Enhancing Situational Willingness to Communicate in Novice EFL Learners through Task-Based Learning

Junko Toyoda
Kansai Gaidai College

Tomoko Yashima
Kansai University

Scott Aubrey
The Chinese University of Hong Kong

Many studies have investigated the situational nature of Willingness to Communicate (WTC) in language learning. However, few studies have explored the possibility that a language teaching approach aimed at fostering communicative language use can effectively influence and thus facilitate L2 WTC development as it emerges in context (situational WTC). This classroom-based study addresses this issue by (a) investigating whether task-based learning (TBL) can foster situational L2 WTC for novice learners of English as a foreign language (EFL), and (b) determining the factors that influence learners' situational WTC through a mixed-methods approach juxtaposing quantitative and qualitative data. The study focused on Japanese junior high school students (N=135) participating in a four-month exposure to TBL. The findings revealed that, during the TBL period, learners' L2 WTC improved significantly and that learners reported feelings of enjoyment when participating in authentic L2 social interaction.

https://doi.org/10.37546/JALTJJ43.2-3

JALT Journal, Vol. 43, No. 2, November 2021

第二言語学習におけるsituational willingness to communicate (L2 WTC: 状況ごとに変化する外国語を話す意思)について多くの研究がされてきた。しかしながら、コミュニケーション能力促進のための特定の教授法を用いて、どのようにL2 WTCが出現し変化していくのかを調査した研究例は少ない。本研究では,質的量的研究の両方を使う混合研究法を用いて、(a)タスク中心学習における参加者のsituational L2 WTCは変化するのか、(b)どのような要因が初級EFL学習者のsituational L2 WTCに影響を与えるのか、を調査した。中学生135名を対象として4か月間タスク中心学習によるコミュニケーション活動を行った。結果から、参加者のsituational L2 WTC は有意に伸長した。また英語で友達とソーシャルインタラクションを楽しむことで、タスクへの参加意欲ならびに英語使用の頻度が高まったことが明らかとなった。

Keywords: EFL novice learners; perceived situational task competence; situational Willingness to Communicate; task-based learning

A substantial amount of empirical research on Willingness to Communicate (WTC) has been conducted over the past 20 years, mainly on factors that influence second language (L2) WTC. However, research that explores how situational L2 WTC develops as a result of a specific language teaching approach, particularly among novice learners, is lacking. This study focuses on the contextual, situational, and emergent nature of WTC among Japanese junior high school students with limited opportunities to communicate in English inside and outside the classroom. The objective of our study is to explore how junior high school EFL learners develop L2 WTC through a series of WTC-enhancing task-based lessons.

Literature Review

Willingness to Communicate (WTC)

Early Studies

MacIntyre et al. (1998) presented their model of L2 WTC by adapting the original personality-based construct proposed for L1 communication (McCroskey, 1992), marking the beginning of L2 WTC research. This model shows that stable, enduring factors (e.g., personality, interpersonal or intergroup motivation, communicative competence, and self-confidence) and more immediate situational factors (e.g., desire to communicate with a specific person) combine to influence *situational* L2 WTC, or "a readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons using an L2" (MacIntyre et al., 1998, p. 547). It aims to represent how an L2 user decides to initiate communication based on individual characteristics, intergroup factors, and momentary situational influences.

Inspired by this model, subsequent quantitative WTC studies (e.g., Baker & MacIntyre, 2000; Yashima, 2002; Yashima et al., 2004) focused

on L2 learners' WTC in various cultural contexts, including Japan. Notably, two variables were found to have the strongest influence on L2 WTC: perceived communicative competence (i.e., how learners feel about their communicative abilities), and anxiety (i.e., feelings of worry and nervousness when learners use an L2) (e.g., Baker & MacIntyre, 2000; MacIntyre & Clément, 1996). However, the relative importance of these two variables is context-dependent. Baker and MacIntyre (2000) found that L2 anxiety was the strongest predictor of WTC in immersion learners of L2 French in Canada, while perceived communicative competence was the strongest in non-immersion learners with opportunities for L2 use limited solely to the classroom. In studies conducted in a Japanese senior high school, Yashima (2002) and Yashima et al. (2004) found that perceived communicative competence was a stronger predictor of L2 WTC than anxiety. More recently, however, through a comprehensive meta-analysis concerning the effect sizes of WTC studies, Shirvan et al. (2019) revealed that three key variables – perceived communicative competence, language anxiety, and motivation – had moderate positive correlations with L2 WTC (perceived communicative competence showed the largest effect size). These studies suggest that improving L2 WTC in the EFL classroom may depend on fostering perceived communicative competence and motivation.

In addition, other variables affecting L2 WTC have been explored. For example, personality traits such as agreeableness (i.e., friendly and generous personality) or extroversion (i.e., sociable and active personality) (MacIntyre & Charos, 1996) and international posture (i.e., an EFL learner's internationally-oriented disposition) (Yashima, 2002, 2014) have been found to influence L2 WTC. Furthermore, research has shown that classroom-related factors, including student cohesiveness (i.e., how united learners feel their group members are), task orientation (i.e., importance of completing activities and staying on the subject matter) (Peng & Woodrow, 2010) and attitudes toward group activities (Fushino, 2010), influence L2 WTC. These quantitative studies highlighting classroom situations have led to more context-specific research investigating situational WTC.

Situational L2 WTC

While early studies of L2 WTC focused on stable communication tendencies (e.g., trait anxiety), recent studies have been examining individual and situational tendencies that change variably across a variety of L2 speaking contexts. For example, in her interview study with Korean ESL learners, Kang (2005) found that in conversations with native speakers of English,

learners experienced three psychological conditions: security, excitement, and responsibility. Security is defined as being free of fear in L2 communication. Excitement is "a feeling of elation about the act of talking" (Kang, 2005, p. 284). Responsibility is how learners themselves are responsible for engaging in the conversation (e.g., introducing a topic). These feelings arose or waned depending on surrounding situational variables such as topic interest, interlocutor familiarity, and conversational context (e.g., composition of participant group), with changes in these feelings leading to changes in the level of situational WTC. Similarly, Cao and Philp (2006) revealed that situational L2 WTC in Chinese ESL learners varied depending on the number of participants (e.g., pair work, group work, or whole class), interlocutor familiarity, and interlocutors' contribution to the conversation.

Subsequent studies have explored the situational nature of L2 WTC by focusing on the relationship between individual, situational, psychological, and contextual factors in the language classroom. For example, Zhong (2013) found that Chinese ESL students' situational WTC changed due to the joint effect of socio-cultural factors (e.g., fear of losing face by making mistakes and avoidance of being perceived as "showing off" their fluent L2 performance), and individual factors (e.g., concerns for accuracy and perceived self-efficacy). Situational L2 WTC has also been found to fluctuate under the joint effect of both contextual (e.g., task) and individual factors such as motivation, task-related attitudes (Eddy-U, 2015) and interlocutors' proficiency level (Kang, 2005; de Saint Léger & Storch, 2009; Zarrinabadi et al., 2014). In sum, qualitative and mixed-methods research has illuminated the dynamic nature of L2 WTC in classrooms as influenced by the aforementioned factors.

Reinforcing Situational L2 WTC through Pedagogical Interventions

To explore conditions for learners to actively engage in L2 classroom communication, some pedagogical intervention studies have been undertaken (Munezane, 2015; Yashima & Zenuk-Nishide, 2008; Yashima et al., 2018). For example, Yashima and Zenuk-Nishide (2008) found that Japanese junior high school students with higher exposure to content-based instruction (CBI) developed L2 WTC to a greater extent than those with less exposure to CBI. Also, Freiermuth and Huang (2012) found that Japanese students' enjoyment of participating in online synchronous chat tasks with Taiwanese learners through English was facilitated by the alleviation of the pressures they usually felt in face-to-face L2 interactions, leading to heightened WTC.

However, such studies are rare, and more that contain the pedagogical goal of enhancing L2 WTC are needed.

WTC-Enhancing Intervention Using Tasks

In this study, Task-based learning (TBL) was employed as an interventional instruction since it "aims to develop learners' communicative competence by engaging them in meaning-focused communication through the performance of tasks" (Shintani & Ellis, 2014, p. 135). A rich body of research has informed the effects of TBL, examined through three theoretical perspectives: cognitive (e.g., as a meaning negotiation process; Foster & Ohta, 2005); sociocultural (e.g., collaborative interactions; Swain & Lapkin, 1998), and psycholinguistic (i.e., complexity, accuracy, and fluency in L2 production; Skehan, 2018). However, few research studies have explored how L2 tasks influence learners' affective disposition, most notably L2 WTC. Thus, this study examines L2 situational WTC in one TBL context.

Goals of the Study and Research Questions

The primary objectives of this study were to understand what enduring or situational factors influence junior high school students' situational WTC in interactional tasks, and to examine whether a TBL intervention enhances their situational WTC. The two research questions were as follows:

RQ1. What factors most significantly influence the situational WTC of junior high school L2 English learners engaging in interactional tasks?

RQ2. Does TBL instruction help these learners develop situational L2 WTC?

Method

Research Context and Participants

The participants in this study were 135 Japanese students (aged 14-15) recruited from four third-grade intact classes (with 33 or 34 students per class) of a public junior high school in an Osaka suburb. Based on the results of a nationwide English proficiency test administered by Japan's Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT, n.d.) and the distribution guidelines of Japanese learners' CEFR (*Common European Framework of Reference for Languages*) levels (Negishi et al., 2013), nearly all the participants fell into the categories of Pre-A1 and A1. Unlike the participants

tested in previous WTC studies, they had almost no prior experience in English conversation in or outside the classroom. For two years and several months prior to the intervention (i.e., from first grade to third grade), participants attended four 50-minute English classes per week with Japanese teachers of English. In three of the weekly classes, the students were taught by the same Japanese English teacher; however, in the fourth weekly class, an American, an L1 English speaker joined the class in a co-teaching role. As is the case in many school settings in Japan (e.g., Benesse Educational Research and Development Institute, 2018), English classes at this school emphasized non-communicative elements of English, including memorizing vocabulary and grammar drills, though oral practice is sometimes implemented in the form of audiolingual instructions (e.g., rote repetition and pattern practice).

The TBL interventions occurred in the second semester of students' third-grade year, during classes with both the Japanese teacher of English and the American teacher present. The Japanese teacher of English had 20 years of teaching experience; the American teacher had two years of teaching experience.

Task Design and Implementation

Five TBL lessons (50 minutes each) were implemented over four months. Each lesson occurred three- to four-weeks apart. The lessons were designed for the explicit aim of facilitating L2 interaction in the classroom. Each TBL lesson consisted of three stages: a pre-task, a main task, and a post-task.

At the pre-task stage, participants engaged in two sub-tasks: an input-based task, and a creative task in preparation for the main task. In the input-based task, students were instructed to read information related to the task topic (e.g., a survey on sightseeing spots in Okinawa) in English and respond to the information (e.g., answering the survey by putting checks in given boxes). The information contained some exemplars of the target linguistic features (e.g., lexical and grammatical phrases), but the teacher did not explicitly teach them to the students. Then, in the creative task, participants created their own information (e.g., creating ranking-lists for sightseeing spots in Okinawa and reasons) on the worksheet. The sub-tasks scaffolded speech production for the main task.

At the main task stage, students performed a 10-minute task in which they freely chose their partners. The task consisted of an information exchange and a decision-making component. The purpose of this task was to elicit meaning-focused communication between students in pairs using informa-

tion collected during the pre-task phase. For example, in Lesson 1, students exchanged information on local sightseeing spots in Okinawa they preferred before deciding on the best places to visit based on their combined information. In line with Shintani and Ellis' (2014) criteria for communicative tasks, its primary focus was on meaning, it contained an information gap, it required learners to rely on their own linguistic resources, and there was a clearly defined communicative goal.

At the post-task stage, participants were instructed to individually write reports (e.g., a travel itinerary) in English based on information from the main task (e.g., deciding on the best tourist destination). In summary, the pre-task allowed learners to generate input to be used in the main task, as the main task focused on meaningful oral communication. The post-task required students to reflect on their oral interactions and integrate their thoughts and experiences into a written product. Table 1 provides a full summary of the stages:

Table 1
Task Descriptions

TBL intervention	Pre-task (20 min)		Main task (10 min)	Post-task (10 min)
	Input-based task	Creative task		
Lesson 1	Answering a survey about sightseeing spots during Okinawa trip	Writing reasons for survey responses	Exchanging travel experiences in Okinawa	Writing up suggestions for American teacher who is going to Okinawa based on collaborative outcome
Lesson 2	Rearranging Osaka-sightseeing ranking and descriptions jumbled up by a cat	Writing itinerary for Osaka visit	Exchanging itinerary information and deciding on best tour	Writing up itinerary based on collaborative outcome

TBL intervention	Pre-task (20 min)		Main task (10 min)	Post-task (10 min)
	Input-based task	Creative task		
Lesson 3	Answering "Guess who?" questions asked by two teachers	Rearranging jumbled up information on stars	Exchanging information on favorite famous people	Writing up peers' preferences based on collaborative outcome
Lesson 4	Answering survey about favorite weekend activities	Writing up reasons for survey responses	Asking peers to do something together on weekend and deciding on a plan	Writing agreed upon plan based on collaborative outcome
Lesson 5	Finding incorrect information in teacher's Christmas plan	Making imaginary Christmas plan with ¥500,000 budget	Exchanging plans and deciding on the best Christmas plan	Writing about the best Christmas plan

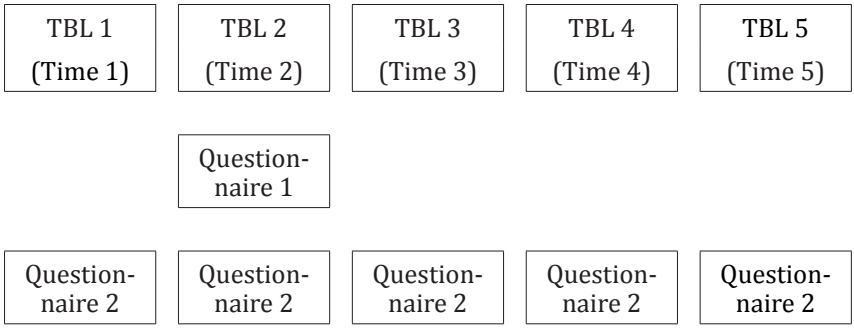
Note. Adopted from "Factors Affecting Situational Willingness to Communicate in Young EFL Learners," by Toyoda & Yashima (2021).

The above tasks were carefully designed and implemented to facilitate participants' WTC as well as active task engagement. In terms of task design, students benefited from familiar topics (Kang, 2005; MacIntyre et al., 1998; Pawlak et al., 2016) and the use of personal information (Aubrey, 2017a; Dörnyei, 2001, 2007) during task performance. Implementation choices thought to enhance engagement included dyadic interaction (Cao & Philp, 2006; Kang, 2005; Zhong, 2013), allowing students to choose their interlocutor (Egbert, 2004), and repetition of similar task types (MacIntyre et al., 1998; MacIntyre & Doucette, 2010; Skehan, 1998). Furthermore, during each task, teacher roles were limited to giving instructions. In other words, the teachers tried to eliminate as many externally-imposed influences on interaction as possible (e.g., no incentives were given in terms of grades or rewards).

Data Collection

To answer our research questions, we adopted a mixed-methods approach juxtaposing quantitative and qualitative data. All data for this study were collected within the participants' regular English classes throughout the four-month-long TBL intervention period. Data collection instruments consisted of two questionnaires written in Japanese (hereafter Questionnaires 1 and 2). Figure 1 shows the timing of the administration of both questionnaires.

Figure 1
Timing of Questionnaire Administration



Questionnaire 1

Questionnaire 1 with 76 items was administered once to elicit data related to learners' stable L2 learning and communication dispositions, attitudes toward TBL, and the classroom social environment. As it included questions regarding participants' general attitudes toward the TBL instruction, it was administered after participants experienced two TBL lessons. The variables measured using this instrument are enumerated below (1 to 7). The number of items and corresponding Cronbach's alpha values for each construct in both questionnaires are shown in parentheses. Items measuring variables 1 and 2 were rated based on a 6-point Likert-type scale anchored by 1 (never willing) and 6 (always willing), and items measuring variables 3 to 7 were rated based on a 6-point Likert-type scale anchored by 1 (strongly disagree) and 6 (strongly agree). According to Kline's (1999) criteria for describing

internal consistency, an alpha greater than .9 constitutes an excellent fit, between .7 and .9 represents a good fit, and between .6 and .7 is an acceptable fit. All values reported either met or exceeded the criteria for acceptable fit.

***1. Trait-like L2 WTC (8 items, α=.90*).** WTC items were adapted from Ryan's WTC scale (2009) which he created for the Japanese EFL context based on McCroskey's WTC scale (1992). This measure captured participants' general tendency to communicate in English when given opportunities in various situations in and out of school (e.g., "I would talk with an acquaintance while standing in line").

2. Trait-like L1 WTC (8 items, α=.87). The participants' L1 WTC was also assessed using modified versions of the above Trait-Like L2 WTC items. This measure captured the participants' general tendency to communicate in *Japanese*.

3. Perceived L2 communicative competence (23 items, α=.97). To measure perceived communicative competence in English, 23 "can-do" items were taken from the Eiken English proficiency test (*Eiken Can-Do List*, n.d.) and based on the CEFR "can-do" assessment. Based on Negishi et al.'s (2013) finding that third-year Japanese junior high school students (aged 14-15) generally fall within a CEFR English ability range from pre-A1 to A1, assessment items for those levels were used (e.g., "If I don't understand what the other person says, I can ask him/her a question in English").

4. L2 anxiety in the classroom (8 items, α=.83). These items, taken from Ryan (2009), assessed students' degree of communication apprehension in English (e.g., "I feel nervous when I speak English in English class").

5. L2 motivation (12 items, α=.89). These items, adapted from Gardner and Lambert (1972), form a measure of L2 motivation and consist of two separate variables:

a. ***L2 motivational intensity (6 items, α=.84).*** This component captures how much effort learners put into learning the L2 (e.g., "Compared to my classmates, I think I study English relatively hard").
b. ***Desire to learn English (6 items, α=. 77).*** This component captures how strongly learners want to study the L2 (e.g., "I find studying English more interesting than other subjects").

6. Task attitudes (4 items, α=.83). These items measured the participants' general attitudes toward the TBL approach. Two items were adopted from Dörnyei and Kormos (2000) and asked about tasks in general, e.g., "I like the tasks in English lessons," and the remaining two items asked students to compare TBL with more grammar-focused English lessons (e.g., "I am more motivated to engage in TBL lessons than in the regular English lessons").

7. Group attitudes (13 items, α=.90). These items consisted of two subcategories:

- ***a. Perceived group cohesiveness (7 items, α=.87)***. These items determined the degree to which students felt that the class formed as a cohesive group. They were based on items taken from Clément et al. (1994) (e.g., "I think my group is better than the other groups").
- ***b. Perceived group usefulness (6 items, α= .87)***. These items were taken from Fushino (2010) and elicited information about the usefulness of group work (e.g., "During group work, I learn various opinions and ideas from my group members").

Questionnaire 2

To elicit information regarding any changes in situational variables throughout the intervention, Questionnaire 2 was administered immediately following each of the five TBL lessons. Designed to elicit situational L2 WTC determinants for each task, the questionnaire contained three parts: a situational WTC scale, task-related scales, and an open-ended reflection. Each part is outlined below, with Cronbach's alpha values. Similar to Questionnaire 1, all values either met or exceeded the criteria for acceptable reliability.

1. Situational L2 WTC (i.e., interaction FOC) (4 items, α= .82). Following the practice of previous studies (e.g., Yashima et al., 2004), situational L2 WTC was operationalized as self-reported frequency of communication during each interactional task (hereafter: interaction FOC). Items and scales were taken from Yashima et al. (2004) to determine how often students voluntarily attempted to communicate during an interactional task (e.g., "I volunteered answers or asked questions during an interactional task"). Students indicated their interaction FOC on a 10-point scale anchored from "not at all" to "very frequently." In addition to interaction FOC data, the approximate number of self-initiated turns reported by students immediately after each lesson was considered when answering RQ2. In all cases, students

were asked to maintain awareness of their turn-taking frequency and to report it as precisely as possible.

***2. Situational task-related variables*.** The following items, a) and b), were rated based on a 6-point Likert-type scale anchored by 1 (strongly disagree) and 6 (strongly agree).

a. ***Perceived situational task competence (5 items, α=.92)*.** Given that "can-do" statements serve as a record of what students perceive they are capable of doing in the L2 (Willis & Willis, 2007), five "can-do" items were chosen to assess how students perceived their ability to perform the tasks in each TBL lesson on a 6-point Likert-type scale (e.g., "I can negotiate with my classmates using only English to achieve a task goal").
b. ***Situational task engagement (6 items, α= .93)*.** These items, taken from Dörnyei and Kormos (2000), measured participants' attitudes toward each TBL lesson as well as engagement in each lesson. Students were asked to indicate the degree to which they agreed with statements regarding their own task performance on a 6-point Likert-type scale (e.g., "I enjoyed achieving the task goal").

Open-ended Reflection

In addition to the quantitative data, we obtained written, qualitative data from open-ended reflections from each participant that provided the learner's retrospective thought processes for each task. Immediately after each task, students were given 10 minutes to write a comment in Japanese discussing their task performance.

Data Analysis

To answer Research Question 1, which addressed factors influencing situational L2 WTC, correlation and multiple-regression analyses were conducted on the eight enduring variables (Questionnaire 1) and three situational variables (Questionnaire 2). To answer Research Question 2, which addressed developmental features of EFL learners' situational L2 WTC, four repeated-measures one-way ANOVAs were performed on the four situational variables (interaction FOC, self-initiated turns, perceived situational task competence, and situational task engagement) to test for significant change variables from Time 1 (TBL 1) through Time 3 (TBL 3) to Time 5 (TBL 5). All quantitative analyses were carried out using SPSS (Version 23).

To add insights to the quantitative analyses, we conducted a content analysis of the open-ended reflections each participant wrote in Japanese at the end of the initial (TBL 1) and final (TBL 5) sessions. This followed the inductive analysis method recommended by Corbin and Straus (2015). The participants' reflections were coded, and these codes were subsequently abstracted to categories (higher-order codes) and several subcategories specifying each main category. To determine interrater reliability of the coding, two independent coders, both researchers in applied linguistics, coded 25% of randomly selected students' open-ended reflections, as recommended by Lombard et al. (2005) as an acceptable sub-sample to use for calculating inter-rater reliability. Cohen's Kappa was calculated, and the results showed moderate agreement (.71) between raters. This result was deemed satisfactory (see McHugh, 2012), and the first author coded the remaining data alone.

Results of Quantitative Analyses

Factors Influencing Situational WTC

The results of the correlation analysis showed that interaction FOC was highly correlated with the two situational variables, perceived situational task competence (r =.89) and situational task engagement (r =.81), moderately correlated with the other linguistic and non-linguistic variables (.67 < r < .39) and L2 proficiency (r =.42); but not with group attitudes (r =.13). To identify strong predictors of situational L2 WTC among the correlated variables above, a multiple stepwise regression analysis was conducted, with interaction FOC as the dependent variable and all other variables (except group attitudes, which had a weak correlation with situational L2 WTC) treated as independent variables (i.e., perceived L2 communicative competence, trait-like L2 WTC, L2 anxiety, L2 motivation, L1 WTC, task attitudes, L2 proficiency, perceived situational task competence, and situational task engagement) (See Appendix for the descriptive statistics). As Table 2 shows, two situational variables—perceived situational task competence and situational task engagement—along with L1 WTC were predictors of interaction FOC. A calculated partial regression coefficient was significant, F (3,102) = 156.40, p < .001, η^2 = .82. Acquired partial regression coefficients showed that perceived situational task competence, B (.64) influenced interaction FOC more strongly than either situational task engagement, B (.21) or L1 WTC, B (.18). The risk of multicollinearity was considered negligible as variance inflation factor values ranged from 1.25 to 2.96.

Table 2
Result of Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Situational L2 WTC (interaction FOC)

	B	SEB	B	
Intercept		0.46	-3.96	
Situational perceived task competence	0.64	0.16	1.42	***
Situational task engagement	0.21	0.15	0.42	***
L1 WTC	0.18	0.10	0.39	**
R^2		0.82***		

*p<.05. ** p<.01. ***p<.00.

Developmental Features of Learners' Situational L2 WTC

RQ 2 addressed the development of situational L2 WTC, which was operationalized as interaction FOC and self-reported turns for the five TBL lessons. In order to examine whether significant changes were observed through the TBL intervention, an ANOVA was performed comparing three time points, namely the beginning, the middle and end points. Mauchly's test for each situational variable showed no violation of sphericity. In addition, Bonferroni's adjustment was applied to the significance level to deal with Type 1 error. To determine where significant change occurred, multiple comparisons were conducted. Results indicated a significant difference in situational WTC-variables between Time 1 and Time 5: interaction FOC, F (2, 232) = 35.21, p < .001, η^2 = .23, and self-reported turns, F (2, 208) = 67.97, p < .001, η^2 = .40). For interaction FOC, the results showed a significant difference between Time 1 and Time 3 and also between Time 1 and Time 5 (p < .001). A significant difference was found in the number of self-reported turns between Time 1 and Time 3 (p < .001), between Time 3 and Time 5 (p < .001), and between Time 1 and Time 5 (p < .001).

Since the multiple regression in RQ1 showed that two situational variables (i.e., perceived situational task competence and situational task engagement) are strong predictors of interaction FOC, we also examined changes in these variables. Perceived situational task competence and task engagement were examined with ANOVAs using the same procedure as above to determine if there were any significant changes between Times 1, 3, and 5. Results indicate a significant difference in these two situational variables between Time 1 and Time 5: perceived situational task competence, F (2,

228) = 16.24, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .13$) and situational task engagement, F (2, 228) = 5.09, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .04$). For perceived situational task competence, the results showed a significant difference between Time 1 and Time 3 as well as between Time 1 and Time 5 ($p < .001$). Regarding situational task engagement, significant differences were found between Time 1 and Time 3, and Time 1 and Time 5 ($p < .001$), but not between Time 3 and Time 5.

The results suggest that interaction FOC, self-reported turns, and perceived situational task competence significantly improved throughout the TBL intervention, while situational task engagement improved only during the first half of the intervention. Table 3 summarizes the descriptive statistics for interaction FOC and self-reported turns (used as indicators of situational WTC) as well as perceived situational task competence and situational task engagement from Time 1 (TBL 1) to Time 5 (TBL 5). Figures 2, 3, and 4 show how each of the situational variables as well as the number of self-reported turns changed over the TBL-intervention period.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics of Situational Variables: Group Means and Standard Deviations

Situational variables	Mean (SD)					Post-hoc
	Time 1	Time 2	Time 3	Time 4	Time 5	
Interaction FOC (Situational L2 WTC)	4.78 (2.09)	5.39 (2.03)	5.52 (2.16)	5.72 (1.86)	5.80 (2.01)	1-3, 1-5
Situational perceived task competence	4.05 (0.97)	4.37 (0.93)	4.33 (0.90)	4.45 (0.85)	4.41 (0.95)	1-3, 1-5, 3-5
Situational task engagement	4.25 (1.10)	4.37 (1.04)	4.45 (1.03)	4.31 (1.03)	4.30 (1.14)	1-3, 1-5
Self-reported turns	4.53 (2.34)	9.50 (5.39)	7.30 (4.51)	8.73 (4.72)	9.86 (5.30)	1-3, 1-5

Note. N=107 available from Time 1 to Time 5.

Figure 2

Interaction FOC for Whole Group

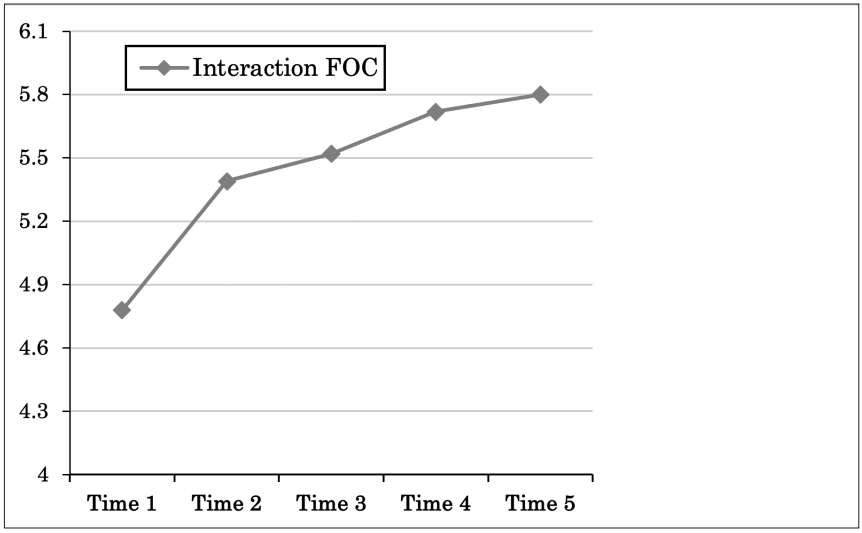


Figure 3

Perceived Situational Task Competence and Situational Task Engagement in Interactional Tasks for Whole Group

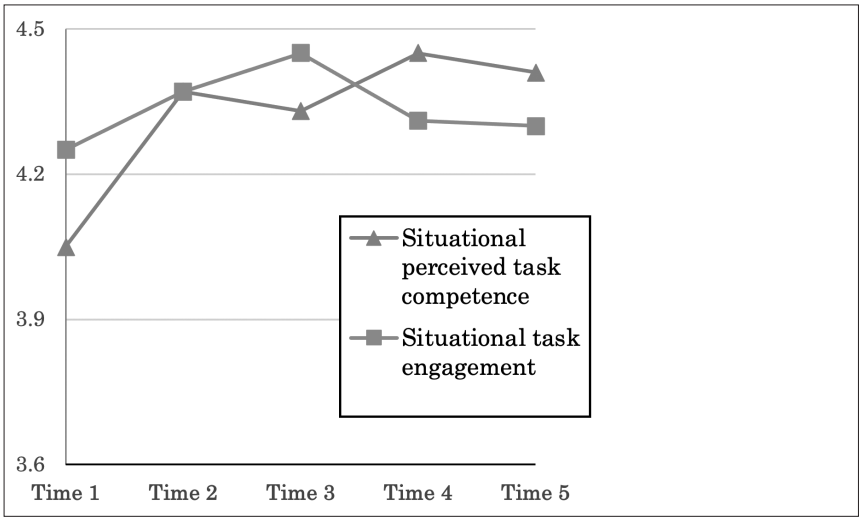
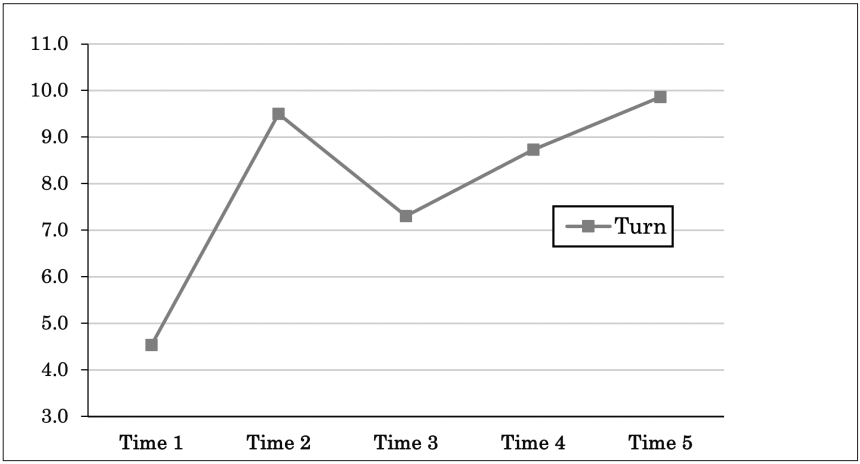


Figure 4

Number of Self-Reported Turns in Interactional Task for Whole Group



Results of Qualitative Analyses

Table 4 shows a summary of the analyses of participants' reflections after the initial (Time 1) and final (Time 5) sessions. Students provided a total of 167 comments on Time 1 experiences and 191 comments on Time 5 experiences. Comments were coded and divided into subcategories and then subsequently aggregated into seven categories each for Time 1 and Time 5, as shown in Table 4. Although in qualitative studies, interpretation does not necessarily depend on the quantity of responses, in this study, numbers of responses were counted to grasp general response patterns and to structure a detailed discussion of students' experiences.

Table 4
Results (Categories and Subcategories) of Qualitative Content Analysis

Time 1	Time 5
Enjoyment (69)	*Enjoyment (73)*
Had fun using English with peers (30)	Enjoyed sharing real information with friends (44)
Enjoyed tasks (19)	Enjoyed interacting with many people in English, with many turns (11)
Had fun using English but found it difficult (18)	Enjoyed using English (8)
Enjoyed learning new words (2)	Enjoyed tasks (9)
	Enjoyed working with peers (1)
Lack of perceived communicative competence (33)	*Perceived communicative competence (53)*
Unable to speak English (20)	Able to interact with peers, with improved interactional skills (26)
Unable to perform tasks (11)	Able to interact, with increased turns (21)
Unable to achieve task goal (1)	Able to perform tasks better than past performance (5)
Unable to generate own ideas (1)	
Desire for improvement (26)	*Retrospection on communication messages (24)*
Desire to improve task interactions (20)	Was impressed with interlocutors' ideas (18)
Desire to increase the number of turns (6)	Respected interlocutors' attitudes (5)
	Was surprised to learn about interlocutors (1)

Time 1	**Time 5**
Perceived communicative competence (19)	*Lack of perceived communicative competence (15)*
Able to speak English (14)	Unable to speak English (12)
Able to interact with each other (5)	Had trouble coming up with own ideas (1)
	Lacked intention to interact with others (1)
	Lacked necessary vocabulary (1)
Perceived TBL effectiveness (12)	*Perceived TBL effectiveness (12)*
Values TBL for communication development (12)	TBL helped gain communicative abilities in L2 (12)
Retrospection on communication messages (5)	*Desire for improvement (8)*
Learned friends' personal information (3)	Desire to improve English to succeed in communication (6)
Increased interest in friends' recommended places (2)	Desire to increase WTC (2)
Not enjoying (3)	*Desire for social interaction in L2 (6)*
Unable to understand tasks (2)	Desire for further interactions (3)
Unable to perform tasks (1)	Desire to socialize in L2 outside classroom (3)

Note. Main categories (i.e., higher-order codes) are italicized in bold; sub-codes are shown under each main category.

Overall, the qualitative results indicate some key changes in perceptions. The following percentages account for the proportion out of the total number of responses at the respective times. The largest proportion of learners' comments related to enjoyment at both Time 1 (41.32%) and Time 5 (38.21%), indicating that learners' enjoyment did not wane over the intervention period. However, the subcategories under "Enjoyment" at Times 1 and 5 were quite different in that participants came to enjoy more gregarious meaning-focused communication with peers in the L2 during Time 5 than

during the initial Time 1 stage. During Time 1, most participants reported enjoyment in using their L2 with others for communication. For example, frequent comments included: "I had fun using the L2 with peers" and "I enjoyed getting my message across in the L2." In contrast, at Time 5, the majority of participants commented on a form of enjoyment related to the process of authentic social interactions with others (e.g., sharing information, learning something new, and interacting more frequently than before). For example, some students wrote: "I really enjoyed sharing information in the L2 with my friends on topics we had never talked about;" "I was surprised to learn that my friend had that kind of future plan" and, "I really enjoyed telling others what I think and learning about what others think."

Comparing the initial and final task lessons, for Time 1, participants' comments tended to focus on the act of using the L2, the tasks themselves, and the learning process. In contrast, for Time 5, comments tended to have a more meaning-focused interpersonal dimension, reflecting an appreciation of interacting with many people and sharing information with friends on specific topics.

Another important aspect of the task experience for students was perceived communicative competence. For Time 1, learners reported proportionally more comments related to *lack* of perceived communicative competence (19.76%) than perceived communicative competence (11.38%), indicating that learners felt they were deficient in the skills needed to successfully complete the task. The most frequently cited reason was "being unable to speak English." As one student wrote, "I simply could not put words together to speak English well during the task." However, the opposite was true of Time 5, with learners reporting more comments describing their perceived communicative competence (27.74%) than lack thereof (7.85%). In sum, there was a substantial increase in the number of participants who came to perceive themselves as competent in performing interactional tasks as well as a decrease in the number of participants who felt less than competent and did not enjoy the tasks.

Other comments were offered less often but with nonetheless interesting patterns. Learners reported a desire for improvement much more frequently at Time 1 (15.56%) than at Time 5 (4.19%), which may indicate that their need for improvement was satisfied in some way. Learners increased the proportion of comments on "Retrospection on communication messages" (Time 1 = 2.99%; Time 5 = 12.56%), suggesting that learners tended to reflect more on what they said in the last intervention (e.g., learned about friends' personal information). Comments related to perceived TBL effectiveness formed a mi-

nor aspect of what learners reported and remained fairly constant between the two interventions (Time 1 = 7.18%; Time 5 = 6.28%). Finally, a category unique to Time 5 was "Desire for social interaction" (3.14%) (e.g., desire for further L2 interaction), which seemed to emerge after Time 1. This desire for social interaction indicates a positive response to the communication opportunities afforded by the TBL intervention and a motivation to continue to use the English in similar task-based situations.

Discussion and Pedagogical Implications

This study investigated the situational WTC of junior high school Japanese EFL learners in a four-month-long WTC-enhancing intervention using a TBL interaction task. Situational WTC was operationalized as interaction FOC (i.e., learner's perceived frequency of voluntary communication) and self-reported turns during L2 interaction.

Research Question 1 asked what factors influence the situational WTC of L2 learners engaging in the interaction. Our findings obtained from multiple regression analyses indicate that the emergence of situational L2 WTC (interaction FOC) during the interactional tasks was subject to three key predictors: two situational factors (perceived situational task competence and situational task engagement) and one personality trait factor (L1 WTC), with perceived situational task competence found to be the most significant predictor of situational WTC ($p < .001$). This indicates that perception of ability in task performance is vital to enhancing L2 WTC, a finding consistent with past research (Cao & Philp, 2006; de Saint-Léger & Storch, 2009; Dörnyei & Kormos, 2000; Eddy-U, 2015). The second-strongest predictor was situational task engagement, suggesting that enjoyment of and engagement in the task are also important in enhancing communication.

In addition to situational factors, one enduring factor, namely L1 WTC, influenced situational L2 WTC for our participants. Since L1 WTC reflects personality, this result is congruent with the WTC heuristic model (MacIntyre et al., 1998) and Freiermuth and Ito (2020), in which personality is one of the enduring variables affecting L2 WTC. It also supports Baker and MacIntyre's (2000) claim that when through L2 communication, learners tend to transfer their own L1 communication disposition to it. In particular, novice learners' tendency to initiate L2 communication while partially relying on their L1 WTC disposition may be a characteristic of EFL contexts where students usually use their L1 as the main vehicle of communication.

Research Question 2 addressed how situational L2 WTC developed over the TBL intervention period. Firstly, the quantitative results revealed

significant increases in learners' situational WTC, with the number of self-reported turns increasing significantly overall, i.e., Time 1-Time 5 as well as at beginning (Time 1-Time 3) and end (Time 3-Time 5). Meanwhile, interaction FOC increased significantly (both overall and at the beginning of the intervention). These findings align with recent research attesting to the affective and motivational benefits of TBL (e.g., Aubrey, 2017a, 2017b). We acknowledge the lack of a control group to compare with the treatment group; however, this fact does not take away from the findings of the study. Given that participants were novice learners of English with no prior TBL experience, our findings may constitute support of TBL as an approach to enhance situational L2 WTC. In contrast to previous studies that looked at fluctuations in situational L2 WTC during a single communicative activity (e.g., Pawlak et al., 2016), our study shows how situational L2 WTC can be cultivated through a series of pedagogical efforts over time.

The quantitative results showed that perceived situational task competence made significant gains at the beginning and end of the intervention. Similar to Aubrey (2017b), this may be a result of learners' familiarization with task procedures, which in turn may have improved learners' self-confidence in approaching each subsequent task. In contrast, situational task engagement only increased significantly at the beginning of the intervention, which may be indicative of the initial novelty associated with first being exposed to TBL. Given that perceived situational task competence and situational task engagement were predictors of situational L2 WTC, positive changes in these affective reactions facilitated growth in the level of situational L2 WTC. Thus, as Zhong (2013) suggests, to strengthen novice learners' situational WTC, instruction needs to be designed in a way that can scaffold learners' understanding of the task procedures and performance in the L2.

Further evidence to support the strengthening of learners' situational L2 WTC comes from the qualitative analysis of learners' reflective comments after the initial (Time 1) and final (Time 5) task-based lessons (Table 4). Learners' affective responses became more positive as their situational WTC showed growth over time. First, it was found that more students initially reported a lack of perceived competence in relation to interactional abilities and task performance compared to those who felt competent. However, after the task-based intervention, more students reported feeling competent in a given interactional task, an increase of approximately 2.8 times (Table 4). The following comments from two students on the final intervention period illustrate this increased feeling of competence:

> In today's interaction, I think I spoke the most to others in English since the beginning of this type of lesson, so I felt competent (Student A).

> While performing a task today, I felt I was able to communicate with others in English a lot better, so I came to realize that I have gained interactional skills (Student B).

In brief, learners became more aware of their heightened task competence, including speaking ability, frequency of communication, and task processing skills, all necessary components of successful task interaction.

Secondly, the development of learners' L2 WTC can be explained through another change in learners' affective reactions throughout a series of TBL interventions. At Time 1, the most frequent perceptions were those in which learners had fun performing a communicative activity even though they strongly acknowledged the need to improve the perceived communicative competence and the need to improve it. Underpinned by this positive emotion, they endeavored to engage more intensely and frequently in interactions with a higher level of difficulty, as our quantitative results on improvement in situational task engagement over time showed. As Egbert (2004) argues, a good balance of task challenge and participant skills, as well as intrinsic interest in the task, are crucial components for intense task engagement (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997). This balance might account for the positive emotional changes seen in learners, leading to the development of situational L2 WTC.

Finally, from students' comments of the final period, we learned that not only did a larger number of students find interactional tasks enjoyable, but also that their reaction to the L2 interaction changed qualitatively, as shown in the comment below:

> During the interaction, I had a lot of fun speaking to friends and getting to know those I often talk to as well as other classmates I had never talked to before. I was amazed to learn that they have great future dreams in mind (Student C).

Following a series of interventions, more learners reported on the content of their communication (e.g., *I was impressed with my friend's attitude toward her family*), as well as their enjoyment of the interactions. In other words, at the final intervention period, students came to appreciate the interactional task as a social opportunity to exchange opinions, ideas, and thoughts among peers, as the following excerpt suggests:

> Interaction tasks gave us a chance to get to know each other and to introduce more information about my real self because we don't talk about such a topic [i.e., the given task topic] with classmates. So, interacting with peers in English was a lot of fun for me (Student D).

These results indicate that students were able to conduct more meaning-focused social interactions with peers as WTC increased. In line with Ellis' (2003) position, learners were able to engage in meaning-focused tasks and act as authentic language users in real communicative settings despite their limited L2 linguistic competency. Similar to Freiermuth and Huang (2012), the results suggest that novice learners with limited L2 competence need to see interaction not only as a learning opportunity but also as a meaningful social opportunity they can fully enjoy.

Conclusion

Despite some limitations (i.e., the absence of a control group, the use of self-rating scales to measure interaction FOC, and no confirmation of consistency in task-difficulty levels), and given the dearth of studies on learners' affective responses to TBL, our study advances the WTC research agenda. The study showed that WTC-facilitating TBL interventions facilitated situational L2 WTC among novice learners. Situational L2 WTC was attributed to the emergence of learners' positive affective reactions to peer communication in the L2 over time, which led to more frequent involvement in interactions and more highly perceived communicative competence and task management. We trust that this research will illuminate pedagogical efforts to engender in novice EFL learners the willingness to seek out communication opportunities and to convert these into authentic communication.

Acknowledgements

This research was supported by JSPS Grant-in-Aid for Challenging Research (JP26580125) and JSPS Grant-in-Aid for scientific Research (C) (JP18K00815567). We extend our sincere appreciation to Atsushi Mizumoto and Hiroyo Nakagawa for their support.

Junko Toyoda is an Associate Professor at Kansai Gaidai College. Her research interests include Willingness to Communicate in Second Language Acquisition (SLA).

Tomoko Yashima is a Professor at the Graduate School of Foreign Language Education and Research at Kansai University. Her research interests include the social psychology of second language/culture acquisition and communicative processes.

Scott Aubrey is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Curriculum and Instruction at the Chinese University of Hong Kong. His research interests include L2 motivation, learner engagement, task-based language teaching, and intercultural interaction in the classroom.

References

Aubrey, S. (2017a). Inter-cultural contact and flow in a task-based Japanese EFL classroom. *Language Teaching Research, 21*(6), 717–734. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168816683563

Aubrey, S. (2017b). Measuring flow in the EFL classroom: Learners' perceptions of inter-and intra-cultural task-based interactions. *TESOL Quarterly, 51*(3), 661–692. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.387

Baker, S. C., & MacIntyre, P. D. (2000). The role of gender and immersion in communication and second language orientations. *Language Learning*, *50*(2), 311–341. https://doi.org/ 10.1111/0023-8333.00224

Benesse Educational Research and Development Institute. (2018). 中三生の英語学習に関する調査 [*Investigation of English learning by third graders in junior high school*]. http://berd.benesse.jp/global

Cao, Y., & Philp, J. (2006). Interactional context and willingness to communicate: A comparison of behavior in class, group, and dyadic interaction. *System*, *34*(4), 480–493. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2006.05.002

Clément, R., Dörnyei, Z., & Noels, K. A. (1994). Motivation, self-confidence, and group cohesion in the foreign language classroom. *Language Learning*, *44*(3), 417–448. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1994.tb01113.x

Corbin, J., & Strauss, A. (2015). *Basics of qualitative research*. Sage Publications

Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1997). Flow and education. *NAMTA Journal*, *22*(2), 2–35.

de Saint Léger, D., & Storch, N. (2009). Learners' perceptions and attitudes: Implications for willingness to communicate in an L2 classroom. *System*, *37*(2), 269–285. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2009.01.001

Dörnyei, Z. (2001). New themes and approaches in second language motivation research. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, *21*, 43–59. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190501000034

Dörnyei, Z. (2007). Creating a motivating classroom environment. In J. Cummins, & C. Davison (Eds.), *International handbook of English language teaching* (pp. 719–731). Springer.

Dörnyei, Z., & Kormos, J. (2000). The role of individual and social variables in oral task performance. *Language Teaching Research*, *4*(3), 275–300. https://doi.org/10.1191/136216800125096

Eddy-U, M. (2015). Motivation for participation or non-participation in group tasks: A dynamic systems model of task-situated willingness to communicate. *System*, *50*, 43–55. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2015.03.005

Egbert, J. (2004). A study of flow theory in the foreign language classroom. *Canadian Modern Language Review, 60*(5), 549–586. https://doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.60.5.549

Eiken Can-Do List. (n.d.). http://www.eiken.or.jp/eiken/exam/cando

Ellis, R. (2003). *Task-based language learning and teaching*. Oxford University Press.

Foster, P., & Ohta, A. S. (2005). Negotiation for meaning and peer assistance in second language classrooms. *Applied Linguistics*, *26*, 402–430. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/ami014

Freiermuth, M. R., & Huang, H. C. (2012). Bringing Japan and Taiwan closer electronically: A look at an intercultural online synchronic chat task and its effect on motivation. *Language Teaching Research*, *16*(1), 61–88. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168811423341

Freiermuth, M. R., & Ito, M. F. (2020). Seeking the source: The effect of personality and previous experiences on university students' L2 willingness to communicate. *Learning and Motivation*, *71*(101640), 1–13. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lmot.2020.101640

Fushino, K. (2010). Causal relationships between communication confidence, beliefs about group work, and willingness to communicate in foreign language group work. *TESOL Quarterly*, *44*(4), 700–724. https://doi.org/10.5054/tq.2010.235993

Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. (1972). *Attitudes and motivation in second language learning*. Newbury House.

Kang, S. J. (2005). Dynamic emergence of situational willingness to communicate in a second language. *System*, *33*(2), 277–292. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2004.10.004

Kline, R. B. (1999). *The handbook of psychological testing* (2nd ed.). Routledge.

Lombard, M., Snyder-Duch, J., & Bracken, C. C. (2005). Practical resources for assessing and reporting intercoder reliability. https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Cheryl_Bracken/publication/242785900

MacIntyre, P. D., & Charos, C. (1996). Personality, attitudes, and affect as predictors of second language communication. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, *15*(1), 3–26. https://doi.org/10.1177/0261927x960151001

MacIntyre, P. D., & Clément, R. (1996, August 4-9). A model of willingness to communicate in a second language: The concept, its antecedents and implications. Paper presented at the 11th World Congress of Applied Linguistics, Jyväskylä, Finland.

MacIntyre, P. D., & Doucette, J. (2010). Willingness to communicate and action control. *System*, *38*(2), 161–171. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2009.12.013

MacIntyre, P. D., Clément, R., Dörnyei, Z., & Noels, K. (1998). Conceptualizing willingness to communicate in an L2: A situated model of confidence and affiliation. *Modern Language Journal*, *82*(4), 545–562. https://doi.org/10.2307/330224

McCroskey, J. C. (1992). Reliability and validity of the willingness to communicate scale. *Communication Quarterly*, *40*(1), 16–25. https://doi.org10.1080/01463379209369817

McHugh, M. L. (2012). Interrater reliability: The kappa statistic. *Biochemia Medica*, *22*(3), 276–282. https://doi.org/10.11613/issn.1846-7482

Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT). (n.d.). 中学校学習指導要領 [Course of study 2008]. http://www.mext.go.jp/component/a_menu/education/micro_detail/__icsFiles/afieldfile/2011/04/11/1298356_10.pdf

Munezane, Y. (2015). Enhancing willingness to communicate: Relative effects of visualization and goal setting. *Modern Language Journal*, *99*(1), 175–191. https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12193

Negishi, M., Takada, T., & Tono, Y. (2013). A progress report on the development of the CEFR-J. In E. D. Galaczi & C. J. Weir (Eds.), *Exploring language frameworks: Proceedings of the ALTE Kraków Conference* (pp. 135–163). Cambridge University Press.

Pawlak, M., Mystkowska-Wiertelak, A., & Bielak, J. (2016). Investigating the nature of classroom willingness to communicate (WTC): A micro-perspective. *Language Teaching Research*, *20*(5), 654–671. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168815609615

Peng, J. E., & Woodrow, L. (2010). Willingness to communicate in English: A model in the Chinese EFL classroom context. *Language Learning*, *60*(4), 834–876. https://doi.org/. org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2010.00576.x

Ryan, S. (2009). Self and identity in L2 motivation in Japan: The ideal L2 self and Japanese learners of English. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity, and the L2 self* (pp. 120–143). Multilingual Matters.

Shintani, N., & Ellis, R. (2014). Tracking learning behaviours in the incidental acquisition of two-dimensional adjectives by Japanese beginner learners of L2 English. *Language Teaching Research*, *18*(4), 521–542. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168813519885

Shirvan, M. E., Khajavy, G. H., MacIntyre, P. D., & Taherian, T. (2019). A meta-analysis of L2 willingness to communicate and its three high-evidence correlates. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research*, *48*(6), 1241–1267. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10936-019-09656-9

Skehan, P. (1998). Task-based instruction. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, *18*, 268–286. https://doi.org/10.1017/s0267190500003585

Skehan, P. (2018). *Second language task-based performance: Theory, research, assessment*. Routledge.

Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (1998). Interaction and second language learning: Two adolescent French immersion students working together. *Modern Language Journal*, *82*(3), 320–337. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1998.tb01209.x

Toyoda, J., & Yashima, T. (2021). Factors affecting situational willingness to communicate in young EFL learners. *JACET Journal*, *65*, 107–124.

Willis, D., & Willis, J. (2007). *Doing task-based teaching*. Oxford University Press.

Yashima, T. (2002). Willingness to communicate in a second language: The Japanese EFL context. *The Modern Language Journal, 86*, 55–66. https://doi.org/10.1111/1540-4781.00136

Yashima, T., MacIntyre, P. D., & Ikeda, M. (2018). Situated willingness to communicate in an L2: Interplay of individual characteristics and context. *Language Teaching Research*, *22*(1), 115–137. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168816657851

Yashima, T., & Zenuk-Nishide, L. (2008). The impact of learning contexts on proficiency, attitudes, and L2 communication: Creating an imagined international community. *System*, *36*(4), 566–585. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2008.03.006

Yashima, T., Zenik-Nishide, L., & Shimizu, K. (2004). The influence of attitudes and affect on willingness to communicate and second language communication. *Language Learning, 54*, 119–152. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2004.00250.x.

Zarrinabadi, N., Ketabi, S., & Abdi, R. (2014). Facilitating willingness to communicate in the second language classroom and beyond. *The Clearing House: A Journal of Educational Strategies, Issues, and Ideas*, *87*(5), 213–217. https://doi.org/ 10.1080/00098655.2014.924895

Zhong, Q. M. (2013). Understanding Chinese learners' willingness to communicate in a New Zealand ESL classroom: A multiple case study drawing on the theory of planned behavior. *System*, *41*(3), 740–751. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2013.08.001

Appendix

Scale Descriptions for L2 Learning and Communication Variables

Variables	*a*	*N*	Mean	*SD*	Kurtosis	Skewness
Trait-like L2 WTC	0.90	8	2.51	0.92	0.29	0.18
Trait-like L1 WTC	0.87	8	3.65	0.83	0.09	-0.49
Perceived L2 communicative competence	0.97	23	3.92	0.84	0.21	-0.03
L2 anxiety	0.83	8	2.94	1.14	-0.11	0.20
L2 motivation	0.89	12	4.20	1.09	0.23	-0.13
Motivation intensity	0.84	6	4.00	1.21	-0.06	-0.49
Learning desire	0.77	6	4.41	1.09	-0.18	0.57
Task attitudes	0.83	4	3.94	1.03	-0.65	-0.19
Group attitudes	0.90	13	3.80	0.87	0.54	-0.53
Group cohesiveness	0.87	7	3.40	1.04	-0.42	0.18
Group usefulness	0.87	6	4.26	0.88	-0.69	0.38
L2 proficiency	0.90	50	48.13	21.94	-0.80	0.39
<Situational variables>						
Interaction FOC (Situational L2 WTC)	0.93	4	5.45	2.03	-0.29	-0.27
Self-initiated turns	0.75	1	8.30	3.24	0.24	0.48
Perceived situational task competence	0.82	5	4.33	0.92	0.88	-0.59
Situational task engagement	0.93	6	4.34	1.07	-0.33	-0.20

Note. L2 Proficiency was measured by the means of five English proficiency exams scored from 0-100. Interaction FOC was based on a 10-point scale. Self-initiated turns were the number of turns during an interaction task reported by students. The rest of the variables were based on a 6-point-Likert-type scale.