



ELSEVIER

Contents lists available at [ScienceDirect](https://www.sciencedirect.com)

System

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/system

Exploring the influence of community volunteerism on adult L2 learners' willingness to communicate



Kym Taylor Reid*, Pavel Trofimovich

Concordia University (FG 5.150), 1455 de Maisonneuve Blvd W, Department of Education, Montreal, Quebec H3G 1M8, Canada

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 13 April 2017

Received in revised form 10 January 2018

Accepted 12 February 2018

ABSTRACT

One of the biggest challenges for second language (L2) learners is finding the confidence to communicate with native speakers, and the construct of willingness to communicate (WTC) is often at the center of this challenge. The goal of this longitudinal case study was to examine the impact of a supportive communicative environment on adult L2 learners' WTC. Participants included four Chinese university students studying in the US, two of whom volunteered in a kindergarten classroom for five weeks (30 h) while all four continued university ESL instruction. All students were pre- and posttested using a WTC scale, and their language use tracked through weekly logs. Quantitative analyses of the WTC scales, logs, and adapted COLT observations as well as analysis of the target participants' coded exit journal excerpts revealed an improvement in the students' WTC extending to their L2 use outside kindergarten (3.3–20.0% increase in overall WTC), and substantial growth in social language use, with the kindergarten environment cited as the primary catalyst for change. Results support the importance of nonthreatening volunteer opportunities as vehicles for increasing WTC as a supplement to traditional instruction.

© 2018 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

Adult second language (L2) learners can face many struggles, including increased communication anxiety (Young, 1991), communicative isolation (Morita, 2004), and cross-cultural adaptation leading to language loss (Lewthwaite, 1996). However, one of the most daunting challenges is finding the confidence to communicate with native speakers (Mady & Arnott, 2010). Some of learners' communication problems relate to the construct of willingness to communicate (WTC), typically operationalized as a speaker's comfort level in initiating communication with interlocutors (MacIntyre, Babin, & Clément, 1999). Comfort level is not something that can be taught, but it can be increased through pedagogical interventions (e.g., Munezane, 2013) or participation in study-abroad programs (e.g., Yashima & Zenuk-Nishide, 2008). The goal of this study was to explore the effect of another immersive but underexplored situational context on L2 learners' WTC, focusing on the benefits of adult learners' exposure to a kindergarten classroom for their comfort level in initiating and sustaining communication in the L2.

* Corresponding author.

E-mail addresses: kym.taylor.reid@gmail.com (K.T. Reid), pavel.trofimovich@concordia.ca (P. Trofimovich).

2. Literature review

2.1. Willingness to communicate

Although WTC is typically understood as a stable, trait-like construct (e.g., McCroskey & Richmond, 1990), it also likely depends on “situational variables such that, given a specific trait-determined level of WTC, persons will still vary in their willingness to speak across situations” (MacIntyre et al., 1999, p. 215). In other words, WTC encompasses both those stable speaker characteristics which capture predisposition to engage in communication (e.g., self-esteem, introversion) and changeable variables like interlocutor relationship and context. Originally presented as a first language construct, WTC has been reimagined as a multifaceted L2 phenomenon, encompassing both linguistic and psychological variables (MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clément, & Noels, 1998). As a result, interest in reimagining WTC has surged in L2 research (e.g., Cameron, 2015; Peng, Zhang, & Chen, 2017; Tedesco & Patterson, 2015; Yashima, MacIntyre, & Ikeda, 2016). Among trait- and state-level factors relevant to WTC (e.g., Cao, 2011; Gallagher, 2013; Peng & Woodrow, 2010), four representative dimensions—identity (considered in terms of a speaker's confidence and face preservation), communication apprehension, perceived competence, and situational context—were explored as possible targets for enhancement through community volunteerism.

Self-esteem, confidence, and face-preservation are part of identity maintenance, linked to speakers' decisions to engage in communication (McCroskey & Richmond, 1990). For instance, de Saint Leger and Storch (2009) found that L2 French university students considered whole-class discussion the most difficult speaking task, feeling intimidated by peers who were perceived to be more proficient, used more complex vocabulary and syntax, and showed better fluency. Students also worried about face loss, namely, that their more accomplished peers would be critical of their less-than-perfect attempts to communicate. To overcome such fears and preserve their identity, learners might have to either believe themselves to be more accomplished speakers or engage in conversations with interlocutors who are unlikely to notice or criticize their errors. Cao (2011) showed that L2 university students' familiarity with the interlocutor could increase their self-confidence and WTC, especially when the interlocutor's general disposition could motivate students to communicate.

However, depending on the interlocutors, situation, and context, some learners may question their communicative competence and therefore resist communicating. Focusing on language competence, anxiety, and WTC, MacIntyre and Doucette (2010) found that a “typical” L2 speaker, who often exhibits L2 speech disfluencies, such as pausing and hesitation, can experience high anxiety and low perceived communicative competence. Over time, this anxiety can snowball into preventing the speaker from L2 engagement, but when communicative apprehension is low, learners' self-perceived communicative competence increases, and they become more willing to communicate (MacIntyre et al., 1999). Thus, any attempt to lower communicative apprehension through controllable elements (e.g., atmosphere, interlocutor acceptance, modified interaction) could be beneficial for learners.

Situational context, including the communicative environment, can be influenced by everything from task type to patterns of class interaction and interlocutor response (Cao & Philp, 2006; Cao, 2006). If learners feel socially accepted, for instance, they feel less self-conscious about communicating (MacIntyre, Burns, & Jessome, 2011). Learners' perception of power imbalances can also contribute to situational context (MacIntyre et al., 1999). Therefore, if learners can be given some power advantage over their interlocutors (e.g., in terms of age difference), WTC might also increase. Situational context can further be enhanced by real-life community experience, as shown by Hummel (2013), who placed L2 English university students in various community service environments (e.g., public school, senior center, library). Interacting with native speakers gave students the confidence to communicate, likely as a result of the nonthreatening interlocutors and context. In sum, many variables can limit a learner's WTC, but perhaps identity could be preserved and apprehension lessened so learners could see themselves as competent communicators. One possible adult volunteer context in which these challenges could be addressed is the kindergarten classroom.

2.2. The kindergarten environment

The main communication goal of kindergarten teachers is to “excite students about the prospect of learning” by inviting open conversation, modeling language, exchanging information, and encouraging the sharing of anecdotal experiences (Catsambis & Buttaro, 2012, p. 485). The kindergarten classroom is rich with images; learning is reinforced through songs, stories, and poetry; repetition of material is standard; and interlocutors are both patient and nonjudgmental. Many of these factors can support L2 learning (e.g., Abbott, 2002; Hagiwara, 2014); to find them all in one environment could be an advantage.

L2 learning is similar to childhood first language (L1) acquisition in that linguistic input is highly learner-centered. Teachers and caregivers of young children slow their speech rate, simplify syntax, overenunciate, and use fewer words (e.g., Ferguson, 1977; Granowsky & Krossner, 1970). Furthermore, speech is often delivered using simplified vocabulary, with a focus on comprehension. Young learners are also directed to think before responding, which lessens the stress of participation for those requiring more time. Because these aspects of child-caregiver interaction (e.g., repetition, prompting, modeling,

slower speech, extra planning time) have been attested in L2 interaction and linked to language development (e.g., Gass, Mackey, Alvarez-Torres, & Fernández-García, 1999; Harklau, 1994; Lyster & Ranta, 1997), interaction in the kindergarten classroom could be more comfortable for adult L2 learners than in other situations of L2 use.

From a theoretical perspective, focusing on the kindergarten classroom as a preferred environment for enhancing L2 learners' WTC is supported through the dynamic systems (De Bot, Lowie, & Verspoor, 2007) and socialization (Duff & Talmy, 2011) theories. Indeed, WTC is dubbed a dynamic phenomenon (Macintyre & Legatto, 2011), characterized by an interconnectedness of variables. WTC should then be most improved when many variables can be tipped toward positive influence, for instance, in a communicative environment like kindergarten. According to socialization theory, the kindergarten classroom might also serve as a beneficial context for L2 development, because it can enhance learners' communicative, cultural, and linguistic competence through interaction with (young) native speakers. L2 socialization is important to L2 development (Schecter & Bayley, 2004; Springer & Collins, 2008), and its benefits likely increase when communication is nonthreatening. In sum, kindergarten appears to offer a naturalistic environment for L2 learners to socialize with native speakers in nonthreatening communicative surroundings and to supply ample opportunities for communicative engagement.

3. The current study

Manipulation of environment to enhance WTC is not a new concept. In addition to Hummel (2013), Mady and Arnott (2010) studied the perspectives of 14 to 16-year-olds (Anglophones, Francophones, and bilinguals) from five Canadian provinces on L2 communication as part of a volunteer youth experience. Participants self-reported (through pre- and post-questionnaires) increased interaction in the L2, particularly in terms of motivation and confidence, citing both deepening friendships and an increased sense of responsibility as influential factors. In addition, Springer and Collins (2008), who studied two L2 students working as tutors in a summer school program for at-risk native English youths, also found that students reported greater conversational ease and listening comprehension over time in the real-world context than in the classroom.

Additional studies have examined the effects of learning in a volunteer or service-oriented context, but without targeting WTC. In an interview study, Dudley (2007) investigated various means of volunteerism within English-speaking organizations as a way for immigrant L2 learners to improve their communicative ability. For the eight participants interviewed (one of which was a classroom volunteer), several reported increased exposure to English, but only one mentioned improvement in communicative ability (in terms of pronunciation). However, there were no documented measures to corroborate the one participant's interview comment. Martinsen, Baker, Dewey, Bown, and Johnson (2010) engaged in more thorough analysis (including a language use log) in their investigation of three different immersion opportunities (one of which was service oriented) for facilitating L2 Spanish learners' linguistic gains (i.e., pronunciation, grammar, fluency, and vocabulary). They showed that learners in the context that paired classroom instruction and community service demonstrated significant improvement in Spanish grammar, pronunciation, and fluency. In sum, while both Dudley and Martinsen et al. were interested in the role of volunteerism and community service in improving various L2 skills, neither focused on WTC.

While these prior studies provide support for the role of situational context in L2 learning, they do not necessarily show its effects on L2 learners' WTC, as it was not specifically isolated in most cases. Although Hummel (2013) targeted WTC through community service, participants volunteered only 2–4 times per month and were enrolled in a TESL program, which makes the focus on L2 communication unsurprising. Moreover, all students were L1 French speakers volunteering in English-speaking contexts in their home province of Quebec, an environment rich in both languages. These studies also relied on participants' self-reports rather than observational measures to estimate L2 communicative abilities pre- and post-exposure. Finally, Dudley's (2007) research involved adult immigrants (rather than international university students) who reflected on volunteer experiences that had been completed prior to participation in the study. And the study that focused on university students (Martinsen et al., 2010) targeted intensive study abroad experiences. Again, neither study focused specifically on WTC.

Therefore, the current study's goal was to examine the role of an unexplored volunteer environment (a US kindergarten classroom) in international university L2 students' WTC, targeting L2 English and investigating whether this context can enhance learners' WTC through socialization with young, nonjudgmental native speakers. The research questions were:

1. Will frequent participation in a kindergarten classroom result in an increased WTC for adult L2 learners, as measured by self-report?
2. Will changes in WTC as a result of the kindergarten volunteer experience extend outside of the study context and into other social, academic, and daily use environments, as reported in language use logs?
3. Will participation also result in an observable positive effect on WTC, as captured through researcher observation?
4. Will the kindergarten volunteer experience result in positive changes in communicative confidence, as exhibited in learners' exit journals?

4. Method

4.1. Participants

Participants included four female international students attending a northeastern US university, all majoring in business-related fields, who were recruited through a general e-mail to the university's ESL population. The students were L1 Mandarin/L2 English speakers, with 6–8 years of school exposure to English in China and 9–11 months of US residency (see Table 1). Based on IELTS scores and intake assessments, all were identified by the university as intermediate-level English speakers who required concentrated ESL instruction in order to progress to mainstream English courses. Of the four, two (Chun and Liling, both pseudonyms) had the required availability to participate in the target group; the other two (Min and Xiaojing, also pseudonyms) were closely matched to the target participants in proficiency, length of residency, and prior exposure to English, and were therefore designated as the comparison group. No compensation was offered to either group. The comparison students completed the same tasks to assess WTC in daily, social, and academic contexts, but only the target students visited the kindergarten and completed visit-related tasks. All students attended university ESL courses in reading, writing, vocabulary, and grammar during the study, although the comparison group was one semester ahead of the target group. Liling further attended an additional pronunciation course.

4.2. Research context

The two target students joined the kindergarten classroom three days a week, 2 h each time, for five weeks (30 h) as classroom assistants during concentrated English Language Arts (ELA) instruction. The classroom included 18 five- to six-year-olds, all native speakers of English, taught by an experienced teacher of 21 years (MA in Education). The first 20 min of each 2-h visit encompassed arrivals and independent work (targeting letter recognition, vocabulary, or phonological awareness) at tables of 5–6 students. The two adults sat at different tables, participated in all activities, and were encouraged to engage in conversation with the kindergarteners. The next 45 min were spent in whole-group activities that took place seated on the carpet. All students were encouraged to respond to the teacher's questions (after consulting briefly with a nearby classmate), and to ask their own by raising hands. Following whole-group time, students were broken into smaller pods of 3–4 for reading activities rotating every 10 min. Stations included free (silent or quiet) reading, assisted reading, vocabulary and letter reinforcement, and comprehension practice with a specialized reading teacher. The two adults rotated through these activities in separate groups, encouraged to participate and to help the children until all students were brought back together for whole-group interaction.

4.3. Materials and procedure

The four students completed McCroskey and Richmond's (1990) Willingness to Communicate Scale, both in the week before the visits began and the week after they ended. Responses to 20 situational contexts were given as percentages of time (1–100 scale) the participant would be willing to communicate in the target language in specific situations (e.g., with friends, a stranger, a significant other). To (partially) eliminate personality as a confounding variable in any possible WTC improvement, all four participants completed a second WTC scale pre- and post-study, but were asked to situate themselves as Mandarin speakers in a Mandarin-speaking environment. As self-reports vary due to outside influences (e.g., mood, motivation), the surveys targeting WTC in English and Mandarin, both administered in English, were completed back to back to keep outside influences consistent across language context. No adaptations were made to McCroskey and Richmond's original native speaker version of the survey, as all participants had sufficient vocabulary knowledge to understand the survey without modification.

To supplement the self-reported WTC measure, and to estimate daily English use in various contexts (e.g., academic, social/recreational) outside of the kindergarten classroom, all four participants completed weekly language activity logs (adapted from Ranta & Meckelborg, 2013) on Friday of each week of the study (for details, see Appendix A). Participants were asked to record the time (in minutes) spent speaking English in each of the three primary categories: daily use (e.g., making

Table 1
Participant data.

Variable	Target students		Comparison students	
	Chun	Liling	Min	Xiaojing
L1	Mandarin	Mandarin	Mandarin	Mandarin
Age	19	21	22	23
Length of residence (months)	9	9	11	11
English instruction (years)	6	7	8	7
Preadmission IELTS score (listening/speaking)	6.0/5.5	6.5/4.5	6.5/5.0	6.5/6.0
English use (home/school)	10/90%	10/90%	5/80%	5/95%

appointments, arranging transportation), social/recreational use (e.g., going to a party, Skypeing with family), and academic use—both in and out of the university classroom (e.g., librarian interaction, small group collaboration).

In addition to self-report measures, Part B of the COLT Observation Scheme (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995) was adapted for kindergarten as an observation tool. The COLT instrument was reimagined through simplification of categories, as some were irrelevant to the context (e.g., “reaction to form/message”); categories for total observation time and total instances of communication were added. The final observation scheme featured seven categories: context, utterance form, utterance type, catalyst, interlocutor, relevance, and duration (for details, see Appendix B). The scheme documented specific types of interaction (e.g., adult’s interaction with the teacher and children, percentage of self-initiated vs. elicited utterances). The 1-h observations occurred in Weeks 2 and 6, targeting dyad, small group, and whole-group communication during ELA tasks. Classroom activities were similar on both days, with comparable amounts of time devoted to each. Because the utterances could be tallied using the simplified version of the COLT chart and a timepiece and there were only two participants to observe, the observations were not audio recorded. This decision was also made with protection of the kindergarten students’ anonymity in mind.

Finally, the two target students also completed a minimally guided exit journal in English, adapted from Cao (2011), at the end of each session (15 entries total), describing how it felt to communicate in the classroom using the L2 that day. Students were encouraged to report, for example, anxiety and comfort levels, new information acquired, and anecdotes, and to elaborate on specific occasions in which they felt like speaking as well as occasions when they did not. English was chosen over Mandarin for this task as it encouraged participants to remain in the English mode (Grosjean, 2001) while completing each journal entry, after spending the previous 2 h immersed in an English-speaking context.

The study took place over seven weeks and involved baseline assessment of WTC (Week 1), exposure (Weeks 2–6), and reassessment of WTC (Week 7). All four students continued ESL instruction at the university in addition to their content course load, which included two business courses from the mainstream curriculum.

4.4. Data analysis

Following McCroskey and Richmond (1990), the WTC survey was coded by language use situation; the results were summed by context-type (group, meeting, interpersonal/dyad, public) and receiver-type (stranger, acquaintance, friend) subcategories and divided by the number of questions in that category. A total mean WTC score was calculated across the stranger, acquaintance, and friend subscores. All scores were independently computed by a second coder, producing identical values.

The weekly language use logs were totaled per category to derive the minutes each student spoke English for daily, social/recreational, and academic use (both in and outside the university classroom); category totals were then aggregated by day and summed to derive the total amount of time spent using English each week.

The observations from Week 2 and Week 6 sessions were coded separately per student, with simple percentages of utterances calculated for each communicative feature (e.g., context, catalyst, interlocutor type, and duration) out of total utterances for the session. For example, Chun made 16 utterances in the Week 2 observation. In the category of interlocutor, two utterances involved the teacher (12.5%), 10 involved kindergarten students (62.5%), one involved her fellow participant (6.25%), and three involved the whole group (18.75%).

To code the exit journals (60–235 words), entries were first segmented into comments as punctuated by the students, and the total number of comments per student was recorded. Iterative coding was used, whereby comments were assigned to two a priori defined broad categories: “related to communication” (e.g., *There is no pressure to talk with children*) or “unrelated to communication” (e.g., *In draw activity, we draw some animals and write its name in different colors*). Within the communication category, responses were further assigned to the subcategories of “likely to encourage communication” (e.g., *Children are eager to ask me questions*) or “likely to discourage communication” (e.g., *I have sore throat these days and I don't want to talk much*). Finally, of the responses coded as “likely to encourage communication,” each was further classified into a subdomain by dimension (adapted from Cao, 2011) as “environmental” (e.g., *When I shared my story to the class, I really find myself participate in*), “individual” (e.g., *I want to help them*), or “linguistic” (e.g., *Communicating in English also practice my listening and speaking*), which were thought to best capture the impact of the kindergarten environment (for details, see Appendix C). All journal entries were first coded by the first author, then another trained coder (with WTC familiarity and prior qualitative coding experience) who received detailed instructions (with examples) and independently coded all exit journals. Intercoder agreement was high for communicative phrases (Cohen’s $\kappa = .98$), communicative impact ($\kappa = .98$), and communicative dimension ($\kappa = .91$). Disagreements were resolved through discussion.

5. Results

5.1. Kindergarten context and WTC

The first research question asked if frequent participation in a kindergarten classroom would result in an increased WTC for adult L2 learners, as measured by self-report. Therefore, the first analysis targeted changes in WTC over the 5-week exposure. Table 2 summarizes the pre- and post-exposure scores for English WTC. There was a general trend toward increased WTC across all four students ($\geq 2.5\%$ in at least four of the seven categories), although the categories of

Table 2
Willingness to communicate using english in an english-speaking environment.

WTC score	Target students				Comparison students			
	Chun		Liling		Min		Xiaojing	
	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
<i>Context</i>								
Group	66.67	73.33	70.00	66.67	76.67	81.67	70.00	76.67
Meetings	33.33	83.33	60.00	63.33	53.33	73.33	53.33	53.33
Dyad	56.67	80.00	63.33	70.00	36.33	73.33	70.00	50.00
Public	66.67	66.67	56.67	63.33	63.33	70.00	56.67	73.33
<i>Receiver</i>								
Stranger	25.00	70.00	50.00	47.50	41.25	68.75	30.00	55.00
Acquaintance	77.50	77.50	45.00	55.00	75.00	72.50	75.00	50.00
Friend	65.00	80.00	92.50	95.00	76.25	82.50	82.50	85.00
Total score	55.83	75.83	62.50	65.83	64.17	74.58	62.50	63.33
Percent change	+20.00%		+3.33%		+10.41%		+0.83%	
95% CI	[0.01, 45.00]		[0.83, 5.83]		[-2.50, 27.50]		[-25.00, 25.00]	
Cohen's <i>d</i>	1.01		0.12		0.69		0.03	

Note. Values represent percentage of time participant is willing to communicate in each category. 95% CI = confidence interval for bootstrapped percent change values.

improvement varied. The largest gains, however, were made by Chun (target), who showed improvement in three categories $\geq 15\%$ (meetings, strangers, and friends). Min (comparison) also showed gains in these categories, but the improvement was far less than Chun's. For instance, Chun showed a 50% improvement in the meetings category, while Min showed only 20%. In total, Chun showed an overall improvement in WTC of 20%, which is nearly 10% more growth than the next highest change value of 10.4% (Min). While the amount of Chun's WTC improvement may be in part attributable to the fact that she self-reported much lower speaking confidence than Min prior to the study (and thus had more room to grow), the two were well-matched in length of residency and proficiency, and reported similar amounts of daily English use pre-study. Liling (target) also made gains in five categories, but they were smaller than her target group companion's. She did, however, increase her score in the acquaintances category by 10%, which shows 7.5% greater change than any other participant. The lowest overall improvement in WTC was made by Xiaojing (comparison), who increased her WTC score by only 0.8%. Her greatest improvement was in the strangers category, where Chun outperformed her by 20%.

All students also self-reported WTC improvements when the survey was framed as speaking Mandarin in an imagined Mandarin context (Table 3). Chun and Liling (target) improved in all seven categories, with Chun reporting growth of 15.4% in overall WTC, compared to 6.3%, 7.9%, and 6.3% improvement for Liling, Min, and Xiaojing, respectively. As with English WTC, Chun also showed the top two greatest improvements in single categories, with a 43.3% improvement in the meetings and an 18.8% improvement in the friends categories. It appeared that improvement in L2 WTC had a spillover effect into speakers' (imagined) L1 WTC. However, this interpretation must be considered with caution, because the two measures of WTC involved translations of the same instrument administered in sequence, so a relationship between the two measures was not unexpected.

Table 3
Willingness to communicate using Mandarin in a Mandarin-speaking environment.

WTC score	Target students				Comparison students			
	Chun		Liling		Min		Xiaojing	
	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
<i>Context</i>								
Group	66.67	71.67	76.67	80.00	81.67	88.33	76.67	83.33
Meetings	41.67	85.00	66.67	71.67	60.00	78.33	63.33	68.33
Dyad	65.00	73.33	75.00	85.00	73.33	76.67	73.33	73.33
Public	70.00	75.00	61.67	68.33	70.00	73.33	63.33	76.67
<i>Receiver</i>								
Stranger	27.50	52.50	55.00	61.25	53.75	70.00	40.00	61.25
Acquaintance	85.00	87.50	61.25	70.00	78.75	80.00	82.50	76.25
Friend	70.00	88.75	93.75	97.50	81.25	87.50	85.00	88.75
Total score	60.83	76.25	70.00	76.25	71.25	79.17	69.17	75.42
Percent change	+15.42%		+6.25%		+7.92%		+6.25%	
95% CI	[2.50, 25.00]		[4.58, 7.92]		[1.25, 12.92]		[-6.25, 15.42]	
Cohen's <i>d</i>	0.60		0.31		0.63		0.30	

Note. Values represent percentage of time participant is willing to communicate in each category. 95% CI = confidence interval for bootstrapped percent change values.

5.2. Language use in academic and social contexts

The second research question asked if changes in WTC as a result of the kindergarten volunteer experience would extend outside of the study context and into other social, academic, and daily use environments. Therefore, the second analysis targeted weekly L2 use through language use logs to examine communicative patterns outside the kindergarten classroom. The intent was to see if positive changes in WTC, as self-reported by the students and shown in kindergarten observations, would carry over into an increase of L2 use in other contexts, relative to the language use of the comparison students. The level of academic use by the four students was consistent and comparable across five weeks, with English used in the academic domain on average 24–32 h, reflecting similar academic workload. The patterns of daily (e.g., shopping, making appointments) and social/recreational use, however, showed the most change. Of the four students, Chun (target) showed the greatest gains in daily use: from 160 min per week in Week 2–205 min in Week 6. This progress is consistent with Chun's self-reported WTC increases and WTC increases observed in the kindergarten classroom. Liling (target) began with a reported 165 min per week, sustained this level for the next three weeks, ending with 135 min of daily English use in Week 6 (she was ill in Weeks 5–6, which could explain temporary decline in use). By contrast, the comparison students showed no positive change in daily English usage over the five weeks. Xiaojing's usage remained relatively stable, at about 195 min per week. Min's daily usage fluctuated slightly during the five weeks, but never exceeded her Week 2 usage of 175 min; by Week 6, Min reported her daily use at only 130 min, a 45-min decrease from Week 2.

The most noteworthy changes in English use, which were particularly substantial in the target group, occurred in the social/recreational use category (Fig. 1). Chun first reported her social/recreational English usage at 340 min per week in Week 2, which rose steadily to 520 min in Week 6. Liling's language use steadily increased from 410 min in Week 2–560 min in Week 6. Because the kindergarten classroom was largely a social context for the target students, it is encouraging that the largest amount of growth *outside* kindergarten was in the social/recreational use category. The comparison group also self-reported gains in social/recreational English use, which would be expected during the first year of college, but the growth was not as substantial, with Week 2–6 increases of about 40 min for both comparison students.

5.3. Observed classroom participation

The third research question asked if the volunteer experience would also result in an observable positive effect on WTC, as captured through researcher observation of the target students' participation in the kindergarten classroom. As seen in Table 4, Chun began the study with 16 utterances during the hour-long observation in Week 2 and produced 22 utterances in Week 6, resulting in a mean silence reduction between adjacent utterances from 3.75 to 2.22 min. She also increased the amount of sustained utterances (at least two main clauses) from 50% (8/16) to 72.72% (16/22). Although she interacted with all interlocutors (teacher, children, fellow adult, whole class) during the first observation, she was able to increase her whole-class interaction from 18.75% (3/16) to 36.36% (8/22) of utterances, which corresponds to her high meetings score on the WTC survey. In relation to context, Chun's small- and whole-group participation shifted to accommodate a sharp increase in dyad participation, which was nonexistent in Week 2 and increased to 31.82% (7/22) of utterances in Week 6.

Liling produced 11 utterances in Week 2 and 19 utterances in Week 6, with the mean silence between utterances reduced from 5.45 to 3.16 min. She also increased the amount of sustained utterances from 45.45% (5/11) to 57.89% (11/19). Like Chun,

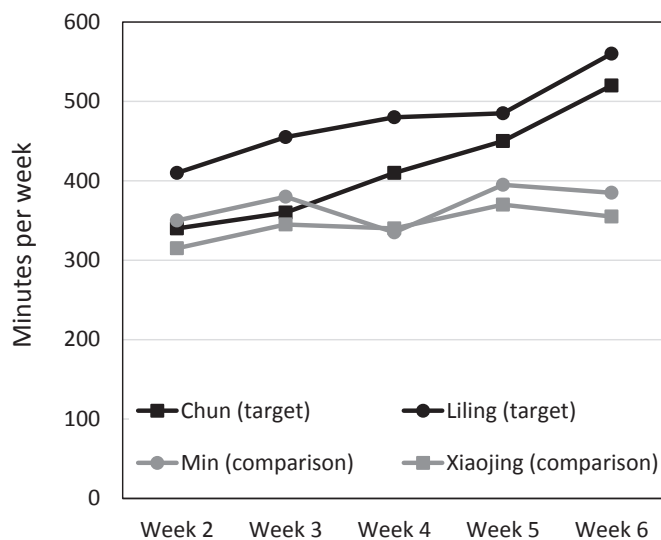


Fig. 1. Social and recreational language use.

Table 4
Results of 60-min adapted COLT B observation (percentages of overall utterances).

Category	Chun		Liling	
	Week 1	Week 5	Week 1	Week 5
<i>Context</i>				
Small group	25.00%	18.18%	18.18%	05.26%
Whole group	75.00%	50.00%	81.81%	57.89%
Dyad	00.00%	31.82%	00.00%	36.84%
<i>Interlocutor</i>				
Teacher	12.50%	18.18%	18.18%	26.32%
Kindergarten student	62.50%	45.45%	63.63%	31.58%
The other L2 student	06.25%	00.00%	00.00%	05.26%
Full group	18.75%	36.36%	18.18%	36.84%
<i>Duration</i>				
Minimal	50.00%	27.27%	54.54%	42.10%
Sustained	50.00%	72.72%	45.45%	57.89%
Total utterances	16	22	11	19
Initiated by participant	37.50%	31.82%	09.09%	26.32%
Average minutes between utterances	3.75	2.73	5.40	3.16

Liling also enhanced her whole-class interaction, from 18.18% (2/11) to 36.84% (7/19), and showed changes in contextual use as her small- and whole-group participation shifted to reflect a sharp increase in dyad participation, from 0 utterances to 31.58% (6/19). While Chun's self-initiated utterances were substantial initially (37.5% or 6/16), Liling's grew from 9.09% (1/11) to 26.32% (5/19), reflecting her growing comfort in being willing to start a conversation rather than simply respond.

The reported changes in the two target students' L2 WTC appear proportional to their engagement in the kindergarten classroom. As shown through observations, both target students increased the *quantity* of kindergarten participation (number of utterances) and also showed a change in participation *quality*. The students went from mostly responding in short phrases (e.g., reciprocating greetings, answering yes/no questions) to producing self-initiated, sustained utterances. Moreover, the utterance repertoire for both students grew to include dyadic communication, which was low or unattested in the early observation, and both willingly supplied whole-group choral responses. Chun showed a 30% increase in clarification requests; for instance, when one student shared that she had lost a tooth, Chun responded: *You lost a baby tooth? Which one?* It would have been easy to just nod, but she became comfortable enough to extend communication. Liling also showed a 5% increase in clarification requests, but was more reserved than Chun. Thus, there were several qualities of the two students' communication to support an increase in WTC, particularly for Chun, who fully embraced the experience and appeared to have benefitted from it the most.

One area of communication that was observed (albeit not recorded), was the change in overall demeanor and body language of the two students between the early and late observations. During the first observation, both were focused and serious, sitting next to each other with hands in their laps. By the late observation, they were smiling and laughing. Children gave them hugs when they entered the classroom and were in the students' laps or snuggled against them during whole-group instruction. This level of familiarity and comfort is not to be underestimated. Kang (2005) showed that WTC is a construct encompassing situational factors (e.g., task, topic) and psychological factors (e.g., security, excitement). Over time, comfort with the interlocutors and enthusiasm likely enabled the students to establish a new identity as a class member rather than as an outsider.

5.4. Communicative confidence

The final research question asked if the kindergarten volunteer experience would result in positive changes in communicative confidence. As such, the goal of the exit journals was to reach beyond the students' self-reported WTC to understand how it felt to communicate in English in the kindergarten classroom and which contextual factors had the most impact. In total, Chun made 123 comments, with 72 related to communication (67 positively) and the majority (55 or 82.09%) classified as environmental. Chun cited several environmental factors in her positive comments. For instance, with respect to interlocutor, she wrote: *I would like to talking with the kids because they are honest* (Week 2) and *I can say more with kids* (Week 3). She referenced activity theme with statements like: *There is a activity which is based on pictures. I think it is a good way to learn and remember words* (Week 5). She also noted classroom interactional patterns: *American kids have time to enough thinking and speak it loudly without constraint* (Week 6). The situational context of a kindergarten classroom likely gave Chun communicative self-confidence.

Liling made fewer comments overall (87 total), with 65 related to communication (50 positively). She also attributed the majority of her positive experiences (35 or 70%) to environment. For instance, she cited comfort level with her interlocutors: *Communicating with children is easier than adults. Because I feel more relaxed* (Week 2) and *I found communicating with little kids give me the day in a good mood* (Week 4). She wrote about a positive influence of the classroom interactional pattern: *After two day visiting, I think I integrate into there gradually and children are familiar with me gradually* (Week 3); and noted the positive

influence of the teacher: *In the class, teachers focus on children asking questions. I think I can improve my English by asking questions. Because asking means you are thinking* (Week 6).

Taken together, the majority of comments, categorized under “environment,” generally suggested a highly positive experience. The students bonded with the new L2 community. As shown in the following journal quotes, both seemed to have associated the young interlocutors’ affection and friendliness with the perception of their own confidence and overall well-being, two factors that can influence WTC (MacIntyre et al., 1999):

- In there, I feel my body is relaxed (Chun, Week 3).
- We develop a deep friendship during the 5 weeks (Chun, Week 6).
- I feel more comfortable and confident to talk with children (Liling, Week 6).

In addition, Liling noted that she was especially eager to communicate with the kindergarteners because she missed her own five-year-old sister. The students also became aware of the differences between American and Chinese cultures. The Chinese culture, in particular, is less demonstrative and more formal, with social class and hierarchical authorities playing a more important role than in the American culture (Wen & Clément, 2003). Chun commented: *Actually, I found that there are a variety of difference between Chinese kids and American kids. They all active. American kids have time to enough thinking and speak it loudly without constraint* (Week 6). The knowledge that it is more acceptable to speak out and share one’s opinion in the L2 community than it is in students’ home communities could have a positive effect on WTC that extends beyond the kindergarten classroom.

6. Discussion

6.1. Volunteer experience and WTC

Volunteering in the kindergarten context resulted in an observable positive effect on WTC for the two target participants, as captured through participant self-ratings and researcher observation. This increase in both quality and quantity of communication suggests that comfort level can be built over time through familiarity with interlocutors and the environment (e.g., Cao, 2014; Cao & Philp, 2006; House, 2004; Pawlak & Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2015). But these changes could also be attributable to the fact that the participants reached the point at which they became committed to action, a point in time MacIntyre (2007) calls “crossing the Rubicon,” borrowing a metaphor used by Dörnyei (2005) to describe his model of L2 motivation. If, in fact, the two target participants were able to forge such a commitment to action within the 30 h of their volunteer experience, our findings point to strong benefits of low-stakes, nonthreatening communicative contexts, like the kindergarten classroom, for increasing L2 WTC.

Changes in WTC as a result of the kindergarten volunteer experience were found to extend outside of the study context and into other social, academic, and daily use environments (as reported in language use logs). The most substantial increase for the target (but not comparison) students was social and recreational language use, compared to daily living and academic uses of English. Although the kindergarten classroom is an academic environment, it does not carry the same weight as a university classroom. Therefore, participation in the kindergarten classroom could be seen as a social endeavor. Because the two target students, in fact, saw the children as “friends,” it is unsurprising that any improvement in WTC should carry over to exchanges between friends in similar social environments. In contrast, L2 speakers are often reluctant to communicate with their peers in classrooms, especially at university (e.g., Yashima et al., 2016). In these contexts, stakes are higher than in social settings, and there generally exists more silence between turn-taking and more risk of face loss than in social conversations. With this in mind, as suggested by the current findings, an optimal approach to WTC improvement might be to begin with L2 interaction in nonthreatening, low-stakes social contexts before targeting other communicative environments, including academic settings.

With respect to L2 WTC, all four students were expected to show improvement over time, as speaking is a primary component of the university’s ESL curriculum. However, Chun (target student) showed more growth in L2 WTC than the other three students. If this change was due to being in the kindergarten classroom, then why was growth less substantial with Liling? Personality might have been a contributing factor. According to the kindergarten classroom teacher and the researcher-observer, Liling was naturally shy, and she engaged in less interaction inside the kindergarten classroom than Chun. If WTC is being reimagined as a dynamic construct, it can be manipulated. However, certain trait-level characteristics (like shyness), considered antecedents of WTC, likely cannot (MacIntyre et al., 1999). The current findings thus contribute to the body of work investigating the extent to which communicative environment interacts with speakers’ personal characteristics. For example, L2 anxiety has been shown to be linked to WTC inside the classroom but not to WTC outside the classroom (e.g., Peng, 2015), and personality variables, such as extraversion, appear to mediate the degree of L2 speakers’ communicative engagement in a classroom context (e.g., Cao, 2011). Most importantly, the current findings motivate further research investigating potentially reciprocal relationships between contextual factors, such as intensity and extent of communicative interactions, and various speaker personality variables (like shyness, extraversion, neuroticism), resulting in varying levels of L2 WTC.

All four students increased their self-reported WTC in both English and Mandarin (to different degrees), and the changes across English and Mandarin were comparable for each student (cf. Tables 2 and 3). This implies that perceived speaking confidence in one language might extend to a speaker’s other languages, which aligns well with previous research on the L1-

L2 interdependence (e.g., Cummins, 1980; Prevoo, Malda, Emmen, Yeniad, & Mesman, 2015). According to MacIntyre (1994), two dominant variables in WTC are perceived communicative competence and communication apprehension. Since these qualities are likely present in all of a speaker's languages, learners who gain confidence in a low-anxiety environment might reduce their apprehension and start to see themselves as more competent communicators overall (MacIntyre, Baker, Clément, & Donovan, 2003). However, the finding about L1-L2 WTC spillover effects must be explored further because an association between the two measures of WTC was expected, as the same instrument was used across English and Mandarin and both surveys were administered in the same language (English).

6.2. Pedagogical implications

Taken together, the current findings point to the benefits of language experience beyond a typical language classroom for adult learners. Of course, L2 classroom instruction is important as it represents a crucial and often only source of language input, but the classroom walls are limited in the amount of input and the type of practice available. If a classroom can provide large amounts of language exposure, then a high level of L2 proficiency is possible (Housen, 2012). However, when students' L2 exposure is limited or when students are unlikely to socialize in the L2 outside the classroom, it would be important for language programs to supplement L2 instruction with community service. Such partnerships would create a mutually beneficial positive connection between individual learners and the community.

In this study, the target students volunteered in the kindergarten classroom, providing cultural and educational experience for the kindergarteners. In exchange, the students were given a welcoming, rich instructional environment to practice and grow as L2 speakers. Community service, internships, and volunteerism could all be beneficial additions to university language programs. Prior research has shown the efficacy of L2 communities in increasing WTC, like programs that placed L2 learners as volunteers in public schools, senior centers, and libraries (Hummel, 2013), and paired L2 speakers with native-speaking high school students (Springer & Collins, 2008). However, this is the first study to explore child-adult interaction of native-speaking kindergarteners with adult L2 learners at high levels of exposure (6 h per week for five weeks) within a context of foundational learning support, and the first study in this context to focus on university-level international students. Not only did the children encourage the L2 adults to communicate, but the adults often forgot that they were at a communicative disadvantage and reported helping kindergarteners, becoming teachers of the L2 themselves.

6.3. Limitations

If addressed, several limitations could unlock more insight into the role of various communities of practice in the enhancement of L2 WTC. First, we included only four comparable learners of the same L1. For results to be relevant to other learners, larger experimental and comparison groups should include both genders, varying L1s, differing lengths of residency, and different motivational, affective, and personality profiles, which would minimize the impact of confounding variables or allow for systematic investigation of impact. Of these, gender and personality likely played the largest roles here. Children are naturally drawn to friendly people and, with many female role models in their lives, they might be more open with female over male volunteers. Another limitation was time spent in the classroom (30 h). Since positive changes in L2 WTC emerged through analyses of the observations and self-reports, environmental impact on WTC could potentially increase with more time spent in the classroom or could plateau and be resistant to change, which must be investigated further through longer-term research. It would also be advantageous to include additional measures of WTC beyond self-report, perhaps through spaced observations in the kindergarten and university classrooms and in social settings.

7. Conclusion

While the idea of encouraging L2 learners to use the target language outside the classroom is not new (e.g., Mady & Arnott, 2010), unconventional opportunities, like L2 community volunteerism, are still largely unexplored. This study provided initial evidence that WTC can be improved through new socialization contexts, particularly through community engagement. Kindergarten is likely a naturally safe space for most adult L2 learners, and the kindergarten classroom, along with senior centers, afterschool programs, and long-term medical care facilities, should be more thoroughly explored as a community of practice for L2 learning. The key might be in locating contexts where interlocutors enjoy talking in a relaxed, low-stress environment and are appreciative of the learners' company to the extent that high-level L2 skills are not required or even expected. Such contexts might offer invaluable opportunities for learners to practice language and for their interlocutors to enjoy the multiple benefits of interacting with individuals from other cultures.

Appendix A

Weekly language activity log

Adapted from *Ranta and Meckelborg (2013)*

Name _____

Date _____

Category	Subcategory	English use/exposure 1 - a little of the language I used/heard/read 2 - some of the language I used/heard/read 3 - most of the language I used/heard/read 4 - all of the language I used/heard/read	Time (in minutes) spent using/hearing/reading English	Comments
Daily living	a. appointments			
	b. paperwork			
	c. running errands/shopping			
	d. chores and daily tasks			
	e. thinking			
	f. transportation			
Social interaction	a. attending a meeting			
	b. Skype, Facetime, or other electronic chat			
	c. general face-to-face conversation			
	d. personal face-to-face conversation			
	e. group discussion			
	f. meeting with academic advisor/professor			
	g. online messaging			
	h. reading/writing email			
	i. reading/writing formal correspondence			
	j. reading/writing personal correspondence			
	k. telephone conversation			
Recreation	a. attending a party			
	b. eating at restaurant or someone's house			
	c. exercising/sports			
	d. going on a trip			
	e. going to a dance or nightclub			
	f. hobby			
	g. personal writing			
	h. playing computer games			
	i. reading comics			
	j. reading fiction			
	k. reading non-fiction			
	l. surfing the Web/computing			
	m. watching TV/movies			
Academic work (outside of class)	a. borrowing resources from the library			
	b. collecting data/doing an experiment			
	c. computing			
	d. doing language log			
	e. face-to-face discussion			
	f. listening to a presentation/lecture			
	g. making a presentation			
	h. photocopying/printing			
	i. preparing for a presentation			
	j. reading academic articles/texts			
	k. reading instructions			
	l. solving problems			
	m. studying for an exam/test			
	n. surfing the Web/library searches			
	o. taking notes/making lists			
	p. telephone conversation			
	q. thinking (analyzing, problem solving, planning)			
	r. writing a paper/written assignment			
	s. helping other students			
	t. watching video presentations			
Attending class	a. collecting data/doing an experiment			
	b. computing			
	c. face-to-face discussion			
	d. listening to a presentation/lecture			
	e. making a presentation			
	f. reading academic articles/text			
	g. reading instructions			
	h. solving problems			
	i. surfing the Web/Library searches			
	j. taking notes			
	k. thinking			
	l. writing a memo/report			
	m. writing an assignment or a paper			
	n. writing an exam			
	o. watching video presentations			

Appendix B

Observation of primary classroom communication

Adapted from COLT Observation Scheme B (Spada & Fröhlich, 1995)

Participant #: _____ Sheet #: _____ of _____

Date: _____ Start time: _____ End time: _____

Observation Location: _____

Observer: _____

Utterance #	Observation of Target Language Use (*Note time, task, and topic)	Context Dyad (D) Small Group (SG) Whole Group (WG)?	Utterance Form Choral (C) Individual (I)	Utterance Type Simple resp. (SR) Expansion (E) Clar. Req. (CR) Gen. Comment (G)	Utterance Catalyst Initiation (I) Reaction (RE) or Response (RS)?	Interlocutor Teacher (T) K Student (KS) Fellow Participant (FP) Full Group (FG)	Relevance to Conversation On Task (OT) or Off Task (FT)?	Duration Minimal (M) or Sustained (S)?
1								
2								
3								
4								
5								
6								
7								
8								
9								
10								
<p>Also note: Total observation time (in minutes) _____ divided by total instances of communication _____ = total instances of communication per minute _____ (figure for each column)</p>								

Appendix C

Coding instructions for daily journal excerpts

*Only the responses (written in black font) need to be coded. Questions and question starters (written in blue font) are included on the spreadsheet only for contextual reference.

1. Communicative phrase

PHRASE DIRECTLY REFERENCES COMMUNICATION? (Y) OR (N)

Answer yes if the conversational section (question starter and answer inclusive) includes key words like “talk,” “communicate,” “speak,” etc., or clearly references oral communication in the context of the question asked.

2. Communicative impact

LIKELY TO ENCOURAGE COMMUNICATION (EC) OR LIKELY TO INHIBIT COMMUNICATION (IC)?

Coding for this category will rely on your knowledge of second language communication in order to judge whether you think the comment refers to something that is likely to encourage communication (or contribute to an encouraging communicative environment) or inhibit communication. If you can't decide or feel as though the question doesn't apply, please put an X in the entry box.

3. Dimension

ENVIRONMENTAL (E), INDIVIDUAL (I), OR LINGUISTIC (L)

Please decide which dimension of willingness to communicate is the best match for both the content and context of each excerpt (as defined in Cao, 2011):

Environmental-relates to topic, task type, interlocutor, teacher, or class interactional pattern

Individual-relates to personal characteristics; psychological and affective factors possessed by each individual that influences WTC: perceived opportunity to communicate, self-confidence, personality, emotion

Linguistic-relates to actual and perceived ability to communicate in the L2 effectively, as well as an intention to switch back to the L1 to sustain communication; factors include L2 language proficiency and reliance on L1

***Note:** If more the excerpt seems to fit more than one category, please choose the category that you feel is the best match.

References

- Abbott, M. (2002). Using music to promote L2 learning among adult learners. *TESOL Journal*, 11, 10–17.
- Cameron, D. (2015). 'In New Zealand I feel more confidence': The role of context in the willingness to communicate (WTC) of migrant Iranian English language learners. *International Journal of English Studies*, 15(2), 61–80. <https://doi.org/10.6018/ijes/2015/2/202981>.
- Cao, Y. (2006). Temporal fluctuation in situational willingness to communicate in a second language classroom. *New Zealand Studies in Applied Linguistics*, 12, 1–16.
- Cao, Y. (2011). Investigating situational willingness to communicate within second language classrooms from an ecological perspective. *System*, 39, 468–479. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2011.10.016>.
- Cao, K. (2014). A socio-cognitive perspective on second language classroom willingness to communicate. *Tesol Quarterly*, 40, 789–814. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.155>.
- Cao, Y., & Philp, J. (2006). Interactional context and willingness to communicate: A comparison of behavior in whole class, group and dyadic interaction. *System*, 34, 480–493. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2006.05.002>.
- Catsambis, S., & Buttaro, A. (2012). Revisiting "kindergarten as academic boot camp": A nationwide study of ability grouping and psycho-social development. *Social Psychology of Education*, 15, 483–515. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11218-012-9196-0>.
- Cummins, J. (1980). The construct of language proficiency in bilingual education. In J. E. Alatis (Ed.), *Current issues in bilingual education: Georgetown university round table on languages and linguistics* (pp. 81–103). Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.
- De Bot, K., Lowie, W., & Verspoor, M. (2007). A Dynamic Systems Theory approach to second language acquisition. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition*, 10, 7–21. <https://doi.org/10.1017/s1366728906002732>.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2005). *The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition*. London, UK: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Dudley, L. (2007). Integrating volunteering into the adult immigrant second language experience. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 63, 539–561. <https://doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.63.4.539>.
- Duff, P. A., & Talmy, S. (2011). Language socialization approaches to second language acquisition. In D. Atkinson (Ed.), *Alternative approaches to second language acquisition* (pp. 95–116). New York, NY: Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203830932>.
- Ferguson, C. A. (1977). Baby talk as a simplified register. In C. Snow, & C. A. Ferguson (Eds.), *Talking to children* (pp. 209–235). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0305000900002130>.
- Gallagher, H. C. (2013). Willingness to communicate and cross-cultural adaptation: L2 communication and acculturative stress as transaction. *Applied Linguistics*, 34, 53–73. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/ams023>.
- Gass, S., Mackey, A., Alvarez-Torres, M. J., & Fernández-García, M. (1999). The effects of task repetition on linguistic output. *Language Learning*, 49, 549–581. <https://doi.org/10.1111/0023-8333.00102>.
- Granowsky, S., & Krossner, W. J. (1970). Kindergarten teachers as models for children's speech. *The Journal of Experimental Education*, 38, 23–28. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00220973.1970.11011210>.
- Grosjean, F. (2001). The bilingual's language modes. In J. L. Nicol (Ed.), *One mind, two languages: Bilingual language processing* (pp. 1–22). UK: Blackwell: Oxford.
- Hagiwara, A. (2014). Effect of visual support on the processing of multiclausal sentences. *Language Teaching Research*, 19, 455–472. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168814541715>.
- Harklau, L. (1994). ESL versus mainstream classes: Contrasting L2 learning environments. *Tesol Quarterly*, 28, 241–272. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3587433>.
- House, A. (2004). *Learner perceptions of willingness to communicate* (Unpublished Master's thesis). New Zealand: University of Auckland.
- Housen, A. (2012). Time and amount of L2 contact inside and outside the school: Insights from the European schools. In C. Muñoz (Ed.), *Intensive exposure experiences in second language learning* (vol. 65). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2013.12070_5.x.
- Hummel, K. M. (2013). Target-language community involvement: Second-language linguistic self-confidence and other perceived benefits. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 69, 65–90. <https://doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.1152>.
- Kang, S. J. (2005). Dynamic emergence of situational willingness to communicate in a second language. *System*, 33, 277–292. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2004.10.004>.
- Lewthwaite, M. (1996). A study of international students' perspectives on cross-cultural adaptation. *International Journal for the Advancement of Counselling*, 19, 167–185. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF0011478>.
- Lyster, R., & Ranta, L. (1997). Corrective feedback and learner uptake. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 19, 37–66. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263197001034>.
- MacIntyre, P. D. (1994). Variables underlying willingness to communicate: A causal analysis. *Communication Research Reports*, 11, 135–142. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08824099409359951>.

- MacIntyre, P. D. (2007). Willingness to communicate in the second language: Understanding the decision to speak as a volitional process. *The Modern Language Journal*, 91(4), 564–576. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2007.00623.x>.
- MacIntyre, P. D., Babin, P. A., & Clément, R. (1999). Willingness to communicate: Antecedents & consequences. *Communication Quarterly*, 47, 215–229. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01463379909370135>.
- MacIntyre, P. D., Baker, S., Clément, R., & Donovan, L. (2003). Talking in order to learn: Willingness to communicate and intensive language programs. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 59, 589–608. <https://doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.59.4.589>.
- MacIntyre, P. D., Burns, C., & Jessome, A. (2011). Ambivalence about communicating in a second language: A qualitative study of French immersion students' willingness to communicate. *The Modern Language Journal*, 95, 81–96. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2010.01141.x>.
- MacIntyre, P. D., Dörnyei, Z., Clément, R., & Noels, K. A. (1998). Conceptualizing willingness to communicate in a L2: A situational model of L2 confidence and affiliation. *The Modern Language Journal*, 82, 545–562.
- MacIntyre, P. D., & Doucette, J. (2010). Willingness to communicate and action control. *System*, 38, 161–171. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2009.12.013>.
- MacIntyre, P. D., & Legatto, J. J. (2011). A dynamic system approach to willingness to communicate: Developing an idiodynamic method to capture rapidly changing affect. *Applied Linguistics*, 32, 149–171. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amq037>.
- Mady, C., & Arnott, S. (2010). Exploring the "situation" of situational willingness to communicate: A volunteer youth exchange perspective. *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 13, 1–26.
- Martinsen, R. A., Baker, W., Dewey, D. P., Bown, J., & Johnson, C. (2010). Exploring diverse settings for language acquisition and use: Comparing study abroad, service learning abroad, and foreign language housing. *Applied Language Learning*, 20, 45–69.
- McCroskey, J. C., & Richmond, V. P. (1990). Willingness to communicate: A cognitive view. *Journal of Social Behavior & Personality*, 5, 19–24.
- Morita, N. (2004). Negotiating participation and identity in second language academic communities. *Tesol Quarterly*, 38, 573–603. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3588281>.
- Munezane, Y. (2013). Attitudes, affect and ideal L2 self as predictors of willingness to communicate. *EUROSLA Yearbook*, 13, 176–198. <https://doi.org/10.1075/eurosla.13.09mun>.
- Pawlak, M., & Mystkowska-Wiertelak, A. (2015). Investigating the dynamic nature of L2 willingness to communicate. *System*, 50, 1–9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2015.02.001>.
- Peng, J. E. (2015). L2 motivational self system, attitudes, and affect as predictors of L2 WTC: An imagined community perspective. *The Asia-Pacific Education Researcher*, 24(2), 433–443. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40299-014-0195-0>.
- Peng, J. E., & Woodrow, L. (2010). Willingness to communicate in English: A model in the Chinese EFL classroom context. *Language Learning*, 60, 834–876. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2010.00576.x>.
- Peng, J. E., Zhang, L., & Chen, Y. (2017). The mediation of multimodal affordances on willingness to communicate in the English as a foreign language classroom. *Tesol Quarterly*, 51(2), 302–331. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.298>.
- Prevo, M. J., Malda, M., Emmen, R. A., Yenni, N., & Mesman, J. (2015). A context-dependent view on the Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis: Language use and SES as potential moderators. *Language Learning*, 65(2), 449–469. <https://doi.org/10.1111/lang.12099>.
- Ranta, L., & Meckelborg, A. (2013). How much exposure to English do international graduate students really get? Measuring language use in a naturalistic setting. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 69, 1–33. <https://doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.987>.
- de Saint Leger, D., & Storch, N. (2009). Learners' perceptions and attitudes: Implications for willingness to communicate in an L2 classroom. *System*, 37, 269–285. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2009.01.001>.
- Schechter, S. R., & Bayley, R. (2004). Language socialization in theory and practice. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, 17, 605–625. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0951839042000253621>.
- Spada, N., & Fröhlich, M. (1995). *COLT observation Scheme: Communicative orientation of language teaching coding conventions*. Sydney: National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research.
- Springer, S., & Collins, L. (2008). Interacting inside and outside of the language classroom. *Language Teaching Research*, 12, 39–60. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168807084493>.
- Tedesco, J., & Patterson, R. (2015). Efficacy of voice pedagogy training on communication apprehension and social facilitation. *International Journal of Education and Social Sciences*, 2(4), 95–102.
- Wen, W. P., & Clément, R. (2003). A Chinese conceptualisation of willingness to communicate in ESL. *Language Culture and Curriculum*, 16, 18–38. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07908310308666654>.
- Yashima, T., MacIntyre, P. D., & Ikeda, M. (2016). Situated willingness to communicate in an L2: Interplay of individual characteristics and context. *Language Teaching Research*. <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, 566–585. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2008.03.006>.
- Young, D. J. (1991). Creating a low-anxiety classroom environment: What does language anxiety research suggest? *The Modern Language Journal*, 75, 426–437. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1991.tb05378.x>.