

**T. R.
GAZIANTEP UNIVERSITY
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES TEACHING
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING PROGRAM**

**A STUDY ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN
TURKISH EFL LEARNERS' WILLINGNESS TO
COMMUNICATE IN ENGLISH, AMBIGUITY
TOLERANCE AND PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT
LEVEL**

MASTER OF ARTS THESIS

MERVE ULUKAYA

**GAZIANTEP
JUNE 2021**

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Supervisor: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Fadime YALÇIN ARSLAN

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ETİK İLKELERE UYGUNLUK BEYANI

Tez yazma sürecinde, bilimsel ve etik ilkelere uyduğumu, yararlandığım tüm kaynakları kaynak gösterme ilkelerine uygun olarak kaynakçada belirttiğimi ve bu bölümler dışındaki tüm ifadelerin şahsıma ait olduğunu kabul ederim. Bu bilgiler doğrultusunda tez çalışmamın herhangi bir intihal içermediğini; aksinin tespit edilmesi halinde doğabilecek her türlü hukuki sorumluluğu onayladığımı beyan ederim.

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To my beloved family...

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ÖZET

İNGİLİZCEYİ YABANCI DİL OLARAK ÖĞRENEN TÜRK ÖĞRENCİLERİN İNGİLİZCE İLETİŞİME İSTEKLİLİK, BELİRSİZLİK TOLERANSI VE EBEVEYN TEŞVİK DÜZEYLERİ ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİ ÜZERİNE BİR ÇALIŞMA

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Bu çalışmanın amacı İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen Türk öğrencilerin İngilizce iletişime isteklilik, belirsizlik toleransı ve ebeveyn teşvik düzeylerini araştırmaktır. Ayrıca, çalışmada öğrencilerin belirsizlik toleransı ve ebeveyn teşvik düzeylerinin İngilizce iletişime isteklilikleriyle muhtemel ilişkisi de incelenmiştir. Araştırma örneklemini, Gaziantep ilinde bulunan Hasan Kalyoncu Üniversitesi hazırlık bölümündeki 151 öğrenciden oluşmaktadır. Bu çalışmada nitel ve nicel araştırma yöntemleri birlikte kullanılmış olup karma desen tercih edilmiştir. Araştırmada veri toplama aracı olarak McCroskey (1992) tarafından geliştirilen “İletişime İsteklilik Anketi”, Ely (1989) tarafından geliştirilen “İkinci Dilde Belirsizlik Toleransı Anketi” ve Gardner (1985) tarafından geliştirilen “Tutum/Motivasyon Test Havuzu” içerisinde bulunan “Algılanan Ebeveyn Teşviki Anketi” bölümü kullanılmıştır. Elde edilen veriler SPSS 20.0 programı kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Frekanslar, ortalamalar, yüzdeler ve standart sapmalar bu program aracılığı ile hesaplanmıştır. Ayrıca yaş bakımından iletişime isteklilik, belirsizlik toleransı ve ebeveyn teşvik düzeylerinde farklılıklar olup olmadığı bağımsız gruplar t-testi aracılığıyla, dil seviyeleri ile farklılıklar olup olmadığı ise tek yönlü ANOVA aracılığıyla kontrol edilmiştir. Bunların dışında iletişime isteklilik, belirsizlik toleransı ve ebeveyn teşvik düzeylerinin arasındaki ilişkinin incelenmesi için Pearson Korelasyon Katsayısı kullanılmıştır. Devamında, belirsizlik toleransı ve ebeveyn teşvikinin iletişime istekliliği yordama gücünün belirlenmesi amacıyla çoklu regresyon analizleri yapılmıştır. Çalışmanın nitel boyutunda ise ankete katılan öğrencilerden gönüllü olan 16 öğrenci ile röportaj yapılmıştır. Elde edilen bulgular, içerik analizi ile incelenmiştir. Sonuçlar, yabancı dil olarak öğrenen Türk öğrencilerin İngilizce iletişime isteklilik, belirsizlik toleransı ve ebeveyn teşvik düzeylerinin yüksek olduğunu göstermiştir. Bunun dışında, yaş ve dil düzeyinin etkisiyle ilgili önemli bulgular elde edilmiştir. Ayrıca, belirsizlik toleransının ve ebeveyn teşviki düzeyinin iletişime istekliliği anlamlı yönde yordadığı görülmüştür. Son olarak, öğrencilerin iletişime istekliliklerini etkileyen muhtemel dilbilimsel, duyuşsal, bağlamsal, bireysel etmenler ile öz algılanan iletişim yetkinliği bulunmuştur. Ayrıca, öğrencilerin belirsizlik toleransı ile ilgili yaşadıkları bazı problemler ortaya çıkarılmıştır.

Anahtar kelimeler: İngilizce iletişime isteklilik, belirsizlik toleransı, ebeveyn teşvik düzeyi

ABSTRACT

A STUDY ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TURKISH EFL LEARNERS' WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE IN ENGLISH, AMBIGUITY TOLERANCE AND PARENTAL ENCOURAGEMENT LEVEL

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This study aims to investigate Turkish EFL learners' willingness to communicate, tolerance of ambiguity, and parental encouragement levels. Moreover, a possible link between tolerance of ambiguity and parental encouragement levels with willingness to communicate was explored in the study. The research sample consisted of 151 preparatory school students at Hasan Kalyoncu University. A mixed-method research design was preferred in this study as both qualitative and quantitative research methods were utilized. "Willingness to Communicate Scale" developed by McCroskey (1992), "Second Language Tolerance of Ambiguity" developed by Ely (1989), and "Perceived Parental Encouragement Scale" involved in "Attitude/Motivation Test Battery" developed by Gardner (1985) were used as data collection tools. SPSS 20.0 was operated to analyze the data obtained from the questionnaires. Frequencies, means, percentages, and standard deviations were calculated through this program. Moreover, independent samples t-test was utilized to detect whether there was a statistically significant difference relating to age, while one-way ANOVA was used to explore if there was a statistically significant difference relating language proficiency with willingness to communicate, tolerance of ambiguity, and parental encouragement levels. Apart from these, Pearson correlation was practiced to investigate the relationship between willingness to communicate, tolerance of ambiguity, and parental encouragement. Afterward, to detect the predictive power of tolerance of ambiguity and parental encouragement on willingness to communicate, multiple regression analysis was achieved. In the qualitative part of the study, 16 students who already took the quantitative part of the study were interviewed. The findings were examined through content analysis. According to the results, Turkish EFL learners showed high willingness to communicate, tolerance of ambiguity and, perceived parental encouragement. Besides, statistically significant results were found relating to the influence of age and gender. Furthermore, it was detected that tolerance of ambiguity and perceived parental encouragement predicted willingness to communicate positively. Finally, some linguistic, affective, contextual, individual factors and, self-perceived communicative competence were found to be influencing elements on learners' willingness to communicate. Moreover, some problems of tolerating ambiguity experienced by learners were detected.

Keywords: Willingness to communicate in English, tolerance of ambiguity, parental encouragement level

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

WTC: Willingness to Communicate

TA: Tolerance of Ambiguity

SLTAS: Second Language Tolerance of Ambiguity Scale

AMTB: Attitude/Motivation Test Battery

TEPAV: Economic Policy Research Foundation of Turkey

SPSS: Statistical Package for Social Sciences

SPCC: Self-Perceived Communicative Competence

FLA: Foreign Language Anxiety

FLCAS: Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale

FLRAS: Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Presentation

This chapter presents a background of the study, statement of the problem, the purpose, and significance of the study, research questions, assumptions of the study, and limitations of the study.

1.2. Background of the Study

“There has never been a language so widely spread or spoken by so many people as English.”

-Crystal, 2003, p.189

English has become a network of communication all around the world (Crystal, 2003; Johnson, 2009; Yilmaz, 2012). According to an article published in Encyclopedia Britannica by Crystal and Potter (2020), “... *about a third of the world’s population, some two billion persons, now use English*” (para.1). Xue and Zuo (2013) state that by 2050, %50 of the world’s population will be able to use English effectively. Graddol (2000) emphasizes that none of the languages will take the throne from English as being a lingua franca for the following 50 years. Fishman (1992) indicates that English which symbolizes innovation and ability in high tech, is currently adopted by other countries whose primary language is not English. It crosses the lines of the countries where it is the mother tongue and takes on a more significant task. Now, it is accepted as a global language that takes on a specific mission in every nation around the world (Crystal, 2003).

Due to the value and necessity of English in today's world, acquiring English is accepted as a key for better financial opportunities, academic accomplishment, and position in the community (Johnson, 2009). As stated in a study by the British Council and Economic Policy Research Foundation of Turkey (TEPAV, 2013), mastering English creates opportunities for individuals for better and profitable professions in Turkey. Doğançay-Aktuna and Kızıltepe (2005) underline the fact that today, business firms see English as a required quality in applicants for their high salary jobs. Besides, a person proficient in English can have the opportunity to practice their profession beyond the borders of their country as well as follow the developments in their field. Furthermore, English has turned to a standard instrument as the greater part of the total data worldwide is conserved in English (Khan, 2011). Most books and academic papers have been written in English (Genç & Bada, 2010). That is why; proficiency in English gives a chance to stay informed about recent publications. Apart from that, English has sprawled throughout the world with the power of communication tools and technology (Ke, 2015). When the growth of English throughout the world is considered, being proficient in English provides advantages for intercultural communication (McKay, 2018). Also, it ensures to be updated with what is new in the world. Therefore, learning English has turned a necessity to keep pace with the change and the advancement.

Since the importance of learning English has been acknowledged, Communicative Language Teaching as an educational practice has stood in English language teaching (Richard & Rodgers, 1986; Dörnyei, 2009; Lahuerta, 2014). According to its' motto, using English is the primary goal to achieve. Also, it implies that success in speaking is a sign of achievement in learning the object language (Hashimoto, 2002). According to MacIntyre and Charos (1996, p.3) "...one must talk to learn". Therefore, Communicative Language Teaching supports the shift in focus from linguistic competence to linguistic performance.

Swain (1985), who came up with the "Output Hypothesis", suggested that language production is helpful in L2 acquisition. Accordingly, the production process activates learners' language learning. In addition, thanks to L2 use, learners notice their mistakes and missing points in their language learning process. Thus, they become aware of their learning. On the other hand, according to Krashen (1982), the Affective Filter hypothesis is a vital concept in language acquisition as affective variables influence the comprehension of the conveyed data and,

eventually, the production of a target language. That is why; L2 production contributes to the language learning process. Therefore, learners' characteristics and emotional conditions play a vital role in the process of L2 production.

As more and more people are striving hard to master and become fluent in English, one of the main objectives of language teaching is to increase learners' communicative competence and performance in the target language to be more fluent and confident during a conversation. According to Berger and Calabrese (1975), during dialogue, the quantity of speech is essential (as cited in McCroskey & Baer, 1985). It is because the longer a conversation goes, the lesser the obscurity level, which eventually decreases the tension. At this point, willingness to communicate (WTC) in a target language is a significant element for learners, which may lessen the stress level and make the learners more confident while talking.

Another situation to be considered is that a target language reserves mystery and learners must cope with intricacies (Kostic-Bobanovic & Bobanovic, 2010). In case of facing unknown or uncertain elements, learners may have a hard time keeping calm and solving the vagueness. Chapelle and Roberts (1986) comment on this confusing process which makes things difficult for the learners as:

“An L2 situation can be considered ambiguous because of the characteristics it shares with each of the four kinds of ambiguous situations. An L2 situation is considered “novel” by learners because the grammatical, lexical, phonological, and cultural cues are unfamiliar and therefore insufficient for them to construct a meaningful interpretation. On the other hand, these cues may be perceived as being too numerous to interpret, resulting in a “complex” situation. Similarly, a learner may interpret these multiple language cues as contradicting each other, rendering the situation “insoluble.” Also, because language cues in many cases can not be interpreted by the learner, the situation can be perceived as “unstructured” (p.31).

According to Krashen (1982), while acquiring a language, the quality of obtained data plays a determinant role in a successful process. Moreover, a healthy transfer of received data to the brain depends on the psychological condition of a learner. At this point, if the learner perceives unknown or uncertain data as something menacing, the language learning process may fail. However, if the learner possesses tolerance of ambiguity (TA), they would achieve to stay calm and embrace such data, and the language learning process would be more straightforward (Ely, 1989). In this regard, language learners must carry enough amount of TA to be successful in language learning. Thus, an unknown or ambiguous context would be engaging and appealing rather than disturbing (Furnham & Ribchester, 1995).

While considering language learners' success, parents play a vital role by being the nearest source of support and motivation (Flippo, 2014). Gardner (1985a) stated that whether active or passive form, parents influence their child's process in L2. During English language learning, positive encouragement from the parents may increase the achievement of a learner. Morris, Lafontaine, Pichette, and de Serres (2013) underlined in their study the influence of the motivation of the EFL learners. On the other hand, according to Kenny (1987), language learners of all ages need the positive support and guidance of their parents. That is why; perceiving positive encouragement from parents is believed to be a valuable thing for language learners.

Consequently, possessing a strong willingness to interact in the target language and having enough tolerance to unknown or ambiguous situations are essential features for a language learner during the EFL learning process. Moreover, perceiving encouragement from parents would be beneficial to stay motivated during this process.

1.3. Statement of the Problem

In an English classroom, it is easy to find EFL learners who are enthusiastic about entering and sustaining a conversation and learners who are reluctant to speak. Moreover, it is not surprising to find learners with a high level of linguistic competence coupled with low readiness to act for interaction and learners with limited linguistic competence who are ready to interact at every opportunity (MacIntyre et al., 1998). In agreement with this, it is assumed that WTC level is a variable independent from one's linguistic knowledge and thus changes from person to person. Accordingly, McCroskey and Richmond (1990) suggest that WTC is a personality-based aptitude and has an influence on one's communication skills. That is why; it is vital to look for the elements affecting one's eagerness to interact in a target language.

Now that WTC has been accepted as an individual difference, researchers have started to look for the factors affecting learners' tendency to enter interaction in the target language. Many studies worked on the reasons why some learners are less interested in speaking while others are eager to interact more (Bektaş-Çetinkaya, 2005; Shahbaz, Khan, Khan, & Mustafa, 2016; Öz, 2016; Demir Ayaz, 2017; Altın, 2018). Self-perceived communicative competence (SPCC) (Yashima, 2002; Piechurska-Kuciel, 2014), anxiety (Baker & MacIntyre, 2000; Hashimoto, 2002),

motivation (Kim, 2004; MacIntyre, 2007) are few of the elements which are found to predict WTC levels of learners. Still, further studies are needed to be done to confirm the findings and reveal other determinants of WTC in English in the Turkish EFL context. Tolerance of ambiguity (TA) and parental support are the two subjects, the relations of which with WTC are in an ongoing search.

According to Ely (1989), while learning a second language, one may face indefinite situations such as confusion in the exact definition of a new vocabulary, proper use of a language structure or, correct articulation of a word. At that point, TA describes how patient learners are to obscurity in such situations. Meanwhile, just like in WTC, TA levels of learners may be independent of their language proficiency. Even if some learners possess high proficiency in the target language, they may fail to tolerate unknown or ambiguous contexts. In contrast, learners with limited proficiency may be more enduring to ambiguity. That is why, TA has been the subject of many research with various topics (Genç, 2016; Başöz, 2015; Kamran, 2011). Nevertheless, more studies are needed to find the reasons for high or low tolerance to ambiguity in EFL learning.

Determining the necessary amount of TA in L2 learning has been another matter of research in the L2 field. In several studies, it has been found that learners with high TA scores are more successful in achieving the tasks in the target language (Chapelle & Roberts, 1986; Grace, 1998; Vahedi & Fatemi, 2016). However, it is believed that too much TA may have negative results. In such a situation, learners with high TA scores may not be excited by the upcoming data, and it may cause fossilization (Ely, 1995). Besides, Kazamia (1999) believes that L2 learners who are high in TA may lose their interest in what is new and acquire information without analytic thinking. On the other hand, El-Koumy (2000) suggests that learners with a medium level of TA have better scores than lower and higher tolerant students. So far, no study has achieved to state the necessary amount of TA in language learning. In that respect, more research is needed to detect the required level of TA in the EFL context (Kazamia, 1999; Erten & Topkaya, 2009).

Another relation focused throughout the studies is the influence of external support that a language learner receives from the people around them. MacIntyre, Baker, Clément and, Conrod (2001) discuss that a person tends to act when they receive confirmation from people close to them. Piechurska-Kuciel (2017) emphasizes that learning a language included intimidating obscurity with all the

information yet to be known that put pressure on learners. However, it is stated that reinforcement of others helps students to stay calm against challenging tasks and give them strength and self-confidence during language learning. Thus, it increases self-determination and ability to handle the tension. On that account, one may conclude that the more a person is supported by people around them, the more they feel confident and ready to communicate in a target language. That is why; parental encouragement may also influence the success of learners in the EFL context (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Morris et al., 2013; Niehaus & Adelson, 2014; Penjak & Karnincic, 2015; Kalaycı & Öz, 2018).

Considering the relevant research on parental encouragement, one may notice that the influence of parental encouragement on L2 learning is mainly researched at early ages (Butler, 2015; Ökten, 2016; Bai, Chao, & Wang, 2019). However, perceived parental encouragement is also an issue that must be focused on university-level students. Even if parents' influence may decrease at higher grades, university levels learners still need the support of their families (Kenny, 1987; Santikarn, 2019). Furthermore, with handling the various changes around them, university-level learners want to take advantage of the guidance and encouragement of their parents. To conclude, the university-level EFL learners' perceived parental encouragement needs more investigation.

WTC, TA, and parental encouragement have been investigated separately in different studies. MacIntyre, et al. (2001) found that social support promotes readiness to interact more in a second language. Xuesong (2006) found out that parents created a powerful drive on students with promoting positive manner against language learning during the EFL learning process. On the other hand, a limited number of research combining TA and WTC was detected. Vahedi and Fatemi (2016) found a positive correlation between the two and concluded that language learners with higher TA scores were more successful at resisting challenges while speaking in the target language, which influenced their WTC. This finding was supported by Khajavy, Ghonsooly, Hosseini Fatemi, and Choi (2016). In another study by Naderifar and Esfandiari (2016), it was concluded that there was no link between WTC and TA level in English learning. However, the number of studies is limited to draw conclusions on the relation of WTC and TA in the L2 context.

In conclusion, each learner is unique with their characteristics, and thus individual differences are significant elements to forecast success during the English language learning process. Personal varieties along with external support may be the determinants of a learner's attitude and WTC in English. That is why; the connections between TA, parental support and WTC levels of learners are needed to be focused on more. However, to the best of our knowledge, there is no study investigating the relationship between WTC, tolerance of ambiguity, and perceived parental support at once in the ELT context in Turkey. Over and above, there is no study that unites these three elements in the related literature. Therefore, it is evident that there is a need for a study combining them at once and trying to reveal any connection between them. In this way, learners' characteristics and motivational sources will be known better, and the English language teaching procedure will be shaped accordingly.

1.4. Significance of the Study

Mastering a new language is a demanding and challenging path to travel (Brown, 1991) and English is among the most compelling languages to acquire (McKay, 2018). However, there is no specific procedure that guarantees success in it at the end (Graddol, 2007). Moreover, language learners are assigned both cognitive and affective works (Gardner & Lalonde, 1985). Along with cognitive aspects such as knowing the principles and structures of the language, having the necessary capacity, language ability, the choice of language learning strategies, there is the affective side such as motivation, anxiety, and attitude in English language learning (Tokoz-Göktepe, 2014). In this sense, language learners must carry positive feelings towards language learning while bringing under control of their negative thinking to challenges they face during the learning process. However, each individual possesses unique characteristics and goes through different processes.

For the last 20 years, many studies have been done about individual factors to reveal their effect on the success of English language learning (Clément, Gardner, & Smythe, 1980; McCroskey, & Richmond, 1982; Pazooki, & Rastegar, 2009; Hişmanoğlu, & Özüdoğru, 2017). WTC in the target language is one of the objects of interest. The first reason may be the fact that mastering English means mastering the art of speaking it. Being a confident English communicator is one of the goals of language learning. According to McCroskey and Richmond (1987), WTC is the

primary factor for effective communication. Moreover, people who make contact with others successfully are socially approved (McCroskey & Richmond, 1990). That is why; it is crucial to deal with every point of speaking as well as learners' intentness to communicate. Another reason may be that the learners with high linguistic knowledge are not always eager to get into communication. Therefore, it is necessary to search about the factors intervening while transferring that knowledge into the experience (Dörnyei, 2005). Apart from all, MacIntyre, Baker, Clement, and Donovan (2002) claimed that variables affecting L2 WTC differ through time and contexts. On that account, more studies are needed in the related literature. The current study aimed to contribute to the investigation of these factors and reveal if there is any relationship among them.

As being another characteristic feature of L2 learners, tolerance to unknown or ambiguous context is the desired quality for a language learner. Balgiu (2014) underlines that learners with high TA levels are capable of handling ambiguity more appropriately and successfully without pressure, while less tolerant learners are affected negatively by showing worry, distress, and avoidance. Moreover, TA has been associated with risk-taking as more tolerant learners are also more fearless about language learning (Oxford & Ehrman, 1993; Oxford & Ehrman, 1995). Moreover, they are less concerned about being criticized by others (McLain, 1993). Apart from all, learners possessing higher tolerance experience less anxiety during their language learning process (Erten & Topkaya, 2009; Dewaele & Ip, 2013).

Along with individual factors, parents' support has an important impact on learners' education life, and it is essential to direct its' power carefully (Poyraz, 2017). According to Gardner (1985a), parents do not directly affect the success in a target language; however, they influence the learners' intent to sustain language learning. That is to say, parents may impress learners' thoughts on the acquisition of a language, the target culture, and the manner of the language class (as cited in Dörnyei & Schmidt, 2001). Therefore, this potential can be manipulated to increase Turkish EFL learners' WTC and ambiguity tolerance. The current study set a target to detect these connections. Moreover, compared to the number of studies done with younger ages (Butler, 2015; Ökten, 2016; Bai, Chao, & Wang, 2019), the university-level EFL learners' parental support needs more investigation. With the results of this study, a view is gained on the obtained parental support by learners.

Consequently, WTC, TA, and perceived parental encouragement are factors that influence the achievement of language learners. Investigating these three is necessary to detect the influencing elements of mastery in L2. Nevertheless, in Turkey, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, there is no study investigating the relationship between WTC, tolerance of ambiguity, and perceived parental support at once in the ELT context. In the Turkish educational system, English is taught as a foreign language. In that sense, this study may contribute to EFL teaching as it offers an analysis of the characteristics and attitudes of Turkish EFL learners. Namely, the study may provide further information about learners' readiness to interact in L2, their degree of tolerance to unknown or ambiguous situations during language learning, and perceptions about parental encouragement. What is more, the study may guide teacher educators towards the realization that each learner is diverse with their characteristics, and teaching is affected by numerous factors. Based on the results, further steps focusing on learners' WTC, TA, and perceived parental encouragement levels can be taken, and EFL learners would be more motivated to acquire the target language.

1.5. Purpose of the Study

This study aims to investigate the relationship between WTC, the ambiguity of tolerance, and the parental support level of Turkish EFL learners at a private university in Turkey. First, it signifies to analyze how eager the participants are against getting into communication in English. Besides, the participants' degree of toleration of the ambiguous context they encounter while learning English will be investigated. Thirdly, the degree of parental support they are exposed to will also be searched. Furthermore, in the light of collected data, the study aims to compare the scores of three components (WTC, tolerance of ambiguity, parental support) to reveal the relationship among them. As a final step, it was determined to get more detailed information on the participants' understanding of three concepts through an interview.

1.6. Research Questions

The aim of this study is to answer the following research questions:

Research Question 1#: How willing are Turkish EFL students to communicate in English?

Research Question 2#: How tolerant are Turkish EFL learners to ambiguity?

Research Question 3#: What is the degree of parental encouragement Turkish EFL learners attain?

Research Question 4#: To what extent are the ambiguity of tolerance and parental encouragement predict WTC in EFL learners?

Research Question 4.1 #: Is ambiguity tolerance related to WTC?

Research Question 4.2 #: Is perceived parental encouragement related to WTC?

1.7. Assumptions of the Study

This study was conducted with 151 EFL learners at a private university. In this study, a mixed-methods research design was used to explore the learners' WTC, TA, and perceived parental encouragement levels. It is assumed that the participants in the study filled the questionnaires carefully and faithfully. Besides, both questionnaire items and interview questions in the study are believed to ensure sufficient data to reach answers to the questions of the current research. What is more, the data collected is assumed to reflect the actual situation.

1.8. Limitations of the Study

The study has some limitations. First, since the study was taken place at one institution, the conclusions of this study may not be applicable to different contexts. Secondly, the study was achieved with only preparatory school students. Thirdly, more personalized information could be gathered and combined with quantitative results.

1.9. Definition of Terms

The terms are defined under this title to provide readers of the research to comprehend them more openly.

Willingness to Communicate: It is a personality-based inclination to undertake or abstain from starting a conversation when free to choose so (McCroskey, 1992).

Tolerance: The word ‘‘tolerance’’ is generally inferred to the natural ability to endure what is unappealing and disturbing and move on after all (Cambridge Dictionary, n.d).

Ambiguity: It defines the vagueness, unclear or indefinite contexts. Moreover, it depicts the condition of coping with unfamiliar situations (Kocaman & Pamukoğlu, 2018).

Tolerance of Ambiguity: In learning context, it is described as the successful dominance of operating conditions, including indefinite elements (Chapelle & Roberts, 1986). It is a required quality for a learner since the learners with higher tolerance to ambiguity are more successful at coping with unknown or obscure elements. On the other hand, those with lower TA may experience stress, achieve less, and needs constant check for evaluation (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991).

Perceived Parental Encouragement: Parental encouragement indicates the parents’ actions and guidance concerning the learner's academic success (Lawrence & Barathi, 2016). Furthermore, learners’ awareness of their parents’ encouragement is helpful for their language learning process (Santikarn, 2019).

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Presentation

This study aims to investigate WTC, TA, and perceived parental encouragement levels of Turkish EFL learners at a private university in Turkey. Moreover, based on the obtained data, the study aims to connect these three results to determine any relations between WTC with TA and perceived parental encouragement. In agreement with this purpose, it is essential to use previous research as a base. This chapter presents a review of literature on willingness to communicate, tolerance to ambiguity, and perceived parental support.

In the first part of the section, the concept of ‘‘Willingness to Communicate’’ is viewed with its emergence in L1. After that, an overview of the previous research on WTC in L2 education is presented with the determinants affecting WTC. The pyramid-shaped model in L2 WTC by MacIntyre, Clement, Dörnyei, and Noels (1998) is also examined during this part. In the second part, the notion of TA is focused on its’ emergence as well as the early studies in the L1 context. Later, the exploration of L2 TA and its’ relationship with different determinants in research are shown. In the third part, the effect of parents as sources of external support on learners’ L2 learning is mentioned.

2.2. Willingness to Communicate

Communication is an integral part of everyday interaction (McCroskey & Baer, 1985; McCroskey & Richmond, 1990). People contact with the ones around them; share their feelings, thoughts, and so on. Throughout interpersonal dialogue, the amount of speech is affected and thus, varies from person to person (McCroskey

& Baer, 1985; McCroskey & Richmond, 1990). Some people signal that they want to talk more during a conversation, while some others try to keep it short. In the meantime, it is observed that there is a consistency in the degree of eagerness that people have across speech situations. This personal quality-based inclination is called ‘‘Willingness to Communicate’’ (McCroskey & Baer, 1985; McCroskey & Richmond, 1987; MacIntyre, Babin, & Clement, 1999).

2.2.1. Willingness to Communicate in L1

Early studies about WTC worked on communication in one’s native language (L1). Philips (1968) searched for reasons why some people choose to stay silent and avert from contact. Burgoon (1976) focused on the concept of ‘‘unwillingness to communicate’’ by considering the terms of *anomia*, *alienation*, *self-esteem*, *introversion*, and *communication apprehension (CA)*. Mortensen, Artson, Lustig (1977) worked on the tendency people have on *verbal behavior* (as cited in McCroskey, 1997). McCroskey and Baer (1985), based upon the studies of Burgoon (1976), added the term WTC to the language field (MacIntyre et al., 1998). Meanwhile, cross-cultural studies were carried out to compare WTC levels of people from different cultures (McCroskey, Burroughs, Daun, & Richmond, 1990; Sallinen – Kuparinen et al., 1991).

In 1994, MacIntyre concentrated on the parameters from Burgoon’s study (1976). He conducted research with these parameters as well as adding SPCC and concluded that CA and SPCC were the significant determinants of varying WTC levels. It was deduced from the results that people were more eager to have a conversation when they were not distressed about communicating and were confident about their language skills.

WTC consists of trait and state or situational variables, which are an inseparable part of a whole (Yu, Li, & Gou, 2011). Trait variables include permanent personality features such as *CA*, *introversion*, *perceived communication competence*, *self-esteem*, etc. (MacIntyre, Babin, & Clément, 1999). On the other hand, state variables are inconsistent and affected by personal or situational factors. Each conversation context holds different variables such as the mood of a person at the moment of conversation, with whom they talk, the aim of the discussion, etc. (McCroskey & Richmond, 1990). Therefore, a communication context includes

personal characteristics along with unpredictable conditions. For example, Cao and Philp (2006) discovered in their research that the WTC level of learners was affected by situational elements such as group size, closeness with the interlocutors, interest in a topic, etc. Nevertheless, it is argued that there is a consistency in the WTC level of a person through different situational contexts (McCroskey & Baer, 1985; McCroskey & Richmond, 1990). That is why; WTC can be defined as the stability of choice of a person to speak across different communication situations.

Whether cultural elements influence the WTC of a person has been searched by Sallinen-Kuparinen et al. (1991). They did a study to reveal if there was a difference in WTC levels in L1 among nations. To this end, they gathered data from university students in Finland and compared the findings with other findings in U.S., Sweden, Australia, and Micronesia. According to the comparisons, it was found that even if SPCC and The Personal Report of CA scores were somewhat similar, Finns showed lower WTC scores comparing to Swedish, Australian, and American while Americans had the highest WTC among all. Based on the findings, the researchers commented that despite the common belief that Finns were quiet and self-enclosed, they valued silence as a cultural aspect and might choose to talk less. In this regard, WTC may differ across nations based on their cultural frame (McCroskey & Richmond, 1990).

2.2.2. Willingness to Communicate in L2

In the light of the studies on WTC in L1, the researchers worked on WTC in the L2 area. The aim was to discover why some L2 learners were eager to talk more while others shied away from any conversation. This time, compared to the L1 context, L2 WTC included a more sophisticated form of parameters affecting L1 WTC, such as competence. This shift was because of the fact that L1 WTC was perceived as a trait, and thus, personality variables were in the foreground. However, L2 WTC was considered to include more variables (Robson, 2015). For example, MacIntyre et al. (1998) defended that the settings of the L2 interaction varied compared to the L1 context. This setting might be practical on a language learners' proficiency in speaking. Therefore, they claimed that L2 WTC to be accepted as both a trait and situational variable. Peng (2007) acclaimed that L2 WTC contained more ambiguous content comparing to L1 WTC. Therefore, he defended that L1 WTC was evaluated as more of a personal trait while L2 WTC was impressed by the impact of

both individual and state factors. Overall, these arguments support the idea that WTC in a target language, other than the native one, must be dealt with considering more variables.

2.2.2.1. Pyramid-Shaped L2 Willingness to Communicate Model

MacIntyre et al.(1998) described WTC as “*a readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using L2*” (p. 547). From that point, they generated a pyramid-shaped L2 WTC model. Through this model, personal choices about initiating a conversation were represented from bottom to top (MacIntyre, Baker, Clement, & Conrad, 2001). Six components at the pyramid were separated as *situational* and *enduring* influences. Situational influences were regarded as temporary features and are influenced by the circumstances throughout a communication. On the other side, enduring influences were fixed, outlasting, and are almost always valid in every condition. The first three categories from top to bottom (*Communication Behavior*, *Behavioral Intention*, and *Situated Antecedents*) were accepted as situational influences on L2 dialogue. The other three categories (*Motivational Propensities*, *Affective-Cognitive Context*, *Social and Individual Context*) indicated enduring influences (MacIntyre et al., 1998).

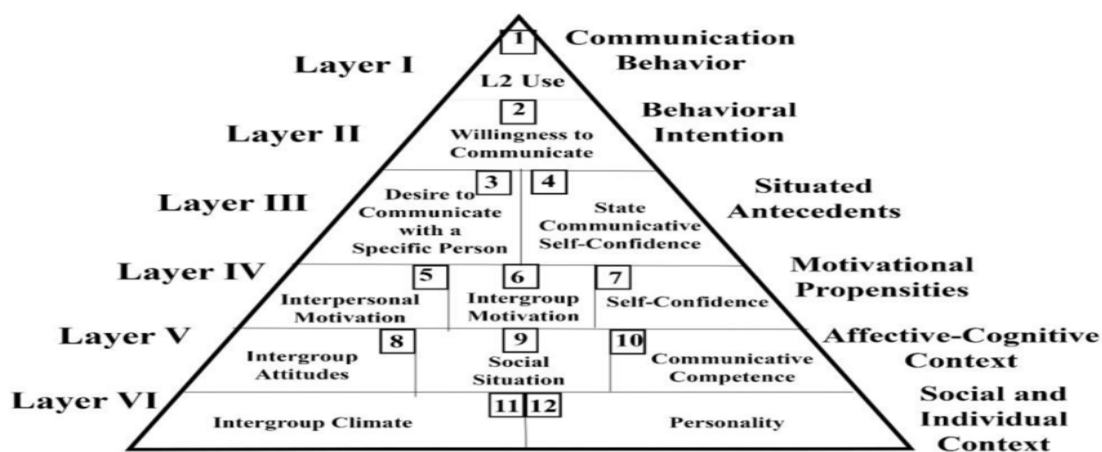


Figure 1. *Heuristic model of variables influencing WTC* (MacIntyre et al., 1998, P.547)

In *Layer I*, “communication behavior” is placed at the top of the pyramid. According to Hashimoto (2002), the practice of an L2 is both a signal and a required case for successful L2 learning. That is why; creating chances to interact in the target language, not only with speaking but also with reading and listening is the primary

goal of L2 learning (MacIntyre et al., 1998). On that account, language learners should be encouraged to interact with a target language more since it is the ultimate goal in language teaching.

In *Layer II*, WTC is placed as the nearest influencing factor on L2 use. At this point, WTC is considered as a behavioral intention that specifies the situation when a learner raises their hand upon the teacher's question (MacIntyre et al., 1998). This behavior signals that the learner is prepared and motivated to utilize L2. According to that, the learner who is about to speak demonstrates self-confidence about themselves. That is why, in order to build such confidence in learners and reveal behavioral intention to communicate, creating more chances for L2 practice is essential. Moreover, the learner shows that they feel motivated to answer the question. For example, the learner may be inspired to gain appreciation from the teacher, get high grades or both. Namely, the learner may have introvert or extrovert intentions to display behavioral intention to communicate. As a result, WTC includes motivation in itself.

In *Layer III*, ‘‘desire to communicate with a specific person’’ and ‘‘state communicative self-confidence’’ are located as the most influencing elements on WTC of a learner. According to MacIntyre et al. (1998), ‘affiliation’ and ‘control’ are the two elements operating interpersonal motivation. In affiliation, one speaker may be impressed by the features of the other speaker, such as charm, closeness, alikeness. Under these influences, the learner chooses a person to interact with and, tries to start conversations. Such conversations happen in informal situations and the degree of desire to build a connection with somebody differs among individuals. On the other hand, the control shows up in hierarchic states, and the aim of the interaction is based on duties. The status of speakers in society dominates the conversation. On the other hand, momentary variances of the feelings of self-confidence and nervousness may manipulate WTC level. For instance, if the learner has negative practices in the past, it may increase the anxiety level while decrease confidence to speak. Moreover, some contextual elements such as group size, group members, intergroup motives have an impact on the learner's self-confidence in speaking. In addition, at the moment of interaction, a person may not feel confident of their ability when they encounter a topic for the first time. Based on these influences, it is apparent that the learners need more interaction opportunities to gain

experience and confidence. In this way, they would be more successful at controlling their anxiety and stay confident about their L2 proficiency.

Layer IV contains more constant items, which are “interpersonal motivation”, “intergroup motivation”, and “self-confidence“, which are invariable among situations. In “interpersonal motivation”, it is underlined that learners’ intention to speak is influenced by different motives. For example, teacher-student interaction and communication for building a friendship have diverse motivational sources. On the other side, ‘intergroup motivation’ is influenced by the community of a person to whom they are involved. Affiliation and control also show up as contributing causes during cross-group interaction. This time, affiliation stands for the struggle of a member to endear themselves to others while control means to preserve the prestige within the group. Both in interpersonal and intergroup context, learners’ integrative motivation step forward as learners carrying a positive attitude to the target language culture and members of that culture strive harder to build a connection. That is why; they take advantage of opportunities to communicate more. The last title in this section, ‘self-confidence,’ differs from the one at *Layer III* as here it is more constant and implies a general view of one’s L2 language achievement. Assessment of one’s progress and the level of stress in L2 learning are combined.

Layer V underlines the features “intergroup attitudes, social situation and communicative competence” which have distant effects on WTC (pp. 551-552). Such features do not depend on the setting at the time but infer a more durable case. They derive from a person’s previous practices, beliefs, thinking, etc. (Simić, 2014). Here as well, learners’ desire to acquire L2 differs and intrinsic motivation plays a vital role in persistence to study L2. Also, the social context of the L2 use matters as elements in the context, the aim of the communication may influence the frequency and eagerness to communicate. What is more, the degree of WTC may differ among contexts. For example, a learner may be less talkative in the L2 classroom while they communicate more among peers. This shows that the WTC level differs among diverse contexts and with different receiver types. Apart from that, learners’ positive perception of their own competence is an advantageous component as well as their actual competence. A learner with limited competence may feel more courageous to interact in L2, while a learner with a good level of competence may experience

insecurities about their competence. Such a condition illustrates that the self-image of a learner on L2 plays a crucial role in determining WTC.

Layer VI centers upon “intergroup climate” and “personality”. Accordingly, target language society matters as learner’s viewpoint on that society, their degree of eagerness to join, the rationale to acquire L2, their fear of losing contact with L1, etc., are aspects impressing WTC. Moreover, the personality of a learner may influence their eagerness to communicate with others. For instance, a learner with a shy nature may not be willing to start or sustain a conversation. On the other hand, an extrovert learner may be more ready to speak (Safa & Jamshidi, 2017).

2.2.2.2. Research on L2 Willingness to Communicate

It is asserted that L2 education aims to create learners willing to talk more to pave the way for mastering a target language (MacIntyre et al., 1998; Peng, 2007; Dörnyei, 2009). For this purpose, the researchers worked on the contributing causes, which create alacrity and direct learners to use L2 more. That is why; personality traits, communicational variables, etc., have been the subject of numerous research. Individual differences have been one of the issues, the relation of which with L2 WTC is examined quite a lot (Hashimoto, 2002; MacIntyre et al., 2002; Yashima, 2002; Kim, 2004, Öz, 2014).

MacIntyre and Charos (1996) investigated the determinants of L2 use by building on the factors in MacIntyre’s study (1994) as well as including different variables such as motivation, five-personality traits, and context of communication. The study is conducted with 92 participants whose mother tongues were English and who had been taking adult-level evening interactive French lessons. In this study, to measure students’ preparedness to interact in the target language, the researchers combined the WTC model of MacIntyre (1994) and the socio-educational model of Gardner (1985a). According to Gardner’s model, a learner’s motivation is affected by “integrativeness” and “the attitude towards the learning situation”. In other words, L2 learners’ alacrity to acquire a target language to communicate with people from different nations and their manner to the learning environment are two critical elements considering L2 learning motivation (MacIntyre & Charos, 1996). All in all, Gardner’s argument was verified as learner’s motivation was affected by these two elements, and motivation had an effect on the density of L2 use. What is more, it was verified that L2 WTC was positively influenced by SPCC and the frequency of

conversation while negatively affected by anxiety. Motivation, however, did not show a tremendous influence on L2 WTC.

In another study investigating the relation of L2 WTC with influencing elements, MacIntyre et al. (2002) conducted a study that compared multiple factors with L2 WTC and motivation, anxiety, SPCC, communication apprehension, gender, age. The study was carried out with 268 students from the 7th, 8th, and 9th classes who took all their lessons in French. Several scales, including the WTC scale by McCroskey and Baer (1985), a motivation scale developed by Gardner and MacIntyre (1993), were used. At the end of the study, it was found out that WTC scores were positively correlated with motivation and SPCC while negatively correlated with anxiety. Moreover, age and gender were found to be related to WTC as through age, WTC scores of the students increased, and female students showed higher WTC scores over time. In 2002, Hashimoto reached similar results in the Japanese context with 56 students using a smaller version of Gardner's (1985b) The Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) to find the effectors determining the density of the use of English. As distinct from the previous research, this time, motivation was found to have an intense impact on WTC.

The comparison of language learning processes between immersion and non-immersion program language learners and the effects on gender were studied by Baker and MacIntyre (2000). In their study, 59 university students learning French (27 in immersion classes, 32 in non-immersion classes) were included. Moreover, several scales were applied to measure their WTC, CA, SPCC, motivation, frequency of speaking in L2, and their language orientations such as traveling, fellowship with Francophones, occupation-related and, school success. As a result, it was concluded that immersion learners were superior in L2 WTC levels as they had more SPCC and less anxiety. Besides, they had higher integrative motivation towards L2 use. Another condition noticed in the research was that for immersion program students, anxiety was the determinant of WTC scores, while for non-immersion students, it was self-confidence. Based upon this result, the researchers argued that immersion learners had more opportunities to use the target language; however, this might bring stress to perform better every time they communicate. Meanwhile, non-immersion ones had less chance to practice speaking, and their self-trust decides their WTC and achievement in the target language. Apart from these, it was detected that female participants were superior to males in having a positive manner to language learning

orientations. These results were similar to those reported by MacIntyre et al. (2003) and Peng (2007).

MacIntyre, Baker, Clement, and Conrad (2001) dealt with L2 learners' WTC, effect of social support and, language learning orientations. For this purpose, they conducted a study with 79 9th grade students whose mother tongue was English, and they had a French immersion program. The students' WTC scores were measured in four skills. Besides, five language learning motives which were travel, job related, friendship with Francophones, personal knowledge, and school achievement, were compared. Ultimately, it was determined that these motives and WTC in target language had a positive correlation. In other words, when the learners were motivated about traveling abroad, having better job opportunities, making foreign friends, having better academic achievement, etc., they felt more willing to communicate in a target language. Moreover, the study's findings revealed that the support from the people around the students, particularly from their friends, had a positive impact on their L2 WTC scores.

The attitude towards the target language community may be influential on learners' WTC in a target language. More precisely, if L2 learners carry positive feelings about the target culture, they may be more inclined to use the target language. Addressing that issue, Yashima (2002) studied with 389 Japanese university students to analyze the effectors of their L2 use and WTC levels in L2 class and considered international posture based on the socio-educational model (Gardner, 1985a). In the result, it was concluded that global posture influenced learners' ability, motivation, and confidence which was also confirmed by Yashima et al. in 2004. Meanwhile, it was reported that WTC was affected by self-reliance and indirectly by motivation through attitude to worldwide communication. Such results were in line with the findings of MacIntyre and Charos (1996).

Kim (2004) studied with 191 Korean university students to determine their WTC scores and the aspects influencing such scores. Gathered data through the questionnaires showed that participants' WTC scores had a straight connection with their self-trust while no direct link between their attitudes and motivation in the L2 context. At this point, different from Yashima (2002), Kim (2004) did not detect a clear connection between participants' attitudes to global communication and their

L2 WTC scores. Furthermore, based on the results, it was defended that WTC based more on individual features than situational influences.

Bektaş-Çetinkaya (2005) presented a study with 356 Turkish preparatory class university students to evaluate WTC scores and its' determinants. Both qualitative and quantitative procedure is used with questionnaires and an interview with 15 participants. At the end of the study, it was revealed that participants' levels of SPCC and WTC scores were positively correlated. Moreover, similar to the findings of Yashima (2002) and Yashima et al. (2004), the attitude of interaction with other nations positively influenced WTC. Meanwhile, motivation and anxiety had implicit effects. With the contribution of interview results, it was explained that Turkish EFL learners' main drive to learn English was not to use it for communicative purposes but rather to acquire a profession after school. That is why; motivation was not the primary supporter of L2 WTC. Also, it was claimed that participants were in their first year of school and did not have enough experience in L2 communication, which prevented them from being anxious while speaking.

Peng (2007) aimed to investigate the influence of motivation and attitude of learners on their L2 WTC. The study was carried out with 174 Chinese university students, and they were assigned to fill WTC Scale (MacIntyre et al., 2001) and a short version of AMTB (Gardner, 1985b). In the result, it was found out that motivation was the most powerful in estimating learners' WTC scores together with integrativeness. Based on the results that have been stated so far about motivation and WTC, there were either explicit or implicit relationships between the two, which require more research.

A positive relation between Emotional Intelligence (EI) and L2 WTC has been found in various research (Tabatabaei & Jamshidifar, 2014; Rastegar & Karami, 2015; Vahedi & Fatemi, 2016). To illustrate, Alavinia and Alikhani (2014) completed a study with 255 Iranian university students to search for the relationship between EI and L2 learners' eagerness to communicate. WTC Scale (McCroskey, 1992) and Bar-On's Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) (Bar-on, 1980) were used to obtain the results. A positive connection between the two was identified, indicating that the higher the EI scores, the more willing the learners were during communication in a target language. Similar results were found in another study in the Turkish EFL context by Öz (2015). In his study, it was added that understanding

and handling the feelings of others helped increasing preparedness to communicate in L2.

2.2.3. Motivation

According to Gardner (1985a), motivation at a target language learning process is ‘‘the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitudes towards learning the language’’ (p.10). It has been recognized as an element forecasting the achievement throughout language acquisition (Dörnyei, 1994; Yu & Shen, 2012). According to Mystkowska-Wiertelak and Pawlak (2017), the acquisition of a second language has been predominantly affected by motivation compared to the mother tongue.

One of the earliest investigations on language learning motivation was conducted by Gardner and Lambert in 1959 (Gardner & Smythe; 1975; Gardner, 2010). In their study, they focused on cognitive and affective elements affecting French language learning. Moreover, they evaluated motivation in two categories: *instrumental* and *integrative*. *Instrumental* motivation stood for acquiring a language for functional reasons such as finding a job and having a higher status, while in *integrative* motivation, there was a desire to know about the target culture and be acquainted with that culture. Gardner and Lambert (1959) compared learners with *integrative* and *instrumental* motivation on French language learning. Based on the findings, it was reported that the ones possessing integrative motivation were more victorious in French learning. Apart from that, two elements were detected as factors affecting the success: linguistic aptitude and ‘‘willingness to be like valued members of the language community’’ (p.271).

In 1985, Gardner introduced his socio-educational model to the field, explaining the relationship between motivation and L2 acquisition. It was a profound structure on motivation and affected the (Peng, 2007). *The socio-cultural milieu, individual differences, language acquisition context, and language learning outcomes* were the four determinants of this model. Among them, *the socio-cultural milieu* implies views about the society of the language to be learned. Another component, *individual differences*, involves intelligence, language aptitude, motivation, and situational anxiety (Gardner, 1985a). Furthermore, language learning strategy use and self-confidence were considered to be related to personality (Gardner

& MacIntyre, 1992). *Language acquisition context*, on the other hand, includes authorized and unauthorized language learning exercises. The last one, *language learning outcomes*, points out accomplishments after the practice, such as increasing the attention to language studies (Tuyan & Serindağ, 2019).

According to the socio-educational model, there are three points of view on motivation (Gardner & Lalonde, 1985). Basically, a learner must possess a wish to acquire a target language, motivational intensity, and a positive perspective in language learning. That is why; a simple desire to master a language is insufficient, and motivation is a driving force covering all three elements (Dörnyei, 1998). Besides, according to Gardner, integrativeness and the attitude towards the learning situation were the two vital elements facilitating this motivation (MacIntyre & Charos, 1996; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003). The initial element, integrativeness, implies a language learner's wish to establish closeness with people in the target group or be a part of the group (MacIntyre, Clément, & Noels, 2007). The other element, the attitude towards the learning situation, underlines a learner's opinion about the educator, lesson, and all the components applied in language teaching (Çetinkaya, 2005).

Integrative motivation has been underlined as a decisive factor in learners' drive to learn and use a target language in the socio-educational model (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Gardner, Day, & MacIntyre, 1992; Dörnyei & Schmidt, 2001). Gardner(2010) believes that integrative motivation sets the ground for connections with different languages, which will be entertaining and fulfilling. Moreover, he indicates that integrative motivation is an impressive force and assists L2 learning by promoting constancy, which is vital for success. As a result, learners are always in pursuit of catching chances to practice and empower their L2. Since learners possessing integrative motivation are more curious about learning about the target culture and society, they feel motivated to practice their communication skills. Therefore, they use every opportunity to practice their L2 speaking. On that account, integrative motivation triggers WTC and decides the frequency of speak (MacIntyre & Charos, 1996). On the other hand, based on the pyramid-shaped L2 WTC model, seeking for affiliation is a driving factor that positively influences WTC (MacIntyre et al.,1998). Learners who try to bound connections with an interlocutor or being part of a target group society try harder to build connections which ensures more effort to

communicate. On that account, integratively motivated learners are more willing to speak in L2.

Gardner and his colleagues believed that numerous personal factors affected integrative motivation in the second language learning process (Hashimoto, 2002). To find out and evaluate distinct characteristics in the light of his socio-educational model, Gardner formed The Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) in 1985. It was initially designed to evaluate Canadian students learning French as a second language (Cortés, 2002). The questionnaire possessed more than 130 elements and included five sections (integrativeness, attitude toward the learning situation, motivation, instrumental orientation, language anxiety) with several subsections (Hashimoto, 2002; Dörnyei, 2005). The validity and reliability of it were approved in numerous studies (Gardner & Symthe, 1981; Gardner, 1985b; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993). Since then, the original and modified versions have been applied in many language research (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Bektaş-Çetinkaya, 2005; Peng, 2007; Tuyan & Serindağ, 2019).

Over time, Gardner's socio-educational model has been criticized in some aspects. One major drawback to this model was put forward by Dörnyei (1990). He argued that the superiority of integrative motivation over instrumental motivation was not acceptable. That was because there were no exact proofs to conclude which of the two was more influential on language learning. Furthermore, learners might not have the opportunity to make contact with L2 society, and so, they could not develop a poster to the L2 culture. For this reason, it was argued that integrative motivation complied with second language learners while instrumental motivation was for foreign language learners. In the later years, Dörnyei (1994) also pointed out that Gardner's ideas were mainly based on overall elements and the driving force of culture instead of in-class language learning. Because of this, it was not easy to generalize ideas through AMTB, which included parts dealing with the in-class language learning experience.

The superiority of integrative motivation in the socio-educational model (Gardner, 1985) was also questioned by Oller, Baca, and Vigil (1977). Their research focused on the language learning process of Mexicans living in America and had prejudice toward Anglo Americans (as cited in Ellis, 1994; Hashimoto, 2002). Their study revealed that even if the individuals in the study possessed unfriendly attitudes towards the members of the target language society for racial and diplomatic

motives, they would still be aware of the importance and practicality of the target language (as cited in Kumaravadivelu, 2006). Similarly, Clement and Krudener (1983) argued that the description of the two motivation types was obscure as some motives such as taking a trip abroad, getting to know somebody might neither be a part of integrative nor instrumental. Moreover, they did a study in Canada to search for the influence of social circle and ethnic background on learners' motivation while learning a language. As a result, they noted that the participants in the study aimed to learn a target language primarily for instrumental reasons, which were to take a trip abroad, make new friends, etc. Therefore, instrumental motivation was detected as a driving force overcoming integrative motivation in language learning.

Another criticism of Gardner's socio-educational model, made by Crookes and Schmidt (2001), was that Gardner's model influenced the area so strongly, and thus, relevant views were surpassed. Besides, they also emphasized that integrative motivation did not necessarily have to assure successful language learning. Moreover, they claimed that it might be the feeling of accomplishment that affected the manner of language learners. When learners made good progress in language learning, this would influence their thoughts, and motivation would ensue. Taie and Afshari (2015) believed that even if an individual did not possess sympathy for an L2 and its community, they could still manage to acquire it. That is why; the researchers thought that the model centered too much upon integrativeness. Based on such findings, Gardner and MacIntyre (1991) finalized the discussion by underlining that language learners who were either integrative or instrumentally motivated were more advantageous and successful than unmotivated learners in language learning.

After the several criticisms directed to the concept of integrative motivation in Gardner's socio-educational model, Ryan and Deci (1985) categorized motivation into two: intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Extrinsic motivation covers purposes for language learning originating from external factors. On the other hand, in intrinsic motivation, learners carry an internal drive to acquire a target language. It is stressed that when learners aim to learn a target language since it is gripping, pleasant, and worthwhile, it is more probable for them to master L2 (Noels, 2001). In that case, learners enjoy the language learning process and feel an internal drive to be successful in L2 speaking. Therefore, they become more willing to seek out chances for practice both in and out of the classroom. Moreover, intrinsic motivation increases autonomy as learners become more self-controlled about their L2 learning

process (Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier, & Ryan, 1991). In addition, according to the pyramid-shaped L2 WTC model, self-confidence is a determining factor on learners' motivation to use L2 both in situational and enduring perspectives (MacIntyre et al., 1998). From that point of view, internally motivated learners are autonomous and self-confident about their L2 speaking skills. That is why; they enjoy challenging tasks and do not get intimidated by the ambiguities faced, which may increase willingness to speak. Based on that has been stated so far, it seems evident that both intrinsic and integrative motivation have a positive influence on L2 WTC.

2.2.4. Anxiety

Anxiety, in general, is described as “the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness and worry associated with an arousal of the automatic nervous system” (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986, p.125). It is a condition also faced in language classes as some language learners experience difficulty and pressure while acquiring or performing the language. Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) call such a situation “foreign language anxiety (FLA)”. MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) depict FLA as “the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language contexts, including speaking, listening, and learning” (p. 284). According to MacIntyre (1999), it covers “worry and negative emotional reaction aroused when learning or using a second language” (p. 27). Oxford (2011) underlines that language anxiety is a diverse concept, and it means distress while utilizing the target language in front of others. Wikipedia mentions FLA as discomfort experienced while learning or using a target language (“Foreign language anxiety”, 2020). Furthermore, the term anxiety is categorized into two as trait anxiety and state anxiety (Spielberger, 1983; Scovel, 1978; Eysenck, 1979; Dörnyei, 2005). Trait anxiety defines constant or semi-continuous (Eysenck, 1979) anxiety notwithstanding the context. On the other hand, state anxiety indicates instantaneous, temporary anxiety felt upon the impact of a situation. Horwitz et al. (1986) commented that state anxiety became prominent in a language learning context in a language learning process as anxiety in the language learning process is a diverse section of anxiety.

Anxiety in language learning was initially mentioned in the “Affective filter hypothesis” by Krashen (1982). In addition, Gardner (1985b) included the “French

Class Anxiety Scale'' at his well-known AMTB to score language anxiety. However, anxiety in foreign language learning was initially described by Horwitz et al. (1986). They characterized it as "a distinct set of beliefs, perceptions, and feelings in response to foreign language learning in the classroom" (p. 130). In their study, FLA was divided into three: *communication apprehension*, *test anxiety*, *fear of negative evaluation*. The first one indicated the pressure of transmitting and comprehending a message in a foreign language. When a learner was expected to pick up, keep in mind, process the information, and further communicate back in the target language, they mostly felt inadequacy and discomfort while speaking in front of others. The second one, *test anxiety*, specified a particular worry for the possibility of nonsuccess in school life. The last one, *fear of negative evaluation*, described the situation of getting negative criticism from people in any interaction context. It was distinct from test anxiety as it was not only limited to education life. For example, employment interviewing, giving a speech in front of people might trigger a person's anxiety level. Upon all, Horwitz et al. (1986) created The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) to measure these three components. The scale was applied in many research (Aida, 1994; Saito, Horwitz, & Garza, 1999).

The connection between anxiety and language learning has been mentioned from different perspectives in literature (Horwitz, Young, 1991; MacIntyre et al., 2002; Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002). Dörnyei (2005) asserted that due to an anxiety-triggering context, a learner might not be able to remember what they had already known or make foolish faults. MacIntyre(1999) stated that anxiety had the power of foresight on the achievement or nonsuccess in language learning. Moreover, it had an impact on academic, cognitive, communal, and personal fields. According to Krashen's "Affective filter hypothesis" (1982), emotions such as anxiety became a barrier blocking input from being transmitted to a language acquisition device. Then, the input would not have been understood clearly, and the language acquisition period would have been interrupted. That is why; it was suggested that a language learning context should be arranged to reduce anxiety. Moreover, some language teaching methods were evaluated on their success at handling anxiety. It was discussed that some of them, such as the Suggestopedia and Natural Approach, were better at lowering the interruption of affective filter (Krashen,1982). Horwitz et al. (1986) accepted that such systems as community language learning, Suggestopedia aimed to lower language learner anxiety. On the other hand, MacIntyre, Noels,

Clement (1997) believed that anxiety influenced learners' thoughts on their sufficiency in the target language. Due to the negative effect of anxiety, language learners might not fully recognize their competence in L2. As a solution to this problem, Dewaele (2013a) argued that density of target language practice and mastering more than one language was functional at lowering anxiety level.

Apart from the unfavorable effects of anxiety on language learning, some researchers defended that, to some extent, anxiety could be helpful. According to Oxford (2016), tolerance of anxiety might differ from person to person. Moreover, some would find pleasure with the thrill and pressure. Dewaele and MacIntyre (2014) believed that anxiety had an abstruse and versatile form. A learner might experience joy and anxiety during the language learning process. That is why; these two might not contrast but instead team up with each other (Boudreau, MacIntyre, & Dewaele, 2018). While learning new things in a target language, learners may experience excitement and stress at the same time. Furthermore, Dewaele and MacIntyre (2016) argued that learners could be proud of themselves and feel contentment after achieving a challenging and stressful task in language learning. They feel accomplished when they overcome anxiety-provoking situations during language learning. Scovel(1978) anxiety could be assistive and prompter for the struggle with upcoming language assignments.

MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) studied anxiety types and their possible connections with language learning. For this purpose, they factor analyzed 11 diverse anxiety scales. They examined participants' success at comprehension and production of target language during time pressure along with scales. In the result of their study, they obtained two categories: general anxiety and communicative anxiety. General anxiety involved trait, state, and test anxiety, while communicative anxiety consisted of French class, French use, English class, and audience sensitivity. Furthermore, they concluded that an increase in communicative anxiety caused a decrease in success in acquiring and generating French vocabulary. General anxiety, however, did not exhibit a connection. This result indicated that FLA influenced the acquirement and generation of the target language. Learners with higher anxiety had more trouble learning as well as using a target language for communicative purposes. Moreover, it was ensured that there was a specific anxiety type of language acquisition that was not a part of general anxiety (Tran, 2012). Besides, contrary to Horwitz et al.'s (1986) conclusion, MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) found that test

anxiety was an item of general anxiety. Thus, it could not be unique to the language learning process.

Afterward, in 1991, MacIntyre and Gardner extended their previous study and used 23 anxiety scales this time. In the end, according to factor analysis, three types of anxiety were obtained: social evaluation anxiety, state anxiety, and language anxiety. Among them, language anxiety was distinguished as the only connector with foreign language learning. Such a negative correlation between FLA and success in language learning was further testified in the field (MacIntyre & Charos, 1996; MacIntyre, Baker, Clement, & Conrad, 2001; Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002).

Anxiety may damage the language learning process as it prevents learners from being aware of their language competence and performance. MacIntyre et al. (1997) studied the negative influence of anxiety with 37 young adult French learning students whose mother tongue was English. The students' viewpoint on their L2 competence, their actual competence, and their level of anxiety was investigated in the study. For this purpose, participants first were given two questionnaires to analyze their anxiety level and expectation on their ability in the French language. After that, they were given several assignments to measure their speaking, reading, writing, and comprehension level. As a result, it was seen that the students' viewpoint on their L2 competence, actual competence, and their level of anxiety were related to each other, and anxiety harmed the first two. Also, it was concluded that students with higher anxiety levels were prone to undervalue their capability and choose to transfer their thoughts less often than students with lower anxiety. For this reason, they intended to perform less in speaking, writing as these skills possessed a risk of failure in front of others.

Anxiety has a negative influence throughout the whole language learning process. MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) explored the impact of anxiety through input, processing, and output steps in a language learning process. In the result of their study, it was seen that input, processing, and output anxiety scales were negatively correlated with grades in language class. Namely, anxiety was not just effective on the language production part, but it also influenced the perceiving and processing period. Moreover, in line with the results of Horwitz et al. (1986), it was observed that participants had trouble keeping and remembering a given data. Therefore they were less willing to speak and apply complex language structures in the target language.

During the language learning process, the amount of anxiety is unstable and alters at times. Gregersen, MacIntyre, and Meza (2014) used the idiodynamic method to reveal this ever-changing nature of anxiety because of variances in the language learning process. For this study, FLCAS (Horwitz et al., 1986) was applied to a group of students whose native language was English, and they were taking Spanish lessons. According to the scores, the three highest scorers and three lowest scorers were chosen as the study participants. Later, they were asked to give a presentation in the target language while being videotaped and put on a cardiac monitor. Next, each participant watched their own presentation meanwhile assessed their anxiety at every passing moment. Eventually, it was seen that every participant had a wavy graph indicating the rise and fall of anxiety. Thereupon, the researchers commented that ‘no two speeches ever can be the same; even the same person speaking about the same topic to the same audience a second time would be expected to show different patterns of reactions because events unfold differently each time.’’(p. 580). Accordingly, there is a doubt to think that every language learners experience low and high anxiety from time to time because of inner or contextual reasons. What is more, according to the researchers, small details such as quick positive visual feedback from the instructor or classmates might be considered adequate as neither of the participants showed a high degree of anxiety all through their presentation.

Gregersen and Horwitz (2002) examined the perception of 8 sophomore-year university students on their speaking in the target language with a qualitative study. At first, the students were asked basic questions in L2 and were recorded. After one week, the recordings were shown to them, and they were asked to express their views. Upon the results, it was commented that students with higher anxiety were more nervous while watching, showed remorse for their mistakes, and tended to abstain from being judged by others. On the other hand, students with lower anxiety were aware of their inadequacies and at peace with their outcomes. Upon the results, it was put forward that students with higher anxiety were more perfectionist, and they were frustrated when they could not reach the desired level in communication.

Saito et al. (1999) assessed if there was variability in the anxiety scores of learners of different languages during reading tasks. 383 university freshmen who had been taking French, Japanese, or Russian classes as a foreign language contributed to the study (192 to French, 114 to Japanese, 77 to Russian). FLCAS by

Horwitz et al. (1986) and Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale (FLRAS) designed by the researchers were utilized to collect the necessary data. Apart from that, the scores of reading anxiety in the three languages had minor variations, which restrained to make a clear judgment in the end. However, while general anxiety sorting from highest to lowest was French, Japanese, and Russian, it was Japanese, French, and Russian in reading anxiety. Such discrepancy indicated that anxiety in foreign language reading was a diverse concept from FLA (Rodriguez & Abreu, 2003).

Yalçın and İnceçay (2014) researched whether the inclusion of impromptu speech tasks in a target language learning process would be helpful to decrease the degree of anxiety. A mixed-methods research design was carried out for their study. Throughout one semester, impromptu speech tasks, games were added to the speaking class time. Following the task, the participants wrote down their thoughts about the given tasks. Apart from that, they were given FLCAS developed by Horwitz et al. (1986) and Unwillingness to Communicate Scale (UCS) by Burgoon (1976) both at the beginning and the end of the semester. In addition, interview sessions with some of the participants were done after the semester. Ultimately, it was deduced from the results that the participants were less anxious compared to the beginning of the semester ($z = -1.373$, $p = 0.17$). Furthermore, based on participants' comments, it was interpreted that impromptu tasks were less stressful as there was no need for a background study and waiting period. In addition, the participants stated that the more they achieved in speaking, the less they felt nervous. Over and above this, the participants remarked on the distressing feature of teamwork during the tasks. In conclusion, researchers suggested impromptu speech tasks to be used in the classroom more often.

2.2.5. Self-Perceived Communicative Competence

It is known that motivation to communicate in a target language has been affected by various individual differences and as being one of them, learners' perception about their L2 proficiency has been the subject of multiple studies (Richmond, McCroskey, & McCroskey, 1989; Chesebro, McCroskey, Atwater, Bahrenfuss, Cawelti, Gaudino, Hodges, 1992; MacIntyre et al., 1998; MacIntyre et al., 2002; Yashima, 2002; Sultan, 2012; Lockley, 2013; Simić, 2014).

It is believed by McCroskey and McCroskey (1988) that a person's opinion about their SPCC is more determinant in their choices than their actual communicative competence in English. In harmony with the reliance on their proficiency, the person decides to speak or not. Similarly, McCroskey and Richmond (1990) believed that individuals might be more conscious about their SPCC than their natural ability. That is why; there might be a positive correlation between SPCC and WTC. MacIntyre(1994) formed a model to demonstrate the affecting factors of WTC, which indicated that SPCC and communication anxiety were the two strong predictors of an individual's desire to contact through a target language. Namely, SPCC had a critical determinant of a person's intentness to interact through English. From another point of view, Barraclough, Christophel, and McCroskey (1988) commented on the influence of SPCC on WTC:

‘‘It is believed that a person's self-perceived communication competence, as opposed to their actual behavioral competence, will greatly affect a person's willingness to initiate and engage in communication. It is what a person thinks he/she can do not what he/she actually could do, which impacts the individual's behavioral choices.’’(p.188)

Clement (1980) asserted that in an environment with diverse language societies, communicative competence in a target language might be influenced by various socio-motivational dynamics. According to his theory of self-confidence, the ‘‘primary motivational process’’ involved two ingredients: integrativeness and fear of assimilation. In other words, an individual in one language community might wish to be a member of the target group and also be anxious about moving away from their language and community.

In case of contact with another ethnic group, the interaction of these two elements influenced ‘‘secondary motivational process. This part covered frequency and quality of contact with an L2 community as well as self-confidence, which indicated a person's belief of their potential to perform L2 efficiently (Clement, 1986). Based on this, it was assumed that when the amount and joy of the contact with L2 members increased, a person's self-confidence to utilize L2 effectively would increase too (Clement & Krudenier, 1985; Clement, 1986; Dörnyei, 2005). Furthermore, they would be willing to contact the target group members again (Dörnyei, 2005).

Clément, Dörnyei, and Noels (1994) tested the suitability of the theory of self-confidence in the foreign language learning context. To this aim, they did a

study with Hungarian EFL learners who had little or no face-to-face contact with the target language. The results revealed that self-confidence was a vital part of motivation. Moreover, the researchers commented that in spite of limited contact with members of the target language group, learners could still establish a connection through indirect channels such as media. Besides, both in second and foreign language environments, the self-image of one's proficiency and anxiety might be decisive factors of success in language learning.

MacIntyre and Charos(1996)examined the influence of several features, including personality types, motivation, context, etc., on L2 communication in the second language learning context. They did a study with adult learners in Canada who were native English speakers learning French. The study was based on both the WTC model of MacIntyre (1994) and the socio-educational model of Gardner (1985a). According to the findings, both WTC and the rate of L2 use were affected by SPCC. Moreover, having more chances to perform the target language might enhance a person's belief in their capability.

2. 3. Tolerance of Ambiguity

The term "Tolerance of Ambiguity" or "Ambiguity Tolerance" has been studied together with various subjects such as psychology (Frenkel-Brunswik, 1949; Macdonald, 1970; Ehrman, 1993; Kruglanski, 2004), creativity (Zenasni, Besancon, &Lubart, 2008; Kornilova & Kornilov, 2010; Merrotsy, 2013), language learning (Chapelle & Roberts, 1986; Kazamia, 1999; Erten &Topkaya, 2009) and has been getting more and more attention.

Throughout the research history, TA is defined variously. McLain (1993) described ambiguity as "the term we apply to perceived insufficiency of information regarding a particular stimulus or context" (p.183). Burdner (1962) portrayed an ambiguous situation as a condition in which a person can not formalize the encountered context due to the deficiency of necessary hints. Budner (1962) described intolerance of ambiguity as "the tendency to perceive (i.e., interpret) ambiguous situations as sources of threat" while mentioned tolerance of ambiguity as "the tendency to perceive ambiguous situations as desirable" (p.29). Chapelle and Roberts (1986) described TA as the successful dominance of operating conditions, including indefinite elements. Balgiu (2014) mentioned TA as "the ability to live with ambiguity to cope with the stimuli or situations that are not clearly structured,

which are new and complex’’ (p.29). Furnham and Ribchester (1995) depicted tolerance of ambiguity as:

‘‘Ambiguity tolerance (AT) refers to the way an individual (or group) perceives and processes information about ambiguous situations or stimuli when confronted by an array of unfamiliar, complex, or incongruent clues.’’(p.179)

2.3.1. Tolerance of Ambiguity in L1

During the searches, TA has been examined from different perspectives. Budner (1962) distinguished ambiguous situations into three: *novelty*, *complexity*, and *insolubility*. *Novelty* described the conditions in which there were not any or enough satisfying hints. *Complexity*, on the other hand, indicated tricky cases with an excessive number of hints to consider. Lastly, *insolubility* represented ambiguous situations in which directions came associated with various forms. Moreover, it was asserted that in such cases, intolerant people feel disturbed by the unknown and express discomposure, refusal, risk aversion, and so on. Similarly, Furnham and Ribchester (1995) indicated that people with lower tolerance levels regarded ambiguous contexts as disturbing and struggled to evade such situations. In contrast, people with higher tolerance levels perceived such contexts as appealing, engaging and showed no maladaptive behavior.

Frenkel-Brunswik (1949) focused on the term ‘‘intolerance of ambiguity ‘‘as a characteristic difference. It was analyzed that people with low TA levels tended to categorize things into two and hold to what was known and accustomed. On the other hand, Macdonald (1970), who did studies in the field of psychology, deduced that people with higher TA levels were pleased with confronting ambiguity and tended to search for more and try to be good at such complex works.

Whether TA is a cognitive and perceptive element or a characteristic feature has been discussed in related literature. Durrheim and Foster (1997) found in their research that a person may have a high TA level in one context while a low level in another. That is why; they defended that TA could not be evaluated as a simple personal variety because context-related cases influenced it. On the other hand, it was also believed that tolerance of ambiguity was related to one's personality trait (Frenkel-Brunswik, 1949; McLain, 1993; Furnham & Marks, 2013). For example, Jach and Smillie (2019) searched for a possible connection between TA and big five personality traits and found a significant association between openness to experience

and extraversion. Furnham and Ribchester (1995) the concept of TA could be accepted due to inner tendency, perception defense, and characteristic features. This argument was similar to the one made by Budner (1962) on intolerance of ambiguity.

2.3.2. Tolerance of Ambiguity in L2 Learning

It was evident that L2 learning is filled with obscurities (Budner, 1962; Ely, 1989; Brown, 2007; Erten & Topkaya, 2009). According to Chapelle and Roberts (1986), L2 learning is a complex and ‘*novel*’ case (described by Budner, 1962) because it contains indeterminate and non-effective clues. Learners may have to deal with unknown words, have difficulty deducing the meaning of what is said or written, and so on, which can be challenging. Such new and distinct forms encountered can be either intimidating or exciting for them. Some learners embrace what is new and adopt it without difficulty, while others may have trouble placing the latest info in their rigid system. According to Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991), learners showing low tolerance to ambiguous context may not be happy with obscurity and need clearness in language learning. In that respect, they may feel disappointed and achieve less. Besides, they may need a constant check for details from the teacher.

Ehrman (1999) mentions three steps of TA in language learning: *intake*, *TA proper*, and *accommodation*. In the first step, language learners encounter new information. Then, they must pay attention to the entanglement of the incoming data. At the last step, this data is placed to the previously shaped schema. During this process, if a learner can not handle the complexity of the new information, they can not further interpret the meaning of it in their mind. Therefore, TA is vital for learners to understand the target language elements (as cited in Piechurska-Kuciel, 2018).

Rubin (1975) believes that a successful language learner does not abstain from going wrong, does not get disturbed to meet ambiguity, and works hard to take advantage of whatever they acquired to go further. They do not get intimidated by uncertain elements easily and are bold enough to solve the mystery (Kohonen, Jaatinen, Kaikkonen, & Lehtovaara, 2001). Besides, McLain (1993) and Oxford and Ehrman (1995) argue that learners who possess higher forbearance of ambiguity are more able to take risks in the process of acquiring a target language.

Compared to those with higher tolerance, learners with low TA tend to take fewer risks to abstain from the threat of being mocked by others or themselves, and thus obstacles encountered make them retreat (Oxford & Ehrman, 1993; Oxford & Ehrman, 1995). Moreover, they dwell on tiny details so much that they may lose their interest in the target language (Osiecki, 2014). For example, learners who try word-for-word interpretation from L1 to L2 have trouble making progress in L2 learning (Kazamia, 1999). Therefore, possessing tolerance to the challenges of a target language is a fundamental step to clear the way for learning. Apart from that, it can be said that learning a language is effective on the amount of one's TA level. The more learners contact the language or languages, the lesser their TA levels become (Dewaele & Wei, 2013; Thompson, 2015). For this reason, it can be interpreted that there is mutual solidarity between L2 learning and TA. In this respect, L2 learning is one of the fields whose interaction with TA is a matter of various research.

The influence of TA on the L2 learning process and its relation with other variables such as individual factors, language learning strategies, anxiety, etc., have been investigated in various aspects. Chapelle and Roberts (1986) researched to reveal if TA had any contribution to L2 students' learning. They applied 'the MAT-50' developed by Norton (1975). In their study, 61 adult learners from Japan, Arabia, and Spain were given several tests as well as the MAT-50 at the starting and end of the term. Consequently, TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) results at the end of the term showed that TA had a positive influence on L2 learning. In other words, participants with higher TA levels had an edge on picking up the frame of the target language.

Ely (1989) investigated if TA had an impact on learners' choice of language learning strategies applied by learners. For this study, he designed SLTAS, which is used in various studies in the following years (Kazamia, 1999; Erten & Topkaya, 2009; Başöz, 2015; Vahedi & Fatemi, 2016; Kimura, 2016). The participants of this study were 84 university students who had been learning Spanish. The scale consisted of 12 items that analyze TA levels of participants in four skills, grammar, and pronunciation. Ely found out that participants who had lower TA levels were inclined to use strategies that relied on L1-L2 connection, such as searching for cognates in both languages with the application of this scale. Moreover, they preferred to apply strategies that concentrated on particular fragments more. On the

other hand, it was revealed that participants with higher TA were more eager to take advantage of strategies centered upon perceiving a context in a broader sense. Also, they were more courageous to make mistakes and were more innovative in forming new ways to apprehend and keep new information in mind.

Kazamia (1999) carried out research with candidate officeholders learning English to determine their TA levels in Greece. Moreover, the impact of TA levels on the success of learners in four skills was also searched. In the end, it was noticed that participants had intermediate tolerance scores. However, the relation of TA with four skills varied. Participants were less tolerant of ambiguity in writing and speaking. They felt highly uncomfortable when they could not explain what they intended to state and misused grammar in performing their productive skills in the target language. The results of the research suggested that TA level may vary in different skills.

In his study, El-Koumy (2000) compared the English language reading comprehension of learners with different levels of TA. With this object in mind, MAT-50 developed by Norton (1975) was applied to university-level students from four different universities in Egypt. According to the results, the students were classified into three: high, middle, and low TA levels. Then, 150 participants (50 from each group) were given a reading comprehension test from TOEFL. The findings showed that participants with moderate TA were more successful in L2 reading comprehension than participants with high and low TA levels. This result was supported by Ely (1995) as too much tolerance of ambiguous context might provoke fossilization. Moreover, Kazamia (1999) stated that more tolerant learners were at the risk of becoming less interested in learning something new. Such findings underlined the importance of balancing the degree of tolerance to ambiguity for a successful language learning process.

Ezzati and Farahian (2016) aimed to uncover a relationship between TA and grammar performance of Iranian adolescents in English language learning. Participants' TA levels were obtained via SLTAS (Ely, 1995), and their TOEFL scores were used to collect the necessary data. According to Pearson correlation coefficient results, there was a positive connection between TA and grammar acquisition ($p=.638$, $p<.05$). The evidence from this study suggests that learners showing higher tolerance are in the front in grammar learning.

Acquiring more than one language may affect the TA scores of language learners. Dewaele and Wei (2013) found out in their research that multilingual participants have higher TA levels than bilingual and monolingual ones. In accordance with this finding, they deduced that the more a person resists challenges while learning languages, the more they become patient to obscurity. Moreover, a higher TA level can direct a person to learn more than one language. These results are to those reported by Thompson (2015). He conducted a study with 156 Turkish students of different ages and levels. When the results of bilingual and multilingual participants were compared, it was inferred that the more languages participants interact with, the less they feel distressed and show intolerance to ambiguous elements.

Dewaele and Ip (2013) investigated if there was relevance between anxiety and TA levels in a language learning context in China. FLCAS designed by Horwitz et al. (1986) and SLTAS by Ely (1995) was given to 73 participants aged between 16 and 20. The analysis of the results showed that there was a strong negative correlation between the two ($r(72) = -.711, p < .0001$). This result indicated that more anxious learners possessed less forbearance to ambiguity in language learning and vice versa. What is more, it was understood that participants with lower anxiety and higher toleration of ambiguity perceived themselves as more dexterous.

The relation of gender with TA was investigated in various research. Maubach and Morgan (2001) researched this relation and reached the end that male students were high in tolerating obscurity faced in the language classroom and more daring to use the target language comparing to females. Başöz (2015) did not find a significant connection between TA and gender. Erten and Topkaya (2009) found out that female students were less tolerant of the intricacy confronted in their language learning process at the end of their research. Ezzati and Farahian (2016) commented that female learners were not able to content themselves with details and thus, need more time to pursue their studies to reach clarity before finalization. Such findings implied that more research is needed to reach concrete results on the possible influence of gender.

2.4. Perceived Parental Encouragement

Motivation has been one of the contributing factors in language acquisition (Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Dörnyei, 2001; Atay & Kurt, 2009; Kalaycı & Öz,

2018). One of the nearest sources for this is the support of parents (Flippo, 2014). According to Brannon and Dauksas (2012), the mother and the father are the initial and precious guides of an individual's life. The character, perspective, manner, sense of ethics of children have been shaped by parents (Giers, 2016). Brustad (2012) states that a child uses their parent's evaluation to review the outcomes of an action. At that point, parents notice the achievements and failures of the child. By this means, the child can value their accomplishments and consider the weak points. Apart from these, parents take on an essential task on the education life of their child (Peterson & Rollins, 1987; Gonzalez-Pienda, Nunez, Gonzalez-Pumariega, Alvarez, Roces, & Garcia, 2002; Borba, 2009; Shute, Hansen, Underwood, & Razzouk, 2011; Widding & Berge, 2014; Durisic & Bunijevac, 2017; Kiral, 2019).

Parents may influence the academic success of their children, which is called parental involvement, and it is "an umbrella term that includes a variety of behaviors and activities of parents directly or indirectly related to the education of their children" (Punter, Glas, & Meelissen, 2016, p.5). It includes attention and engagement to a child's responsibilities and success in school, a realization of the connection between parent-child channel and child's academic achievement, stable and robust dialogue with teachers on child's improvement (Brown, Harris, Jacobson, Trotti, & Nathans, 2014). Parents take on duty on preparing and motivating their children to school life. Flippo (2014) asserts that family is of prime importance in a child's literacy and cognitive enhancement. Cheung and Pomerantz (2012) underline that when parents pay attention to their children's lessons, it gives the impression to the children that academic life is essential. Thus, children are able to adopt this idea and gain a natural motive for the lessons. Furthermore, Epstein (1995) states that a successful parent is supposed to organize a healthy, informative climate, stay in touch with teachers, and assist their children's study out of school time (as cited in Hara & Burke, 1998). According to Durisic and Bunijevac (2017), students whose parents keep a close watch on their child's progress, school life, join occasions at school are advantageous compared to the students with unconcerned parents. On that account, parents should be aware of their influence on their children's academic life. That is why; Georgiou and Tourva (2007) emphasized that more information about the involvement of parents can be used to regulate support programs in schools.

Researchers categorized parental involvement into various steps. Epstein (1995) defined six kinds of parental involvement: parenting, communicating,

volunteering, learning at home, decision-making, and collaborating with the community (as cited in Epstein, Sanders, Simon, Salinas, Jansorn, & Van Voorhis, 2002). Shute et al. (2011) collected the studies related to parental involvement. They listed that positive anticipation for a child's performance at school, talking about the school, child-rearing practices, homework control, monitoring, and establishing regulations were among the most common parental involvement procedures. According to Epstein, Coates, Salinas, Sanders, and Simon (1997), the inclusion of parents stands for assisting school assignments of students, contacting the educational institution, taking responsibility, and cooperating with the determination process of the school.

Sui-Chu and Willms (1996) researched several elements that might have an impact on students' success. For this purpose, they used data taken from National Education Longitudinal Study (NELS) about 24,599 students. The data included information such as students' profile, gender, origin, the profile of parents, questionnaire results from parents and students about parents' involvement. Moreover, the math and reading scores of these students were taken into account. At the end of the study, it was found out that parent-child conversation, parent-school dialogue, parents monitoring, joining to school events were the four major involvement types. Moreover, parent-child conversation at home (having a chat about what happens in school, deciding which subjects to take, etc.) was the most effective for students' success among the four types. It meant that the stronger the parent-child dialogue, the more successful the child was. Further to that, the parent-child conversation was influential on educational achievement regardless of the family's social position.

Parent's influence on a learners' academic achievement is researched by Fan and Chen (2001). They did a meta-analysis by collecting quantitative data from relevant studies to reveal the relationship between learners' academic performance and parental involvement. The findings of this study suggested that parents' desire and anticipation had a more powerful link with a learner's performance comparing to surveillance of parents at home. In another study, Fan (2001) revealed that parent's ambition for their child's success was more influential than the effects of socio-economic conditions on educational achievement. Moreover, several other studies confirmed the link between parent's expectations of success and the academic achievement of a child (Astone & McLanahan, 1991; Gonzalez-Pienda et al., 2002;

Shute et al., 2011; Butler, 2015; Rich, 2016). Based on these findings, it can be assumed that parents' psychological backup can be as important as their actual help for learners' lessons.

Gonzalez-Pienda et al. (2002) studied the relation between parents' participation and the educational achievement of learners at puberty. Their findings indicated that self-reliance was as vital as the capability for achievement. At that point, parents' support becomes prominent as an emotional source for self-reliance (Schneider & Lee, 1990). Accordingly, as parental support increases, the learner's sense of responsibility and coping with failure also increase. In the absence of parental support, establishing learning practices for learners would be difficult for teachers. That is why; a strong parent-school or parent-teacher connection can influence a student's academic success (Epstein & Sheldon, 2002; Hill & Taylor, 2004; Xuesong, 2006; Matejević, Jovanovic, & Jovanović, 2014).

Avila and Garavito (2009) focused on the English homework done collaboratively with parents and children. Throughout the given homework tasks, the contribution of both parents and children was assured. Later, the data was collected through artifacts, observation, and questionnaires with parents and their children. In the end, it was discovered that children expect more attention from their parents. Additionally, when parent and child work together, the child felt more self-confident, and they felt closer to each other. Such findings signaled that learners need the support of parents, and it increased their self-confidence and achievement.

2.4.1. Social-Constructivist Theory

The Constructivist theory represents that experience is the critical point in making sense of input in an individual's mind (Suhendi & Purwarno, 2018). For an individual to learn new information, they must build up to it in their mind, compare it with the previous data, and reshape the concept. Besides that, according to Vygotsky, in addition to the cognitive side, learning also has a socio-cultural aspect (Cole, John-Steiner, Scribner, & Souberman, 1978; Moll, 1990). In contrast with Piaget, who puts forward that socialization comes after age and maturation, Vygotsky defends that interaction with the environment is the initial step. It is because, since babyhood, the real intention for learning to talk is for communication and building social connections (Erdener, 2009). Accordingly, the relationship with others possesses a significant role in learning as communication first occurs between individuals, and

then the learner interprets the shared information in their mind (Au, 1998; Yang & Wilson, 2006).

The idea of “ zone of proximal development” by Vygotsky shows that community life and cultural exercise improve reasoning ability (Moll, 1990). According to this idea, a learner can better understand when the people around offer an assistive frame for the following information aimed to be taught (Lee & Nie, 2015). Moreover, thanks to the connection rising through the assistance of elders, an individual can formalize his manner to deal with information (Ellis, 1999). At that point, as the primary source of information and connection to the world, the family seems to have a substantial role in an individual’s life (Tekin, 2011). They take an active role in guiding the individual’s thinking, reasoning, and manner (Dinç & Keşli-Dollar, 2017). Moreover, this primary connection impacts the following years upon the dialogues with others (Maccoby, 1980).

2.4.2. Ecological Systems Theory

Urie Bronfenbrenner, who puts forward ecological systems theory, states that to comprehend a person's progress, one must be taken into account the whole ecological framework (1979, 1994). Furthermore, the environment in which people interact is multilayered and more extensive than it is considered. Each layer is bound up with each other and can affect the interaction among people in different layers. According to Bronfenbrenner (1979):

“The ecology of human development involves the scientific study of the progressive, mutual accommodation between an active, growing human being and the changing properties of the immediate settings in which the developing person lives, as this process is affected by relations between these settings, and by the larger contexts in which the settings are embedded.”(p.21)

Ecological systems theory puts the individual to the core point and places the circles around him (Darling, 2007). It divides the structure into four: the microsystem, the mesosystem, the exosystem, the macrosystem, and the chronosystem (from inner to outer). The microsystem is the innermost circle, and it includes direct interactions of a child such as with family, school life, friends. The mesosystem contains mutual effects of diverse microsystems to each other. Such mesosystems may be the communication of family members with friends of the child, parents with teachers (McInerney, 2014). The exosystem draws a larger context and covers the relation of microsystems with external systems. At this point, the child is passive, but his

progression is affected by such relations. Parents' employment places, their working conditions, friends, or family members may influence the child's improvement (Bronfenbrenner 1979; Christensen, 2016). Macrosystem reflects the features of the community the child exists, such as tradition, a religious cult, taboo, economic conditions (Bronfenbrenner, 1994). Lastly, chronosystem was put to the theory to indicate the alteration of systems, conditions as well as a child's progress with the lapse of time (Leonard, 2011). According to it, there are two kinds of alteration: normative and non-normative. The first one refers to events such as moving on in academic life, adolescence, starting a job, matrimony. Meanwhile, the second one implies incidents such as severe disease or mortem among family members, change of location, marital separation, and winning the lottery (Bronfenbrenner, 1986).

Since a child is born and grows within a family, which is the nearest system of the whole ecological system, parents affect the personality of the child (Rosa & Tudge, 2013). That is why; parents' attention to their children ensures positive feedback from children (Kocayörük, 2016). Moreover, parents' communication with other microsystems enhances the accomplishment of their children. For example, the quality of the connection between parents with school management and teachers or among family members may influence a child's progress (McInerney, 2014). Bronfenbrenner and Morris (2006) state that a powerful sentimental connection between parents and child inspires and encourages the child while dealing with the things encountered in life. Apart from that, according to the theory, any experience of family members would also influence a child's progress. For instance, when one of the parents has a negative experience at work, this may affect the child's experiences outside of the house.

Family structures and parents' education level are among the elements that may affect a child's progress (Kohl, Lengua, McMahon, 2000; Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006; Flecha, 2012). According to the study by Astone and McLanahan (1991), children who live with their birth parents get more support, surveillance and thus, they are more willing to continue to their school life. On the other hand, single-parent and step-parent families fall short of encouraging their children. In another study, Small and Luster (1990) found that a child would have better points in their lessons when they are monitored by their natural parents with better academic life than the ones living with a single-parent or with their mother and stepfather who has worse academic life (as cited in Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006). Their findings

show that a healthy family environment and parents with better educational background (Fan, 2001) may be influential in a child's academic success. Nonetheless, the tie between parent and child (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006) and the quality of parenthood (Degarmo, Forgatch, & Martinez, 1999) were accepted as keys for closing the gap in adverse conditions.

2.4.3. Parental Encouragement in L2 Learning

The effects of parents on language learning have been discussed and searched in various studies (Desforges & Abouchaar, 2003; Vera, Israel, Coyle, Cross, Knight-Lynn, Moallem, Bartucci, & Goldberger, 2012). Gardner (1985a) stated that language learners do not associate their parents' contribution with success in language lessons in the first place. Instead, parents influence their eagerness, persistence, self-evaluation, and sedulity in language learning (Dörnyei, Csizér, & Németh, 2006). Gardner and Symphé (1975) found in their study that parents influenced learners' motivation to learn French. Moreover, parents' manner towards the target culture may affect the integrative motivation of learners.

According to Gardner (1985a), parent's roles in a child's L2 learning can be separated as active and passive. In the active position, parents may show positive or negative attitudes towards their child's language learning. For example, the mother and father may supervise, assist, award, or demoralize the child with some actions such as comparing foreign language lessons with other subjects and undervalue the importance of language learning. On the other hand, the passive role covers parents' manner to the society of the language being learned by their child (Bartram, 2010).

Niehaus and Adelson (2014) studied with 1020 3rd grade students learning English to investigate the effects of school and parental assistance on their academic and social-emotional life. For this purpose, students' 1st and 3rd grade scores were analyzed. Also, the parents were interviewed to understand the engagement of parents to their child's improvement, such as their attendance to school meetings, activities, their communication with teachers. As a result, it was found that parental assistance directly impacted learners' overcoming social-emotional struggles and an indirect impact on academic life. Learners who had fewer social-emotional challenges had higher scores in their school life ($p=3.9$, $p<.05$). According to the

results, it can be concluded that learners who have positive feedback from their parents are more confident in a social setting and more focused on their lessons.

Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) researched to detect the supporters from whom learners receive assistance most during the English language learning process. According to the results of their study, learners are assisted most by their parents and teachers (as cited in MacIntyre et al., 2001). In a similar study, Bai et al. (2019) searched the impact of social support, self-reliance in the English language learning process. They implemented questionnaires to 1092 secondary school students in China as well as considering English exam scores. As a result, it was understood that compared to other support sources, the family was the most vital determinant of success in English, together with high self-reliance. MacIntyre et al. (2001) reached similar results with 79 high school students in Canada and underlined that such assistance increased participants' WTC in the target language. Vijchulata and Lee (1985) searched the reasons for learning English with 1000 university students in Malaysia (Dörnyei & Schmidt, 2001). As a result, it was discovered that participants had integrative and instrumental motives, and parents backing affected encouragement to study English (Al-Tamimi & Shuib, 2009).

Morris et al. (2013) studied the correlation between South Korean high school learners' performance in English lessons and parents' impact. With this object in mind, they used a questionnaire covering the issues such as learners' motivation, point of view against target language, parent's inclusion, lack of concern, etc. Moreover, students' English grades from the latest test they took and students' opinions about their ability on four skills were taken. The results indicated that motivation influenced learners' success in English, and parents affected the level of motivation. Active support of parents enhanced motivation to acquire English, provided a favorable approach to the English language, its users, and target culture. However, as parents' lack of concern towards a child's progress in English increased, the child's feelings toward English language society and its members were severely affected.

Butler (2015) investigated the impact of parents' socio-economic situation and their contribution to their children's desire to learn English in China. For this aim, 572 participants age from 9 to 14 attended the study. They were taken the Cambridge ESOL test (Cambridge English for Speakers of Other Languages test), a questionnaire for motivation, and an interview with 96 students chosen. Besides,

parents were taken a questionnaire to detect their background, their approach to their children's English learning process. Consequently, it was found that irrespective of their background, the mother and the father had an essential part in a child's motivation to learn L2. Apart from that, it was understood that in the advancing years, learners' self-reliance diminished, and at that point, parents' backgrounds made a distinction on learners' motivation. Parents with higher socio-economic conditions were better at responding to the altering wants of their children, while parents from lower socio-economic places fell behind in ensuring necessary backing. Similar results were found by Rich (2016). Accordingly, the findings may be linked to the ecological systems theory as parents influenced by external systems may reflect it to their children.

Being aware of the importance of parental support is helpful for English language learning. About that, Kalaycı and Öz (2018) studied with 180 parents whose children were at a private primary school to detect the level of their interest in their child's school life. A questionnaire with a further interview was used to gather the necessary data. Consequently, it was seen that parents were aware of the importance of their support and their contact with teachers on the students' academic success. Moreover, most parents indicated that they felt insufficient in assisting their child in English language learning as they mostly repeated the vocabulary and grammar patterns learned in class. However, it was indicated that parents did their best by exposing their children to English with games, movies, songs, etc. As a result, even if parents feel incompetent in English, they must realize that their guidance would be beneficial for their child.

Unfortunately, limited research is found in literature focusing on perceived parental encouragement at the university level. Kenny (1987) indicated that it was because that parents' influence on their child's education life tended to diminish at college years and learners become more self-controlled than before. Even so, it was underlined that university-level learners still needed the support of their parents while handling the stress of changes and wanted to feel their guidance through their college years.

In one of the studies with university-level students, Santikarn (2019) researched the parental encouragement levels of 411 first-year students during English language learning at a private university in Taiwan. For this purpose, the researcher applied the related part of AMTB designed by Gardner (1985b).

According to the results, the participants had high parental encouragement and motivation. Furthermore, perceived parental encouragement and motivation to learn English scores positively correlated with each other. Apart from that, it was detected as male participants received more parental encouragement than females. Upon this result, the researcher commented that in Taiwan, both genders' positions in society differed, and thus, male learners were given more support.

In another study, Penjak and Karnincic (2015) studied with university-level Croatian students to find the sources of drive to learn English by considering gender. A survey covering issues such as participants' motivation, support level, and involvement of parents was applied to the students. Ultimately, it was found that female students' manner and curiosity to target language were parallel, whereas parental support and male students' curiosity to target language connected. Further, the researchers concluded that male participants demanded more parental support ($p < 0.001$; $r = 0.53$) while female ones were able to inspire themselves.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Presentation

In this chapter, the research design, setting, research population is explained in detail. Moreover, data collection tools were introduced and explicated. Finally, steps of data collection and analysis were represented.

3.2. Research Design

Descriptive study is applied to depict a population, situation systematically and properly (Creswell, 2002). Since this research aimed to investigate L2 WTC, TA, and perceived parental encouragement scores of Turkish EFL learners, a descriptive research design was applied. In this study, this descriptive study consisted of a mixed-methods research design. It is a concept that aims to take account of several aspects containing both qualitative and quantitative points of view (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner, 2007; Aramo-Immonen, 2013). According to Shorten and Smith (2017), mixed-methods research design offers different viewpoints and unearths possible connections by taking advantage of quantitative and quantitative data. In this study, a quantitative perspective was obtained through three scales to identify Turkish EFL learners' eagerness to communicate in English, the degree of tolerance to ambiguous context during learning, and the students' perceived amount of parental encouragement. On the other hand, the qualitative data were provided through structured interviews with volunteered participants. This study based its data mainly on the quantitative structure and qualitative ingredients. Both perspectives contributed to the development of the results. While quantitative data mapped the

results of an intended research subject on a larger scale, the qualitative data provided information about the drives, thoughts of participants, which enlighten the quantitative research results.

3.3. Participants

Given the study's goal of better understanding the relationship between WTC, TA, and perceived parental encouragement level of L2 learners, it is reasonable to include university-level students because they are more aware of internal or external factors during language learning at younger ages. Furthermore, they can supply the necessary information about the influencing factors of the English learning process. Therefore, for this study, a convenience sampling model was utilized. Convenience sampling, which also has names such as Haphazard Sampling or Accidental Sampling, is a sampling method in which participants are chosen according to availability, regional closeness, convenience for the time of the study, or eagerness to be a part of the study (Dörnyei, 2007).

3.4. Context of the Study

The study was accomplished at Hasan Kalyoncu University in Gaziantep, Turkey. It is found in 2008 in the southeastern region of Turkey in the name of Gazikent University. In 2012, the university acquired its current title. The university possesses seven faculties, one vocational school, and one school of foreign languages and offers undergraduate and postgraduate programs.

Because the language of instruction in Hasan Kalyoncu University is %100 or %30 English in most departments, including Political Science and International Relations, Department of International Trade, three departments of Engineering Faculty and Logistics; learners enrolled in these departments are required to be proficient in English. That is why; first-year students have to take a proficiency exam to continue to their field. If they fail to reach the required score or bring an equivalent exam score, they must take a one-year English Preparatory Program. Moreover, at the beginning of each year, the students taking English Preparatory Program are tested and they are placed to the classes according to their language proficiency level. Language proficiency classes are categorized according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) which is an international standard for portraying language ability. According to CEFR, there are

six language levels: Elementary (A1), Pre-Intermediate(A2), Intermediate (B1), Upper-Intermediate (B2), Advanced (C1) and, Proficiency(C2).

Demographic information, including gender, teaching experiences, and school levels of the participants in this study, are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. *Demographic variables of the participants in the study*

Variables		N	F
Gender	Female	89	58,9
	Male	62	41,1
Age	18-20	120	79,5
	21-23	31	20,5
Language Levels	A2	30	19,9
	B1	65	43,0
	B2	37	24,5
	C1	19	12,6
Total		151	

As seen in Table 1, the participants in this study consisted of 151 university-level students. When looked at the distribution of gender, it was seen that %58,9 of the participants were female while % 41,1 were male. Moreover, it was detected that % 79,5 of the participants were in the 18-20 age group while %20,5 were at the ages between 21-23. Considering the proficiency levels, % 19,9 of the participants were Pre-Intermediate proficiency level (A2) while %43 Intermediate(B1), % 24,5 Upper-Intermediate(B2) and %12,6 had Advanced level(C1). They ($N=151$) took a preparatory program at the School of Foreign Languages in Hasan Kalyoncu University in Gaziantep, Turkey, during the 2019-2020 academic year. The students were from the departments of Political Science and International Relations, International Trade, three departments of Engineering Faculty (Computer, Electrical, and Electronics, Civil Engineering), English Language Teaching, and International Trade and Logistics. These students are placed in this university depending on their nationwide university selection and placement test scores.

In the preparatory school, the students are placed in classes according to the proficiency exam scores. Each level contains 26 hours of English lessons except the Advanced level with 24 hours. In addition, listening and speaking integrated skills and writing courses are given during all classes. Suppose the students reach B2 level with an average of % 65 or pass the proficiency exam. In that case, they can continue

to their departments (except from the students of ELT departments who need C1 with a % 70 score or pass the proficiency exam). For the first term, fifteen weeks and the second term, fourteen weeks are planned for English teaching.

3.5. Data Collection Instruments

In this study, three questionnaires were used as sources of quantitative data and an interview section as qualitative data. Quantitative data is obtained from WTC Scale, SLTAS, and parental encouragement section from AMTB. Qualitative information, on the other hand, is obtained from structured interviews. Table 2 below demonstrates a summary of the data collection instruments used for each research question in the study:

Table 2. *Research questions and data collection instruments*

Research Questions	Data Collection Instruments
1) How willing are Turkish EFL students to communicate in English?	WTC Scale and structured interviews
2) How tolerant are Turkish EFL learners to ambiguity?	SLTAS and structured interviews
3) What is the degree of parental encouragement Turkish EFL learners attain?	Perceived Parental Encouragement Scale and structured interviews
4) To what extent is the ambiguity of tolerance and parental encouragement predict WTC in EFL learners?	WTC Scale, SLTAS, and Perceived Parental Encouragement Scale
4.1) Is ambiguity tolerance related to WTC?	WTC Scale, SLTAS, and Perceived Parental Encouragement Scale
4.2) Is perceived parental encouragement related to WTC?	WTC Scale, SLTAS, and Perceived Parental Encouragement Scale

3.5.1. Willingness to Communicate Scale (WTC Scale)

In this study, the L2 WTC level of participants is tested through 12 items from WTC Scale developed by McCroskey in 1992(see Appendix A). Cronbach's alpha internal consistency reliability of the scale is .92. The scale has been used in several studies and showed high reliability (MacIntyre & Charos, 1996; Hashimoto, 2002; Kim, 2004; Kanat-Mutluoğlu, 2016). Twelve items were translated by Bektaş-Çetinkaya (2005), and the Turkish version was used in this study. Bektaş-Çetinkaya

applied the back-translation method, translating the original version into Turkish and then from Turkish to English.

Moreover, she implemented the scale to a pilot group to check validity and reliability. The reliability coefficient was .88. In the current study, the Cronbach alpha value of this scale was found .92.

The scale has two subcategories: context and receiver types. The ranking aims to evaluate L2 WTC in different communication contexts such as speaking in public, meetings, groups, and dyads. There are four items for each of the context types. Also, WTC with different contact persons such as friends, strangers, and acquaintances are included with three things for each. The participants wrote numbers from 0(never) to 100(always) to indicate their eagerness to communicate for each given statement. The higher the number, the more willing a person is to communicate in English. In this study, the scoring method is changed from 0 to 5 to make it easier to evaluate (Bergil, 2016; Fulmer, 2010). The highest and lowest total scores are 60 and 12. The first three questions are given below as examples:

- Present a talk to a group of strangers in English.
- Talk in a large meeting of friends in English.
- Talk to a small group of strangers in English.

3.5.2. Second Language Tolerance of Ambiguity Scale (SLTAS)

SLTAS was applied in this study as it was the only measurement dealing with the degree of TA in the L2 context (see Appendix B). Ely developed the scale first in 1989 and then modified it in 1995. Cronbach's alpha internal consistency reliability of the scale is 0.84. Many studies have used it to identify how tolerant/intolerant the participants are to ambiguous contexts while acquiring English and showed high internal consistency scores (Kazamia, 1999; Dewaele & Ip, 2013; Naderifar & Esfandiari, 2016; Vahedi & Fatemi, 2016). Meanwhile, in the current study, the Cronbach alpha value of this scale was .85.

The scale possesses 12 items, each of which has statements showing different situations. It includes seven subcategories: reading, writing, listening, speaking, pronunciation, grammar, linguistic development, and vocabulary. The distribution of items is as follows: 2 for listening, 1 for speaking, 3 for reading, 2 for writing, 2 for lexical development, 1 for pronunciation, and 2 for grammar. In the original version, the statements in SLTAS are graded through a 4-point Likert scale format with

options from *strongly agree*, *agree*, *disagree*, *strongly disagree*. In the current study, another option, “undecided”, was added to offer learners a chance to indicate their neither negative nor positive statement (Dörnyei, 2001; Erten & Topkaya, 2009; Aksoy, 2019). According to the 5-point Likert scale, *strongly agree* was scored as 1, *agree* as 2, *undecided* as 3, *disagree* as 4, and *strongly disagree* as 5. The highest and lowest total scores are 60 and 12. Since all items in SLTAS possess negative statements, the higher the total score is, the more tolerant to ambiguity a person is, and less score signaled more increased intolerance to ambiguity. The first three items were given below as examples:

- When I am reading something in English, I feel impatient when I do not understand the meaning.
- It bothers me that I do not understand everything the teacher says in English.
- When I write English compositions, I do not like them when I can not express my ideas precisely.

3.5.3. Perceived Parental Encouragement Scale

The third questionnaire worked on student's sense of the influence of parents during the English language learning process. For this purpose, the “parental encouragement” section from AMTB (Gardner, 1985b) was used (Appendix C).

Based on his socio-educational model (1985a), Gardner formed the AMTB to evaluate individual difference variables during the L2 learning process. With the previous studies of his own and together with colleagues, it took more than 20 years to reach its final version. It includes 19 different measurement components and more than 130 items dealing with multiple elements such as integrativeness, attitude toward the learning situation, motivation, instrumental orientation, and language anxiety. One of these components, parental encouragement, focuses on parents' support perceived by students. This scale showed median internal consistency estimates of .91 and .89 and median six-week test/retest reliability of .79 (Gardner, 1985b). The original and adapted versions of the scale have been applied in several studies and showed high validity and reliability (Gardner & Smythe, 1975; Atay & Kurt, 2009; Morris et al., 2013; Penjak & Karninčić, 2015; Daniel, Halimi, & AlShammari, 2018; Santikarn, 2019). Cronbach alpha value of this scale was found as .68 in the current study.

The scale included ten positive statements about students' perceptions of parental encouragement during language learning (for example, "my parents try to help me with my English" (Item 1), "my parents believe I should devote more time to my English studies" (Item 4). These statements were graded with the help of a 7-point Likert scale, which includes options such as *strongly agree*, *moderately agree*, *slightly agree*, *neutral*, *slightly disagree*, *moderately disagree*, and *strongly disagree*. The scoring ranged from *strongly disagree* as 1 to *strongly agree* as 7. The highest score for this section is 70, and a higher score is a sign of participants' impression that their parents positively encourage them to learn English.

According to Gardner (1985b), the scale was initially used to evaluate Canadian students learning French as a second language. Due to that reason, several changes have been done in this scale to accommodate Turkish foreign language learners of English. First, the word "French" in the sentences was changed to "English". Moreover, the second item of the section was "*my parents feel that because we live in Canada, I should learn French*" was changed to "*my parents feel that I should learn English*". The first three items can be seen below:

- My parents try to help me with my English.
- My parents feel that I should learn English.
- My parents feel that I should continue studying English all through school.

3.5.4. The Interview

In enriching the quantitative data, a structured interview as a data collection tool was prepared in the study (see Appendix D). Since the interview participants were not available for a face-to-face interview, a structured interview model was chosen as a data collection tool. Structured interviews include a set of preplanned questions and are applied in a decided order (Jong & Jung (2015). Based on the quantitative data findings, questions were prepared to understand the quantitative results better. The participants were 16 ELT learners who already joined the quantitative part of the study and volunteered to participate in the interview. Participants' answers were collected via e-mail. The questionnaire had three sections dealing with WTC, TA, and perceived parental encouragement in English language learning. In the first section, three questions were asked to the students on the factors affecting their L2 WTC, their choice of context, and receiver types. In the second part, the participants were asked one question related to their TA in reading,

listening, speaking, writing, vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation. In addition, they were questioned in which of these seven categories they had more struggle with unknown or ambiguous features. Finally, in the third section, learners were asked about their perception of their parents' encouragement while learning English.

Table 3 demonstrates the demographic information about the students in the interviews.

Table 3. *Demographic features of the students in the interviews*

Variables		N
Gender	Female	7
	Male	9
Department	International Trade and Logistics	3
	Computer Engineering	5
	Electrical and Electronics Engineering	2
	English Language Teaching	6
Language Proficiency	A2	6
	B1	3
	B2	4
	C1	3
Total		16

As can be seen above, structured interviews were achieved with 16 students who were volunteered to participate. Nine of them were male, while 7 of them were female. They were from different departments such as International Trade and Logistics, Computer Engineering, Electrical and Electronics Engineering, and English Language Teaching while had different language proficiency levels such as Pre-Intermediate(A2), Intermediate(B1), Upper-Intermediate(B2), and Advanced (C1).

3.6. Data Collection Procedures

At the beginning of the second semester of the 2019-2020 academic year, the data collection process started. The students were exposed to the target language and took their lessons during the first semester. Before the data collection process, the researcher reported a request to research written form. After the confirmation, the researcher contacted the department chair for available time for data collection two weeks before.

Before the data collection, required permissions were taken from the affiliated institution. Then, available days and class hours were settled for data collection. At

the beginning of each session, the researcher gave detailed information about the research, and the participants were guaranteed that their personal information would be confidential. Furthermore, they were not asked to write their names on the data collection papers. The researcher distributed the questionnaires and was present during the session with each class the whole time. Participants completed the questionnaires during one lesson time. All three questionnaires were distributed in a single piece. The first questionnaire was in Turkish, while the other two were in English. Before distributing the questionnaires, lecturers of participants were consulted whether there were any words or structures that might be challenging for the participants. Moreover, at the beginning of each data collection process, the participants were informed to ask about unknown or confusing parts. The data collection process lasted two days.

After the collection of quantitative data, structured interview questions were prepared in light of the findings. Since the volunteered participants were not available for face-to-face interview sessions, they were requested to answer interview questions through e-mail. Thus, interview questions were sent to the participants and collected through e-mail. The interview questions were given in Turkish, and the collected answers were translated into English. The process of carrying out interviews lasted three days.

3.7. Data Analysis

The present study adopted a mixed-method research design, as mentioned. Thus, quantitative and qualitative data were collected from preparatory students at Hasan Kalyoncu University School of Foreign Languages. The data obtained included three main titles: willingness to communicate, tolerance of ambiguity, perceived parental encouragement in English. The table below demonstrates research questions and data analysis procedures:

Table 4. *Research questions and data analysis procedures*

Research Questions	Data Analysis
1) How willing are Turkish EFL students to communicate in English?	Descriptive Statistics
	T-test
	One-way ANOVA
	Tukey test
	The interview
2) How tolerant are Turkish EFL learners to ambiguity?	Descriptive Statistics

	T-test One-way ANOVA Tukey test The interview
3)What is the degree of parental encouragement Turkish EFL learners attain?	Descriptive Statistics T-test One-way ANOVA Tukey test The interview
4)To what extent is the ambiguity of tolerance and parental encouragement predict WTC in EFL learners?	A Pearson product-moment correlation analysis
4.1) Is ambiguity tolerance related to WTC?	Regression analysis
4.2) Is perceived parental encouragement related to WTC?	Regression analysis

Table 4(Continued)

The data collected through three questionnaires were analyzed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS 20.0). Thanks to that, descriptive statistics such as frequencies, means, percentages, and standard deviations of the items and inferential statistics such as correlation, t-test, ANOVA (analysis of variance), Tukey's HSD (honestly significant difference) test, and regression analysis were calculated. A series of t-tests to compare the mean scores of two parts (Kim, 2015) was accomplished to compare the means of age with WTC, TA, and perceived parental encouragement levels of the learners. One-way ANOVA, which is used to evaluate more than two variables, was utilized to analyze WTC, TA, and perceived parental encouragement scores with different language proficiency scores. Since ANOVA indicates non-equality of scores without pointing to the differences in individual mean scores, Tukey's HSD test was achieved to compare the differences further.

Moreover, Pearson product-moment correlation, which helps to uncover the possible relations of variables (Padilla & Veprinsky, 2014), was utilized to check if there were any correlations between the subscales of the questionnaires within themselves. Thus, the first three questions of the study, which focused on the degree of Turkish EFL learners L2 WTC, TA, and perceived parental encouragement, were determined. Then, to answer questions four, five, and six, three scales were searched for possible correlations to determine whether there were statistically significant relationships among participants' WTC scores with their TA levels and the perceived degree of parental encouragement to learn English. To this aim, Pearson product-

moment correlation and simple linear regression analysis were done to see if the scores of SLTAS and perceived parental encouragement scale influenced WTC Scale scores.

According to Schreier (2012), content analysis offers an efficient and practical path to represent and assess data. In this study, to obtain a clearer picture of the effecting factors of WTC and TA levels, learners' answers were analyzed through inductive content analysis. While doing the research, six steps to investigate the qualitative data identified by Creswell (2013) were followed. Accordingly, data gathered from the participants were transcribed as the initial step. Then, transcribed data were re-read to get an overall meaning. Later, codes were created, and related data were collected under regulations. As a next step, themes were formed based on the rules. After that, findings were visualized, and as the last step, they were interpreted. During the implementation of steps, the opinions of a competent expert were taken regularly to control the reliability of the process. Moreover, the comments of learners were provided and interpreted through descriptive analysis. Lastly, as of the confidentiality principle, the names of the participants were not used but their names were coded through numbers.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

4.1. Presentation

This chapter presents the obtained statistical data from the three questionnaires. The findings of the study based on research questions are detailed under the following headings.

4.2. Normality Test

In order to determine the normality of the distribution of the scales, Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk statistical values were measured. Here are the results:

Table 5. *Normality statistics for WTC, SLTAS and Perceived Parental Encouragement Scales*

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk			Skewness Kurtosis	
	Statistic	df	p	Statistic	df	p		
Friend	,16	151	,000	,93	151	,000	-,54	-,76
Acquaintance	,20	151	,000	,89	151	,000	-,71	-,64
Stranger	,13	151	,000	,94	151	,000	-,53	-,58
Dyad	,13	151	,000	,94	151	,000	-,33	-,68
Small Group	,13	151	,000	,94	151	,000	-,38	-,86
Meeting	,18	151	,000	,93	151	,000	-,53	-,60
Presentation	,18	151	,000	,94	151	,000	-,36	-,79
Listening	,24	151	,000	,87	151	,000	,13	-,82
Speaking	,23	151	,000	,86	151	,000	-,25	,43
Reading	,12	151	,000	,95	151	,000	-,51	-,40
Writing	,15	151	,000	,93	151	,000	-,33	-,79
Lex. Development	,17	151	,000	,94	151	,000	-,33	-,47
Pronunciation	,26	151	,000	,87	151	,000	-,45	-,79
Grammar	,16	151	,000	,94	151	,000	-,16	-,89
Perceived Parent.E.	,07	151	,029	,98	151	,208	,26	,54

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Based on the analysis in Table 5, the p-values of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test were detected less than the chosen alpha level ($p \leq .05$). However, when Skewness-Kurtosis values were evaluated, they were identified in the normal range (-1,96). Accordingly, the distribution of the scales was accepted as normal and, parametric tests such as t-test, ANOVA, Pearson product-moment correlation, Tukey test, and regression analysis were used in the study.

4.3. Results for Research Question #1: How willing are Turkish EFL students to communicate in English?

The first research question of the study aimed to analyze how willing Turkish EFL learners to interact in the target language. To this aim, WTC Scale (McCroskey, 1992) was given to participants in the study. In the current study, learners had a total mean score of 41.94, which was equal to %69.9 of the total score. These indicated that learners in the study showed high WTC scores in total. Descriptive statistics were analyzed to see learners' WTC levels in diverse contexts such as dyads, groups, meetings, and the public. The results are presented in Table 6 below:

Table 6. *Descriptive Statistics related to willingness to communicate based on context types*

Measures	N	No. of Items	Min	Max	$\bar{X}$	SD
Dyads	151	3	5	15	10,77	2,869
Group	151	3	4	15	10,48	3,147
Meeting	151	3	3	15	10,24	2,576
Public	151	3	5	15	10,25	2,564

As shown in Table 6, WTC, according to context types, had four dimensions with three items for each. For dyads, the mean score was 10,77(SD=869) while 10,48(SD=3,14) for groups, 10,24(SD=2,576) for meetings and 10,25(SD=2,564) for public. According to mean scores, the highest WTC was detected in interpersonal communication, while the lowest was communicating in meetings. Apart from context, learners' WTC scores with diverse receiver types such as friends, acquaintances, and strangers were also evaluated. Descriptive results of WTC scores according to receiver types were displayed in Table 7 below.

Table 7. *Descriptive Statistics related to willingness to communicate based on receiver types*

Measures	N	No. of Items	Min	Max	$\bar{X}$	SD
Friend	151	4	6	20	14,27	3,557
Acquaintance	151	4	6	20	14,15	3,360
Stranger	151	4	5	19	13,52	3,456

As seen above, WTC, according to receiver types, had three sub-dimensions with four items each, and mean scores of the answers were 14,27(SD=3,557) for friends, 14,15(SD=3,360) for acquaintance, and 13,52(SD=3,456) for strangers. Based on these findings, learners in the study possessed the highest WTC while talking with friends while the lowest when interacting with strangers.

Whether age influenced, the WTC was investigated in the study. To this aim, participants' scores on WTC Scale were compared according to age variable by using independent samples T-Test (Table 8). Here are the findings:

Table 8. *T-Test findings of WTC Scale and age*

	Age groups	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	t	df	p
Friend	18-20	120	14,78	3,363	2,961	149	,004
	21-23	31	12,90	3,740			
Acquaintance	18-20	120	14,49	3,196	2,050	149	,042
	21-23	31	13,24	3,652			
Stranger	18-20	120	13,89	3,163	2,208	149	,029
	21-23	31	12,51	4,013			
Dyad	18-20	120	11,06	2,713	2,048	149	,042
	21-23	31	10,00	3,154			
Group	18-20	120	10,83	2,952	2,272	149	,025
	21-23	31	9,54	3,486			
Meeting	18-20	120	10,46	2,482	1,772	149	,078
	21-23	31	9,63	2,755			
Public	18-20	120	10,64	2,376	3,163	149	,002
	21-23	31	9,20	2,777			

As can be seen in Table 8, the result of the analysis showed no statistically significant differences on the dimension of meeting between two age groups of 18-20 and 21-23($t(149)=1,772$; $p=,078$). On the other hand, the analysis showed meaningful differences on the WTC scores of two age groups with sub dimensions of friend($t(149)=2,050$; $p<.05$), acquaintance($t(149)=2,208$; $p<.05$), stranger($t(149)=2,048$; $p<.05$), dyad ($t(149)=2,048$; $p<.05$) group ($t(149)=2,272$; $p<.05$), and public ($t(149)=3,161$; $p<.05$). Accordingly, 18-20 age group showed higher WTC in the subcategories of friend ($\bar{X}=14,78$) with acquaintance ($\bar{X}=14,49$),

stranger($\bar{X}$ =13,89), dyad($\bar{X}$ =10,83),group($\bar{X}$ =10,83), and public speaking ($\bar{X}$ =10,64) comparing to 21-23 age group.

The study examined whether learners with different language proficiency levels varied in WTC in English. In pursuit of this goal, one-way ANOVA was used to compare the WTC scores of four language proficiency groups. Table 9 portrays this comparison.

Table 9. *One way ANOVA according to WTC and language proficiency*

	Language Proficiency	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	df	F	p
Friend	A2	30	11,33	3,614	3	16,477	,000
	B1	65	13,95	2,960			
	B2	37	16,14	2,594			
	C1	19	16,37	3,639			
	Total	151	14,27	3,557			
Acquaintance	A2	30	11,30	3,659	3	15,035	,000
	B1	65	14,11	2,739			
	B2	37	15,38	2,476			
	C1	19	16,42	3,388			
	Total	151	14,15	3,360			
Stranger	A2	30	10,57	3,775	3	19,821	,000
	B1	65	13,09	2,782			
	B2	37	15,43	2,387			
	C1	19	15,89	2,998			
	Total	151	13,52	3,456			
Dyad	A2	30	8,40	2,955	3	16,226	,000
	B1	65	10,54	2,319			
	B2	37	12,27	2,293			
	C1	19	12,42	2,795			
	Total	151	10,77	2,869			
Group	A2	30	8,47	3,550	3	8,267	,000
	B1	65	10,31	2,931			
	B2	37	11,68	2,369			
	C1	19	11,89	2,923			
	Total	151	10,48	3,147			
Meeting	A2	30	7,97	2,580	3	23,417	,000
	B1	65	9,88	1,965			
	B2	37	11,59	1,978			
	C1	19	12,42	2,269			
	Total	151	10,24	2,576			
Public	A2	30	8,10	2,496	3	15,952	,000
	B1	65	10,09	2,149			
	B2	37	11,38	1,963			
	C1	19	11,95	2,677			
	Total	151	10,25	2,564			

As demonstrated in Table 9, statistically significant differences were detected in the means of different language proficiency groups in all the subcategories of friend ($F(3)=16,477$; $p=,000$), acquaintance $F(3)=15,035$, stranger ($F(3)=19,821$; $p=,000$), dyad ($F(3)= 16,226$; $p=,000$), group ($F(3)=8,267$; $p=,000$), meeting

($F(3)=23,417$; $p=,000$) and public ($F(3)=15,952$; $p=,000$). Since ANOVA was only used to determine meaningful differences, Tukey's multiple comparison test was achieved as a further step to unearth which subcategories showed variances. Table 10 displays the contrast among language groups in the subcategory of WTC with a friend.

Table 10. *Tukey test findings of WTC with friend and language proficiency*

Dependent Variable	(I) Language Proficiency	(J) Language Proficiency	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	p	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Friend	A2	B1	-2,621 [*]	,686	,001	-4,40	-,84
		B2	-4,802 [*]	,764	,000	-6,79	-2,82
		C1	-5,035 [*]	,911	,000	-7,40	-2,67
	B1	A2	2,621 [*]	,686	,001	,84	4,40
		B2	-2,181 [*]	,640	,005	-3,84	-,52
		C1	-2,415 [*]	,811	,018	-4,52	-,31
	B2	A2	4,802 [*]	,764	,000	2,82	6,79
		B1	2,181 [*]	,640	,005	,52	3,84
		C1	-,233	,877	,993	-2,51	2,05
	C1	A2	5,035 [*]	,911	,000	2,67	7,40
		B1	2,415 [*]	,811	,018	,31	4,52
		B2	,233	,877	,993	-2,05	2,51

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

As shown in Table 10, there were meaningful differences among diverse language groups with their WTC while talking with a friend. Accordingly, there were significant differences between A2-B1 ($p=,001$; $p<.05$), A2-B2 ($p=,000$; $p<.05$), A2-C1 ($p=,000$; $p<.05$), B1-B2 ($p=,005$; $p<.05$) and B1-C1 ($p=,018$; $p<.05$). Based on these differences, it could be interpreted that learners who were in the language proficiency groups of B2 ($\bar{X}=16,14$) and C1 ($\bar{X}=16,37$) showed higher willingness while communicating with a friend comparing to B1 ($\bar{X}=13,95$) and A2 ($\bar{X}=11,33$) levels. In addition, it was detected that B1 level learners possess higher WTC than A2 level. The following table illustrates variances in the subcategory of WTC with an acquaintance.

Table 11. *Tukey test findings of WTC with acquaintance and language proficiency*

Dependent Variable	(I) Language Proficiency	(J) Language Proficiency	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	p	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Acquaintance	A2	B1	-2,808 [*]	,655	,000	-4,51	-1,10
		B2	-4,078 [*]	,729	,000	-5,97	-2,18
		C1	-5,121 [*]	,871	,000	-7,38	-2,86

B1	A2	2,808*	,655	,000	1,10	4,51
	B2	-1,271	,611	,165	-2,86	,32
	C1	-2,313*	,774	,017	-4,33	-,30
B2	A2	4,078*	,729	,000	2,18	5,97
	B1	1,271	,611	,165	-,32	2,86
	C1	-1,043	,838	,600	-3,22	1,13
C1	A2	5,121*	,871	,000	2,86	7,38
	B1	2,313*	,774	,017	,30	4,33
	B2	1,043	,838	,600	-1,13	3,22

Table 11(Continued)

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

What stood out in Table 11 was that in the subcategory of WTC with acquaintances, the differences were significant between A2-B1($p=,000;p<.05$), A2-B2($p=,000;p<.05$), A2-C1($p=,000;p<.05$) and B1-C1($p=,017;p<.05$) level proficiency groups. These imply that C1($\bar{X}=16,42$) level learners showed higher willingness while communicating in English with acquaintances comparing to A2($\bar{X}=11,30$), B1($\bar{X}=14,11$), and B2 levels($\bar{X}=15,38$). Moreover, language learners with B1 and B2 indicated higher WTC scores than learners with A2 proficiency levels. Table 12 below depicts the differences among scores of language proficiency groups in the subcategory of WTC with a stranger.

Table 12. *Tukey test findings of WTC with stranger and language proficiency*

Dependent Variable	(I) Language Proficiency	(J) Language Proficiency	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	P	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Stranger	A2	B1	-2,526*	,650	,001	-4,22	-,84
		B2	-4,866*	,724	,000	-6,75	-2,98
		C1	-5,328*	,864	,000	-7,57	-3,08
	B1	A2	2,526*	,650	,001	,84	4,22
		B2	-2,340*	,607	,001	-3,92	-,76
		C1	-2,802*	,768	,002	-4,80	-,81
	B2	A2	4,866*	,724	,000	2,98	6,75
		B1	2,340*	,607	,001	,76	3,92
		C1	-,462	,831	,945	-2,62	1,70
	C1	A2	5,328*	,864	,000	3,08	7,57
		B1	2,802*	,768	,002	,81	4,80
		B2	,462	,831	,945	-1,70	2,62

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

As demonstrated in Table 12, in the subcategory of WTC with a stranger, the scores of four language groups varied significantly. Based on the Tukey test findings, there were statistically significant differences between the mean scores of A2-B1($p=,001;p<.05$), A2-B2($p=,000;p<.05$), A2-C1($p=,000; p<.05$), B1-B2(

$p=,001; p<.05$), and B1-C1($p=,002; p<.05$) language groups. Ultimately, it was detected that B2($\bar{X}=15,43$) and C1($\bar{X}=15,89$) level students in the study were found to be more willing to communicate with a stranger in contrast with B1($\bar{X}=13,09$) and A2($\bar{X}=10,57$) level students, while B1 level students indicated higher willingness than students with A2 level language proficiency. The next table presents the contrasting scores of language groups in the subcategory of WTC in a dyad.

Table 13. *Tukey test findings of WTC in dyad and language proficiency*

Dependent Variable	(I) Language Proficiency	(J) Language Proficiency	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	P	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Dyad	A2	B1	-2,138*	,554	,001	-3,58	-,70
		B2	-3,870*	,617	,000	-5,47	-2,27
		C1	-4,021*	,736	,000	-5,93	-2,11
	B1	A2	2,138*	,554	,001	,70	3,58
		B2	-1,732*	,517	,006	-3,08	-,39
		C1	-1,883*	,655	,024	-3,58	-,18
	B2	A2	3,870*	,617	,000	2,27	5,47
		B1	1,732*	,517	,006	,39	3,08
		C1	-,151	,709	,997	-1,99	1,69
	C1	A2	4,021*	,736	,000	2,11	5,93
		B1	1,883*	,655	,024	,18	3,58
		B2	,151	,709	,997	-1,69	1,99

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 13 reports the variances of WTC in a dyadic context according to the language proficiency of learners. Based upon the findings, statistically significant differences were found in the scores of A2-B1($p=,001; p<.05$), A2-B2($p=,000; p<.05$), A2-C1($p=,000; p<.05$), B1-B2($p=,006; p<.05$), and B1-C1($p=,024; p<.05$), level learners. Such results signified that while talking within an interpersonal communication, B2($\bar{X}=12,27$) and C1($\bar{X}=12,42$) level learners were found to show higher WTC scores than B1($\bar{X}=10,54$) and A2($\bar{X}=8,40$) level learners. Table 14 below demonstrates WTC variances of learners from four language levels while talking in a small group was depicted in the table below.

Table 14. *Tukey test findings of WTC in small group and language proficiency*

Dependent Variable	(I) Language Proficiency	(J) Language Proficiency	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	p	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Group	A2	B1	-1,841*	,649	,026	-3,53	-,15
		B2	-3,209*	,722	,000	-5,09	-1,33
		C1	-3,428*	,862	,001	-5,67	-1,19
	B1	A2	1,841*	,649	,026	,15	3,53
		B2	-1,368	,606	,113	-2,94	,21
		C1	-1,587	,767	,168	-3,58	,41
	B2	A2	3,209*	,722	,000	1,33	5,09
		B1	1,368	,606	,113	-,21	2,94
		C1	-,219	,830	,994	-2,38	1,94
	C1	A2	3,428*	,862	,001	1,19	5,67
		B1	1,587	,767	,168	-,41	3,58
		B2	,219	,830	,994	-1,94	2,38

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 14 demonstrates the variances of the WTC scores of four language proficiency groups. Based on the findings, mean scores between A2-B1($p=.026$; $p<.05$), A2-B2 ($p=.000$; $p<.05$) and A2-C1($p=.001$; $p<.05$) were statistically different. Accordingly, B2($\bar{X}=11,68$) and C1(11,89) students carried higher WTC in small group conversations. On the other hand, B1($\bar{X}=10,31$) students were superior to A2($\bar{X}=8,47$) students in WTC within-group interactions. The following table displays the differences of WTC in meeting among four language groups.

Table 15. *Tukey test findings of WTC in meeting and language proficiency*

Dependent Variable	(I) Language Proficiency	(J) Language Proficiency	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	p	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Meeting	A2	B1	-1,910*	,472	,000	-3,14	-,68
		B2	-3,628*	,526	,000	-4,99	-2,26
		C1	-4,454*	,628	,000	-6,09	-2,82
	B1	A2	1,910*	,472	,000	,68	3,14
		B2	-1,718*	,441	,001	-2,86	-,57
		C1	-2,544*	,558	,000	-3,99	-1,09
	B2	A2	3,628*	,526	,000	2,26	4,99
		B1	1,718*	,441	,001	,57	2,86
		C1	-,826	,604	,521	-2,40	,74
	C1	A2	4,454*	,628	,000	2,82	6,09
		B1	2,544*	,558	,000	1,09	3,99
		B2	,826	,604	,521	-,74	2,40

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

What stood out in Table 15 was that there were statistically significant differences in the mean scores of four language groups in WTC in meetings. In line

with the results of Tukey test, A2-B1 ($p=,000$; $p<.05$), A2-B2($p=,000$; $p<.05$), A2-C1($p=,000$; $p<.05$), B1-B2($p=,001$; $p<.05$) language proficiency groups showed differences in WTC scores. In summary, B2 ($\bar{X}=11,59$) and C1($\bar{X}=12,42$) level learners had higher WTC in meetings, compared to B1($\bar{X}=9,88$) and A2($\bar{X}=7,97$). Meanwhile, B1 level learners were more willing to communicate in meetings than A2 level learners. The following table demonstrates differences in WTC scores among language proficiency groups in the public speaking context.

Table 16. *Tukey test findings of WTC in public and language proficiency*

Dependent Variable	(I) Language Proficiency	(J) Language Proficiency	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	P	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Public	A2	B1	-1,992*	,496	,001	-3,28	-,70
		B2	-3,278*	,553	,000	-4,71	-1,84
		C1	-3,847*	,660	,000	-5,56	-2,13
	B1	A2	1,992*	,496	,001	,70	3,28
		B2	-1,286*	,463	,031	-2,49	-,08
		C1	-1,855*	,587	,010	-3,38	-,33
	B2	A2	3,278*	,553	,000	1,84	4,71
		B1	1,286*	,463	,031	,08	2,49
		C1	-,569	,635	,807	-2,22	1,08
	C1	A2	3,847*	,660	,000	2,13	5,56
		B1	1,855*	,587	,010	,33	3,38
		B2	,569	,635	,807	-1,08	2,22

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Tukey test results relating to WTC in public speaking were shown in Table 16. Meaningful differences were detected between A2-B1($p=,001$; $p<.05$), A2-B2($p=,000$; $p<.05$), A2-C1($p=,000$; $p<.05$) and B1-B2($p=,031$; $p<.05$) language proficiency groups. Based on these findings, it could be commented that B2 ($\bar{X}=11,38$) and C1($\bar{X}=11,95$) level students were detected having higher willingness while communicating in public than B1($\bar{X}=10,09$) and A2($\bar{X}=8,10$) level students. To summarize what has been stated so far in Tukey test findings, Upper-Intermediate and Advanced level students had higher L2 WTC than Intermediate and Pre-Intermediate learners in various contexts. These include dyads, groups, meetings, public speaking, and different receiver types such as friends, acquaintances, and strangers.

4.4. Results for Research Question 2#: How tolerant are Turkish EFL students to ambiguity?

The second research question of the study proposed to explore how tolerant Turkish EFL learners were to ambiguity. To this aim, SLTAS (Ely, 1989) was applied to detect TA scores in the EFL context. In the current study, learners had a total mean score of 42.3, which was equal to %70.5 of the total score. Accordingly, learners in the study showed high tolerance to ambiguity in total. Furthermore, to see learners' TA levels in diverse subcategories such as listening, speaking, reading, writing, linguistic development, pronunciation, and grammar, descriptive statistics were calculated. Table 17 below demonstrates the findings.

Table 17. *Descriptive statistics related to SLTAS*

	N	No. of Items	Min	Max	$\bar{X}$	SD
Listening	151	2	2	5	3,54	,915
Speaking	151	1	1	5	3,44	,869
Reading	151	3	4	15	10,60	2,706
Writing	151	2	4	10	7,27	1,665
Lexical Development	151	2	3	10	6,98	1,619
Pronunciation	151	1	1	5	3,62	1,095
Grammar	151	2	3	10	6,85	1,624

Table 17 gives information about the descriptive statistics of the subcategories of SLTAS. Among all, listening has 2 items ($\bar{X}$ =3,54; SD=,915), speaking has 1 item ($\bar{X}$ =3,44; SD=,869), reading has 3 items ($\bar{X}$ =10,60;SD=,2,706), writing has 2 items ($\bar{X}$ =7,27;SD=1,665), lexical development has 2 items ($\bar{X}$ =6,99; SD=1,619), pronunciation has 1 item ($\bar{X}$ =3,62;SD=1,095) and grammar has 2 items ($\bar{X}$ =6,85; SD=1,624). Accordingly, participants in the study showed the highest TA in writing while lowest in listening.

Whether two age groups possessed diverse TA levels was detected through T-Test scores. Here are the results:

Table 18. *T-test findings of SLTAS and age*

	Age group	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	t	df	p
Listening	18-20	120	3,51	,936	-,746	149	,457
	21-23	31	3,63	,859			
Speaking	18-20	120	3,54	,820	2,173	149	,031
	21-23	31	3,20	,954			

Reading	18-20	120	10,96	2,523	2,743	149	,007
	21-23	31	9,63	2,964			
Writing	18-20	120	7,40	1,682	1,560	149	,121
	21-23	31	6,93	1,587			
Lexical Development	18-20	120	6,99	1,645	,134	149	,894
	21-23	31	6,95	1,564			
Pronunciation	18-20	120	3,75	1,035	2,421	149	,017
	21-23	31	3,27	1,184			
Grammar	18-20	120	6,94	1,528	1,100	149	,273
	21-23	31	6,61	1,856			

Table 18 (Continued)

As seen in Table 18, analysis showed that the differences between the mean scores of two age groups did not show a statistically value in listening ($t(149) = -.746$; $p = .457$), writing ($t(149) = 1,560$; $p = .121$), lexical development ($t(149) = .134$; $p = .894$) and grammar ($t(149) = 1,100$; $p = .273$) subcategories. On the other hand, meaningful differences were detected in speaking ($t(149) = 2,173$; $p = .031$), reading ($t(149) = 2,743$; $p = .007$), and pronunciation ($t(149) = 2,421$; $p = .017$). Accordingly, 18-20 age group had higher ambiguity to tolerance in speaking ($\bar{X} = 3,54$), reading ($\bar{X} = 10,96$) and pronunciation ($\bar{X} = 3,75$) comparing to 21-23 age group.

To determine whether the language proficiency variable influenced TA, one-way ANOVA was utilized to compare SLTAS scores of four different language proficiency groups. Table 19 demonstrates the comparisons of SLTAS scores of four language proficiency groups.

Table 19. *One way ANOVA according to SLTAS and language proficiency*

	Language Proficiency	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	df	F	p
Listening	A2	30	3,70	,988	3	,393	,758
	B1	65	3,49	,831			
	B2	37	3,54	,960			
	C1	19	3,47	1,020			
	Total	151	3,54	,915			
Speaking	A2	30	2,93	1,015	3	4,810	,003
	B1	65	3,52	,793			
	B2	37	3,65	,753			
	C1	19	3,58	,838			
	Total	151	3,44	,869			
Reading	A2	30	8,70	3,064	3	11,798	,000
	B1	65	10,34	2,307			
	B2	37	11,81	2,066			
	C1	19	12,16	2,566			
	Total	151	10,60	2,706			
Writing	A2	30	6,00	1,742	3	9,032	,000
	B1	65	7,42	1,457			
	B2	37	7,81	1,351			
	C1	19	7,74	1,851			

Lexical Development	Total	151	7,27	1,665	3	10,048	,000
	A2	30	5,87	1,613			
	B1	65	6,88	1,409			
	B2	37	7,65	1,513			
	C1	19	7,79	1,512			
	Total	151	6,98	1,619			
Pronunciation	A2	30	3,10	1,185	3	3,990	,009
	B1	65	3,58	1,074			
	B2	37	3,92	,924			
	C1	19	3,95	1,079			
	Total	151	3,62	1,095			
Grammar	A2	30	5,63	1,474	3	11,051	,000
	B1	65	6,80	1,543			
	B2	37	7,49	1,426			
	C1	19	7,68	1,376			
	Total	151	6,85	1,624			

Table 19 (Continued)

As seen in Table 19, the results of the analysis showed no statistically meaningful differences in the listening subcategory among the four language proficiency groups ($F(3)=,393$; $p>.05$). Nevertheless; meaningful differences were detected among the scores of language proficiency groups in speaking ($F(3)=4,810$; $p<.05$), reading ($F(3)=11,798$; $p<.05$), writing ($F(3)=9,032$; $p<.05$), lexical development ($F(3)=10,048$; $p<.05$), pronunciation ($F(3)=3,990$; $p<.05$) and grammar ($F(3)=11,051$; $p<.05$). To distinguish which subcategories showed differences, Tukey multiple comparison tests were done as a further step. The table below demonstrates the findings related to comparisons of language proficiency groups in the listening subcategory.

Table 20. Tukey test results of TA in listening and language proficiency

Dependent Variable	(I) Language Proficiency	(J) Language Proficiency	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	p	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Listening	A2	B1	,208	,203	,737	-,32	,74
		B2	,159	,226	,895	-,43	,75
		C1	,226	,270	,836	-,47	,93
	B1	A2	-,208	,203	,737	-,74	,32
		B2	-,048	,190	,994	-,54	,44
		C1	,019	,240	1,000	-,61	,64
	B2	A2	-,159	,226	,895	-,75	,43
		B1	,048	,190	,994	-,44	,54
		C1	,067	,260	,994	-,61	,74
	C1	A2	-,226	,270	,836	-,93	,47
		B1	-,019	,240	1,000	-,64	,61
		B2	-,067	,260	,994	-,74	,61

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

As depicted in Table 20, no statistically significant differences were detected in the TA in listening among four language groups ($p > .05$). These imply that language proficiency groups showed similar tolerance scores in ambiguity in listening. The following table illustrates comparisons related to TA in speaking.

Table 21. *Tukey test findings of TA in speaking and language proficiency*

Dependent Variable	(I) Language Proficiency	(J) Language Proficiency	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	P	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Speaking	A2	B1	-,590*	,185	,009	-1,07	-,11
		B2	-,715*	,206	,004	-1,25	-,18
		C1	-,646*	,246	,046	-1,28	-,01
	B1	A2	,590*	,185	,009	,11	1,07
		B2	-,126	,173	,886	-,57	,32
		C1	-,056	,218	,994	-,62	,51
	B2	A2	,715*	,206	,004	,18	1,25
		B1	,126	,173	,886	-,32	,57
		C1	,070	,236	,991	-,54	,68
	C1	A2	,646*	,246	,046	,01	1,28
		B1	,056	,218	,994	-,51	,62
		B2	-,070	,236	,991	-,68	,54

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

According to Table 21, Tukey test results relating TA in speaking showed that there were meaningful differences among A2-B1($p = .009$; $p < .05$), A2-B2($p = .004$; $p < .05$), and A2-C1($p = .046$; $p < .05$) language proficiency groups. Based on the findings, it was understood that B2 ($\bar{X} = 3.65$) level learners presented higher TA scores comparing to C1($\bar{X} = 3.58$), B1($\bar{X} = 3.52$), and A2($\bar{X} = 2.93$) level learners. Moreover, B1 level students had a higher tolerance than A2 level students in the speaking category. The upcoming table describes TA scores of four language proficiency groups in reading.

Table 22. *Tukey test findings of TA in reading and language proficiency*

Dependent Variable	(I) Language Proficiency	(J) Language Proficiency	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	P	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Reading	A2	B1	-1,638*	,542	,015	-3,05	-,23
		B2	-3,111*	,603	,000	-4,68	-1,54
		C1	-3,458*	,719	,000	-5,33	-1,59
	B1	A2	1,638*	,542	,015	,23	3,05
		B2	-1,472*	,505	,021	-2,79	-,16
		C1	-1,819*	,640	,026	-3,48	-,16
	B2	A2	3,111*	,603	,000	1,54	4,68
		B1	1,472*	,505	,021	,16	2,79

	C1	-,347	,693	,959	-2,15	1,45
	A2	3,458*	,719	,000	1,59	5,33
C1	B1	1,819*	,640	,026	,16	3,48
	B2	,347	,693	,959	-1,45	2,15

Table 22 (Continued)

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

As can be seen above in Table 22, statistically significant differences among the mean scores were detected. A2-B1($p=,015$; $p<.05$), A2-B2($p=,000$; $p<.05$), A2-C1($p=,000$; $p<.05$) and B1-B2($p=,026$; $p<.05$) level learners had diverse scores in reading subcategory. Based on these findings, it was concluded that B2 ($\bar{X}=11,81$) and C1 ($\bar{X}=12,16$) level proficiency groups had higher TA in reading than B1 ($\bar{X}=10,34$) and A2 ($\bar{X}=8,70$) level proficiency groups. In addition, B1 level learners had higher tolerance to ambiguity in reading compared to A2 level learners. The differences in TA scores of language groups in writing can be found in the table below.

Table 23. *Tukey test findings of TA in writing and language proficiency*

Dependent Variable	(I) Language Proficiency	(J) Language Proficiency	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	P	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Writing	A2	B1	-1,415*	,341	,000	-2,30	-,53
		B2	-1,811*	,380	,000	-2,80	-,82
		C1	-1,737*	,453	,001	-2,91	-,56
	B1	A2	1,415*	,341	,000	,53	2,30
		B2	-,395	,318	,601	-1,22	,43
		C1	-,321	,403	,855	-1,37	,73
	B2	A2	1,811*	,380	,000	,82	2,80
		B1	,395	,318	,601	-,43	1,22
		C1	,074	,436	,998	-1,06	1,21
	C1	A2	1,737*	,453	,001	,56	2,91
		B1	,321	,403	,855	-,73	1,37
		B2	-,074	,436	,998	-1,21	1,06

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 23 demonstrated comparisons of four language proficiency groups in reading tolerance. Based on the findings, mean scores between A2-B1($p=,000$; $p<.05$), A2-B2($p=,000$; $p<.05$), and A2-C1($p=,001$; $p<.05$) language groups statistically differed. In compliance with this, it was concluded that B2 ($\bar{X}=7,81$) and C1 ($\bar{X}=7,74$) level proficiency groups portrayed higher TA in writing in comparison with B1 ($\bar{X}=7,42$) and A2 ($\bar{X}=6,00$) level proficiency groups. In addition, B1 level learners had higher tolerance to ambiguity in writing than A2 level learners. Table 24

below reveals Tukey-test results relating TA in linguistic development and scores of language proficiency groups.

Table 24. *Tukey test findings of TA in linguistic development and language proficiency*

Dependent Variable	(I) Language Proficiency	(J) Language Proficiency	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	P	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Lexical Development	A2	B1	-1,010*	,329	,013	-1,86	-,16
		B2	-1,782*	,366	,000	-2,73	-,83
		C1	-1,923*	,437	,000	-3,06	-,79
	B1	A2	1,010*	,329	,013	,16	1,86
		B2	-,772	,307	,062	-1,57	,03
		C1	-,913	,388	,092	-1,92	,10
	A2	B1	1,782*	,366	,000	,83	2,73
		B2	,772	,307	,062	-,03	1,57
		C1	-,141	,420	,987	-1,23	,95
	B1	A2	1,923*	,437	,000	,79	3,06
		B2	,913	,388	,092	-,10	1,92
		C1	,141	,420	,987	-,95	1,23

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 24 demonstrated that in the subcategory of TA in lexical development, A2-B1($p=.013$; $p<.05$), A2-B2($p=.000$; $p<.05$) and A2-C1($p=.000$; $p<.05$) language proficiency groups had diverse scores. Accordingly, in linguistic development, B2($\bar{X}=7,65$) and C1($\bar{X}=7,79$) level language learners possessed higher TA than B1($\bar{X}=6,88$) and A2($\bar{X}=5,87$) level language groups. Meanwhile, C1 level students possessed higher TA in lexical development than B2 level learners. The next table clarifies contrasting scores of four language proficiency groups in pronunciation.

Table 25. *Tukey test findings of TA in pronunciation and language proficiency*

Dependent Variable	(I) Language Proficiency	(J) Language Proficiency	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	P	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Pronunciation	A2	B1	-,485	,235	,170	-1,09	,13
		B2	-,819*	,261	,011	-1,50	-,14
		C1	-,847*	,312	,037	-1,66	-,04
	B1	A2	,485	,235	,170	-,13	1,09
		B2	-,334	,219	,424	-,90	,23
		C1	-,363	,277	,559	-1,08	,36
	A2	B1	,819*	,261	,011	,14	1,50
		B2	,334	,219	,424	-,23	,90
		C1	-,028	,300	1,000	-,81	,75
	B1	A2	,847*	,312	,037	,04	1,66
		B2	,363	,277	,559	-,36	1,08
		C1	,028	,300	1,000	-,75	,81

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

As can be seen in Table 25, it was detected that TA scores were significantly different between A2-B2 ($p=,011$; $p<.05$) and A2-C1($p=,037$; $p<.05$) levels.

Accordingly, both B2($\bar{X}=3,92$) and C1($\bar{X}=3,95$) level learners were more tolerant to ambiguities experienced in pronunciation than A2($\bar{X}=3,10$) level learners. The following table depicted comparisons of the scores of four language proficiency groups in TA in grammar.

Table 26. *Tukey test findings of TA in grammar and language proficiency*

Dependent Variable	(I) Language Proficiency	(J) Language Proficiency	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	p	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Grammar	A2	B1	-1,167*	,327	,003	-2,02	-,32
		B2	-1,853*	,364	,000	-2,80	-,91
		C1	-2,051*	,434	,000	-3,18	-,92
	B1	A2	1,167*	,327	,003	,32	2,02
		B2	-,686	,305	,115	-1,48	,11
		C1	-,884	,386	,105	-1,89	,12
	B2	A2	1,853*	,364	,000	,91	2,80
		B1	,686	,305	,115	-,11	1,48
		C1	-,198	,418	,965	-1,28	,89
	C1	A2	2,051*	,434	,000	,92	3,18
		B1	,884	,386	,105	-,12	1,89
		B2	,198	,418	,965	-,89	1,28

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

In the last table showing Tukey test findings (Table 26), it was found that mean scores were statistically different between A2-B1($p=,037$; $p<.05$), A2-B2($p=,037$; $p<.05$), and A2-C1($p=,037$; $p<.05$) level language proficiency groups. Based on these findings, B2($\bar{X}=7,49$) and C1($\bar{X}=7,68$) level students displayed higher TA scores in grammar comparing to A2($\bar{X}=5,63$) level students.

Based on what has been stated so far in Tukey multiple comparison test findings, C1 level learners demonstrated the highest TA scores in all subcategories of SLTAS, which were listening, reading, speaking, writing, linguistic development, pronunciation, and grammar. Furthermore, Advanced and Upper-Intermediate level learners displayed higher TA scores in all subcategories comparing to Intermediate and Pre-Intermediate level proficiency groups in total.

4.5 Results for Research Question 3#: What is the degree of parental encouragement Turkish EFL learners attain?

The third research question in the study targeted the degree of parental encouragement the students perceived during L2 learning. The Perceived Parental Encouragement Scale, taken from AMTB (Gardner, 1985b), was utilized to detect this. Descriptive statistics related to the findings were shown in the table below:

Table 27. *Descriptive statistics related to Perceived Parental Encouragement Scale*

	N	Number of Items	Min	Max	$\bar{X}$	SD
Perceived Parental Encouragement	151	10	27	62	43,29	6,013

Table 27 displays the descriptive statistics of the Perceived Parental Encouragement Scale. Accordingly, the mean scores of answers to this scale were found at 43,29 (SD=6,013), equal to %61.84 of the total score. This finding indicates that learners in the study had a high level of perceived parental encouragement.

The comparison of age groups on the Perceived Parental Encouragement Scale was carried out in the study. The findings of the T-test on this comparison were given below:

Table 28. *T-test scores of perceived parental encouragement and age*

	Age Group	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	t	df	p
Perceived Parental Encouragement	18-20	120	43,67	6,203	1,279	149	,203
	21-23	31	42,27	5,408			

As can be seen in Table 28, no statistically significant results were found among the scores of two age groups in the Perceived Parental Encouragement Scale ($t(149)=1,279$; $p>.05$). Namely, it was seen that the age factor did not affect the amount of perceived encouragement from parents.

The relation of perceived parental encouragement and language proficiency was also explored in the study. To this aim, Perceived Parental Encouragement Scale results of four language proficiency groups were compared via ANOVA. The following table demonstrates the findings of this analysis.

Table 29. *One way ANOVA according to perceived parental encouragement and language proficiency*

	Language Proficiency	N	$\bar{X}$	SD	df	F	p
Perceived Parental Encouragement	A2	30	41,40	5,946	3	14,440	,000
	B1	65	41,38	5,043			
	B2	37	44,84	3,990			
	C1	19	49,79	7,315			
	Total	151	43,29	6,013			

As reported in Table 29, statistically meaningful differences were detected among language proficiency levels ($F(3)=14,440$; $p<.05$). As a further step, to find out which language proficiency levels had differences, a Tukey test was achieved as the following step. Table 30 shows the results of this test.

Table 30. *Tukey Test findings of perceived parental encouragement and language proficiency*

Dependent Variable	(I) Language Proficiency	(J) Language Proficiency	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	p	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Perceived Parental Encouragement Scale	A2	B1	,015	1,178	1,000	-3,05	3,08
		B2	-3,438*	1,311	,047	-6,85	-,03
		C1	-8,389*	1,565	,000	-12,46	-4,32
	B1	A2	-,015	1,178	1,000	-3,08	3,05
		B2	-3,453*	1,099	,011	-6,31	-,60
		C1	-8,405*	1,392	,000	-12,02	-4,79
	B2	A2	3,438*	1,311	,047	,03	6,85
		B1	3,453*	1,099	,011	,60	6,31
		C1	-4,952*	1,507	,007	-8,87	-1,04
	C1	A2	8,389*	1,565	,000	4,32	12,46
		B1	8,405*	1,392	,000	4,79	12,02
		B2	4,952*	1,507	,007	1,04	8,87

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

As demonstrated in Table 30, mean scores were statistically differed between A1-B2 ($p=.047$; $p<.05$), A2-C1($p=.000$; $p<.05$), B1-B2($p=.011$; $p<.05$), and B2-C1($p=.007$; $p<.05$). Based on these differences, C1 ($\bar{X}=49,79$) level students had higher scores in the Perceived Parental Encouragement Scale comparing to A2($\bar{X}=41,40$), B1($\bar{X}=41,38$), and B2($\bar{X}=44,84$) level language learners. Besides that, the scores of B2 learners were found to be higher than B1 and A2 level students.

4.6. Results for Research Question 4#: To what extent are the ambiguity of tolerance and parental encouragement predict WTC in EFL learners?

A Pearson product-moment correlation analysis was carried out to reveal the relationship between the WTC Scale vs. SLTAS and WTC vs. Perceived Parental Encouragement Scale scores. The findings pointed that between the subcategories of the WTC Scale (friend, acquaintance, stranger, dyad, group, meeting, and presentation) and SLTAS (listening, speaking, reading, writing, linguistic development, pronunciation, and grammar), there were weak, moderate and high correlations among the scores. The table below depicts the findings.

Table 31. *Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients between willingness to communicate and tolerance of ambiguity*

		Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing	Lexical Development	Pronunciation	Grammar
Friend	Pearson Correlation	-,224*	,418*	,899*	,754*	,620*	,652*	,661*
	Sig (2-tailed)	,006	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
	N	151	151	151	151	151	151	151
Acquaintance	Pearson Correlation	-,179*	,486*	,842*	,784*	,688*	,609*	,656*
	Sig (2-tailed)	,028	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
	N	151	151	151	151	151	151	151
Stranger	Pearson Correlation	,006	,520*	,691*	,603*	,628*	,604*	,760*
	Sig (2-tailed)	,946	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
	N	151	151	151	151	151	151	151
Dyad	Pearson Correlation	-,064	,387*	,655*	,619*	,821*	,477*	,747*
	Sig (2-tailed)	,436	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
	N	151	151	151	151	151	151	151
Group	Pearson Correlation	-,223*	,356*	,881*	,600*	,388*	,855*	,419*
	Sig (2-tailed)	,006	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
	N	151	151	151	151	151	151	151
Meeting	Pearson Correlation	-,098	,463*	,738*	,723*	,698*	,393*	,743*
	Sig (2-tailed)	,232	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
	N	151	151	151	151	151	151	151
Presentation	Pearson Correlation	,054	,666*	,720*	,731*	,451*	,583*	,562*
	Sig (2-tailed)	,512	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
	N	151	151	151	151	151	151	151

*Correlation is significant at the 0.5 level.

*Correlation coefficients are accepted as weak between (r) 0-,30, moderate between (r) ,31-,70, high between (r) ,71-1,00.

As can be seen above in Table 31, subcategories of WTC Scale had correlations with the subcategories of SLTAS. WTC with a friend had a weak negative correlation with TA in listening ($r=-.224$; $p=.006$), moderate positive with TA in speaking ($r=.418$; $p=.000$), lexical development ($r=.620$; $p=.000$), pronunciation ($r=.652$; $p=.000$) and grammar ($r=.661$; $p=.000$) while high positive with TA in reading ($r=.899$; $p=.000$) and writing ($r=.754$; $p=.000$). Similarly, WTC with an acquaintance had weak negative correlation with TA in listening ($r=-.179$; $p=.028$), moderate positive with TA in speaking ($r=.486$; $p=.000$), lexical development ($r=.688$; $p=.000$), pronunciation ($r=.609$; $p=.000$) and grammar ($r=.609$; $p=.000$) whereas high positive with TA in reading ($r=.842$; $p=.000$) and writing ($r=.784$; $p=.000$). On the other hand; subcategory of WTC with a stranger had no correlation with TA in listening ($r=.006$; $p=.946$), moderate positive with TA in speaking ($r=.520$; $p=.000$), reading ($r=.5691$; $p=.000$), writing ($r=.603$; $p=.000$), pronunciation ($r=.628$; $p=.000$), and lexical development ($r=.628$; $p=.000$) whereas high positive with grammar ($r=.760$; $p=.000$). Subcategory of WTC in dyads had no correlation with TA in listening ($r=-.604$; $p=.436$), moderate positive with TA in speaking ($r=.387$; $p=.000$), reading ($r=.655$; $p=.000$), writing ($r=.619$; $p=.000$) and pronunciation ($r=.477$; $p=.000$), while high positive with TA in grammar ($r=.747$; $p=.000$) and lexical development ($r=.821$; $p=.000$). WTC in small groups scores had a negative weak correlation with listening ($r=-.223$; $p=.006$), moderate positive with speaking ($r=.356$; $p<.05$), writing ($r=.600$; $p=.000$), lexical development ($r=.388$; $p=.000$) and grammar ($r=.419$; $p=.000$), while high positive with reading ($r=.881$; $p=.000$) and pronunciation ($r=.855$; $p=.000$). Subcategory of WTC in meetings had no correlation with TA in listening ($r=-.098$; $p=.232$), moderate positive with TA in speaking ($r=.463$; $p=.000$), pronunciation ($r=.393$; $p=.000$) and lexical development ($r=.698$; $p=.000$) while high positive with TA in reading ($r=.738$; $p=.000$), writing ($r=.723$; $p=.000$) and grammar ($r=.743$; $p=.000$). Lastly, subcategory of WTC in presentations had no correlation with TA in listening ($r=.054$; $p=.512$), moderate with TA in speaking ($r=.666$; $p=.000$), lexical development ($r=.451$; $p=.000$), pronunciation ($r=.583$; $p=.000$) and grammar ($r=.562$; $p=.000$) while it highly correlated TA in reading ($r=.720$; $p=.000$) and writing ($r=.731$; $p=.000$). To sum up what has been found in Pearson product-moment correlation scores, with subcategories of WTC Scale which were friend, acquaintance, stranger, dyad, group, meeting and presentation and subcategories of SLTAS which were TA in speaking,

reading, writing, lexical development, pronunciation and grammar tended to show positive correlations. This implied that an increase in WTC also inferred a rise in TA values. However, TA in listening did not show a positive correlation with WTC.

The relation of the WTC Scale and Perceived Parental Encouragement Scale was investigated in the study to unearth if there were any correlations. To this aim, a Pearson product-moment correlation analysis was utilized. Here are the findings:

Table 32. *Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients between willingness to communicate and perceived parental encouragement*

		Friend	Acquaintance	Stranger	Dyad	Group	Meeting	Presentation
Parental Encouragement Scale	Pearson Correlation	,473*	,438*	,475*	,482*	,338*	,431*	,491*
	Sig (2-tailed)	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000
	N	151	151	151	151	151	151	151

*Correlation is significant at the 0.5 level.

*Correlation coefficients were accepted as weak between (r) 0-,30, moderate between (r) ,31-,70, high between (r) ,71-1,00.

As shown in Table 32 above, subcategories of friend($r=.473$; $p=.000$), acquaintance($r=.438$; $p=.000$), stranger ($r=.475$; $p=.000$), dyad ($r=.482$; $p=.000$), group($r=.338$; $p=.000$), meeting ($r=.431$; $p=.000$) and presentation($r=.491$; $p=.000$) had moderate level positive correlation with Perceived Parental Encouragement Scale. This implied that an increase in perceived parental encouragement also indicated an increase in WTC in English.

4.6.1. Research Question 4.1 # Is ambiguity tolerance related to WTC?

Research question 4.1 intended to reveal whether TA influenced WTC in English. Following this purpose, a multiple linear regression analysis was done to see the influence of SLTAS on the WTC Scale. The findings are displayed in Table 33.

Table 33. *Regression analysis of SLTAS predicting willingness to communicate*

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	p	Model Summary
	B	Std. Error	Beta			
(Constant)	-19,339	2,803		-6,899	,000	
Listening	1,309	,440	,062	2,974	,003	F: 353,165 p: ,000 Sd: 7 r: ,972 r ² : ,945 Adjusted r ² : ,943
Speaking	2,680	,538	,121	4,981	,000	
Reading	3,110	,238	,437	13,071	,000	
Writing	1,925	,329	,166	5,849	,000	
Lexical Development	2,273	,357	,191	6,372	,000	
Pronunciation	2,499	,479	,142	5,219	,000	
Grammar	2,523	,353	,213	7,146	,000	

Dependent Variable: Willingness to communicate

Independent Variables: Grammar, Listening, Pronunciation, Speaking, Writing, Lexical Development, Reading

As shown in Table 33, subcategories of SLTAS (listening, speaking, reading, writing, linguistic development, pronunciation, and grammar) were pointed as independent variables. At the same time, WTC was the dependent variable in regression analysis to unearth if the former predicted the latter. According to the findings, beta coefficient values were $\beta=,062$ in listening; $\beta=,121$ in speaking; $\beta=,437$ in reading; $\beta=,166$ in writing; $\beta=,191$ in lexical development; $\beta=,141$ in pronunciation and $\beta=,213$ in grammar. Namely, it was detected that all beta values were positive which indicated a positive influence. Moreover; based on the p values; it was spotted that TA in listening($p=,000$), speaking ($p=,003$), speaking ($p=,000$), reading ($p=,000$), writing ($p=,000$), lexical development($p=,000$), pronunciation ($p=,000$) and grammar($p=,000$) predicted the WTC meaningfully. The regression analysis results revealed that the correlation coefficient between mean scores of WTC Scale and SLTAS was $r=,972$, and the determination coefficient was r^2 adjusted= $,943$. It was found that %94(r^2 adjusted= $,943$) of a one-unit variation in the dependent variable (WTC) could be explained with the independent variables (listening, speaking, reading, writing, linguistic development, pronunciation, and grammar). Accordingly, TA in listening, speaking, reading, writing, linguistic development, pronunciation, and grammar predicted WTC positively and meaningfully. In this respect, an increase in TA in listening, speaking, reading, writing, linguistic development, pronunciation, and grammar also caused an increase in WTC.

4.6.2. Research Question 4.2 # Is perceived parental encouragement related to WTC?

The last research question in the study aimed to ascertain whether the amount of perceived parental encouragement affected WTC in English. Therefore, a multiple linear regression analysis was done on that account to see if Perceived Parental Encouragement Scale scores predicted WTC of learners. The findings were demonstrated in the table below.

Table 34. *Regression analysis of Perceived Parental Encouragement Scale predicting willingness to communicate*

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	p	Model Summary
	B	Std. Error	Beta			
(Constant)	14,607	9,954		1,468	,144	F: 49,071 p: .000 Sd: 1 r: ,498 r ² : ,248 Adjusted R ² : ,243
Perceived Parental Encouragement Scale	1,595	,228	,498	7,005	,000	

Dependent Variable: Willingness to communicate

Independent Variable: Perceived parental encouragement

As demonstrated in Table 34, WTC was defined as the dependent variable while perceived parental encouragement was the independent variable, and the predictive power of the independent variable was tested through multiple linear regression analysis. The findings indicated that beta coefficient value of the independent variable was positive ($\beta=,498$) which indicated a positive prediction. What is more, the independent variable had a statistically significant influence on the dependent variable ($p=,000$). The correlation coefficient between WTC Scale and the Perceived Parental Encouragement Scale was $r=,498$, and the determination coefficient was r^2 adjusted= $,243$. Moreover, %24(r^2 adjusted= $,243$) of a one-unit change in the dependent variable could be explained with the independent variable. In line with this, it could be commented that perceived parental encouragement predicted WTC positively and meaningfully. In light of this finding, it was found that an increase in perceived parental encouragement also caused an increase in WTC.

4.7. Interview Findings

Several questions are directed to the 16 participants in the interview related to their WTC, TA, and perceived parental encouragement levels in English through structured interviews. In the first section, learners were asked about their choice on which context and receiver they felt more eager to communicate in English and why they were asked. Percentages of the results were provided with selected comments. Later, learners were questioned on the possible factors affecting their WTC in English. At that point, gathered data were explored through inductive content analysis. Creswell's (2013) six steps to analyze qualitative data were followed as a guideline during this process. First, the collected data were transcribed and re-read to reach a general view of the data. Then codes and themes were created based on the findings, while all results were visualized in a table to get a clearer picture. Excerpts from the comments of the participants were also provided. In the second section, learners were asked whether they found tolerating ambiguity more challenging in reading, listening, speaking, writing, vocabulary, pronunciation, or grammar. Again, the same steps were followed to analyze the answers to this question. Finally, in the third section, learners' perception of their parents' encouragement was asked with one question. Again, percentages of the results were provided as well as selected comments of the participants.

4.7.1. Findings Related to Willingness to Communicate in English

4.7.1.1. Context and Receiver Types on Willingness to Communicate in English

Learners were asked about which context they felt more willing to communicate and what the reason was for that. Table 35 demonstrates the distribution of the choice of context types.

Table 35. *WTC according to context types*

Context types	N	Percentage
Dyads	11	68,75
Small groups	4	25
Large meetings	1	6.25
Public presentations	-	-
Total	16	100

According to Table 35, among dyads, small groups, meetings, and presentations, they mostly preferred to communicate within two-person communications. However, 11 out of 16 students, or 68.75 percent of the interviewees, stated that they are more eager to communicate in English when they are in a conversation with someone. 4 students, equal to %25 of the students, indicated they were more willing to talk within a small group whereas one student preferred meetings. Here are some comments of students:

I say dyads because, in bigger groups, more successful students talk more. When I speak with one person, I have more chances to speak and practice. Also, I think it is less stressful as even if I make a mistake, I can quickly move on. That is why; I feel like I speak better in dyads. However, in larger groups, I hesitate while speaking in front of others. I have to plan what I want to say beforehand (S9).

I think a small group is the best among them. I enjoy small group conversations because more ideas come up during the discussions. For example, we sometimes do speaking activities as a group, and even the silent students try to join. It is more serious and realistic. But while taking in dyads, it feels absurd and dull. I mean, it does not feel real. We just pretend to have a conversation (S14).

It does not matter actually, but it feels more intimate to talk with somebody. I can talk about myself more comfortably. Also, a larger group means more people and less chance to talk. It means less time to talk. Sometimes I lose interest while listening to others. Sometimes, until my turn comes, somebody else says what I plan to say. It is annoying (S16).

As seen in the above statements, S9 and S16 indicated that they preferred two-person dialogues and felt more willing to communicate in such conversations. Furthermore, S9 signaled that dyads offered more opportunities to practice English within a less anxiety-provoking context than the more significant number of groups. What is more, S9 indicated that making a mistake while speaking did not feel intimidating in dyads than in larger groups. That is why; he could be more impulsive and bolder to make mistakes which would positively influence their speaking skills. On the other hand, S16 implied a warmer atmosphere while speaking with someone, which motivated her to talk more about herself. Similar to S9, she also complained that there was less chance to practice English in larger groups. Because of that, she felt bored while waiting for her turn.

In contrast with the arguments of S9 and S16, S14 claimed that small group conversations were preferable since it was more enjoyable than larger group talks. Moreover, S14 believed that talking in small groups was more authentic and productive as diverse opinions emerged during the discussions. Meanwhile, interpersonal interaction was senseless and artificial, which lowered enthusiasm to practice speaking skills.

Another question directed to the learners was about the receiver type with whom they felt more willing to interact in English. The table below shows the distribution of the given answers:

Table 36. *WTC according to receiver types*

Receiver types	N	Percentage
Friends	10	62,5
Acquaintances	-	-
Strangers	6	37,5
Total	16	100

As seen in Table 36, among talking with close friends, acquaintances, and strangers, more than half of the students remarked that they felt more willing to communicate with close friends. Moreover, 10 out of 16 students, %62,5 of the total number, felt more comfortable talking English with their friends. Furthermore, the rest six students, who were % 37,5 of the total number, indicated that they were keener on communicating in English with strangers. Excerpts from students' comments are provided below:

I prefer talking with close friends because I do not get nervous when I make a mistake while talking. When I pause, my friend waits for me. We can understand each other by looking at each other's eyes. When I speak with somebody I do not know, it would be more stressful. I will hesitate to talk, thinking if I speak (English) properly (S1).

I say close friends because it is less stressful since I know that he/she is also at my level of proficiency. I mean, I know he is as bad as me. Also, we have more fun together. Even if we make many mistakes, we still keep talking and ignoring our errors (S4).

I think it would be better to talk with strangers because you learn new things from them. I like to meet and talk to foreign people. It is more fun. I believe it is the right way to practice English since while talking with a foreigner, you have to convey your ideas somehow. Of course, it is not comparable to chatting with friends and acquaintances because

they do not feel real. Therefore, I do not think it (talking with friends and acquaintances) contributes to my English (S12).

As the abovementioned sentences indicate, S1 and S4 said they felt less anxious while communicating in English with their close friends. Making mistakes while speaking English with a friend, according to S1, was not a problem, and the intimacy between S1 and her friend reduced her stress. However, she believed that talking with a stranger would make her suspicious about the correctness of her speaking. Similarly, S4 expressed that he was more willing to communicate with a close friend as it was more stress-free. Moreover, he thought that he and his friend had a more or less equal level of language proficiency which lessened his stress about making mistakes while talking.

Contrary to S1 and S4, S12 defended that communicating with a stranger was more entertaining and fruitful. These were because she considered that it would be helpful for her to improve her proficiency in speaking. Furthermore, she attributed why she preferred talking to strangers in English to the authenticity of the interaction that she could not find while communicating with friends or acquaintances.

4.7.1.2. Factors affecting Turkish EFL Learners' Willingness to Communicate in English

The interviewees were asked about the conditions in which they felt more or less willing to communicate in English. According to the obtained results, coding was achieved, and the data were categorized and gathered under different thematic categories. Table 37 demonstrates the themes and types.

Table 37. Possible factors affecting Turkish EFL learners' WTC in English

Theme	Categories	N
Linguistic factors	Vocabulary knowledge	5 (S3,S6,S7,S9,S15)
	Pronunciation	3 (S8,S10,S12)
	Accent	3 (S13,S15,S16)
	L1 interference	2 (S10,S15)
	Previous experience	1 (S14)
Affective factors	Motivation	8 (S3,S5,S7,S8,S10,S12,S15,S16)
	L2 anxiety	3 (S2,S4,S13)
	Fear of making mistakes	2 (S2,S5)

Contextual factors	Classmates	6 (S1,S6,S11,S14,S16)
	Topic	1 (S1)
	Activity	1 (S6)
SPCC		6 (S5,S7,S11,S13,S14,S15,S16)
Individual factors	Personality	1 (S4)
Total		42

Table 37 (Continued)

(Students may have chosen more than one factor.)

As shown in Table 37, students mentioned the affecting elements on their WTC: linguistic, affective, contextual, and individual factors. Moreover, results showed that among other features, linguistic factors were the ones mentioned most by the participants on their readiness to communicate in English. Since 14 out of 16 students underlined the impact of linguistic factors such as vocabulary knowledge (n=5), pronunciation (n=3), accent (n=3), L1 interference (n=2), and previous experience (n=1), on their WTC in English. Some excerpts relating to vocabulary knowledge were provided below:

I learn a word but can not remember it while speaking. For example, when the teacher asks a question, I have to stop and piece all the necessary words together in my mind. I mean, I can not answer quickly cause I look for the word I want to use. This situation makes me lose time. One more thing is that I think my vocabulary knowledge is not enough, and I can not use some words in a sentence. In fact, we learn them in lessons, but I can not remember while speaking (S6).

Sometimes I think that I do not have enough vocabulary to speak properly. While speaking in English, I have to stop to find the word I am looking for. It is so frustrating. That is because; I can not be fluent while speaking. Actually, if I see them while reading, I can remember easily, but speaking is something else. You have to be quick and plan what you intend to say (S9).

As a negative thing, sometimes, even if I know the necessary vocabulary, I can not even use it in simple sentences. I do not know why but I can not remember. I get anxious while trying to find the exact word I am looking for. I guess I am not really learning vocabulary, or else I should be able to use them properly. We learn new words every day, but

if I can not use them properly, then it means nothing. I guess I am a little impatient about using newly learned vocabulary, but I know that it takes time. I think you have to run into a new word constantly until you are able to use it (S15).

As can be seen above, all three students (S6, S9, and S15) were concerned about their vocabulary knowledge on their enthusiasm to communicate more in English. All three indicated that they needed more time to recall a word, and eventually, such loss of time made them feel distressed during communication. Moreover, S6 attributed vocabulary-related problems to the reason that she did not have immense vocabulary knowledge. Similarly, S9 remarked that even if he recognized a learned vocabulary through reading, it was challenging to convey it to speaking. Also, he thought that planning to collect thoughts and necessary vocabulary before speaking was essential, which prevented him from being more fluent in speaking. S15, on the other hand, expressed the stress while trying to recall the necessary vocabulary for speaking. In addition, he felt being unsuccessful at learning vocabulary because he failed to use them in speaking. Besides all, he underlined that the solution to this problem might be being exposed to new vocabulary. The influence of pronunciation was mentioned and discussed below:

Some words are so difficult to pronounce. I do not want to use them. I can understand them when I come across them in reading or listening. But for speaking, I try to choose easier words. I mean shorter and more familiar ones. Sometimes, I use it when I hear the pronunciation of a difficult word, but after some time, I forget how it was (S8).

I hate that English is not pronounced as written because I confuse about what letter should be pronounced and what should not. It is not as simple as Turkish. Besides, I get so irritated if somebody corrects my pronunciation while speaking. That is why; I just keep away from annoying words (S10).

...But sometimes, I do not trust my pronunciation. It is one of the problems I have to deal with. As I learned the pronunciation of some words wrongly in the past, I think I can not fix them. I think it affects me negatively while speaking. But I do my best to correct it with some practices like watching films or series with English subtitles as well as practicing on my own (S12).

As a sub-category of linguistic factors, pronunciation is mentioned by 3 participants as a determinant of their WTC in English. According to S8, S10, and

S12, pronunciation is complex, and it builds a barrier to communicating more. For example, as can be seen above, S8 possessed a negative attitude to the words that were hard to pronounce for him. Upon this problem, he came up with a solution of preferring less complex and shorter vocabulary. Besides, he mentioned that he kept forgetting the pronunciation of some vocabulary after some time. S10 complained about the differences of L2 with his mother tongue. He compared Turkish with English on the articulation of words and found it frustrating due to the differences. These were because he had difficulties due to the difference between written and spoken language in English. Apart from the two, S12 complained about fossilized pronunciation errors, which gave her a hard time pronunciation. However, he signaled that he was trying some procedures to overcome this problem. The following comments below represent the influence of accent on WTC.

As a positive factor, I believe my accent is good. I like to hear myself while speaking. This makes me want to talk more. That is why; I like to practice on my own. I did many things to have a decent accent, such as watching or listening to stuff in English. Unconsciously, you remember their talking and get it. I mean, this could be a reason for my willingness to communicate in English (S13).

.... And my accent is good. It is a plus for me. I think it affects my fluency too because when you hear yourself talking and if it is good, you feel like talking more. (S15).

I am confident about my English skills. I am more proficient than most of my classmates, and I find my accent good. I do many things to make my accent better. I participate in lessons more. So, I am willing to speak English. I think it affects each other like when you talk more, your accent gets better and better. And when your accent is better, you want to talk more to make it even better (S16).

Three of the students (S13, S15, S16) remarked that their accents were good, encouraging them to speak more in English. S13 mentioned that he enjoyed hearing his accent. Furthermore, he talked about some practices affecting his accent. Similarly, S15 found his accent good and believed that WTC and accent were connected. S16 also emphasizes the relation of accent and WTC. Some comments of the students on WTC related to pronunciation, L1 interference, and previous experience can be seen below:

Before speaking, I try to make a sentence in my mind, but I form my thoughts in Turkish. I can not translate it into English. It takes too much time. I have to plan, but impromptu speech is way more difficult. When the teacher asks something, I automatically think in Turkish and then try to translate it in my mind. This, of course, causes a loss of time (S10).

As a negative effect, I can say that sometimes translating a sentence in mind is frustrating. It is difficult to think in English. I mean, I can not translate a sentence from Turkish to English properly. That is why; I can not feel like I say what I intend to say. This really affects my willingness (S13).

Two participants in the interview indicated that they were negatively affected by Turkish interference while speaking English. For example, S10 underlined that he needed more time to translate what he wanted to say in his mind from Turkish to English. Such a process caused him to slow down and lose time for more communication. Meanwhile, S13 commented on the complication of transferring ideas from L1 to L2. Also, he thought that he failed to convey his thoughts as he wanted. Finally, a comment about the influence of learners' previous experience on WTC was given below:

I am always willing to speak in English. Since I learn English for so many years, I think I have a good level of English. Besides, I watch films, series, listen to foreign music, which is why I believe my English speaking skills are fine. I have been abroad, too. At there, I motivated myself to meet foreigners. Therefore, I can say that I am willing to communicate in English. I like to improve my English all the time (S14).

As can be seen above, S14 stated that thanks to his previous experience with the target language, he gained an advantage in speaking, which motivated him to communicate in English more.

As being the second most mentioned category, affective factors were another element that influenced learners' willingness to interact in L2 (n=13). The factors such as motivation (n=8), L2 anxiety (n=3), fear of making mistakes (n=2) were pointed out by the students. Some selected excerpts from the answers of the interviewees related to motivation are given below:

I am thinking about joining the Erasmus program. That is why; I want to have a good level of English till I go. I mean, I should be fluent in English as soon as possible. Even

the thought of having foreign friends, traveling around the world gets me so excited. Also, I like to use English out of class. I mean, for example, I listen to foreign music, watch movies and series with English subtitles. I have some foreign friends, too. All these increase my willingness to speak English (S5).

I always have a problem with speaking in English. I sometimes feel desperate as I learn it for years, but I feel like I will never be so good at speaking English. After all, I think that I am not a good language learner, or I do not know maybe I should have put more effort. At that point, I just want to pass prep school and my lessons at my department (S7).

I do not have a problem about willingness to communicate in English. I know that if we have a good level of English, we will not have trouble when we start our department. For example, we will be more relaxed while doing a presentation, answering a lecturer's question, and doing assignments. Also, of course, it will affect my future career. If your language is good, then many more opportunities show up (S12).

As the comments mentioned earlier indicate, S5 and S12 felt internally and externally motivated to communicate in English, while S7 seemed distracted in his language learning process. S5 signaled that she was aware of the importance of having a good level of speaking skills. Moreover, she felt eager to use the target language for their plans. Besides, some practices to increase speaking proficiency were explained by her. In a similar vein, S12 underlined the benefit of having a good level in speaking for her academic life and career. On the other hand, however, S7 portrayed a negative attitude for communicating in English and showed low motivation for WTC. Some excerpts relating to anxiety were given below:

Sometimes, even if I know the answer, I do not raise my hand. I do not know why but I feel so stressed. My heart starts to beat so fast, and my voice vibrates. I can not control it. This is definitely a big problem affecting my willingness to communicate while talking English. I mean, I know that I am not that bad at other skills like reading and writing, but speaking is always a challenge for me. (S1).

Also, I do not like the moment when the teacher addresses a question, and everyone stares at me. It is so annoying, and I get nervous. I can not get over my nervousness in any way. At that moment, my mind goes blank, and I think like I do not know any English. That is why; I have to get over my anxiety somehow (S4).

When the lecturer asks a question, my classmates generally get stressed and abstain from raising hands. But I am confident about my English skills. I am more willing to speak compared to them. I do not feel nervous while speaking. This is a positive thing that affects my willingness (S13).

As seen in the statements above, anxiety was mentioned as an influencing factor on the WTC of learners. For example, S2 experienced difficulty controlling her anxiety, and such uncontrollable stress discouraged her from communicating more in the target language. Due to her anxiety, instead of making a mistake while speaking in English, she preferred to remain silent. S4 also underlined the stress of handling pressure during the speaking. Because of such anxiety, he could not remember the necessary knowledge of English to maintain a conversation.

On the other hand, S13 indicated that the negative impact of anxiety did not influence him. Comparing to his friends, he did not feel intimidated by the pressure of speaking and felt more willing to communicate. Comments of students related to fear of making mistakes were provided below:

From time to time, I get frozen while speaking in English. I try hard to find the correct words, but I am afraid to tell something wrong. Of course, it is a bit nonsense to dwell on this because I know we all can make mistakes. However, it affects my willingness, I guess. The more I make mistakes while talking, the less willing I feel to continue (S2).

...But sometimes, I feel down because it is okay to form a sentence in my mind, but the moment I start to talk, I forget whatever I have planned in my mind. I keep silent for a while as I do not want to make a mistake. I think it affects my willingness while speaking (S5).

Fear of making mistakes is another sub-category of affective factors mentioned by 2 of the participants as the determinant of their WTC in English. As understood from the comments above, both S2 and S5 felt less willing to talk in the target language as they were afraid to make mistakes. S2 pointed out that making mistakes lowered her enthusiasm for communicating more, so she suffered from the idea of making mistakes. In addition, S5 commented that she abstained from saying something wrong and needed more time to pick up her thoughts which kept her from communicating more.

Environmental parameters expressed by the participants were collected under the title of contextual factors (n=8). According to the interview results, three sub-categories were detected: classmates (n=6), topic (n=1) and activity (n=1). Some selected comments from the answers are provided below:

Our lecturer sometimes creates pairs or groups for activities. If my groupmates are just like me, it is fine. But if they are better than me, I am less willing to talk. I just let them do the whole work. It is a little frustrating because I get nervous. Also, I feel that I do not have enough chance to practice my English. This definitely lowers my willingness. It is because the less I talk, the less I practice what I have learned (S2).

...Some in my class speaks English very well. I do not think my English is that well. Most of the time, I hesitate to raise my hand, and I choose to remain silent. I do not think I can reach their level. When I see them speaking so well, my willingness (to communicate) decreases (S11).

...Also, when the lecturer asks a question, my classmates generally get stressed and abstain from raising hands. But I am confident about my English skills. I am more proficient than most of my classmates, and I find my accent good... I participate in lessons more. So, I am willing to speak English. I do not feel nervous while speaking. This is a positive thing that affects my willingness. However, sometimes, my classmates do not participate in the lesson actively. Then I am negatively affected because I do not want to participate either. But when we are active, I enjoy speaking more (S16).

6 out of 16 students in the interview indicated that their classmates impacted their excitement to communicate in English. More clearly, the participants mentioned that their classmates' proficiency levels influenced them in English. For example, S1 and S11 were intimidated by their more proficient classmates. S1 indicated that she stepped back during speaking activities and remained silent. However, at the same time, she felt uncomfortable about not getting enough chance to practice her speaking skills. S11 felt disturbed by higher proficient classmates in a similar vein, which lowered his willingness for communication.

On the other hand, S16 felt his speaking skills superior to others in the class, increasing her WTC. Moreover, he underlined that his WTC was affected by classmates since their level of WTC in class discussions sometimes motivated or

demoralized him to speak more. Other contextual factors such as topic and activity were mentioned in the comments below:

I think what we focus on during a lesson is very important. For example, what is the topic that day? If it is something interesting, we all are more engaged in the lesson that day. I think that is a factor in willingness to communicate. That is because we all have something to say about it. However, sometimes, a topic does not interest me at all, and I just can not think of anything to say (S1).

...Another point is that sometimes, we have entertaining activities in class like role-playing. The teacher distributes some roles, and we discuss them from different perspectives. Or, sometimes, we discuss current events. Then, it is more fun, and I feel more willing to communicate. I think it is more real. (S6).

As can be seen above, being the subcategories of contextual factors, topic (n=1) and activity (n=1) were mentioned by the student as influencing factors on their WTC. For instance, S1 addressed the topic as a determinant of her enthusiasm to speak in English. She claimed that subjects that were more familiar or interesting motivated her to communicate more. On the other hand, S6 specified that the type of activity influenced his WTC in English. The following excerpts about students' perception about their communicative competence were given below:

I always have a problem with speaking in English. I sometimes feel desperate as I learn it for years, but I feel like I will never be so good at speaking English. After all, I think that I am not a good language learner, or I do not know maybe I should have put more effort. At that point, I just want to pass prep school and my lessons at my department (S7).

I am always willing to speak in English. Since I learn English for so many years, I think I have a good level of English. Besides, I watch films, series, listen to foreign music, which is why I believe my English speaking skills are fine. I have been abroad, too. At there, I motivated myself to meet foreigners. Therefore, I can say that I am willing to communicate in English. I like to improve my English all the time (S14).

I am confident about my English skills. I am more proficient than most of my classmates, and I find my accent good... I participate in lessons more. So, I am willing to speak English... I do not feel nervous while speaking. This is a positive thing that affects my willingness. So, maybe the confidence in yourself makes you more willing to talk more (S16).

SPCC was another variable that was perceived as an element influencing the WTC of the students. For example, 6 out of 16 students remarked that their proficiency in English influenced their eagerness to communicate. Based on the comments above, it was seen that S7 was insecure about her oral proficiency skills, which negatively affected her further advancement in EFL learning as well as lowered his enthusiasm to communicate in the target language. On the other hand, S14 and S16 portrayed a higher perception of their competence in speaking. S14 indicated that his learning experience for many years and his interest in the English language increased her SPCC. Thus, he felt more willing to initiate communication in the L2 context. Besides, S16 asserted that he felt more proficient compared to his classmates. Moreover, he underlined that being confident about one's proficiency might be the key point in increasing WTC. One comment of a learner related to personality as a possible influencing factor of WTC was provided below:

I am a shy person. I know myself that I do not prefer to be at the forefront. I am not even talkative in Turkish, so it is the same in English, too, or even worse. I do not like the moments when I do presentations or when it is my turn to speak in class. I am aware that this affects my English. I should be braver to speak more (S4).

Lastly, personality as an individual factor was pointed out by one learner as a possible determinant of readiness to communicate in English. S4 expressed the influence of his character on the aspiration to talk in English. As seen in the comment above, she blamed her timid nature on her unwillingness to communicate in L1 and L2.

4.7.2. Findings Related to Tolerance of Ambiguity

Based on the SLTAS subcategories, interviewees were asked about which subcategories or categories (reading, listening, writing, speaking, grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation) they found more difficult to tolerate ambiguity. Table 38 demonstrates the content analysis findings of categories and possible reasons for intolerance of ambiguity in English.

Table 38. *Categories and Possible Causes of Turkish EFL Learners' TA problems in English*

Categories	Reasons	N
Grammar	Difficult to remember	5 (S2,S7,S11,S13,S14)
	L1 interference	1 (S1)
Speaking	Difficulty in expressing thoughts	2 (S7, S12)
	Not having enough time	1 (S5)
	Fear of making mistakes	1 (S10)
	The difficulty of combining different elements	1 (S2)
	Lack of practice	1 (S3)
Pronunciation	Being uncertain about the correctness	3 (S8, S12, S16)
	Lack of practice	1 (S3)
	Fear of making mistakes	1 (S10)
Lexical Development	Difficult to keep in mind	3 (S1, S7, S9)
	Being uncertain about the meaning	2 (S6, S12)
Listening		3 (S4,S11,S15)
	Difficult to follow	2 (S4,S7)
	Being uncertain about the correctness	
Writing	Difficult to express thoughts	2 (S6, S16)
Reading	Difficult to making inference	1 (S5)
Total		30

(One student may have chosen more than one factor.)

As can be seen in Table 38, based on subcategories of SLTAS, learners indicated the challenges they experienced while handling ambiguity during English learning. Some excerpts related to intolerance to ambiguity in grammar were provided below:

I find grammar more challenging since English grammar is different from the Turkish one, and some structures do not exist in Turkish. It is confusing. I think if the two languages were more similar, it would be much easier to handle uncertainties. For example, in Turkish, we form a time expression by adding to the verb of a sentence, but in English, there are small structures together with the verb. (S1).

One challenging area for me is grammar since I know that it slows me down. I mean, I could be faster in English but I get stuck thinking about the correct usage of a grammar form. And also, I kind of hate phrasal verbs since whenever I need them, I can not

remember the right one. For example, get in, get at, get by. I have to memorize them all (S11).

Grammar is definitely a more challenging area for me. This is because I can not easily remember the correct grammar forms. When I read a text or try to write, I may easily confuse some structures. I can not be sure if I use a grammar structure correctly or not (S14).

Selected comments indicated above; grammar was stated by 6 out of 16 students as a compelling area to deal with ambiguity. According to them, coping with ambiguity was hard in L2 grammar since it was a problem to keep grammar rules in mind (n=5), and the intervention of L1 grammar rules confused them (n=1). For example, S1 found it challenging to make sense of some grammar structures in English because of the differences between Turkish and English. That is why; she had problems handling the ambiguity in grammar. For example, the appropriate use of auxiliary verbs was challenging for her. Meanwhile, S11 complained about the interference of grammar affecting his fluency in the target language. Also, he indicated the difficulty of remembering phrasal verbs. On the other hand, S14 indicated grammar as the most challenging feature since he had trouble keeping them in mind and had confusion when encountered. The following statements relating to TA in speaking were provided below:

I would say speaking because it requires you to do many things at once. I mean, you have to put everything you have learned into your speaking, like collecting your thoughts, choosing the correct vocabulary, and so on. And when you are stuck at some point, it is, I think, the most challenging skill to cope with the problems (S2).

I think all of them are challenging to handle ambiguity, but I would say the most challenging is speaking because there is no time to solve the ambiguity. I mean, within a conversation, you have to listen to the person you are talking to and then answer back. So, solving any problems would be more difficult. Besides, if you hesitate so much to solve the unknown or ambiguous in speaking, it gets more and more annoying (S5).

As one of the most challenging abilities to embrace ambiguity in English language learning, speaking was mentioned by 6 out of 16 students in the interview. Moreover, they attributed their intolerance to the difficulty of expressing thoughts (n=2), not having enough time to deal with ambiguity (n=1), fear of making mistakes (n=1), the difficulty of combining different elements (n=1) and lack of practice (n=1).

=1). For instance, S2 commented that handling ambiguity was challenging in speaking since it involved multiple tasks. Namely, TA in speaking required the use of all the knowledge in the target language. On the other hand, S5 complained that speaking was a demanding skill, and thus, there was limited time to cope with ambiguity in speaking. Some comments of learners related to handling ambiguity in pronunciation were presented below:

Pronunciation is also challenging for handling ambiguity for me. It is because sometimes I can not be about the correctness of my pronunciation. For example, before saying a word, I get suspicious about its pronouncing and ask myself: should I pronounce it in this way or the other way? If I am not sure which one to choose, then I do not use it. I prefer using less complex words. I have nothing else to do (S3).

When it comes to pronunciation, I think some words are very hard to pronounce. I mean, it is hard for me. Or, I keep forgetting that some letters are not supposed to be pronounced. That is maybe because of that I need more practice. It is certain that if I have more chances to practice, then I would not have insecurities about my pronunciation (S10).

Pronunciation was underlined by five students as challenging abilities to handle ambiguity. Some students mentioned that they had doubts about the accuracy of their pronunciation (n=3), they felt a need for practice (n=1), and they were afraid to make mistakes (n=1). For example, S3 signaled that ambiguities in pronunciation caused her to have dilemmas about the correct way. Furthermore, when she felt suspicious about the correctness of her pronunciation, she abstained from using more sophisticated words. Meanwhile, S10 signaled that he felt inadequate about practice which made it challenging to handle pronunciation. Selected comments about TA in lexical development were displayed below:

...Also I say that vocabulary is difficult for me because it is my missing point. I do not always trust my vocabulary. I know that because I experience some problems while learning English. For example, while reading something, when I confront a word I do not know or am unsure about, I have to stop and think about it. I get undecided about the meaning. Then, I lose time thinking about what it could mean (S6).

For me, one of them is vocabulary because, in every skill, I need enough vocabulary to solve the ambiguity like in speaking, reading, etc. Unknown or ambiguous words are tiring because I have to check the dictionary all the time. I wish to keep all in mind. Sometimes, I

get angry with myself when I check the dictionary for a word and notice that it is something I already know (S9).

Lexical development was another issue explained by the students in TA in L2 learning (n=5). According to some learners, it was challenging to tolerate ambiguity in vocabulary as it was too demanding to store target language vocabulary in mind (n=3). For example, S9 commented that he attributed his experienced problems in handling TA in vocabulary to weak vocabulary knowledge. Because of this, he felt the need to check the dictionary again and again, which frustrated him. Moreover, some others indicated that they had concerns about the meaning of a vocabulary (n=2). For example, based on the comment of S6, it was detected that she found it struggling to be sure about the correct definition for a word, which was time-consuming. Some excerpts related to the challenges of tolerating ambiguity in listening were demonstrated below:

Listening is the most difficult for me as it is sometimes so fast. I miss many words, and I feel the need to listen again. I can not be sure about what I listen to. Sometimes, I get stuck with a word I do not know and can not focus on the rest of the listening. I get nervous, thinking that maybe the words I can not figure out are the most critical ones. It is like once you miss the point, you miss the rest (S4).

Listening is more challenging for me because you have to handle the situation quickly. If you miss the point, you may not be able to understand the necessary information. And if there is no chance to listen again, it is impossible to fill in the missing points (S11).

Listening was claimed to be a feature in which handling ambiguity was more complex by five students. For example, during listening to something in the target language, the students had trouble following, losing interest, and missing the rest of the listening (n=3). Besides, it was mentioned that it was difficult to be sure about the correctness of what was heard (n=1). For instance, S4 pointed that he was doubtful about what he gets from a listening part while it was also problematic for him to catch the necessary words. S11 remarked similar problems on seeing the idea of a listening context. Selected comments about TA in listening were given below:

Writing is challenging for me as I have to put my thoughts into sentences. I have to use whatever I know in English. However, it is difficult for me as my mind gets all jumped

up with everything I know. Then I even forget what I know. That is why; I have a hard time finding the correct way to express myself (S6).

Another difficult skill I have trouble with unknown or ambiguous things is writing. I sometimes get stuck like a blank paper in front of me. My mind gets all confused. I think to myself about what words, grammar structures I should use, how I should form sentences. All these waste my time. After writing, I think that I can not put my exact thoughts onto paper (S16).

As depicted in the comments above, two students remarked on their concerns about tolerating ambiguity in writing. Both signified that it was difficult to write what they intended to write in the target language. S6 implied the challenge of controlling his thoughts to writing correctly. Furthermore, such confusion in his mind made him anxious, and he forgot the necessary knowledge. In a similar vein, S16 indicated TA in listening was too demanding to cope. He believed that planning of the writing something possessed many ambiguities to tolerate.

Reading is a real challenge for me. It is because sometimes, no matter how much I read a part, I can not figure out what the main idea is. Then, the more I read, the more I get confused and frustrated. Also, as I keep re-reading, I understand differently. At some point, I lose interest (S5).

Lastly, one student (S5) complained about the difficulty of making inferences while reading. She tried to overcome ambiguity by reading again. However, it decreased her tolerance which turned to frustration.

4.7.3. Findings Related to Perceived Parental Encouragement

In the last section, learners were asked if their parents give enough encouragement to their learning English. 11 out of 16 students indicated that they feel the positive support of their parents, while 5 stated the opposite. Some statements of the students were given below:

Yes, they know that my department has courses in English. So, I should be good at it. They time to time call and ask about my progress. This makes me happy. Actually, I feel their support since the first day of my school life. Since then, they are always interested in my lessons as well as my progress in English. Thanks to them, I took a private English course when I was in high school (S12).

Yes, they encourage me all the time. They ask about my lessons, and also they know that English is necessary for my future job. One more thing is that they feel happy about my interest in English. For instance, I went abroad, and they supported me then (S14).

As can be seen in the selected excerpts above, S7 was pleased with her parents' attention during her EFL learning. Moreover, she was also glad that the encouragement of his parents continued for all her academic life. On the other hand, S14 was happy that his parents were aware of the importance of English for her future life. In addition, he mentioned that his enthusiasm for learning English was noticed and supported by his parents out of school.



CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

5.1. Presentation

This chapter is designed to present the discussion of the findings of the current study. Both qualitative and quantitative findings were discussed by providing data from the other relevant studies.

5.2. Turkish EFL Learners' Level of Willingness to Communicate in English

The primary research question in this study aimed to explore the degree of Turkish EFL learners' WTC. With this object in mind, descriptive statistics of 12 WTC items in the WTC Scale (McCroskey, 1992) were calculated. Quantitative results indicated that the students in this study felt willing to interact in English. This finding of the current research seems to be in line with the previous studies carried out on WTC (Öz, Demirezen, & Pourfeiz, 2014; Chiang, 2016; Altın, 2017; Öksüz Zerey, 2017; Kurt, 2019; Çürük, 2019). In addition, Şener (2014) studied with EFL learners at a state university in Turkey and found that they had WTC scores between moderate to high both inside and outside the class. However, there are studies with Turkish EFL learners that have detected moderate (Bektaş-Çetinkaya, 2005; Başöz, 2015; Hişmanoğlu & Özüdoğru, 2017; Başöz, 2018; Sak, 2020) and low (Alishah, 2015; Asmalı, Bilki, & Duban, 2015) levels of WTC.

To get a further thought about influencing factors of L2 WTC, the students who participated in the interviews were asked about the possible factors on their WTC in English. The results showed that the learners' enthusiasm to speak in English was affected by linguistic, affective, contextual, individual factors, and SPCC. They were influenced mainly by linguistic reasons such as vocabulary knowledge, pronunciation, accent, L1 interference, and previous experience. As influential factors, motivation, anxiety, fear of making mistakes were mentioned by

the participants. Contextual factors, which were classmates, topic, and activity, were also indicated as the influencing factors. Self-evaluation of communicative competence was also mentioned as a determinant factor on WTC by the learners. Apart from these, one individual aspect, personality, was also underlined as a determinant of the WTC in English.

MacIntyre and his colleagues (1998) stated that L2 WTC is affected by multiple factors. Their pyramid-shaped model collects these influences affecting L2 use under the titles of two elements: situational and enduring influences. While situational influences represent momentary aspects in a conversation such as communication behavior and behavioral intention, enduring influences imply constant features that are invariable in almost all talks, such as motivational propensities and affective-cognitive context, shaping an individual's L2 use. Similarly, the students in the current study indicated that their willingness to interact in English was affected by both situational influences such as classmates, activity, and enduring influences such as personality and SPCC.

Similar findings were also detected in the study of Başöz (2018). A mixed-methods sequential explanatory research was conducted with Turkish EFL learners. In the quantitative part, it was found that learners in the study had a moderate level of WTC both inside and outside the class. Furthermore, in the qualitative section of the study, it was uncovered that learners were influenced by factors such as affective factors, linguistic elements, SPCC, personality, language classroom context, ideal L2 self, etc. In the same manner, Kanat Mutluoğlu (2020) investigated the possible effectors of WTC through semi-structured interviews. Based on the learners' comments, personal variances, learning context, and affective elements determined the levels of WTC in L2.

WTC Scale (McCroskey, 1992) used in this study had two subcategories that aimed to investigate WTC in diverse contexts and with different receiver types. According to the findings, it was revealed that there were statistically significant differences between the scores of WTC in different contexts. According to the results, L2 WTC scores among four different contexts, which were dyad, group, meeting, and presentation, the dyad received the highest mean scores of WTC. In addition, WTC in the small group was second, the meeting was third, and the public received the least WTC scores. It shows that learners were more willing to talk in person-to-person conversations while less inclined to communicate in larger groups.

The result has also been validated by previous empirical research (Barjesteh, Vaseghi, & Neissi, 2012; Şener, 2014; Bulut, 2017; Barlas, 2019; Öksüz Zerey, 2017; Özdemir, 2019). Accordingly, the students chose person-to-person and smaller group conversations comparing to larger groups.

To get a deeper understanding of the reasons for the context choices of learners, the researcher asked about the degrees of willingness to interact in English in diverse contexts such as dyad, small group, meeting, and presentation in the interview. Similar to the quantitative findings, the majority of the participants in the interview indicated that they were more eager to communicate in dyads. Similarly, Bektaş-Çetinkaya (2005) concluded in her study that learners preferred to talk more in groups and dyads with their friends rather than doing a presentation in front of a larger group. One reason for that may be related to the number of people in a conversation, as the more crowded the group is, the more risk of negative judgment the students perceive. Moreover, learners may feel that they have less chance to communicate in English and get intimidated by other classmates' proficiency levels (Başöz & Erten, 2019). According to Pawlak and Mystkowska-Wiertelak (2015), students with Advanced level of proficiency in the target language may control a group conversation and discourage others. The signs of this discouragement are also present in the current study. For example, some students in the current study indicated that they would shy away from letting others do the talking when they were in a group with more successful students. Moreover, some commented that they were more willing to communicate in dyads as they felt they were in the shadow of more successful students in larger groups. Apart from that, the frequency of communication may be another compelling factor in the desire to interact in English. For example, talking with a friend occurs more often than doing a presentation in front of the class, which may be less common and more intimidating. All in all, it is possible to say that learners' WTC in L2 is affected by the population of a context.

Mixed results concerning the context and WTC were found in various studies. For example, Asmalı et al. (2015) detected that learners who had the highest willingness while communicating in small groups while meeting received the least WTC scores. In another study, Bergil (2016) found the highest WTC levels for small group and meeting settings. Moreover, in the Iranian context, Khatibi and Zakeri (2014) noticed that EFL learners were most willing to communicate within group discussions and meetings. In addition, Leger and Storch (2009) found that learners

preferred larger groups comparing to smaller groups for L2 conversation in the Australian context. The students' comments indicated that they perceived larger group conversations as more authentic. Based on these results, it can be commented that the choice of context may vary from learner to learner, and more research is needed to reach a straight answer.

In the study, when L2 WTC was considered according to receiver types (friend, acquaintance, and stranger), the students were found to be most willing while talking to a friend and least willing while talking to a stranger. Thus, it indicates that learners in this study portrayed diverse L2 willingness to interact while communicating with someone familiar and unknown. Moreover, social intimacy increased learners' desire to enter a conversation in English. This result was in line with several studies in the related literature (Kim, 2004; Yang, 2015; Pawlak, Mystkowska-Wiertelak, & Bielak, 2016; Bulut, 2017; Barlas, 2019; Bursalı, 2019); Kurt, 2019. What is more, interview participants were also questioned about the choice of receiver types they felt more willing to speak in L2. Accordingly, among close friends, acquaintances, and strangers, most students specified that they were more enthusiastic about communicating in English with their close friends. Moreover, some students commented that they felt less stressed in such conversations. In a similar vein, Bektaş-Çetinkaya (2005) detected that talking with a stranger was the most anxiety-provoking context for EFL learners.

Şener (2014) and Asmalı (2015) detected in their studies that learners had higher SPCC when talking to a friend and acquaintance. Barlas (2019) confirmed that EFL learners enjoyed interacting with a friend in person rather than doing a presentation facing a crowded group of strangers. In another study, Pawlak, Mystkowska-Wiertelak, and Bielak (2016) found that Polish EFL learners were more willing to talk with friends and acquaintances within small groups or in dyads on individual experiences. Similarly, Khatibi and Zakeri (2014) studied WTC in English levels of Iranian EFL learners with different receivers and contexts. Their results showed that the learners were most willing to talk with friends while least willing with a stranger. Moreover, they were eager to speak within a group discussion and meeting rather than in a presentation. Building on this, the researchers commented that familiarity in both context and receiver types was crucial in determining a learners' willingness to initiate a conversation in English. All these findings prove that proximity with the interlocutor is a determinant in learners' L2 WTC.

The results of this study contradict the findings of Baran-Lucarz (2014). In that study, the researcher studied with 151 Polish EFL learners to determine if group size and degree of intimacy with interlocutors had an effect on L2 WTC and pronunciation anxiety. To this aim, both qualitative and quantitative instruments were applied to collect data. Based on the findings, it was discovered that learners had less pronunciation anxiety while talking with a stranger compared to talking with a friend and an acquaintance. Given this, the researcher commented that learners might feel that they were constantly evaluated by people around them. As a result, they experienced a fear of being embarrassed in front of others. However, talking with a stranger was seen as a less anxious situation. Meanwhile, it should be noted that 4 out of 16 participants in the current study stated that they were more willing to communicate with strangers. Two of the students, S12 and S13, thought that interacting with an unknown person was more authentic than in-class activities. S9 and S14 indicated that it was more entertaining and educative. Based on all, more research is needed on WTC and receiver types to make a more explicit interpretation.

The current study analyzed whether there was a connection between age and learners' tendency to communicate in L2. Two diverse age groups, 18-20, 21-23, were analyzed within sub-dimensions of WTC in various contexts (dyad, group, meeting, and presentation) and with different receiver types (stranger, acquaintance, and friend). The findings of this study displayed that in almost all subcategories (apart from meeting), the 18-20 age group showed higher willingness comparing to the 21-23 age group. Similar studies found the effect of age on L2 WTC. In one of them, Kocaman and Pamukoğlu (2018) found that first-year students had higher tolerance to ambiguity than those at preparatory classes. Hişmanoğlu and Özüdoğru (2017) found in their study that 18-20 age group possessed higher mean scores for WTC comparing to 24-24+ age group. One possible explanation on the relation of age and WTC in English found in the study is that motivation to learn English show a tendency to decrease with age (Bećirović & Hurić-Bećirović, 2017). Moreover, considering that the population of 18-20 age group in this study were % 79,5 of the total number of the participants, they may be effective on the findings.

No significant correlation is found between age and WTC in various research (Alemi, Tajettin, & Mesbah, 2013; Aliakbari & Mahjoob, 2016; Hişmanoğlu & Özüdoğru, 2017). Meanwhile, MacIntyre et al. (2002) and Lu (2007) detected that age had an effect on WTC and increased with higher age groups. In another study,

Donovan and MacIntyre (2004) concluded that male learners' WTC increased with age while vice versa for the female. Upon these contradictory results, it is sensible to indicate that even if a positive correlation is found in the current study, a vast amount of internal and external variables should be taken into consideration, along with age. On that account, more studies are needed to make a clear interpretation about the possible effect of age on L2 WTC.

The relation of L2 WTC and proficiency levels of the students were analyzed in this study. ANOVA scores showed statistically significant differences in the WTC scores of students from different proficiency levels in all sub-categories. A further Tukey multiple comparison test finding indicated that as learners' proficiency level increased, so did their WTC in L2. In the study, Advanced level learners had the highest WTC mean scores in all subcategories, while the Pre-Intermediate level had the lowest. Moreover, learners at Advanced and Upper-Intermediate proficiency levels displayed higher enthusiasm to communicate L2 compared to the learners at Intermediate and Pre-Intermediate levels. This positive relation of WTC and proficiency level has been confirmed by several studies (Wen & Clement, 2003; Yashima et al., 2004; Rostami, Kashanian, & Gholami, 2016; Altiner, 2018).

Şener (2014) compared EFL learners' WTC scores from different proficiency levels with each other. According to the findings, WTC levels of Advanced level learners significantly differed from Elementary, Pre-intermediate, and Intermediate level learners. In another study, Alemi, Daftarifard, and Pashmforoosh (2011) investigated the impact of anxiety and language proficiency on the willingness of learners to interact in English. Their results suggested that WTC in L2 was influenced by the level of proficiency. Besides, they discovered that anxiety and proficiency negatively correlated with each other, which implied that lower anxiety indicated higher language proficiency. Such a link between anxiety and proficiency was also pointed out by Gardner and MacIntyre (1991) as they remarked that "as experience and proficiency increase, anxiety declines in a fairly consistent manner" (p. 111). Therefore, higher proficiency at a target language would reduce the anxiety level and pave the way for higher eagerness to communicate.

Another likely explanation for the link between proficiency and L2 WTC may be that learners with higher proficiency levels are more confident about their knowledge in the target language, ensuring a higher tendency in L2 (McCroskey, 1997; Wen and Clement, 2003). Léger and Storch (2009) emphasized self-

confidence as a predictor of L2 WTC and remarked that when self-confidence built up over time, so did the tendency to communicate in the target language. A similar result was found by Yashima et al. (2004). Their investigation revealed that motivation affected L2 proficiency; L2 proficiency influenced L2 self-confidence, and L2 self-confidence predicted WTC in L2.

Strategy use can be a different standpoint on the correlation of proficiency levels with L2 WTC. Çavuşoğlu (1992) did a study to detect the connection between proficiency and strategy use in L2. Based on the findings, it was found that learners with higher proficiency applied more language learning strategies. Likewise, Griffiths (2003) discovered that learners with higher proficiency levels used strategies while learning an L2 more often compared to lower levels. In another study, Demir Ayaz (2017) explored the possible connection between L2 WTC and language strategy use. In the end, it was found that learners having higher willingness had also used language strategies more. Based on the results of the current study and such relevant studies, it is plausible to conclude that compared to learners with lower proficiency levels, learners with higher proficiency levels are less stressed, more self-confident, and more successful at applying language learning strategies influencing their L2 WTC.

5.3. Turkish EFL Learners' Tolerance of Ambiguity in English

The second research question attempted to investigate the tolerance to ambiguity levels of Turkish EFL learners. To this aim, seven subcategories of SLTAS, which were reading, listening, writing, speaking, grammar, pronunciation, and lexical development, were analyzed. Statistical analyses demonstrated that apart from listening, the students tended to show high TA scores. Similar high TA scores in SLTAS were also found in several studies (Erten & Topkaya, 2009; Atamanova & Bogomaz, 2014; Ezzati & Farahian, 2016; Chiang, 2016; Çelikbaş, 2019). However, several studies existed in the field that discovered moderate (Kazamia, 1999; Başöz, 2015; Aksoy, 2019; Asmalı, 2019) and low level of TA in English language learning (Genç, 2016; Kocaman & Pamukoğlu, 2018).

To ascertain the possible influencing factors of TA, the researcher asked interview participants whether they found it more challenging to tolerate ambiguity in reading, listening, writing, speaking, grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation. Meanwhile, they were informed that they could point out more than once of the

given categories. According to the findings, it was detected that learners had more problems while adjusting ambiguity in grammar and speaking. Some learners mentioned that it was challenging to remember linguistic structures when faced, while one learner underlined that their mother tongue caused confusion while acquiring L2 grammar. The participants who specified speaking as a more challenging category put forward reasons such as difficulty expressing thoughts, not having enough time, fear of making mistakes, difficulty combining different elements, and lack of practice. Some learners also stated ambiguity in pronunciation as they indicated that they were uncertain about the correctness, felt a lack of practice, and feared making mistakes while pronouncing some words. Lexical development was another category mentioned by some learners. They implied that it was challenging to keep target language vocabulary in mind, while some noted that they felt uncertain about the meaning of a vocabulary from time to time. L2 writing was considered a challenging area to handle ambiguity by some learners since they had a hard time expressing their thoughts while writing in English. Lastly, TA in reading was spotted by one student because it was too demanding to get the main idea of a text through making inferences.

In her master's thesis, Aksoy (2019) conducted research on TA, anxiety, and language learning strategy choice of Turkish EFL learners. Her findings revealed that learners had a moderate level of TA. Moreover, learners in the study had the lowest tolerance while understanding teacher, grammar, conveying ideas, etc. Besides, learners had the highest anxiety scores in speaking activities. In conclusion, it was determined that learners had difficulty dealing with uncertainties of the target language, and their anxiety was triggered because of the complexity of the language learning process. This claim was also mentioned by Oxford (1999), who indicated that learning a new language stored with obscurities provoking tension. Consequently, based on these findings, such connection of anxiety and TA may explain the interview findings as the students may feel anxious, which influenced their tolerance in some subcategories.

Kazamia (1999) studied with Greek civil servants to analyze their TA scores in the EFL context. According to SLTAS (Ely, 1989) scores, learners found it more challenging to cope with ambiguity while transmitting their ideas through speaking and writing. In addition, they felt that they failed to tolerate ambiguity in grammar, which impeded using it in speaking and writing. Moreover, the research exemplified

that some learners focused on word-by-word translation between L1 and L2 and had trouble advancing language learning. Such a condition probably stemmed from the fact that different structures between L1 and L2 might distract and panicked the learners.

The relation of age and TA was also explored in this study. SLTAS scores of two age groups were compared through the T-test. Based on the results, it was identified that there were no statistically significant differences in the subcategories of TA in listening writing, lexical development, and grammar. Nevertheless, meaningful differences were detected in speaking, reading, and pronunciation since the 18-20 age group showed higher tolerance to ambiguity in these categories. One possible explanation for this difference between the age groups might be due to the anxiety levels of the two age groups. According to studies of Yang & Wang (2009); Bardi, Guerra, Sharadeh, and Ramdeny (2009); Genç (2016), and Asmalı (2019), anxiety was linked to TA in EFL context. Dewaele and Ip (2013) detected in their study that learners with higher tolerance also had less anxiety. In addition, Coşkun and Taşgın (2018) revealed that first-year students had less anxiety than juniors and seniors. All these studies concluded that anxiety and TA had a negative correlation which implied that as the anxiety decreased, tolerance to the ambiguous nature of language learning increased and vice versa. On the other hand, Dewaele (2007), Dutra and Finger (2019), and Karabıyık and Özkan (2017) found in their studies that older learners possessed higher anxiety comparing to younger learners. Apart from that, Ghenghesh (2010) and Ariane and Pascale (2012) reached the conclusion that language learners' motivation decreased with age. Based on these findings, it is probable that the younger age group in the current study might experience lower anxiety and higher motivation than the older age group, which caused higher tolerance to ambiguity.

Unfortunately, there is a limited number of studies investigating the possible relation of age and TA in the field. In one of them, Atamanova and Bogomaz (2014) discovered that master's students were better at both coping with ambiguity and communicative competence scores than first-year students in the EFL context. Buhr and Dugas (2006) and Behresi, Moulaei, and Motlag (2016) uncovered in their study that among three age groups (below 25, 25-29, above 29), students with the highest age group showed more tolerance to ambiguity. Bledsoe (2011) found a slight positive connection between age and TA scores (.22). Nonetheless, Hampton (2017)

was unable to find age differences related to TA. These findings point out that more research is needed to reveal if age variable influenced tolerance the ambiguous nature of language learning.

A positive correlation was found between TA and the proficiency level of participants in the current study. Accordingly, as the proficiency level increases in L2, so as tolerance to the ambiguous context of the target language. According to the results, Advanced level learners showed the highest tolerance to unknown or ambiguous elements comparing to other proficiency groups. Besides, overall scores pointed out that Advanced and Upper-Intermediate level learners had higher tolerance than intermediate and Pre-Intermediate levels. This finding was also proven by several studies in related literature (Chapelle, 1983; Kazamia, 1999; Khajeh, 2002; Erten & Topkaya, 2009; Chu, Lin, Chen, Tsai, & Wang, 2015; Chiang, 2016; Kocaman & Pamukoğlu, 2018; Asmalı, 2019; Çelikbaş, 2019).

Chu et al. (2015) researched intending to find connections between TA, proficiency levels, and strategy use in the Taiwanese context. Their findings indicated that learners with higher proficiency levels were more successful at applying language learning strategies to handle ambiguity when they faced it during language learning. These results are similar to those reported by Yu (2007), who detected that more proficient L2 learners were better at choosing the appropriate strategy to deal with ambiguity than those with lower proficiency. Furthermore, in another study, Khajeh (2002) found that TA positively correlated with language proficiency and strategy use. Based on these findings, high TA scores in the current study may indicate that learners were able to choose the appropriate strategy to cope with ambiguity.

Erten and Topkaya (2009) aimed to find out TA levels of Turkish EFL learners in L2 reading. For this purpose, 188 preparatory class students were applied SLTAS (Ely, 1995). According to the findings, it was detected that learners with higher proficiency also possessed high TA and perceived themselves as more competent in reading. Drawing on this, the researchers commented that learners with high competency levels in a target language might be more successful in lowering the urge to check every single point, which helped them have a high tolerance to ambiguous context. Similar results were found by Başöz (2015) on the self-concept. In her study, TA and vocabulary knowledge in English were searched for a possible connection between the two. According to the findings, there was no significant

correlation among them. However, a positive correlation was found between the TA scores and self-perceived competence in vocabulary learning. Put it differently, learners were more confident about their knowledge in the target language and had more tolerance to ambiguousness. Such findings indicate that EFL learners who are more proficient in the target language and more secure about their competence become less stressed and more resilient about the ambiguities faced during language learning. That is why; it is possible to say that being aware of and trusting the target language knowledge of oneself is as important as being proficient in learning, which would help to reduce the stress while tolerating ambiguity.

To the best of our knowledge, there is no consensus about the necessary degree of toleration to ambiguity in the EFL context. However, some researchers indicated that high tolerance to the ambiguous nature of L2 learning might be problematic. As being one of them, Norton (1975) did a study to compare reading comprehension and TA levels of EFL learners. Despite the expected result that high TA would be a distinguishing feature on comprehension, the findings of his study unearthed that students having a moderate level of TA were more successful in reading comprehension comparing to the students with high and low TA. This finding is also validated by El-Koumy (2000). In a similar vein, Ely (1995) asserted that too high tolerance would possibly cause fossilization. Kazamia (1999) underlined that high TA might be disadvantageous as such tolerance might result in the loss of interest in a language learner. Consequently, more data is required to settle the necessary amount of tolerance to ambiguity faced in EFL learning as well as its relationship with demographic data.

5.4. Turkish EFL Learners' Perception of Parental Encouragement

The third question of the current study investigated learners' perceived parental encouragement during their English learning process. The findings of the Perceived Parental Encouragement Scale (Gardner, 1985b) showed that learners felt the positive encouragement of their parents during their language learning journey. Moreover, correlations were found between perceived parental encouragement with language proficiency level, while age did not differ. The findings indicated that Advanced and Upper-Intermediate learners felt more encouragement from their families.

In the interview, the participants were directed a question relating their sense of parental encouragement from their families. Consequently, the majority of the learners signaled that they perceived positive encouragement from their parents. Based on the given answers, it can be understood that learners enjoyed their parents' positive backup. Moreover, learners felt parental encouragement when their parents asked questions about their lessons and indicated that they were aware of the importance of English for their future careers. Similar answers were taken by the students in the study of Arshad, Shahzadi, and Mahmood (2016). Learners in their study commented that they enjoyed their parents' support as moving forward from high school to college was sudden and challenging for them. During this time, they felt secure about the encouragement of their parents.

By having a general overview of the related literature, it would not be wrong to say that perceived parental encouragement is focused chiefly on younger ages than university-level students. A possible reason for this may be that as learners get older, so maybe the inclusion of their parents in their academic life. However, even if they are more autonomous than before, university students are still not at the stage of their after-school life when they have a job, get married, etc. (Arnett, 2004). That is why; their parents still hold a place in their life as a safe point and resource of a driving force that lessens their stress to changes arising from moving to college life (Kenny, 1987). In addition, parents' support increases the autonomy of first-year university students (Cullaty, 2011). Similar views were found in the study of Arshad, Shahzadi, and Mahmood (2016). They conducted mixed-methods research to explore university-level students' demand for parental encouragement. The results evidenced that majority of the students in the study signified their need for their families. During interviews, the students commented that they enjoyed it when their parents were interested in their school life during their adjustment to university. In the same vein, the results of this study also indicated that EFL university students in this study were able to sense and their parents' incentives with them and took advantage of it.

Knell and Chi (2012) studied multiple affective variables, including parental encouragement, anxiety, SPCC, with their possible relation to Chinese EFL learners' reading and speaking skills. Based on the findings, What is more, perceived parental encouragement influenced proficiency in reading and speaking as it positively correlated with SPCC and attitudes towards English while negatively correlated with language anxiety. In other words, EFL learners who perceived more support from

their parents possessed a more positive perception of their communicative skills while experienced less anxiety.

Daniel et al. (2018) investigated the relation of motivation and encouragement from parents during EFL Learning. To this aim, they conducted a study with 233 university students. An adapted version of AMTB by Gardner (1985b) was applied to the students. According to the results, perceived parental encouragement scores were positively correlated with motivational density, attitude towards learning English, and desire to learn English. Such findings implied that positive support of parents increased motivation, persistence, and manner while learning English. What is more, the study also compared the perceived parental encouragement levels of freshmen, sophomore, junior, and senior class students. Based on ANOVA findings, senior class students possessed the highest parental encouragement scores while first-year students had the lowest. Consequently, even if no correlations were detected between TA and age in the current study, this finding of Daniel et al. (2018) may give hints about the possible influence of age.

Based on the findings that have been stated so far, it is evident that there is a shortage of studies relating age and proficiency levels of university-level EFL learners. On this account, more research is needed for further research on perceived parental encouragement of college students and the effect of demographic factors.

5.5. The Relation of WTC, TA and Perceived Parental Encouragement

In this study, three questionnaires were used to acquire the required quantitative data. These questionnaires were WTC scale (McCroskey, 1992), SLTAS (Ely, 1995), and Perceived Parental Encouragement (Gardner, 1985b). The purpose of research question four was to uncover if TA and perceived parental encouragement successfully predicted the WTC of Turkish EFL learners. To this aim, the comparisons of the scores obtained from these questionnaires were investigated through Pearson correlation analysis. The following parts discuss the findings as well as providing results from related studies to make comparisons and reach more precise arguments.

5.5.1. The Relation of Willingness to Communicate and Tolerance of Ambiguity

Research question 4.1 aimed to find if there was a correlation between TA and WTC levels of the participants in the study. Pearson correlation and regression analysis revealed that the WTC scale and SLTAS correlated with each other positively. Such outcome implies that when TA in English increases, so does the WTC and vice versa. In other words, learners who possess higher tolerance to the ambiguous structure of the target language would also have higher enthusiasm to speak in L2. Moreover, higher tolerance to the unclear nature of language learning would provide strength to stand up to the obscurity in speaking. On the other hand, less tolerant learners are more prejudiced to uncertainty.

Whether having tolerance or intolerance to ambiguity in language learning has been seen as a personal variable by various researchers (Frenkel-Brunswik, 1984; Budner, 1962; Ely, 1989). When faced with an ambiguous situation in L2 learning, some learners tend to experience anxiety, pressure and try to stay away from puzzling context. In contrast, some others are more successful at handling such ambiguity and perceive it as appealing and engaging (Furnham & Ribchester, 1995). Moreover, according to the heuristic model of L2 WTC, developed by MacIntyre and his colleagues (1998), personality is one of the factors influencing readiness to communicate. In this respect, it is plausible to arrive at the conclusion that as a personal element, tolerance to the ambiguous nature of language will influence eagerness to communicate in the target language. Similarly, participants in this study perceived themselves as having enough tolerance to handle the ambiguity, which affected their willingness to interact in the target language.

According to Kondo-Brown (2006), learners with higher intrinsic motivation are more likely to tolerate ambiguity in language learning. Moreover, the researcher underlined that intolerance of ambiguity might be a sign of low intrinsic motivation since it was a drive to persist in studying the language. Salikhova, Lynch, and Salikhova (2019) detected that TA was affected by both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Apart from that, proficiency in communication is puzzling and multidimensional, including elements relating to learners' emotional and motivational states (Atamanova & Bogomaz, 2014). On this account, enthusiasm to communicate in a target language is affected by the motivation of a learner (MacIntyre et al., 2002; Peng, 2007). Gardner (2010) stresses that motivation is a driving force that directs learners to look for ways to practice their L2 skills more. Altogether, learners who have enough motivation in the L2 context may both be high

in tolerating ambiguity and possessing a high willingness to interact in the target language. Since the participants in this research study are at a private school and the language of education will be mainly or partly in English in their department, they may possess a high motivation to have a good command of English. Moreover, some comments of interview participants give hints on their intrinsic and extrinsic motivations to learn English. For example, S5 mentioned her interest in learning English, while S12 pointed the importance of English for her career.

Another factor relating to WTC and TA can be the influence of risk-taking ability, which has been seen as a quality of tolerant learners in the EFL context (Rubin, 1975; Ely, 1989; McLain, 1993). According to Ely (1989), language learning is a process filled with indefiniteness. Just because of this reason, language learners must carry some characteristics such as risk-taking, choice of proper language learning strategies, not wanting for quick closure against ambiguity, etc. (Oxford, 1992). Therefore, learners who are braver to take risks while coping with the ambiguous nature of language learning are seen as more tolerant and prosperous. On the other hand, as an inseparable part of language learning, possessing good communication ability is set as a goal since the aim of language learning is to be able to use it (MacIntyre & Charos, 1996). However, communicating in the target language possesses a complex structure and requires taking risks while speaking. Consistent with the findings, learners in this study implied that they felt tolerant of facing ambiguities in communication.

Unfortunately, a limited number of studies investigating the relation of WTC and TA were found in the literature. In one of them, Piechurska-Kuciel (2018) studied with 537 Polish EFL students to uncover if TA affected the WTC of learners. Similar to the findings of this study, it was discovered that there was a statistically significant positive relation between TA and WTC. That is to say, higher endurance to ambiguous context also provided higher enthusiasm to communicate in English. What is more, it was found that higher TA levels provided lower anxiety as well as higher SPCC, which eventually encouraged learners to speak more. In this way, they were regarded ambiguous structures as riveting and engaging. Based on the findings of this study, it is plausible to think that in the current study, the learners showing lower TA scores might experienced anxiety and perceived their proficiency insufficient.

Vahedi and Fatemi (2016) investigated if learners' tolerance level to ambiguous structure of learning English were able to predict their L2 WTC. Their results showed that learners L2 WTC and TA scores highly correlated with each other ($r = .698$; $p = .013 < .05$). Upon these results, they commented that learners who were more tolerant to the ambiguity they faced during language learning were also more prone to handle the stress of the ambiguous nature of communication.

Safa and Jamshidi (2017) did quantitative research on 151 EFL learners on the possible relation of introvert and extrovert L2 learners' WTC and TA levels. Pearson correlation coefficient scores indicated that the two variables positively connected with both introvert and extrovert students. Namely, when the eagerness of learners to interact in the target language increased, their ability to handle ambiguity increased as well. Further, it was detected that extrovert learners had WTC scores while introvert learners had higher TA scores.

Wen and Clement (2003) discussed the influencing factors of WTC L2 in the Chinese context. Accordingly, TA as a personal variable was one of the vital elements determining WTC. What is more, they explained that Chinese EFL learners had low TA probably because of their cultural and characteristic features. For example, since they were rule-oriented and losing face was seen as a significant threat, they needed more clarity before using the language.

In contrast to the findings in the study, Naderifar and Esfandiari (2016) reached different results on the relation of L2 WTC and TA. Their study investigated whether there was a connection between WTC and TA levels of 197 EFL learners in Iran. After obtaining quantitative data, the researchers found no statistically significant correlation between these two elements. Above and beyond, by considering these results as well as the insufficient number of related research, more research is needed to bring to light the possible relation of WTC and TA in the EFL context.

5.5.2. The Relation of Willingness to Communicate and Perceived Parental Encouragement

Research question 4.2 aimed to unearth whether perceived parental encouragement levels of learners had a connection with the participants' WTC scores. According to the quantitative results, WTC Scale and Perceived Parental Encouragement Scale positively correlated with each other. In line with this finding,

it is testified that an increase in received parental encouragement during the English language learning process also signals an increase in the level of willingness to communicate in English.

According to Gardner (1975), parents' attitudes play a vital role in shaping learners' motivation to acquire a target language. Whether with their active or passive participation, parents send messages to their child which affects their inspiration to learn the language. In Gardner's socio-educational model of second language acquisition, parental encouragement is classified as one of the affective factors on learners' L2 achievement (Gardner, 2005). Dörnyei and Otto (1998) mention in their L2 motivation model that parents' effect is one of the leading motivational sources during the actional stage. On the other hand, a considerable amount of literature has been published on the influence of motivation on willingness to use a target language (MacIntyre et al., 1998; Baker & MacIntyre, 2000; Peng, 2007; Altiner, 2018). According to the studies, EFL learners with higher motivation are more willing to communicate in English. Taken together, as a part of motivation, perceived parental encouragement may be linked to WTC levels of EFL learners.

The positive influence of family encouragement in a student's language learning journey has been proved in various studies (Penjak & Karnincic, 2015; Santikarn, 2019). Accordingly, EFL learners who perceive their parents 'encouragement more possess a higher motivation to progress in English language learning (Morris et al., 2013). Furthermore, with the confidence and motivation given by the parents, learners gain a positive attitude to communicate in the target language.

Knell and Chi (2012) studied multiple affective variables such as WTC, parental encouragement, motivation with their possible relation to Chinese EFL learners' reading and speaking skills. While obtaining quantitative data, they used an adapted version of the WTC Scale by MacIntyre et al. (2001) and the perceived parental encouragement subsection from AMTB by Gardner (1985b). On the basis of the findings, it was detected that both WTC and perceived parental encouragement predicted success in speaking and reading in English.

Consequently, even if it is evident that at younger ages, the influence and support of parents to their child's English lessons is stronger compared to older ages, university-level EFL may still need their parents' inspiration (Kenny, 1987). It is understandable as it is the transitional stage of moving from high school to

university, which could be stressful. Those learners who continue to sense encouragement from their parents may be more confident about their progress at prep school. Eventually, they feel more willing to use the target language.



CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

6.1. Presentation

The purpose of this study was to examine Turkish EFL learners' willingness for communication, tolerance to ambiguity, and perceived parental encouragement levels in their English learning process. Moreover, it aimed to identify if the WTC level of learners was affected by their TA and perceived parental encouragement. In the chapter that follows, a summary of the current study is presented upon the quantitative and qualitative data results. Furthermore, suggestions for further research are also provided.

6.2. Summary of the Study

The goal of this study was to investigate Turkish EFL learners' WTC, TA, and perceived parental encouragement. Moreover, the study wanted to unearth if there were connections between WTC with TA and perceived parental encouragement. The study was carried out with 151 university-level students at a private university in Gaziantep. A mixed-methods research design was applied in the study. In the quantitative part, the necessary data was collected with three scales: WTC Scale (McCroskey, 1992), SLTAS (Ely, 1995), and Perceived Parental Encouragement Scale (Gardner, 1985b). The first scale had two subcategories: context (dyads, small groups, meeting, and presentation) and receiver types (friend, acquaintance, and stranger). With these subscales, learners' L2 willingness for communication in diverse contexts and with different receivers was evaluated. In the second scale, there were seven subcategories focusing TA in reading, listening, speaking, writing, pronunciation, grammar, and lexical development. The third scale intended to evaluate the amount of parental encouragement perceived by the students

during the English language learning process.

In the quantitative part, SPSS version 20.0 was applied to assess the data obtained through the three questionnaires. Thanks to this program, both descriptive statistics such as means, standard deviations, percentages, and frequencies were calculated, and inferential statistics such as correlation, t-test, ANOVA, Tukey test, and regression analysis were calculated. Moreover, the distribution of demographic data, which were age and proficiency levels, was provided. T-test and one-way ANOVA were conducted to explore whether age and language proficiency of learners played a role in their WTC, TA, and perceived parental encouragement scores. As a further step, a series of Tukey multiple comparison tests were utilized to detect the categories statistically different from each other. Furthermore, a Pearson product-moment correlation was used to explore the relationship between WTC with TA and perceived parental encouragement. Then, regression analysis was applied to see if the second scale, SLTAS, and the third scale, Perceived Parental Encouragement Scale, influenced the first scale, WTC Scale. In the qualitative part, 16 students who volunteered among the students taking the questionnaires were interviewed. The collected data from structured interviews were analyzed through content analysis steps by Creswell (2013). Inductive content analysis was used to analyze affecting factors on learners' WTC and TA.

The current study's findings showed that Turkish EFL learners have a high level of WTC, a high level of TA, and a high level of perception of their parents' encouragement. Moreover, age and proficiency scores showed statistically significant differences in WTC. Accordingly, when WTC scores were taken into consideration, the 18-20 age group showed a higher willingness to communicate compared to the 21-23 age group. Besides, Advanced level learners had a higher desire to communicate in all context and receiver types than pre-Intermediate levels. In addition, Advanced and Upper-Intermediate learners showed higher willingness comparing to Intermediate and Pre-Intermediate language groups in total. In the second scale, SLTAS, it was detected that there was no significant difference among the scores of 18-20 and 21-23 age groups' tolerance to ambiguousness in listening, writing, lexical development, and grammar. However, the 18-20 age group possessed higher TA scores in reading, speaking, and pronunciation comparing to the 21-23 age group. What is more, learners with higher proficiency showed higher tolerance to ambiguity in subcategories of speaking, reading, writing, lexical development,

pronunciation, and grammar. In the third scale, it was seen that participants in the study showed high perceived parental encouragement scores. On the other hand, age was not found to be related to perceived parental encouragement. Lastly, Advanced and Upper-Intermediate level learners received higher parental encouragement than Intermediate and Pre-Intermediate.

When WTC and SLTAS scores were compared, it was detected that there was a statistically significant positive correlation between the two. On WTC Scale, higher scores indicated higher tolerance, while in SLTAS, higher scores indicate higher WTC. Moreover, regression analysis showed that as tolerance to ambiguity increases, so does willingness to communicate. Apart from that, WTC and perceived parental encouragement scores positively correlated with each other. This finding indicates that a positive perception of parental encouragement during language learning led to an increase in willingness to communicate.

A structured interview section was added to the study to get an insight into the learners as qualitative data. To this aim, five questions were asked to enrich the findings. In the interview, when learners were questioned about the context (dyad, small group, meeting, and presentation), they felt most willing while communicating; the majority of them indicated dyads. Based on the comments, it was understood that interpersonal communications were more engaging and less anxiety-provoking for learners. What is more, some implied that they had more chances for interaction in person-to-person communication compared to larger groups. In another question, participants in the interview were asked whether they felt more willing while communicating with close friends, acquaintances, or strangers. Most of the students signaled that they felt more comfortable while talking with a friend. Based on the comments, it was assumed that learners felt less anxious and more tolerant to making mistakes while talking with a friend. In the third question, learners were asked about which factors affected their WTC. According to the findings, linguistic factors were the most influential factors on learner's WTC, and they included vocabulary knowledge, pronunciation, accent, L1 interference, and previous knowledge. After that, affective factors (motivation, L2 anxiety and fear of making mistakes, contextual factors (classmates, topic, activity), SPCC, and individual factors (personality) were perceived as the influencing factors by the learners.

In the fourth question, participants were asked to indicate whether they found it more challenging to tolerate ambiguity in listening, writing, reading, speaking, vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation. Based on the findings, grammar and speaking were pointed to be the most challenging to cope with ambiguity. What is more, some learners signaled through the comments that they had problems remembering linguistic structures. Also, differences in L1 and L2 grammar confused them and made it more challenging to handle ambiguity. About speaking, some arguments such as difficulty in expressing thoughts, not having enough time, fear of making mistakes, the difficulty of combining different elements, and lack of practice were put forward by learners explaining why they had more trouble handling ambiguity. Apart from that, some learners found tolerating ambiguity in pronunciation challenging as they were uncertain about the correctness of their pronunciation. Also, they felt a lack of practice and feared to do making mistakes while pronouncing some words. Some learners indicated that they experienced more difficulties in lexical development as they sometimes had trouble remembering necessary vocabulary, while others were uncertain about the meaning. Listening and writing were also pointed as some learners commented that in listening, they had difficulty following, were not sure about what they heard, and did not have enough time to solve the ambiguity. Meanwhile, in writing, some underlined that they had trouble expressing thoughts as they wanted. Lastly, reading was mentioned as a challenging skill to tolerate ambiguity as it was too demanding to make inferences while reading.

In the last part of the interview, learners were questioned about their parents as to whether they had enough encouragement from them or not. The majority of the students stated that they felt the positive support of their parents. Additionally, they commented that they enjoyed the interest of their parents in their progress in English when they asked about their school and lessons. Besides, some felt glad that their families were aware of the importance of their progress in English for their future careers and goals.

6.3. Conclusion

The current study examined Turkish EFL learners' willingness for communication, tolerance to ambiguousness, and perceived parental encouragement levels. Furthermore, whether the enthusiasms of learners to communicate were

influenced by their tolerance to the ambiguous nature of language learning and parental support recognized by them were investigated.

According to MacIntyre (2007), no matter how much effort and time were put to learn English, some learners turn to English speakers while some others fail to succeed in speaking. Likewise, learners with large linguistic knowledge may shy away from speaking, while learners with limited linguistic knowledge may be disposed to communicate in the target language (MacIntyre et al., 1998). Therefore, the reason of this willingness or unwillingness to communicate in L2 has drawn the attention of many studies in Turkish context (Bektaş-Çetinkaya, 2005; Şener, 2014; Başöz, 2015; Öz, Demirezen, & Pourfeiz, 2015; Hişmanoğlu & Özudoğlu, 2017; Başöz, 2018; Kurt, 2019; Sak, 2020). It was also highlighted in the current study as Turkish EFL learners still behind the anticipated level in speaking skills (Baykal, 2010). That is why; it was thought that detecting the influencing variables on Turkish EFL learners' readiness to enter a communication in the target language was vital.

Findings showed that Turkish EFL learners in this study possessed a high willingness for communication in the target language. This result indicates that learners are prone to use the target language for communication. Moreover, age and language proficiency was found to be influencing factors on the degree of WTC of the learners. Accordingly, the younger age group showed a higher willingness to communicate, while learners with higher proficiency showed more enthusiasm for communication. Such finding implies that the younger age group was more able to keep their enthusiasm to communicate in the target language comparing to the older age group. Meanwhile, learners with higher proficiency felt more engaged to initiate communication than other language groups, revealing that higher language competence would bring higher devotion for using the target language. These results would be helpful at providing more data to related literature on detecting the variables influencing WTC in the L2 context.

The relation between WTC with context and receiver types was searched in the study. Accordingly, social intimacy was an influencing factor on the WTC of the learners. Learners preferred to communicate with their close friends than strangers, which implied that learners felt more willing to initiate a conversation with familiar faces than the unknown. Moreover, according to some comments in the interviews, it was less stressful to interact with a friend as they felt braver about making mistakes. On the other hand, dyads were the most preferred context for learners as it was a less

anxiety-provoking setting comparing to larger group conversations. Moreover, some stated that dyads offered more chances to practice speaking since they felt they remained in the background in larger groups because of more proficient learners.

The study focused on the insights of learners about the influencing factors of their WTC. Accordingly, linguistic factors such as vocabulary knowledge, pronunciation, accent, L1 interference, and previous knowledge were implied to be the most effective factors. Such findings imply that students' linguistic knowledge was the most determining factor on the WTC of the learners in this study. Some signaled that they had doubts about their linguistic knowledge through the comments, which restrained them from communicating more. In the meantime, for some learners, their linguistic competence was a driving force on their enthusiasm to talk more. On the other hand, affective factors such as motivation, L2 anxiety, and fear of making mistakes were indicated by the learners, which pointed out the fact that the emotional preparedness of learners to speaking was an important issue. It was understood from the comments that while some learners felt more motivated and less stressed, some others lacked motivation and experienced more panic towards speaking and feared making mistakes. As contextual factors, classmates, topic, and the type of activity were found to be effective on learners' eagerness to communicate. Apart from that, high or low perception of one's own linguistic competence was also detected as an influencing factor in initiating a conversation in the target language. Lastly, personality as an individual factor was mentioned since one student thought that her shyness caused a decrease in her WTC. All these findings would help to promote more data related to the factors determining Turkish EFL learners' WTC in L2, as well as providing insight into learners' points of view.

Another point concentrated in this study was the tolerance of ambiguity in L2 because it is a required element in a language learner to be able to cope with the ambiguous nature of language learning which has been explored in many contexts (Ely, 1989; Grace, 1998; Kazamia, 1999; Yu, 2007; Kamran & Maftoon, 2012; Merrotsy, 2013). Lately, it has gained the attention of research in Turkey too (Erten & Topkaya, 2009; Genç, 2016; Kocaman & Pamukoğlu, 2018; Asmalı, 2019; Çelikbaş, 2019; Aksoy, 2019). The current study aimed to supply more data to reveal Turkish EFL learners' tolerance to the ambiguous nature of language learning.

The participants in the current study were found to have a high level of tolerance to ambiguities faced during language learning which demonstrates that they

are more daring to handle uncertainties and do not easily get demoralized by ambiguities faced during the EFL learning process. In addition to this, language proficiency was found to be an influencing variable as the higher the proficiency levels of learners, the more tolerant to ambiguity they were in the EFL context. This signs that increasing mastery in the target language provides more strength to cope with ambiguity during language learning. Apart from that younger age group was found to be more tolerant of handling ambiguity in reading, speaking, and pronunciation while in writing, listening, lexical development, and grammar; no significant differences were detected. These results indicate that more research is needed to put clear conclusions on the relation between age and TA.

Whether tolerating ambiguity in listening, writing, reading, speaking, vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation were more challenging for the participants who were questioned in the interviews. According to the results, grammar and speaking were found the most challenging for learners to handle ambiguity. According to comments, it was detected that some learners had trouble keeping all linguistic structures in mind. Meanwhile, some others complained about the differences in L1 and L2 as diversities between the two languages made it more complicated to tolerate ambiguity. When it comes to TA in speaking, learners signaled difficulties they experienced such as distress of expressing their ideas as they wished, not having enough time to handle ambiguity, fear of making mistakes, the complexity of linking diverse elements in speaking, and inadequate practice. Taking account of these comments, it was apparent that Turkish EFL learners in this study had insecurities in grammar and speaking, which decreased their tolerance against ambiguities in these skills. Apart from that, some learners expressed ambiguity in pronunciation since they were insecure about their pronunciation and feared making mistakes. Also, it was pointed that lack of pronunciation practice influenced their TA. Apart from these, handling TA in vocabulary was difficult for some learners as it was problematic to keep all the necessary vocabulary in mind. Besides, few indicated that they sometimes felt unsure about the correctness of the meaning of vocabulary they encountered. TA in listening and writing were also found to be challenging for some learners since in listening, it was hard to follow, which left limited time to handle ambiguity. In addition, sometimes, they did not feel sure about the correctness of what they heard. On the other hand, in writing, few stated the problems of expressing their thought on paper. Lastly, reading was

mentioned as a challenging context to cope with ambiguity as it was difficult to make inferences and identify the main idea. After all, learners in the study experienced difficulties tolerating ambiguity in several areas and were aware of them.

Perceived parental encouragement was also included in this study to analyze if learners received any active or passive support from their families. This subject has been researched mostly at younger ages than the university level (Vijchulata & Lee, 1985; Desforges & Abouchaar, 2003; Niehaus & Adelson, 2014; Butler, 2015). At that point, it is plausible to think that parents have more influence and control over their child's progress in English in the early years. In contrast, university-level learners are more autonomous and do not need the assistance of their parents as much as they do when they are younger. Nevertheless, with the changing environment, lessons, etc., university-level learners may still need the encouragement of their parents on their language learning journey (Kenny, 1987). Given this, learners' sense of parental motivation was analyzed in the current study. According to the findings, learners perceived the positive encouragement of their parents during their EFL learning journey. Based on the interview comments on this, it was understood that learners enjoyed it when their parents paid attention to their progress and were aware of the importance of English for their future careers. Moreover, learners with higher proficiency were found to sense their parents' support more. It implies that these students feel more motivated and perceive the positive energy from their close ones.

Before deciding the subject of this study, it was noticed that there is no study combining WTC, TA, and perceived parental encouragement at once in the ELT context. On the other hand, there was a limited number of studies combining L2 WTC and TA (Vahedi & Fatemi, 2015; Fatemi, Khavajy, & Choi, 2016; Naderifar & Esfandiari, 2016; Piechurska-Kuciel, 2018). What is more, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, there is no study combining these two titles in the Turkish context. For that very reason, it was believed that such a study would provide beneficial knowledge on the students' willingness to interact in English, tolerance to the ambiguous character of language learning, and the possible relation of these two. Accordingly, it was concluded that TA and WTC were related to each other as an increase in tolerance to ambiguities in the target language also brought higher enthusiasm to initiate conversation in English. This finding gives clues about the qualities of a good language learner. Aside from that, the possible connection of

WTC with perceived parental encouragement was explored in the current study. As a result, it was detected that there was a positive correlation seeing that an increase in the degree of parental support during language learning also remarked an increase in the willingness for communication in the target language. This finding signifies that the support of parents was an inspiration for EFL learners, which excited them about communicating in the target language more.

To sum up, learning a language not only stands for acquiring necessary linguistic knowledge but also being ready to use it (Hashimoto, 2002). Along with acquiring the required linguistic knowledge, learners must also carry some features such as being willing to communicate in the target language. In addition, a language learner should be ready to handle ambiguities that the language learning process holds. Moreover, encouragements from parents are vital for the engagement of learners in the language learning journey. Such learners would be one step closer to being successful learners of English.

6.4. Suggestions for Further Studies

Because of the limitations the current study possesses, some recommendations are presented for future research. First of all, the study was carried out with 151 students at a private university in Gaziantep. Also, all the participants in the study were at preparatory schools of their university. However, further studies can be conducted with more participants as well as in different contexts. In this respect, a study including participants from different grade levels such as sophomores, juniors, and seniors would broaden the obtained data. Another suggestion would be about the enrichment of the qualitative data through the usage of diverse instruments. With the application of more qualitative data collection tools such as semi-structured interviews, classroom observations, etc., much extensive information can be attained in further studies. In this way, a deeper understanding of learners' WTC, TA, and perceived parental encouragement during EFL learning can be obtained. Lastly, since the study focused on the possible relation of WTC, TA, and perceived parental encouragement with age and language proficiency variables, more factors can be considered as potential factors and investigated in the following studies.

6.5. Implications

In 1997, the Turkish Ministry of National Education (MNE) changed the national strategy applied in English language education. With a new education reform, English was paid more attention, and the English education program was rearranged (Kırkgöz, 2007). According to that, Communicative Language Teaching was chosen as the focus of this program (Kırkgöz, Çelik, & Arıkan, 2015). Therefore, the aim was to increase the individuals' communicational capabilities in English. In 2005, the current curriculum was reviewed, and some alterations were made. The process of English language learning was seen as the essential focus instead of the result (Topkaya & Küçük, 2010). That is why; any production during the process was valued. A new educational system (4+4+4) was put into action in 2012 by MNE (2013). This time, principals of the Common European Framework of Foreign Languages (CEFR) was used as a guideline (Fişne, Güngör, Guerra, & Gonçalves, 2018). For this purpose, a more action-based way through the instruction was adopted (Yaman, 2018). Opportunities for interaction were aimed to be increased. Moreover, the characteristic variations of students were taken into consideration more. Apart from that, according to the English curriculum published by MNE in 2018, the use of target language as a tool for communication was set as a target.

In line with the actions taken to promote the use of the target language in the Turkish foreign language education system, the current study provided data on learners' willingness for communication and some influencing factors. According to the findings, the more tolerant the learners are to the ambiguous nature of language learning, the more willing they are to use the target language. Such insights about Turkish EFL learners would pave the way for planning a proper outline for curriculum designers. Namely, this can lead to regulations on increasing the willingness to use English more. Also, decreasing negative attitude to obscurities as well as increasing tolerance can be set as an objective.

In accordance with the findings, this study offers answers to why some learners are more willing to communicate while some are not. In that respect, teachers can make sense of the problems experienced in speaking. Furthermore, they may arrange proper classroom context and activities that would promote speaking. Based on learners' comments in the interview, some linguistic, affective, contextual variances may increase or lower eagerness to communicate in English. Therefore, such features should be taken into consideration while promoting willingness.

Besides, teachers guide the learners when they cope with ambiguity by offering some methods.

According to the study's findings, Turkish EFL learners may notice and concentrate on their strong and weak points in L2 speaking. As a result, they become more aware of the influencing factors on their WTC and may take action to overcome speaking problems. Also, they may get familiar with strategies to handle ambiguity.

Another implication based on the current study's findings is that parents are affective on learners' willingness to interact in English. Namely, parents are still an essential source of motivation for university-level EFL learners. That is why; parents' inclusion in EFL learning should be increased. Moreover, they should be informed about the influence of their positive encouragement on learners in EFL learning.

Lastly, the study reveals that WTC is a complex structure and there are numerous influencing determinants detected. Moreover, there are possible factors yet to be discovered. In this regard, the study paves the way for more studies for researchers to detect the components of WTC. Furthermore, this is the only study that combines WTC, TA and perceived parental encouragement at once in the literature and it concludes that TA and perceived parental encouragement positively correlate with WTC. With these connections in mind, further studies can be added to the related literature to enrich these findings. Finally, the study highlights that any experience during language learning would possibly manipulate learners' enthusiasm to communicate in L2. Table 39 summarizes the implications.

Table 39. *The implications of the study*

	Implications
 Students	• Being aware of their strong and weak point which influence their L2 speaking • Using the opportunities to communicate to lower speaking problems and increase enthusiasm • Utilizing the strategies to handle ambiguity and raising tolerance to what is unknown or complex
 Teachers	• Detecting L2 speaking problems and possible reasons behind them • Creating more opportunities for learners to increase willingness for communication • Arranging a more welcoming classroom context to promote speaking • Assisting EFL learners when they face up ambiguity during EFL learning • Providing the inclusion of parents in the process
 Curriculum designers	• Making regulations on increasing the enthusiasm to use English more as well as lowering prejudice to obscurities while designing a curriculum
 Parents	• Supporting the learner during the transition from high school to college • Keeping on encouraging the learner during the EFL learning process
 Researchers	• Paves the way for more studies on detecting the influencing factors of WTC • Offers a research subject relating the relationship between WTC with TA and perceived parental encouragement to enrich the related findings • Reminding that any experience during language learning may have an influence on learners' WTC

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APPENDICES



Appendix A

ANKET FORMU

Bu anket formu Gaziantep Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü'nde yürütülmekte olan ‘‘İngilizceyi Yabancı Dil Olarak Öğrenen Türk Öğrencilerin İngilizce İletişime İsteklilik, Belirsizlik Toleransı ve Ebeveyn Teşvik Düzeyleri Arasındaki İlişki Üzerine Bir Çalışma’’ başlıklı yüksek lisans tez çalışması için yapılmaktadır. Sizlerden edinilecek bilgiler tamamen bilimsel amaçlı kullanılacaktır. Katkılarınız bizim için önemlidir. Şimdiden değerli katkılarınızdan dolayı teşekkür ederiz.

1.BÖLÜM: İLETİŞİME İSTEKLİLİK

Aşağıda İngilizce dilinde iletişim gerektiren 12 durum verilmiştir. Yabancılarla İngilizce konuşacağınız bu durumlarda İngilizce iletişim kurmaya ne derece istekli olduğunuzu 0 ile 100 arasında herhangi bir sayı seçerek her ifadenin sonundaki boşluğa yazarak belirtiniz.

% 0-----%50-----%100
İngilizce konuşmam İngilizce konuşurum
(iletişim kurmam) (iletişim kurarım)

1-Tanıdığım kişilerle küçük bir grup içinde İngilizce konuşmak	%.....
2-Bir grup tanımadığım kişiye İngilizce sunum yapmak	%.....
3-Bir grup arkadaşına İngilizce sunum yapmak	%.....
4-Kalabalık bir toplulukta tanımadığım kişiler arasında İngilizce konuşma	%.....
5-Tanımadığım kişilerle küçük bir grup içerisinde İngilizce konuşmak	%.....
6-Kalabalık bir toplulukta arkadaşlarım arasında İngilizce konuşmak	%.....
7-Arkadaşlarımla İngilizce konuşmak	%.....
8-Kalabalık bir toplulukta tanıdığım kişilerle İngilizce konuşmak	%.....
9-Tanıdıklarımla İngilizce konuşmak	%.....
10-Bir grup tanıdığım kişiye İngilizce sunum yapmak	%.....
11-Tanımadığım birisiyle İngilizce konuşmak	%.....
12-Bir grup arkadaşla İngilizce konuşmak	%.....

Appendix B

2. BÖLÜM: İKİNCİ DİLDE BELİRSİZLİK TOLERANSI

Aşağıdaki ifadeleri okuyunuz. İfadelere ne derece katıldığınızı verilen seçeneklerden birine “X” işareti koyarak belirtiniz. Örneğin, verilen ifadeye kesinlikle katılıyorsanız:

Strongly agree (Kesinlikle katılıyorum)	Agree (Katılıyorum)	Undecided (Kararsızım)	Disagree (Katılmıyorum)	Strongly disagree (Kesinlikle katılmıyorum)
X				

	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. When I’m reading something in English, I feel impatient when I don’t totally understand the meaning.					
2. It bothers me that I don’t understand everything the teacher says in English.					
3. When I write English compositions, I don’t like it when I can’t express my ideas exactly.					
4. It is frustrating that sometimes I don’t understand completely some English grammar.					
5. I don’t like the feeling that my English pronunciation is not quite correct.					
6. I don’t enjoy reading something in English that takes a while to figure out completely.					
7. It bothers me that even though I study English grammar, some of it is hard to use in speaking and writing.					
8. When I’m writing in English, I don’t like the fact that I can’t say exactly what I want.					
9. It bothers me when the teacher uses an English word I don’t know.					
10. When I’m speaking in English, I feel uncomfortable if I can’t communicate my ideas clearly.					
11. I don’t like the fact that sometimes I can’t find English words that mean the same as some words in my own language.					
12. One thing I don’t like about reading in English is having to guess what the meaning is.					

Appendix C

3. BÖLÜM: EBEVEYN TEŞVİKİ

Aşağıda ifadeleri okuyunuz. Her ifade hakkındaki görüşünüzü verilen seçeneklerin altına bölümlerden birine “X” işareti koyarak belirtiniz. Örneğin, verilen ifadeye kesinlikle katılıyorsanız:

Strongly Agree (Kesinlikle katılıyorum)	Moderately Agree (Orta derecede katılıyorum)	Slightly Agree (Biraz katılıyorum)	Neutral (Taraftasım)	Slightly Disagree (Biraz katılmıyorum)	Moderately Disagree (Orta derecede katılmıyorum)	Strongly Disagree (Kesinlikle katılmıyorum)
X						

	Strongly Agree	Moderately Agree	Slightly Agree	Neutral	Slightly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. My parents try to help me with my English.							
2. My parents feel that I should learn English.							
3. My parents feel that I should continue studying English all through school.							
4. My parents think I should devote more time to my English studies.							
5. My parents really encourage me to study English.							
6. My parents show considerable interest in anything to do with my English courses.							
7. My parents encourage me to practice my English as much as possible.							
8. My parents have stressed the importance English will have for me when I leave school.							
9. My parents feel that I should really try to learn English.							
10. My parents urge me to seek help from my teacher if I am having problems with my English.							

Appendix D

Interview

Name/Surname=

Age=

Language Proficiency=

Department=

Willingness to Communicate in English=İngilizce İletişime İsteklilik

1-What are the circumstances in which your willingness to speak English is at the highest or lowest level? What are the positive or negative factors affecting your willingness to communicate in English?

2- With whom would you be more willing (more comfortable) to communicate (close friends, acquaintances, strangers)? Why?

3- In which environment would you be more willing (more comfortable) to communicate? (Dyad, small group, meeting, presentation?) Why?

Tolerance of Ambiguity=Belirsizlik Toleransı

4- In which category or categories dealing with ambiguous or unknown is more challenging for you: reading, listening, speaking, writing, vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation in English? Why?

Parental Encouragement=Aile Desteği

5- Do you think that your parents give you enough encouragement during your English language learning process? What do your parents think about your English learning progress?

