingness to communicate is regarded as the most direct predictor of L2 use and an important prerequisite to successful L2 learning, it appears essential for teachers to be aware of the interplay between various affective, linguistic, contextual and instructional factors and the influence of that interplay on learners' L2 willingness to communicate. It would be unreasonable for language teachers to attribute a learner's L2 WTC to only one factor. They should recognize that there is much more involved in a learner's WTC behaviour. Since L2 communication mainly occurs in a classroom setting in the EFL contexts like Turkey, it is vital for EFL teachers to promote facilitating factors of L2 WTC as much as possible in the classroom. They should also take the interaction between these factors into account while planning L2 learning activities.

Lastly, the results of the study imply that EFL learners considerably lack practice in speaking English since most of language teachers or instructors spend majority of their class time on grammar by ignoring productive skills such as speaking and writing. If the fundamental objective of foreign language instruction is to facilitate learners' L2 use, then the emphasis should be placed on speaking rather than grammar adopting a communicative approach in language classrooms. EFL teachers and instructors should bear in their mind that frequency and amount of target language communication significantly contribute to learners' readiness to communicate in English.

Limitations of the Study

This study was not without limitations. The first limitation of the present study was the number of items in the composite survey instrument. As the study

consisted of a large number of variables to be examined in relation to each other, the composite survey instrument had many items. In order to overcome this limitation, the participants were given sufficient time to fill in the survey instrument.

Another limitation was that the L2 WTC scale employed in this study was originally developed for the ESL context. Thus, communication situations like “read an advisement in the paper to find a good bicycle you can buy” or “a stranger enters the room you are in, how willing would you be to have a conversation if he talked to you first?” seemed to be unlikely for the learners to encounter in Turkey in which English is not used as an everyday means of communication. Thus, some responses to the scale items were mostly based on the learners’ opinions and beliefs in what way they would respond under imaginary circumstances.

Lastly, the study was carried out with the participation of only tertiary level EFL learners. Although the current study had a large number of participants, it did not cover every type of language learner profile in Turkey. Thus, any further generalization from this study should be done with caution, considering the setting and the participants of the study. For example, it may not be proper to generalize the findings of the study to such contexts as private language institutes and high schools.

Suggestions for Further Studies

The focus of the present study was limited to the speaking mode of L2 WTC. Nevertheless, as MacIntyre and his associates (1998) claim, L2 WTC not only includes the speaking mode but also other modes of communication. Therefore, further research could center on L2 WTC not only in the oral mode but also in other modes such as reading, writing and comprehension to gain a more comprehensive picture of L2 WTC.

The heuristic model of L2 WTC (MacIntyre et al., 1998) suggests that there are both stable and situation-specific factors that exert influence on an individual’s L2 WTC. The present study mostly investigated the enduring variables of the L2 WTC model. Further studies on WTC might focus on the influences of situation-specific variables on a learner’s WTC in English. Thus, a longitudinal study can help us to further explore the role of these variables in learners’ in-class and out-of-class L2 WTC. Data collection methods like classroom observation, stimulated-

recalls, and reflective journals might be employed to gain a fuller understanding of the situated and dynamic nature of L2 WTC and more beneficial insights into its role in foreign language education.

The present study was carried out with the participation of only tertiary level EFL learners. As Henrich, Heine, and Norenzayan (2010) argue, affective variables are expected to vary not only across individuals but also among societies. As mentioned before, L2 WTC is a context-specific construct. Hence, this study might be replicated in different EFL contexts among learners with diverse cultural, educational, and socioeconomic backgrounds.

In this study, semi-structured interviews were used to determine EFL learners' perceptions of the factors which affect their WTC in English. To Mackey and Gass (2005), semi-structured interviews give the researchers the opportunity to probe learners' self-reported perceptions or attitudes. However, it is claimed that stimulated recall technique can be a better instrument 'to prompt learners to recall or report their thoughts while performing a task or participating in an event' (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 78). With this technique, the reader is provided with a variety of interpretations of what is happening in the L2 classroom. Therefore, further research on in-class L2 WTC using a stimulated recall technique would be worth carrying out.

References

- Abraham, R., & Vann, R. (1987). Strategies of two language learners: a case study. In A. Wenden, & J. Rubin (Eds.), *Learner Strategies in Language Learning* (pp. 31-40). Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall.
- Adler, R. B., & Proctor, R. F. (2014). *Looking out, looking in* (14th ed.). Boston, MA: Wadsworth Cengage Learning.
- Adler, R., & Towne, N. (1978). *Looking out, looking in: Interpersonal communication*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Afghari, A., & Sadeghi, E. (2012). The effect of EFL learners' gender and second language proficiency on willingness to communicate. *Sheikhbahaee University EFL Journal*, 1(1), 49-65.
- Ahmadian, M., & Shirvani, K. (2012, October). *The role of gender and academic experience in EFL students' willingness to communicate in English in academic context*. Paper Presented at Lorestan National English Conference, Khoramabad, Iran.
- Ahola-Houtsonen, T. (2013). *Learning and teaching English speaking skills at upper secondary school: the students' and the teachers' views*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Jyväskylä, Jyväskylä, Finland.
- Aida, Y. (1994). Examination of Horwitz and Cope's Construct of Foreign Language Anxiety: The Case of Students of Japanese. *The Modern Language Journal*, 78(2), 155-168.
- Aitchison, J. (1989). *Words in the Mind*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- Akay, F. (2009). *Non-verbal communication skills for effective presentation in EFL*. Unpublished master's thesis. Çukurova University, Adana, Turkey.
- Al-amrani, S. N. A. (2013). *Willingness to communicate by Arab EFL learners: Conceptualization and realization*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. The University of Queensland, Australia.

- Alavinia, P., & Alikhani, M. A. (2014). Willingness to communicate reappraised in the light of emotional intelligence and gender differences. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 98, 143-152.
- Alemi, M., Daftarifard, P., & Pashmforoosh, R. (2011). The Impact of Language Anxiety and Language Proficiency on WTC in EFL Context. *Cross-Cultural Communication*, 7(3), 150-166.
- Alemi, M., & Pashmforoosh, R. (2012). EFL learners' willingness to communicate: The interplay between language learning anxiety and language proficiency. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 11(2), 23-34.
- Alemi, M., Tajeddin, Z., & Mesbah, Z. (2013). Willingness to Communicate in L2 English: Impact of Learner Variables. *Journal of Research in Applied Linguistics*, 4(1), 42-61.
- Alishah, A. R. (2015). *A study of factors affecting Turkish EFL learners' willingness to speak in English*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Gazi University, Ankara, Turkey.
- Alpert, R., & Haber, R. N. (1960). Anxiety in academic achievement situations. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 61, 207-215.
- Al-Shehri, A. S. (2009). Motivation and vision: The relation between the ideal L2 self, imagination and visual style. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 164-171). United Kingdom: MPG Books Ltd.
- Andrade, M., & Williams, K. (2009). Foreign language learning anxiety in Japanese EFL university classes: Physical, emotional, expressive, and verbal reactions. *Sophia Junior College Faculty Journal*, 29(1), 1-24.
- Andreou, G., Andreou, E., & Vlachos, F. (2006). Individual differences in second language learning among university students. In S.N. Hogan (Ed.), *Trends in learning research* (pp. 81–99). New York: Nova Science Publishers.

- Andreou, G., & Galantomos, I. (2009). The native speaker ideal in FLT. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 6(2), 200–208.
- Arnaiz, P., & Guillén, F. (2012). Foreign language anxiety in a Spanish university setting: Interpersonal differences. *Revista de Psicodidáctica*, 17(1), 5-26.
- Arnold, J. (1999). *Affect in Language Learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Arnold, J. (1999). Visualization: Language learning with the mind's eye. In J. Arnold (Ed.), *Affect in language learning* (pp. 260–278). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Arshad, Z., Shahbaz, M., & Al-Bashabsheh, A. M. B. (2015). Willingness to Communicate in English: A Gender Based Study. *International Journal of English and Education*, 4(4), 311-319.
- Asmalı, M. (2016). Willingness to Communicate of Foreign Language Learners in Turkish Context. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 232, 188-195.
- Asmalı, M., Bilki, U., & Duban, C. A. (2015). A Comparison of the Turkish and Romanian students' willingness to communicate and its affecting factors in English. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 11(1), 59-74.
- Asselin, M. (2002). Vocabulary Instruction. *Teacher Librarian*, 29(3), 57-59.
- Atay, D., & Gökçe, K. (2007, April). *The predictors of EFL learners' willingness to communicate*. Paper presented at American Association for Applied Linguistics Conference, Costa Mesa, California.
- Atay, D., & Kurt, G. (2009, May). *Turkish EFL learners' willingness to communicate in English*. Paper presented at the First International Congress of Educational research: Trends and issues of educational research, Çanakkale, Turkey.
- Aubrey, S. C. (2010). *Influences on Japanese students' willingness to communicate across three different sized EFL classes*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. The University of Auckland, New Zealand.

- Ay, S. (2010). Young adolescent students' foreign language anxiety in relation to language skills at different levels. *The Journal of International Social Research*, 3(11), 83-92.
- Aydin, B. (2001). *A Study of Sources of Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety in Speaking and Writing Classes*. Unpublished master's thesis. Anadolu University, Eskisehir, Turkey.
- Azarnoosh, M., & Birjandi, P. (2012). Junior high school students' L2 motivational self system: Any gender differences? *World Applied Sciences Journal*, 20(4), 577-584.
- Bacham, N. (1976). Two measures of affective factors as they relate to progress in adult second language learning. *Working Papers on Bilingualism*, 10(1), 100-122.
- Baghaei, P., Dourakhshan, A., & Salavati, O. (2012). The relationship between willingness to communicate and success in learning English as a foreign language. *The Modern Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 4(2), 53-67.
- Bahadori, M., & Hashemizadeh, S. M. (2018). Relationship among Self-perceived Oral Competence, Communication Apprehension, and Iranian EFL Learners' Willingness to Communicate: Cooperative teaching in focus. *International Journal of Foreign Language Teaching and Research*, 6(21), 75-96.
- Bailey, K. M. (1983). Competitiveness and anxiety in adult second language learning: Looking at and through the diary studies. In H. W. Seliger & M. H. Long (Eds.), *Classroom oriented research in second language acquisition* (pp. 67-102). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Bailey, P., Daley, C. E., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (1999). Foreign language anxiety and learning style. *Foreign Language Annals*, 32(1), 63-76.
- Baker, C. (1992). *Attitudes and language*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

- Baker, S. C., & MacIntyre, P. D. (2000). The role of gender and immersion in communication and second language orientations. *Language Learning*, 50(2), 311-341.
- Baran-Lucarz, M. (2014). The link between pronunciation anxiety and willingness to communicate in the foreign-language classroom: The Polish EFL context. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 70(4), 445-473.
- Barcroft, J., Sucderman, G., & Schmitt, N. (2011). Lexis. In J. Simpson (Ed.), *The routledge handbook of applied linguistics* (pp. 571-583). New York: Routledge.
- Barjesteh, H., Vaseghi, R., & Neissi, S. (2012). Iranian EFL learners' willingness to communicate across different context-and receiver-types. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 2(1), 47.
- Barraclough, R. A., Christophel, D. M., & McCroskey, J. C. (1988). Willingness to communicate: A cross-cultural investigation. *Communication Research Reports*, 5(2), 187-192.
- Barrett, M. T., & Graves, M. F. (1981). A vocabulary program for junior high school remedial readers. *Journal of Reading*, 25(2), 146–150.
- Bashosh, S., Nejad, M. A., Rastegar, M., & Marzban, A. (2013). The relationship between shyness, foreign language classroom anxiety, willingness to communicate, gender, and EFL proficiency. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 3(11), 2098-2106.
- Batumlu, D. Z., & Erden, M. (2007). The relationship between foreign language anxiety and English achievement of Yıldız Technical University School of foreign languages preparatory students. *Journal of theory and practice in education*, 3(1), 24-38.
- Baumann, J. F., Kame'enui, E. J., & Ash, G. E. (2003). Research on vocabulary instruction: Voltaire redux. In J. Flood, D. Lapp, J. R. Squire, & J. M. Jensen (Eds.), *Handbook on research on teaching the English language arts* (pp. 752-785). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

- Becker, W. C. (1977). Teaching reading and language to the disadvantaged – What we have learned from field research. *Harvard Educational Review*, 47(4), 518-543.
- Beebe, S. A., Beebe, S. J., Ivy, D. K. & Watson, S. (2005). *Communication: Principles for a Lifetime*. Toronto: Pearson Education.
- Bekleyen, N. (2004). Foreign language anxiety. *Çukurova Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, 13(2), 27-39.
- Berlo, D. (1960). *The process of communication*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- Birjandi, P., & Tabataba'ian, M. (2012). The relationship between willingness to communicate and emotional intelligence. *Iranian EFL Journal*, 4(3), 22-35.
- Bo-tong, L. I. U. (2012). Willingness to Communicate in Second Language and Integrative Motivation among Non-English Majors. *Journal of Sichuan College of Education*, 11, 22-34.
- Brislin, R. W. (1980). Translation and content analysis of oral and written material. In H. C. Triandis & J. W. Berry (Eds.), *Handbook of cross-cultural psychology*, (pp. 389-444). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Brown, H. D. 2000. *Principles of language learning and teaching* (4th Ed.). White Plains: Pearson Education.
- Brown, J. D. (2001). *Using surveys in language programs*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Brown, T. A. (2015). *Confirmatory factor analysis for applied research*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Browne, M. W., & Cudeck, R. (1993). Alternative ways of assessing model fit. In K. A. Bollen & J. S. Long (Eds.), *Testing structural equation models* (pp. 136-162). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

- Bryman, A. (2006). Integrating quantitative and qualitative research: How is it done? *Qualitative Research*, 6(1), 97-113.
- Bukhari, S. F., & Cheng, X. (2017). To do or not to do: willingness to communicate in the ESL context: Pakistani students are highly willing to communicate in English in Canada. *English Today*, 33(1), 36-42.
- Bukhari, S. F., Cheng, X., & Khan, S. A. (2015). Willingness to Communicate in English as a Second Language: A Case Study of Pakistani Undergraduates. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 6(29), 39-44.
- Burgoon, J. K. (1976). The unwillingness to communicate scale: Development and validation. *Communications Monographs*, 43(1), 60-69.
- Burroughs, N. F., Marie, V., & McCroskey, J. C. (2003). Relationships of self-perceived communication competence and communication apprehension with willingness to communicate: A comparison with first and second languages in Micronesia. *Communication Research Reports*, 20(3), 230-239.
- Bursalı, N. & Öz, H. (2017). The relationship between Ideal L2 Self and Willingness to Communicate inside the Classroom. *International Journal of Higher Education*, 6(4), 229-239.
- Büyüköztürk, Ş. (2009). *Bilimsel araştırma yöntemleri*. Ankara: Pegem A Akademi.
- Byrne, B. M. (2006). *Structural equation modeling with EQS: Basic concepts, applications, and programming* (2nd Ed.). New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Cameron, D. (2013). Willingness to communicate in English as a second language as a stable trait or context-influenced variable. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics*, 36(2), 177-196.
- Cameron, L. (2001). *Teaching languages to young learners*. NY: Cambridge University Press.

- Campbell, C. & Ortiz, J. (1991). Helping Students Overcome Foreign Language Anxiety: A Foreign Language Anxiety Workshop. In E. K. Horwitz and D.J. Young (Eds.), *Language Anxiety: From Theory and Research to Classroom Implications* (pp. 153- 168). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Canale, M. (1983). From communicative competence to communicative language pedagogy. In J.C. Richards, & R.W. Schmidt (Eds.), *Language and communication* (pp. 2-27). Harlow, England: Longman.
- Cao, Y. (2013). Exploring dynamism in willingness to communicate: A longitudinal case study. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics*, 36(2), 160-176.
- Cao, Y. (2011). Investigating situational willingness to communicate within second language classrooms from an ecological perspective. *System*, 39(4), 468-479.
- Cao, Y. (2009). *Understanding the notion of interdependence, and the dynamics of willingness to communicate*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. The University of Auckland, New Zealand.
- Cao, Y. (2012). Willingness to communicate and communication quality in ESL classrooms. *TESL Reporter*, 45(1), 17-36.
- Cao, Y., & Philp, J. (2006). Interactional context and willingness to communicate: A comparison of behavior in whole class, group and dyadic interaction. *System*, 34(4), 480-493.
- Cao, Y.-Q. (2005). *Willingness to communicate in a second language classroom*. Unpublished master's thesis. The University of Auckland, Auckland, New Zealand.
- Cassady, J. C. (Ed.). (2010). *Anxiety in the schools: The causes, consequences, and solutions for academic anxieties*. New York, NY: Peter Lang.

- Chan, D. Y. C., & Wu, G. C. (2004). A study of foreign language anxiety of EFL elementary school students in Taipei County. *Journal of National Taipei Teachers College*, 17(2), 287-320.
- Chanell, J. (1988). Psycholinguistic considerations in the study of L2 vocabulary acquisition. In R. Carter & M. McCarthy (Eds.), *Vocabulary and Language Teaching* (pp. 83-96). London: Longman.
- Chao, C.T. (2003). *Foreign language anxiety and emotional intelligence: A study of EFL students in Taiwan*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Texas A&M University, Kingsville, USA.
- Charos, C. (1994). *Personality and individual differences as predictors of second language communication: A causal analysis*. Unpublished honors thesis. University of Ottawa, Canada.
- Chastain, K. (1975). Affective and Ability Factors in Second Language Learning. *Language Learning*, 25(1), 153-161.
- Chastain, K. (1988). *Developing second language skills: Theory and practice* (3rd Ed.). USA: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc.
- Chen, T. Y., and Chang, G. B. Y. (2004). The relationship between foreign language anxiety and learning difficulties. *Foreign Language Annals*, 37(2), 279-289.
- Cheng, Y. S. (2001). Learners' beliefs and second language anxiety. *Concentric: Studies in English Literature and Linguistics*, 27(2), 75-90.
- Chu, H. N. R. (2008). *Shyness and EFL learning in Taiwan: A study of shy and non-shy college students' use of strategies, foreign language anxiety, motivation, and willingness to communicate*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. The University of Texas, Austin.
- Civikly, J.M. (1997). *Classroom Communication: Principles and Practice*. New York: McGraw-Hill Companies.

- Clément, R. (1988). Echelles d'attitude et de motivation reliées aux rapports interethniques [Scales of attitude and motivation related to inter-ethnic relations] (Tech. Rep.). *University of Ottawa, Ottawa, Canada*.
- Clément, R., (1980). Ethnicity, contact and communicative competence in a second language. In H. Giles, W.P., Robinson, & P.M. Smith (Eds.) *Language: social psychological perspective* (pp. 147-154). Oxford, UK: Pergamon.
- Clément, R. (1986). Second language proficiency and acculturation: An investigation of the effects of language status and individual characteristics. *Journal of Language and social Psychology*, 5(4), 271-290.
- Clément, R., Baker, S. C., & MacIntyre, P. D. (2003). Willingness to Communicate in a Second Language: The Effects of Context, Norms, and Vitality. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 22(2), 190-209.
- Clément, R., Dörnyei, Z., & Noels, K. A. (1994). Motivation, self-confidence, and group cohesion in the foreign language classroom. *Language Learning*, 44(3), 417-448.
- Clément, R., & Gardner, R. C. (2001). Second language mastery. In H. Giles, & W. P. Robinson (Eds.), *The new handbook of language and social psychology* (2nd ed., pp. 489-504). London: Wiley.
- Clément, R., & Kruidenier, B. G. (1985). Aptitude, attitude and motivation in second language proficiency: A test of Clément's model. *Journal of language and Social Psychology*, 4(1), 21-37.
- Coady, J. (1997). L2 vocabulary acquisition through extensive reading. In J. Coady, and T. Huckin (Eds.), *Second language vocabulary acquisition: A rationale for pedagogy* (pp. 225-237). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Cohen, A. D. (2010). Focus on the language learner: styles, strategies and motivation. In N. Schmitt (Ed.), *An introduction to applied linguistics*, (pp. 161-178). (2nd ed). London: Hodder Education.
- Cohen, A. D., & Dörnyei, Z. (2002). Focus on the language learner: Motivation, styles, and strategies. In N. Schmitt (Ed.), *An introduction to applied linguistics*, (pp. 170-190). London: Arnold.
- Cohen, J. W. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences* (2nd ed.) Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2011). *Research methods in education*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Compton, L. (2004). From chatting to oral fluency: using chat to improve self-confidence and increase willingness to communicate. *Teaching English with Technology*, 4(1), 63-72.
- Cook, V. (1991). *Second language learning and language teaching*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Cornwell, S., & Robinson, P. (Eds.). (2000). *Individual differences in foreign language learning: Effects of aptitude, intelligence, and motivation*. Tokyo: Aoyama Gakuin University.
- Corson, D. J. (1995). *The Lexical Bar*. Pergamon Press: Oxford.
- Cox, R. H. (2012). *Sport psychology: Concepts and applications* (7th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Creswell, J. W. (2014). *A concise introduction to mixed methods research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Creswell, J. W. (2008). *Educational research: planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (3rd Ed.). Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Merrill.

- Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research design: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed method approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Creswell, J. W., Plano Clark, V. L., Gutmann, M., & Hanson, W. (2003). Advanced mixed methods research designs. In A. Tashakkori & C. Teddlie (Eds.), *Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioral research* (pp. 209-240). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Crozier, W. R. (2001). *Understanding shyness*. New York: Palgrave.
- Crookall, D., & Oxford, R. (1991). Dealing with anxiety: Some practical activities for language learners and teacher trainees. In E. K. Horwitz & D. J. Young (Eds.), *Language anxiety: From theory and research to classroom implications*. (pp. 141-150). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Crookes, G., & Schmidt, R. W. (1991). Motivation: Reopening the research agenda. *Language learning*, 41(4), 469-512.
- Csizér, K., & Dörnyei, Z. (2005). Language learners' motivational profiles and their motivated learning behaviour. *Language Learning*, 55(4), 613-659.
- Csizér, K., & Kormos, J. (2009). Learning experiences, selves and motivated learning behavior: A comparative analysis of structural models for Hungarian secondary and university learners of English. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 98–119). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Csizér, K., & Lukács, G. (2010). The comparative analysis of motivation, attitudes and selves: The case of English and German in Hungary. *System*, 38, 1–13.
- Csizér, K., & Magid, M. (Eds.). (2014). *The impact of self-concept on language learning*. Bristol, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.
- Çetinkaya, Y. B. (2005). *Turkish college students' willingness to communicate in English as a foreign language*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. The Ohio State University, Columbus.

- Daly, J. (1991). Understanding Communication Apprehension: An Introduction for Language Educators. In E. K. Horwitz & D. J. Young (Eds.), *Language Anxiety: From theory and research to classroom implications*. (pp. 3-13). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Daneman, M. (1988). Word knowledge and reading skill. In M. Daneman, G. MacKinnon & T. G. Waller (Eds.), *Reading research: Advances in theory and practice* (pp. 145- 175). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Davis, F. B. (1942). Two new measures of reading ability. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 33(5), 365-372.
- Decarrico, J. S. (2001). Vocabulary learning and teaching. In M. Celce-Murcia (Ed.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (pp. 285-299). Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
- Deci, E. L. (1992). The relation of interest to the motivation of behavior: A self-determination theory perspective. In K. A. Renninger, S. Hidi, & A. Kapp (Eds.), *The role of interest in learning and development* (pp. 43-67). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior*. New York: Plenum.
- Demir Ayaz, A. (2016). *The relationship between foreign language learners' future second language (L2) self-guides, language learning motivation and achievement*. Unpublished master's thesis. Hacettepe University, Ankara, Turkey.
- Denzin, N. K. (1978). *Sociological Methods: A Source Book*. New York: McGraw Hill.
- de Saint Léger, D., & Storch, N. (2009). Learners' perceptions and attitudes: Implications for willingness to communicate in an L2 classroom. *System*, 37(2), 269-285.
- Dewaele, J., & Furnham, A. (1999). Extraversion: the unloved variable in applied linguistic research. *Language Learning*, 49, 471-490.

- Doll, W. J., Raghunathan, T. S., Lim, J. S., & Gupta, Y. P. (1995). A confirmatory factor analysis of the user information satisfaction instrument. *Information Systems Research*, 6(2), 177-188.
- Donovan, L. A., & MacIntyre, P. D. (2004). Age and sex differences in willingness to communicate, communication apprehension, and self-perceived competence. *Communication Research Reports*, 21(4), 420-427.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2003). Attitudes, orientations, and motivations in language learning: Advances in theory, research and applications. *Language Learning*, 53, 3-32.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2007). Creating a motivating classroom environment. In J. Cummins, & C. Davison (Eds.), *International handbook of English language teaching* (pp. 719–731). New York, NY: Springer.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2006). Individual differences in second language acquisition. *AILA Review*, 19(1), 42-68.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2009). Individual differences: Interplay of learner characteristics and learning environment. *Language Learning*, 59(1), 230-248.
- Dörnyei, Z. (1994). Motivation and motivating in the foreign language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, 78, 273-284.
- Dörnyei, Z. (1998). Motivation in second and foreign language learning. *Language Teaching*, 31, 117-135.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2014). Motivation in second language learning. In M. Celce-Murcia, D. M. Brinton & M. A. Snow (Eds.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (4th ed., pp. 518-531). Boston, MA: National Geographic Learning/Cengage Learning.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics: Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methodologies*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Dörnyei, Z. (2010). Researching motivation: From integrativeness to the ideal L2 self. In S. Hunston & D. Oakey (Eds.), *Introducing applied linguistics: Concepts and skills* (pp. 74-83). London: Routledge.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2001). *Teaching and researching motivation*. Harlow, England: Pearson Education Limited.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2009). The L2 Motivational Self System. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 9-42). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2005). *The psychology of the language learner: Individual Differences in Second Language Acquisition*. US: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2009). *The psychology of second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Chan, L. (2013). Motivation and vision: An analysis of future L2 self-images, sensory styles, and imagery capacity across two target languages. *Language Learning*, 63(3), 437-462.
- Dörnyei, Z. & Cheng, H. (2007). The use of motivational strategies in language instruction: The case of EFL teaching in Taiwan. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 1(1), 153-174.
- Dörnyei, Z. & Csizér, K. (1998). Ten commandments for motivation language learners: results of an empirical study. *Language Teaching Research*, 2(3), 203-229.
- Dörnyei, Z., Henry, A., & Muir, C. (2016). *Motivational currents in language learning: Frameworks for focused interventions*. New York: Routledge.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Kormos, J. (2000). The role of individual and social variables in oral task performance. *Language Teaching Research*, 4(3), 275-300.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Kubanyiova, M. (2014). *Motivating learners, motivating teachers: Building vision in the language classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Dörnyei, Z., & Otto, I. (1998). Motivation in action: A process model of L2 motivation. *Working Papers in Applied Linguistics (Thames Valley University, London)*, 4, 43-69.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Ryan, S. (2015). *The psychology of the language learner revisited*. New York: Routledge.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Skehan, P. (2003). Individual differences in second language learning. In C. Doughty & M. H. Long (Eds.), *The Handbook of Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 589-630). Oxford: Blackwell.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Ushioda, E. (2011). *Teaching and researching motivation* (2nd ed.). Harlow: Longman.
- Duff, P. (2006). Beyond generalizability: Contextualization, complexity and credibility in applied linguistics research. In M. Chalhoub-Deville, M., Chapelle, C., & P. Duff (Eds.), *Inference and generalizability in applied linguistics: Multiple research perspectives* (pp.65-95). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Ehrman, M. (1990). Owls and doves: Cognition, personality, and learning success. *Linguistics, Language Teaching, and Language Acquisition: The Interdependence of Theory, Practice, and Research*, 41(4), 413-437.
- Ehrman, M. E. (1994). The type differentiation indicator and adult foreign language learning success. *Journal of Psychological Type*, 30, 10–29.
- Ehrman, M. E. (1996). *Understanding second language difficulties*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Ehrman, M.E., B.L. Leaver, & Oxford, R. L. (2003). A brief overview of individual differences in second language learning. *System*, 31, 313–330.
- Ehrman, M., & Oxford, R. (1990). Adult language learning styles and strategies in an intensive training setting. *The Modern Language Journal*, 74(3), 311-327.

- Ehrman, M. E., & Oxford, R. L. (1995). Cognition plus: Correlates of language learning success. *Modern Language Journal*, 79(1), 67–89.
- Ellis, N. (1995). The psychology of foreign language vocabulary acquisition: Implications for CALL. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 8(2), 103-128.
- Ellis, R. (2004). Individual differences in second language learning. In A. Davies, & C. Elder (Eds.), *The handbook of applied linguistics* (pp. 525-551). Oxford, UK: Blackwell.
- Ellis, R. (2008). *The Study of Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (1985). *Understanding Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, N., & Beaton, A. (1993). Factors affecting the learning of foreign language vocabulary: Imagery keyword mediators and phonological short-term memory. *The Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 46(3), 533-558.
- Ely, C. M. (1986). An analysis of discomfort, risktaking, sociability, and motivation in the L2 classroom. *Language Learning*, 36, 1–25.
- Elwood, J. A. (2011). *Enriching structural models of L2 willingness to communicate: The role of personality, ego permeability, and perceived distance*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Temple University, Philadelphia, USA.
- Eysenck, M. (1979). Anxiety, learning and memory: a reconceptualisation. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 13, 363-385.
- Eysenck, M., & Chan, J. (1982). A comparative study of personality in adults and children: Hong Kong vs. England. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 3, 153-160.

- Eysenck, H. J., & Eysenck, M. W. (1985). *Personality and individual differences: a natural science approach*. New York: Plenum Press.
- Fahy, P. J. (2001). Addressing some common problems in transcript analysis. *The International Review of Research in Open and Distributed Learning*, 1(2).
- Fallah, N. (2014). Willingness to communicate in English, communication self-confidence, motivation, shyness and teacher immediacy among Iranian English-major undergraduates: A structural equation modeling approach. *Learning and Individual Differences*, 30, 140-147.
- Fan, M. (2000). How big is the gap and how to narrow it? An investigation into the active and passive vocabulary knowledge of L2 learners. *RELJ Journal*, 31(2), 105-119.
- Fatemipour, H., & Nourmohammadi, A. (2014). The impact of using information-gap activities on improving EFL elementary learners' willingness to communicate. *Social Research Quarterly*, 6(4), 109-123.
- Fraser, C. A., Bellugi, U., & Brown, R. (1963). Control of grammar in imitation, comprehension, and production. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior*, 2(2), 121-135.
- Freiermuth, M., & Jarrell, D. (2006). Willingness to communicate: can online chat help? *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 16(2), 189-212.
- Freud, S. (1936). *The problem of anxiety*. New York: The Psychoanalytic Quarterly Press and W.W. Norton & Company Inc.
- Fushino, K. (2008). *Measuring Japanese university students' readiness for second-language group work and its relation to willingness to communicate*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Temple University, Philadelphia, PA.

- Ganschow, L. Sparks, R. Anderson R., Javorsky, J. Skinner, S. & Patton, J. (1994). Differences in anxiety and language performance among high- and low-anxious college foreign language learners. *Modern Language Journal*, 78, 41-55.
- Gardner, R. C. (2009, May) *Gardner and Lambert (1959): Fifty years and counting*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Canadian Association of Applied Linguistics, Ottawa, Canada.
- Gardner, R. C. (2001) Integrative motivation and second language acquisition. In Z. Dörnyei & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Motivation and second language acquisition* (pp. 1-20). Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii Press.
- Gardner, R. C. (2001). Language Learning Motivation: The Student, the Teacher, and the Researcher. *Texas Papers in Foreign Language Education*, 6(1), 1-18.
- Gardner, R. C. (2010). *Motivation and second language acquisition: The socio-educational model*. New York: Peter Lang Publishing, Inc.
- Gardner, R. C. (1985). *Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitude and motivation*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Gardner, R. C., & Clément, R. (1990). Social psychological perspectives on second language acquisition. In H. Giles & P. Robinson (Eds.), *The Handbook of Language and Social Psychology* (pp. 495- 517). UK: John Wiley & Sons.
- Gardner, R. C., Lalonde, R. N. & Moorcroft, R. (1985). The role of attitudes and motivation in second language learning: Correlational and experimental considerations. *Language Learning*, 35(2), 207-227.
- Gardner R.C., & Lambert, W.E. (1972). *Attitudes and motivation in second language learning*, Rowley, Mass: Newbury House.

- Gardner, R. C., & MacIntyre, P. (1992). A student's contributions to second language learning. Part I: Cognitive variables. *Language Teaching*, 25, 211-220.
- Gardner, R. C., & MacIntyre, P. D. (1993). On the measurement of affective variables in second language learning. *Language Learning*, 43(2), 157-194.
- Gardner, R. C., Masgoret, A. M., Tennant, J., & Mihic, L. (2004). Integrative motivation: Changes during a year-long intermediate-level language course. *Language Learning*, 54(1), 1-34.
- Gardner, R. C., Smythe, P. C., & Brunet, G. R. (1977). Intensive second language study: Effects on attitudes, motivation and French achievement. *Language Learning*, 27, 243-261.
- Gedikoğlu, T., & Öner, G. (2007). Ortaöğretim öğrencilerinin İngilizce öğrenimlerini etkileyen yabancı dil kaygısı. *Gaziantep Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 6(2), 144-155.
- Geisinger, K. F. (1994). Cross-cultural normative assessment: Translation and adaptation issues influencing the normative interpretation of assessment instruments. *Psychological Assessment*, 6(4), 304-312.
- Genç, B. (2007). *An Analysis of Communication Strategies Employed by Turkish-Speakers of English*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Çukurova University, Adana, Turkey.
- Genesee, F. (1976). The role of intelligence in second language learning. *Language Learning*, 26, 267-280.
- Ghanbarpour, M. (2014). Instrumental and integrative orientations: Predictors of willingness to communicate in the Iranian EFL context. *Iranian Journal of Language Teaching Research*, 2(2), 87-103.

- Ghonsooly, B., Hosseini Fatemi, A., & Khajavy, G. H. (2013). Examining the relationships between willingness to communicate in English, communication confidence, and classroom environment. *International Journal of Research Studies in Educational Technology*, 3(1), 63-71.
- Ghonsooly, B., Khajavy, G. H., & Asadpour, S. F. (2012). Willingness to Communicate in English among Iranian Non-English Major University Students. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 31(2), 197-211.
- Goldberg, L. R. (1993). The structure of phenotypic personality traits. *American Psychologist*, 48(1), 26-34.
- Graves, M. F. (2009). *Teaching individual words: One size does not fit all*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press and IRA.
- Gürman-Kahraman, F. (2013). *The effect of socio-affective language learning strategies and emotional intelligence training on English as a foreign language (EFL) learners' foreign language anxiety in speaking classes*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Bilkent University, Ankara, Turkey.
- Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., Anderson, R. E., & Tatham, R. L. (2006). *Multivariate data analysis* (6th ed.). Upper Saddle River: Prentice Hall.
- Harley, B., & Hart, D. (1997). Language aptitude and second language proficiency in classroom learners of different starting ages. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 19(3), 379-400.
- Harmer, J. (1994). *The practice of English language teaching*. London: Longman.
- Hashimoto, Y. (2002). Motivation and willingness to communicate as predictors of reported L2 use: The Japanese ESL context. *Second Language Studies*, 20(2), 29-70.
- Hayes, D. A., & Tierney, R. J. (1982). Developing readers' knowledge through analogy. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 17(2), 256-80.
- Henrich, P., Heine, S. J., & Norenzayan, A. (2010). The weirdest people in the world? *Behavioral and Brain Sciences*, 33, 61-135.

- Henriksen, B. (1999). Three dimensions of vocabulary development. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 21(2), 303-317.
- Hiesh, P. (2008). Why are college foreign language students' self-efficacy, attitude, and motivation so different? *International Education*, 38(1), 76-101.
- Higgins, E. T. (1998) Promotion and prevention: Regulatory focus as a motivational principle. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 30, 1-46.
- Higgins, E. T. (1987) Self-discrepancy: A theory relating self and affect. *Psychological Review*, 94(3), 319-340.
- Hilgard, E. R., Atkinson, R. C., & Atkinson, R. L. (1971). *Introduction to psychology* (5th ed.). New York: Harcourt.
- Hodis, G. M. (2009). *A longitudinal latent growth modeling perspective on communication apprehension, self-perceived communication competence, and willingness to communicate*. Unpublished master's thesis. Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, Illinois.
- Hodis, G. M., Bardhan, N. R., & Hodis, F. A. (2010). Patterns of change in willingness to communicate in public speaking contexts: A latent growth modeling analysis. *Journal of Applied Communication Research*, 38(3), 248-267.
- Hodson, R. (1999). *Analyzing documentary accounts*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Horwitz, E. K. (2010). Foreign and second language anxiety. *Language Teaching*, 43(2), 154-167.
- Horwitz, E. (2001). Language anxiety and achievement. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 21(1), 112-126.
- Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B., & Cope, J. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal*, 70(2), 125-132.

- Horwitz, E. K., & Young, D. J. (1991). *Language anxiety: From theory and research to classroom implications*. London: Pearson College Div.
- Hoyle, R. H. (1995). The structural equation modeling approach: Basic concepts and fundamental issues. In R. H. Hoyle (Ed.), *Structural equation modeling: Concepts, issues, and applications*, (pp.140-155). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Hu, L. T., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal*, 6(1), 1-55.
- Huang, J. (2012). *Overcoming Anxiety in Foreign Language Classrooms*. Newyork: Nova Science Publishers.
- Huang, H.T., Hsu, C.C., & Chen, S. W. (2015). Identification with social role obligations, possible selves, and L2 motivation in foreign language learning. *System*, 51, 28-38.
- Hurley, A. E., Scandura, T. A., Schriesheim, C. A., Brannick, M. T., Seers, A., Vandenberg, R. J., & Williams, L. J. (1997). Exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis: Guidelines, issues, and alternatives. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 18, 667-683.
- Iino, A., & Yabuta, Y. (2015, August). *The effects of video SCMC on English proficiency, speaking performance and willingness to communicate*. Paper presented at the 2015 EUROCALL Conference, Padova, Italy.
- Imran, M., & Ghani, M. (2014). A Correlational Study of Willingness to communicate and English Language Proficiency. *Journal of Educational Research*, 17(2), 85.
- Joe, H. K., Hiver, P., & Al-Hoorie, A. H. (2017). Classroom social climate, self-determined motivation, willingness to communicate, and achievement: A study of structural relationships in instructed second language settings. *Learning and Individual Differences*, 53, 133-144.

- Johnson, D. M. (1992). *Approaches to research in second language learning*. New York: Longman.
- Johnson, B., & Christensen, L. (2008). *Educational Research: Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed approaches*. Boston, MA: Pearson Education Inc.
- Johnson, K. (2008). *An introduction to foreign language learning and teaching* (2nd Ed.) Harlow: Pearson Education.
- Johnson, R. B., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2004). Mixed methods research: A research paradigm whose time has come. *Educational Researcher*, 33(7), 14-26.
- Jones, K. (2012). *Visualising success: An imagery intervention programme to increase two students' confidence and motivation in a foreign language*. Unpublished master's dissertation. University of Nottingham, Nottingham, UK.
- Jöreskog, K. G. (1969). A general approach to confirmatory factor analysis. *Psychometrika*, 34, 183-202.
- Jöreskog, K. G. & Sörbom, D. (2006). *LISREL 8.80 for Windows [Computer software]*. Lincolnwood, IL: Scientific Software International, Inc.
- Jöreskog, K. & Sörbom, D. (1993). *LISREL 8: Structural Equation Modeling with the SIMPLIS Command Language*. Chicago, IL: Scientific Software International Inc.
- Jung, M. (2011). *Korean EFL university students' willingness to communicate in English*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Indiana University, USA.
- Kalra, R. (2017). The Effectiveness of Using Films in the EFL Classroom: A Case Study Conducted at an International University in Thailand. *Arab World English Journal (AWEJ)*, 8(3), 289 -30.

- Kamil, M. L., & Hiebert, E. H. (2005). Teaching and Learning Vocabulary: Perspectives and Persistent Issues. In E. H. Hiebert and M. L. Kamil (Eds.), *Teaching and Learning Vocabulary: Bringing Research to Practice* (pp. 95-114). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Kanat-Mutluoğlu, A. (2016). The Influence of Ideal L2 self, Academic Self-Concept and Intercultural Communicative Competence on Willingness to Communicate in a Foreign Language. *Eurasian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 2(2), 27-46.
- Kang, D. M. (2014). The effects of study-abroad experiences on EFL learners' willingness to communicate, speaking abilities, and participation in classroom interaction. *System*, 42, 319-332.
- Kang, S. J. (2005). Dynamic emergence of situational willingness to communicate in a second language. *System*, 33(2), 277-292.
- Katalin, P. (2006). Foreign language classroom anxiety: A classroom perspective. *University of Pécs Roundtable 2006: Empirical Studies in English Applied Linguistics*, 39-58.
- Ketabdar, Z., Yazdani, S., & Yarahmadi, M. (2014). The Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Willingness to Communicate among Iranian EFL Learners. *European Online Journal of Natural and Social Sciences*, 3(3), 637.
- Khajavy, G. H., Ghonsooly, B., Hosseini Fatemi, A., & Choi, C. W. (2014). Willingness to communicate in English: A microsystem model in the Iranian EFL Classroom Context. *TESOL Quarterly*, 50(1), 154-180.
- Khajavy, G. H., MacIntyre, P.D., & Barabadi, E. (2017). Role of the emotions and classroom environment in willingness to communicate: Applying doubly latent multilevel analysis in second language acquisition research. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 1-20.

- Khaki, S. (2013). The relationship between learner autonomy and willingness to communicate (WTC) in Iranian EFL learners. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature*, 2(5), 97-109.
- Khan, M. R. (2015). Analyzing the Relationship between L2 Motivational Selves and L2 Achievement: A Saudi Perspective. *International Journal of English Language Teaching*, (2)1, 68-75.
- Khany, R., & Nejad, A. M. (2017). L2 Willingness to Communicate, Openness to Experience, Extraversion, and L2 Unwillingness to Communicate: The Iranian EFL Context. *RELC Journal*, 47(1), 1-15.
- Khazaei, Z. M., Zadeh, A. M., & Ketabi, S. (2012). Willingness to Communicate in Iranian EFL Learners: The Effect of Class Size. *English Language Teaching*, 5(11), 181-187.
- Khodarahmi, E., & Nia, Z. M. (2014). EFL Teachers' Classroom Discipline Strategies and Learners' Willingness to Communicate in English inside the Classroom. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 98, 976-981.
- Khosravizadeh, P., & Sadat Pakzadian, S. (2013). The Relationship between an EFL Teacher's Gender and Students' Willingness to Communicate. *International Journal of Communication and Linguistic Studies*, 10, 17-29.
- Kim, S. J. (2004). *Exploring willingness to communicate (WTC) in English among Korean EFL (English as a foreign language) students in Korea: WTC as a predictor of success in second language acquisition*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. The Ohio State University, Colombus.
- Kim, T. Y. (2009). Korean elementary school students' perceptual learning style, ideal L2 self, and motivated behavior. *Korean Journal of English Language and Linguistics*, 9(3), 261-286.
- Kim, Tae-Young (2011). The L2 motivational self system of Korean EFL students: Cross-grade survey analysis. *English Teaching*, 67(1), 29-56.

- Kim, Y. K., & Kim, T. Y. (2011). The effect of Korean secondary school students' perceptual learning styles and ideal L2 self on motivated L2 behavior and English proficiency. *Korean Journal of English Language and Linguistics*, 11(1), 21-42.
- Kitano, K. (2001). Anxiety in the college Japanese language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, 85(4), 517-566.
- Kleinmann, H. (1977). *Avoidance behavior in adult second language acquisition. Language Learning*. 27(1), 93-107.
- Kline, R. (2005). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Guilford.
- Klopfer, P.H. & Hatch, J.J. (1968). Experimental considerations. In T. A. Sebeok (Ed.), *Animal Communication: Techniques of Study and Results of Research* (pp. 31-43). Bloomington, Ind.: Indiana University Press.
- Knell, E., & Chi, Y. (2012). The roles of motivation, affective attitudes, and willingness to communicate among Chinese students in early English immersion programs. *International Education*, 41(2), 66.
- Kormos, J., Kiddle, T., & Csizér, K. (2011). Systems of goals, attitudes, and self-related beliefs in second-language-learning motivation. *Applied Linguistics*, 32(5), 495-516.
- Kostiainen, E. (2015). *Classroom context's influence on students' willingness to communicate: a study of upper secondary school students' views*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Jyväskylä, Jyväskylä, Finland.
- Krashen, S. D. (1987). *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*. United Kingdom: Prentice-Hall International.
- Krashen, S. (1989). We acquire vocabulary and spelling by reading: Additional evidence for the input hypothesis. *The Modern Language Journal*, 73, 440-464.

- Krasny, K., & Sadoski, M. (2008). Mental imagery and affect in English/French bilingual readers: A cross-linguistic perspective. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 64(3), 399–428.
- Kring, A. M., Davison, G. C., Neale, J. M., & Johnson, S. L. (2007). *Abnormal psychology* (10th ed.). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.
- Kuhl, J. (1985). Volitional mediators of cognition-behaviour consistency: Self-regulatory processes and action versus state orientation. In J. Kuhl & J. Beckmann (Eds.), *Action control: From cognition to behaviour* (pp. 101-128). New York: Springer.
- Kunnan, A. J. (1998). An introduction to structural equation modelling for language assessment research. *Language Testing*, 15(3), 295–332.
- Kunimoto, K. (2007). What variables does the perceived competence of young English learners consist of? A comparison between 4th and 5th graders. *Kyouiku Kenkyu Journal*, 3, 211-221.
- Kurasaki, K. S. (2000). Intercoder reliability for validating conclusions drawn from open-ended interview data. *Field Methods*, 12(3), 179-194.
- Lahuerta, A. C. (2014). Factors affecting willingness to communicate in a Spanish university context. *International Journal of English Studies*, 14(2), 39-55.
- Lalonde, R. N., & Gardner, R. C. (1984). Investigating a causal model of second language acquisition: Where does personality fit? *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science/Revue canadienne des sciences du comportement*, 16(3), 224.
- Lanvers, U. (2016). Lots of selves, some rebellious: Developing the self-discrepancy model for language learners. *System*, 60, 79-92.
- Larsen-Freeman, D., & Long, M. H. (1994). *An Introduction to Second Language Acquisition Research*. London: Routledge.
- Laufer, B. (1998). The development of passive and active vocabulary in a second language: same or different? *Applied Linguistics*, 19(2), 255-271.

- Laufer, B. (1997). What's in a Word That Makes It Hard or Easy? Intralexical Factors Affecting the Difficulty of Vocabulary Acquisition. In M. McCarthy & N. Schmitt (Eds.), *Vocabulary Description, Acquisition and Pedagogy* (pp. 140-155). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Laufer, B., & Goldstein, Z. (2004). Testing vocabulary knowledge: Size, strength, and computer adaptiveness. *Language Learning*, 54(3), 399-436.
- Laufer, B., & Nation, P. (1999). A vocabulary-size test of controlled productive ability. *Language testing*, 16(1), 33-51.
- Lee, J. (2014). *Adolescents' L2 speaking anxiety: review of the literature and implications*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. The University of Texas, Austin, USA.
- Lepore, C. E. (2014). Influencing Students' Pronunciation and Willingness to Communicate through Interpersonal Audio Discussions. *Dimension*, 73-96.
- Lewis, A. L. (2011). *Learners' mode preferences and willingness to communicate in face-to-face versus oral computer-mediated communication*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. San Diego State University, San Diego, CA.
- Lewis, M. (1993). *The lexical approach: The state of ELT and the way forward*. Hove, England: Language Teaching Publications.
- Lian, L. H., & Budin, M. B. (2014). Investigating the Relationship between English Language Anxiety and the Achievement of School based Oral English Test among Malaysian Form Four Students. *International Journal of Learning, Teaching and Educational Research*, 2(1), 67-79.
- Lightbown, P. M. & Spada, N. (2006). *How Language Are Learned* (3rd Ed.). New York: Oxford University Press.

- Lin, Y., & Rancer, A. S. (2003). Sex differences in intercultural communication apprehension, ethnocentrism, and intercultural willingness to communicate. *Psychological Reports*, 92(1), 195-200.
- Liu, H. (2012). Understanding EFL Undergraduate Anxiety in Relation to Motivation, Autonomy, and Language Proficiency. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 9(1), 123-139.
- Liu, M. (2017). Adult Chinese as a Second Language Learners' Willingness to Communicate in Chinese: Effects of Cultural, Affective, and Linguistic Variables. *Psychological Reports*, 120(3), 423-442.
- Liu, M.-H. (2005). Reticence in oral English language classrooms: A case study in China. *TESL Reporter*, 38(1), 1-16.
- Liu, M., & Huang, W. (2011). An Exploration of Foreign Language Anxiety and English Motivation. *Education Research International*, 12, 1-8.
- Liu, M., & Jackson, J. (2008). An exploration of Chinese EFL learners' unwillingness to communicate and foreign language anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal*, 92(1), 71-86.
- Long, M. H. (1985). Input and second language acquisition theory. In S. Gass., & C. Madden, (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition* (pp. 377-393). Rowley, Mass: Newbury House.
- Lu, Y. (2007). *Willingness to communicate in intercultural interactions between Chinese and Americans*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Wyoming, Laramie, WY.
- Lu, Y., & Hsu, C. F. (2008). Willingness to communicate in intercultural interactions between Chinese and Americans. *Journal of Intercultural Communication Research*, 37(2), 75-88.
- Lu, Z., & Liu, M. (2011). Foreign language Anxiety and Strategy Use; A Study with Chinese Undergraduate EFL Learners. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 2(6), 1298-1305.

- Lu, Z., & Liu, M. (2011). Foreign language anxiety and strategy use: A study with Chinese undergraduate EFL learners. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 2(6), 1298-1305.
- Lukmani, Y. M. (1972). Motivation to learn and language proficiency. *Language Learning*, 22(2), 261-273.
- MacDonald, J. R., Clément, R., & MacIntyre, P. D. (2003). *Willingness to communicate in an L2 in a bilingual context: A qualitative investigation of Anglophone and Francophone students*. Unpublished manuscript, Cape Breton University, Sydney, Nova Scotia, Canada, 1-29.
- MacIntyre, P. D. (1995). How does anxiety affect second language learning? A reply to Sparks and Ganschow. *The Modern Language Journal*, 79(1), 90-99.
- MacIntyre, P. D. (1999). Language anxiety: A review of the research for language teachers. In D. J. Young (Ed.), *Affect in foreign language and second language learning: A practical guide to creating a low-anxiety classroom atmosphere* (pp. 24-41). Boston: McGraw-Hill.
- MacIntyre, P. D. (2002). Motivation, anxiety and emotion in second language acquisition. In P. Robinson (Ed.), *Individual differences and instructed language learning* (pp. 45-68). Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- MacIntyre, P. D. (1994). Variables underlying willingness to communicate: A causal analysis. *Communication Research Reports*, 11(2), 135-142.
- MacIntyre, P. D. (2007). Willingness to communicate in the second language: Understanding the decision to speak as a volitional process. *The Modern Language Journal*, 91(4), 564-576.
- MacIntyre, P. D., Babin, P. A., & Clément, R. (1999). Willingness to communicate: Antecedents & Consequences. *Communication Quarterly*, 47(2), 215-229.

- MacIntyre, P. D., Baker, S. C., Clément, R., & Conrod, S. (2001). Willingness to communicate, social support, and language-learning orientations of immersion students. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 23(3), 369-388.
- MacIntyre, P. D., Baker, S. C., Clément, R., & Donovan, L. A. (2002). Sex and age effects on willingness to communicate, anxiety, perceived competence, and L2 motivation among junior high school French immersion students. *Language learning*, 52(3), 537-564.
- MacIntyre, P. D., Baker, S., Clément, R., & Donovan, L. (2003). Talking in order to learn: Willingness to communicate and intensive language programs. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 59(4), 589-608.
- MacIntyre, P. D., Burns, C., & Jessome, A. (2011). Ambivalence about communicating in a second language: A qualitative study of French immersion students' willingness to communicate. *The Modern Language Journal*, 95(1), 81-96.
- MacIntyre, P. D., & Charos, C. (1996). Personality, attitudes, and affect as predictors of second language communication. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 15(1), 3-26.
- MacIntyre, P. D., & Clément, R. (1996). *A model of willingness to communicate in a second language: The concept, its antecedents and implications*. Paper presented at the 11th World Congress of Applied Linguistics, Jyväskylä, Finland.
- MacIntyre, P. D., Clément, R., & Donovan, L. (2002, October). *Willingness to communicate in the L2 among French immersion students*. Paper presented at the *Second Language Research Forum*, Toronto, Ontario, Canada.
- MacIntyre, P. D., & Doucette, J. (2010). Willingness to communicate and action control. *System*, 38(2), 161-171.

- MacIntyre, P. D., Dörnyei, Z., Clément, R., & Noels, K. A. (1998). Conceptualizing willingness to communicate in an L2: A situational model of L2 confidence and affiliation. *The Modern Language Journal*, 82(4), 545-562.
- MacIntyre, P. D., & Gardner, R. C. (1989). Anxiety and second-language learning: Toward a theoretical clarification. *Language Learning*, 39(2), 251-275.
- MacIntyre, P. D. and Gardner, R. C. (1991c). Investigating language class anxiety using the focused essay technique. *Modern Language Journal*, 75, 296-304.
- MacIntyre, P. D., & Gardner, R. C. (1991a). Language Anxiety: Its Relationship to Other Anxieties and to Processing in Native and Second Languages. *Language learning*, 41(4), 513-534.
- MacIntyre, P. D., & Legatto, J. J. (2011). A dynamic system approach to willingness to communicate: Developing an idiodynamic method to capture rapidly changing affect. *Applied Linguistics*, 32(2), 149-171.
- MacIntyre, P. D., Noels, K. A., & Clément, R. (1997). Biases in self-ratings of second language proficiency: The role of language anxiety. *Language Learning*, 47(2), 265-287.
- Mackey, A., & Gass, S. M. (2005). *Second language research: Methodology and design*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Maftoon, P., & Sarem, S. N. (2013). Gender and Willingness to Communicate. *Iranian Journal of Language Issues (IJLI)*, 1(1), 1-18.
- Magid, M., & Chan, L. (2012). Motivating English learners by helping them visualize their ideal L2 self: Lessons from two motivational programmes. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 6(2), 113–125.
- Mahdi, D. A. (2014). Willingness to Communicate in English: A Case Study of EFL Students at King Khalid University. *English Language Teaching*, 7(7), 17-25.

- Mahmoodi, M. H., & Moazam, I. (2014). Willingness to Communicate (WTC) and L2 Achievement: The Case of Arabic Language Learners. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 98, 1069-1076.
- Mari, M., Pathan, H., & Shahriar, A. (2011). Willingness to communicate in L2: A perception of Pakistani university students. *ELF Annual Research Journal*, 13, 65-82.
- Markus, H., & Nurius, P. (1986). Possible selves. *American Psychologist*, 41(9), 954-969.
- Markus, H. & Nurius, P. (1987). Possible selves: the interface between motivation and self-concept, In K. Yardley & T. Honess (Eds.), *Self and Identity: Psychological Perspectives* (pp. 151-172). New York: Wiley and Sons.
- Masgoret, A. M. & Gardner, R. C. (2003). Attitudes, Motivation, and Second Language Learning: A Meta-Analysis of Studies Conducted by Gardner and Associates. *Language Learning*, 53(1), 123-163.
- Matsuoka, R. (2005). *Japanese college students' willingness to communicate in English*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Temple University, Philadelphia.
- Matsuoka, R., & Evans, D. R. (2005). Willingness to communicate in the second language. *J Nurs Studies NCNJ*, 4(1), 3-12.
- Matsuoka, R., Matsumoto, K., Poole, G., & Matsuoka, M. (2014). Japanese University Students' Willingness to Communicate in English: The Serendipitous Effect of Oral Presentations. *Journal of Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics*, 18(1), 193-218.
- McCarthy, M. (1990). *Language teaching: A scheme for teacher education*. Oxford: Oxford University.
- McCroskey, J. C. (1997). *An introduction to rhetorical communication*. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

- McCroskey, J. C. (1982). Communication competence and performance: A research and pedagogical perspective. *Communication Education*, 31(1), 1-7.
- McCroskey, J. C. (1977). Oral communication apprehension: A summary of recent theory and research. *Human Communication Research*, 4(1), 78-96.
- McCroskey, J. C. (1992). Reliability and validity of the willingness to communicate scale. *Communication Quarterly*, 40(1), 16-25.
- McCroskey, J.C., & Baer, J.E. (November, 1985). *Willingness to communicate: The construct and its measurement*. Paper presented at the Annual Convention of the Speech Communication Association, Denver, CO.
- McCroskey, L. L., & McCroskey, J. C. (2002). Willingness to communicate and communication apprehension in the classroom. In J. L. Chesbro & J. McCroskey (Eds.), *Communication for teachers* (pp. 19-34). Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- McCroskey, J. C., & Richmond, V. P. (1982). Communication apprehension and shyness: Conceptual and operational distinctions. *Communication Studies*, 33(3), 458-468.
- McCroskey, J. C., & Richmond, V. P. (1990). Willingness to communicate: A cognitive view. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality*, 5(2), 19.
- McCroskey, J. C., & Richmond, V. P. (1987). Willingness to communicate and personality and interpersonal communication, In J. C. McCroskey & J. A. Daly (Eds.), *Personality and interpersonal communication* (pp. 129-156). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- McCroskey, J. C., & Richmond, V. P. (1990). Willingness to communicate: Differing cultural perspectives. *Southern Journal of Communication*, 56(1), 72-77.
- McDonald, R. P., & Moon-Ho, R. H. (2002). Principles and practice in reporting structural equation analyses. *Psychological Methods*, 7(1), 64-82.

- McGroarty, M. (2001). Bilingual Approaches to Language Learning. In M. Celce-Murcia (Eds.), *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language* (pp. 345–356). Boston, MA: Heinle and Heinle.
- Meara, P. (1990). A note on passive vocabulary. *Second Language Research*, 6(2), 150-154.
- Mehrgan, K. (2013). Willingness to Communicate in Second Language Acquisition: A Case Study from a Socio-Affective Perspective. *Journal of Comparative Literature and Culture*, 2(4), 172-175.
- Meijas, H., Applbaum, R.L., Applbaum, S.J. & Trotter, R.T. (1991). Oral Communication Apprehension and Hispanics. An Exploration of Oral Communication Apprehension among Mexican American Students in Texas. In E.K. Horwitz & D.J. Young (Eds.), *Language anxiety: From theory and research to classroom implications* (pp. 109–126). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Menezes, E., & Juan-Garau, M. (2015). English learners' willingness to communicate and achievement in CLIL and formal instruction contexts. In M. Juan-Garau & J. Salazar-Noguera (Eds.), *Content-based language learning in multilingual educational environments* (pp. 221-236). Heidelberg: Springer International Publishing.
- Mercer, S., Ryan, S., & Williams, M. (Eds.). (2012). *Psychology for language learning: Insights from research, theory and practice*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1984). *Qualitative data analysis: A sourcebook of new methods*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Miller, A., & Pearson, J. (2013). Can I Talk to You? The Effects of Instructor Position, Nationality, and Teaching Style on Students' Perceived Willingness to Communicate and on Teacher Evaluations. *Communication Quarterly*, 61(1), 18-34.

- Milton, J. (2005). *Testing your students' vocabulary size: and what this can tell you*. Mexico: ANUPI.
- Min, Z. (2010). *Chinese students' willingness to communicate in Canada*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Windsor, Canada.
- Mirsane, M., & Khabiri, M. (2016). The Effect of Teaching Communicative Strategy on EFL Learners' Willingness to Communicate. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 6(2), 399-407.
- Moazzam, I. (2014). A comparison of Willingness to Communicate (WTC) between Iranian EFL and EAP learners. *International Journal of Research Studies in Language Learning*, 3(7), 57-72.
- Mohammadian, T. (2013). The Effect of Shyness on Iranian EFL Learners. Language Learning Motivation and Willingness to Communicate. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 3(11), 2036-2045.
- Mohammadzadeh, A., & Jafarigohar, M. (2012). The relationship between willingness to communicate and multiple intelligences among learners of English as a foreign language. *English Language Teaching*, 5(7), 25-32.
- Morris, T. (1997). *Psychological skills training in sport: An overview* (2nd ed.). Leeds, UK: National Coaching Foundation.
- Moskovsky, C., Assulaimani, T., Racheva, S., & Harkins, J. (2016). The L2 motivational self system and L2 achievement: A study of Saudi EFL learners. *The Modern Language Journal*, 100(3), 641-654.
- Mortensen, C. D., Arntson, P. H., & Lustig, M. (1977). The measurement of verbal predispositions: Scale development and application. *Human Communication Research*, 3(2), 146-158.
- Moulton, S. T., & Kosslyn, S. M. (2009). Imagining predictions: mental imagery as mental emulation. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, 364(1521), 1273-1280.

- Muijs, D. (2004). *Doing Quantitative Research in Education with SPSS*. London: Sage Publications.
- Muir, C., & Dornyei, Z. (2013). Directed Motivational Currents: Using vision to create effective motivational pathways. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, 3(3), 357-375.
- Munezane, Y. (2014). *A Structural Equation Model and Intervention Study of Individual Differences, Willingness to Communicate, and L2 Use in an EFL Classroom*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Temple University, Philadelphia, PA.
- Munezane, Y. (2013). Attitudes, affect and ideal L2 self as predictors of willingness to communicate. *EUROSLA Yearbook*, 13(1), 176-198.
- Munezane, Y. (2015). Enhancing Willingness to Communicate: Relative Effects of Visualization and Goal Setting. *The Modern Language Journal*, 99(1), 175-191.
- Murphey, T., Falout, J., Fukada, Y., & Fukuda, T. (2012). Group dynamics: Collaborative agency in present communities of imagination. In S. Mercer, S. Ryan, & M. Williams (Eds.), *Psychology in language learning: Insights from research, theory and practice* (pp. 220-238). Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Murray, G. (2013). Pedagogy of the possible: Imagination, autonomy, and space. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, 3(3), 377-396.
- Nagy, B. C. (2007). *To will or not to will: Exploring advanced EFL learners' willingness to communicate in English*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Pécs, Hungary.
- Nagy, W., & Townsend, D. (2012). Words as tools: Learning academic vocabulary as language acquisition. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 47(1), 91-108.

- Nandy, M. (1994). *Vocabulary and grammar for G.C.E. 'O' level English*. Singapore: Composite Study Aids.
- Nation, I. S. P. (2001). *Learning vocabulary in another language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nation, I. S. P. (1990). *Teaching and learning vocabulary*. New York: Newbury House.
- Nation, I. S. P. & Waring, R. (2001). Vocabulary size, text, text coverage and word lists. In N. Schmitt and M. McCarthy (Eds.), *Vocabulary: Description, acquisition, and pedagogy* (pp.6-19). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Newman, W. & Summer, C. (1977). Process of Management: Concepts, behaviour, and practice. In Doctor, R., & A. Doctor (Eds.), *Principles and Practice of Business Communication* (pp.126-143) Bombay: Sheth Publishers.
- Nishida, R. (2012). A longitudinal study of motivation, interest, can-do and willingness to communicate in foreign language activities among Japanese fifth-grade students. *Language Education & Technology*, 49, 23-45.
- Nishida, R., & Yashima, T. (2009). An Investigation of Factors Affecting Willingness to Communicate and Interest in Foreign Countries among Young Learners. *Language Education & Technology*, 46, 151-170.
- Noels, K. A. (2001). Learning Spanish as a second language: Learners' orientations and perceptions of their teachers' communication styles. *Language Learning*, 51(1), 107-144.
- Noels, K. A. (2009). The internalisation of language learning into the self and social identity. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 295-313). Bristol, England: Multilingual Matters.

- Noels, K. A., Clément, R. & Pelletier, L. G. (1999). Perceptions of teachers' communicative style and students' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. *Modern Language Journal*, 83(1), 23-34.
- Nosratinia, M., & Deris, Z. (2015). An Exploration into the Relationship between EFL Learners' Self-regulation and Willingness to Communicate. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 5(9), 1921-1928.
- Nunan, D. (1999). *Second language teaching and learning*. Boston, MA: Heinle and Heinle.
- Olivares-Cuhat, G. (2010). Relative Importance of Learning Variables on L2 Performance. *Linguistik Online*, 43(3), 99-116.
- Oxford, R. L. (1997). Cooperative learning, collaborating learning, and interaction: Three communicative strands in the language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, 81 (4), 443-456.
- Oxford, R. L. (1999c). Second language learning: Individual differences. In B. Spolsky (Ed.), *Concise encyclopedia of educational linguistics* (pp. 552–560). Oxford: Elsevier.
- Oxford, R. (1999). “Style wars” as a source of anxiety in language classrooms. In D.J. Young (Ed.), *Affect in foreign language and second language learning: A practical guide to creating a low-anxiety classroom atmosphere* (pp. 216–237). Boston: McGraw-Hill.
- Oxford, R. L. (2001). ‘The bleached bones of a story’: Learners constructions of language teachers. In M. P. Breen (Ed.), *Learner contributions to language learning: New directions in research* (pp. 86–111). Harlow, England: Longman.
- Oxford, R. L., & Ehrman, M. E. (1993). Second language research on individual differences. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 13, 188–205.
- Oxford, R.L., & Shearin, J. (1994). Language learning motivation: Expanding the theoretical framework. *Modern Language Journal*, 78, 12-28.

- Öz, H. (2014). Big Five personality traits and willingness to communicate among foreign language learners in Turkey. *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal*, 42(9), 1473-1482.
- Öz, H. (2016). Role of the ideal L2 self in predicting willingness to communicate of EFL students. In İ. H. Mirici, İ. H. Erten, H. Öz, & I. Vodopija-Krstanovic (Eds.), *Research papers as an Additional Language* (pp. 163-182). Rijeka: Faculty of Humanities and Social Research.
- Öz, H., Demirezen, M., & Pourfeiz, J. (2015). Willingness to communicate of EFL learners in Turkish context. *Learning and Individual Differences*, 37, 269-275.
- Özdamar, K. (2004). *Paket Programlar ile İstatistiksel Veri Analizi 1*. (5.Baskı). Eskişehir: Kaan Kitabevi.
- Öztürk, G. (2012). *Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety and Learner Motivation: A Case Study at a Turkish State University*. Unpublished master's thesis. Middle East Technical University, Ankara, Turkey.
- Paivio, A. (1985). Cognitive and motivational functions of imagery in human performance. *Canadian journal of applied sport sciences. Journal canadien des sciences appliquées au sport*, 10(4), 22S-28S.
- Pallant, J. (2010). *SPSS survival manual: A step by step guide to data analysis using SPSS*. Maidenhead: Open University Press/McGraw-Hill.
- Papi, M. (2010). The L2 motivational self system, L2 anxiety, and motivated behavior: A structural equation modeling approach. *System*, 38(3), 467–479.
- Papi, M., & Teimouri, Y. (2012). Dynamics of selves and motivation: a cross-sectional study in the EFL context of Iran. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 22(3), 287-309.

- Pappamihel, N. E. (2002). English as a second language students and English language anxiety: Issues in the mainstream classroom. *Research in the Teaching of English*, 36(3), 327-355.
- Park, G. (1995). *Language learning strategies and beliefs about language learning of university students learning English in Korea*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Texas, Austin.
- Park, H., & Lee, A. R. (2005). L2 learners' anxiety, self-confidence and oral performance. *The Proceedings of the 10th Conference of Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics* (pp. 197-208). United Kingdom: Edinburg.
- Pattapong, K. (2015). Complex Interactions of Factors Underlying Thai EFL Learners' Willingness to Communicate in English. *PASAA: Journal of Language Teaching and Learning in Thailand*, 49, 105-136.
- Patton, M. (1990). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods* (2nd Ed.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Pavičić Takač, V., & Požega, D. (2011). Personality traits, willingness to communicate and oral proficiency in English as a foreign language. In L. Pon, V. Karabaliş, & S. Cimer (Eds.), *Applied linguistics today: Research and perspectives* (pp. 67-82). Berlin, Germany: Lang.
- Pawlak, M. (Ed.). (2012). *New perspectives on individual differences in language learning and teaching*. New York, NY: Springer Science & Business Media.
- Pawlak, M., & Mystkowska-Wiertelak, A. (2015). Investigating the dynamic nature of L2 willingness to communicate. *System*, 50, 1-9.
- Pawlak, M., Mystkowska-Wiertelak, A., & Bielak, J. (2015). Investigating the nature of classroom willingness to communicate (WTC): A micro-perspective. *Language Teaching Research*, 19(1), 1-19.
- Pearson, J. C., Nelson, P. E., Titsworth, S., & Harter, L. (2003). *Human communication*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

- Peng, J. (2009). *Exploring willingness to communicate (WTC) in English in Chinese EFL university classrooms: A mixed methods approach*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Sydney University, Sydney.
- Peng, J. E. (2015). L2 Motivational Self System, Attitudes, and Affect as Predictors of L2 WTC: An Imagined Community Perspective. *The Asia-Pacific Education Researcher*, 24(2), 433-443.
- Peng, J. E. (2016). The Context-Sensitivity of Self-Concept and Willingness to Communicate in the Chinese EFL Classroom: A Case Study. In J. King (Ed.) *The Dynamic Interplay between Context and the Language Learner* (pp. 84-103). Palgrave Macmillan UK.
- Peng, J. E. (2012). Towards an ecological understanding of willingness to communicate in EFL classrooms in China. *System*, 40(2), 203-213.
- Peng, J. E. (2007). Willingness to communicate in an L2 and integrative motivation among college students in an intensive English language program in China. *University of Sydney Papers in TESOL*, 2(1), 33-59.
- Peng, J. E. (2007). Willingness to communicate in the Chinese EFL classroom: A cultural perspective. In J. Liu (Ed.), *English language teaching in China: New approaches, perspectives and standards* (pp. 250-269). London: Continuum.
- Peng, J. E., & Woodrow, L. (2010). Willingness to communicate in English: A model in the Chinese EFL classroom context. *Language Learning*, 60(4), 834-876.
- Pervin, L. A., & John, O. P. (2001). *Personality: Theory and Research*. New York: Wiley.
- Philips, E. M. (1992). *The Effects of Language Anxiety on Students' Oral Test Performance and Attitudes*. *The Modern Language Journal*, 76(1), 14-26.
- Phillips, G. M. (1968). Reticence: Pathology of the normal speaker. *Communications Monographs*, 35(1), 39-49.

- Pica, T. (1992). The textual outcomes of native speaker–nonnative speaker negotiation: What do they reveal about second language learning? In C. Kramsch & S. McConnell-Ginet (Eds.), *Text and context: Cross-disciplinary perspectives on language study* (pp. 198–237). Lexington, MA: D. C. Heath & Co.
- Piechurska-Kuciel, E. (2014). *Proximal Predictors of L2 Willingness to Communicate in Polish Adolescents*. In N. Lavidas, T., & A.M. Sougari (Eds.), *Major Trends in Theoretical and Applied Linguistics* (pp. 315-328). Great Britain: Versita Ltd.
- Pintrich, P. R., & Schunk, D. H. (2002). *Motivation in education: Theory, research, and applications* (2nd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Plano Clark, V. P., & Creswell, J. W. (2011). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*. Los Angeles, CA: Sage.
- Pourhasan, E., & Zoghi, M. (2017). The Role of Willingness to Communicate and Motivation in Language Learning in Iran. *Journal of Language and Translation*, 7(1), 59-67.
- Powell, T. J. & Enright, S. J. (1990). *Anxiety and Stress Management*. London & New York: Routledge.
- Rahmatollahi, M., & Khalili, G. F. (2015). Relationship between Intermediate EFL Learners' Communication Apprehension, Willingness to Communicate, and Speaking Ability. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature*, 4(6), 23-32.
- Rastegar, M., & Karami, M. (2015). On the Relationship between Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety, Willingness to Communicate and Scholastic Success among Iranian EFL Learners. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 5(11), 2387-2394.
- Raykov, T., & Marcoulides, G. A. (2006). *A first course in structural equation modeling* (2nd ed.). Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum

- Associates. Read, J. (2000). *Assessing vocabulary*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Read, J. (2004). Research in Teaching Vocabulary. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 24,146-161.
- Reinders, H., & Wattana, S. (2015). Affect and willingness to communicate in digital game-based learning. *ReCALL*, 27(1), 38-57.
- Riasati, M. J. (2012). EFL learners' perception of factors influencing willingness to speak English in language classrooms: A qualitative study. *World Applied Sciences Journal*, 17(10), 1287-1297.
- Riasati, M. J. (August, 2015). Examining Willingness to Speak English in EFL Classrooms. In J. Vopava, R. Kratochvil, & V. Douda (Eds.), *The Proceedings of the Multidisciplinary Academic Conference on Education, Teaching and E-learning* (pp. 137-144). Prague: Czech Republic.
- Richards, J. C. (1976). The role of vocabulary teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, 10 (1), 77 - 89.
- Richards, J. C., & Renandya, W. A. (2002). *Methodology in Language Teaching: An Anthology of Current Practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J.C. & Schmidt, R. (Eds). (2010). *Longman dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics*. (4th ed.). Harlow, UK: Pearson Education Limited.
- Richardson, A. (1994). *Individual differences in imaging: Their measurement, origins, and consequences*. Amityville, NY: Baywood.
- Richmond, V. P., & Roach, K. D. (1992). Power in the classroom: Seminal studies. In V. P. Richmond & J. C. McCroskey (Eds.), *Power in the classroom: Communication, control, and concern* (pp. 47-66). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

- Robinson, P. (2002d). Learning conditions, aptitude complexes and SLA: A framework for research and pedagogy. In P. Robinson (Ed.), *Individual differences and instructed language learning* (pp. 113–133). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Robson, G. (2015). A Model of Situational Willingness to Communicate (WTC) in the Study Abroad Context. *International Education Studies*, 8(10), 114-125.
- Root, E. (1999). *Motivation and learning strategies in a foreign language setting: A look at a learner Korean*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Minnesota, USA.
- Rouhani, A. (2007). An investigation into emotional intelligence, foreign language anxiety and empathy through a cognitive-affective course in an EFL context. *Linguistik Online*, 34(1), 41-57.
- Ryan, S. (2009). Self and identity in L2 motivation in Japan: The ideal L2 self and Japanese learners of English. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self*, (pp.120-143). United Kingdom: MPG Books Ltd.
- Ryan, S. & Dörnyei, Z. (2013). The long-term evolution of language motivation and the L2 self. In A. Berndt (Ed.), *Fremdsprachen in der perspektive lebenslangen lernens* (pp. 89-100). Frankfurt: Peter Lang.
- Saito, Y. & Samimy, K. K. (1996). Foreign language anxiety and language performance: A study of learner anxiety in beginning, intermediate, and advanced level college students of Japanese. *Foreign Language Annals*, 29(2), 239-249.
- Sallinen-Kuparinen, A., McCroskey, J. C., & Richmond, V. P. (1991). Willingness to communicate, communication apprehension, introversion, and self-reported communication competence: Finnish and American comparisons. *Communication Research Reports*, 8(1), 55-64.

- Samimy, K. K., & Rardin, J. P. (1994). Adult language learners' affective reactions to community language learning: A descriptive study. *Foreign Language Annals*, 27, 379-390.
- Samimy, K.K., & Tabuse, M. (1992). Affective variables and a less commonly taught language: A study in beginning Japanese classes. *Language Learning*, 42, 377-398.
- Sampson, R. (2012). The language-learning self, self-enhancement activities, and self perceptual change. *Language Teaching Research*, 16(3), 317-335.
- Savignon, S. J. (2005). Communicative language teaching: Strategies and goals. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 653-561). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Sawyer, M., & Ranta, L. (2001). Aptitude, individual differences, and instructional design. In P. Robinson (Ed.), *Cognition and second language acquisition* (pp. 319-353). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Schermelleh-Engel, K., Moosbrugger, H., & Müller, H. (2003). Evaluating the fit of structural equation models: Tests of significance and descriptive goodness-of-fit measures. *Methods of psychological research online*, 8(2), 23-74.
- Schmitt, N. (2010). *Researching vocabulary: A vocabulary research manual*. London: Saffron House.
- Schmitt, N. (2000). *Vocabulary in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University.
- Schmitt, N., Schmitt, D., & Clapham, C. (2001). Developing and exploring the behaviour of two new versions of the Vocabulary Levels Test. *Language testing*, 18(1), 55-88.
- Schumacker, R. E., & Lomax, R. G. (2004). *A beginner's guide to structural equation modeling*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

- Scovel, T. (1978). The effect of affect on foreign language learning: A review of the anxiety research. *Language Learning*, 28, 129–142.
- Segalowitz, N. (1997). Individual differences in second language acquisition. In A. de Groot, M. B. & J. F. Kroll (Eds.), *Tutorials in bilingualism: Psycholinguistic perspectives* (pp. 85–112). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Seliger, H. W. (1977). Does practice make perfect? A study of interaction patterns and L2 competence. *Language Learning*, 27(2), 263-278.
- Sellars, W. (1969). Language as Thought and as Communication. *Philosophy and Phenomenological Research*, 29, 506-527.
- Sellers, V. D. (2000). Anxiety and reading comprehension in Spanish as a foreign language. *Foreign Language Annals*, 33(5), 512-520.
- Şener, (2010). *The effect of proficiency level on the rate of receptive and productive vocabulary acquisition*. Unpublished master's thesis. Bilkent University, Ankara, Turkey.
- Shahsavari, Z. (2014). On the relationship between willingness to communicate and identity processing styles of the Iranian advanced EFL learners. *International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World*, 5(1), 53-60.
- Shea, A. M. (2014). *Student perceptions of a mobile augmented reality game and willingness to communicate in Japanese*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Pepperdine University, CA, USA.
- Simić, I. (2014). *Willingness to Communicate: A Comparison between Austrian And Serbian Students*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Graz, Austria.
- Skehan, P. (1998). *A cognitive approach to language learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Skehan, P. (1989). *Individual differences in second language learning*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Skehan, P. (1991). Individual differences in second language learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 13(2), 275–298.
- Skehan, P. (1990). The relationship between native and foreign language learning ability: educational and linguistic factors. In H. Dechert (Ed.), *Current Trends in European Second Language Acquisition Research* (pp. 45-78). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Soureshjani, K. H. (2013). A study on the effect of self-regulation and the degree of willingness to communicate on oral presentation performance of EFL learners. *International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World*, 4(4), 166-177.
- Sparks, R.J., Ganschow, L. & Javorsky, J. (2000). Déjà vu all over again. A response to Saito, Horwitz, and Garza. *The Modern Language Journal*, 84(1), 251–255.
- Spielberger, C. D. (1983). *Manual for the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI)*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologist Press.
- Spolsky, B. (1989). *Conditions for second language learning: Introduction to a general theory*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- SPSS, I. (2012). *IBM SPSS Statistics Version 21*. Boston, Mass: International Business Machines Corp.
- Strong, M. (1984). Integrative motivation: cause or result of successful second language acquisition? *Language Learning*, 34(3), 1-14.
- Subaşı, G. (2010). What are the main sources of Turkish EFL students' anxiety in oral practice? *Turkish Online Journal of Qualitative Inquiry*, 1(2), 29-49.
- Sun, Y, F. (2008). *Motivation to speak: perception and attitude of non-English major students in Taiwan*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Indiana University, Bloomington.

- Svensson, J. (2016). *The influence of classmates on students' willingness to communicate in English: A study based on teacher and student views and experiences at a Swedish upper secondary school*. Unpublished degree project. Linnaeus University, Växjö, Sweden.
- Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In S. Gass & C. Madden (Eds.), *Input and second language acquisition* (pp. 235-253). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Şakrak, G. (2009). *The Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Foreign Language Anxiety in Turkish EFL Students*. Unpublished master's thesis. Bilkent University, Ankara, Turkey.
- Şener, S. (2014). *Willingness to communicate in English as a foreign language among ELT students in Turkey*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Çanakkale, Turkey.
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2007). *Using multivariate statistics (5th ed.)*. Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Taguchi, T., Magid, M., & Papi, M. (2009). The L2 motivational self system among Japanese, Chinese and Iranian learners of English: A comparative study. In Z. Dörnyei, & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 9–42). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Taheryan, A., & Ghonsooly, B. (2014). The role of single-sex and mixed-sex context on Iranian students' willingness to communicate. *International Journal of English and Education*, 3(1), 1-14.
- Takač, V. P., & Požega, D. (2011). Personality traits, willingness to communicate and oral proficiency in English as a foreign language. In L. Pon, V. Karabalić, & S. Cimer (Eds.), *Applied linguistics today: Research and perspectives* (pp. 67-82). Berlin, Germany: Lang.

- Tallon, M. (2006). *Foreign language anxiety in heritage students of Spanish: To be (anxious) or not to be (anxious)? That is the question*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. The University of Texas, Austin, USA.
- Tanaka, S., & Ellis, R. (2003). Study abroad, language proficiency, and learner beliefs about language learning. *JALT Journal*, 25, 63-85.
- Tasnimi, M. (2009). *Affective factors: Anxiety*. *Journal of Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics*, 13(2), 117-124.
- Tavakoli, H. (2012). *A dictionary of research methodology and statistics in applied linguistics*. Tehran: Rahmana Press.
- Taylor, G. R., & Trumbull, M. (2005). Developing a multi-faced design/ paradigm. In G. R. Taylor (Ed.), *Integrating quantitative and qualitative methods in research* (pp. 249-258). USA: University Press of America.
- Thompson, B. (2000). Ten commandments of structural equation modeling. In L. G. Grimm & P. R. Yarnold (Eds.), *Reading and understanding more multivariate statistics* (pp.261-283). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Thornbury, S. (2002). *How to teach vocabulary*. Malaysia: Pearson Education Limited.
- Tokaç, A. (2005). *A Comparison of Computer-assisted vocabulary instruction and teacher-led vocabulary instruction*. Unpublished master's thesis. Bilkent University, Ankara, Turkey.
- Tsiplakides, I. & Keramida, A. (2009). Helping students overcome foreign language speaking anxiety in the English classroom: Theoretical issues and practical recommendations. *International Education Studies*, 2(4), 39-44.
- Tucker, R., Haymaman, E., & Genesee, F. H. (1976). Affective, cognitive and social factors in second language acquisition. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 32(2), 214-226.

- Ueki, M., & Takeuchi, O. (2013). Forming a clearer image of the ideal L2 self: the L2 Motivational Self System and learner autonomy in a Japanese EFL context. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 7(3), 238-252.
- Ushioda, E. (2008). Motivation and Good Language Learners. In C. Griffiths (Ed.), *Lessons from Good Language Learners* (pp. 19-34). Cambridge: Cambridge UP.
- Ushioda, E. (2012). Motivation: L2 learning as a special case?. In S. Mercer, S. Ryan & M. Williams (Eds.), *Psychology for language learning: Insights from research, theory and practice*, (pp. 58-73). Basingstoke, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Ushioda, E., & Dörnyei, Z. (2009). Motivation, language identities and the L2 self: A Theoretical Overview. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 1-8). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Vahedi, V. S., & Fatemi, A. H. (2015). The Role of Emotional Intelligence and Tolerance of Ambiguity in Academic Iranian EFL Learners' Willingness to Communicate. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 7(1), 178-184.
- Valadi, A., Rezaee, A., & Baharvand, P. K. (2015). The Relationship between Language Learners' Willingness to Communicate and Their Oral Language Proficiency with Regard to Gender Differences. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature*, 4(5), 147-153.
- Von Wörde, R. (2003). Students' Perspectives on Foreign Language Anxiety. *Inquiry*, 8(1), 21-40.
- Wang, N. (2005). *Beliefs about language learning and foreign language anxiety: A study of university students learning English as a foreign language in Mainland China*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Victoria, Canada.

- Wang, W., & Liu, H. G. (2017). An Empirical Study of Senior High School Students' Willingness to Communicate in English in the Chinese Context. *The Proceedings of the 3rd Annual International Conference on Modern Education and Social Science* (pp. 466-469). China: Nanjing.
- Wang, Y. J., & Erlam, R. (2011). Willingness to communicate in the Japanese language classroom: An inquiry learning project in a year 7 classroom. *New Zealand Language Teacher*, 37, 39-44.
- Waring, R. (1997). A comparison of the receptive and productive vocabulary sizes of some second language learners. *Immaculata*, 1, 53-68.
- Watanabe, M. (2013). Willingness to communicate and Japanese high school English learners. *JALT journal*, 35(2), 153-172.
- Watson, D. & Friend, R. (1969). Measurement of Social Evaluative Anxiety. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 33(4), 448-451.
- Wattana, S. (2013). *Talking while playing: the effects of computer games on interaction and willingness to communicate in English*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Canterbury, New Zealand.
- Weaver, C. (2010). *Japanese university students' willingness to use English with different interlocutors*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Temple University, Philadelphia.
- Webb, S. (2005). Receptive and productive vocabulary learning: The effects of reading and writing on word knowledge. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 27(1), 33-52.
- Webb, S. 2008. Receptive and productive vocabulary sizes of L2 learners. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 30(1), 79–95.
- Weiten, W. (1989). *Psychology: Themes and variations*. California: Brooks/Cole Publishing.

- Wells, G., Chang-Wells, G.L. (1992). *Constructing knowledge together: classrooms as centers of inquiry and literacy*. Heinemann, Portsmouth, NH.
- Wen, W. P., & Clément, R. (2003). A Chinese conceptualisation of willingness to communicate in ESL. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 16(1), 18-38.
- Wigfield, A., Guthrie, J. T., Tonks, S., & Perencevich, K. C. (2004). Children's motivation for reading: Domain specificity and instructional influences. *Journal of Educational Research*, 97, 299–309.
- Wilkins, D. A. (1972). *Linguistics and language teaching*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Williams, M., & Burden, R. (1997). *Psychology for language teachers: A social constructivist approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Williams, M., Mercer, S., & Ryan, S. (2015). *Exploring psychology in language learning and teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Wimolmas, R. (2013). *A survey study of motivation in English language learning of first year undergraduate students at Sirindhorn International Institute of Technology (SIIT), Thammasat University*. Thailand: Language Institute, Thammasat University.
- Wood, D. (2016). Willingness to communicate and second language speech fluency: An idiodynamic investigation. *System*, 60, 11-28.
- Woodrow, L. (2006). Anxiety and speaking English as a second language. *REL C Journal*, 37, 308-328.
- Wu, X. D. (2008). An investigation of Chinese EFL learners self-perceived communicative competence and willingness to communicate. *Modern Foreign Languages*, 3, 280-290.
- Xie, Q. M. (2011). *Willingness to communicate in English among secondary school students in the rural Chinese English as a foreign language (EFL) classroom*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Auckland University of Technology, Auckland, New Zealand.

- Yaghoobi, F. (2010). *Willingness to communicate among undergraduate Iranian EFL students with regard to their vocabulary knowledge*. Unpublished master's thesis. Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Mashhad, Iran.
- Yang, J. & Kim, T (2011). The L2 Motivational Self System and Perceptual Learning Styles of Chinese, Japanese, Korean, and Swedish Students. *English Teaching*, 66(1), 141-162.
- Yashima, T. (2002). Willingness to communicate in a second language: The Japanese EFL context. *The Modern Language Journal*, 86(1), 54-66.
- Yashima, T., MacIntyre, P. D., & Ikeda, M. (2016). Situated willingness to communicate in an L2: Interplay of individual characteristics and context. *Language Teaching Research*, 20(4), 1-23.
- Yashima, T., Zenuk-Nishide, L., & Shimizu, K. (2004). The influence of attitudes and affect on willingness to communicate and second language communication. *Language Learning*, 54(1), 119-152.
- Young, D. J. (1991). Creating a Low-Anxiety Classroom Environment: What Does Language Anxiety Research Suggest? *The Modern Language Journal*, 75(4), 426-437.
- Young, D. J. (1986). The relationship between anxiety and foreign language proficiency ratings. *Foreign Language Annals*, 19(5), 439-445.
- Yousef, R., Jamil, H., & Razak, N. (2013). Willingness to communicate in English: A study of Malaysian pre-service English teachers. *English Language Teaching*, 6(9), 205-216.
- Yu, H., Li, H., & Gou, X. (2011). The personality-based variables and their correlations underlying willingness to communicate. *Asian Social Science*, 7(3), 253-257.
- Yu, M. (2015). An examination of the dynamic feature of WTC through dyadic group interaction. *System*, 55, 11-20.

- Yu, M. (2009). *Willingness to communicate of foreign language learners in a Chinesesetting*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Florida State University, Florida, United States.
- Yue, D. A. I. (2009). Research on Willingness to Communicate of Non-English Major Students. *Journal of Huaihua University*, 7, 132-134.
- Zarrinabadi, N. (2014). Communicating in a second language: Investigating the effect of teacher on learners' willingness to communicate. *System*, 42, 288-295.
- Zarrinabadi, N., & Abdi, R. (2011). Willingness to communicate and language learning orientations in Iranian EFL context. *International Education Studies*, 4(4), 206.
- Zarrinabadi, N., & Haidary, T. (2014). Willingness to communicate and identity styles of Iranian EFL learners. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 98, 2010-2017.
- Zarrinabadi, N., & Khodarahmi, E. (2017). L2 Willingness to Communicate and Perceived Accent Strength: A Qualitative Inquiry. *Journal of Intercultural Communication Research*, 46(2), 173-187.
- Zhanibek, A. (2001). *The Relationship between Language Anxiety and Students' Participation in Foreign Language Classes*. Unpublished master's thesis. Bilkent University, Ankara, Turkey.
- Zheng, Y. (2008). Anxiety and second/foreign language learning revisited. *CJNSE/RCJCÉ*, 1(1), 1-12.
- Zimmerman, C. B. (1997). Historical trends in second language vocabulary instruction. In J. Coady & T. Huckin (Eds.), *Second language vocabulary acquisition: A rationale for pedagogy* (pp. 5-19). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

APPENDIX-A: Participant Consent Form

Sayın Katılımcı,

Katılmış olduğunuz çalışma, Prof. Dr. İsmail Hakkı ERTEN danışmanlığında yürüttüğüm “Willingness to Communicate: A Path-analytic Model for Tertiary Level Learners of English in Turkey” (İletişim Kurma İstekliliği: Türkiye’de Üniversite Düzeyinde İngilizce Öğrenen Öğrenciler İçin Bir Yapısal Eşitlik Modeli) başlıklı doktora tezi araştırmamda kullanılmak üzere Hacettepe Etik Komisyonu tarafından etik açıdan uygun bulunmuş olup, siz öğrencilerin sınıf içinde ve dışında İngilizce iletişim kurma isteklilik düzeyini ortaya çıkarmak ve bunun başlıca duyuşsal (ideal yabancı dil benliği, zorunlu yabancı dil benliği, yabancı dil öğrenme yaşantıları, görselleştirme becerisi, yabancı dil öğrenme motivasyonu, yabancı dil öğrenme kaygısı) ve dilsel faktörler (sözcük dağarcığı, ders başarısı) ile olan ilişkisini araştırmayı amaçlamaktadır. Bu amacı gerçekleştirmek için sizlere bir anket, bir sözcük dağarcığı testi ve görüşme uygulanacaktır. Görüşme esnasında ses kaydı alınacaktır. Çalışma esnasında sizi rahatsız edecek herhangi bir durumla karşılaşmanız durumunda istediğiniz zaman yardım talep edebilir ya da çalışmadan istediğiniz zaman çekilebilirsiniz.

Bu belgeyle elde edilen bilgilerin herhangi bir üçüncü şahıs ve grupla araştırma amacı dışında paylaşılmayacağını temin ederim. Kişisel bilgileriniz gizli tutulacak ve basılmış ya da çevrimiçi yayınlanmış herhangi bir belgede açık olarak verilmeyecektir. Değerli katılımınızla toplanan veriler yalnızca araştırma amaçlı olmak üzere ilgili araştırmacı ve veriye akademik katkı sunacak araştırmacılar tarafından kullanılacaktır. Bu formu imzalamadan önce sormak istediğiniz herhangi bir konu varsa lütfen sormaktan çekinmeyiniz. Ayrıca çalışma bittikten sonra araştırmacıya telefon ya da e-posta ile ulaşarak soru sorabilir, sonuçlar hakkında bilgi isteyebilirsiniz. İşbu belgeyi, ilgili prosedürü onaylıyor ve kayıtlarınızın araştırmacı(lar) tarafından kullanımına izin veriyorsanız lütfen imzalayınız.

Saygılarımla.

Araştırmacı:

Adı, Soyadı: Tutku BAŞÖZ (Doktora Öğrencisi)

Adres: Altıeylül/ BALIKESİR

Tel: 0266 241 12 12

e-posta: tutkubasoz@hotmail.com

İmza:

Tez Danışmanı: Prof. Dr. İsmail Hakkı ERTEN

Tel: 0 312 297 85 75

Yukarıda anlatılan çalışmadan rahatsızlık hissettiğim zaman çekilebileceğimi, araştırmacıyla paylaşmış olduğum tüm kişisel bilgilerimin gizli tutulacağını ve verdiğim bilgilerin yalnızca bilimsel amaçlarla kullanılacağını anlamış bulunuyorum. Bu belgeyle, çalışmaya gönüllü olarak katılacağımı beyan ederim.

Tarih:

Katılımcı:

Adı, Soyadı:

Adres:

Tel:

İmza:

APPENDIX-B: Composite Survey Instrument (TURKISH)

İNGİLİZCE İLETİŞİM KURMA İSTEKLİLİĞİ (SINIF İÇİ VE DIŞI), İDEAL YABANCI DİL BENLİĞİ, ZORUNLU YABANCI DİL BENLİĞİ, YABANCI DİL ÖĞRENME MOTİVASYONU, GÖRSELLEŞTİRME BECERİSİ, YABANCI DİL ÖĞRENME KAYGISI VE YABANCI DİL ÖĞRENME YAŞANTILARI ANKETLERİ

1. BÖLÜM

Öğrenci No: _____

Yaş: _____

Cinsiyet: ☐ Erkek ☐ Kadın

Bölüm/Sınıf/Şube: _____

2. BÖLÜM

Değerli öğrenciler,

Bu çalışmanın amacı katılımcıların sınıf içi ve sınıf dışı İngilizce iletişim kurma istekliliklerini, ideal yabancı dil benliklerini, zorunlu yabancı dil benliklerini, yabancı dil öğrenme yaşantılarını, yabancı dil öğrenme motivasyonlarını, yabancı dil öğrenme kaygılarını ve görselleştirme becerilerini belirlemektir. Lütfen her bir maddede yer alan ifadeyi dikkatlice okuyarak, size en uygun olduğunu düşündüğünüz seçeneği işaretleyiniz. Ankette yer alan ifadelerin doğru ya da yanlış cevabı yoktur. Lütfen her ifade için **TEK bir yanıt veriniz** ve **hiçbir maddeyi BOŞ bırakmayınız**.

Lütfen her bir **sınıf durumunda İngilizce konuşmayı** tercih etme sıklığınızı belirtiniz.

1 = Neredeyse hiçbir zaman istekli değilim

2 = Bazen istekliyim

3 = Ne istekliyim ne isteksizim

4 = Genellikle istekliyim

5 = Neredeyse her zaman istekliyim

		Neredeyse hiçbir zaman istekli değilim	Bazen istekliyim	Ne istekliyim ne isteksizim	Genellikle istekliyim	Neredeyse her zaman istekliyim
	SINIF İÇİNDE					
1.	Bir grup içinde yaz tatiliniz hakkında konuşmak	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Öğretmeninizle ev ödeviniz hakkında konuşmak	1	2	3	4	5
3.	İlk olarak o sizinle konuşursa bir yabancıyla sohbet etmek	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Tamamlamanız gereken bir görevle ilgili kafanız karıştığında yönerge/açıklama istemek	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Sırada beklerken bir arkadaşla konuşmak	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Bir tiyatro oyununda oyuncu olmak	1	2	3	4	5
7.	En sevdiğiniz oyunun kurallarını anlatmak	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Monopoly gibi İngilizce bir oyun oynamak	1	2	3	4	5
9.	İngilizce roman okumak	1	2	3	4	5

	SINIF İÇİNDE	Neredeyse hiçbir zaman istekli değilim	Bazen istekliyim	Ne istekliyim ne isteksizim	Genellikle istekliyim	Neredeyse her zaman istekliyim
10.	Bir gazetede İngilizce bir makale okumak	1	2	3	4	5
11.	Bir mektup arkadaşınızdan gelen İngilizce yazılmış mektupları okumak	1	2	3	4	5
12.	Yazarın bilerek basit sözcük ve yapıları kullanarak size yazdığı kişisel mektup veya notları okumak	1	2	3	4	5
13.	Kitap gibi, satın alabileceğiniz kaliteli bir eşya bulabilmek için gazetede bir reklamı okumak	1	2	3	4	5
14.	Popüler filmlerin İngilizce inceleme yazılarını okumak	1	2	3	4	5
15.	Okul arkadaşlarınızı bir hafta sonu partisine çağırmak için davetiye yazmak	1	2	3	4	5
16.	En sevdiğiniz hobiniz için yönergeler yazmak	1	2	3	4	5
17.	En sevdiğiniz hayvan ve alışkanlıkları hakkında bir yazı yazmak	1	2	3	4	5
18.	Bir öykü yazmak	1	2	3	4	5
19.	Bir arkadaşla mektup yazmak	1	2	3	4	5
20.	Bir gazete makalesi yazmak	1	2	3	4	5
21.	Bir dergideki “eğlence” testine cevaplar yazmak	1	2	3	4	5
22.	Yarın yapmanız gereken şeylerin listesini yazmak	1	2	3	4	5
23.	İngilizce yönergeleri dinlemek ve bir görevi tamamlamak	1	2	3	4	5
24.	Tarifi İngilizce olan bir keki pişirmek	1	2	3	4	5
25.	İngilizce bir başvuru formu doldurmak	1	2	3	4	5
26.	İngilizce konuşan birinden yol tarifi almak	1	2	3	4	5
27.	İngilizce bir filmi anlamak	1	2	3	4	5

Lütfen sınıf dışında İngilizce konuşmayı tercih etme sıklığınızı belirtiniz.

	SINIF DIŞINDA	Neredeyse hiçbir zaman istekli değilim	Bazen istekliyim	Ne istekliyim ne isteksizim	Genellikle istekliyim	Neredeyse her zaman istekliyim
28.	Bir grup içinde yaz tatiliniz hakkında konuşmak	1	2	3	4	5
29.	Öğretmeninizle ev ödeviniz hakkında konuşmak	1	2	3	4	5
30.	İlk olarak o sizinle konuşursa bir yabancıyla sohbet etmek	1	2	3	4	5
31.	Tamamlamanız gereken bir görevle ilgili kafanız karıştığında yönerge/açıklama istemek	1	2	3	4	5
32.	Sırada beklerken bir arkadaşla konuşmak	1	2	3	4	5

	SINIF DIŐINDA	Neredeyse hibir zaman istekli deėilim	Bazen istekliyim	Ne istekliyim ne isteksizim	Genellikle istekliyim	Neredeyse her zaman istekliyim
33.	Bir tiyatro oyununda oyuncu olmak	1	2	3	4	5
34.	En sevdiėiniz oyunun kurallarını anlatmak	1	2	3	4	5
35.	Monopoly gibi İngilizce bir oyun oynamak	1	2	3	4	5
36.	İngilizce roman okumak	1	2	3	4	5
37.	Bir gazetede İngilizce bir makale okumak	1	2	3	4	5
38.	Bir mektup arkadaşınızdan gelen İngilizce yazılmış mektupları okumak	1	2	3	4	5
39.	Yazarın bilerek basit sözcük ve yapıları kullanarak size yazdığı kişisel mektup veya notları okumak	1	2	3	4	5
40.	Kitap gibi, satın alabileceğiniz kaliteli bir eşya bulabilmek için gazetede bir reklamı okumak	1	2	3	4	5
41.	Popüler filmlerin İngilizce incelemelerini okumak	1	2	3	4	5
42.	Okul arkadaşlarınızı bir hafta sonu partisine çağırarak için davetiye yazmak	1	2	3	4	5
43.	En sevdiėiniz hobiniz için yönergeler yazmak	1	2	3	4	5
44.	En sevdiėiniz hayvan ve alışkanlıkları hakkında bir yazı yazmak	1	2	3	4	5
45.	Bir öykü yazmak	1	2	3	4	5
46.	Bir arkadaşına mektup yazmak	1	2	3	4	5
47.	Bir gazete makalesi yazmak	1	2	3	4	5
48.	Bir dergideki “eėlence” testine cevaplar yazmak	1	2	3	4	5
49.	Yarın yapmanız gereken şeylerin listesini yazmak	1	2	3	4	5
50.	İngilizce yönergeleri dinlemek ve bir görevi tamamlamak	1	2	3	4	5
51.	Tarifi İngilizce olan bir keki pişirmek	1	2	3	4	5
52.	İngilizce bir başvuru formu doldurmak	1	2	3	4	5
53.	İngilizce konuşan birinden yol tarifi almak	1	2	3	4	5
54.	İngilizce bir filmi anlamak	1	2	3	4	5

Lütfen her bir maddede yer alan ifadeyi dikkatlice okuyarak **1'den (hiçbir zaman) 5'e (her zaman)** kadar olan seçenekler arasında size en uygun olduğunu düşündüğünüz seçeneği yuvarlak içine alınız.

1 = Hiçbir zaman

2 = Nadiren

3 = Bazen

4 = Sık sık

5 = Her zaman

		Hiçbir zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Sık sık	Her zaman
55.	Kendimi yurtdışında yaşarken ve İngilizce konuşurken hayal edebiliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
56.	Kendimi yurtdışında yaşarken ve oradakilerle iletişim kurmak için etkili bir şekilde İngilizce konuşurken hayal edebiliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
57.	Yabancılarla İngilizce konuştuğum bir durum hayal edebiliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
58.	Kendimi uluslararası arkadaşlarımla İngilizce konuşurken hayal edebiliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
59.	Kendimi İngilizce konuşabilen birisi olarak hayal ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
60.	Kendimi ana dili İngilizce olan biriymişim gibi İngilizce konuşurken hayal edebiliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
61.	Ne zaman ileriki kariyerimi düşünsem, kendimi İngilizce kullanırken hayal ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
62.	Gelecekte yapmak istediğim şeyler İngilizceyi kullanmamı gerektiriyor.	1	2	3	4	5
63.	Kendimi bütün derslerin İngilizce olarak öğretildiği bir okulda/üniversitede okurken hayal edebiliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
64.	Kendimi İngilizce e-mailleri akıcı bir şekilde yazarken hayal edebiliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
65.	İngilizce öğreniyorum çünkü yakın arkadaşlarım bunun önemli olduğunu düşünüyorlar.	1	2	3	4	5
66.	İngilizce öğrenmek zorundayım, çünkü eğer öğrenmezsem, ailemin benimle ilgili hayal kırıklığına uğrayacağını düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
67.	İngilizce öğrenmek gerekli, çünkü etrafımdaki insanlar bunu yapmamı bekliyorlar.	1	2	3	4	5
68.	Ailem eğitilmiş bir insan olmak için İngilizce öğrenmek zorunda olduğuma inanıyorlar.	1	2	3	4	5
69.	İngilizce öğrenmeyi önemli buluyorum, çünkü saygı duyduğum insanlar bunu yapmam gerektiğini düşünüyorlar.	1	2	3	4	5
70.	İngilizce öğrenmek akranlarımla / öğretmenlerimin / ailemin onayını kazanmam açısından benim için önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5

		Hiçbir zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Sık sık	Her zaman
71.	Eğer İngilizceyi öğrenmezsem, bu hayatımda olumsuz bir etki yaratacak.	1	2	3	4	5
72.	İngilizce öğrenmek benim için önemlidir çünkü eğitilmiş bir kişinin İngilizce konuşabilmesi beklenir.	1	2	3	4	5
73.	İngilizce öğrenmek benim için önemlidir çünkü İngilizce bilgim olursa diğer insanlar bana daha çok saygı duyacaklar.	1	2	3	4	5
74.	Eğer İngilizce öğrenmeyi başaramazsam insanları hayal kırıklığına uğrattırıyor olacağım.	1	2	3	4	5
75.	Eğer öğretmenim birisinin ekstrasından İngilizce bir ödevi yapmasını istese, kesinlikle gönüllü olurum.	1	2	3	4	5
76.	Eğer gelecekte bir İngilizce dersi sağlanırsa, almak isterim.	1	2	3	4	5
77.	Sık sık İngilizce dersinde neler öğrendiğimiz üzerine düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
78.	İngilizce öğrenmek için çok çaba harcamaya hazırım.	1	2	3	4	5
79.	Eğer okullarda İngilizce öğretilmiyorsa olsaydı, başka bir yerden İngilizce dersi almaya çalışırdım.	1	2	3	4	5
80.	İngilizce ödevi söz konusu olunca, dikkatlice çalışır ve her şeyi anladığımdan emin olurum.	1	2	3	4	5
81.	İngilizce öğrenmek için çok güçlü bir istek duyuyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
82.	İngilizceye nasıl çalıştığımı göz önünde bulundurursak, dürüstçe söyleyebilirim ki İngilizce öğrenmeye gerçekten çabalıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
83.	İngilizce öğrenmek hayatımın en önemli yönlerinden biridir.	1	2	3	4	5
84.	İngilizce ödevimi aldıktan sonra, hatalarımı düzelterek sürekli yeniden yazarım.	1	2	3	4	5
85.	Kendimi İngilizce öğrenmeye sevk etme konusunda kararlıyım.	1	2	3	4	5
86.	İngilizce dersinde soruları cevaplamak için mümkün olduğunca gönüllü olurum.	1	2	3	4	5
87.	Eğer İngilizce konuşulan TV kanallarına erişimim olsaydı, onları sık sık izlemeye çalışırdım.	1	2	3	4	5
88.	İngilizce öğrenmek için sıkı çalışma konusunda istekliyim.	1	2	3	4	5
89.	Radyoda İngilizce bir şarkı duyduğumda, dikkatli bir şekilde dinler ve bütün kelimeleri anlamaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
90.	İngilizce öğrenmek benim için çok önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5
91.	Eğer okul dışında İngilizce konuşma fırsatım olsa, bunu yapabildiğim kadar yapmaya çalışırdım.	1	2	3	4	5
92.	İngilizce dersinde öğrendiğimiz konuyu anlamakta bir sorun yaşarsam, hemen öğretmenimden yardım isterim.	1	2	3	4	5
93.	Eğer istersem, bazı şeyleri hayalimde öyle net canlandırabilirim ki, iyi bir film veya hikâye kadar ilgimi canlı tutarlar.	1	2	3	4	5

		Hiçbir zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Sık sık	Her zaman
94.	Bazen en ufak bir çaba dahi harcamadan kafamda görüntüler belirir.	1	2	3	4	5
95.	Düşünürken, zihnimde fikirlerden çok sık sık görsel imgeler belirir.	1	2	3	4	5
96.	Daldığım hayaller bazen o kadar net olur ki görüntüyü gerçekten yaşıyor gibi hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5
97.	Kurgusal metinler okurken, betimlenen sahneler genellikle net bir şekilde gözümde canlanır.	1	2	3	4	5

Lütfen her bir maddede yer alan ifadeyi dikkatlice okuyarak **1'den (hiç) 5'e (çok fazla)** kadar olan seçenekler arasında size en uygun olduğunu düşündüğünüz seçeneği yuvarlak içine alınız.

1 = Hiç

2 = Pek değil

3 = Biraz

4 = Oldukça

5 = Çok fazla

		Hiç	Pek değil	Biraz	Oldukça	Çok fazla
98.	İngilizce konuşan diğer insanların İngilizcemi tuhaf bulmasından endişe duyarım.	1	2	3	4	5
99.	İngilizce konuşan biriyle karşılaşırsam gergin hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5
100.	İngilizce dersimde konuşurken gerilirim ve kafam karışır.	1	2	3	4	5
101.	İngilizce derslerimizde gönüllü olarak cevap verme konusunda iyi değilim.	1	2	3	4	5
102.	Ana dili İngilizce olan biriyle konuşurken huzursuz hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5
103.	Yabancı biri benden İngilizce yol tarif etmemi istese gerilirim.	1	2	3	4	5
104.	İngilizce derslerinizin atmosferini beğeniyor musunuz?	1	2	3	4	5
105.	İngilizce öğrenmeyi gerçekten ilginç buluyor musunuz?	1	2	3	4	5
106.	İngilizce çalışırken zamanın daha hızlı geçtiğini düşünüyor musunuz?	1	2	3	4	5
107.	İngilizce derslerini iple çekiyor musunuz?	1	2	3	4	5
108.	Okulda daha fazla İngilizce dersiniz olmasını ister misiniz?	1	2	3	4	5
109.	İngilizce öğrenmekten gerçekten keyif alıyor musunuz?	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX-C: Composite Survey Instrument (ENGLISH)

THE WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE IN ENGLISH (INSIDE AND OUTSIDE THE CLASSROOM), IDEAL L2 SELF, OUGHT-TO L2 SELF, L2 MOTIVATION, IMAGERY CAPACITY, L2 ANXIETY AND L2 LEARNING EXPERIENCE INSTRUMENTS

PART I

Student ID: _____

Age: _____

Gender: ☐ Male ☐ Female

Department / Class: _____

PART II

Dear students,

The purpose of this study is to determine the participants' levels of willingness to communicate in English inside and outside the classroom, ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, L2 learning experience, L2 motivation, L2 anxiety and imagery capacity. **Please answer every question.** If you are not sure which answer to select, please choose the one answer that comes closest to describing you. There are no right or wrong answers.

Please indicate the frequency of time you choose to speak in English **in each classroom situation.**

1 = Almost never willing

2 = Sometimes willing

3 = Willing half of the time

4 = Usually willing

5 = Almost always willing

		Almost never willing	Sometimes willing	Willing half of the time	Usually willing	Almost always willing
	INSIDE THE CLASSROOM					
1.	Speak in a group about your summer vacation	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Speak to your teacher about your homework assignment	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Have a conversation with a stranger if he/she talks to you first	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Ask for instructions/clarification when you are confused about a task you must complete	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Talk to a friend while waiting in line	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Be an actor in a play	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Describe the rules of your favorite game	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Play a game in English, for example Monopoly	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Read an English novel	1	2	3	4	5

	INSIDE THE CLASSROOM	Almost never willing	Sometimes willing	Willing half of the time	Usually willing	Almost always willing
10.	Read an English article in a paper	1	2	3	4	5
11.	Read letters from a pen pal written in native English	1	2	3	4	5
12.	Read personal letters or notes written to you in which the writer has deliberately used simple words and constructions	1	2	3	4	5
13.	Read an advertisement in the paper to find good merchandise, e.g. a book, you can buy	1	2	3	4	5
14.	Read reviews in English for popular movies	1	2	3	4	5
15.	Write an invitation to invite your schoolmates to a weekend party	1	2	3	4	5
16.	Write down the instructions for your favorite hobby	1	2	3	4	5
17.	Write a report on your favorite animal and its habits	1	2	3	4	5
18.	Write a story	1	2	3	4	5
19.	Write a letter to a friend	1	2	3	4	5
20.	Write a newspaper article	1	2	3	4	5
21.	Write the answers to a “fun” quiz from a magazine	1	2	3	4	5
22.	Write down a list of things you must do tomorrow	1	2	3	4	5
23.	Listen to instructions in English and complete a task	1	2	3	4	5
24.	Bake a cake if instructions were in English	1	2	3	4	5
25.	Fill out an application form in English	1	2	3	4	5
26.	Take directions from an English speaker	1	2	3	4	5
27.	Understand an English movie	1	2	3	4	5

Please indicate the frequency of time you choose to speak in English **outside the classroom**.

	OUTSIDE THE CLASSROOM	Almost never willing	Sometimes willing	Willing half of the time	Usually willing	Almost always willing
28.	Speak in a group about your summer vacation	1	2	3	4	5
29.	Speak to your teacher about your homework assignment	1	2	3	4	5
30.	Have a conversation with a stranger if he/she talks to you first	1	2	3	4	5
31.	Ask for instructions/clarification when you are confused about a task you must complete	1	2	3	4	5
32.	Talk to a friend while waiting in line	1	2	3	4	5
33.	Be an actor in a play	1	2	3	4	5

	OUTSIDE THE CLASSROOM	Almost never willing	Sometimes willing	Willing half of the time	Usually willing	Almost always willing
34.	Describe the rules of your favorite game	1	2	3	4	5
35.	Play a game in English, for example Monopoly	1	2	3	4	5
36.	Read an English novel	1	2	3	4	5
37.	Read an English article in a paper	1	2	3	4	5
38.	Read letters from a pen pal written in native English	1	2	3	4	5
39.	Read personal letters or notes written to you in which the writer has deliberately used simple words and constructions	1	2	3	4	5
40.	Read an advertisement in the paper to find good merchandise, e.g. a book, you can buy	1	2	3	4	5
41.	Read reviews in English for popular movies	1	2	3	4	5
42.	Write an invitation to invite your schoolmates to a weekend party	1	2	3	4	5
43.	Write down the instructions for your favorite hobby	1	2	3	4	5
44.	Write a report on your favorite animal and its habits	1	2	3	4	5
45.	Write a story	1	2	3	4	5
46.	Write a letter to a friend	1	2	3	4	5
47.	Write a newspaper article	1	2	3	4	5
48.	Write the answers to a “fun” quiz from a magazine	1	2	3	4	5
49.	Write down a list of things you must do tomorrow	1	2	3	4	5
50.	Listen to instructions in English and complete a task	1	2	3	4	5
51.	Bake a cake if instructions were in English	1	2	3	4	5
52.	Fill out an application form in English	1	2	3	4	5
53.	Take directions from an English speaker	1	2	3	4	5
54.	Understand an English movie	1	2	3	4	5

Please read each statement carefully and then circle the one number that best indicates how often the statements reflect you. Please mark your response by circling the number to the right of each statement ranging from **1 (never)** to **5 (always)**.

1 = Never

2 = Barely

3 = Sometimes

4 = Often

5 = Always

		Never	Barely	Sometimes	Often	Always
55.	I can imagine myself living abroad and having a discussion in English.	1	2	3	4	5
56.	I can imagine myself living abroad and using English effectively for communicating with the locals.	1	2	3	4	5
57.	I can imagine a situation where I am speaking English with foreigners.	1	2	3	4	5
58.	I can imagine myself speaking English with international friends or colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5
59.	I imagine myself as someone who is able to speak English.	1	2	3	4	5
60.	I can imagine myself speaking English as if I were a native speaker of English.	1	2	3	4	5
61.	Whenever I think of my future career, I imagine myself using English.	1	2	3	4	5
62.	The things I want to do in the future require me to use English.	1	2	3	4	5
63.	I can imagine myself studying in a university where all my courses are taught in English.	1	2	3	4	5
64.	I can imagine myself writing English e-mails fluently.	1	2	3	4	5
65.	I study English because close friends of mine think it is important.	1	2	3	4	5
66.	I have to study English, because, if I do not study it, I think my parents will be disappointed with me.	1	2	3	4	5
67.	Learning English is necessary because people surrounding me expect me to do so.	1	2	3	4	5
68.	My parents believe that I must study English to be an educated person.	1	2	3	4	5
69.	I consider learning English important because the people I respect think that I should do it.	1	2	3	4	5
70.	Studying English is important to me in order to gain the approval of my peers/teachers/family/boss.	1	2	3	4	5
71.	It will have a negative impact on my life if I don't learn English.	1	2	3	4	5

		Never	Barely	Sometimes	Often	Always
72.	Studying English is important to me because an educated person is supposed to be able to speak English.	1	2	3	4	5
73.	Studying English is important to me because other people will respect me more if I have knowledge of English.	1	2	3	4	5
74.	If I fail to learn English, I'll be letting other people down.	1	2	3	4	5
75.	If my teacher wanted someone to do an extra English assignment, I would certainly volunteer.	1	2	3	4	5
76.	If an English course was offered in the future, I would like to take it.	1	2	3	4	5
77.	I frequently think over what we have learnt in my English class.	1	2	3	4	5
78.	I am prepared to expend a lot of effort in learning English.	1	2	3	4	5
79.	If English were not taught in school, I would try to obtain lessons in English somewhere else.	1	2	3	4	5
80.	When it comes to English homework, I would work carefully, making sure I understand everything.	1	2	3	4	5
81.	I have a very strong desire to learn English.	1	2	3	4	5
82.	Considering how I study English, I can honestly say that I really try to learn English.	1	2	3	4	5
83.	Learning English is one of the most important aspects in my life.	1	2	3	4	5
84.	After I get my English assignment, I always rewrite them, correcting my mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5
85.	I am determined to push myself to learn English.	1	2	3	4	5
86.	When I am in English class, I volunteer answers as much as possible.	1	2	3	4	5
87.	If I could have access to English-speaking TV stations, I would try to watch them often.	1	2	3	4	5
88.	I am willing to work hard at learning English.	1	2	3	4	5
89.	When I hear an English song on the radio, I listen carefully and try to understand all the words.	1	2	3	4	5
90.	It is very important for me to learn English.	1	2	3	4	5
91.	If I had the opportunity to speak English outside of school, I would do it as much as I can.	1	2	3	4	5
92.	When I have a problem understanding something we are learning in English class, I immediately ask the teacher for help.	1	2	3	4	5
93.	If I wish, I can imagine some things so vividly that they hold my attention as a good movie or story does.	1	2	3	4	5
94.	Sometimes images come to me without the slightest effort.	1	2	3	4	5
95.	When I am thinking, I often have visual images rather than thoughts in my mind.	1	2	3	4	5

		Never	Barely	Sometimes	Often	Always
96.	My daydreams are sometimes so vivid I feel as though I actually experience the scene.	1	2	3	4	5
97.	When reading fiction, I usually have a vivid mental picture of the scene that has been described.	1	2	3	4	5

Please read each statement carefully and then circle the one number that best indicates the extent to which the statements reflect you. Please mark your response by circling the number to the right of each statement ranging from **1 (not at all)** to **5 (very much)**.

1 = Not at all

2 = Not so much

3 = A little

4 = Quite a lot

5 = Very much

		Not at all	Not so much	A little	Quite a lot	Very much
98.	I am worried that other speakers of English would find my English strange.	1	2	3	4	5
99.	If I met an English speaker, I would feel nervous.	1	2	3	4	5
100.	I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class.	1	2	3	4	5
101.	I'm not good at volunteering answers in our English class.	1	2	3	4	5
102.	I would feel uneasy speaking English with a native speaker.	1	2	3	4	5
103.	I would get tense if a foreigner asked me for directions in English.	1	2	3	4	5
104.	Do you like the atmosphere of your English classes?	1	2	3	4	5
105.	Do you find learning English really interesting?	1	2	3	4	5
106.	Do you think time passes faster while studying English?	1	2	3	4	5
107.	Do you look forward to English classes?	1	2	3	4	5
108.	Would you like to have more English lessons at school?	1	2	3	4	5
109.	Do you really enjoy learning English?	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX-D: Productive Vocabulary Size Test

Öğrenci No:

Aşağıdaki cümlelerde bazı harfleri verilmiş sözcükler bulunmaktadır. Lütfen bu sözcükleri cümlelerin anlamına uygun bir şekilde tamamlayınız. Aşağıda size bir örnek verilmiştir.

He was riding a bic_____.

He was riding a bicycle.

Lütfen yazınızın okunaklı olmasına özen gösteriniz.

1. I'm glad we had this opp_____ to talk.
2. There are a doz_____ eggs in the basket.
3. Every working person must pay income t_____.
4. The pirates buried the trea_____ on a desert island.
5. Her beauty and cha_____ had a powerful effect on men.
6. La_____ of rain led to a shortage of water in the city.
7. He takes cr_____ and sugar in his coffee.
8. The rich man died and left all his we_____ to his son.
9. Pup_____ must hand in their papers by the end of the week.
10. This sweater is too tight. It needs to be stret_____.
11. Ann intro_____ her boyfriend to her mother.
12. Teenagers often adm_____ and worship pop singers.
13. If you blow up that balloon any more it will bur_____.
14. In order to be accepted into the university, he had to impr_____.
15. The telegram was deli_____ two hours after it had been sent.
16. The differences were so sl_____ that they went unnoticed.
17. The dress you're wearing is lov_____.
18. He wasn't very popu_____ when he was a teenager, but he has many friends now.

19. He has a successful car _____ as a lawyer.
20. The thieves threw ac _____ in his face and made him blind.
21. To improve the country's economy, the government decided on economic ref _____.
22. She wore a beautiful green go _____ to the ball.
23. The government tried to protect the country's industry by reducing the imp _____ of cheap goods.
24. The children's games were funny at first, but finally got on the parents' ner _____.
25. The lawyer gave some wise coun _____ to his client.
26. Many people in England mow the la _____ of their houses on Sunday morning.
27. The farmer sells the eggs that his he _____ lays.
28. Sudden noises at night sca _____ me a lot.
29. France was proc _____ a republic in the 18th century.
30. Many people are inj _____ in road accidents every year.
31. Suddenly he was thru _____ into the dark room.
32. He perc _____ a light at the end of the tunnel.
33. Children are not independent. They are att _____ to their parents.
34. She showed off her sle _____ figure in a long narrow dress.
35. She has been changing partners often because she cannot have a sta _____ relationship with one person.
36. You must wear a bathing suit on a public beach. You're not allowed to be na _____.

37. Soldiers usually swear an oath_____ of loyalty to their country.
38. The voter placed the ballot_____ in the box.
39. They keep their valuables in a vault_____ at the bank.
40. A bird perched at the window ledge_____.
41. The kitten is playing with a ball of yarn_____.
42. The thieves have forced an entrance_____ into the building.
43. The small hill was really a burial mound_____.
44. We decided to celebrate New Year's Eve_____ together.
45. The soldier was asked to choose between infantry and cavalry_____.
46. This is a complex problem which is difficult to comprehend_____.
47. The angry crowd shouted_____ the prisoner as he was leaving the court.
48. Don't pay attention to this rude remark. Just ignore_____ it.
49. The management held a secret meeting. The issues discussed were not disclosed_____ to the workers.
50. We could hear the sergeant belay_____ commands to the troops.
51. The boss got angry with the secretary and it took a lot of tact to soothe_____ him.
52. We do not have adequate_____ information to make a decision.
53. She is not a child, but a mature_____ woman. She can make her own decisions.
54. The prisoner was put in solitary_____ confinement.

55. There has been a recent tr_____ among prosperous families towards a smaller number of children.
56. The ar_____ of his office is 25 square meters.
57. Phil_____ examines the meaning of life.
58. According to the communist doc_____, workers should rule the world.
59. Spending many years together deepened their inti_____.
60. He usually read the sport sec_____ of the newspaper first.
61. Because of the doctors' strike the cli_____ is closed today.
62. There are several misprints on each page of this te_____.
63. The suspect had both opportunity and mot_____ to commit the murder.
64. They insp_____ all products before sending them out to stores.
65. A considerable amount of evidence was accum_____ during the investigation.
66. The victim's shirt was satu_____ with blood.
67. He is irresponsible. You cannot re_____ on him for help.
68. It's impossible to eva_____ these results without knowing about the research methods that were used.
69. He finally att_____ a position of power in the company.
70. The story tells us about a crime and subs_____ punishment.
71. In a hom_____ class all students are of a similar proficiency.
72. The urge to survive is inh_____ in all creatures.

73. The baby is wet. Her dia_____ needs changing.
74. The prisoner was released on par_____.
75. Second year University students in the US are called soph_____.
76. Her favorite flowers were or_____.
77. The insect causes damage to plants by its toxic sec_____.
78. The evac_____ of the building saved many lives.
79. For many people, wealth is a prospect of unimaginable felic_____.
80. She found herself in a pred_____ without any hope for a solution.
81. The deac_____ helped with the care of the poor of the parish.
82. The hurricane whi_____ along the coast.
83. Some coal was still smol_____ among the ashes.
84. The dead bodies were muti_____ beyond recognition.
85. She was sitting on a balcony and bas_____ in the sun.
86. For years waves of invaders pill_____ towns along the coast.
87. The rescue attempt could not proceed quickly. It was imp_____ by bad weather.
88. I wouldn't hire him. He is unmotivated and indo_____.
89. Computers have made typewriters old-fashioned and obs_____.
90. Watch out for his wil_____ tricks.

APPENDIX-E: Vocabulary Levels Test

Öğrenci No:

İNGİLİZCE SÖZCÜK DAĞARCIĞI TESTİ

Bu test İngilizce sözcük dağarcığınızı belirlemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Sol tarafa 6 sözcük, sağ tarafa ise 3 tanım verilmiştir. Bu sözcüklerden 3'ünü doğru tanımlarıyla eşleştirerek, sözcük numarasını tanımının yanına yazınız. Aşağıda size bir örnek verilmiştir.

1	business	
2	clock	_____ part of a house
3	horse	_____ animal with four legs
4	pencil	_____ something used for writing
5	shoe	
6	wall	

Aşağıdaki şekilde cevaplamamız gerekmektedir.

1	business	
2	clock	_____ <u>6</u> part of a house
3	horse	_____ <u>3</u> animal with four legs
4	pencil	_____ <u>4</u> something used for writing
5	shoe	
6	wall	

Eğer bir sözcüğün anlamını bulabileceğinizi düşünüyorsanız tahminde bulunabilirsiniz.

Ancak sözcüğün anlamı hakkında hiçbir fikriniz yoksa boş bırakınız.

1 copy
 2 event ___ end or highest point
 3 motor ___ this moves a car
 4 pity ___ thing made to be like
 5 profit another
 6 tip

1 admire
 2 complain ___ make wider or longer
 3 fix ___ bring in for the first time
 4 hire ___ have a high opinion of
 5 introduce someone
 6 stretch

1 accident
 2 debt ___ loud deep sound
 3 fortune ___ something you must pay
 4 pride ___ having a high opinion of
 5 roar yourself
 6 thread

1 arrange
 2 develop ___ grow
 3 lean ___ put in order
 4 owe ___ like more than something
 5 prefer else
 6 seize

1 coffee
 2 disease ___ money for work
 3 justice ___ a piece of clothing
 4 skirt ___ using the law in the right
 5 stage way
 6 wage

1 blame
 2 elect ___ make
 3 jump ___ choose by voting
 4 manufacture ___ become like water
 5 melt
 6 threaten

1 clerk
 2 frame ___ a drink
 3 noise ___ office worker
 4 respect ___ unwanted sound
 5 theater
 6 wine

1 ancient
 2 curious ___ not easy
 3 difficult ___ very old
 4 entire ___ related to God
 5 holy
 6 social

1 dozen
 2 empire ___ chance
 3 gift ___ twelve
 4 opportunity ___ money paid to the
 5 relief government
 6 tax

1 bitter
 2 independent ___ beautiful
 3 lovely ___ small
 4 merry ___ liked by many people
 5 popular
 6 slight

1 bull
2 champion ___ formal and serious manner
3 dignity ___ winner of a sporting event
4 hell ___ building where valuable
5 museum ___ objects are shown
6 solution

1 abandon
2 dwell ___ live in a place
3 oblige ___ follow in order to catch
4 pursue ___ leave something
5 quote ___ permanently
6 resolve

1 blanket
2 contest ___ holiday
3 generation ___ good quality
4 merit ___ wool covering used on
5 plot ___ beds
6 vacation

1 assemble
2 attach ___ look closely
3 peer ___ stop doing something
4 quit ___ cry out loudly in fear
5 scream
6 toss

1 comment
2 gown ___ long formal dress
3 import ___ goods from a foreign
4 nerve ___ country
5 pasture ___ part of the body which
6 tradition ___ carries feeling

1 drift
2 endure ___ suffer patiently
3 grasp ___ join wool threads together
4 knit ___ hold firmly with your hands
5 register
6 tumble

1 administration
2 angel ___ group of animals
3 frost ___ spirit who serves God
4 herd ___ managing business and
5 fort ___ affairs
6 pond

1 brilliant
2 distinct ___ thin
3 magic ___ steady
4 naked ___ without clothes
5 slender
6 stable

1 atmosphere
2 counsel ___ advice
3 factor ___ a place covered with grass
4 hen ___ female chicken
5 lawn
6 muscle

1 aware
2 blank ___ usual
3 desperate ___ best or most important
4 normal ___ knowing what is happening
5 striking
6 supreme

1 area
 2 contract ___ written agreement
 3 definition ___ way of doing something
 4 evidence ___ reason for believing
 5 method ___ something is or is not true
 6 role

1 alter
 2 coincide ___ change
 3 deny ___ say something is not true
 4 devote ___ describe clearly and exactly
 5 release
 6 specify

1 debate
 2 exposure ___ plan
 3 integration ___ choice
 4 option ___ joining something into a
 5 scheme whole
 6 stability

1 correspond
 2 diminish ___ keep
 3 emerge ___ match or be in agreement
 4 highlight with
 5 invoke ___ give special attention
 6 retain to something

1 access
 2 gender ___ male or female
 3 implementation ___ study of the mind
 4 license ___ entrance or way in
 5 orientation
 6 psychology

1 bond
 2 channel ___ make smaller
 3 estimate ___ guess the number or size
 4 identify of something
 5 mediate ___ recognizing and naming
 6 minimize a person or thing

1 accumulation ___ collecting things over
 2 edition time
 3 guarantee ___ promise to repair a
 4 media broken product
 5 motivation ___ feeling a strong
 6 phenomenon reason or need to do
 something

1 explicit
 2 final ___ last
 3 negative ___ stiff
 4 professional ___ meaning 'no' or 'not'
 5 rigid
 6 sole

1 adult
 2 exploitation ___ end
 3 infrastructure ___ machine used to
 4 schedule move people or
 5 termination goods
 6 vehicle ___ list of things to do at
 certain times

1 abstract
 2 adjacent ___ next to
 3 controversial ___ added to
 4 global ___ concerning the whole world
 5 neutral
 6 supplementary

1 analysis
2 curb ___ eagerness
3 gravel ___ loan to buy a house
4 mortgage___ small stones mixed with sand
5 scar
6 zeal

1 contemplate
2 extract ___ think about deeply
3 gamble ___ bring back to health
4 launch ___ make someone angry
5 provoke
6 revive

1 cavalry
2 eve ___ small hill
3 ham ___ day or night before a
4 mound ___ holiday
5 steak ___ soldiers who fight from
6 switch ___ horses

1 demonstrate
2 embarrass___ have a rest
3 heave ___ break suddenly into small
4 obscure ___ pieces
5 relax ___ make someone feel shy or
6 shatter ___ nervous

1 circus
2 jungle ___ musical instrument
3 nomination___ seat without a back or
4 sermon ___ arms
5 stool ___ speech given by a priest in
6 trumpet ___ a church

1 correspond
2 embroider ___ exchange letters
3 lurk ___ hide and wait for someone
4 penetrate ___ feel angry about something
5 prescribe
6 resent

1 artillery
2 creed ___ a kind of tree
3 hydrogen___ system of belief
4 maple ___ large gun on wheels
5 pork
6 streak

1 decent
2 frail ___ weak
3 harsh ___ concerning a city
4 incredible ___ difficult to believe
5 municipal
6 specific

1 chart
2 forge ___ map
3 mansion___ large beautiful house
4 outfit ___ place where metals are made
5 sample ___ and shaped
6 volunteer

1 adequate
2 internal ___ enough
3 mature ___ fully grown
4 profound ___ alone away from other
5 solitary ___ things
6 tragic

1 alabaster
2 chandelier ___ small barrel
3 dogma ___ soft white stone
4 keg ___ tool for shaping wood
5 rasp
6 tentacle

1 dissipate
2 flaunt ___ steal
3 impede ___ scatter or vanish
4 loot ___ twist the body about
5 squirm ___ uncomfortably
6 vie

1 benevolence
2 convoy ___ kindness
3 lien ___ set of musical notes
4 octave ___ speed control for an
5 stint ___ engine
6 throttle

1 contaminate
2 cringe ___ write carelessly
3 immerse ___ move back because of fear
4 peek ___ put something under water
5 relay
6 scrawl

1 bourgeois
2 brocade ___ middle class people
3 consonant ___ row or level of something
4 prelude ___ cloth with a pattern or gold
5 stupor ___ or silver threads
6 tier

1 blurt
2 dabble ___ walk in a proud way
3 dent ___ kill by squeezing someone's
4 pacify ___ throat
5 strangle ___ say suddenly without
6 swagger ___ thinking

1 alcove
2 impetus ___ priest
3 maggot ___ release from prison early
4 parole ___ medicine to put on wounds
5 salve
6 vicar

1 illicit
2 lewd ___ immense
3 mammoth ___ against the law
4 slick ___ wanting revenge
5 temporal
6 vindictive

1 alkali
2 banter ___ light joking talk
3 coop ___ a rank of British nobility
4 mosaic ___ picture made of small
5 stealth ___ pieces of glass or stone
6 viscount

1 indolent
2 nocturnal ___ lazy
3 obsolete ___ no longer used
4 torrid ___ clever and tricky
5 translucent
6 wily

APPENDIX-F: Semi-structured Interview Guide (TURKISH)

Görüşme Yapılan Kişi No:

Rumuz:

Görüşme Tarihi:

Görüşme Yeri:

Başlama Saati:

Bitiş Saati:

A) KİŞİSEL BİLGİLER

- Kaç yaşındasın?
- Hangi bölümde öğrenim görüyorsun?
- Kaçınıcı sınıfta okuyorsun?
- Hiç yurt dışında bulundun mu?

EVET

HAYIR

• Hangi ülke veya ülkelere gittin?	• Hangi ülke veya ülkelere gitmek isterdin?
• Ne amaçla gittin?	• Ne amaçla gitmek isterdin?
• Ne kadar kaldın?	

B) GÖRÜŞME SORULARI

İngilizce Öğrenme Deneyimleri

- İngilizce öğrenmeye ne zaman başladın?
- İngilizce öğrenmeye başladığında yaşadığın deneyim ve duygularından biraz bahseder misin?

Sonda: Ne hissetmiştin?

- Genel olarak İngilizce derslerine duyduğun ilgiyi nasıl değerlendiriyorsun?

- İngilizce öğrenirken zorluk yaşadığın oldu mu?

Sonda: Bu zorluklar nelerdi?

Sınıf İçi İngilizce İletişim Kurma İstekliliği

- Sınıf içinde (İngilizce derslerinde) İngilizce konuşmayla ilgili duyguların nelerdir?

Sondalar: Sınıf içinde her zaman İngilizce konuşmak ister misin?

İngilizce konuşma istekliliğini başka faktörler etkiler mi?

Bu faktörler nelerdir?

Örnek verebilir misin?

Sınıf içinde İngilizce konuşmaya karşı istekliliğinin en fazla olduğu durumlar nelerdir?

Sınıf içinde İngilizce konuşma istekliliğinin hangi durumlarda azaldığını düşünüyorsun?

Sınıfta arkadaşlarının karşısında İngilizce konuşmaya karşı istekliliğini nasıl değerlendirirsin?

Şu an aldığın İngilizce dersindeki sınıf ortamında ne/neler değişirse İngilizce iletişim kurmada daha istekli olurdun?

Sınıf Dışı İngilizce İletişim Kurma İstekliliği

- Peki, sınıf dışında İngilizce iletişim kurmayla/konuşmayla ilgili duygularından biraz bahseder misin?

Sondalar: Sınıf dışında İngilizce iletişim kurmaya karşı her zaman istekli misin?

İstekliliğini etkileyen şeyler var mı?

Örnek verebilir misin?

- Sınıf dışında İngilizceyi ne kadar sıklıkla kullanırsın?

Sonda: Ne kadar sıklıkla İngilizce konuşur, okur, dinler veya yazarsın?

- Sınıf dışında İngilizceyi en çok hangi alanda ve ne amaçla kullanıyorsun?
- İngilizce iletişim kurma konusunda kendini yeterli bulur musun?
- Şu ana kadar hiç yabancı biriyle İngilizce konuşma fırsatın oldu mu? (Okulda yabancı bir hocayla konuşmak, bir turistle konuşmak ya da internet ortamında yabancı biriyle yazışmak gibi)

Sonda: Bu konudaki deneyimlerinden ve duygularından biraz bahseder misin?

- Yabancılarla İngilizce konuşmak ister misin? (yüz yüze veya internet aracılığıyla)
- İngilizce iletişim kurabilmek senin için ne ifade ediyor?

Sonda: İngilizce iletişim kurmanın sana neler kazandırdığını düşünüyorsun?

- İngilizce konuşma becerini geliştirmek için sınıf dışında neler yapıyorsun?

İngilizce Öğrenme Motivasyonu

- İngilizce öğrenmek sana neler hissettiriyor?
- İngilizce öğrenmenin sana neler kazandırdığını düşünüyorsun?
- İngilizce öğrenmenin özel hayatını ve iş hayatını zenginleştireceğini düşünüyor musun?

Sonda: Neden böyle düşünüyorsun?

- İngilizce öğrenmeye karşı duygularını olumlu yönde değiştirdiğine/değiştireceğine inandığın şeyler nelerdir?

Sonda: Daha detaylı açıklayabilir misin?

- İngilizce öğrenmek senin için bir zorunluluk olmasaydı, yine de İngilizce öğrenmek ister miydin?

Sonda: Neden?

- İngilizcenin geliřtirmek için neler yapıyorsun? Yeterince çaba sarf ettiğini düşünüyor musun?

İdeal Yabancı Dil (İngilizce) Benliği

- İngilizceyle bağlantılı olarak gerçekleřtirmek istediğin hayallerin var mı?

Sonda: Bu hayallerinden biraz bahseder misin?

- Gelecekte sahip olmak istediğin meslek seni İngilizce öğrenmen konusunda ne derece motive ediyor?

- Gelecekte İngilizceyi nerelerde ve ne düzeyde kullanabileceğini düşünüyorsun?

Sonda: Kendin için “ideal İngilizce kullanma düzeyi” olarak hedeflediğin bir nokta var mı?

Zorunlu Yabancı Dil (İngilizce) Benliği

- Ailen istediği için mi İngilizce öğrendin/öğreniyorsun?

Sondalar: Ailenin senden bu yöndeki beklentisi İngilizce öğrenmende etkili oldu mu?

Örnek verebilir misin?

- İngilizce öğrenmende başkalarının (arkadaş, öğretmen vb.) düşünceleri ya da beklentileri seni ne kadar etkiledi?

Sonda: Örnek verebilir misin?

İngilizce Öğrenme Kaygısı

- Hiç İngilizceyi öğrenememe korkusu yaşadın mı?

Sonda: Bu korkunun İngilizce öğrenmeye karşı olan istekliliğini ne derece etkilediğini düşünüyorsun?

- Hiç İngilizce konuşmaktan korktun mu?

Sonda: Böyle hissetmenin sebebi (sebepleri) ne (ler) olabilir?

- İngilizce iletişim kurman gerektiğinde genellikle kendini endişeli mi yoksa rahat mı hissedersin?

Sondalar: Bu duygunun etkenlerini açıklayabilir misin?

Neden böyle hissediyorsun?

Ders Başarısı

- Geçen dönem İngilizce dersinden aldığın notla ilgili ne düşünüyorsun?

Sonda: Aldığın not seni tatmin etti mi?

- Şu anki İngilizce dersinde başarılı olduğunu düşünüyor musun?
- İngilizce dersine olan ilgini ve derse katılma istekliliğini nasıl değerlendiriyorsun?

İngilizce Sözcük Dağarcığı

- İngilizce sözcük dağarcığının iletişim kurabilmek için yeterli düzeyde olduğunu düşünüyor musun?

APPENDIX-G: Semi-structured Interview Guide (ENGLISH)

Interviewee ID Number:

Pseudonym:

Date of Interview:

Venue of Interview:

Start Time:

End Time:

A) PERSONAL INFORMATION

- How old are you?
- In which department do you study?
- In which year are you studying?
- Have you ever been abroad?

YES

NO

• Which country/countries have you been to?	Which country/countries would you like to visit?
• For what purpose did you go there?	For what purpose would you like to go there?
• How long did you stay there?	

B) INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

English Learning Experiences

- When did you start learning English?
- Would you talk a little about your experience and feelings when you started learning English?

Probe: How did you feel about learning English?

- How do you evaluate in general your interest in English classes?

- Have you experienced any difficulties in learning English?

Probe: What were they?

Willingness to Communicate in English inside the Classroom

- What are your feelings about speaking English in English classes?

Probes: Do you always want to speak English in your English classes?

Are there any things that affect your willingness to speak English?

What are they?

Can you give me an example?

What are the circumstances in which your willingness to speak English is at the highest level in the classroom?

In which circumstances do you think your willingness to speak English decreases in English classes?

How do you evaluate your willingness to speak English in front of your classmates in English classes?

What changes in your English classroom atmosphere would make you more willing to communicate in English?

Willingness to Communicate in English outside the Classroom

- Could you please describe your feelings about speaking English/communicating in English outside the classroom?

Probes: Are you always willing to communicate in English outside the classroom?

Are there any things that affect your willingness to speak English outside the classroom?

Can you give me an example?

- How often do you use English outside the classroom?

Probe: How often do you speak, read, write or listen to English in your daily life?

- In which area and for what purpose do you use English most outside the classroom?
- Do you feel yourself competent to communicate in English?
- Have you ever had an opportunity to speak English with a foreigner? (Talking with a foreign teacher at school, talking with a tourist or chatting with a foreigner on the Internet)

Probe: Would you talk a little about your experiences and feelings about this?

- Do you want to speak English with foreigners? (Face-to-face or via the Internet)
- What does communicating in English mean to you?

Probe: What advantages do you think it gives you?

- What do you do to improve your English speaking skill outside the classroom?

English Learning Motivation

- How does learning English make you feel?
- What advantages do you think learning English gives you?
- Do you think that learning English will enrich your private life and business life?

Probe: Why do you think so?

- What are the things you believe that changed/will change your feelings about learning English in a positive way?

Probe: Can you tell me more about that?

- If learning English was not a must for you, would you still like to learn English?

Probe: Why?

- What do you do to improve your English? Do you think that you make sufficient effort for it?

Ideal L2 (English) Self

- Do you have any dreams that you want to achieve related to English?

Probe: Can you tell me a little about these dreams?

- To what extent does the profession that you want to have in the future motivate you to learn English?
- In which areas do you think you will use English in the future?
- At what level do you think you can use English in the future?

Probe: Is there a point that you aim for yourself as “the ideal level of English use”?

Ought-to L2 (English) Self

- Did you learn English just because your family wanted you to do so?

Probes: Have your family’s expectations of you had any impact on your learning of English?

Can you give me an example?

- How much have the opinions or expectations of others (friends, teachers, etc.) had an impact on your learning of English?

Probe: Can you give me an example?

English Learning Anxiety

- Have you ever experienced the fear of failure in learning English?

Probe: To what extent do you think this fear has affected your willingness to learn English?

- Have you ever been afraid of speaking English?

Probe: What could be the reason(s) for you to feel that way?

- Do you usually feel worried or relaxed when you need to communicate in English?

Probes: Could you explain the causes of this feeling?

Why do you feel that way?

Course Achievement

- What do you think about the grade that you received in the English course last semester?

Probe: Were you satisfied with it?

- Do you think that you are successful in your current English course?
- How do you evaluate your interest in your current English course and your willingness to participate in it?

English Vocabulary Size

- Do you think that your English vocabulary size is sufficient to communicate in English?

APPENDIX-H: Ethics Committee Approval



T.C.
HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ
Rektörlük

08 Mart 2017

Sayı : 35853172/ **433-904**

EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜNE

İlgi: 23.02.2017 tarih ve 498 sayılı yazınız.

Enstitünüz Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bilim Dalı doktora programı öğrencilerinden **Tutku BAŞÖZ**'ün **Prof. Dr. İsmail Hakkı ERTEN** danışmanlığında yürüttüğü **“İletişim Kurma İstekliliği: Türkiye’de Üniversite Düzeyinde İngilizce Öğrenen Öğrenciler İçin Bir Yapısal Eşitlik Modeli”** başlıklı tez çalışması, Üniversitemiz Senatosu Etik Komisyonunun **28 Şubat 2017** tarihinde yapmış olduğu toplantıda incelenmiş olup, etik açıdan uygun bulunmuştur.

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini rica ederim.

Prof. Dr. Rahime M. NOHUTCU
Rektör a.
Rektör Yardımcısı

APPENDIX-I: Permission Letter for Data Collection

Evrak Tarih ve Sayısı: 09/01/2017-E.355



T.C.
BALIKESİR ÜNİVERSİTESİ
Turizm Fakültesi Dekanlığı

Sayı : 20792515-902.02-
Konu : İzin Belgesi Talebi

HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜNE
(Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü)

Enstitünüz Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Doktora Programında eğitim gören N13245732 nolu öğrenciniz Tutku BAŞÖZ'ün, Prof. Dr. İsmail Hakkı ERTEN danışmanlığında yürüttüğü "**İletişim kurma istekliliği: Türkiye'de üniversite düzeyinde İngilizce öğrenen öğrenciler için bir yapısal eşitlik modeli**" başlıklı tezinin uygulamalarını 2016-2017 Eğitim-Öğretim yılı Bahar Yarıyılında 20.03.2017-15.05.2017 tarihleri arasında Fakültemiz Turizm Rehberliği ve Turizm İşletmeciliği bölümlerinde "Mesleki Yabancı Dil (İngilizce)" dersini alan öğrencilerle yapmak istemesine ilişkin izin talebi Fakültemizce uygun görülmüştür.

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini rica ederim.

e-imzalıdır
Prof. Dr.Cevdet AVCIKURT
Dekan V.

Evrakı Doğrulamak İçin : <https://ebys.balikesir.edu.tr/enVision/Dogrula/K438PH5>

Turizm Fakültesi Çalışma Yerleşkesi 10145 Balıkesir

Ayrıntılı bilgi için irtibat: Sedef Aksoy

Tel: 2666121340

Faks: 2666121357

E-Posta: btioyo@balikesir.edu.tr

Elektronik ağı: btioyo@balikesir.edu.tr

Bu belge, 5070 sayılı Elektronik İmza Kanununa göre Güvenli Elektronik İmza ile imzalanmıştır.

APPENDIX J: Declaration of Ethical Conduct

I hereby declare that...

- I have prepared this thesis in accordance with the thesis writing guidelines of the Graduate School of Educational Sciences of Hacettepe University;
- all information and documents in the thesis/dissertation have been obtained in accordance with academic regulations;
- all audio visual and written information and results have been presented in compliance with scientific and ethical standards;
- in case of using other people's work, related studies have been cited in accordance with scientific and ethical standards;
- all cited studies have been fully and decently referenced and included in the list of References;
- I did not do any distortion and/or manipulation on the data set,
- and **NO** part of this work was presented as a part of any other thesis study at this or any other university.

25/01/2018



Tutku Başöz

APPENDIX-K: Dissertation Originality Report

07/02/2018

HACETTEPE UNIVERSITY
Graduate School of Educational Sciences
To The Department of Foreign Language Education

Thesis Title: Willingness to Communicate: A Path-Analytic Model for Tertiary Level Learners of English in Turkey

The whole thesis that includes the *title page, introduction, main chapters, conclusions and bibliography section* is checked by using Turnitin plagiarism detection software take into the consideration requested filtering options. According to the originality report obtained data are as below.

Time Submitted	Page Count	Character Count	Date of Thesis Defence	Similarity Index	Submission ID
07/02/2018	291	489486	25/01/2018	12%	898861223

Filtering options applied:

1. Bibliography excluded
2. Quotes included
3. Match size up to 5 words excluded

I declare that I have carefully read Hacettepe University Graduate School of Educational Sciences Guidelines for Obtaining and Using Thesis Originality Reports; that according to the maximum similarity index values specified in the Guidelines, my thesis does not include any form of plagiarism; that in any future detection of possible infringement of the regulations I accept all legal responsibility; and that all the information I have provided is correct to the best of my knowledge.

I respectfully submit this for approval.

Name Last Name: Tutku BAŞÖZ
Student No.: N13245732
Department: Foreign Language Education
Program: English Language Teaching
Status: ☐ Masters ☒ Ph.D. ☐ Integrated Ph.D.



Signature

ADVISOR APPROVAL



APPROVED
Prof. Dr. İsmail Hakkı ERTEN

APPENDIX-L: Yayımlama ve Fikrî Mülkiyet Hakları Beyanı

Enstitü tarafından onaylanan lisansüstü tezimin/raporumun tamamını veya herhangi bir kısmını, basılı (kâğıt) ve elektronik formatta arşivleme ve aşağıda verilen koşullarla kullanıma açma iznini Hacettepe Üniversitesine verdiğimi bildiririm. Bu izinle Üniversite'ye verilen kullanım hakları dışındaki bütün fikrî mülkiyet haklarım bende kalacak, tezimin tamamının veya bir bölümünün gelecekteki çalışmalarda (makale, kitap, lisans ve patent vb.) kullanım hakları bana ait olacaktır.

Tezin kendi orijinal çalışmam olduğunu, başkalarının haklarını ihlal etmediğimi ve tezimin tek yetkili sahibi olduğumu beyan ve taahhüt ederim. Tezimde yer alan telif hakkı bulunan ve sahiplerinden yazılı izin alınarak kullanılması zorunlu metinleri yazılı izin alarak kullandığımı ve istenildiğinde suretlerini Üniversite'ye teslim etmeyi taahhüt ederim.

☐ **Tezimin/Raporumun tamamı dünya çapında erişime açılabilir ve bir kısmı veya tamamının fotokopisi alınabilir.**

(Bu seçenekle teziniz arama motorlarında indekslenebilecek, daha sonra tezinizin erişim statüsünün değiştirilmesini talep etmeniz ve kütüphane bu talebinizi yerine getirse bile, teziniz arama motorlarının ön belleklerinde kalmaya devam edebilecektir)

☒ **Tezimin/Raporumun 16.02.2020 tarihine kadar erişime açılmasını ve fotokopi alınmasını (İç Kapak, Özet, İçindekiler ve Kaynakça hariç) istemiyorum.**

(Bu sürenin sonunda uzatma için başvuruda bulunmadığım takdirde, tezimin/raporumun tamamı her yerden erişime açılabilir, kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla bir kısmı veya tamamının fotokopisi alınabilir).

☐ **Tezimin/Raporumun tarihine kadar erişime açılmasını istemiyorum ancak kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla bir kısmı veya tamamının fotokopisinin alınmasını onaylıyorum.**

☐ **Serbest Seçenek/Yazarın Seçimi:**

.....
.....
.....

25/01/2018



Tutku BAŞÖZ

