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**Chinese as a Second Language Learners' Speech
Competence and Speech Performance in
Classroom Contexts: Cognitive, Affective, and
Socio-Cultural Perspectives**

Peijian (Paul) Sun

A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

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ABSTRACT

People learn another language to be able to communicate. Nevertheless, most people are rarely able to speak an L2 with the same degree of, or even close to, the same skill of their L1s (Segalowitz, 2010). An underlying reason could be the existence of an L2 speech discrepancy/gap between *speech competence* and *speech performance* in all learners. Such a discrepancy/gap often leads to the breakdown of L2 speech performance no matter how good speech competence is. Although many researchers have explored L2 speech/speaking from cognitive (e.g., Segalowitz, 2010), affective (e.g., Chakrabarti & Sengupta, 2012), or socio-cultural (e.g., Hernández, 2010) perspectives in an attempt to reveal the underlying reasons that may cause the discrepancy between speech competence and speech performance, little research, to date, has been conducted to investigate, comprehensively and systematically, the same cohort of L2 learners, particularly L2 Chinese learners, on the understandings of how these various aspects may contribute to a discrepant/unbalanced development of L2 learners' speech competence and speech performance. To fill this research gap, 152 Chinese as a second language (CSL) learners were recruited for this mixed methods study, with 118 for a quantitative investigation and 34 for an in-depth qualitative enquiry, informed by major theoretical and conceptual frameworks relating to L2 speech. These theoretical and conceptual frameworks include Krashen's (1982) affective filter hypothesis, MacIntyre and associates' (1998) L2 willingness to communicate (WTC) model, Dörnyei's (2009) L2 motivational self system, and Levelt's (1989) and Segalowitz's (2010) L2 speech production models, in order to examine CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance from cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural perspectives concurrently.

The quantitative results of the study, on the one hand, revealed that age, anxiety, WTC, and L2 cultural interest were the predictors for CSL learners' speech competence, while kinaesthetic/tactile learning style, processing speed, anxiety, and attitudes towards L2 classes were the predictors for CSL learners' speech performance. Moreover, it was suggested that speech competence and speech performance were not in a simple positive linear relationship. The qualitative results, on the other hand, implied that group learning style, practice strategy,

extrinsic motivation, communication apprehension, speaking self-efficacy, and WTC might account for the CSL learners' speech competence/performance development. In brief, the present study adds to our understanding of the complex nature of speech competence and speech performance from an integrated lens, namely, cognitively, affectively, and socio-culturally. The implications of the study in terms of what support could be provided to minimise the discrepancy/gap between CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance are discussed, and limitations and suggestions for future research explored.

DEDICATION

To the family of Sun

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Section 4.2.3 of this thesis is extracted from a co-authored paper entitled "Development and Validation of the Speaking Strategy Inventory for Learners of Chinese (SSILC) as a Second/Foreign Language".

Nature of contribution by PhD candidate	As the first author of this article, the PhD candidate was in full charge of drafting and revising the whole paper.
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Extent of contribution by PhD candidate (%)	80%
---	-----

CO-AUTHORS

Name	Nature of Contribution
Professor Lawrence Jun Zhang	Advising and fine-tuning the article.
Dr Susan M. Gray	Advising and fine-tuning the article.

Certification by Co-Authors

The undersigned hereby certify that:

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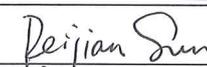
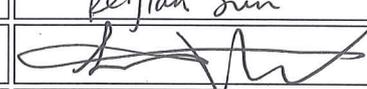
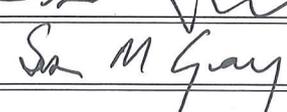
Name	Signature	Date
Peijian Sun		29/08/2016
Professor Lawrence Jun Zhang		29/08/2016
Dr Susan M. Gray		29/08/2016

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction to the Study

Explaining the underlying reasons for the discrepant/unbalanced development between Chinese as a second language (CSL) learners' speech competence and speech performance is the aim of the present study. Exploring how intermediate and advanced CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance differ in terms of cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural aspects is the over-arching research question. My interest in this study was, to a large extent, inspired by my own English-as-a-second-language (L2) speaking experiences when overseas. On the one hand, there were circumstances when I could communicate well with native English speakers. On the other hand, there were situations when I could barely speak a word even though I understood what people were saying and knew what I wanted to say. It seems there was a gap or discrepancy between speech competence and speech performance in my L2 English production. Why in some circumstances can speech competence not be well reflected in speech performance? I believe that there must be many factors hindering people from transforming their speech competence to speech performance. My experience as an L2 language user drove my investigation into L2 learners' speech competence and speech performance, particularly in the CSL context, in the hope of a better understanding of CSL speech/speaking.

The present study explores CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance via a mixed methods approach among 152 valid participants: 118 for the quantitative part and 34 for the qualitative part. A range of methods was used for data collection, such as questionnaires, tests, focus groups, and semi-structured interviews. Prior to the study, the development and validation of the instruments was carried out for checking their practicality. The instruments include the Chinese as a second language learner questionnaire (CSLLQ), a Chinese speech competence test (CSCT), a Chinese speech performance test (CSPT), focus groups, and semi-structured interviews. The CSLLQ, the CSCT

and the CSPT were developed mainly to collect quantitative data for this study, while focus groups and semi-structured interviews were adopted to triangulate and to supplement the results from quantitative data. The data collected from cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural dimensions were then analysed and interpreted in order to provide a more comprehensive and systematic understanding of CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance. Specific attention was paid to revealing the underlying reasons for CSL learners' discrepant/unbalanced development of speech competence and speech performance.

1.2 Rationale and Significance of the Study

Language, especially an additional language, is normally regarded as a bridge or a connection because it provides a way for people to communicate, to interact, and to socialise with each other. Therefore, the lack of a foreign language can impede learners' academic progress and classroom communication while studying in another country (Crystal, 2010). There are about 6,000 world languages (UNESCO, 2010), so many so that language, to a large extent, hinders people's communication and understanding of each other. With increasing globalisation, people tend to have various purposes for learning another language or languages (i.e., English, French, Spanish, German, Japanese or Chinese). English, in particular, has become a lingua franca all over the world (Björkman, 2013; Jenkins, 2015), and Chinese, as a rising language, also attracts an increasing number of learners each year. However, no matter what specific additional language is being learnt, there is an imbalance of development between speech competence and speech performance in terms of L2 language use. As Segalowitz (2010) pointed out, most people are rarely able to use an L2 with the same or even close to the same level of skill as their L1. An underlying reason can be the L2 discrepancy/gap between speech competence and speech performance that exists in every individual. Consequently, such a discrepancy/gap can lead to frustration, disappointment, and speech breakdowns for L2 learners when it comes to speech performance, no matter how good their speech competence is.

In fact, many researchers have probed L2 speaking either theoretically (e.g., de Bot, 1992, in L2 speech production model; Fulcher, 2003, in L2 speaking test) or empirically (e.g., Csapó & Nikolov, 2009, with cognitive skills; Debruyn, 2006, with extraversion; Dörnyei, Csizér, & Németh, 2006, with motivation, attitudes, and globalization) in an attempt to understand the factors influencing L2 speech performance, such as cognition (Segalowitz, 2010), affect (Chakrabarti & Sengupta, 2012), and culture (Hernández, 2010). Nevertheless, few scholars have studied L2 speech from an integrated perspective in order to discover the underlying reasons for the unbalanced development between speech competence and speech performance. The danger of pursuing an investigation from only one dimension is that “investigating individual factors will result in losing the sight of the ‘whole’ learner” (Ellis, 2015, p. 37). This study, thus, takes an integrated perspective (i.e., cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural perspectives) in order to provide more systematic and comprehensive evidence for examining what factors may cause the discrepancy/gap between speech competence and speech performance in an L2 Chinese context.

There are three reasons for investigating CSL learners’ speech gap: the rapid spread of Chinese (Mandarin), the research gap in the field of CSL, and the importance of understanding learners’ internal factors in speech production.

According to statistics, the number of Chinese language learners has reached 1.9 million globally, with 500 Confucius Institutes and 1000 Confucius classrooms in 134 countries (Hanban, 2015). It seems the increasing number of Chinese language learners is evidence that “Chinese fever” is still rising (Rose & Carson, 2014). Consequently, more studies concerning CSL are urgently needed, because they can be beneficial to both CSL learners and teachers, either in terms of long-term learning or teaching.

Moreover, there is a lack of systematic research on how cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural factors contribute to, or are related to, CSL speech competence and speech performance. Even though there is substantial research examining the effects of the three facets on English as a second/foreign language (ESL/EFL) learning, little research has been conducted to examine the overall impact of these

aspects on L2 English speaking, and no such studies have been conducted in the field of teaching and learning CSL speaking.

Lastly, there are various factors that may influence language learning and ultimate speech performance, such as the teaching methodology, the course book, the classroom setting, the learners' age, gender, affect, cognition, and culture awareness. For a successful language learner, the purpose of learning should not be merely for passing tests but rather for life-long learning. Internal factors such as cognition and affect, therefore, could be more significant in contributing to individuals' language learning. Anxiety, for example, as an affective factor can modulate performance in either a facilitating or a debilitating way (Scovel, 1978; L. J. Zhang, 2000, 2001; Zheng, 2015).

Given the above three reasons, this study, examines the impact of internal factors on CSL classroom learners' speech competence and speech performance from cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural perspectives. It is believed that this study could not only contribute to our understanding of the complex nature of CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance from an integrated lens, but could also offer some valuable implications in terms of what support could be provided to minimise CSL learners' unbalanced development of speech competence and speech performance.

1.3 Research Questions

This study seeks to explore the differences between intermediate and advanced CSL learners' cognition, affect, and socio-cultural attitudes in contributing to their L2 speech competence and speech performance. Under the guidance of this over-arching research focus, five questions are established in order to narrow down the focus of this study.

1. What are the relationships between CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance?
2. What are the differences between the intermediate level and the advanced level CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance, and their

- cognitive (i.e., learning style, speaking strategy, processing speed, and age), affective (i.e., motivation, anxiety, speaking self-efficacy, and WTC), and socio-cultural (i.e., L2 cultural interest, attitudes towards L2 communities, and attitudes towards L2 classes) factors?
3. What are the relationships between the cognitive factors and CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance?
 4. What are the relationships between the affective factors and CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance?
 5. What are the relationships between the socio-cultural factors and CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance?

1.4 Research Context

A brief introduction of the research context of this study is needed, as CSL's student-centred and communicative teaching philosophy differs from the majority of other disciplines in China. This section, in particular, provides an overview of the brief development of CSL, the syllabi of CSL, and the classroom teaching principles of CSL. The presentation of this section may contribute to our understanding of how the distinctive learning and teaching context would shape CSL learners' perspectives on their speech competence and speech performance development.

1.4.1 The Development of CSL

The Chinese education system has been significantly influenced by the Chinese ancient imperial examination established in 605 AD during the Sui Dynasty (Elman, 2002). The examination consisted of national standardised tests for recruiting talent nation-wide. This kind of examination has survived for over fifteen hundred years in China and still plays a dominant role in the Chinese education system. Since the examination is the primary way of recruiting talented students in China, the Chinese education system is exam-driven. Chinese education focuses on cultivating students' knowledge of how, rather than students' ability to show how (Ma & Ma, 2014). General classroom teaching in China is

more in the style of teacher-centred lecturing with relatively large numbers of students in a classroom (Wang, 2009; Zhuang & Zhu, 2013).

CSL is a relatively new major in China, and is predominantly provided in tertiary education. In 1950, CSL as a programme was first launched in Tsinghua University (X. Liu, 2000). With China's opening-up policy and its vigorous economic development, more and more people have decided to learn Chinese. CSL went through extensive development both theoretically and empirically, especially in 1980s and 1990s (X. Liu, 2000). Nowadays, CSL is no longer just a language programme but rather a discipline in its own right.

Over the last 60 years of study, there has been a considerable development in the field of CSL, for example, the diversification and innovation of CSL teaching approaches, the localization of CSL textbooks, and the reconstruction of CSL assessment.

1.4.1.1 CSL Teaching Approaches

The diversification and innovation of CSL teaching approaches (L. Zhang, 2011; Zhu, 2004) can be regarded as one of the major advances, which has mirrored changes over the past decades. CSL teaching strategies or methods have changed from the translation method, the direct method, and the audio-lingual approach, in the early days, to communicative approaches and task-based learning approaches at present (Zhao, 2010). Nevertheless, Zhao (2010) pointed out that in teaching Chinese, teachers should not blindly follow one language teaching method. Instead, an integrative teaching method should be adopted for more effective language teaching. In general, drawing inspiration from a number of sources both from the West and its own history, CSL teaching has been shifting from traditional teacher-centred to interactive student-centred teaching.

1.4.1.2 Localisation of CSL Textbooks

There has been a significant development with respect to CSL textbooks and relevant materials for supporting CSL learning and teaching (X. Li, 2008; Liang,

2011). Given the differences (such as educational policies, school environment, teaching philosophies, and, most importantly, culture) of each country where CSL is taught, CSL textbooks should be tailored and contextualised according to the specific nature of each country for better serving CSL teaching. Such a need has drawn much attention from researchers. F. Wu (2012), for example, analysed 17 different CSL textbooks used in Thailand and pointed out that the localisation feature of these current textbooks was still insufficient. She suggested that more efforts should be given to compile a Thai-distinctive CSL textbook in order to better serve CSL teachers and learners in Thailand. In other words, developing country-specific teaching materials is important for promoting L2 Chinese learning (R. Li, 2012), given that every country is unique in terms of culture. For instance, an English learner may feel uncomfortable when taught to address a senior person as an ‘老爷爷’ (lǎo yéye, old grandpa) or ‘老奶奶’ (lǎo nǎinai, old grandma) without telling him/her that adding ‘老’ (lǎo, old) before ‘爷爷’ (yéye, grandfather) and ‘奶奶’ (grandmother) in Mandarin is a way to show one’s courtesy and respect.

1.4.1.3 CSL Assessment

The Hànyǔ Shuǐpíng Kǎoshì (HSK), a national standardised L2 Chinese proficiency test for non-native speakers in China (Hanban, 2010), has been revised in line with the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). The distinctive feature of the new version of HSK is that spoken and written sections have been introduced at all levels (not just advanced) in order to test learners’ comprehensive language and communicative ability systematically. Moreover, the scoring system of the test has been reformatted in order to correspond with the six levels of CEFR. The six hierarchical levels include A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, and C2, ranging from basic user to proficient user (Council of Europe, 2001). The reformation of HSK, in one sense, shows the focus of CSL teaching has been shifting from traditional language competence training to contemporary language performance practice. The new approach to assessment also reflects the change of CSL teaching approach from traditional

exam-driven to modern communication-oriented style. In this study, the scale for CSL speech performance is developed mainly with reference to CEFR and HSK.

1.4.2 The CSL Teaching Syllabi

In China, the Ministry of Education is responsible for designing the national syllabi and curricula for schools and universities. Under the guidance of the national syllabi and curricula, schools and universities can adjust theirs accordingly. There are three types of CSL teaching syllabi for universities: the syllabus for teaching short-term CSL learners (Hanban, 2002c), the syllabus for teaching long-term CSL learners (Hanban, 2002b), and the syllabus for teaching CSL majors (Hanban, 2002a). CSL major syllabus is the most relevant syllabus in this study as the participants are from CSL and CSL-related majors, such as the Bachelor's in Chinese, the Master's in teaching Chinese to speakers of other languages, and the PhD programme in Chinese applied linguistics.

The CSL major is a four-year bachelor's degree open to non-Chinese speakers who have successfully completed a high school diploma (Hanban, 2002a). The ultimate goal of this major is to equip CSL learners with a solid L2 Chinese speech competence and speech performance; with a sound language system of Chinese; and also with a basic understanding of China regarding its literature, culture and society (Hanban, 2002a). The courses of CSL major range from the basic language skills training courses, such as Integrated Skills of Chinese, Chinese Reading, Chinese Speaking, Chinese Listening, and Chinese Writing, to more advanced courses, such as Ancient Chinese, Business Chinese, Advanced Chinese Speaking, and Advanced Chinese Writing (Hanban, 2002a). Each of these courses ranges from 2 to 10 credits. Over the four years, students have to take a total of 150 credits (35 to 40 courses in general) and complete a minimum 5000-character thesis for graduation (Hanban, 2002a).

In addition to the CSL major teaching syllabus, the Confucius Institute Headquarters/Hanban (2008) published an international curriculum for five-stage Chinese language education in order to promote and support CSL education around the world. The five stages of CSL learning are proposed on the basis of

the four components: 1) linguistic knowledge, 2) linguistic skills, 3) strategies, and 4) cultural awareness. However, some aspects, concerning this curriculum in particular, have drawn researchers' attention. For example, the linguistic knowledge is predetermined sequentially without considering real contexts (Scrimgeour & Wilson, 2009). The cultural awareness framework is sinocentric and static (Scrimgeour & Wilson, 2009). In fact, culture learning should be carried out in a dynamic and engaging way, so that learners will gain insights more adequately. Moreover, character teaching and learning as a unique feature of CSL education is largely overlooked (Scrimgeour & Wilson, 2009). Although there are many issues should be addressed with respect to Hanban's (2008) curriculum, this curriculum reflects Hanban's desire to create a relevant and contemporary curriculum which could be applicable world-widely.

In 2013 a revision project of the international curriculum for Chinese language education was launched by Hanban "based on investigations and feedback from all stakeholders" regarding the 2008 version (Hanban, 2014, p. i). In the revised version, Hanban (2014) changed the original five-stage CSL syllabi to six-stage in accordance with the six levels of L2 English proficiency formulated in the well-known CEFR. Furthermore, Hanban added detailed appendixes for schools' and teachers' reference, such as pinyin, tones, characters, phrases, teaching contents, teaching topics, and teaching flow chart. Consequently, the practicality value of the revised version could be enhanced.

1.4.3 The CSL Teaching Principles

CSL classroom teaching has become more student-centred and focused more on cooperative teaching under the guidance of the teaching principles proposed in the CSL major teaching syllabus. According to the syllabus, CSL classroom teaching should bear the following seven principles (Hanban, 2002a).

First, CSL classroom teaching should follow the communicative competence principle, as its purpose is to cultivate students' ability to communicate with others. For instance, interactive and communicative learning tasks can be designed for promoting students' communication with each other.

Second, CSL classroom teaching should be practical and interactive, so that students have the opportunity to balance the development of their CSL competence and performance, and their understanding of language and culture. For example, teachers should provide a balanced written and spoken practice in class.

Third, CSL classroom teaching should follow the heuristic principle in order to provoke and enlighten students' mind. For example, learners' environmental protection awareness could be enhanced if teachers show some extinct animals or plants to trigger their thinking.

Fourth, CSL classroom teaching should involve the introduction of Chinese culture, because culture can be an accelerator of language learning. For instance, teachers can invite students to compare Chinese culture with their own culture. Consequently, learners may become interested in cultural comparisons and devote more time in their target language learning, which may result in a deeper understanding of Chinese culture.

Fifth, CSL classroom teaching should be student-centred teaching, as students' learning styles and learning strategies are different. For example, visual learners may achieve a better learning outcome if visual oriented tasks could be designed for them. In addition, teachers, as facilitators, should pay special attention to students' creativity in order to promote students' learning initiative.

Sixth, the language of instruction should be mostly in Chinese in light of the immersion principle that shows the facilitative effect of immersion on L2 language learning. Such an immersive learning environment would be effective only if students were given comprehensible input. This indicates that either L2 class or L2 learning communities should provide comprehensible input for CSL learners.

Seventh, advanced technologies and methods should be adopted for facilitating classroom teaching, such as audios, videos, multi-media, and online resource. Not

only could these technologies be beneficial to teachers' classroom teaching, but also they could be helpful in terms of learners' development of autonomy.

1.4.4 Summary

In brief, CSL is a special major under the national standardised Chinese education system with its distinctive syllabus. Different from the majority of classroom teaching in other subjects in China, CSL classroom teaching is more student-centred and less teacher-dominated. A major reason for the possibility of such practices is the small class size (ranging from 10 to 25 students), which enables the implementation of the teaching principles required by the Teaching Syllabus for CSL Majors. The present study was conducted with participants who had been learning CSL in such a classroom context.

1.5 Overview of the Thesis

This thesis is composed of eight chapters. Chapter 1 introduces the research questions of the study. A brief introduction of research context and the significance of the study are presented in order to rationalise this study. Chapter 2 constructs a conceptual framework for this study. A critical review of relevant theories is provided in order to build up a solid theoretical foundation. Chapter 3 reviews the relevant literature regarding competence and performance, especially in terms of speaking. Definitions of speech competence and speech performance are clarified and reinterpreted for the CSL classroom context. Chapter 4 is a comprehensive literature review pertaining to L2 speaking research from cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural perspectives. A general understanding of the relevant literature thus could be established. Chapter 5 describes and justifies the methodology and methods employed in this study for investigating the discrepancy/gap between CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance by examining how the proposed cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural factors may contribute to CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance. The results of instruments' piloting and validation, and the ethical considerations are also addressed in this chapter. Chapter 6 presents the findings and analyses of the quantitative data with an in-depth discussion afterwards.

Chapter 7 presents the results and analyses of the qualitative data. A brief discussion of the findings for each question is included. Chapter 8 summarises the major findings of the study entailing a brief conclusion. It also discusses the implications of the study in terms of what support could be provided to facilitate CSL learners' development of speech competence and speech performance, so that their speech discrepancy/gap could be minimised. It concludes with limitations of this study and suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORKS

2.1 Chapter Overview

This chapter critically reviews major theoretical and conceptual frameworks relating to L2 speech performance. These include the affective filter hypothesis, automaticity, the L2 willingness to communicate (WTC) model, the L2 motivational self system, and L2 speech production models. The contributions and limitations of each hypothesis or theory pertaining to L2 speaking are discussed in order to establish a justifiable theoretical context for this study.

This chapter starts with an overview of the affective filter hypothesis and the concept of automaticity. This includes a critical review of Krashen's (1982) affective filter hypothesis and a brief introduction to the development of automaticity. Afterwards, the L2 WTC model of MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clément, and Noels (1998) is presented with a discussion of the problems with respect to this model. Subsequently, Dörnyei's (2009) L2 motivational self system is examined and its applicability in the CSL context is discussed. Lastly, an overview of the development of speech production models is presented. The compatibility of speech production models in the CSL context is addressed. This chapter concludes with a brief summary.

2.2 Affective Filter Hypothesis and Automaticity

The concept of affective filter was first formulated by Dulay and Burt (1977) and later developed and improved by Krashen (1982). As one of the five hypotheses formulated by Krashen in the 1970s and 1980s, the affective filter hypothesis together with the other four (the acquisition learning hypothesis, the natural order hypothesis, the monitor hypothesis, and the input hypothesis) establishes Krashen's monitor model. Although Krashen's affective filter hypothesis has not been the focus of research in recent decades, the three affective filter variables (motivation, self-confidence/self-efficacy, and anxiety) identified in this

hypothesis have been the subject of ongoing discussion and investigation in the field of L2 research.

Automaticity may be the ultimate goal of learning a language. However, automatic output does not mean unconscious production without control (Bargh, Schwader, Hailey, Dyer, & Boothby, 2012). On the contrary, one aspect of automaticity is controllability (Moors & De Houwer, 2006). In other words, automaticity has to do with how much individuals are in control of their thoughts and behaviours. Regardless of the level of automaticity of L2 learners, they may still be subject to affective factors such as anxiety and confidence. In the following sections, an overview of Krashen's monitor model and a brief introduction of automaticity are presented.

2.2.1 The Affective Filter Hypothesis

According to Krashen's (1982) affective filter hypothesis, comprehensible input is a necessary but insufficient condition for successful L2 acquisition. Another indispensable condition that should be taken into consideration is the affective filter (see Figure 2.1). This hypothesis claims when learners "have a high or strong affective filter – even if they understand the message, the input will not reach the part of the brain responsible for language acquisition" (p. 31). In other words, the affective filter is like a mental net or mental block between comprehensible input and the language acquisition device. In addition, Krashen (1982) identifies three types of affective variable or mental block related to SLA, which consist of motivation, self-confidence and anxiety (see Section 4.3 for recent research regarding affect).

Figure 2.1

Operation of the Affective Filter

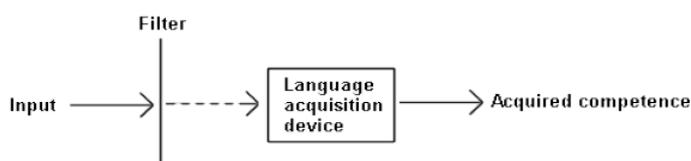


Figure 2.1. Affective Filter Hypothesis. From *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*. by S. D. Krashen, 1982, p. 32. Copyright 1982 by Pergamon.

This hypothesis, however, is proposed mainly to address how the affective filter influences a person's language acquisition. It does not cover the potential impact of affective filter in language production. Drawing on Krashen's (1982) affective filter hypothesis, it can be argued that the affective filter is not only important to ensure openness to comprehensible input and language acquisition, but also it would be highly correlated with learners' output, particularly speech production.

2.2.2 Automaticity

There are two major domains of automaticity research: preconscious and postconscious. Preconscious automaticity is "generated from effortless sensory or perceptual activity and then serve as implicit, unappreciated inputs into conscious and deliberate processes" (Bargh et al., 2012, p. 593), such as emotion regulation, motivation, stereotyping, and prejudice. Postconscious (goal-dependent) automaticity is "dependent on prior or concurrent conscious and intentional thought" (Bargh et al., 2012, p. 594) such as attention, decision-making, and cognitive skill acquisition.

Language learning/acquisition, as a kind of cognitive skill acquisition, is rather complex and dynamic. Language production, as an outcome or embodiment of language learning/acquisition, can be regarded as a complex chain of mental operations that enable people to automatically convert complex thoughts and feelings into soundwaves (DeKeyser, 2001). However, whether mental processes are purely automatic is arguable, because it is hard to find an exclusively uncontrolled mental process. In effect, a mental process can have some qualities of both an automatic process and a controlled process (Bargh, 1994).

Given its complex nature, it may be difficult to measure learners' automaticity level scientifically. Although Moors and De Houwer (2006) suggested that automaticity could be holistically measured on the basis of the following features: "(un)intentional, goal (in)dependent, (un)controlled/(un)controllable, autonomous, purely stimulus driven, (un)conscious, (non)efficient, and fast (slow)" (p. 319), the measurement can be subjectively biased. For example, how do we measure whether a speech is controlled or uncontrolled, and conscious or unconscious?

However, it is relatively objective to assess the fast/slow feature of automaticity. This study, therefore, measures learners' CSL speaking automaticity through their cognitive processing speed, namely, the preparation time prior to their actual speech production.

2.2.3 Summing up

This section has briefly examined the affective filter hypothesis and automaticity. The affective filter hypothesis, on the one hand, factors in motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety as three main affective filters for language acquisition. Automaticity, on the other hand, is indicated that it could be measured through processing speed. Drawing on the above, this study examines how the three affective filter factors (i.e., motivation, anxiety, and speaking self-efficacy as different affective filters) together with automaticity (i.e., processing speed) contribute to learners' L2 Chinese speech competence and speech performance.

2.3 Willingness to Communicate Model

The construct of willingness to communicate (WTC) initially evolved from the earlier work in L1 communication. Research, such as Clevenge's (1959) synthesis of previous studies regarding stage fright, Phillips's (1965, 1968) work on reticence as a speech disorder, and McCroskey and Richmond's (1982) study of communication apprehension and shyness, has suggested the common psychological issues in L1 communication or speech performance. McCroskey and Baer (1985) identified L1 WTC as a personality-based, trait-like predisposition. MacIntyre et al., (1998) applied L1 WTC to an L2 context (see Figure 2.2), arguing that L2 WTC should be treated as a situational variable open to change across situations. MacIntyre et al., (1998) thus, conceptualised L2 WTC as "a readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using a[n] L2" (p. 547).

In the following sections, an overview of MacIntyre et al.'s (1998) L2 WTC model is presented with critiques and the reason for factoring in WTC as an affective factor are discussed.

2.3.1 The Pyramid Model of L2 WTC

The pyramid model of L2 WTC constructed by MacIntyre et al. (1998) signals the complexity of L2 WTC. There are altogether six layers which provide an account of the affective (e.g., attitudes, motivation and personality), cognitive (e.g., communicative competence), social (e.g., social situation and intergroup climate), and psychological (e.g., desire to communicate) variables that might affect learners' L2 WTC.

Figure 2.2

L2 WTC Model

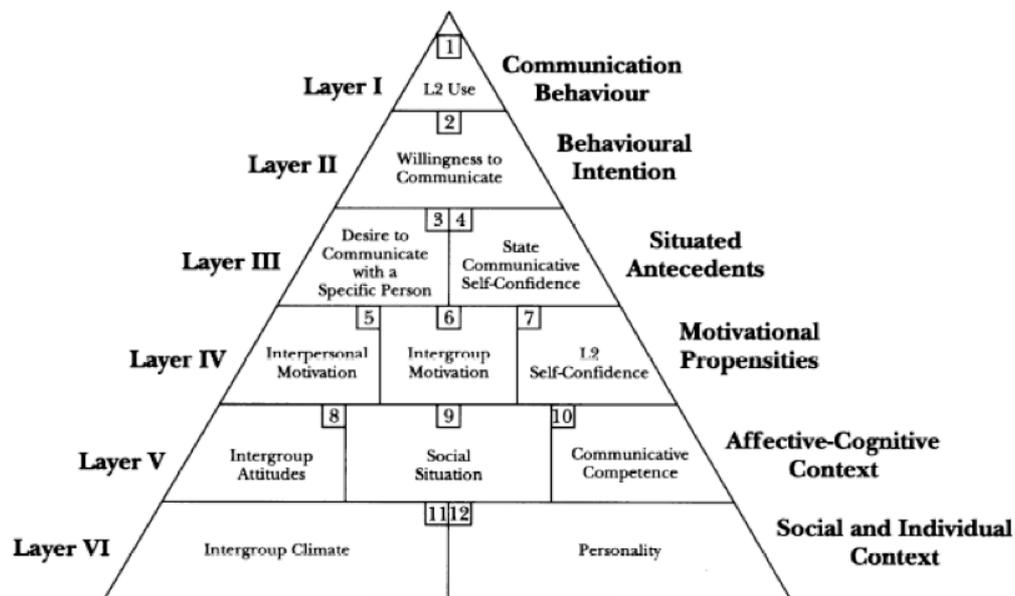


Figure 2.2. Heuristic Model of Variables Influencing L2 WTC. From “Conceptualizing Willingness to Communicate in a L2: A Situational Model of L2 Confidence and Affiliation,” by P. D. MacIntyre, Z. Dörnyei, R. Clément, and K. A. Noels, 1998, *The Modern Language Journal*, 82, p. 547. Copyright 1998 by Wiley.

As shown in the pyramid, the topmost layer represents the final behaviour that learners would engage with in L2 use. L2 use refers to activities that involve L2 engagement, such as “speaking up in class, reading L2 news, watching L2 television, or utilizing a[n] L2 on the job” (p. 547). However, whether a person will commit definitively to use an L2 or not, it is the “result of a complex system of interrelated variables” (p. 547).

The second layer, willingness to communicate, representing the level of behavioural intention to L2 engagement, is an important variable that directly links to L2 use. It reveals learners' behavioural intention of communication, which implies their extent of eagerness to take part in an L2 discourse by using the L2.

The third layer of the model is all about situated antecedents to communication, including the desire to communicate with a specific person and the state of communicative self-confidence. The former variable is subject to "affiliation and control motives" (MacIntyre et al., 1998, p. 548). Affiliation reveals the degree of interindividual or intergroup attractiveness among interlocutors. However, L2 users have the volition or control to decide whether they would like to use an L2 or not. This depends on whether they are comfortable enough to use it. The latter variable, the state of communicative self-confidence, refers to "a momentary feeling of confidence" (p. 549). It can be determined by L2 users' state of perceived competence and anxiety.

The fourth layer is referred to as motivational properties. Different from the third layer's situational feature, this layer indicates the influence of the enduring individual difference traits on a person's L2 use. It consists of interpersonal motivation, intergroup motivation, and L2 self-confidence. Interpersonal motivation is determined by a person's social role within a group. Intergroup motivation correlates directly with a person's membership in a particular social group. L2 self-confidence stems from one's communicative competence and previous experience.

The fifth layer of this model, namely, motivational propensities, captures "the affective and cognitive contexts of intergroup interaction" (MacIntyre et al., 1998, p. 550). This layer entails: 1) intergroup attitudes, 2) social situation, and 3) communicative competence. Firstly, intergroup attitudes represent L2 learners' desire for engagement in a different cultural group, either whether they will get involved and become a member (i.e., integrativeness) or whether they fear becoming assimilated and losing their own identities (i.e., fear of assimilation). In addition, a comfortable learning experience or environment "may encourage the

individual to apply a more intense and thorough effort to the learning process” (p. 552). Secondly, the social situation refers to “a composite category describing a social encounter in a particular setting” (p. 553). The participants, the setting, the purpose, the topic, and the channel of communication are the five central influential factors to social situation. Lastly, communicative competence, known as a person’s L2 proficiency, “will have a significant effect on his or her WTC” (p. 554). Linguistic competence, discourse competence, actional competence, socio-cultural competence, and strategic competence are the five components of communicative competence.

The bottom layer of the model is the social and individual context, which contains intergroup climate and personality. MacIntyre et al. (1998) pointed out that intergroup context and personality “set the stage for L2 communication, but ... are less directly involved in determining a learner’s WTC at a given time” (p. 558). The social context or intergroup climate provides learners with opportunities for both learning and using an L2. The individual context, or to be more specific, personality, may positively or negatively contribute to an individual’s L2 communication.

In brief, it is the layers of the model, such as behavioural intention, situated antecedents, motivational propensities, affective-cognitive context, and social and individual context that together decide how the topmost layer functions.

2.3.2 Critiques of L2 WTC Model

Being an extensively used and influential L2 WTC model, MacIntyre et al.’s (1998) heuristic model classifies various variables contributing to L2 use and communication, including affective, cognitive, social, and psychological variables. However, this model is not flawless. Issues such as the relationship between volitional control and L2 WTC and the hierarchical layers of L2 WTC model need to be discussed.

The L2 WTC model does not address the situations where individuals do not have so much volitional control over L2 usage, such as in a bilingual environment

(Clément, Baker, & MacIntyre, 2003). This means under such situations a person does not enjoy much “independence between being willing and being able to communicate” (Clément et al., 2003, p. 205). For example, most Singaporeans are bilingual (normally English and their different native languages). They must switch from one language to another accordingly no matter whether they are willing to use whatever the two languages are. It can be suggested that L2 WTC may not always be an influential factor to L2 use when the volitional control is not available. On the contrary, L2 confidence (self-efficacy) and communicative ability (speech competence) may have a direct influence on L2 use. For example, CSL major students, similar to Singaporeans, may not have much volitional control in terms of whether or not to use L2 Chinese in classroom contexts. However, the two languages that students possess may not be equally well developed as Singaporeans are. As a result, CSL major students’ L2 confidence and communicative ability may have a more direct effect on how well they use the L2 rather than their L2 WTC.

In addition, the hierarchy and order of the variables in the L2 WTC model need to be justified. In other words, why the L2 WTC model is in such a pyramid-shaped structure rather than a variable-interwoven structure, and how the variables influencing L2 WTC are numbered sequentially, may need further exploration. Although MacIntyre et al. (1998) pointed out that these relevant variables were placed according to their immediacy to L2 WTC, they did not clarify how the immediacy was measured. Moreover, the logic behind the fact that these variables were sequentially numbered from one to twelve was also not explained.

2.3.3 Summing up

The above sections briefly introduce MacIntyre et al.’s (1998) L2 WTC model and offers critiques relating to it. Although the pyramid model proposes various factors contributing to learners’ L2 use from a comprehensive perspective, it fails to provide sufficient justification for the construct of the model. This study attempts to examine L2 WTC in the CSL context in hope of shedding light not only on the effect of L2 WTC on L2 Chinese learners’ speech production but also on the justification of the L2 WTC construct.

2.4 L2 Motivational Self System

L2 motivation research is initiated by the study of Gardner and Lambert's (1959) motivational variables in second language acquisition. Among the L2 motivational research, the concept of integrativeness (Dörnyei, 2003a) may be the most developed and researched facet of Gardner's (1985b) motivation theory. L2 motivation research in recent years, however, has called for the reconceptualisation of integrativeness.

In the following sections, the reasons for reconceptualisation of integrativeness are presented by drawing on some relevant studies. L2 motivational self system, in particular, is introduced as a reinterpretation of integrativeness. Reasons of taking L2 motivational system into account is discussed.

2.4.1 Reconceptualisation of Integrativeness

Integrativeness, an idea which should have been attributed to Gardner and Lambert (1959), refers to the genuine interest in learning an L2 so that learners can communicate with and come closer to another language community and even identify themselves as a part of the community (see Dörnyei, 2001 for details). Yet the exact nature of integrativeness is hard to define, because "it has slightly different meanings to many different individuals" (Dörnyei, 2003b, p. 5). Moreover, integrativeness, as the central factor in the L2 motivation construct, was proposed in a bilingual context. There may be no real or potential integrativeness involved in other monolingual contexts. In other words, the importance of integrativeness may vary in different contexts (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2002). In addition, the validity of the integrativeness construct in the EFL/ESL context is under question due to the "processes of economic and cultural globalization" (Islam, Lamb, & Chambers, 2013, p. 231), resulting in the deterritorialisation of language, culture, and identity. Therefore, L2 motivation research in recent years has called for a reconceptualisation of integrativeness.

Drawing on Gardner's (1985b) motivation theory, more specifically integrativeness, a significant number of empirical studies have been conducted

for investigating and testing the construct of L2 motivation, in other words, to reinterpret the construct of L2 motivation. This reinterpretation involved studies such as Warden and Lin's (2000) from Chinese, Lamb's (2004) from Indonesian, and Csizér and Dörnyei's (2005) from Hungarian perspectives.

Warden and Lin's (2000) study of 500 EFL university learners in Taiwan, for example, investigated whether there were distinct motivations supporting learners' EFL learning through questionnaires. The results showed that Taiwan EFL learners lacked integrative motivation due to their limited opportunities for English use with English natives. On the contrary, students' motivation for EFL learning was either because they found English could be useful as an instrument for finding a job or because they were required to learn English in order to pass an exam or a compulsory course.

Lamb (2004) investigated the EFL motivation of 219 first year Indonesian pupils aged 11-12 years old from an urban junior high school. Questionnaires, classroom observations and interviews were adopted for this research. Lamb argued that integrativeness might have lost its explanatory power in many EFL contexts. The reason students would like to learn English could not be simply due to a desire to integrate with the English culture or community but is also due to the influence of globalisation, which echoes Islam et al.'s (2013) argument. The results of Lamb's study showed that students' motivation changed across time as their development of different L2 selves was mediated by globalisation, especially during their formative years of adolescence.

Csizér and Dörnyei (2005) surveyed 8,593 Hungarian pupils aged from 13 to 14 in 1993 and 1999 respectively in order to explore the internal structure of L2 motivation and verify the proposed new interpretation of integrativeness from the L2 self perspective. The structural model generated from their study confirmed Gardner's concept that integrativeness is the central factor in the L2 motivation construct. However, in order to "achieve a better explanatory power for the concept of *Integrativeness*" (p. 30), they proposed to equate integrativeness with the ideal L2 self (referring to the L2-specific dimension of the learners' ideal self). Based on the results of Csizér and Dörnyei's (2005) Hungarian motivation

data, Dörnyei (2005) critically re-examined integrativeness and instrumentality, and proposed the L2 motivational self system to reinterpret integrativeness.

2.4.2 L2 Motivational Self System

There are three components of the L2 motivational self system proposed by Dörnyei (2005): ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, and L2 learning experience. Ideal L2 self refers to the self-image of what kind of competent L2 speaker a person would like to become. It has a promotion focus which motivates individuals to strive to reach a desired end-state. “Traditional integrative and internalised instrumental motives” belong to this component (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 29). Ought-to L2 self, on the other hand, refers to “the attributes that one believes one ought to possess to meet expectations and to avoid possible negative outcomes” (p. 29). It has a prevention focus with which individuals are regulated to avoid a feared end-state. L2 learning experience, as one of the three components, concerns how the immediate learning environment and experience will influence learners’ execution of motives, as it has been recognised that the classroom learning situation has a motivational impact on initiating L2 learning (Dörnyei, 2009; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Ushioda, 2001).

Figure 2.3

Relationships between the Motivational Variables and the Criterion Measures

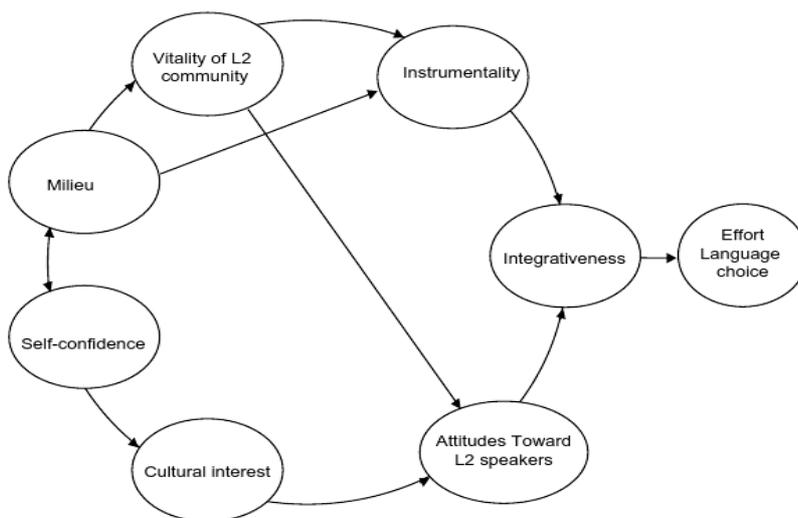


Figure 2.3. The Inter-relationship of the Motivational Variables and the Criterion Measures. From *Motivation, Language Attitudes, and Globalization: A Hungarian Perspective*, by Z. Dörnyei, K. Csizér, and N. Németh, 2006, p. 90. Copyright 2006 by Multilingual Matters.

One of the strong empirical findings that prompted Dörnyei to reinterpret the construct of integrativeness and to conceptualise the L2 motivational self system is the structural equation model in Dörnyei, Csizér, and Németh's (2006) study (see Figure 2.3). The construction of this model was based on the results of their longitudinal survey in Hungary and was proved to have “excellent goodness of fit indices” (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 26) in comparison with all the models produced over the years during the study.

Figure 2.3 shows the complicated and intertwined relationships among seven motivational variables and two criterion measures. Integrativeness, as the major component of L2 motivation, exerts a direct influence on L2 learners' language choice and effort to study the L2 (criterion measures). Instrumentality and attitudes toward L2 speakers are the immediate precursors of integrativeness. Milieu and vitality of L2 community directly and indirectly relate to instrumentality. Attitudes toward L2 speakers are directly dependent on cultural interest and vitality of L2 community. Milieu and self-confidence are mutually affective. Cultural interest, nevertheless, is mainly determined by self-confidence.

Dörnyei, et al.'s (2006) most important empirical contribution is that “*Integrativeness* was found to play a key role in L2 motivation” (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 26), which mediates the effects of other motivational variables. Nevertheless, the concept of integrativeness “is certainly an enigma” (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 23) because “it is not quite clear what the target of the integration is, and in many language learning environments it simply does not make much sense” (p. 23). Therefore, Dörnyei (2005, 2009) proposed and reinterpreted integrativeness based on the concepts of ‘possible selves’ (Markus & Nurius, 1986) and ‘self-discrepancy theory’ (Higgins, 1987), as “the motivationally important identification processes are internal” (Islam et al., 2013, p. 232).

The validity of the L2 self motivational self system has been supported in various contexts such as Japan, Iran, Hungary, Chile, Indonesia, and Pakistan (see Table 1.1 for details). This study, therefore, hypothesises that such a system works in the CSL context as well. To be more specific, this study posits that there is an ideal L2 self in L2 speech production. However, in actual oral production there is

a discrepancy between speakers' actual and ideal selves. In other words, speakers' actual speech performance may not meet expectations of their ideal speech competence. The present study also hypothesises that ought-to L2 self and L2 learning experience, as two important components of L2 motivation, may influence learners' L2 speaking as well. For example, learners may focus on L2 writing rather than L2 speaking because of extrinsic expectations; learners may deliver their ideas more effectively in an L2 among close friends rather than acquaintances because of different affiliations; and, learners may feel more confident about their speech in informal rather than formal contexts because of different expectations, or anxiety levels, or self-confidence levels.

2.4.3 Summing up

Despite the empirical support for the L2 motivational self system, no research has been conducted in the context of CSL by drawing on the L2 motivational self system in exploring how the motivational variables (different selves) relate to CSL learners' speech production. This is the first empirical study into the L2 motivational self system of CSL learners.

Table 1.1

Relevant Studies on L2 Motivational System in Different EFL Contexts

Researcher	Participant	Context	Instrument	Finding
S. Ryan (2009)	2,397 learners of English from tertiary and secondary institutions	Japan	Questionnaire	Ideal L2 self is not only equivalent to integrativeness, but also it is more comprehensive and robust to be applicable to a wide range of language learning contexts.
Papi & Teimouri (2012)	1041 learners of English from secondary school, high school, and university	Iran	Questionnaire	There was a positive relationship between age and promotion-focus variables (i.e., the ideal L2 self, L2 learning experience, instrumentality-promotion, attitudes towards L2 culture and community); A negative relationship was observed between age and preventional regulatory focus (i.e., the ought-to L2 self, family influence, instrumentality prevention).
Csizér & Kormos (2009)	432 learners of English from secondary school and university	Hungary	Questionnaire	Either secondary and university students' motivated learning behaviour was partly determined by the ideal L2 self, however, the correlation between ought-to L2 self and motivated behaviour was not significant.
Kormos, Kiddle, & Csizér (2011)	518 English learners (secondary school students, university students, and young adult learners)	Chile	Questionnaire	Self-related beliefs play a highly important role in L2-learning motivation; language learning attitudes were inter-related with the ideal L2 self.
Lamb (2012)	572 junior high school English learners	Indonesia	Questionnaire	The elements of the L2 motivational self system contributed most to students' intended learning effort, especially the ideal L2 self and learning experience.
Islam et al. (2013)	1000 undergraduates	Pakistan	Questionnaire	Learning experience and ideal L2 self were found to be the two strongest predictors of students' learning effort.

2.5 Speech Production Models

Speaking is not simply an output of a language. It is a complicated process subject to cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural factors. Levelt (1989) and de Bot (1992), on the one hand, constructed speech production models from a cognitive perspective. Segalowitz (2010), on the other hand, proposed an L2 speech production model by factoring in possible contributing factors to speech output, such as cognitive fluency, motivation to communicate, and social context. This section critically reviews these speech production models.

2.5.1 Levelt's and de Bot's Speech Production Models

In terms of speech production models, Levelt's (1989) speaking-specific model is perhaps one of the most comprehensive and widely used theoretical frameworks. Drawing on years of psycholinguistic and empirical research along with the observation of speech errors, Levelt (1989) proposed his influential monolingual model of language production. The purpose of Levelt's model lies in "describing the normal, spontaneous language production of adults" (de Bot, 1992, p. 3).

According to Levelt's (1993) speech generation procedure, speech production is a staged process involving conceptualisation, formulation, and articulation (see Figure 2.4). The conceptualiser is responsible for generating and monitoring messages; the formulator is in charge of shaping the messages grammatically and phonologically; the articulator is responsible for executing the messages conceptualised. Besides the three major components, the acoustic-phonetic processor and the parser are also important in language production. The acoustic-phonetic processor analyses "the continuous speech signal in order to segment it into recognizable words and phrases" (p. 1). The parser, functioning as a speech comprehension system, analyses and processes both self-generated and other-generated messages. It contains two major processing components: "phonological decoding and lexical access" and "grammatical decoding" (p. 8). The main feature of this model is that it is incremental and parallel, and the processing level determines the automaticity.

Figure 2.4

Speech Production Model

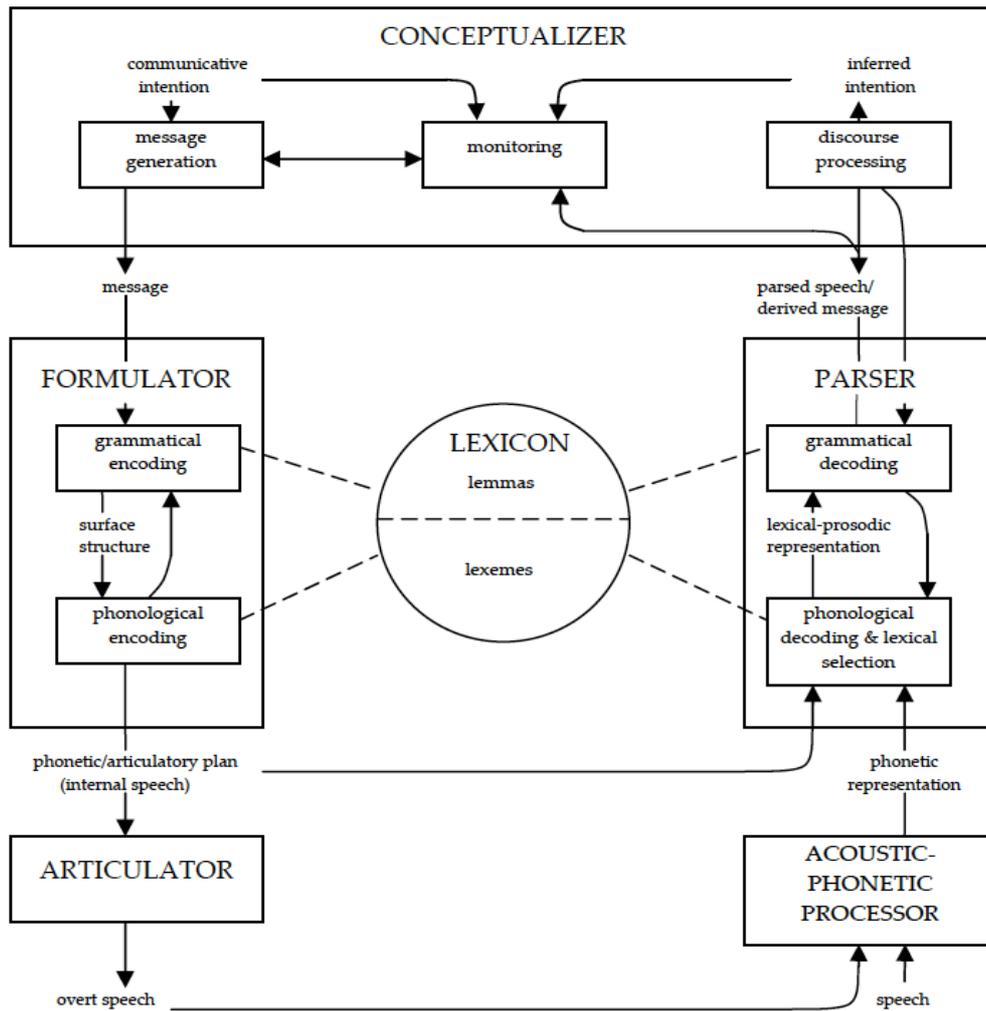


Figure 2.4. Speech Production Model. From “Language Use in Normal Speakers and Its Disorders,” by W. J. M. Levelt, 1993, in G. Blanken, J. Dittmann, H. Grimm, J. C. Marshall, and C. Wallesch (Eds.), *Linguistic Disorders and Pathologies: An International Handbook*, p. 2. Copyright 1993 by deGruyter.

Extending Levelt’s (1989) model for monolinguals, de Bot (1992) was the first to postulate a bilingual language production model. De Bot’s (1992) adapted model of Levelt’s aimed to keep the original model intact as much as possible while modifying Levelt’s ideas to a certain extent from a bilingual perspective. In de Bot’s bilingual language production model, the conceptualiser, which consists of macroplanning and microplanning, is not completely language specific. De Bot assumed that in the bilingual speech production model, the first phase is macroplanning in which a person decides on which language should be used

according to the discourse, and then “language-specific encoding takes place in microplanning” (de Bot, 1992, p. 8). In the formulator phase, de Bot (1992) postulated that there is one lexical storage system where lexical elements in different languages are stored together but with a separate formulator. The automaticity of articulation is largely dependent on the level of language proficiency.

2.5.2 Critiques of the Bilingual Language Production Model

Although the bilingual speech production model was postulated by directly following Levelt’s L1 production model (de Bot, 1992), the model did not factor in aspects in relation to L2 speaking, such as the presence of traces of the L1 in L2 production and the influence of affective and socio-cultural factors.

2.5.2.1 L1 Interference on L2 Production

Code switching, commonly referred to as language transfer or cross-linguistic interference, makes L2 production carry traces of the L1 (W. Li, 2013). There are many reasons for code switching. For example, L2 speakers have greater availability of L1 words; lack L1 lexical equivalences of L2; or wish to emphasise their L1 identities or to express a certain emotion (W. Li, 2011). In addition, code switching, either intentionally or unintentionally, relates to L2 speakers’ language proficiency (Macaro & Lee, 2012). Less proficient L2 speakers may prefer to code switch back to L1 words for help when communicating (Tian & Macaro, 2012). Advanced L2 speakers can control code switching more intentionally than less competent speakers, because they have gained the L2 “language of thought” (Macaro, 2005, p. 68). It seems an L2 cannot be purely independent from an L1.

2.5.2.2 The Influence of Non-linguistic Factors

Even though the process of language production is demonstrated in both speech production models and some special features in L2 production are discussed in particular, the models only cover the cognitive features of speech production.

There are also cross-linguistic factors, such as affect and socio-culture, which should be taken into account for the real functioning of the model. For example, do L2 speakers perform equally well in different affective situations, such as speaking in class, speaking with friends, and speaking in off-campus situations?

2.5.3 Segalowitz's L2 Speech Production Model

Segalowitz's (2010) L2 speech production model is perhaps the most comprehensive framework due to the integration of cognitive factors (i.e., cognitive fluency, cognitive experiences), affective factors (i.e., motivation to communicate), and social context. This model aims to demonstrate the dynamic relationships among sources influencing L2 speech production.

Figure 2.5

L2 Speech Production Model

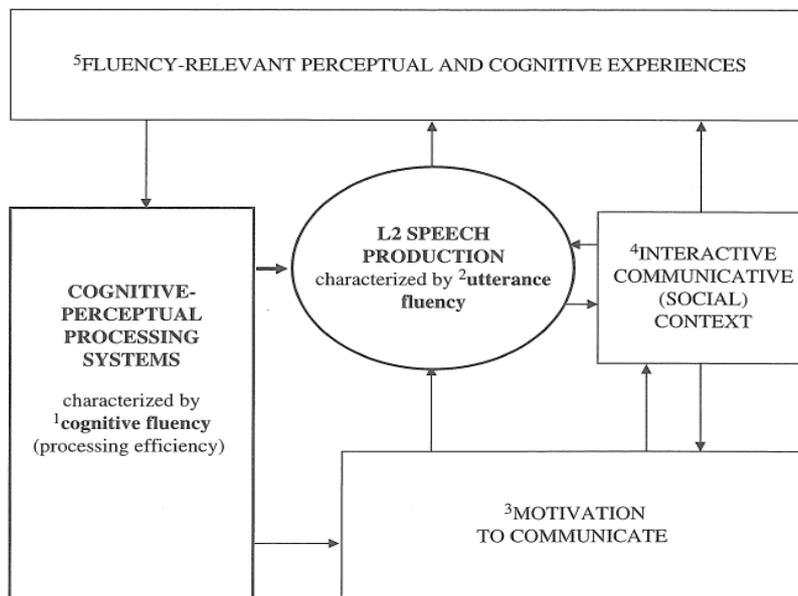


Figure 2.5. Framework for Thinking About Dynamic Relationships Among Sources Influencing L2 Fluency. From *Cognitive Bases of Second Language Fluency*, by N. Segalowitz, 2010, p. 131. Copyright 2010 by Routledge.

Figure 2.5 shows four broadly defined components contributing to L2 speech production (mainly L2 fluency). The first broadly defined component is the individual's cognitive perceptual processing systems. This component is basically a replica of Levelt's (1989) and de Bot's (1992) speech production model. It

addresses the cognitive side of language production. The second component includes the individual's motivational and belief system. It reflects willingness to communicate and socially grounded beliefs about communication, which also echo Dörnyei's (2005, 2009) L2 motivational self system. The third component is concerned with how the social context may affect an individual's speech production. The fourth component contains a set of perceptual and cognitive experiences. It is posited that these experiences may "have direct relevance to the operation of the speaker's cognitive and perceptual systems" (Segalowitz, 2010, p. 22), which in turn may directly affect speech production.

2.5.4 Critiques of the L2 Speech Production Model

One problem regarding the proposed comprehensive and dynamic L2 speech production model may be the overlap between the *fluency-relevant perceptual and cognitive experiences* component and the *social context* component (see Figure 2.5). For example, learners' experience "resulting from communicating and from the social context" (Segalowitz, 2010, p. 21) should not be separated from the *interactive communicative context* but rather should be taken into account as an element in such a context. As Ortega (2009) pointed out, what matters to language learning is not about the environment itself but how learners live and experience in that social environment. It can be implied that individuals' experiences and the contexts where they participate are inseparable. It would, therefore, be more reasonable to regard the *fluency-relevant perceptual and cognitive experiences* as a subcomponent of the *social context*. Another major concern regarding the model is that the causalities between the four proposed components need empirical support from the field of L2 speaking. To date, there is no evidence acknowledging the relationships proposed in Segalowitz's L2 speech production model.

2.5.5 Summing up

Successful speech production is a constant battle against errors, and these errors can be due to various reasons. This study, drawing on Levelt's (1989), de Bot's (1992), and Segalowitz's (2010) speech production models, strives to investigate

how the cross-linguistic factors, such as cognition, affect, and socio-culture, may influence CSL learners' L2 production. It is hoped that the study may add some empirical evidence to speech production models, specifically Segalowitz's.

2.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter has briefly introduced the theories relating to L2 speaking in order to construct a strong theoretical foundation for this thesis. Informed by the affective filter hypothesis, automaticity, the L2 WTC model, the L2 motivational self system, and L2 speech production models, this study attempts to investigate the contributing effects of cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural variables on CSL learners' speaking by comparing the two levels (intermediate and advanced) of learners.

According to Krashen's (1982) affective filter hypothesis, three affective factors (motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety) may function as mental blocks in language learning. Drawing on this hypothesis, the possible effect of affective filter on L2 speech production has been proposed. Automaticity, as a reflection of learners' oral proficiency, can be measured holistically (such as the processing speed/efficiency) rather than scientifically. L2 WTC, as a direct affective variable influencing learners' L2 use according to MacIntyre et al.'s (1998) L2 WTC model, has been examined and the problems pertaining to the model has been discussed. Notwithstanding that whether or not learners are willing to communicate, Dörnyei's (2005) L2 motivational self system could possibly explain the discrepancy between learners' actual speech production and perceived speech production. Learners' different ideal selves and L2 learning experiences could guide and shape their L2 speech production. According to Segalowitz's (2010) speech production model, L2 speech production is a complex procedure, which could be jointly influenced by cognitive (processing efficiency and cognitive fluency experiences), affective (motivation to communicate), and socio-cultural (social context) factors.

CHAPTER THREE

SPEECH COMPETENCE AND SPEECH PERFORMANCE: A LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 Chapter Overview

This chapter provides readers with a brief understanding of the dichotomous terms: speech competence and speech performance. It starts with a historical review of the development of the competence and performance construct. Speech competence and speech performance, as two key terms in this study, are later proposed and defined accordingly in order to examine CSL learners' speech in classroom contexts. Following this, two assessments (a Chinese speech competence test and a Chinese speech performance test) are justified for the present study. Finally, a CSL speech performance scale is established for raters' reference.

3.2 Competence and Performance

3.2.1 Competence

Competence, mostly known as linguistic competence, refers to the system of linguistic knowledge possessed by native speakers of a language. It enables users to create an infinite number of grammatically correct sentences and to recognise mistakes and ambiguities in the sentences as well. In brief, competence is “the speaker-hearer’s knowledge of his language” (Chomsky, 1965, p. 4). Performance or linguistic performance, on the other hand, refers to the actual utterance of a speaker, which often imperfectly reflects the underlying competence of the speakers’ use of that knowledge (Chomsky, 1965).

Chomsky’s interpretation of competence and performance echoes the Saussurean conception of *langue* and *parole*. According to Saussure (1959), father of modern linguistics, *langue* refers to the abstract systematic principles of a language independent of any individuals. *Parole*, on the other hand, is the actual language use. *Parole* will be meaningless without the guidance of *langue*. Chomsky,

however, regarded his own conception as superior because it goes beyond the conception of language as “merely a systematic inventory of items” but rather as “a system of generative process” (p. 4). In other words, language production either oral or written is a dynamic and innovative process rather than a static procedure. This to some extent explains why there are linguistic innovations in unpredictable situations as well as pertinent expressions in particular contexts.

Hymes (1972), drawing on Chomsky’s (1965) dichotomous terms (competence and performance), proposed the concept of communicative competence. He defined communicative competence as a system of competence that enables a person to know whether and to what extent that something is “formally possible”, “feasible”, “appropriate”, and “done” (pp. 284-286). Chomsky’s competence, however, provides no place for consideration of the appropriateness and context of utterances produced (Campbell & Wales, 1970). According to Campbell and Wales (1970), producing utterances “appropriate to the context in which they are made” is more important (p. 274). In other words, it is competence that enables us to convey and interpret messages and to negotiate meanings interpersonally within specific contexts. In brief, communicative competence is not only used to refer to a speaker’s knowledge of grammar and how to form correct utterances, but also the speaker’s knowledge of the appropriateness of utterances according to different socio-cultural situations.

More research has been conducted with respect to competence and/or communicative competence, following the terms of competence and performance (Chomsky, 1965). Canale and Swain (1980), for example, proposed a theoretical framework of communicative competence. Not only did they classify communicative competence into grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence (including socio-cultural rules of use and rules of discourse) and strategic competence, but they applied their theoretical framework in a communicative approach to second language teaching and testing as well.

Canale (1983) further developed communicative competence and made it more distinctive by excluding discourse rules from sociolinguistic competence while adding discourse competence as an inseparable component. Canale’s

communicative competence framework, therefore, consisted of four components: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence.

The discussion above shows that competence/communicative competence is not merely about grammatical knowledge. Chomsky (1980) also acknowledged that there was pragmatic competence (“knowledge of form and meaning”; p. 224) in addition to grammatical competence (“knowledge of conditions and manner of appropriate use”; p. 224).

3.2.2 Congruence and Disparities on Competence

The congruence and disparities with respect to the term competence can be summarised as follows. The viewpoints of Chomsky, Hymes, Canale and Swain, as pioneer researchers, are particularly discussed.

Chomsky (1965) initially regarded competence as grammatical knowledge or the knowledge of language codes, which enables a person to recognise and produce the correct structures of a language on the basis of grammar rules during communication. Chomsky (1980) later realised that pragmatic competence could be another indispensable factor when putting a language to use.

Hymes (1972), extending Chomsky’s (1965) original definition of competence, pointed out that competence was not only about knowledge but also about ability to use. He claimed that “there are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless” (p. 278). Although Hymes attempted to transcend Chomsky’s competence/performance dichotomy, his communicative competence is simply the combination of competence and performance (Teachman & Gibson, 2014).

Canale and Swain (1980) proposed a theoretical framework of communicative competence in an attempt to “determine the feasibility and practicality of measuring” (p. 1) communicative competence. Three sub-competences were used for such measurement, including grammatical, sociolinguistic, and strategic competence. Although they acknowledged that communicative competence not

only refers to linguistic competence but also comprises knowledge of the rules of language use, they pointed out that “ability for use” (p. 7) should not be incorporated into communicative competence. On the one hand, there was no rigorous research on communicative competence pertaining to ability for use (1980). On the other hand, there was no supportive theory or syllabus design that can explicate ability for use (1980).

Despite the fact that the notion of competence/communicative competence has been constantly changed, adapted and contextualised over the years, there is now an agreement that competence/communicative competence consists of not only the knowledge of grammar rules but also the knowledge of using those rules in communication (Bagarić & Djigunović, 2007).

3.2.3 New Interpretation of Competence

With growing globalisation and internationalisation under the context of multilingualism, the concept of intercultural competence draws researchers’ attention. Alptekin (2002) proposed a new interpretation of communicative competence, namely, intercultural (communicative) competence. He argued that the native speaker-based notion of communicative competence “is found to be utopian, unrealistic, and constraining in relation to English as an International Language” (p. 57; see also Jenkins, 2014; L. J. Zhang, 2015). He suggested that the conventional notion of communicative competence could not account for English as an international language learning/using in inter-cultural settings. For instance, British English and American English may have developed their own socially accepted and preferred language patterns. However, these patterns may not be regarded as linguistically valid or culturally acceptable in each other’s context. This is particularly true in the English as a lingua franca context where English has evolved into different variations, such as British English, American English, Indian English, and Singaporean English.

Deardorff (2016), accordingly, refers to intercultural competence as learners’ ability to behave and communicate effectively and appropriately in intercultural situations. In addition to intercultural competence, some believe that learners’

oral competence should also encompass media competence given the indispensable and mediating role of modern media in language learning (Górecka, Wilczyńska, & Wojciechowska, 2015).

3.2.4 CSL Speech Competence

Drawing on Chomsky's (1965) competence and performance dichotomy together with the above scholars' viewpoints pertaining to competence, this study argues that CSL learners' speech/speaking is dichotomous as well, involving speech competence and speech performance.

CSL speech competence, in this study, refers to the underlying intrinsic grammatical knowledge and pragmatic knowledge of CSL learners that enables them to construct and produce grammatically and pragmatically accurate and appropriate speech utterances in intercultural situations. The ultimate goal of L2 Chinese learning is to achieve native-like Chinese competence, to be more specific, the tacit knowledge of how to use Chinese in grammatically correct and socio-contextually appropriate ways. In other words, CSL speech competence entails learners' having not just CSL grammatical knowledge but also the knowledge of how to speak appropriately in authentic situations based on their current status of interlanguage.

3.2.5 Performance and CSL Speech Performance

The definition of performance is more widely accepted in the linguistic realm. Briefly, performance refers to the actual production of a language in concrete situations. Chomsky (1965) was probably the first to propose that performance is the actual language output or production in a colloquial form. However, performance cannot directly and perfectly reflect competence, since performance may be flawed due to memory limitation, distraction, errors and psychological factors (Chomsky, 1965). With Hymes' (1972) innovative claim of knowledge and ability for use in his communicative competence construct, Chomsky (1980) acknowledged the ability for use as pragmatic competence. Nevertheless, Chomsky regarded pragmatic competence as a complement to actual performance

in a broader system of performance. On the contrary, Hymes regarded ability for use (which in Chomsky's point of view is pragmatic competence) as a part of communicative competence.

Canale and Swain (1980) claimed that communicative competence and communicative performance should be distinguished. They summarised communicative competence as "the relationship and interaction between grammatical competence, or knowledge of the rules of grammar, and sociolinguistic competence, or knowledge of the rules of language use" (p. 6). Communicative performance, on the other hand, is "the realization of these competencies and their interaction in the actual production and comprehension of utterances" (p. 6). Canale and Swain argued that "factors such as volition, motivation, and pathology ... may influence the range of choices of action one has in a given domain" (p. 7). In other words, communicative competence and communicative performance represent the stable and unstable dichotomy of speaking.

Kempson (1977), however, pointed out that "a theory of communicative competence, is, simply, a performance theory" (p. 55). It seems competence/communicative competence is a subcomponent of performance/communicative performance. This is also implicitly revealed in Canale and Swain's (1980) statement that "communicative competence will be viewed as a subcomponent of a more general language competence, and communicative performance viewed as one form of more general language performance" (p. 7).

In his review of models of performance, McNamara's (1995) constructed a figure of performance models by comparing seminal work from Hymes, Chomsky, Canale, Swain, and Bachman. This figure clearly depicts the congruence and disparities between competence and performance (see Figure 3.1). The ambiguity between competence and performance lies in question of to which concept/theory 'the ability of using a language properly' should belong, competence or performance? This can be an everlasting argumentative problem forever given the varying scholarly stances. In spite of the differences, a common feature is that performance must be the actual use or output of a language.

Figure 3.1

Models of Performance

<i>Author</i>	<i>Model of knowledge</i>	<i>Model of performance</i>	<i>Actual use</i>
Hymes (1972)	communicative competence		performance
	knowledge	ability for use	/
Chomsky (1965)	competence		performance
	grammatical competence	pragmatic competence	actual performance
Canale and Swain (1980)	communicative competence	/	communicative performance
Canale (1983)	communicative competence		actual communication
	knowledge	skill	/
Bachman (1990)	communicative language ability		/
	language	strategic competence	/
	competence/knowledge		

Figure 3.1. Models of Performance. Adapted from “Modelling Performance: Opening Pandora’s Box,” by T. F. McNamara, 1995, *Applied Linguistics*, 16, p. 167. Copyright 1995 by Oxford University Press.

CSL speech performance, in this study, refers to the actual production of Chinese in real situations, drawing on the newly defined speech competence (see Section 3.2.4) and the above discussions of performance. However, CSL speech performance can be subject to internal and external factors. The internality of speech performance indicates that learners’ internal factors, such as volition, cognition, and affect, may have an impact on learners’ speech performance. The externality of speech performance suggests that culture and society as a mediator could also influence learners’ oral production.

3.2.6 Necessity for Re-examination of Competence and Performance

Although Chomsky’s (1965) competence and performance dichotomy has been out of discussion for decades, the two concepts as two sides of the same coin, should not be overlooked but rather should be examined more thoroughly and specifically. Informed by Chomsky’s (1965) competence and performance and the above scholars’ viewpoints pertaining to competence and performance, the

present study argues that learners' speaking/speech is two-sided as well, which involves speech competence and speech performance.

The distinction between speech competence and speech performance resonates with Segalowitz's (2010) argument that the existence of L2 speech discrepancy/gap between L2 knowledge and L2 use disables learners to master an L2 to the same degree of their first languages. This study, therefore, hypothesises that speech competence and speech performance are the two sides of a coin which both reflect learners' speaking/speech capacity. Nevertheless, due to internal and external restricts, there is a discrepant/unbalanced development between speech competence and speech performance among L2 learners. It is, therefore, of great importance to investigate learners' L2 speaking/speech from both sides to understand what underlies such a speech gap and to discover what can be done to reduce the gap between speech competence and speech performance.

3.3 Competence and Performance Assessment

Speaking/oral testing was not widely used in the early days of language teaching because it was argued that many uncontrollable factors would sway the judgment of raters and make the tests unreliable (Fulcher, 2003). After the Second World War "a watershed in the history of testing speaking" occurred (Fulcher, 2003, p. 6), with pencil and paper methods of testing learners' speaking capability replaced with actual oral performance which including picture descriptions, sustained speech, and directed conversation (Barnwell, 1996).

It was with the advent of the task-based approach or the communicative approach to teaching a second language in the late 1980s and early 1990s that "performance assessment found a rationale in the theory of communicative competence" (McNamara, 1996, p. 1). Learners, especially in adult and vocational education, have to demonstrate practical command of skills required. Under such a driving force, it "has led in many societies to pressure for demonstrable outcomes of learning in terms of concrete, practical and relevant skills" (McNamara, 1996, p. 1). In fact, performance assessment in a second language context can be traced back to Carroll's (1972) "integrative approach" to

language testing, which was discussed in a seminar of the testing on the English language proficiency of foreign students wishing to study in the USA.

I do not think, however, that language testing (or the specification of language proficiency) is complete without the use of an approach requiring an integrated, facile performance on the part of the examinee I recommend tests in which there is less attention paid to specific structure points or lexicon than to the total communicative effect of an utterance. (Carroll, 1972, p. 318)

Davies (1968) also suggested that it is inadequate for a proficiency test to involve only grammatical competence. Though performance-based assessment was soon appreciated by Spolsky (1968), Cooper (1968), Jakobovits (1969) and Brière (1971), believing that language tests should aim to measure a person's ability to operate in specified sociolinguistic situations rather than a person's knowledge of a language, it was Clark's (1972) and Savignon's (1972) communicative language testing that represented "the mainstream of current second language performance assessment theory and practice" (McNamara, 1996, p. 30).

Different from traditional pencil-and-paper language assessment (see Figure 3.2), performance assessment is distinctive in its feature of "performance process (the nature of the performance task)" (McNamara, 1996, p. 9). There were three fundamental features that distinguish performance assessment from traditional assessment: (a) examinees must perform tasks, (b) the tasks should be as authentic as possible, and (c) the outcome of the tasks should be rated by qualified judges (Norris, Brown, Hudson & Yoshioka, 1998).

It can be extrapolated from Figure 3.2 that traditional speaking ability tests are paper-based assessments with fixed responses. In contrast, performance-based speaking ability tests require professional raters to assess learners' performance based on valid scales. In general, performance assessments are a powerful and effective alternative to the traditional standardised assessment, providing learners and teachers with a more comprehensive understanding of learning outcomes (Abedi, 2010). In light of performance assessments, the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages developed an integrated performance assessment (IPA) for assessing learners' foreign language proficiency. The IPA consists of an

interpretive, interpersonal, and presentational communication task (Adair-Hauck, Glisan, & Troyan, 2013). The interpretive task requires learners to interpret the provided authentic materials in a video, audio, or visual format. The interpersonal task requires learners to engage in an unprepared conversation or discussion. The presentational task asks learners to prepare a written or oral presentation for an audience.

Figure 3.2

Characteristics of Performance Assessment

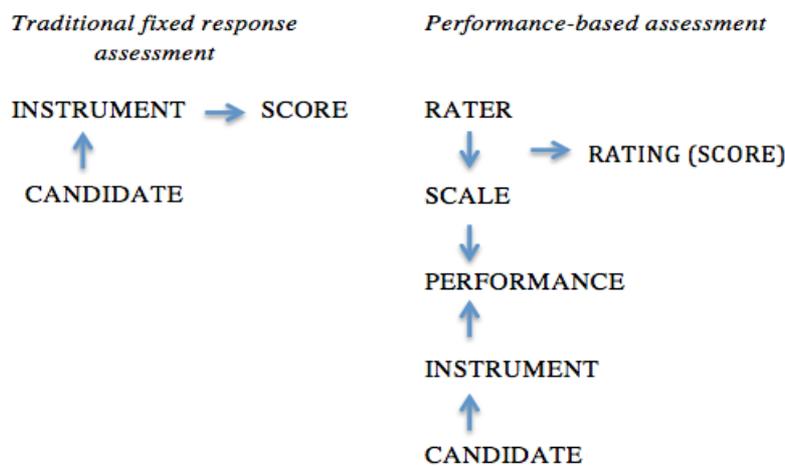


Figure 3.2. The Characteristics of Performance Assessment. From *Measuring Second Language Performance*, by T. F. McNamara, 1996, p. 9. Copyright 1996 by Longman.

In this study, two assessments (a Chinese speech competence test and a Chinese speech performance test, see Section 5.4.2) are developed for measuring CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance, respectively. The Chinese speech competence test, designed in a traditional pencil-and-paper way, measures learners' speaking competency by assessing their grammatical, lexical, and pragmatic abilities. The Chinese speech performance test, designed in a performance-based way, holistically measures learners' speaking performance via interpretive, interpersonal, and presentational tasks.

3.4 Principles and Dimensions of Foreign/Second Language Assessment

Practicality, reliability, validity, authenticity, and washback are normally the essential qualities of useful assessments (Green, 2014). Practicality according to Bachman and Palmer (2010) is “difference between the resources that will be required in the development and use of an assessment and the resources that will be available for these activities” (p. 262). In other words, practicality refers to how practical and feasible an assessment is. A test will be considered impractical if it is money and time consuming or is hard to administer and score.

Reliability refers to how consistent the test results will be when a test is administered to the same or equivalent students on different occasions (Bachman & Palmer, 2010; Farhady, 2012). More specifically, the reliability of a test can be examined through student-related reliability, test administration reliability, test reliability, and inter-rater reliability. Student-related reliability is basically determined by learners’ internal factors, such as illness, fatigue, anxiety and other physical or psychological issues. Test administration reliability is often affected by external factors, such as weather conditions and classroom settings. Test reliability, or classroom-based test reliability in particular, can be caused by rater bias, poorly written test items, and time limitations. Inter-rater reliability refers to how consistent examiners are when providing scores for the same test-takers. A clear and specific scoring scale is helpful to ensure inter-rater reliability.

Validity is often regarded as the most important facet of a test, since it is “directly related to the content and form of the test” (Farhady, 2012, p. 37). There are four types of validity that determine a test’s overall validity: face validity, content validity, criterion-related validity, and construct validity. Face validity refers to the extent to which a test corresponds to what it claims to measure. For instance, a test designed to examine students’ grammar knowledge should not contain items such as reading comprehension and vocabulary. Nevertheless, face validity is often perceived as not being a determinant validity as it is purely a subjective factor (H. D. Brown, 2010; Farhady, 2012). Content validity, as a subjective but crucial validity, refers to the extent to which the content of a test represents the

content that are taught in a subject. Scrutinisation of “the correspondence between the content of the test and the materials to be tested is necessary” (Farhady, 2012, p. 38) for ensuring the content validity. Criterion-related validity refers to the extent to which a newly designed test is statistically correlated with already constructed tests of the same kind. Construct validity, as the most important type of validity, refers to how well a test measures up to its theorised psychological construct, such as intelligence, level of anxiety, or proficiency. Construct validity provides general guidelines for test design and subsumes all other types of validity.

Authenticity refers to “the degree of correspondence of the characteristics of a given language test task to features of a target language task” (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 23). Authenticity, however, is hard to measure given its subjectiveness feature. Although many test types fail to simulate real-world tasks, this does not mean that authenticity of a test should be ignored. On the contrary, efforts should be made to establish the authenticity of a test, such as, using natural language to create contextualised, meaningful and real-world like items rather than isolated, irrelevant and dull ones (H. D. Brown, 2010).

Washback refers to the influence, either positive or negative, on teaching and learning. One importance aspect of washback is with respect to the test outcome feedback. It is suggested that simply providing students with a single letter grade or numerical score alone is insufficient. A more effective way to provided beneficial washback for learners is to offer detailed comments and specific feedback.

The five principles of practicality, reliability, validity, authenticity, and washback should be taken as guidelines either for designing or evaluating an assessment. In this study, two tests (a Chinese speech competence test and a Chinese speech performance test) have been designed with reference to the five principles, especially in terms of reliability and validity (see Section 5.4.2 for test piloting). For example, inter-rater reliability has been adopted to ensure raters’ consistency in scoring. Face validity has been achieved through the examination of experts.

In addition to the five principles of language assessment, much attention should be paid to dimensions such as complexity, accuracy, and fluency (CAF), particularly in terms of assessing second language production.

CAF was first introduced in Skehan's (1996, 1998) language proficiency model. With the appearance of CAF, these three dimensions are often regarded as "properties of L2 learners' performance which are evaluated to investigate the effect of other factors" (Housen, Kuiken, & Vedder, 2012, p. 2). Moreover, the status of CAF as principal and distinct dimensions of L2 performance and proficiency has been justified both empirically and theoretically by Larsen-Freeman (2006) and Skehan (2003). A note of caution is in order as "there is no commonly accepted definition of complexity" (Bulté & Housen, 2012, p. 22) and the complexity constructs are rather sophisticated. In this study, complexity will not be systematically examined in the CSL speaking assessment. Yet, speakers' language complexity will be measured through examining their use of cohesive devices for organising their speaking. A CSL speech performance scale has been established with reference to some commonly used scales, such as CEFR, HSK, the American Council for the Teaching of Foreign Languages (speaking section), and the Cambridge ESOL Common Scale for Speaking.

Table 3.1
CSL Speech Performance Scale

Level	Accuracy	Fluency	Pronunciation	Coherence
6	Barely has grammatical errors	Smooth and effortless flow of expression without hesitation	Native-like pronunciation and intonation	Appropriate use of a variety of cohesive and coherent devices for organising speaking
5.5				
5	High degree of grammatical accuracy with sporadic errors (inaccuracies and inappropriacies)	Smooth expression with natural hesitation (only a conceptually difficult subject can hinder a natural, smooth flow of language)	Quite native-like pronunciation and intonation with light accent	Showing controlled use of organisational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices
4.5				
4	A relatively high degree of grammatical control; does not make errors which cause misunderstanding, can correct most of his/her mistakes	Maintains a flow of language; hesitation may occur whilst searching for patterns and expressions; a few noticeably long pauses	Pronunciation is easily understood, but with intrusive L1 features	Limited use of cohesive devices thus utterances are not so coherent, even a bit jumpy
3.5				
3	Grammatical errors and self-corrections are evident in producing complex structures, but can use reasonably accurately a repertoire of common expressions in most familiar situations;	A generally comprehensible flow of language; Pauses and hesitation are evident, especially in longer stretches of free production;	Pronunciation is generally intelligible, but L1 features may put a strain on the listener	Lack use of cohesive devices and utterances are jumpy

The rating scale for CSL speaking (see Table 3.1) in this study covers four dimensions: accuracy, fluency, pronunciation and coherence. The assessment will be done in a holistic way, given holistic rubrics' efficiency and tendency to lead to greater consistency among multiple raters (Tedick, 2002). The equivalent levels in Table 3.1 are level 3 intermediate low, level 3.5 intermediate, level 4 intermediate high, level 4.5 advanced low, level 5 advanced, level 5.5 advanced high, and level 6 native-like. Since this study is targeting intermediate and advanced CSL learners, elaborations on the levels below intermediate low are not pursued in this study.

3.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter can be summarised as follows:

1. Competence and performance, as dichotomous terms proposed by Chomsky (1965) and which had currency in the 1970s and 1980s, have been discussed and critiqued. Nevertheless, the dichotomy has been under-investigated, especially in terms of L2 speaking.
2. Speech competence and speech performance have been proposed and defined in the CSL context by drawing on the brief literature review on competence and performance.
3. Principles and dimensions of L2 language assessment have been examined for the purpose of establishing a CSL speech performance scale for this study.
4. The development of CSL speech assessment aims to evaluate CSL learners' speech performance holistically because of the efficiency and consistency that holistic assessments encourages in raters.

CHAPTER FOUR

L2 LEARNING AND SPEAKING: A LITERATURE REVIEW

4.1 Chapter Overview

This chapter presents a brief literature review in relation to the development of L2 learning and speaking from cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural perspectives. This chapter aims to establish a more comprehensive analytical foundation for the present research, namely through aggregation of the influential cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural factors. The literature in this chapter is examined and criticised in the following parts:

1. Cognitive perspectives of L2 learning and speaking
2. Affective perspectives of L2 learning and speaking
3. Socio-cultural perspectives of L2 learning and speaking

A summary of the main points raised in this review concludes the chapter.

4.2 Cognitive Perspectives on L2 Learning and Speaking

Cognitive perspectives of L2 communication draw heavily on cognitive psychology (Ellis, 2008). According to M. Eysenck (2001), cognitive psychology is mainly about internal psychological processes including attention, perception, memory, language use, problem solving, reasoning, and thinking. In this section, more attention will be centred on cognitive accounts of L2 production rather than cognitive accounts of L2 acquisition. The former is more concerned with how learners use their constructed L2 systems in communication, while the latter is about “how learners construct their L2 systems” (Ellis, 2008, p. 487). Given that this study focuses on learners’ language production rather than their language learning, the cognitive factors affecting L2 production are the foci in this review section, in particular, L2 speech planning, learning style, and speaking strategy.

4.2.1 L2 Speech Planning

L2 speech planning, as an influential contribution to L2 speech production/performance, has been extensively researched over the last decades (Ellis, 2008). There are two widely explored lines of research pertaining to L2 speech planning: 1) formulaic patterns/language and 2) task planning.

The first line of L2 speech planning research regards the effect of formulaic patterns/language on L2 production. Formulaic language can be collocations, phrasal verbs, proverbs, idioms, slogans, common quotations, and sayings. These formulaic patterns enable learners to bypass the need to compose formulaic sequences online (within-task) “through word selection and grammatical sequencing in capacity-limited working memory” (Conklin & Schmitt, 2012, p. 45).

Raupach’s (1983) analysis of formulaic sequences can be considered a helpful early example in this area. Raupach analysed the spontaneous productions of German students of French and found out that formulaic patterns function as facilitators in helping students organise their ongoing speech. In other words, formulaic patterns could reinforce L2 learners’ speech performance. Wray (2006), in a similar vein, listed the advantages of using formulaic language, suggesting that formulaic language could be helpful in recalling details, reducing pressure in high-stakes activities and facilitating L2 acquisition. Formulaic language, as discussed, can be regarded as a processing shortcut for L2 speech planning and a foundation to fluent language production. As Wood (2002) argued formulaic patterns “allow language production to occur while bypassing controlled processing and the constraints of short-term memory capacity” (p. 1).

The second line of L2 speech planning research regards the effects of task planning on L2 production. Ellis (2005) divided task planning into two major types: pre-task planning and within-task (online) planning. Each type can be further differentiated into two components. For example, pre-task planning can be categorised into rehearsal and strategic planning, and within-task planning can be further divided into pressured and unpressured planning.

Pre-task planning refers to the planning actions that learners take in advance for the fulfilment of given tasks. For example, rehearsal involves “task repetition with the first performance of the task viewed as a preparation for a subsequent performance” (Ellis, 2005, p. 3). Strategic planning, on the other hand, “entails learners preparing to perform the task by considering the content they will need to encode and how to express this content” (p. 3).

Pre-task planning has been found to be beneficial for L2 oral production, especially in terms of fluency and complexity (L. Li, Chen, & Sun, 2015; Skehan, 2009; Yuan & Ellis, 2003). One particular aspect of pre-task planning concerns the length of time for pre-task preparation. According to Mehnert (1998), different lengths of time of pre-task planning could result in different outcomes of fluency, lexical density, accuracy, and complexity. L. Li et al.’s (2015) study found that the provision of planning time (from 30 seconds to 5 minutes) was positively correlated with both the quality and quantity of oral production.

Within-task (online) planning refers to the planning taking place during task performance. Within-task planning can be either pressured or unpressured, depending on the available time for completing a task (Skehan, 2007). Pressured within-task planning requires performers to complete a task within a limited amount of time (Javad Ahmadian, Tavakoli, & Vahid Dastjerdi, 2015). Unpressured within-task planning, in contrast, allows performers to have ample time to complete a task (Javad Ahmadian et al., 2015).

Research to date has rendered general support for the claim that within-task (online) planning, particularly unpressured online planning, contributes more to learners’ accurate and complex oral production (Ellis, 2005; Javad Ahmadian et al., 2015). According to Yuan and Ellis (2003) and Ellis and Yuan (2004), online planning provides learners with opportunities to perform more accurately. This is probably “because learners have the chance to monitor linguistic form” (p. 35). Although pre-task planning provides learners with time for preparation, learners may emphasise “conceptualizing what has to be communicated rather than how to say it” (Ellis, 2005, p. 35). As a result, pre-task planning may contribute more to learners’ fluency and complexity of oral production.

In this study, however, the effects of formulaic language on L2 production will not be examined, for the following three reasons. Firstly, except for common idioms and sayings, it is hard to distinguish formulaic language from non-formulaic language in terms of Chinese Mandarin. Even native Chinese speakers do not use idioms and sayings in their daily speech due to the difficulty of proper use. Secondly, it is hard to judge the origin of formulaic language. Is it because of learners' long-term memory or due to their short-term memory? Thirdly, the participants recruited for this study are mostly from Chinese-related majors and of similar ages. They have accumulated relatively the same amount of formulaic language knowledge due to the standardised tertiary education the participants received in China.

In summary, the key aspects of speech planning in this study yet to be explored are pre-task planning and unpressured within-task planning. According to Ellis (2005), when learners have “the opportunity for both pre-task planning and unpressured within-task planning”, they could “maximize their competence in performance” (p. 5). In this study, participants will be given unlimited time for their pre-task and unpressured within-task planning. Their speech performances will be measured through their pre-task preparation time length (cognitive fluency) and within-task performance (raters' assessment).

4.2.2 Learning Style

Learning style, in general, reflects individuals' engagement manner in a learning process. On the one hand, researchers point out that learners absorb and retain information faster and more efficiently when the given information matches with their learning styles (Hatami, 2013). On the other hand, some researchers argue that students receiving instructions tailored to their learning styles may not lead to optimal learning outcomes (Willingham, 2005). On the contrary, classroom teaching should be tailored according to teaching materials rather than learners' learning styles.

Given the existence of controversial opinions in the area of learning styles and “few general conclusions that can be drawn from the research on learning style”

(Ellis, 2008, p. 671), more research is needed in the field of second language learning (Wintergerst, DeCapua, & Verna, 2003), particular in other foreign language contexts, so that a more comprehensive understanding of learning styles can be achieved.

This study, therefore, factors in learning styles in order to examine the influence of learning styles on CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance. In the following sections, learning style, as a cognitive factor, is firstly defined and classified. Learning style instruments are then introduced and critiqued. Research pertaining to learning styles is briefly reviewed in the end.

4.2.2.1 Definitions of Learning Style

Learning style, as an important concept in cognition, has been defined from different perspectives. Keefe (1979) regarded learning styles as a composite of “cognitive, affective, and physiological traits that are relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with, and respond to the learning environment” (p. 4). Reid (1995) viewed learning style as “an individual’s natural, habitual, and preferred way(s) of absorbing, processing, and retaining new information and skills” (p. viii). Kinsella (1995) pointed out that learning styles offer an “approach for understanding individual differences among linguistically and culturally diverse students” (p. 171). In brief, learning style can be regarded as learners’ consistent perceptions or preferred ways of interacting with different learning situations.

4.2.2.2 Classifications of Learning Style

Many scholars have classified learning style into various taxonomies (Shipman & Shipman, 1985). Among the scholars, Kolb (1984), Curry (1987), Felder (1996), Rayner and Riding (1997), and Reid (1987) are widely cited.

Based on his experiential learning theory, Kolb (1984) classified learners into four types: diverger (innovative learner), assimilator (analytical learner), converger (common sense learner), and accommodator (dynamic learner). Curry

(1987) constructed learning style into a four-layer onion-like model containing: instructional preference, social interaction, informational processing style, and cognitive personality style. Felder (1996) identified learning style against four bipolar scales of active/reflective, sensing/intuitive, visual/verbal, and sequential/global. Rayner and Riding (1997) grouped learning style into three types: learning-centred, cognitive-centred and personality-centred.

In Reid's (1987) classification, learning styles are categorised into six styles: visual, auditory, kinaesthetic, tactile, individual, and group. Visual learners, for example, like receiving information by reading and watching. Auditory learners like gaining information via listening. Kinaesthetic learners prefer experiential learning which takes place when students participate in total physical activities. Tactile learners, in a similar way, enjoy learning by doing. Individual style learners favour studying alone, while group style learners like collaborative/cooperative learning.

This study adopts Reid's (1987) classification for measuring CSL learners' learning styles, given that this classification is most widely used and investigated in the context of foreign language learning.

4.2.2.3 Instruments for Assessing Learners' Self-Perceived Learning Styles

Some researchers sought to develop instruments to measure learners' different learning styles in addition to their attempts of categorising learning styles. Among the various instruments, Kolb's (1976) learning style inventory, Felder and Soloman's (1991) index of learning style, Honey and Mumford's (1992) learning style questionnaire, Reid's (1987) perceptual learning style preference questionnaire (PLSPQ) are the most widely employed in research. Reid's PLSPQ, in particular, is commonly used in the English as second/foreign language context.

The learning style inventory, developed by Kolb (1976), is a 36 self-description survey plotted to measure learners' strengths and weakness in the four-stage learning cycle (later known as the four types of learning style). However, this inventory has been criticised for its lack of validity and reliability (Koob & Funk,

2002). The index of learning style, formulated by Felder and Soloman (1991), is a 44 self-report questionnaire designed to capture learners' preferences on the four bipolar types of learning style. It has been proven as a reliable, valid and suitable instrument in the tertiary context (Felder & Spurlin, 2005). The learning style questionnaire, developed by Honey and Mumford (1992) who shared the same idea with Kolb's experiential learning, is an 80-item questionnaire designed to measure individuals' intrinsic learning traits including activist, reflector, theorist and pragmatist. Although this questionnaire is taken as an acceptable alternative instrument to Kolb's, it has still been criticised as an unsatisfactory predictive instrument given its low reliability and poor factor structure (Zwanenberg & Wilkinson, 2000).

The PLSPQ, developed by Reid in 1984, is regarded as the first to measure learning style in the field of second/foreign language learning with reliability and validity established on high intermediate or advanced ESL classes (Reid, 1987). There are six learning style preferences in her questionnaire including visual, auditory, kinaesthetic, tactile, individual, and group. In Reid's (1987) study, she surveyed a sample of 1,388 students (1234 ESL learners and 154 English native speakers) representing nine major languages and 29 major fields of study. The results implied that all ESL learners strongly preferred kinaesthetic and tactile learning and disliked group learning.

There are certain issues concerning Reid's PLSPQ. Reid (1990) herself reported that the internal reliability for the six learning style scales was hard to obtain in the PLSPQ. Wintergerst, DeCapua, and Itzen (2001) also found that the PLSPQ lacks construct validity as certain survey items were not compatible with Reid's conceptualised learning styles. Yet it is worth pointing out that Wintergerst et al's study is such a small-scale (100 ESL learners from diverse language groups) replication study of Reid's (1,388 participants). Wintergerst and et al.'s results may be questionable as well. In addition to the questionability of PLSPQ's construct validity, Peacock (2001) suggested that the PLSPQ did not provide concrete examples of activities for each learning style but rather described them in a vague way (e.g., "I prefer doing something in class" and "I learn best when I work with others"). This may confuse participants' understanding of different

learning styles due to different cultural and educational contexts. Last but not least, Reid (1987) categorised learning styles as major (13.5 and above), minor (11.50 to 13.49), and negative (11.49 or less) according to the mean scores of style preferences. However, the cut-off points of the three ranges of style preferences were not clarified and justified.

4.2.2.4 Relevant Research on Learning Styles

A large body of research has investigated learning styles of second/foreign language learners, especially ESL/EFL, from different angles and contexts mainly through Reid's PLSPQ.

Peacock (2001), for example, examined 206 EFL tertiary students' learning styles through an adapted PLSPQ in the context of Hong Kong. The findings suggested that kinaesthetic and auditory styles were favoured by students while individual and group styles were not. Moreover, learners who preferred group style were significantly less proficient in EFL. One major issue concerning this study is the reliability and validity of the adapted PLSPQ. In addition, the three ranges (major, minor, and negative) of learning style preferences are not rationalised.

Isemonger and Sheppard (2003), in a similar vein, surveyed 710 EFL tertiary students' learning style preferences via the PLSPQ in the Korean context. The results showed that kinaesthetic was the most favoured learning style followed by auditory and tactile styles, while an individual learning style was the least favourite among the learners. It was also found that age and university major were not factors contributing to the difference in learners' preferences towards different styles. Contrary to Peacock's (2001) result, Isemonger and Sheppard found that learning styles could not predict learners' EFL proficiency.

Naserieh and Anani Sarab (2013) investigated 138 EFL graduate students' perceptual learning style preferences from six faculties in the Iranian context by using the PLSPQ. The results echoed the previous studies that learners favour kinaesthetic and tactile styles and disfavour group learning style. Their study also revealed that gender was a significant factor in determining learning styles.

Moreover, age and major were also detected as two significant factors causing the differences among learners' learning styles, contradicting Isemonger and Sheppard's (2003) findings. Naserieh and Anani Sarab's study, however, has certain limitations. For example, the participants' English proficiency level was self-perceived. This may incur biased results, as self-ratings may not be a reliable indicator of proficiency level. Moreover, a qualitative method of data collection should have also been adopted to complement the relatively small-scale quantitative data to enable a more comprehensive understanding of the findings of this study.

Kim and Kim (2014) reported on their study exploring the relationship between perceptual learning styles, English learning motivation, and the achievement of 2682 Korean EFL students from elementary, junior high, and high schools. They used a modified 5-point Likert scale questionnaire to measure learners' perceptual learning styles and motivational variables. The findings indicated that visual and auditory styles were positively correlated with motivational variables and English proficiency, while a kinaesthetic style was negatively correlated with them. Moreover, a visual style was proved to be the most critical factor contributing to learners' English proficiency and motivation. The study also generated a structural equation model based on its data, which demonstrated the direct and indirect relationships between perceptual learning style preferences and relevant factors (i.e., imagination, ideal L2 self, motivation, and proficiency). One concern regarding this study is that participants' self-reported English proficiency may vary from one school to another, as schools have their own in-house tests and test difficulty levels. This may influence participants' self-perceived English proficiency. Moreover, schools' different teaching philosophies may influence participants' self-perceived learning style. As a result, the findings of the study may not be convincing.

4.2.2.5 Summing up

To sum up, the above brief literature review shows that kinaesthetic learning style is most favoured by learners. Nevertheless, kinaesthetic has been found to be negatively correlated with learners' language proficiency. Visual and auditory

styles, in contrast, have been revealed as positively correlated with language proficiency. One limitation of the literature is that much research of learning style has been conducted in the context of ESL/EFL. There is virtually no evidence from the field of Chinese as a second/foreign language. This study factors in learning style in order to examine language learners' status quo of learning styles in the CSL context. It is hoped that this study will add some value to our understanding of how different learning styles could influence CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance, so that suggestions can be proposed for CSL learning and teaching.

4.2.3 Speaking Strategy

Language learning strategies have been extensively explored over the last five decades either theoretically or empirically (also see Rose's, 2015, overview of language learner strategies research). From a theoretical perspective, much research has focused on categorising learning strategies, yet no agreed typology of learning strategies has been established (Ellis, 2015). From an empirical perspective, language learning strategies have been investigated in various contexts together with different contributing variables (such as learning style, language proficiency, and gender) through Oxford's (1990) strategy inventory for language learning. Compared with research exploring language learning strategies, research into speaking strategy use is limited, particularly in the CSL context (W. Chu, Lin, Chen, Tsai & Wang, 2015).

This study, therefore, factors in speaking strategies in order to explore the influence of speaking strategies on CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance. In the following sections, speaking strategy, as a cognitive factor, is defined and classified. Speaking strategy instruments are then introduced and critiqued. Lastly, research pertaining to speaking strategy is briefly reviewed.

4.2.3.1 Definitions of Speaking Strategies

Language learning strategies have attracted substantial attention since Joan Rubin's (1975) study of good language learners (Rose, 2012; A. D. Cohen &

Griffiths, 2015). Rubin (1987) viewed language learning strategies as ways that would contribute to the development and construction of the language system of L2 learners. Oxford (1990) defined language learning strategies as “specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations” (p. 8). Chamot (2004) pointed out that “learning strategies are the conscious thoughts and actions” (p. 14) that learners adopt in order to achieve a learning goal. A. D. Cohen (2014) further defined language learning strategies as “thoughts and actions consciously chosen and operationalised by language learners, to assist them in carrying out a multiplicity of tasks from the very onset of learning to the most advanced levels of target-language performance” (p. 7).

The definition of speaking strategies, on the contrary, has been generally overlooked. One possible reason could be the lack of research on the language learning strategy in speaking skills (Yunus & Singh, 2014). Some early scholars (e.g., Stern, 1983; Tarone, 1981) regarded speaking strategies as techniques that speakers employed to cope with difficulties and problems in communication. Díaz Larenas (2011) described speaking strategies as “actions and/or procedures that students apply in order to complete an oral communicative task successfully” (p. 89). Drawing on the definitions of language learning strategy, speaking strategies in the CSL context could be defined as any attempt made by CSL learners to enhance the development and the effectiveness and of their speech competence and speech performance.

4.2.3.2 Classifications of Learning Strategies and Speaking Strategies

Many scholars have classified language learning strategies into various taxonomies. Among the scholars, Rubin’s (1987), O’Malley and Chamot’s (1990) and Oxford’s (1990), taxonomies are the most widely cited.

Rubin (1987), as a pioneer in the field of research into language learning strategies, assumed that differences in strategy use may differentiate successful language learners from their unsuccessful counterparts. Her research into successful language learners distinguished strategies contributing directly to

learning from those that contribute indirectly to learning, including learning strategies, communication strategies, and social strategies. As this was a new area of enquiry, Rubin's classificatory system of language learning strategies was in its infancy at the time.

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) argued, from a cognitive theoretic perspective on learning, that learning strategies were cognitive skills which could be learned. They classified language learning strategies into three main subcategories with detailed strategies under each: metacognitive strategies (selective attention, planning, monitoring, evaluation), cognitive strategies (rehearsal, organisation, inferencing, summarising, deducting, imagery, transfer, elaboration), and socio-affective strategies (cooperation, questioning for clarification, self-talk).

In a similar vein, Oxford (1990) divided language learning strategies into memory strategies, cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies. The first three were also called direct strategies, as they were in direct contact with the target language. The latter three were grouped into indirect strategies, because they indirectly supported and influenced language learning. Despite the comprehensiveness of this classification (Ellis, 2008), these categories overlap with each other to some extent, particularly in terms of cognitive and metacognitive strategies, and are too difficult to distinguish.

To echo the recent development of self-regulation in L2 learning, Oxford (2011) developed a strategic self-regulation model of language learning. Oxford's model classified learning strategies into three dimensions (cognitive, affective, and sociocultural interactive strategies) with metastrategies (metacognitive, meta-affective, and meta-sociocultural-interactive strategies) pervading all three.

Despite the fact that there is a considerable amount of research pertaining to how language learning strategies are taxonomised, little research has been conducted with respect of speaking strategy classification. It was not until A. D. Cohen's (1998, 2014) clarification between language learning strategies and language use strategies that studies embarked on exploring strategy use of each L2 language

skill, particularly in L2 writing. According to A. D. Cohen (1998, 2014), language learning strategies focus more on the strategies for improving L2 general knowledge development, while language use strategies target those that learners employed in their current interlanguage. For example, in A. D. Cohen and Chi's (2006) speaking strategy use questionnaire, speaking strategies are grouped into speaking practice strategies, conversation engagement strategies, and compensation strategies.

Nakatani (2006) also attempted to develop a speaking strategy inventory (known as the oral communication strategy inventory) to assess EFL learners' strategy use in communication. In his study, Nakatani categorised speaking strategies into two main types: 1) strategies for coping with speaking problems; and 2) strategies for coping with listening problems during communication. Such categorisation is due to the fact that speaking and listening skills are two essential components for oral communication. Within the first category (strategies for coping with speaking problems), variables include social affective strategies, fluency orientation, meaning negotiation (while speaking), accuracy orientation, message reduction and alteration, nonverbal strategies (while speaking), message abandonment, and tendency to think in English. In the second category (strategies for coping with listening problems), seven variables (strategies) are detected including scanning, fluency maintenance, words dependence, gist dependence, inactivity, meaning negotiation (while listening), and nonverbal strategies (while listening; see Nakatani, 2006, for more detailed explanations).

4.2.3.3 Instruments for Assessing Learners' Self-Perceived Speaking Strategy

According to Oxford (1996), "questionnaires are among the most efficient and comprehensive ways to assess the frequency of language learning strategy use" (p. 25). Many researchers developed self-report questionnaires to capture learners' perceived learning strategies (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995). These questionnaires include Oxford's (1990) strategy inventory for language learning (SILL), Pintrich, Smith, Garcia, and McKeachie's (1993) motivated strategies for learning questionnaire (MSLQ), A. D. Cohen and Chi's (2006) language strategy use inventory (LSUI), and Nakatani's (2006) oral communication strategy inventory

(OCSI). Given one of the foci of this study is to examine the impact of speaking strategies on CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance, A. D. Cohen and Chi's LSUI and Nakatani's OCSI are the most relevant for further exploration.

In A. D. Cohen and Chi's (2006) LSUI, 90 items are generated to capture learners' use of strategies, including listening strategies (26 items), vocabulary strategies (18 items), speaking strategies (18 items), reading strategies (12 items), writing strategies (10 items), and translation strategies (six items). The speaking strategy use scale involves three main types of speaking strategies: strategies to practise speaking, strategies to engage in conversation, and strategies for compensating for forgotten words or expressions. The unique feature of this questionnaire is its 4-point self-report scale. The options for participants to choose from are different from the commonly used 5-point Likert scale ones. Instead, participants are asked to self-assess based on the following four items: 1) I use this strategy and like it. 2) I have tried this strategy and would use it again. 3) I have never used this strategy but am interested in it. 4) This strategy does not fit for me.

The advantage of a 4-point scale with details in each is that it pushes the participants to think more prudently before making a decision (Dörnyei, 2007). However, such a scale could, to some extent, cause biased results because of the exclusion of the neutral option. Another issue concerning the LSUI is that the development and validation of the LSUI are not clearly spelt out. In other words, the reason the particular six categories of strategies (listening, vocabulary, speaking, reading, writing, and translation strategies use) are proposed needs to be justified either theoretically or empirically.

Nakatani's (2006) OCSI (final version) is a 58-item 5-point Likert scale questionnaire ranging from 1 (never or almost never true of me) to 5 (always or almost always true of me). Nakatani's OCSI was developed carefully and subjected to piloting and exploratory factor analyses. As speaking and listening skills are inseparable and essential for oral communication, the OCSI includes two categories of strategies: strategies for coping with speaking problems (32 items), and strategies for coping with listening problems (26 items). Through

factor analyses, Nakatani obtained eight factors for speaking strategies and seven factors for listening strategies.

A concern regarding the OCSI is that some factors have too few items. For example, message reduction and alteration strategies, nonverbal strategies while speaking, and attempt to think in English strategies contain just two items. Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010) argued that “a minimum of three or four items” is more appropriate for one factor (p. 127). Another concern regarding the OCSI is that the measurement may be confusing to the audience. As demonstrated, the OCSI measures not only speaking strategies but also listening strategies. In addition, rather than splitting the sample into halves, Nakatani used the same sample of participants for both exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses. This could flaw the reliability and validity of the factor analyses results. Lastly, the ratio between the participant number (400) for the OCSI and the scale items (58) did not meet the 10:1 threshold (R. B. Kline, 2011). This could also have a certain impact on the reliability of the results.

Although attempts have been made at developing speaking strategy use questionnaires in L2 English contexts, scant research has been undertaken in the L2 Chinese field. To date, only one study (Ye & Tan, 2015) has attempted to develop a questionnaire for measuring L2 Chinese learners’ strategies in learning spoken Chinese. Ye and Tan’s (2015) oral Chinese strategies questionnaire (OCSQ) is a 27-item 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always). It consists of two categories of strategies: 1) oral acquisition strategies (13 items) and 2) oral expression strategies (14 items). Oral acquisition strategies include three sub-categories: mother tongue thinking, semantic interpretation, and multi-word chunking. Oral expression strategies contain four sub-categories: planning monitoring, expression reflection, social communication, and resource utilisation.

One particular issue with respect to the OCSQ is that the initial items of the questionnaire were obtained through interviews from only 30 English learners of L2 Chinese, whose language proficiency was either at the low, intermediate or advanced level (10 for each level). However, the proficiency level of the participants recruited for the exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses was

not clearly given. In other words, the structure of their final version of the OCSQ generated through factor analyses may be skewed toward one of the three levels of learners, which may threaten the validity and reliability of the OCSQ.

4.2.3.4 Research on Speaking Strategies

A growing number of studies have been conducted in the last three decades for exploring speaking strategies or communication strategies (CS). There are two major perspectives on CS: the interactional view and the psycholinguistic view (Nakatani & Goh, 2007).

The interactional view (Tarone, 1981) of CS focuses on how language learners interact with their interlocutors, particularly in terms of how communication is achieved through meaning negotiation (Nakatani & Goh, 2007; Tarone, 1981). Much research has suggested that CS for meaning negotiation has a positive effect on L2 learning (e.g., P. Foster, 1998; Nakatani, 2010). In addition, CS use has been found to correlate with learners' L2 proficiency (e.g., Nakatani, 2006). This, however, does not necessarily mean that there are certain strategies exclusive to high-proficiency learners (Magogwe & Oliver, 2007).

The psycholinguistic view of CS (Færch & Kasper, 1984), in contrast, focuses on how individual language learners use different solutions for communicative problems, specifically in terms of what strategies learners use to overcome lexical hindrances (Nakatani & Goh, 2007). L2 proficiency and task types (e.g., a picture description task, a scenario task, a discussion task), as “the two most commonly examined variables for their relationship with CS use”, are highly correlated with CS use (Nakatani & Goh, 2007, p. 224). For example, a positive relationship was found between speaking proficiency and the use of fluency-oriented strategies (Nakatani, 2006).

Regardless of the different foci, the two perspectives of CS research have both implied the importance of CS use in L2 learning. In addition to the two views pertaining to CS research, other researchers have investigated speaking strategies or CSs via different research methods such as quantitative methods (e.g.,

Nakatani, 2010), mixed methods (e.g., Yunus & Singh, 2014) and case studies (e.g., Y. Wu, 2008) in order to examine the value of speaking strategies training, the usefulness of indirect learning strategies in speaking, and L2 Chinese learners' strategies for oral language learning, respectively.

Using quantitative methods, Nakatani (2010), for example, delved into the question of whether the use of certain speaking strategies could improve learners' English proficiency. Sixty-two Japanese college students participated in a 12-week long communication based English course that included strategy training. It was found that training students to use strategies for maintaining conversation flow and negotiation of meaning was beneficial to the development of their communicative ability. It was suggested that strategy training for lower proficiency learners was essential. However, concern regarding the study is about the validity of its training. The 12-week long training was not focused on strategy training. Instead, the training was more about content teaching. Therefore, learners' oral proficiency development may not be directly attributed to the development of learners' speaking strategies. Moreover, the study only covered speaking strategies in relation to meaning negotiation, while other types of speaking strategies such as self-practicing and imitation were overlooked.

Using mixed methods, Yunus and Singh (2014) surveyed 80 Bumiputra EFL students from a pre-diploma programme regarding their use of indirect language learning strategies (metacognitive, social, and affective strategies) in their speaking skills. Observation and interviews were used to explore the reasons for the use of certain strategies in speaking. They found that learners were strong users of affective and social strategies, while metacognitive strategies were inconsistently used. In fact, effective use of metacognitive strategies requires learners to have a strong ability to plan, evaluate, and regulate their learning. It is not a matter of simply providing learners with learning strategies but, more importantly, of helping them become autonomous learners with a repertoire of useful strategies.

Using case studies, Y. Wu (2008) carried out an investigation of spoken Chinese learning strategies used among Italian L2 Chinese learners. Four learners were

purposefully selected for two interviews (open and semi-structured). Each participant spent a total of 60 to 90 minutes on interviews. It was found that the learning environment (whether it is in a target or non-target language context) might influence students' oral Chinese learning strategies. For example, learners in the non-target environment had a stronger desire to improve their pronunciation and would often practise by following or imitating speech on tapes. However, the learners in the target environment did not use this strategy, as they were surrounded by authentic Chinese. Moreover, competent learners in the non-target language environment preferred to find regular conversation for practising their Chinese. One of the main criticisms is that the data collected may not be generalised to other populations or in other contexts. Moreover, the subjectivity in terms of qualitative data interpretation may lead to biased results.

4.2.3.5 Summing up

From the above limited yet representative studies, scholars seem to agree that speaking strategies are beneficial to learners' L2 speaking development. These speaking strategy studies, however, are not without limitations. One particular concern in relation to speaking strategy questionnaire development is that the constructs of these questionnaires, such as A. D. Cohen and Chi's (2006), Nakatani's (2006) and Ye and Tan's (2015), need to be further clarified and statistically validated to convince the end-users of their reliability and validity.

Furthermore, the numbers of participants in studies pertaining to speaking strategy questionnaire development (e.g., Nakatani, 2010; Y. Wu, 2008; Yunus & Singh, 2014), are relatively small (ranging from 4 to 80). Therefore, the findings and implications of these studies cannot be generalised with confidence. In addition, these studies examined certain speaking strategies only (e.g., meaning negotiation strategies, indirect speaking strategies, and pre-speaking strategies).

Lastly, most of the aforementioned studies (e.g., A. D. Cohen & Chi, 2006; Nakatani, 2006, 2010; Yunus & Singh, 2014) were conducted in EFL contexts. More attention needs to be paid to other foreign language contexts as well. Insightful findings from different yet similar contexts could not only enrich our

understanding of L2 speaking strategy use, but also contribute to L2 classroom teaching and learning. As a unique tonal language, Chinese Mandarin has witnessed tremendous growth in the number of learners, making it an ideal context for such an investigation. It is hoped that such an investigation could add more evidence to the field of speaking strategy and to shed light on the effects of speaking strategy on L2 speaking from another L2 context.

4.3 Affective Perspectives on L2 Learning and Speaking

Since the 1960s with the development of humanistic psychology, scholars' attention has been drawn to the role of affect in L2 learning. Researchers, such as Krashen (1982, 1985), Horwitz (1986), and MacIntyre and Gardner (1991, 1994), have studied the remarkable and unique role of affective factors in foreign language learning and teaching. Affective factors have been found to exert an important impact on each process of cognitive learning: the input, the information processing, and the output. Anxiety, attitude, and motivation are three of the key affective factors explored in the literature (Gardner, 1985; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Skehan, 1989, 1991).

4.3.1 Anxiety

Anxiety has been extensively examined over the last decades, particularly after Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope's (1986) establishment of the foreign language classroom anxiety scale (FLCAS), given the impact of anxiety on foreign language learning, specifically on speaking. This study, therefore, factors in anxiety in order to examine the influence of anxiety on CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance. In the following sections, anxiety, as an affective factor, is first defined and classified. Anxiety instruments are then introduced and critiqued. Finally, research pertaining to anxiety is briefly reviewed.

4.3.1.1 Definitions of Anxiety

Anxiety, as the most pervasive obstruction in learning (Arnold & Brown, 1999), has been broadly investigated in various contexts, ranging from arts to science. The definition of anxiety may slightly differ from one context to another. Anxiety, in a broad sense, can be defined as “a future-oriented emotional state characterised by a sense of apprehension, worry, and lack of control of one’s own affective response” (Otto, Calkins, & Hearon, 2010, p. 131).

Anxiety, in the field of foreign/second language learning, has been widely known as “a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process” (Horwitz, et al., 1986, p. 128). MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) defined language anxiety as “the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language contexts, including speaking, listening, and learning” (p. 284). L. J. Zhang (2001) defined it as “the psychological tension that the learner goes through in performing a learning task” (p. 74).

In brief, anxiety can be understood as an emotional state or condition characterised by feelings of tension, apprehension, worry, and elevated heart rate. It is believed that anxiety can either serve as a motivation or a hindrance for problem solving (Otto et al., 2010) and language learning.

4.3.1.2 Classifications of Anxiety

Anxiety can be classified into different types based on different perspectives. From the construct point of view, anxiety can be categorised into communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation (Horwitz, 1986). Communication apprehension occurs when learners use a foreign language for communication, characterised by a feeling of shyness. It is often caused by the inability of self-expression and listening comprehension. Test anxiety occurs particularly in test situations when learners are afraid of test failure or poor performance results. Fear of negative evaluation is an apprehension triggered by others’ evaluation or by the self-perception that others might evaluate him/her

negatively. Different from test anxiety's specific situation, fear of negative evaluation can occur in any social evaluative situations.

From the causality point of view, anxiety can be classified into trait anxiety, state anxiety, and situation-specific anxiety (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991). Trait anxiety can be understood as a type of personality trait, with which a person would be anxious in any situation. It has many negative effects, such as cognitive function distraction, and memory interference. State anxiety is "apprehension experienced at a particular moment in time" (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991, p. 90), for example, before participating in a written or oral test. Therefore, individuals who have high levels of state anxiety will be more anxious in stressful situations. Situation-specific anxiety, as an alternative to state anxiety, is a specific type of anxiety experienced consistently in certain situations: "public speaking, writing examinations, performing math, or participating in French [foreign language] class" (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991, p. 90).

From the function point of view, anxiety can be divided into facilitating anxiety and debilitating anxiety (Scovel, 1978). Facilitating anxiety is kind of positive feeling towards learning which can result in accelerating task accomplishment and overcoming anxious emotions. Debilitating anxiety, in contrast, is type of negative feeling towards learning that leads to the debilitation or avoidance of learning new skills. While the negative effects of anxiety on language learning achievement has been revealed in a considerable number of studies, the positive effects of anxiety have been under-investigated.

From the stage point of view, anxiety can be categorised as input anxiety, processing anxiety, and output anxiety (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994). Input anxiety occurs in the listening stage, especially when learners encounter new words, phrases, or expressions beyond their levels of comprehension (Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley, 2000). This stage of anxiety affects learners' ability and efficacy to receive, concentrate on, and encode external stimuli. Processing anxiety takes place in the stage when learners attempt to organise and store input (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2000). The intensity of processing anxiety depends on the difficulty of the given material, the extent to which memory is

relied on, and the level of organisation of the material that needs to be presented. Output anxiety occurs when learners are required to demonstrate their ability to produce previously learned material (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2000). High output anxiety may hinder learners' L2 speaking or writing ability.

4.3.1.3 Instruments for Assessing Learners' Self-Perceived Anxiety

Horwitz et al.'s (1986) foreign language classroom anxiety scale (FLCAS) is a 33-item, 5-point Likert scale questionnaire. It is designed for measuring university students' foreign language anxiety from three perspectives: communication anxiety, fear of negative evaluation and test anxiety. The FLCAS is a widely used instrument for measuring anxiety in the field of foreign language because of its high reliability and validity (Park & French, 2013).

Nonetheless, this extremely high reliability (internal consistency) could be a possible flaw per se, as Boyle (1985) argues that high values of internal consistency may be an indication of item redundancy on the scale. In other words, there may be parallel or redundant items in the 33-item three-factor FLCAS questionnaire. Moreover, validity and reliability may be time and context dependent (Kramer, Bernstein, & Phares, 2014). Walker and Panayides (2014), therefore, attempted to recreate a new shortened scale for measuring contemporary students' learning anxiety while maintaining the psychometric properties and construct continuum of the new scale. The 18-item 5-point Likert scale of foreign language classroom anxiety inventory (FLCAI) was then developed by Walker and Pannayides (2014) revealing the unidimensionality nature of the inventory. In other words, the FLCAI is a set of unidimensional items measuring anxiety in a form of one-layer construct.

Different from the FLCAS and the FLCAI, MacIntyre and Gardner (1994), based on a three-stage (input, processing, and output) learning model, developed the three-stage anxiety scale: input anxiety, processing anxiety, and output anxiety. Although MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) reported that the three-stage anxiety questionnaire was satisfactory, they did not elaborate on the development of the

three-stage anxiety scale. In addition, there is scant research examining its psychometric properties.

Onwuegbuzie et al. (2000), therefore, revisited the three-stage anxiety scale by attempting to validate the three-stage anxiety scale questionnaire. They administered the questionnaire to 258 university students enrolled in four foreign language courses (Spanish, French, German, and Japanese). The exploratory factor analyses showed the structural validity of the three-stage anxiety questionnaire with adequate psychometric properties. Confirmatory factor analyses, in contrast, could not provide sufficient evidence at either the unidimensional or multidimensional levels.

Despite the attempts made at developing questionnaires for assessing learners' anxiety, much research has been undertaken in L2 English contexts. Luo (2014), therefore, attempted to develop a Chinese language learning anxiety scale (CLLAS). She argued that target languages might be a factor affecting learners' anxiety level. The CLLAS was designed to measure learners' anxiety associated with four skills. Factor analysis together with reliability analysis yielded a three-factor solution of the scale: speaking anxiety (4 items, $\alpha = .90$), listening anxiety (4 items, $\alpha = .83$), reading and writing anxiety (8 items, $\alpha = .87$).

Although the CLLAS has been demonstrated to be a reliable and valid questionnaire, confirmatory factor analyses with sequential equation model techniques should be further adopted to cross-validate the established construct. In addition, the participants in Luo's (2014) study were from two universities with differences in terms of textbooks, curriculum, and linguistic background. Learners' anxiety experiences of Chinese language learning may vary from one university to another. Therefore, participants from different universities or with similar backgrounds should be recruited for cross-validating the results of this study.

4.3.1.4 Research on Anxiety

A substantial amount of research has been undertaken to examine the effects of anxiety on foreign language learning. There are two lines of research regarding anxiety: general language classroom anxiety and specific language skill related anxiety.

In the first line of general language classroom anxiety research, studies concerning anxiety have resulted in inconsistent and controversial findings given the complex and multi-faceted nature of anxiety (Horwitz, 2010). In particular, such inconsistencies and contradictions can be inferred from the relationships between anxiety and factors such as overseas learning experience and gender.

Studies such as Allen and Herron (2003) and Matsuda and Gobel (2004) reported that there was a negative relationship between foreign language classroom anxiety and overseas experience. In specific, it was revealed that if learners had more overseas experience, they suffered lower anxiety in learning another language. Kitano (2001), however, argued that overseas experience might not lower learners' foreign language learning anxiety. On the contrary, learners with overseas experience may suffer high anxiety, because they are expected to perform better. Kaypak and Ortaçtepe (2014) found that learners' anxiety did not change before and after studying abroad.

Gender is another factor that has been reported for its mixed effects on anxiety. Some studies (e.g., Awan, Azher, Anwar, & Naz, 2010; Cui, 2011; Na, 2007) suggested that male students were likely to be more anxious than females in terms of English learning and speaking. Some studies (e.g., Abu-Rabia, 2004; Park & French, 2013), in contrast, reported that it was females rather than males who showed higher anxiety in English learning. While the above research into anxiety is interesting and valuable, the focus of the present study is to look at the effects of anxiety on speaking rather than on general language learning. Therefore, the first line of research pertaining to anxiety is not elaborately presented.

In the second line of specific language skill-related anxiety, research has been conducted in terms of reading anxiety (e.g., Rajab, Zakaria, Rahman, Hosni, & Hassani, 2012; L. J. Zhang, 2000), writing anxiety (e.g., Cheng, 2002; Woodrow, 2011), listening anxiety (e.g., X. Zhang, 2013), and speaking anxiety (e.g., Dewaele, Petrides, & Furnham, 2008; Mahmoodzadeh, 2012; Mak, 2011). Given the focus of this study, speaking anxiety will be particularly reviewed.

Dewaele et al. (2008) explored the effects of trait emotional intelligence, and sociobiographical variables on communication anxiety. A total of 464 multilingual adults from various countries with an average age of 36.57 took part in the trait emotional intelligence questionnaire and the bilingualism and emotion questionnaire. The study suggested that trait emotional intelligence and age were negatively correlated with communication anxiety. It was also found that participants who used languages more frequently in general situations such as with friends and colleagues, who had a strong ability of socialisation, and who perceived themselves with high language proficiency, had lower levels of communication anxiety.

In a similar vein, Mak (2011) investigated factors contributing to the speaking-in-class anxiety among 313 ESL first-year college students of Chinese in Hong Kong by using the FLCAS. Factor analyses identified five contributing factors to speaking-in-class anxiety: speech anxiety and fear of negative evaluation, discomfort when speaking with native speakers, negative attitudes towards the English class, negative self-evaluation, and fear of failing. Among the five, speech anxiety and fear of negative evaluation contributed most to learners' speaking-in-class anxiety. In addition, preparation time and being corrected while speaking were also correlated with in-class speaking anxiety.

M. Liu and Huang (2011) examined the relationship between anxiety, motivation, and English performance by investigating 980 EFL undergraduate students in China. A 76-items 5-point Likert scale questionnaire and a final exam were adopted for data collection. It was found that classroom anxiety and intrinsic motivation were negative predictors for learners' English performance, while

instrumental motivation, fear of being negatively evaluated, and interest in foreign languages and cultures were positive predictors.

Mahmoodzadeh (2012) investigated speaking anxiety within the EFL learners' interlanguage system (i.e., phonology, grammar, and meaning) of 74 Iranian English major students through an adapted FLCAS. It was revealed that learners' interlanguage meaning system was mostly affected by speaking anxiety, while their interlanguage phonology system was least affected. Moreover, female students' interlanguage systems were more prone to influence from speaking anxiety. In addition, it was found that having more foreign language knowledge did not necessarily lead to a reduction of speaking anxiety.

4.3.1.5 Summing up

Anxiety, as an important contributing factor to foreign language learning, has been extensively examined from various perspectives. Scholars tend to agree that anxiety is an emotional feeling of tension, apprehension, worry, and fast heart rate caused in certain circumstances. A significant advance of investigations into anxiety could be due to Horwitz et al's (1986) FLCAS. It is a 5-point Likert scale questionnaire developed for examining learners' anxiety, including communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation. Opinions, however, diverge on the FLCAS's reliability and validity. Many studies (e.g., Rodriguez & Abreu, 2003; Tóth, 2008) have testified that FLCAS is a highly reliable unidimensional construct. Some (e.g., Park & French, 2013) pointed out that exceedingly high reliability implies that there may be many parallel items, which may lower an instrument's efficacy. Regardless of the disparity, anxiety has been confirmed as an influential affective factor in all the four language skills: listening, reading, speaking, and writing.

Although there are studies pertaining to foreign language speaking anxiety, few studies have been conducted in the field of CSL showcasing the relationship between speaking anxiety and L2 Chinese speaking. This study, therefore, takes anxiety, particularly in relation to speaking, into consideration for investigating CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance. It is hoped that such

an investigation will not only add more evidence to the literature of anxiety but also shed some light on the effects of anxiety on L2 speaking from the CSL context.

4.3.2 Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy is a robust predictor of capability. This study factors in self-efficacy, particularly speaking self-efficacy, to examine its impact on CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance. In the following sections, self-efficacy, as an affective factor, is first defined and classified. Self-efficacy instruments are then introduced and critiqued. Research pertaining to self-efficacy is briefly reviewed at the end.

4.3.2.1 Definitions of Self-Efficacy

Bandura's (1986) definition of self-efficacy is the most frequently cited. According to Bandura (1986), self-efficacy refers to "people's judgement of their capabilities to organise and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances" (p. 391). Self-efficacy is often used interchangeably with other terms such as self-esteem, self-concept, self-belief, and self-confidence. Self-efficacy, however, differs from these terms due to its situation- or domain-specific nature. It is a manifestation of learners' own capability and cannot be easily subject to external judgments. The terms, such as self-esteem, self-concept, self-belief, and self-confidence, in contrast, are rather abstract.

There are four sources that contribute to the development of self-efficacy including past performance, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and physiological feedback (Bandura, 1997). The importance of self-efficacy lies in its profound role in influencing individuals' behavioural choices, goal settings, efforts, and persistence. According to Ekholm, Zumbrunn and Conklin (2015), compared to those with low self-efficacy, learners with high self-efficacy are more confident and more willing to attempt to address difficulties encountered in any circumstances.

In brief, self-efficacy is not only individuals' belief or confidence in their capability but will also help them in fulfilling their goals. In a similar vein, speaking self-efficacy refers to learners' belief or confidence in their ability to speak successfully through planning and self-regulation.

4.3.2.2 Classifications of Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy, commonly understood as task or domain specific, has been explored in various contexts, such as education, health, and business. Self-efficacy can be classified according to its functional situations. Academic self-efficacy, for example, refers to learners' perceived competence in an academic domain (Schunk & Pajares, 2002). Social self-efficacy is "an individual's confidence in her/his ability to engage in the social interactional tasks necessary to initiate and maintain interpersonal relationships" (Smith & Betz, 2000, p. 286). With respect to the field of language learning, self-efficacy can be classified according to language skills, such as writing self-efficacy, reading self-efficacy, listening self-efficacy, and speaking self-efficacy.

According to Bandura's (1990) multidimensional scale of perceived self-efficacy (MSPSE), self-efficacy contains nine domains labelled as enlisting social resources, academic achievement, self-regulated learning, leisure-time skills and extracurricular activities, self-regulatory efficacy, self-efficacy to meet other's expectation, social self-efficacy, self-assertive efficacy, and enlisting parental and community support. Miller, Coombs, and Fuqua (1999) revisited the structure of the MSPSE. They constructed a three-factor model of self-efficacy through factor analyses, including social self-efficacy, task management efficacy, and academic efficacy. The three-factor model was further evidenced in Choi, Fuqua, and Griffin's (2001) study.

In addition to the domain specific concepts of self-efficacy, some researchers have conceptualised a general sense of self-efficacy. General self-efficacy refers to "the belief in one's competence to cope with a broad range of stressful or challenging demands" (Luszczynska, Scholz, & Schwarzer, 2005, p. 439).

In brief, self-efficacy can be classified into two categories: general self-efficacy and specific self-efficacy. In this study, speaking self-efficacy will be particularly examined in order to see its influence on learners' speech competence and speech performance.

4.3.2.3 Instruments for Assessing Perceived Self-Efficacy

Different instruments have been designed for measuring learners' self-efficacy. Sherer and Maddux's (1982), for example, developed a 23-item 14-point Likert self-efficacy scale out of their initial 36 items through factor analyses. It was found that a two-factor solution provided the optimal interpretation of self-efficacy consisting of a general self-efficacy scale (17 items) and a social self-efficacy scale (six items). The general self-efficacy scale measures self-efficacy without reference to any specific behavioural domain, while the social self-efficacy scale reflects efficacy in social situations. A particular concern regarding this scale is its versatile options. Participants may not be able to concentrate on completing the questionnaire given the 14 options. Thus, its reliability and validity may be questionable (Chen, Gully & Eden, 2001).

Chen et al. (2001) revisited Sherer and Maddux's (1982) general self-efficacy scale due to the low content validity of this scale. The new general self-efficacy scale (NGSE) is an 8-item 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The results showed that the NGSE scale is not only much shorter but also more valid than Sherer and Maddux's scale.

Regarding the instruments related to language skills, the writing self-efficacy scale has been most extensively explored. Shell, Murphy, and Bruning (1989) measured writing self-efficacy with a task subscale and a component skills subscale. The task subscale captures learners' self-efficacy for writing activities, while the component skills subscale looks at writing-related skills such as spelling and rhetoric. Pajares and Valiante (1999) adapted Shell et al.'s scale for middle school students. Pajares and Valiante's writing self-efficacy scale (WSES) is a 10-item self-report scale regarding students' perceived beliefs of writing

skills performance. The scale ranges from 0 (no chance) to 100 (completely certain).

Zimmerman and Bandura's (1994) writing self-regulatory efficacy scale (WSRES) is one of the most influential scales in the EFL and college context. The WSRES consists of 25 items ranging from 1 (could not execute) to 7 (could execute very well) asking students' perceived capability in terms of whether they can successfully and strategically execute writing through planning, revising, time-management, and related activities.

Bruning, Dempsey, Kauffman, McKim, and Zumbunn (2013) also looked into the dimensions of self-efficacy for writing. The self-efficacy for writing scale (SEWS), constructed by Bruning et al., is a 16-item self-rated scale measuring students' writing self-efficacy. The three dimensions of the SEWS include ideation, conventions, and self-regulation. The scale of SEWS ranges from 0 (no confidence) to 100 (complete confidence).

In brief, various contextualised self-efficacy instruments have been developed for different purposes of measurement. Some measure students' self-efficacy from a general perspective, while others measure specific domains such as writing, academic performance, and self-regulation. Nevertheless, little research has been conducted in terms of speaking self-efficacy. This is an important gap to address. Not only could such studies draw researchers' attention in terms of speaking self-efficacy, but it could also shed light on the role of speaking self-efficacy on learners' speech production.

4.3.2.4 Research on Self-efficacy

There has been a tremendous growth in research pertaining to self-efficacy, specifically in terms of writing self-efficacy. Although the focus in this study is speaking self-efficacy, a brief review of the relationship between writing self-efficacy and writing performance is necessary given the paucity of speaking self-efficacy research. Such a review could provide reference for the present study in

the relationship between speaking self-efficacy and CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance.

Woodrow (2011) conducted a study on the relationship between writing self-efficacy and writing anxiety. A sample of 738 college EFL students in China participated in the study. Participants were invited to complete a writing task for assessing their writing performance and a questionnaire for measuring their self-efficacy and anxiety. It was found that the relationship between students' writing performance and anxiety was mediated by self-efficacy. In other words, writing anxiety could not directly predict an individual's writing performance, but writing self-efficacy could.

Sanders-Reio, Alexander, Reio, and Newman (2014) also examined the relationship between writing self-efficacy and writing performance. 738 undergraduate students who were enrolled in an educational psychology class took part in the study. The writing self-efficacy index (Sanders-Reio, 2010) was adopted to assess students' writing self-efficacy. A take-home writing assignment was used to evaluate students' writing performance. The findings showed that writing self-efficacy could positively predict writing performance.

Hashemnejad, Zoghi and Amini (2014) examined the relationship between learners' self-efficacy and writing performance across genders in the Iran context. A sample of 120 EFL university students (56 males and 64 females) took part in this study. The instruments used for this investigation include Sherer and Maddux's (1982) general self-efficacy scale and an IELTS writing test. No significant relationship between students' self-efficacy and writing performance was found in this study.

Although attempts have been made at exploring the relationships between writing self-efficacy and writing performance, scant research has been conducted to examine the relationship between speaking self-efficacy and speaking competence/performance. There is one study that attempts to investigate the importance of speaking self-efficacy. Florack, Rohmann, Palcu and Mazziotta (2014) investigated a sample of 216 Spanish-speaking immigrants in Germany to

examine the relationships among cross-group friendships, intergroup anxiety, self-confidence in communication, and attitude toward cross-group contact. The results suggested that intergroup anxiety and self-confidence in communication mediated the effect of cross-group friendships on immigrants' attitudes toward cross-group contact. The increase in self-confidence in communication might be beneficial to cross-group communications.

4.3.2.5 Summing up

In brief, self-efficacy, referring to individuals' judgements of their capabilities to successfully accomplish given tasks, has been extensively researched in writing contexts. The results in terms of the relationship between writing self-efficacy and writing performance are controversial. Either a positive relationship or non-relationship has been revealed between the two variables (e.g., Woodrow, 2011; Sanders-Reio & et al., 2014; Hashemnejad & et al., 2014). Yet limited, Florack and et al. (2014) found the positive effect of self-confidence on communication (speaking self-efficacy) in interpersonal communication. With reference to the relationships between writing self-efficacy and writing performance and the impact of speaking self-efficacy in communication, it can be implied that there may be a relationship between speaking self-efficacy and speech competence/performance. This study seeks to address this question.

4.3.3 Motivation

Over the past 50 years of research, motivation has evolved from a simple dichotomous (intrinsic and extrinsic motivation) framework to a dynamic L2 selves mediated system (Ellis, 2015). The definitions of motivation, therefore, vary considerably based on researchers' different classifications of and theoretical lenses pertaining to motivation. Numerous studies also have been conducted to examine the effects of motivation or motivations on L2 learning, including the development of instruments for measuring learners' L2 motivations.

4.3.3.1 Definitions of Motivation

Motivation, intuitively, can be understood as a reason for an action. Little consensus, however, has been reached “on its conceptual range of reference” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 3). This section attempts to reveal motivation from social-psychological, cognitive-situated, and process-oriented perspectives.

From the social-psychological perspective, motivation can be divided into instrumental motivation and integrative motivation. Instrumental motivation refers to learners’ instrumental purpose of learning another language, such as furthering a career, reading technical materials, travelling, and translation (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). Integrative motivation refers to learners’ intention of integrating into the culture of a second language group and eventually becoming a part of that culture (Gardner & Lambert, 1972).

From the cognitive-situated perspective, motivation comprises intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation according to Deci and Ryan’s (1985) self-determination theory. Extrinsic motivation refers to an anticipation of a reward or punishment from outside and beyond the self. The reward or punishment can be money, prizes, good marks, and even certain types of positive feedback (Vansteenkiste, Lens, & Deci, 2006). Intrinsic motivation, on the other hand, refers to learners’ eagerness and interest to take part in an activity not for the sake of outward reasons but for its inherent interest and enjoyment. Ultimately, this intrinsically motivated practice will bring certain internal rewards, such as feelings of competence and self-determination (Deci, 1975).

From the process-oriented perspective, motivation is not static but rather develops and changes “both over the lifetime of a learner and within a single lesson” (Ellis, 2015, p. 50). Given the dynamic nature of motivation, Dörnyei (2009) proposed the L2 motivational self system (see Section 2.4 for a theoretical review) in order to demonstrate that motivation is a highly dynamic and situated phenomenon (Ellis, 2015).

4.3.3.2 Classifications of Motivation

Motivation has evolved from a static factor to a dynamic model over the last decades. Its evolution can be reflected in the classifications of motivation over time.

Gardner and Lambert (1972), from a socio-cultural perspective, claimed that language learning is influenced by two orientations (motivations): integrative orientation and instrumental orientation. The two motivations to some extent are similar to the general classification of motivation (intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation) distinguished in Deci and Ryan's (1985) self-determination theory. Intrinsic motivation, on the one hand, can be subcategorised into three parts: knowledge, accomplishment, and stimulation (Vallerand, 1997). The common feature of the three subcategories is "the pleasurable sensations experienced during the self-initiated and challenging activity" (Noels, Pelletier, Clément, & Vallerand, 2000, p. 61). Extrinsic motivation, on the other hand, can be subcategorised into four parts: external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, and integrated regulation (Vallerand, 1997). The four types of extrinsic motivation are on the self-determination continuum from the lowest level to the highest level (Noels & et al., 2000). In addition to the two general motivations, amotivation was proposed as the third motivation in R. M. Ryan and Deci's (2000b) self-determination theory. Amotivation refers to a state of lacking intentions and actions.

Dörnyei's (2009) L2 motivational self system is the most recent development of motivation in relation to language learning, apart from the above widely acknowledged models of motivation. Dörnyei's (2009) L2 motivational self system is "a convergence of self theory and motivation theory" (p. 10) drawing on Gardner and Lambert's (1979) integrativeness (integrative motivation), R. M. Ryan and Deci's (2000b) self-determination theory and previous empirical research (such as Noels, 2003; Ushioda, 2001). Three components constitute the L2 motivational self system: ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, and L2 learning experience (see Section 2.4.2 for details), as motivation not only comes from

“internally or externally generated self images but rather from successful engagement with the actual language learning process” (Dörnyei, 2009, 29).

In brief, the classifications of motivation have evolved from a dichotomous motivation (instrumental and integrative, intrinsic and extrinsic) to self-mediated motivation system. This evolution is inevitable. Pittaway (2004) argued that the impact of social environments on motivation should not be ignored, as interactions in L2-medium social situations could help learners’ adaptation to the L2-medium community of practice. Xu and Gao (2014) also pointed out that the explanatory power of integrative/instrumental motivation is questionable and insufficient, particularly in the context of globalisation.

4.3.3.3 Instruments for Assessing Self-Perceived Motivation

Numerous self-report scales have been developed to assess learners’ motivation over the past five decades. Gardner’s (1985b) attitude/motivation test battery (AMTB) and Pintrich, Smith, Garcia, and McKeachie’s (1991) motivated strategies for learning questionnaire (MSLQ) are the most widely used among the scales.

The AMTB is a 63-item 7-point Likert scale comprising of eight sub-scales. Four sub-scales assess individuals’ different attitudes, and the other four sub-scales measure individuals’ motivational aspects. The four motivational sub-scales are integrative orientation (4 items), instrumental orientation (4 items), French class anxiety (5 items), and parental encouragement (10 items). Gardner (1985a), however, pointed out that although the AMTB demonstrated a reasonable level of reliability, it lacked discriminant validity.

The MSLQ is an 81-item 7-point Likert scale for self-reporting from 1 (*not at all true of me*) to 7 (*very true of me*). Within the MSLQ, there are six motivation scales and nine learning strategy scales. The six motivation scales measure students’ intrinsic goal orientation (4 items), extrinsic goal orientation (4 items), task value (6 items), control of learning beliefs (4 items), self-efficacy for learning and performance (8 items), and test anxiety (5 items). The internal

consistency reliabilities of the MSLQ for the motivation scales ($\alpha = .78$) and the learning strategy scales ($\alpha = .71$) are adequate (Pintrich et al., 1991). The internal consistency reliability of the MSLQ also has been proven to be satisfactory in various contexts such as Korea, China, Norway, and Germany (Stoffa, Kush, & Heo, 2011).

In addition to the two widely cited motivational questionnaires, other motivation- and learning- related questionnaires include Vallerand et al.'s (1992) academic motivation scale (AMS) and S. Ryan's (2009) motivational factors questionnaire (MFQ).

The AMS, constructed by Vallerand et al., measures learners' intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and amotivation. The AMS is 28-item 7-point Likert scale questionnaire, which has been proven valid and reliable. The three scales contain four items for each with seven points ranging from *not at all* (1) to *exactly* (7).

The MFQ is a comprehensive questionnaire developed by drawing on Dörnyei, Csizér, and Németh's (2006) seven motivational variables and Dörnyei's (2009) L2 motivational self system (see section 2.4.2 for review). The MFQ is a 100-item 6-point Likert scale questionnaire. The 100 items cover a broad spectrum of motivational variables, which include cultural interest (6 items), attitudes towards L2 communities (8 items), instrumentality (10 items), international contact (4 items), interest in foreign languages (5 items), international empathy (3 items), fear of assimilation (4 items), ethnocentrism (5 items), travel orientation (4 items), English anxiety (6 items), attitudes to learning English (6 items), milieu (6 items), parental encouragement (4 items), ideal L2 self (6 items), L2 self-confidence (5 items), WTC (16 items), and intended learning effort (8 items).

Despite the above different questionnaires for assessing learners' self-perceived motivation, most questionnaires are not appropriate for this study. These questionnaires have been developed to measure learners' general learning motivation or specific motivational foci. The AMTB, for example, examines both attitudes and motivations in learners' French learning, the MSLQ focuses on

motivational strategies in learning, and in a similar vein, the AMS focuses on motivation in academic learning.

This study focuses on motivation in CSL language learning, particularly in CSL speaking. Motivation in this study is examined as an integrated variable on its own rather than from a motivational model perspective. Other motivational variables, such as attitudes, anxiety, self-efficacy (self-confidence), and WTC, are examined separately either from an affective or a socio-cultural perspective. The motivation scale, in this study, is adapted from S. Ryan's (2009) and Dörnyei et al.'s (2006) questionnaires.

4.3.3.4 Research on Motivation

Having discussed relevant studies of the L2 motivational self system earlier (see Section 2.4.3), this section presents research pertaining to different types of motivation. Extensive research has been conducted aiming to explore how different motivations mediate language learning and/or how different motivations are influenced by other factors. Informed by Gardner's work, early studies examined motivation within the dichotomous intrinsic/extrinsic or integrative/instrumental framework. X. Wu (2003), for example, carried out a quasi-experimental study to examine the influence of different classroom teaching methods on L2 intrinsic motivation of 72 EFL learners in China aged from 4 to 6. The results suggested that learners' self-perceived L2 competence and autonomy were the antecedents of L2 intrinsic motivation. This lends support to R. M. Ryan and Deci's (2000b) speculation that competence, autonomy, and perceived relatedness may enhance or undermine intrinsic motivation. A key concern of this study is the reliability of the survey data collected from such young participants.

Warden and Lin (2000), for instance, collected 442 completed questionnaires from 500 EFL college students in Taiwan in order to investigate the existence of integrative motivation. The findings showed that there was a significant lack of integrative motivation among students in the Taiwan EFL context. To the contrary, the results from Hernández's (2006) study of a 130 L2 Spanish college

students in the USA implied that integrative motivation was a significant predictor of students' L2 scores and intention of future learning. The findings also suggested that classroom activities could enhance learners' integrative motivation, which in turn facilitates L2 success. Gardner (2012) also investigated the consistency of integrative motivation in measuring and predicting EFL learners' achievement in a global context. Two age levels of EFL adolescent students in Poland were recruited: one younger level with an average age of 13.41 and one older level with an average age of 15.39. The results revealed that the influence of integrative motivation on L2 English acquisition in such a globalised world might have lost its explanatory power.

In addition to the dichotomous framework of motivation, R. M. Ryan and Deci (2000a, 2000b) not only proposed the subtypes of intrinsic and extrinsic motivations but also suggested a third motivation orientation: amotivation. Following the call for more research into different cultural contexts for assessing the applicability of motivation framework (Noels et al., 2000), Shaikholeslami and Khayyer (2006) examined the relationships of intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation and amotivation in an Iranian L2 English learning context. A total of 230 Iranian EFL college students participated in the study. It was found that amotivation was a predictor for students' learning achievement scores. It was also suggested that intrinsic and extrinsic motivations could partially explain students' different achievements. Introjected regulation (a subtype of extrinsic motivation), knowledge and stimulation (subtypes of intrinsic motivation), in particular, could predict achievement, whereas accomplishment (a subtype of intrinsic motivation), external regulation, and identified regulation (subtypes of extrinsic motivation) could not (Shaikholeslami & Khayyer, 2006).

With the acknowledgement of the role of identity and culture in L2 learning, current motivation research focuses on the impacts of different selves and learning experience on language learning. For instance, Huang, Hsu and Chen (2015), based on Dörnyei's (2005) L2 motivational self system, investigated the predictive effects of future L2 self-images and social identities on learners' L2 learning behaviours among a sample of 1132 college students in Taiwan. The results indicated that culture and society mediated the formation of learners'

possible L2 self-identities, which in turn led to their self-regulated learning behaviours.

4.3.3.5 Summing up

Motivation has been examined broadly over the last five decades. Various motivational dimensions or frameworks have been proposed and investigated in the field of language learning. Studies have examined motivation either from a macro or a micro perspective. Macromotivational research targets at “more stable and generalisable motives that stemmed from a succession of the student’s past experiences in the social world” (Dörnyei et al., 2006, p. xi), such as integrativeness, instrumentality, intrinsic motivation, and extrinsic motivation. Micromotivational research focuses on “situation-specific motives rooted in the L2 learners’ immediate learning environment (e.g., attitudes towards the L2 teachers; the appraisal of the syllabus and the teaching methods; or peer influences)” (Dörnyei et al., 2006, p. xi).

This study examines motivation from a macromotivational perspective rather than a situation-specific microperspective or a multidimensional model. The stable and generalisable motives, such as integrativeness and instrumentality, are integrated as a single macromotivation in order to holistically examine the influences of motivation as a stable and generalisable factor on CSL learners’ speech competence and speech performance. Other motivational dimensions or factors, such as anxiety, self-efficacy (self-confidence), and WTC, are separately examined as well (see Sections 4.3.1, 4.3.2, & 4.3.4 for details).

4.3.4 WTC

Willingness to communicate (WTC), as a personality construct originating from L1 studies, has been extensively studied in L2 contexts based on the premise that WTC could enhance learners’ L2 communicative competence (see Section 2.3 for a theoretical review of the L2 WTC model). This study looks into the impacts of WTC on CSL learners’ speech competence and speech performance. In the following sections, WTC, as an affective factor, is first defined, followed by an

introduction to the nature of WTC. WTC instruments are subsequently introduced and critiqued. Research pertaining to WTC is then briefly reviewed.

4.3.4.1 Definitions of WTC

The concept of WTC was first introduced in L1 studies (McCroskey & Baer, 1985; McCroskey & Richmond, 1987) drawing on Burgoon's (1976) work on unwillingness to communicate, which refers to "a chronic tendency to avoid and/or devalue oral communication" (p. 60). McCroskey and Richmond (1987) conceptualised WTC as individuals' general attitudes towards initiating and sustaining communication with other people. MacIntyre et al. (1998) adapted the concept of WTC for an L2 context, defining it as learners' "readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with specific person or persons, using a[n] L2" (p. 547).

Kang (2005) refers to L2 WTC as "an individual's volitional inclination towards actively engaging in the act of communication in a specific situation, which can vary according to interlocutor(s), topic and conversational context, among other potential situation variables" (p. 291). In a similar way, MacIntyre (2007) considered an individual's tendency to participate in communication as a volitional process requiring "the coordination of a set of driving and restraining forces that may operate with or without the speaker's explicit awareness" (p. 573).

Regardless of unwillingness or willingness to communicate, communication, for all languages including CSL speaking, is generally an individual's volitional act subjecting to the influence of cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural factors,.

4.3.4.2 Nature of WTC

McCroskey and Richmond's (1987) WTC construct evolved from the concepts of unwillingness to communicate, predispositions toward verbal behaviour, and shyness (Zarrinabadi & Tanbakooei, 2016). They regarded WTC as an enduring personality-based trait-like predisposition that normally does not change across contexts and interlocutors (Zarrinabadi, 2014). The trait-like perspective of WTC,

however, has been challenged by the situational perspective which argues that WTC could be subject to situational factors such as conversational topics and situations (MacIntyre et al., 1998).

According to MacIntyre et al.'s (1998) pyramid model of L2 WTC, learners' final decision to participate in or refrain from L2 communication is the outcome of the interaction of a number of cognitive, affective, situational, instructional and cultural factors (see Section 2.3). The strength of this multidimensional L2 WTC model "lies in the conceptualization of L2 WTC as a situational variable and incorporating both trait and situational predictors of WTC into this model" (Cao, 2013, p. 160; see also Subtirelu, 2014).

Khatib and Nourzadeth (2015) pointed out that the disparity between McCroskey et al.'s (1987) and McIntyre et al.'s (1998) conceptualisations of WTC is because "the two conceptualisations have been proposed to explain two phenomena" (p. 269). The former has been proposed to explain WTC in the generic L1 use context where WTC is a product of individuals' developmental growth. The latter has been conceptualised to manifest the functions of WTC in the L2 context where WTC together with a wide range of other factors influence learners' L2 acquisition.

In addition to the trait-like and situational nature of WTC, the dynamic nature of WTC has been revealed in Kang's (2005) qualitative study of the trajectory of situational L2 WTC during a conversation situation. Kang argued that "situational WTC can dynamically emerge through the role of situational variables and fluctuate during communication" (p. 291). The dynamic nature of L2 WTC also has been supported in other studies, such as Cao (2014) and Pawlak and Mystkowska-Wiertelak (2015).

4.3.4.3 Instruments for Assessing Self-Perceived WTC

This section introduces the instruments for measuring self-perceived WTC in a chronological order, including McCroskey and Baer's (1985) L1 WTC, MacIntyre, Baker, Clément and Conrod's (2001) inside and outside the classroom

WTC, Weaver's (2005) spoken and written WTC, and Baghaei's (2013) WTC in a foreign language scale (WTC-FLS).

McCroskey and Baer's (1985) L1 WTC scale is a 20-item probability-estimate survey. Participants are required to indicate to what extent they would like to communicate from a range of 0 (never) to 100 (always). L1 WTC is measured in four communication situations (public speaking, meeting, dyads, and small group) and with three types of interlocutors (strangers, acquaintances, and friends). This WTC scale has been proven to be satisfactorily reliable and valid (McCroskey, 1992). Nevertheless, McCroskey and Baer's (1985) WTC survey is mainly developed to measure the consistent and stable nature of L1 WTC across different communication situations and interlocutors. In other words, this survey may not be able to capture the dynamic and situational nature of L2 WTC.

MacIntyre et al.'s (2001) L2 WTC questionnaire contains two independent inventories designed to measure L2 English learners' L2 WTC inside and outside the classroom. Both inventories contain 27 items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (almost never willing) to 5 (almost always willing). The two inventories both measure L2 learners' WTC in four skills (speaking, comprehension, reading, and writing). MacIntyre et al.'s (2001) L2 WTC questionnaire has been proven with high reliability. Despite the fact that the L2 WTC questionnaire is tailored for measuring learners' communicative willingness in the L2 English context, the focus of this questionnaire is not on measuring L2 communicative speaking but all four language skills.

Weaver's (2005) L2 WTC questionnaire is a 34-item 4-point scale questionnaire developed for measuring L2 English learners' communicative willingness inside their language class. Seventeen are designed for measuring spoken WTC and 17 for written WTC. The questionnaire was subjected to Rasch measurement (a psychometric method for analysing categorical data) to check its psychometric properties. However, many items of Weaver's L2 WTC questionnaire do not specify interlocutors (Peng, 2013), which "makes the social situation of L2 use rather unclear" (Khatib & Nourzadeh, 2015, p. 269).

Baghaei's (2013) WTC in a foreign language scale (WTC-FLS) is a 22-item questionnaire with a dichotomous agree/disagree scale indicating the frequency of learners' engagement (level of WTC) under three communicative situations. The three subscales of WTC-FLS include WTC with native speakers (7 items), WTC with non-native speakers (7 items), and WTC with classmates/instructors in class (8 items). The WTC-FLS was validated through Rasch modelling (a statistical measurement for evaluating the psychometric properties). One limitation of the WTC-FLS is its dichotomous scale. Such a scale may not be able to accurately measure the magnitude of communicative willingness of learners. This may lead to skewed findings if the WTC-FLS is adopted for measuring learners' WTC.

The WTC scale, in this study, has six items on a 5-point Likert scale measuring CSL learners' communicative willingness in different situations and with different interlocutors. It is adapted from the WTC scale in S. Ryan's (2009) MFQ (see Section 4.3.3) for the CSL learning context.

4.3.4.4 Research on WTC

One main purpose of language learning and teaching is to engender in L2 learners "the willingness to seek out communication opportunities and the willingness actually to communicate in them" (MacIntyre et al., 1998, p. 547). Much research has been conducted to examine the intertwined relationship between L2 WTC and other variables such as perceived communication competence, self-confidence, anxiety, motivation, and personality in different EFL classroom contexts (Peng & Woodrow, 2010). The following section presents studies on L2 WTC in different contexts.

In the Japanese EFL context, researchers such as Yashima (2002) and Yashima, Zenk-Nishide, and Shimizu (2004) indicated that perceived communication competence most strongly related to L2 WTC among university level learners. It was also pointed out that motivational/attitudinal and affective variables related to L2 WTC.

In the Iranian EFL context, Ghonsooly, Khajavy, and Asadpour (2012), for instance, investigated 158 EFL undergraduates (non-English major) to examine the L2 WTC model and its underlying variables. A questionnaire was taken to measure students' L2 English WTC, L2 self-confidence, international posture, personality, and motivation. The results suggested that attitude toward the international community and L2 self-confidence (consisting of anxiety and perceived communication competence) were two predictors of university students' L2 English in Iran. In addition, personality trait (openness to experience) also affected L2 WTC indirectly.

In the Chinese EFL context, Peng and Woodrow (2010) examined the interrelationships between L2 English WTC, communication confidence, motivation, learner beliefs, and classroom environment. Participants, recruited for this large-scale study, were 579 university students. Six adapted scales were taken to measure the above proposed variables. The results supported, alongside with previous studies (Clément et al., 2003; Yashima, 2002; Yashima et al., 2004), that “communication confidence is a primary and universal precursor to L2 WTC regardless of regional diversity” (Peng & Woodrow, 2010, p. 855). In addition, classroom environment was implied to have a direct impact on L2 WTC, communication confidence, and learner beliefs.

Regardless of the interest in L2 WTC in the EFL context, little attention has been paid to L2 WTC in the CSL context until recent years. Z. Wu and Wen (2009), for example, examined the impacts of socio-psychological factors on 142 Japanese students' frequency of CSL use at two Chinese universities. An adapted questionnaire was used to measure CSL learners' learning motivation, communicative anxiety, cross-cultural adaptability, L2 Chinese WTC, and L2 Chinese use frequency. The results suggested that L2 Chinese WTC was a critical factor in promoting students' frequency of L2 Chinese use. In particular, the higher L2 Chinese WTC, the higher frequency of L2 Chinese use. The findings also revealed that CSL learners' WTC in L2 reading was stronger than their WTC in L2 speaking and writing. Moreover, factors such as learning motivation, communicative apprehension, and cross-cultural adaptation had direct effects on Japanese students' L2 Chinese WTC.

In addition to the above country-specific research, L2 WTC has been particularly investigated in terms of its relationships with self-related factors such as self-confidence (self-efficacy), motivation, and international posture.

The first line of WTC research is with respects to the relationship between L2 WTC and self-confidence. Researchers found quite similar results regarding the relationship. Yashima (2002), for example, explored the WTC in the Japanese EFL context with 297 Japanese university students through a questionnaire. The findings revealed that self-confidence in L2 communication (speaking self-efficacy) contributes to L2 WTC.

Baker and MacIntyre (2003) carried out a study to examine the differences in nonlinguistic outcomes (such as WTC, perceived competence, frequency of communication, and communication apprehension) between immersion and nonimmersion learners. A total of 71 immersion and 124 nonimmersion L2 French learners from Grades 10, 11, and 12 took part in this questionnaire-based study. The findings showed that learners with lower perceived competence would be less likely to communicate willingly. The findings are in line with those of Yashima (2002).

De Saint Léger and Storch (2009) used questionnaires as the main data source, together with interviews, in an attempt to see the factors contributing to learners' L2 WTC. Thirty-two students participated in questionnaires and 12 in interviews. They were L2 French learners with high proficiency. The results indicated that the increase of self-confidence could reinforce learners' willingness to use L2 French in class. However, learners' WTC may be subject to their affiliation motives (same as the desire to communicate with a specific person in MacIntyre et al.'s, 1998, L2 WTC model).

The second line of WTC research is with regard to the relationship between WTC and motivation. Researchers' findings were unanimous concerning the relationship. MacIntyre, et al. (2001), for example, surveyed 79 Grade 9 students of L2 French immersion in Canada. A positive relationship between WTC and orientations (motives) was reported in the study.

Hashimoto (2002) carried out a questionnaire-based study among 56 L2 English undergraduate and graduate students of Japanese at the University of Hawaii. Structural equation modelling was adopted to examine the influence of motivation and WTC on L2 communication frequency in class. The results showed that WTC and perceived competence (self-efficacy) exerted a direct influence on motivation. This in turn increased learners' L2 use frequency in class.

Peng (2007) surveyed 174 university students from an intensive English language programme in China in an attempt to examine the relationship between WTC and integrative motivation. The results indicated that integrative motivation could best predict learners' L2 WTC, while attitude towards the learning situation was not a predictor for L2 WTC.

Yu's (2009) questionnaire-based study with 235 English-major students in China showed that WTC, communication apprehension, and self-perceived communicative competence were significantly correlated with each other. Motivation could indirectly predict WTC through the mediation of communication apprehension (speaking anxiety) and self-perceived communication competence.

The third line of WTC research is in relation to the relationship between WTC and international posture. International posture, as an antecedent of L2 WTC, refers to learners' specific attitudes, such as "interest in foreign or international affairs, willingness to go overseas to stay or work, readiness to interact with intercultural partners" (Yashima, 2002, p. 57)

In Yashima's (2002) questionnaire-based study with a sample of 297 EFL Japanese university students, international posture was found as a direct path to L2 WTC. In other words, attitude towards intercultural communication or international interest could directly influence L2 WTC.

Yashima et al. (2004) extended Yashima's (2002) study, given that the frequency of L2 communication was not included in Yashima's (2002) constructed L2

communication model. A sample of 160 Japanese high school students of English participated in this study through questionnaires. A new L2 communication model was constructed drawing on the questionnaire data. In Yahima et al.'s (2004) model, international posture was also revealed as a direct predictive factor of L2 WTC and communication behaviour.

Despite the fact that a considerable number of studies have investigated the relationships between L2 WTC and various factors in the EFL context and some in the CSL context, not much empirical research has examined the effects of L2 WTC on speech competence and speech performance. The few, relevant studies include X. Zhang and Head's (2010) exploration of L2 English speaking development through tailored activities, Alemi, Daftarifard and Pashmforoosh's (2011) examination of the WTC model, Zhong's (2013) investigation into the effects of learning situations on WTC, and Yousefi and Kasaian's (2014) research into the relationship between WTC and speaking fluency and accuracy.

X. Zhang and Head (2010) reported a case study of 60 non-English major students' development in L2 English speaking over a two-year course. The results implied that engaging students more in activities tailored for overcoming their reticence and strengthening their confidence could improve their speaking performance. In other words, students' L2 speaking progress is positively correlated with L2 WTC, particularly in a context with high quality teaching and opportunities to participate in well-structured speaking tasks.

Alemi et al.'s (2011) study examined MacIntyre et al.'s (1998) WTC model and its interaction with language anxiety and proficiency. Forty-nine engineering L2 English learners took part in this questionnaire-based study in Iran. The results showed that there was no significant relationship between anxiety and WTC, while the relationship between proficiency and WTC was mixed. Learners with lower language proficiency are more willing to communicate outside the classroom, whereas those with higher language proficiency are more willing to communicate inside the classroom.

In Yousefi and Kasaian's (2014) study, 60 upper-intermediate English-major college students in Iran were selected in order to examine the relationship between WTC and speaking performance. Tests such as the Oxford placement test, the WTC test, and a fluency and accuracy test, were employed for different purposes of measurement. A significant positive relationship between WTC and speaking fluency and accuracy of learners was found.

Zhong (2013) reported her investigation into five Chinese immigrant learners in New Zealand through a naturalistic inquiry with respect to learners' L2 WTC and oral communication in both teacher-led and collaborative learning situations in L2 English classroom contexts. The findings evidenced that collaborative learning situations (pair/group work) helped learners engage more in oral communication. It was proposed that behavioural beliefs, normative beliefs, and control/self-efficacy beliefs jointly influenced learners' L2 WTC, which in turn determined their actual oral communication. In brief, it can be inferred from both studies that well-designed class activities are of great importance in promoting learners' L2 WTC.

4.3.4.5 Summing up

Drawing on MacIntyre et al.'s (1998) L2 WTC model, a substantial body of research has been conducted to investigate L2 WTC from different perspectives, such as the nature of WTC, instruments for measuring WTC, and influential factors related to WTC. Despite a barrage of WTC investigations in L2 English contexts, there is a dearth of evidence from the context of CSL in supporting the importance of L2 WTC in language learning and production. For example, what is CSL learners' WTC like? Does CSL learners' WTC contribute to their development of speech competence and speech performance development? If it does, how does WTC work in the CSL context?

This study, therefore, factors in L2 WTC in examining its impact on CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance. It seeks to reveal how WTC as an affective variable accounts for the discrepancy between CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance. WTC, in this study, is examined as a

general factor without distinguishing it from inside or outside the classroom contexts. Instead, WTC is measured holistically by adapting S. Ryan's (2009) WTC items to the CSL context.

4.4 Socio-Cultural Perspectives on L2 Learning and Speaking

Humans are social beings with specific cultural backgrounds. The society and culture in which a person is brought up can influence his/her cognitive development. Such socio-cultural distinctive cognition, in turn, may guide a person's behaviour. In addition, language and culture are also inextricably bound together, as "language reflects the culture of the society it is spoken in" (Salzmann, Adachi, & Stanlaw, 2015, p. 309). Therefore, learning a second language implies some degree of learning a second culture, which results in a new identity formation or acculturation.

Society, simply speaking, refers to "the totality of human relationships" (Jary & Jary, 2000, p. 581). It stands for a group of people who share "a relatively bounded territory" and collective culture (p. 581). In sociology, society is defined as "a system of social interaction that includes both culture and social organization" (Andersen & Taylor, 2006, p. 112). A society should involve the following components: culture, groups, social interactions, and social institutions. The four components of society "shape what people do and think" (p. 2). In brief, a society is a bounded unit in which social interactions take place among people who share a collective culture.

Culture has been defined in a number of ways. Linton (1968), for example, stated that culture as "a configuration of learned behaviors and results of behavior" (p. 32) is commonly shared and transmittable among the members of a particular society. Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1952) defined culture as patterns "of and for behavior" (p. 181), which can be acquired and transmitted. A person's cultural system is not only the products of action, but it will also regulate one's future action. Damen (1987) pointed out that culture is human beings' collective daily living patterns or models which can be learned, shared and adapted. Lederach (1995) claimed "culture is the shared knowledge and schemes created by a set of

people for perceiving, interpreting, expressing, and responding to the social realities around them” (p. 9). Alternatively, culture can be defined as a collection of shared patterns of social behaviours, cognitive constructs, and affective understanding that distinguish one culture group from another, which can be learned through a process of socialisation.

This study, however, does not seek to investigate how society and culture influence learners’ L2 identity formation and socialisation. Instead, this study attempts to examine the effects of Chinese socio-cultural context on CSL learners’ speech competence and speech performance, as the effect of attitudinal variables on learners is more consistent across time and space (Bartram, 2010). The contribution of socio-cultural context, in this study, is measured through socio-cultural relevant attitudes, particularly L2 cultural interest, attitudes towards L2 communities, and attitudes towards L2 classes.

In the following sections, attitude is first defined. Constructs and measures of attitude are then introduced and critiqued. Research pertaining to socio-cultural attitudes is briefly reviewed at the end.

4.4.1 Definitions of Attitude

Attitude, according to C. G. Jung (1971), is a “readiness of the psyche to act or react in a certain way” (p. 687). Gardner (1985b) referred to attitude as “an evaluative reaction to some referent or attitude object, inferred on the basis of the individual’s beliefs or opinions about the referent” (p. 9). Eagly and Chaiken (1998) defined attitude as “a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour” (p. 269). In other words, attitude in the psychological realm refers to a person’s psychological reaction or evaluation towards anything in his/her environment. Similarly yet slightly differently, Ajzen (2005) interpreted attitude from a social-psychological perspective, pointing out that attitude is “the individual’s positive or negative evaluation of performing the particular behaviour of interest” (p. 118).

Of the many different definitions of attitude, Allport's (1954) definition is most comprehensive. Allport depicted attitude as "a mental and neural state of readiness, organised through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response towards all subjects and situations with which it is related" (p. 45). CSL learners' socio-cultural attitude, in a similar vein, refers to a stable state of tendency, contextualised in society and culture, guiding learners' socio-cultural preferences.

4.4.2 Constructs and Measures of Attitude

The attitudinal construct is intricate and multidimensional due to the interconnections and overlaps between the multiplicity of factors, including the political, historical, economic, and linguistic realities (Bartram, 2010). It may not be possible to distinguish one factor from another. Nevertheless, attitudes in language learning can be generally categorised as follows.

According to Gardner and Lambert (1972), there were three categories of language learning attitudes: attitudes towards the target language community, attitudes towards learning a particular L2, and attitudes towards language learning in general. Gardner (1985b) later pointed out that attitude variables could be classified into two broad categories: social and educational attitudes. Social attitudes focus on the social and cultural aspects of L2 learning, such as attitudes towards the target-language people, social groups, and culture. Educational attitudes, on the other hand, involve attitudes towards teachers, courses, and learning environments.

Although it is impossible to quantify the influences that social components (such as university, local community, and country) and cultural components (such as songs, customs, and history) exert on learners' language learning, an important means of evaluation is through measuring learners' attitude towards society and culture (Bartram, 2010).

Gardner (1985b), for example, developed the attitude/motivation test battery (AMTB) to measure learners' attitudinal and motivational tendency. In the

attitudinal part of AMTB, there are four attitudinal scales including attitudes toward French Canadians, interest in foreign language, attitudes toward European French people, and attitudes toward learning French. Each attitudinal scale contains 10 items and is measured in a 7-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

Gardner, Lalonde, and Moorcroft (1985) investigated the validity of an adapted AMTB with a sample of 170 college students from an introductory psychology course. Attitudes toward the learning situation (attitudinal variable) and instrumentality (motivational variable) were deleted due to the low reliability and validity of the measures. Three attitudinal scales were retained in the adapted AMTB, including attitudes toward French Canadians, interest in foreign language, and attitudes toward learning French.

A key concern of the AMTB is its applicability in other L2 contexts, as AMTB is particularly developed for measuring L2 French learners' attitudinal and motivational dimensions.

In addition to the AMTB developed for L2 French learners, Pierson, Fu and Lee (1980) constructed the direct attitudes questionnaire (DAQ) for predicting L2 English attainment. The DAQ is a 23-item 5-point Likert scale questionnaire ranging from 1 (absolutely agree) to 5 (absolutely disagree). Factor analysis over the 466 Hong Kong secondary students' responses to the direct attitude questions extracted 11 factors. The factors are positive orientation towards English, desire to converse with Westerners, discomfort about Chinese speakers using English, approbation for using English, freedom of language choice, English as detracting from cultural identity, self-confidence in using English, English as mark of education, desire to learn English, lack of self-confidence in using English, and mother tongue favoured over English.

One major concern regarding the DAQ is that the extracted factors contain only one to two items, much fewer than the minimum requirement of three or four items per factor (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010).

The attitudinal scales, in this study, include L2 cultural interest (5 items), attitudes towards L2 communities (6 items), and attitudes towards L2 classes (4 items). They are 5-point Likert scales measuring CSL learners' socio-cultural attitudes pertaining to L2 Chinese learning. The socio-cultural attitudinal scales are adapted from the attitudinal scales in S. Ryan's (2009) MFQ (see Section 4.3.3) including cultural interest, attitudes towards L2 community, and attitudes to learning English.

4.4.3 Research on Social and Cultural Attitudes

Researchers have scrutinised language attitudes from a wide range of disciplinary perspectives, such as linguistics, sociology, communication studies, and social psychology (Speelman, Spruyt, Impe, & Geeraerts, 2013). Given the aim of this study is to investigate CSL learners' discrepant/unbalanced development between speech competence and speech performance from cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural perspectives, a particular line of research pertaining to the relationship between socio-cultural attitudes and language learning is presented in this section.

Oller, Hudson and Liu (1977), for example, carried out a study among 44 ESL university students of Chinese in the USA in order to examine the relations between learners' attitudes and attained ESL proficiency. A questionnaire and a cloze test were used for data collection. The findings showed that attitudinal factors such as attitudes toward self, the native language group, and target language group were positively correlated with the attainment of ESL proficiency.

Karahan (2007) examined the relationship between attitudes towards the English language and its use in Turkey. A sample of 190 primary school students of the eighth grade took part in this questionnaire-based study. The results revealed that Turkish students held mildly positive attitudes towards English, especially in terms of culture. However, the positive attitudes did not mean that learners held a high level of orientation towards learning English.

M. Liu and Zhao (2011) investigated EFL university students' attitudes towards English and Chinese in relation to their motivation and ethnic identity in the

Chinese context. A 22-item language attitudes questionnaire and four open-ended questions were used to elicit 302 and 112 university students' opinions, respectively. The findings suggested that Chinese university EFL students held positive attitudes towards English, English-speaking natives, and its culture, which served as motives for EFL college students to learn the language.

4.4.4 Summing up

Attitude and motivation are inextricably related and occasionally interchangeable with each other (Bartram, 2010). Socio-cultural attitudinal variables, such as cultural interest, and attitude towards L2 speakers, are often treated as motivational variables in a broad motivational construct (see S. Ryan, 2009). This study draws a distinction between attitude and motivation, given the different foci of the two concepts. Attitude focuses on individuals' preference while motivation focuses on individuals' effort and desire.

The importance of society lies in its function of socialisation, through which culture can be absorbed by people (Andersen & Taylor, 2006). Absorption of culture in turn facilitates people's social adaptation. In a similar vein, the social and cultural adaptation in a process of foreign language learning may contribute to learners' L2 development. There are many socialisation agencies where patterns of behaviour can be established and persist over time, such as the family, the media, peers, religion, sports, and schools (Andersen & Taylor, 2006). As the present study explores CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance in CSL classroom contexts, learners' socialisation agencies may be limited to schools and living communities. Learners' L2 cultural interest, attitudes towards L2 communities, and attitudes towards L2 classes, therefore, are mainly measured in this study.

4.5 Chapter Summary

There are two main categories of factors that contribute to the manifestation and development of L2 learning and L2 performance, including linguistic factors and non-linguistic factors (House et al., 2012). Linguistic factors are the linguistic

items, patterns, constructions, and rules that indicate the development of performance in language use. Non-linguistic factors include learner variables (such as personality factors, socio-affective factors, and cognitive factors), types of pedagogical interventions (such as different instruction or feedback styles) and other contextual factors (such as characteristics of the input).

The present study examines CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance mainly through non-linguistic factors, given the limited influence of linguistic factors on CSL learners with a relatively high level of speaking proficiency. Furthermore, the focus of the present study is to explore what factors influence CSL learners' speech production rather than how their speaking develops. Therefore, learner variables such as anxiety, motivation, speaking self-efficacy and socio-cultural attitudes are the main non-linguistic factors to be examined rather than those contributing to learners' speech development such as pedagogical interventions and other contextual factors.

This chapter has comprehensively and critically reviewed the studies in relation to L2 learning and speaking from cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural perspectives, with particular attention given to the proposed non-linguistic factors in the present study. It not only serves as a navigation map providing readers with a synthesised literature, but more importantly it justifies how cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural factors could be examined in the present study. The main points of this chapter can be bullet-pointed as follows:

1. L2 speech planning can maximise learners' speech competence in speech performance. Pre-task preparation time length and within-task performance evaluation will be taken to examine the effects of L2 speech planning on speaking.
2. The PLSPQ will be adapted for the CSL context to examine the influence of different learning styles on CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance.
3. A speaking strategies questionnaire in this study will be developed by drawing on A. D. Cohen and Chi's (2006) and Nakatani's (2006)

questionnaires. As a result, CSL learners' speaking strategies could be captured for examining the effects of speaking strategies on L2 speaking.

4. Anxiety, particularly speaking anxiety, will be examined in the CSL context in order to enrich the literature in terms of the effects of anxiety on L2 speaking from the CSL perspective.
5. Speaking self-efficacy, as an under-researched factor, will be factored in the present study in the hope of shedding light on the impacts of speaking self-efficacy on learners' speech competence and speech performance.
6. Motivation will be measured holistically as a single macrofactor rather than multi-dimensionally as multiple microfactors. As a result, the influences of motivation as a stable and generalisable factor on CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance can be examined.
7. Willingness to communicate is measured holistically by adapting S. Ryan's (2009) WTC items to the CSL context in order to examine the relationship between WTC and CSL speaking.
8. The contribution of socio-cultural attitudes on CSL speech competence and speech performance will be examined through L2 cultural interest, attitudes towards L2 communities, and attitudes towards L2 classes.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

5.1 Chapter Overview

The main purpose of this chapter is to justify the methodology adopted in this study. A detailed description of the present study is presented to address the research questions, which include proposing the research aims, rationalising research design and instruments selection, piloting and validating the instruments, presenting the procedures for quantitative and qualitative data collections, and introducing the data analysis procedures. This chapter closes with a discussion of the ethical consideration of the study.

5.2 Research Aims

This mixed methods study has three aims on the basis of the five proposed research questions presented in Chapter 1 (see Section 1.3). The first aim is to investigate the relationship between CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance. In particular, whether discrepancies between speech competence and speech performance existing among CSL learners could be discovered. The second aim of the study is to identify what factors may contribute to CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance. Particularly, it will address the question of whether the discrepancies between speech competence and speech performance are due to cognitive, affective, or socio-cultural factors. The third aim is to examine whether there are any differences between the intermediate level and the advanced level CSL learners in terms of speech competence and speech performance in order to discover predictive factors for the differences. In brief, this study is conducted in the hope of enriching our understanding of L2 speech from CSL learners' perspectives through examining their speech competence and speech performance from cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural aspects in light of the three research aims.

5.2 Research Design

Mixed methods research combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, or approaches “for the purpose of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration” (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turner, 2007, p. 123). It is designed “to draw on the strengths and minimise the weaknesses of both types of research” (Connelly, 2009, p. 31). Although the great merit of quantitative methods is their preciseness, reliability, and generalisability (Dörnyei, 2001), “the downside of quantitative methods is that they average out responses across the whole sample or subsample, and by working with concepts of averages it is impossible to do justice to the subjective variety of an individual life” (p. 193). Qualitative methods, in contrast, can provide a trustworthy personalised description of individuals’ experience. Qualitative methods in research, however, can be expensive for data collection, time-consuming for data analysis, and difficult for generalisation of findings.

This study follows a mixed methods design for mitigating the limitations of both quantitative and qualitative research. As Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2004) pointed out mixed methods research involves combining quantitative and qualitative approaches within the same inquiry, “investigators using this paradigm are able to probe further into a dataset to understand its meaning and to use one method to verify findings stemming from the other method” (p. 771). In other words, the advantage of a mixed methods approach lies in the fact that the strengths of both quantitative and qualitative research approaches can be combined to investigate the same phenomenon under consideration (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Sammons, 2010). As a result, transferability, generalisability, and practical significance of any research can be achieved and enhanced through a mixed methods design.

There are six major types of mixed methods design: convergent design, explanatory design, exploratory design, embedded design, transformative design, and multiphase design (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). This study adopts the convergent mixed methods design, given that the purpose of this study is to synthesise complementary quantitative and qualitative data to develop a more

comprehensive and systematic understanding of the ways in which intermediate and advanced CSL learners differ in terms of their speech competence and speech performance from cognitive, affective and socio-cultural aspects concurrently without prioritising any investigatory angles. For example, questionnaires, on the one hand, can provide a breadth of understanding of learners' cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural status quo. Interviews, on the other hand, can provide a depth of understanding of the phenomena disclosed in questionnaires. Therefore, a mixed methods design could be the best choice compared with any pure quantitative or qualitative design. Although mixed methods research per se has been questioned under the rationale that more may not necessarily mean better, and novice researchers may find hard to execute it well (Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2011), mixed methods research is viable with rigorous planning (Dörnyei, 2007).

Table 5.1 provides a visual model of the sequential investigative procedure of this study. The research design contains two stages. Stage 1 is a period of instruments piloting and validation. It is conducted to obtain valid and reliable instruments for the present study. Stage 2 is an interweaving period of quantitative and qualitative data collection in order to interpret L2 Chinese learners' speech competence and speech performance from a comprehensive and concurrent perspectives.

5.3 Research Instruments Rationale

Three types of instruments were adopted in this mixed methods research: questionnaires and tests for quantitative data collection, and interviews for qualitative data collection.

5.3.1 Quantitative Data Collection Instruments

Questionnaires, as Wilson and McClean (1994) suggested, have been widely adopted for collecting participants' self-report perceptions on relevant issues on a large-scale, so that problems can be brought into focus and points worth exploring can be revealed (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Questionnaires are useful instruments for "being able to be administered without the presence of the researcher, and often being comparatively straightforward to analyse" (L. Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007, p. 317). Moreover, questionnaires are easy to construct in a systematic manner to find answers to questions (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010). Although advanced questionnaire analysis requires researchers to have sophisticated quantitative analytical skills, these can be accomplished through proper training and consultation.

Tests are also used in this study to evaluate CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance in a more accurate and scientific way than self-assessment/self-report. Although self-assessment/self-report is usually less-time consuming to complete and much easier for interpretation (Gertken, Amengual, & Birdsong, 2014), the reliability and validity may suffer from participants' subjectivity (Young, 2005). For example, self-reported answers may be exaggerated or undermined depending on how individuals are feeling at the time of self-assessment/self-report.

Although questionnaires and tests have been extensively used for quantitative data collection, they are not without problems at all. Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010) pointed out that the data collected by questionnaires are not always reliable and valid due to unreliable and unmotivated respondents, respondent literacy problems, and social desirability bias. Tests, on the other hand, may put

participants under stress and discomfort, which could result in skewed outcomes of participants' real ability.

5.3.2 Qualitative Data Collection Instruments

Interviews, therefore, are adopted in addition to the above quantitative data collection instruments so that qualitative data could be gathered for complementary and in-depth analysis. There were two types of interviews employed for qualitative data collection, namely, focus groups and semi-structured interviews.

The focus group interview as a way of qualitative data collection has been used in many different types of research environment. The essence of the focus group is “to promote self-disclosure among participants” who share similarities in a way that is important to researchers so that participants' genuine opinions and thoughts can be collected (Krueger & Casey, 2009, p. 4). Compared with individual interviews, focus groups provide a more natural environment for participants (Krueger & Casey, 2009). In other words, the qualitative data collected via focus groups will be more authentic and believable. However, there have been many criticisms towards focus groups as well. For example, participants of focus groups may make up answers; focus groups may produce trivial results, and dominant individuals can influence the group interaction (Gibbs, 2012; Krueger & Casey, 2009).

Despite the limitations of focus groups, their strengths should not be ignored. Focus groups have the benefit of discovering, synthesising and validating collective concepts and perspectives (Gibbs, 2012). In addition, focus groups can benefit participants as well. Participants may enjoy discussing a topic with others who share the same concerns, even with sensitive topics; they may also enjoy debate in a group dynamic way (Gibbs, 2012). Consequently, participants may become more willing to share their opinions. Lastly, focus groups help researchers to collect information on “why an issue is salient, as well how it may be salient or in what ways it may be salient — all at the same time” (Gibbs, 2012, p. 187).

The (individual) interview is a flexible tool for data collection, enabling participants to express their personal points of view according to their life experience. Interviews are not ordinary daily conversations but question-based situations with specific purposes (L. Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011). In applied linguistics, interviews are often taken as a method in qualitative research to explore language related problems through collecting beliefs, opinions, attitudes, and feelings from language instructors and language learners.

Interviews can be categorised into standardised interviews, in-depth interviews, ethnographic interviews, structured interviews, semi-structured interviews, and group interviews (LeCompte & Preissle, 1993; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Oppenheim, 1992). In applied linguistics research there are three types of interviews in general, including structured interviews, semi-structured interviews, and unstructured interviews (Ho, 2012). Among the three, the semi-structured interview is the most diverse and common type (Ho, 2012). Not only can semi-structured interviews obtain specific information from respondents in a relatively non-rigid routine, but also they are relatively open for improvisation on topics to be explored.

5.4 Instruments Piloting and Validation

Pilot studies are used to test the practicality, reliability, and validity of instruments before launching large-scale studies (Turner, 2005; Welman & Kruger, 2001). A pilot study enables detection of possible flaws not only in the design of data collection instruments but also in the research procedures (both administration and analysis) prior to the implementation of a large-scale study. It can also help gauge whether any of the designed data collection instruments cause any embarrassment or discomfort for the participants, such as the wording and content of the questionnaire. Therefore, the piloting and validation of instruments before large-scale data collection is an important phase in any study.

The piloting and validation of instruments stage was conducted with CSL learners from three universities in Beijing, China during December 2013 after receiving ethics approval from the ethics committee of the University of Auckland.

Convenience/purposive sampling method was adopted to build up a satisfactory sample for instrument piloting and validation, given the difficulty of random/probability sampling (L. Cohen et al., 2011; Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006). Even though the advantage of the probability sample is to make generalisations based on “a complete list of the population” or at least a wider population, it is, in fact, “not always readily available” (L. Cohen et al., 2007, p. 111). Considering the accessibility and particularity of the participants, non-probability sampling methods were adopted for recruiting participants throughout the whole study, convenience sampling and purposive sampling in particular.

Permissions to recruit participants for joining this stage were sought from the three universities offering CSL majors. The CSL learners were tertiary undergraduate and postgraduate students pursuing either Chinese or Chinese-related majors (such as bachelor’s in Chinese, the master’s in teaching Chinese to speakers of other languages, and the PhD programme in Chinese applied linguistics). The average age of the participants was 22.27 ranging from 17 to 36 years old.

The primary goal of this stage was to pilot and validate the instruments, which include the perceptual learning style preference questionnaire (PLSPQ), the speaking strategy questionnaire (SSQ), the affect and socio-cultural attitude questionnaire (ASAQ), the background information questionnaire, the Chinese speech competence test (CSCP), and the Chinese speech performance test (CSCT). The wording of the above instruments was also checked in order to ensure that it was clear and was able to elicit the information needed. Table 5.2 is a brief summary of the data collection procedure for instruments piloting and validation. Given the focus of the study is not about instruments piloting and validation, only the details that influenced the design of the final instruments for data collection and their implementation will be discussed from the piloting project.

Table 5.2

Instruments Piloting and Validation Procedure

Instruments	Time	Participants (Valid)	Outcome
Questionnaires	1 st -10 th December	224 CSL majors	Questionnaire validity & reliability
Chinese speech competence test	1 st -10 th December	8 intermediate & 8 advanced CSL majors	Test reliability
Chinese speech performance test	11 th – 20 th December	8 intermediate, 8 advanced CSL majors & 2 raters	Inter-rater reliability
Interviews	11 th – 20 th December	3 intermediate & 3 advanced CSL majors	Reliable interview questions

5.4.1 Questionnaire Piloting and Validation

Before piloting, the questionnaires (Chinese version) were checked by the researcher, one Chinese doctoral student in the Faculty of Education at the University of Auckland, and one non-native Chinese doctoral student in the College of International Education at the Minzu University of China. Where there were discrepancies or misunderstandings, they discussed back and forth until the wording was satisfactory. One suggestion, for instance, was that the phrase ‘native speaker’ might sound too academic. ‘Chinese people’ was, therefore, used to replace it.

After finalising the questionnaires, the researcher then introduced the study from one class to another at the three universities for the sake of recruiting potential participants on the basis of convenient/purposive sampling. Once the introductions were made, the information sheet, the consent form (see Appendix A), and questionnaires (see Appendix B) were distributed to the students. In order to ensure the quality of the participants’ answers and also not to interrupt their class schedule, the participants were invited to finish the questionnaires in their spare time. Meanwhile, they were also asked to critique any wording of the questionnaires. A total of 260 participants took part in piloting the questionnaire by returning their questionnaires to a sealed box placed in their faculty corridor

for questionnaire collection. Of these, 224 were valid and 36 invalid, either because respondents left out many items or did not return their questionnaires.

5.4.1.1 Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire (PLSPQ)

The original version of PLSPQ, developed by Reid in 1984, was a 30-item 5-point Likert scale questionnaire consisting of 6 learning styles (auditory, visual, kinaesthetic, tactile, group, and individual). In the pilot stage, the PLSPQ was adopted with minor changes in wording in order to contextualise it for the CSL learners. For example, item 11 (I learn more when I make a model of something) was modified to 'I learn more when I make a model of something, such as paper cutting and Chinese knot making'. Factor analysis and reliability analysis were carried out for piloting the PLSPQ.

Factor Analysis of the PLSPQ

Although the PLSPQ had long been validated in the context of EFL/ESL, recent studies have revisited this instrument and found that the construct validity of PLSPQ was questionable (see Section 4.2.2 for review). Furthermore, the one used in this study is an adapted PLSPQ for examining learners' learning styles in the CSL context. Factor analysis for validating the PLSPQ was, therefore, necessary.

First, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) by using Amos 23 was performed to test whether the 6-factor structure of the PLSPQ fitted in the CSL context. The initial CFA indicated that the 6-factor model did not fit the data well with the results of $\chi^2/df = 2.112$, CFI = .794, GFI = .796, and RMSEA = .071 SRMR = .0729. The problem was that CFI and GFI were much lower than the .90 threshold. In addition, the factors of auditory and visual ($r = .88$), and kinaesthetic and tactile ($r = .91$) were found to be highly correlated with each other (see Appendix C). This lent support to the critique on the PLSPQ's lacking of construct validity (Wintergerst et al.'s 2001).

Given that the CFA results for the 6-factor model did not demonstrate good model fit, exploratory factor analyses (EFAs) were then performed to discover the latent constructs and dimensions of a relatively large set of variables (P. Kline, 2000). Principal axis factoring (PAF) with Promax rotation (allowing latent factors to be correlated) was used for factor extraction, not only because it is one of the most widely used EFA methods, but also because it could yield more accurate estimates of the population pattern, especially when the factors are relatively weak (de Winter & Dodou, 2012).

With different EFAs attempted, four factors labelled auditory/visual, kinaesthetic/tactile, group, and individual were satisfactorily constructed. The examination of KMO measures and Barlett's test of sphericity ($KMO = .80$, $\chi^2 = 1124.07$, $df = 136$, $p < .001$) indicated that the sample size and correlation matrix were appropriate for the EFA. A total of 16 out of 30 items in the PLSPQ loaded high on the four factors. The 14 items (Q1, Q7, Q9, Q10, Q11, Q13, Q16, Q18, Q19, Q20, Q22, Q25, Q26, Q29) were deleted either because of strong cross loadings or low loadings. (see Appendix D for the factor loadings for the PLSPQ).

Reliability Analysis of the PLSPQ

Reliability analyses were performed to examine the internal consistency of items for each learning style scale according to Reid's classification. Item-total correlations (scale consistency indicator) and Cronbach's alpha (reliability indicator) indicated that four of the scales (kinaesthetic, tactile, group, and individual) yielded acceptable reliability ranging from .77 to .79). Visual (.60) and auditory (.51) were found to be low according to the .70 threshold value for the internal consistency reliability (DeVellis, 2012). The results of item-total correlation tests showed that most of the items were within acceptable ranges except Q6, Q9, Q17, Q20 and Q29 (lower than .30). An item-correlation value less than .30 indicates that the corresponding item does not correlate very well with the scale overall (Field, 2009). Such items should be dropped. In brief, the results of reliability analyses suggested that Reid's six-factor construct of PLSPQ could not be applicable to this population in the CSL context. This also lent evidence to the unsatisfactory CFA results based on Reid's six-factor PLSPQ

construct. The reliability results based on Reid’s PLSPQ construct can be found in Appendix E.

The internal consistency reliability of the four-factor PLSPQ constructed from EFA in the CSL context was checked by the Cronbach Alpha coefficient as well (see Table 5.3). The results indicated that most Cronbach Alpha coefficients were satisfactory. Although the reliability of Auditory/Visual was slightly lower than the other two, it was still quite close to the .70 threshold value. Moreover, the overall reliability ($\alpha = .76$) of the PLSPQ was over .70. A caution to note is that there is no absolute standard for a reliability coefficient (Lauriola, Lord, Novick, Nunnally, & Bernstein, 2004; McCrae, Kurtz, Yamagata, & Terracciano, 2011). Thus, taking .70 as a cut-off point is preferred but not compulsory (Schmitt, 1996).

Table 5.3

Reliability of the PLSPQ

Reid’s PLSPQ		PLSPQ in the CSL Context ($\alpha = .76$)		
Six Factors	Items	Four Factors	Reliability	Items
Auditory	1, 7, 9, 17, 20	Auditory/visual	.69	10, 12, 17, 24
Visual	6, 10, 12, 24, 29			
Kinaesthetic	2, 8, 15, 19, 26	Kinaesthetic/tactile	.82	2, 8, 14, 15
Tactile	11, 14, 16, 22, 25			
Group	3, 4, 5, 21, 23	Group	.79	3, 4, 5, 21, 23
Individual	13, 18, 27, 28, 30	Individual	.72	27, 28, 30

5.4.1.2 Speaking Strategy Questionnaire (SSQ)

The initial SSQ was a 20-item self-report questionnaire on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from disagree most (1) to agree most (5). The SSILC was designed with reference to A. D. Cohen and Chi’s (2006) speaking strategy use questionnaire from the LSUI, and Natakani’s (2006) OCSI in order to capture learners’ perceived use of speaking strategies in the CSL/CFL context. Given that A. D. Cohen and Chi’s (2006) speaking questionnaire focuses on speaking strategy use while Natakani’s (2006) OCSI concentrates more on strategies for coping with

speaking problems, A. D. Cohen and Chi's speaking strategy use questionnaire was adapted for the initial development of the SSQ (see Section 4.2.3 for more information). Two minor adaptations of A. D. Cohen and Chi's questionnaire were made. First, some wording was altered. For example, 'target language' was replaced with 'Chinese Mandarin'. Second, two items were added to the initial SSILC pool. The two items are: 1) read words out loud periodically for remembering and using them, and 2) read expressions out loud periodically for remembering and using them. The purpose of adding the two items was to reflect the monological nature of L2 speaking strategies that are used for learning the language. Factor analysis and reliability analysis were performed for piloting and validating the SSQ.

Factor Analysis of the SSQ

A principal components analysis with Promax rotations was performed given that no previous research has attempted to construct the L2 Chinese speaking strategy questionnaire based on an adapted questionnaire from the EFL context. Such factor analysis has the advantage of extracting possible components and examining the construct validity of the SSQ, as it allows for inter-correlations among the latent factors (DeVellis, 2012). Initially, principal components analysis extracted six factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0. The EFA was repeated several times with each iteration involving the removal of redundant items. Six items were dropped due to either low loadings or strong cross loadings. The EFA was repeated until all the items in each factor showed relatively high loadings (.4 or above) and no further items could be removed in the analysis. Based on the information from the pattern matrices from the EFAs and the results of the internal consistency reliability, 14 out of the 20 original items in the SSQ loaded high on the three factors, which were also confirmed by a scree plot for the data. The three factors were labelled as expression practice strategy (EPS), native-like and involvement Strategy (NIS), and assistance strategy (AS) based on the content of the items. The three components (factors) accounted for 50.7% of the variance. The KMO (sample adequacy measurement) was .835, which is adequate for carrying out EFA.

Reliability Analysis of the SSQ

The internal consistency reliability of the SSQ in the CSL context was checked by the Cronbach Alpha coefficient. The results indicated that the Cronbach Alpha coefficients of the three factors and the questionnaire as a whole were acceptable. Table 5.4 summarises the Cronbach Alpha coefficients for the SSQ.

Table 5.4

Reliability of the SSQ

Four Speaking Strategy Constructs	Items	Reliability
Factor 1 EPS	1, 2, 3	.70
Factor 2 NIS	5, 6, 8, 9, 10, 11	.76
Factor 3 AS	13, 15, 16, 18, 19	.71
All factors		.83

Note. EPS = expression practice strategy, NIS = native-like and involvement strategy, AS = assistant strategy

5.4.1.3 Affect and Socio-Cultural Attitude Questionnaire (ASAQ)

The original version of ASAQ contained seven constructs with 42 items in them. The seven constructs were speaking self-efficacy, anxiety, motivation, WTC, L2 cultural interest, attitudes towards L2 communities, and attitudes towards L2 classes (see Section 4.3 & 4.4 for more details). All the constructs and items were adapted with reference to S. Ryan's (2009) MFQ and Dörnyei et al.'s (2006) seven motivational variables (see Sections 4.3.3 & 2.4.2 for details). Factor analysis and reliability analysis were adopted to validate the ASAQ.

Factor Analysis of the ASAQ

As the ASAQ was adapted to the CSL context for the first time by drawing on relevant scales from the EFL context, it is necessary to examine its construct validity through EFA. The initial EFA using principal axis factoring and Promax rotation with fixed number of factors supported a seven-factor solution for the ASAQ. Nevertheless, there were two factors (Q1 and Q21) with low loadings.

EFA was, therefore, performed again using the same extraction and rotation after the deletion of the two factors.

The examination of KMO measures and Bartlett's test of sphericity (KMO = .874, $\chi^2 = 5346.09$, $df = 780$, $p < .001$) indicated that the sample size and correlation matrix were appropriate for the analysis. Seven factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0, which accounted for 64.4% of the total variance, were constructed with high loadings: speaking self-efficacy, anxiety, motivation, WTC, L2 cultural interest, attitudes towards L2 communities, and attitudes towards L2 classes (see Appendix G for factor loadings for the ASAQ).

Reliability Analysis of the ASAQ

The internal consistency reliability of ASAQ was measured by the Cronbach Alpha coefficient. The results indicated that the Cronbach Alpha coefficients of the seven factors and the questionnaire as a whole were satisfactory. The Cronbach Alpha coefficients for each factor can be found in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5

The Cronbach Alpha Coefficients for the Seven Factors of ASAQ

Seven ASAQ constructs		Seven Extracted Factors		Cronbach Alpha
Construct	Items	Factor	Items	
Confidence	1, 2, 3, 4	Speaking self- efficacy	2, 3, 4	.82
Anxiety	5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16	Anxiety	5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16	.94
Motivation	17, 18, 19, 20, 21	Motivation	17, 18, 19, 20	.81
WTC	22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27	WTC	22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27	.88
Cultural interest	28, 29, 30, 31, 32	L2 cultural interest	28, 29, 30, 31, 32	.80
Attitudes towards L2 community	33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38	Attitudes towards L2 communities	33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38	.81
Attitudes to learning English	39, 40, 41, 42	Attitudes towards L2 classes	39, 40, 41, 42	.90
All factors				.85

5.4.1.4 Background Information Questionnaire

The background information questionnaire was also piloted in this study in order to check whether there were any unclear instructions and ambiguous wording. The background information questionnaire intended to elicit participants' information such as gender, age, personality, nationality, language proficiency self-assessment, and learning length of Chinese. The only amendment made to the background information questionnaire was to provide more detailed description for each proficiency level for participants to assess themselves against. The original and finalised questionnaires can be found in Appendix B and Appendix H, respectively.

A caution to note is that two central and fundamental personality types were adopted in this study including extroversion and introversion (C. G. Jung, 1971; H. J. Eysenck, 1967). Participants were invited to self-report their personality in the background information questionnaire with reference to the given categories (extroverted, introverted, and uncertain). It is true that collecting personality in a self-reporting way without being systematically measured could be problematic, particularly in terms of its reliability. However, the main purpose of collecting participants' personality is to better understand their background information, which could possibly be used to explain certain phenomena emerged from the qualitative data.

5.4.2 Tests Piloting

The invention of the Chinese speech competence test (CSCT) and the Chinese speech performance test (CSPT) drew on principles of test development including initial test design, pretesting, modification and piloting. The initial versions of the CSCT and the CSPT were designed to a large extent based on Röver's (2005) pragmatic competence test and authentic HSK tests of previous years, respectively. After design, the wording and content of the two adapted tests were checked by two Chinese doctoral students from the Faculty of Education at the University of Auckland. Afterwards, five non-native CSL learners and five native Chinese doctoral students from the Faculty of Education at the University of

Auckland were invited to take the tests so that essential amendments could be made to ensure the authenticity and reliability of the tests. A few minor changes were made according to their suggestions and comments by deleting some similar items, replacing some ambiguous words, and reducing the length of the test.

The amended CSCT and CSPT were then piloted with 16 participants and two raters. They were also invited to provide their comments and suggestions regarding the two tests, particularly on any unclear wording of items and instructions. The 16 participants were tertiary students half with intermediate level CSL proficiency and half with advanced level CSL proficiency (self-perceived). Their age ranged from 18 to 25. Most of the participants had been studying in China for at least two years either majoring in Chinese or Chinese-related majors. The two raters were graduate students from a College of International Education of a university in Beijing, China, who were majoring in Teaching Chinese to Speakers of Other Languages.

5.4.2.1 Chinese Speech Competence Test

The Chinese speech competence test (CSCT) was designed and developed to measure CSL learners' speech competence by assessing their pragmatic and linguistic abilities (see Section 5.5.1 for review). The two aspects, to a large extent, can reflect a person's speech competence (Royce, 2007). The 16 participants completed the CSCT twice within a 10-day interval. The items of the two times' CSCTs were arranged in different sequences in order to minimise the potential effects of individuals' working memory on the test outcomes.

The test-retest reliability of the CSCT was established by checking correlation coefficients. Researchers have pointed out that "test-retest reliability is the most commonly used indicator of survey instrument reliability" (Litwin, 1995, p. 8). In general, r values (correlation coefficients) are considered good if they equal or exceed .70. However, since "test-retest reliability must be documented over shorter periods to decrease the degree of measurement error" (p. 13), respondents may become familiar with the items and simply answer the questionnaire based on their memory. This practice effect may to some extent influence the result of

test-retest reliability. One way to escape the problem of practice effect is to change the order of the response set. This is also a common way to test alternate-form reliability (Litwin, 1995).

A paired-samples *t*-test was conducted to examine the test-retest reliability of the CSCT. The results indicated that the CSCT was a test with high test-retest reliability, as the participants performed consistently in the two CSCTs ($r = .93$, $p = .001$). It was also suggested that there was no significant difference between the means of the two CSCTs, as $t(11) = -.89$; $p = .39$.

5.4.2.2 Chinese Speech Performance Test

The Development of CSPT

The Chinese speech performance test (CSPT) was designed and developed to measure CSL learners' speech performance by assessing their speech accuracy, fluency, coherence, and pronunciation (see Section 5.5.1 for review).

Different from the CSCT's written test format and its standardised answers, the CSPT involves not only students' oral performance and but also raters' assessment of the students' performance. Given possible influences of raters' subjectiveness on the CSPT evaluation, special attention was paid to the validity and reliability of CSPT in its development.

Test validity as a measurement of test quality is one of the most profound features of a good test, as Oller (1979) claims that if there is no validity, there is no test. Harrison (1983) proposes different types of validity: face validity, content validity, criterion-related validity, and construct validity in language testing. Of the above types, face validity, content validity, and criterion-related validity are regarded as the important ones (Farhady, 2012).

The face validity and content validity of the CSPT in this pilot stage were ensured not only through referencing the authentic HSK spoken tests of previous years but also through reviews of two experts in the field of L2 Chinese. In contrast to

subjectivity of face and content validity, criterion-related validity is featured for its objectivity or empirical character. The criterion-related validity was achieved through checking whether participants' CSPT scores could predict and measure their speaking levels. For example, the advanced learners should score high in the CSPT, and vice versa for the less advanced learners. In brief, the development of CSPT in this study followed the three validities in order to develop a valid test.

Test reliability is usually equated to the score consistency (AERA, APA, & NCME, 1999; J. D. Brown & Hudson, 2002; Henning, 1987). If a test is reliable, the scores from it will remain largely the same if the test is given to the same people at two separate times. In analysing the reliability of a speaking test, three types are of particular relevance: intra-rater reliability or internal consistency, inter-rater reliability, and parallel-form reliability (Luoma, 2004). Intra-rater reliability refers to how consistent a rater's repeated measurements are on the same subjects. Inter-rater reliability refers to how consistent different raters's measurements are on the same subjects or similar types of subjects. Parallel-form reliability refers to how consistent the results of two tests are when constructed in the same way from the same content domain.

Rater training was provided for raters to ensure raters' consistency in measuring the performance of participants in line with the CSPT scale (see Chapter 3, Table 3.1), so that intra-rater and inter-rater reliabilities could be improved (Gwet, 2014). The CSPT scale in this study was developed by drawing on scales used world-wide, such as the American Council for the Teaching of Foreign Languages (2012), the Common European Framework (2001), the Cambridge ESOL Common Scale for Speaking, and the Hànyǔ Shuǐpíng Kǎoshì. As Dunbar, Koretz, and Hoover (1991) pointed out, inter-rater reliability can be improved with the help of (a) detailed scoring protocols, (b) explicit criteria for different score levels, (c) samples of work rated at different levels to guide raters, and (d) intensive rater training.

The Inter-Rater Reliability

A paired-samples *t*-test was conducted to examine the inter-rater reliability of CSPT. The results indicated that the two raters evaluated participants' CSPTs in a highly consistent way with $r = .95$ and $p = .001$. It was also revealed that there was no significant difference between the means of the two raters' given scores, as $t(11) = -1.38$ and $p = .19$. In other words, it indicated that the rater training was reliable and effective.

5.4.3 Interviews Piloting

Two types of interviews (focus groups and semi-structured interviews) were piloted (see Appendix I) prior to main data collection. The questions of the two types of interviews were constructed based on the questionnaires' variables, so that learners' understandings of the impact of these variables on their CSL speech competence and speech performance could be probed more deeply. To be more specific, focus groups were able to obtain learners' in-depth thoughts in terms of certain issues from a collective perspective, while semi-structured interviews were able to gain further deeper insights on the same issues from an individual perspective.

In this pilot stage, one focus group and two semi-structured interviews were conducted with six CSL learners. The focus group lasted for an hour and the two semi-structure interviews lasted in total for one and half hours (45 minutes for each interview). The main purpose for piloting interviews was to ensure the practicality of the interview questions. One major issue that occurred during the pilot was that the learners found the terminology such as kinaesthetic/tactile and assistance strategy rather abstract. Thus, a brief explanation of the terminology for participants was added to the interviews for better understanding. Visual assistance, such as pictures, was also added to facilitate discussion, as suggested by participants.

5.5 Data Collection and Analysis

After piloting and validating the instruments, a semester-long (March 2014 to June 2014) phase of data collection was carried out. Two parts of data collection took place among the same cohort of CSL learners. Part 1 focused on quantitative data collection. The quantitative data was collected via the piloted and validated instruments: the integrated CSLLQ, the CSCT and the CSPT. The CSLLQ was used to collect CSL learners' thoughts and behavioural intentions from cognitive, affective and socio-cultural perspectives. The CSCT and the CSPT were adopted to measure the participants' speech competence and speech performance. SPSS (Mac version 22) was used to complete statistical analyses accordingly.

Part 2 focused on qualitative data collection. Qualitative methods including focus groups and semi-structured interviews were adopted to collect qualitative data to explore the differences between intermediate and advanced CSL learners' cognition, affect, and socio-cultural attitudes that contributed to their CSL speech competence and speech performance. Thirty-four participants were purposefully selected to take part in the focus groups, and ten for the semi-structured interviews (after seeking their consent). The selection of these 34 participants was based on their speech performance scores and preliminary questionnaire results. For example, participants who self-perceived themselves as less competent speakers but did well in the CSCT or the CSPT, and vice versa, were invited to take part in this qualitative data collection. NVivo (Mac version 10) was used to code the transcriptions of focus groups and semi-structured interviews.

5.5.1 Quantitative Data Collection and Analysis

5.5.1.1 Quantitative Participants

The participants in the quantitative data collection of the present study were 118 CSL tertiary students of Chinese or Chinese-related majors from two universities in Beijing, China. In order to ensure a sufficient sample size, the selection of the participants was by a convenience sampling. They were divided into two levels

(labelled as intermediate and advanced) based on their CSCT and CSPT scores, respectively.

The majority of the 118 CSL learners were undergraduates and postgraduates in their twenties pursuing Chinese or Chinese-related majors. Their age ranged from 17 to 36 years old with an average of 22.34. The average length of CSL learning was 4.43 years long. Among the CSL learners, 53 were male and 64 were female; the self-perceived personality question revealed that 29 were introverted, 58 extroverted, and 28 unsure of their type. More detailed background information on the participants, divided according to the CSCT and the CSPT, is presented in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6
Background Information of Participants

		Intermediate CSL	Advanced CSL	
		Learners	Learners	
CSCT	Gender	Male	29 (48.33%)	24 (42.11%)
		Female	31 (51.67%)	32 (56.14%)
	Age	Youngest	17	18
		Oldest	32	36
		Mean	21.38	23.36
	Personality (self-perceived)	Introverted	17 (28.33%)	13 (22.81%)
		Extroverted	27 (45%)	31 (54.39%)
Uncertain		16 (26.67%)	13 (22.8%)	
Average learning length (year)		3.04	5.90	
Self-assessed proficiency		2.67/4	2.81/4	
CSPT	Gender	Male	34 (51.52%)	19
		Female	32 (48.48%)	32
	Age	Youngest	17	18
		Oldest	35	36
		Mean	22.00	22.78
	Personality (self-perceived)	Introverted	20 (30.3%)	10 (19.61%)
		Extroverted	30 (45.45%)	28 (54.9%)
Uncertain		16 (24.24%)	13 (25.49%)	
Average learning length (year)		3.07	6.20	
Self-assessed proficiency		2.54/4	3/4	

5.5.1.2 Quantitative Instruments

(1) Chinese as a Second Language Learner Questionnaires (CSLLQ)

The self-report CSLLQ was one of the main instruments for obtaining CSL learners' opinions from cognitive, affective and socio-cultural perspectives (see Appendix H for the final versions). It consisted of four sections: (1) 16-item perceptual learning style preference questionnaire, (2) 14-item speaking strategy questionnaire, (3) 40-item affect and socio-cultural attitude questionnaire, and (4) 5-item background information questionnaire. All the instructions and questions were written in Chinese. The CSLLQ is 75-item questionnaire that takes approximately 20-30 minutes to complete. The CSLLQ questionnaires were randomly distributed to CSL learners in two universities in Beijing after seeking the universities and students' consent. Once they finished and returned the questionnaire in a reasonable quality, they received ¥50 (Chinese currency) as appreciation for their time.

Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire (PLSPQ)

The PLSPQ was a 16-item self-report questionnaire with a 5-point rating scale ranging from 1 (mostly disagree) to 5 (mostly agree), which was adapted, piloted, and validated with a sample of CSL learners in the CSL context (see Section 4.2.2 and Section 5.4.1 for more details). The 16 items addressed four learning styles: auditory/visual, kinaesthetic/tactile, group, and individual.

Auditory/visual (4 items: items 6, 7, 10, 13) learners like learning via audio and visual materials, such as listening to broadcasts, watching TVs, and reading pictorial magazines. Kinaesthetic/tactile (4 items: items 1, 5, 8, 9) learning style indicates that learners prefer learning by physical activities such as moving and touching rather than by listening and watching. Group (5 items: items 2, 3, 4, 11, 12) is a learning style in which learning takes place more efficiently by working in a group format. Individual (3 items: items 14, 15, 16) learners prefer learning individually.

Speaking Strategy Questionnaire (SSQ)

The SSQ was a 14-item self-report questionnaire with a 5-point rating scale ranging from 1 (mostly disagree) to 5 (mostly agree), which was adapted, piloted, and validated with a sample of CSL learners in the CSL context (see Sections 4.2.3 and 5.4.1 for details). Three types of speaking strategies were extracted by the EFA: expression practice strategy, native-like and involvement strategy, and assistance strategy.

Expression practice strategy (3 items: items 1, 2, 3), refers to a set of different ways that learners use to practise their Chinese expressions in order to improve their CSL speaking competence and performance. Native-like and involvement strategy (6 items: items 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9), is a set of various methods that learners adopt to make themselves sound like native speakers and to engage themselves in Chinese conversations. Assistance strategy (5 items: items 10, 11, 12, 13, 14), refers to a set of different skills that learners use to make their speaking flow when they cannot think of a word or expression.

Affect and Socio-Cultural Attitude Questionnaire (ASAQ)

The ASAQ was a 40-item self-report questionnaire with a 5-point rating scale ranging from 1 (mostly disagree) to 5 (mostly agree), which was adapted, piloted, and validated with a sample of CSL learners in the CSL context. The ASAQ assessed CSL learners' affective status and socio-cultural attitudes in the Chinese context. The 40 items addressed the following seven variables.

Speaking self-efficacy (3 items: items 1, 2, 3), that is, how much faith do CSL learners have in terms of making progress in CSL speaking. Anxiety (12 items: items 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15), which refers to CSL learners' fear or nervousness about what might happen, for instance, speaking in front of class, making mistakes in speaking, and taking an oral test. Motivation (4 items: items 16, 17, 18, 19), refers to CSL learners' reasons for learning Chinese, such as job motivation and travel motivation. WTC (6 items: items 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25), that is, the extent to which CSL learners communicate or not in Chinese, in front

of strangers, with salesmen, and with friends, for instance. L2 cultural interest (5 items: items 26, 27, 28, 29, 30), refers to CSL learners' feelings of wanting to learn more about Chinese culture, such as Chinese songs, movies, books, TV shows, and festivals. Attitudes towards L2 communities (6 items: items 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36), CSL learners' desire to get involved in Chinese society, for instance, travelling in China, making friends with local Chinese, and working in China. Attitudes towards L2 classes (4 items: items 37, 38, 39, 40), refers to CSL learners' way of thinking with respect to the classroom based Chinese learning.

Background Information Questionnaire

This questionnaire was designed to collect participants' basic background information, such as gender, age, personality, nationality, length of Chinese learning, and self-assessed Chinese proficiency (see Table 5.6 for details of the participants).

(2) Chinese Speech Competence Test (CSCT)

The piloted and finalised CSCT consists of 30 single-answer questions developed from Röver's (2005) pragmatic competence test and HSK tests of previous years. It consists of three sections, namely, vocabulary, implicature, and situational routines (each with 10 items). The vocabulary section gauges linguistic competence, while the implicature and situational routines sections assess pragmatic competence. As Royce (2007) pointed out, communicative competence can be mostly reflected through linguistic and pragmatic competencies.

To be more specific, the vocabulary section measures learners' ability to distinguish the correct meaning from near synonyms. For example, students have to make the correct choice from "A. seen, B. watched, C. looked, D. looked at" for a sentence like "They _____ a wonderful basketball game last night". The implicature section assesses learners' ability to understand the underlying meaning of a sentence based on a small dialogue. For instance, "Eric said: 'Paul, do you know where Mark is?' Paul replied: 'Well, I heard some music from his room earlier.'" Then, students have to choose the correct answer from four

choices which shows the underlying meaning of Paul's sentence. In the situational routine section, students are given different scenarios and they have to make a correct choice out of the four given options. For example, this scenario: "Paul was in a queue in a bank. A person standing in front of him dropped a pen on the floor. Paul picked it up and gave it back to that person. The person thanked him. What would Paul probably reply? A. Thank you; B. You are so careless; C. You are welcome; D. Be careful next time". After reading the scenario, students should choose the correct answer for the situation. A caution needs to be noted that the above examples are made up for the audience to understand the format of the CSCT. The CSCT of this study is all in Chinese but with the equivalent format mentioned above.

(3) Chinese Speech Performance Test (CSPT)

The aim of CSPT is to measure CSL learners' speech performance in an accurate and authentic way rather than self-reported assessment. The piloted and finalised CSPT consists of four sections (oral reading, passage retelling, picture description, and short interview) with reference to the HSK tests of previous years and some widely known criteria, particularly CEFR and HSK (see Sections 1.4.1.3 & 3.4 for review).

There are four sections (tasks) in the CSPT. Participants are given unlimited time for their pre-task and unpressured within-task planning in order to optimise their speech competence in their speech performance (Ellis, 2005). Participants can start completing the tasks once they feel ready. The oral reading section is a short passage of 180 Chinese characters. This part mainly tests participants' pronunciation and intonation. The passage retelling part contains two short passages. Participants listen to each short passage. They can start retelling each passage when they are ready. The topics of these passages are all common and relate to people's daily life, such as health, entertainment, and diet. The picture description section contains an interesting picture with three prompted questions helping participants organise their speech. The short interview part is basically a follow-up discussion between participants and raters based on the previous picture description section.

5.5.1.3 Quantitative Data Collection Procedures

The quantitative data of the main study was collected from 118 CSL tertiary students in Beijing, China, via the CSLLQ, the CSCT and the CSPT during the months of March to June 2014.

Prior to the quantitative data collection, the researcher made initial contacts with several universities in Beijing, China, attempting to seek for their permission for the present study. Two, in the end, agreed to have the study conducted in their universities. After seeking the consent from each dean of the College of International Education, the researcher attended a faculty meeting of each college to explain his project in order to seek the teachers' help to circulate his study among their students. Twelve teachers from the two universities agreed to give the researcher five minutes to introduce the study to their students. Afterwards, the consent forms, the CSLLQ questionnaires, and the CSCT tests that had been prepared ahead of time were left in the classroom. Students were invited to take them home to complete after class if they wanted to. In order to protect participants' confidentiality and anonymity, a large sealed box was placed in the corridor of each college for data collection. After the questionnaires were returned, the CSPT test was arranged individually with each participant. Participants received an incentive of ¥50 (Chinese currency) after the CSPT.

5.5.1.4 Quantitative Data Analysis

The data obtained from the questionnaires provided a general understanding of the CSL learners' opinions from affective, cognitive and socio-cultural perspectives, which created baseline information for explaining the possible issues that emerged from the data outcomes. The data collected through the CSCT and CSPT tests, on the other hand, allowed the researcher to categorise the participants into different groups according to the results of the test scores. Six major forms of statistical analysis were performed in the main study via SPSS 22 (Mac version) including confirmatory factor analysis, internal consistency for reliability, descriptive statistics, independent samples *t*-tests, correlation analysis, and regression analysis.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is a statistical technique used to verify the factor structure of a set of observed variables by examining the relations among the latent constructs. CFA is often used to refine measurement instruments, assess construct validity, and evaluate factor invariance across time and groups (T. A. Brown, 2006). The ultimate goal of CFA is to create a satisfactory model fit for the observed variables. In terms of model fit or how well the model fits to the data, the chi-square test, the RMSEA, the GFI, the CFI, and the SRMR are the essential fit indices that could be used to evaluate the model fit. These fit indices should be included when reporting the results of CFA (R. B. Kline, 2011).

The chi-square test is a statistical method assessing the goodness of fit between a set of observed values and those expected theoretically. Values closer to zero indicate a better fit, which means the difference between observed and expected covariance matrices is smaller. However, the chi-square test is easily subject to sample size (R. B. Kline, 2011). Other approximate fit indices should be taken into account as well.

The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) is known as a badness of fit index where values closer to zero indicate a better fit. It analyses the discrepancy between the hypothesised model and the population covariance matrix. It is suggested that the values of RMSEA of .06 or smaller indicate a good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). However, the RMSEA is subject to the degrees of freedom of models (numbers of factors), as it favours larger models (Breivik & Olsson, 2001).

The goodness of fit index (GFI) is a measure of fit between the hypothesised model and the observed covariance matrix. The values of the GFI range from 0 to 1 where a value of .90 or greater is generally recommended (Baumgartner & Homburg, 1996). One of the limitations of the GFI is that its expected values are subject to sample size more than the RMSEA (R. B. Kline, 2011).

The comparative fit index (CFI) is a measure of fit by examining the discrepancy between the data and the hypothesised model. It depends to a large extent on the average size of the correlations in the data. The values of the GFI range from 0 to 1 where a value of at least .90 is desirable (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

The standardised root mean square residual (SRMR) is the square root of the discrepancy between the observed and predicted covariance matrixes. The threshold of the SRMR should be .08 or less (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

In this study, CFAs were performed with maximum likelihood estimation in order to cross-validate the questionnaires generated from EFA in the pilot stage, namely, the PLSPQ, the SSQ, and the ASAQ. Given the small sample size of the present study, the trustworthiness of the CFA results might become an issue. However, it is worth noting that there is no golden rule in statistical analysis. The results from the statistical analysis may be subject to interpretation, but are still worthy of our reference to some extent. Moreover, the main purpose of the study is not a statistical research; rather it is to take advantage of statistics to generate relatively reliable outcomes.

Internal Consistency for Reliability

Internal consistency is a measurement based on the correlations between different items on the same scale or dimension. It is used to ensure that the items of an instrument assess the same characteristics of a construct or an area of interest. In this study, the internal consistency coefficient analysis was performed to check the reliability of the instruments in assessing CSL learners' affective, cognitive and socio-cultural perceptions. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient is gauged based on the degree to which participants consistently respond to the scale items, or, the extent to which an item is correlated with the rest of the items on the same scale. If the alpha value is larger than .70, a scale is regarded as reliable.

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics, as a preliminary analysis, can summarise patterns and uncover themes on the basis of the participants' responses to the items. Two forms of descriptive statistics, namely, graphical and statistical forms can be used to help present the findings in a clear and visual-interactive way. This method was particularly adopted for describing participants' basic information in terms of their speech competence, speech performance, and cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural dimensions.

Correlation Analysis

Correlational analysis not only provides information regarding the relationship between variables but also reveals the degree of the relationship between them. According to Reynolds, Livingston and Willson (2009), a positive correlation coefficient indicates that an increase on one variable is associated with an increase on the other variable. A negative correlation coefficient indicates that an increase on one variable is associated with a decrease on the other variable. This method was particularly performed to answer the first question of this study.

Independent Samples *t*-tests

Independent samples *t*-tests can be used to compare two independent groups on the same dependent variables. As this study also investigates whether there are any differences between intermediate and advanced CSL learners in terms of speech competence, speech performance, and the cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural factors, independent samples *t*-tests are appropriate for answering this question. This method was particularly used to answer the second question of this study.

Regression Analysis

Although correlational analysis could reveal to what extent variables are correlated with each other, it does not imply the possible causal relationships

among variables. Therefore, regression analysis should be used for prediction and forecasting the causal relationships between independent and dependent variables. This method was particularly adopted to answer the third, the fourth, and the fifth questions of this study.

Effect Size

A statistically significant difference does not show how large the difference or relationship between two groups really is. Effect sizes then come in as a measurement to accurately determine whether the difference or relationship is trivial. There are different types of effect sizes such as Cohen's d , Pearson's r and R^2 . Cohen's d can be calculated by the mean differences between groups divided by the average of standard deviation for the data. J. Cohen (1988) suggested that $d = .2$ should be considered a 'small' effect size, $.5$ represents a 'medium' effect size and $.8$ a 'large' effect size. Therefore, even if the difference between two means is statistically significant, it is regarded as trivial if the two means do not differ by $.20$ standard deviations or more. Pearson's r is normally used in the context of correlation for measuring association between two variables, while Pearson's R^2 is often used in the context of regression for measuring how well a regression line fits to a given data. Table 5.7 shows the magnitudes of the different types of effect sizes.

Table 5.7

Magnitudes of Effect Sizes

Effect Size	Small	Medium	Large
Cohen's d	.20	.50	.80
Pearson's r	.10	.30	.50
Pearson's R^2	.01	.06	.14

5.5.2 Qualitative Data Collection and Analysis

5.5.2.2 *Qualitative Participants*

The participants in the qualitative data collection were 34 CSL learners purposefully selected from the 118 CSL learners who successfully took part in the quantitative data collection. As Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) suggest the purpose of qualitative data collection is to develop an in-depth understanding of a limited number of people. They also point out that “the larger the number of people, the less detail that typically can emerge from any one individual” (p. 174). In this study, 34 participants were randomly but also purposively chosen for participating in seven focus groups and ten semi-structured interviews in order to echo and explore in-depth the aspects that had arisen from the quantitative data. The aspects to explore include the relationship between speech competence and speech performance, the differences in contributing factors to CSL learners’ L2 speaking, the relationships between the proposed cognitive, affective and socio-cultural variables and CSL learners’ speech competence and speech performance.

The participants from focus groups and semi-structured interviews were all majoring in Chinese as a second language either as undergraduates or postgraduates from two universities in Beijing, China. The average age of the 34 participants was 23.91 years old. They all had studied in China for more than two years. All the participants were given pseudonyms for the sake of anonymity and confidentiality. Focus group participants were particularly asked to respect one another’s privacy, given that anonymity could not be guaranteed within group discussions.

In this study, participants’ personality type was self-perceived. Speech competence and speech performance were assessed by the CSCT and the CSPT, respectively, and categorised into two levels. The categorisation was based on the results of their CSPT rather than their CSCT, because the CSPT could capture learners’ speaking proficiency more authentically compared with the paper and pencil based CSCT. Among the seven focus groups, there are two focus groups with advanced CSL proficiency, three groups with mixed CSL proficiencies

(intermediate and advanced), and two groups with intermediate CSL proficiency. Each group contained 3 to 4 participants. Detailed information of the 34 qualitative participants can be found in Tables 5.8 and 5.9.

Table 5.8

Intermediate CSL Speakers' Background Information

Name	Age	Gender	Nationality	Personality	CSCT	CSPT	Category
Rong	19	Female	Korea	Extroverted	CI	PI	FG1Rong20/03/2014
Fang	27	Female	Indonesia	Introverted	CA	PI	FG1Fang20/03/2014
Yun	22	Female	Korea	Extroverted	CI	PI	FG1Yun20/03/2014
Min	23	Female	Korea	Introverted	CI	PI	FG1Min20/03/2014
Xin	20	Female	Korea	Extroverted	CI	PI	FG2Xin15/05/2014
Jin	23	Male	Korea	Extroverted	CA	PI	FG2Jin15/05/2014
Sha	38	Male	Iran	Introverted	CA	PI	FG3Sha25/04/2014
Sun	25	Male	Ireland	Extroverted	CI	PI	FG3Sun25/04/2014
Amy	19	Female	Mongolia	Extroverted	CI	PI	FG4Amy01/05/2014
Zaya	18	Female	Mongolia	Introverted	CI	PI	FG4Zaya01/05/2014
Leigh	27	Female	Thailand	Introverted	CA	PI	FG5Leigh12/04/2014
May	24	Female	Burma	Introverted	CA	PI	FG5May12/04/2014
Mat	29	Male	Spain	Extroverted	CI	PI	Int1Mat16/05/2014
Ben	24	Male	USA	Introverted	CA	PI	Int2Ben23/05/2014
Meilin	25	Female	Russia	Extroverted	CI	PI	Int3Meilin30/05/2014
Janet	26	Female	USA	Extroverted	CI	PI	Int4Janet03/06/2014
Cole	22	Male	USA	Extroverted	CI	PI	Int5Cole10/06/2014

Note. CI = learners with intermediate Chinese speech competence; CA = learners with advanced Chinese speech competence; PI = learners with intermediate Chinese speech performance.

Table 5.9

Advanced CSL Speakers' Background Information

Name	Age	Gender	Nationality	Personality	CSCT	CSPT	Category
Lin	18	Female	Panama	Extroverted	CA	PA	FG2Lin15/05/2014
Bai	26	Female	Mongolia	Extroverted	CA	PA	FG3Bai25/04/2014
Yeats	21	Male	USA	Introverted	CA	PA	FG3Yeats25/04/2014
Tao	25	Female	Thailand	Extroverted	CA	PA	FG5Tao12/04/2014
June	26	Female	Burma	Extroverted	CA	PA	FG5June12/04/2014
Mia	25	Female	Burma	Introverted	CA	PA	FG6Mia08/06/2014
Krimu	25	Male	Russia	Extroverted	CA	PA	FG6Krimu08/06/2014
Feng	25	Female	Burma	Introverted	CA	PA	FG6Feng08/06/2014
Cai	27	Male	Thailand	Extroverted	CA	PA	FG6Cai08/06/2014
Hanna	18	Female	Korea	Introverted	CA	PA	FG7Hanna10/06/2014
Judy	18	Female	Korea	Extroverted	CA	PA	FG7Judy10/06/2014
Jenny	18	Female	Korea	Extroverted	CA	PA	FG7Jenny10/06/2014
Dan	22	Male	USA	Extroverted	CA	PA	Int6Dan15/06/2014
Mads	33	Male	Norway	Extroverted	CI	PA	Int7Mads23/06/2014
Steve	31	Male	Austria	Introverted	CA	PA	Int8Steve24/06/2014
Gaoen	19	Female	Korea	Extroverted	CA	PA	Int9Gaoen27/06/2014
Tom	25	Male	USA	Extroverted	CA	PA	Int10Tom29/06/2014

Note. CA = learners with advanced Chinese speech competence; PA = learners with advanced Chinese speech performance.

5.5.2.3 Qualitative Instruments

Two types of interviews (focus group and semi-structured interview) were employed to collect the qualitative data for the present study. Prior to the present study, a pilot study was carried out to ensure the practicality of the designed interview questions (see Section 5.4.3). Moreover, the pilot procedure provided the researcher with some preparation and insights into how to conduct the interviews in a more effective way. For example, how to present questions in a more intriguing fashion and how to facilitate better communication in discussions.

(1) Focus Group

The purpose of focus groups in this study was to solicit CSL learners' opinions and thoughts on what factors contribute to their speech competence and speech

performance. Different from one-on-one interviews, focus groups offer participants opportunities to agree or disagree with the comments of others. Consequently, this may add richness to the dialogue. There are two key concerns in terms of designing a focus group: the number and the composition.

With respect to the participant number, no consensus has been reached upon the exact number that should be ensured in each focus group. Some researchers suggest using 6-12 or 6-8 participants for a group (e.g., L. Cohen et al., 2011; Tavakoli, 2012), while others claim that four to 12 is a good range (e.g., Morgan, 1988). Based on my teaching experience, four participants for a group activity can achieve the optimal outcome. This study, therefore, adopted four participants per group for focus group data collection. However, some focus groups in this study ended up with three participants due to participant's tight school schedule or withdrawal during discussions.

With respect to the composition of focus groups, within-group homogeneity and intergroup heterogeneity should be taken into consideration so that a wide range of information can be obtained (L. Cohen et al., 2011; Tavakoli, 2012). In other words, not only should participants for focus groups have common experiences in terms of the topics that they are discussing but also should be slightly different from one group to another in terms of its combination. In this study, the within-group homogeneity was secured through convenient and purposive sampling. The participants were either intermediate or advanced level CSL learners who suggested that cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural factors had a certain impact on their L2 Chinese speaking. The inter-group heterogeneity was achieved through purposive grouping by which participants were deliberately arranged into pure intermediate level, pure advanced level, and mixed level focus groups.

In total, seven focus groups were conducted with 24 CSL learners. In each focus group, three to four learners participated in an approximately hour-long discussion on the questions proposed by the researcher (see Appendix I for the finalised focus group questioning route).

(2) Semi-Structured Interview

Besides the focus groups, semi-structured interviews (see Appendix I) were conducted with 10 CSL learners to probe more deeply into their understanding of the possible influences of affective, cognitive, and socio-cultural factors on their speech competence and speech performance. These semi-structured interviews lasted for about 45 minutes each. Compared with focus groups, the environment of one-on-one interviews is more secure and confidential. As a result, interviewees may be more open to share their deep feelings.

5.5.2.3 Qualitative Data Collection Procedures

The qualitative data of the present study was collected through focus groups and semi-structured interviews with 34 CSL learners from March to June 2014. The main purpose was to obtain an in-depth understanding of CSL learners' points of view with respect to speech competence and speech performance. Particular attention was paid to their opinions on the impact of cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural factors on their L2 Chinese speaking performance.

Prior to the qualitative data collection, the researcher made initial contacts with the participants who indicated in their consent forms in the quantitative data collection that they would like to take part in the qualitative study. Based on the results of their CSCT and CSPT and a preliminary analysis of their questionnaires, invitations were sent out to the participants who scored either high or low in tests with certain psychological conditions, such as low level of confidence, high level of anxiety, or low level of WTC. During the data collection period, the researcher managed to arrange seven focus groups and 10 semi-structured interviews in total for eliciting learners' opinions of their CSL speech competence and performance from collective and individual perspectives, respectively.

Of the seven focus groups, two groups were intermediate level CSL learners, three were mixed level, and two were advanced level. Of the 10 semi-structured interviews, five intermediate level and five advanced level CSL learners were selected for participation in such interviews. Both types of interviews were audio-

recorded after seeking participants' consent. The language used in interviews was Chinese, not only because participants were from different countries but also because their Chinese was good enough for expressing themselves.

5.5.2.4 Qualitative Data Analysis

The collected qualitative data was subjected to the standard methods and procedures for analysing qualitative data in this study. Analysis of the transcribed qualitative data started with coding, later categorising, and finally reporting.

Codes are tags or labels attached to words, phrases, sentences or whole paragraphs in order to dissect them meaningfully (Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2013). According to Bogdan and Biklen (2007), developing a coding system includes searching for regularities, patterns, or topics in the data, writing down words and phrases that represent these topics and patterns, and developing a list of coding categories.

After initial coding was done, the researcher went through the created coding system for refinement so that there were no overlaps or redundancies in the coding categories. The whole process of coding and categorising was accomplished by using NVivo 10 software (see Table 7.1 in Section 7.2 for the coding system).

The interpretation of the qualitative data followed an inductive way, as inductive analysis allows “the important analysis dimensions to emerge from patterns found in the case under study without presupposing in advance what the dimensions will be” (Patton, 2002, p. 56). The goal of the analysis and interpretation stage was to probe more deeply in terms of the contributing factors to the intermediate and the advanced CSL learners' speaking. As a result, suggestions in terms of how to improve CSL learners' speaking, based on their current interlanguage status, can be proposed.

In the presentation stage, when direct quotes from the participants were needed, they were translated (from Chinese to English) in a verbatim way so that the

participants' ideas would not be altered. The origin of the data source was shown in the brackets at the end of each quote. For example, Hanna who participated in the seventh focus group interview on 10 June 2014 can be presented as FG7Hanna10/06/2014; Mat's interview, as the first semi-structured interview, took place on 16 May 2014 can be presented as Int1Mat15/05/2014. The number right after FG and Int means the sequence of the interviews (see Tables 5.8 & 5.9). All the participants' quotes are presented in English in this study. For instance:

Hanna: You know, when I go to the professional places such as police station, I will be very nervous, especially in the circumstances when I could not understand them and when they explain it in a detailed and professional way. (FG7Hanna10/06/2014)

In this unit of data, Hanna and Jenny described their anxious feelings when they spoke to the staff in a polite station. This unit of data was thus coded as “fear-related anxiety” and “attitude towards Chinese community”. These two codes were then put into the categories of “affective factors” and “socio-cultural factors”, respectively, given that anxiety is an affective variable and attitude towards Chinese community is a socio-cultural variable reviewed in the literature (see Sections 4.3 & 4.4).

5.5.2.5 Trustworthiness of the Qualitative Data Analysis

In the field of qualitative research, trustworthiness is a parallel concept used to substitute the conventional concept of reliability and validity in quantitative research. Given the lack of the certainty of hard numbers and *p* values, qualitative research use aspects such as credibility, transferability, and confirmability to ensure its trustworthiness (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Rolfe, 2006).

Credibility is concerned with how credible or believable the results of qualitative research are (Shenton, 2004). Credibility can be ensured by certain strategies such as data triangulation and the use of a wide range of informants (Patton, 2015; Shenton, 2004). This study, therefore, utilised several qualitative data collection methods such as focus groups and semi-structured interviews to bring different

lines of sights into analysis. This is to ensure a profound and appropriate understanding of the phenomenon in question (Patton, 2015).

Transferability concerns the extent to which the findings of a study could be applied to other situations (Shenton, 2004). One of the possible solutions is through thick description of the study by providing detailed descriptions of the participants and research setting and reporting the research findings with sufficient details and examples from the data, so that readers may find resonance with their own situations. This study thus followed such a solution when presenting qualitative data and its results (see Chapter 7).

Confirmability refers to the objectivity of the interpretations of collected data, which can often be ensured through repeated coding of the data. In this study, a PhD candidate majoring in Chinese applied linguistics in China was invited to be a peer debriefer. Confirmability of the codes and themes was then sought by peer debriefing. Samples of how focus group and interview transcripts should be coded were offered to the PhD candidate for reference, along with the researcher's explanations of the coding system. A random sample of 20% of recording transcription was taken for recoding based on the given codes. All the codes were then numbered and imported into SPSS for the inter-rater reliability test. The results of a paired-samples *t*-test indicated that that the two raters' codes were highly consistent with $r = .96$ and $p = .001$.

5.6 Ethical Considerations

This study was carried out after gaining the approval from the University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee on 11 November 2013 (Reference Number 010306). Although there is no ethical requirement in China for conducting a study, this study strictly followed the overarching ethical principle of the University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee, which is to minimise possible harms to the participants and the institutions.

Prior to the pilot stage and the main stage, the researcher started contacting potential universities in Beijing, China, in the hope of seeking official

permissions before carrying out the research. In the end, five universities agreed that the researcher could conduct his study among their CSL students: three for the pilot stage and two for the main stage. The participants recruited for the two phases would receive Participant Information Sheets and Consent Forms for their signatures (see Appendix A).

All the participants who participated in both the quantitative and qualitative data collection were entitled, up until 1 July, 2014, to ask the researcher to unconditionally destroy the data that the researcher collected from him/her. The participants in the qualitative part of the study had the right to refuse to answer any specific questions and to have the recorder turned off at any stage. The assurance was given by Dean that their participation or withdrawal would not bring any consequences to him/her or to anyone at any level in the faculty.

The anonymity and confidentiality of participants were guaranteed during the whole data collection process (except focus groups). Due to the nature of focus group, its participants' anonymity could not be guaranteed completely, but each member of the focus group was asked to respect one another's privacy, not to talk about the group discussion to others, and to agree that everything that was said in the interview remains confidential to the people involved. In this study, if the information provided by participants is reported/published, pseudonyms will be used to protect their identities. No identifying information or data collected from the research will be disclosed to a third party.

As for the data management issue, hard copy data was securely stored in a locked cabinet at the University of Auckland, and electronic data was stored confidentially on the researcher's computer. All hard copy data will be shredded and the digital information will be deleted six years after the ethics approval. The data collected was primarily presented in this thesis, but might be used for future academic publications or conference presentations.

5.7 Chapter Summary

The main purpose of this chapter was to justify the methodology and methods adopted in this study. To begin with, the aims for the study were proposed and the rationale for the research design was discussed. Afterwards, a brief summary of the results of instruments piloting and validation was presented. The use of instruments, the procedure of data collection, and the analysis of quantitative and qualitative data were carefully explained. Steps taken to address the reliability and validity concerns in both the quantitative and qualitative phases were carefully addressed to ensure the trustworthiness of findings. This chapter concluded with ethical considerations in this research.

CHAPTER SIX

QUANTITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

6.1 Chapter Overview

This chapter presents the findings from the analysis of quantitative data with an in-depth discussion at the end. First, the background information for the four groups of participants, divided according to their speech competence and speech performance, was outlined. Then, the reliability and validity of the instruments are revisited with a sample collected for the present study for the sake of confirmatory analysis. Subsequently, the quantitative findings and summaries for each research question are presented. This chapter concludes with a discussion of the quantitative findings.

6.2 Background Information Results

Participants of the CSLLQ, the CSCT, and the CSPT were the same group of university students majoring in Chinese or Chinese-related disciplines in Beijing, China. They were divided into the intermediate- and the advanced- level learners based on their CSCT and CSPT scores, respectively (see Table 5.6 in Section 5.5.1 for review).

In the CSCT intermediate group, there were 29 male and 31 female students. The average age was 21.38 years old with an age variance from 17 to 32. Of the CSCT intermediate group, 17 self-reported their personality as introverted, 27 extroverted, and 16 uncertain. Their average L2 Chinese learning length in China was 3.04 years, and their average self-assessed proficiency was 2.67 out of 4 (1 = intermediate low, 2 = intermediate, 3 = advanced low, and 4 = advanced). In other words, intermediate level proficiency.

In the CSCT advanced group, there were 24 male and 32 female students. Their age varied from 18 to 36 with an average age of 23.36 years old. In terms of personality, 13 self-reported as introverted, 31 extroverted, and 13 uncertain. The average L2 Chinese learning length in China for this group was 5.90 years, and

their average self-assessed proficiency was 2.81 out of 4. In other words, intermediate level proficiency.

In the CSPT intermediate group, 24 students were male and 32 were female. The average age of this group was 22 years old with an age variance from 17 to 35. There were 20 students who reported themselves as introverted learners, 30 extroverted, and 16 uncertain. The average L2 Chinese learning length in China was 3.07 years. The average self-assessed proficiency for this group was 2.54 out of 4, namely, intermediate level proficiency.

The CSPT advanced group consisted of 19 males and 32 females. Their average age was 22.78, ranging from 18 to 36. The numbers of the self-reported introverted, extroverted, and uncertain personality CSL learners were 10, 28, and 13, respectively. The average L2 Chinese learning length in China for this group was 6.20 years with an average self-assessed proficiency of 3 out of 4, namely, advanced level proficiency.

6.3 Reliability and Validity of the CSLLQ

The CSLLQ consisted of three main surveys including the PLSPQ, the SSQ, and the ASAQ. The data collected for the CSLLQ were subjected to confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to cross-validate the structure generated from the EFA in the phase of instrument piloting and validation. The reliability of the CSLLQ was double checked with the current sample. One caution to note is that the ratio between the scale item and the participant number for the ASAQ did not reach the 1:10 threshold (R. B. Kline, 2011); the results may be skewed because of the relatively small sample size.

6.3.1 Reliability and Validity of the PLSPQ

The CFA results for the 4-factor model with the 16 items identified in the EFA solution ($\chi^2/df = 1.578$, CFI = .904, GFI = .890, RMSEA = .070, and SRMR = .0758) suggested that the model fit indices revealed an overall acceptable model fit. For example, the value of χ^2/df ratio (1.578) was much lower than the

suggested number of 3. The CFI, the RMSEA, and the SRMR were all within the suggested adequate fit index ($CFI > .90$, $.05 < RMSEA < .08$, $SRMR < .09$), although the GFI was slightly lower than .90 (threshold). Overall, the results indicated a good model fit (see Appendix J).

The internal consistency of the PLSPQ was rechecked by the Cronbach's alpha coefficients. The results indicated that the overall Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the PLSPQ and its four subscales including auditory/visual, kinaesthetic/tactile, group, and individual were .77, .69, .82, .76, and .72, respectively.

In brief, the results of the CFA cross-validated the 4-factor model of the PLSPQ constructed from the EFA in the instrument piloting and validating stage. The results of Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the PLSPQ ($\alpha = .77$) indicated that the instrument was reliable.

6.3.2 Reliability and Validity of the SSQ

The results ($\chi^2/df = 1.893$, $CFI = .854$, $GFI = .860$, $RMSEA = .087$, and $SRMR = .0848$) of the first round CFA suggested that the model fit indices were not without problems. For example, the CFI and the GFI were slightly lower than .90 and the RMSEA was larger than the adequate fit threshold .08, though the value of χ^2/df ratio (1.893) indicated a good fit with the ratio smaller than 3 and the SRMR lower than the threshold of .09.

The CFA results for the 3-factor model with the 14 items identified in the EFA solution did not demonstrate satisfactory model fit. The researcher, therefore, attempted to improve the model fit by addressing the item issues suggested in the modification indices. Additional paths between certain items were added in order to improve the overall model fit. The CFA was then rerun on the modified factor model. The results of the fit indices for the modified model showed improved fit and all indices reached the appropriate cut-off levels ($\chi^2/df = 1.489$, $CFI = .924$, $GFI = .901$, and $RMSEA = .065$, $SRMR = .0762$). The modified model was therefore retained as the final model (see Appendix K).

The overall Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the SSQ and its three subscales, expression practice strategy, native-like and involvement strategy, and assistance strategy were .84, .70, .76, and .71, respectively.

In brief, the results of the CFAs cross-validated the 3-factor model of the SSQ generated from the EFA in the instrument piloting and validating stage. The results of Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the SSQ ($\alpha = .84$) indicated that the instrument was reliable.

6.3.3 Reliability and Validity of the ASAQ

The CFA results for the 7-factor model with the 40 items identified in the EFA solution ($\chi^2/df = 1.651$, CFI = .835, GFI = .675, RMSEA = .075, and SRMR = .0781) suggested that the model fit indices were not satisfactory (see Appendix L). Although the value of χ^2/df ratio, the RMSEA, and the SRMR indicated an adequate model fit, the CFI and the GFI were both lower than the threshold of .90. This is most likely due to the ratio of sample size to the degrees of freedom (the number of items of a questionnaire), which biased the results of the EFA. Furthermore, the items of the seven factors have been widely used and researched in a great number of studies. Therefore, it would be inappropriate to reject the model identified in the EFA solution simply based on the results of the CFA, not to mention that the reliability and validity of each individual factor have been substantially explored according to the literature (see Sections 4.3 & 4.4).

The internal consistency of the ASAQ was rechecked by the Cronbach's alpha coefficients. The results indicated that the overall Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the ASAQ ($\alpha = .96$) and its seven subscales including Speaking Self-efficacy ($\alpha = .82$), Anxiety ($\alpha = .94$), Motivation ($\alpha = .84$), WTC ($\alpha = .90$), L2 Cultural Interest ($\alpha = .79$), Attitudes towards L2 communities ($\alpha = .79$), and Attitudes towards L2 classes ($\alpha = .92$) were satisfactory.

In brief, the results of the CFA to some extent cross-validated the 7-factor structure of the ASAQ constructed from the EFA in the instrument piloting and validating stage, though the structure of ASAQ may need further exploration and

verification. The results of Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the ASAQ ($\alpha = .96$) indicated that the instrument was reliable.

6.4 Quantitative Findings for Research Question 1

The first question of this study was “what are the relationships between CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance?” Descriptive statistics and bivariate correlations were adopted in order to answer this question. Descriptive statistics, including means and standard deviations, were used to summarise the participants' outcomes of CSL speech competence and speech performance. Bivariate correlations were performed between the whole sample of CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance, between the intermediate level CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance, and between the advanced level CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance, respectively, so that the relationships between CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance could be captured from different levels.

6.4.1 Quantitative Results of Research Question 1

Table 6.1 shows the mean scores and standard deviations of the whole sample of CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance. If we convert the means according to the CSL speaking scale developed in this study (see Table 3.1 in Section 3.4), the converted mean scores of speech competence and speech performance indicate that CSL learners are at advanced low level (4.5/6). Taking their standard deviations into consideration, it implies that CSL learners, recruited for the present study, are appropriate and eligible. If we convert the means by adopting the centesimal system (a common practice in China), we can find that the mean scores of competence and performance are around the merit or good level (80/100). This also proves that the participants' L2 Chinese proficiency may range from the intermediate level to the advanced level in this study.

Table 6.1

Descriptive Statistics of the Whole Sample

	Mean	Equivalent Mean 1	Equivalent Mean 2	Std. Deviation	N
Competence	23.89/30	4.78/6	79.63/100	4.086	118
Performance	19.69/24	4.92/6	82.03/100	2.005	118

Note. A fraction refers to participants' average test score; a denominator refers to the total score of a test

The bivariate correlation of CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance showed that the general speech competence and speech performance of CSL learners was significantly correlated at the .01 level for a one-tailed prediction $r = .30$. From the effect size viewpoint, $r = .30$ suggested a moderate correlation. In other words, the results could, to a moderate degree, imply that as learners' speech competence grows their speech performance also increases in a positive correlation (see Table 6.2).

Table 6.2

Correlations of General Competence and Performance

		General Competence	General Performance
General Competence	Pearson		
	Correlation	1	.300**
	Sig. (1-tailed)		.001
	N	118	118
General Performance	Pearson		
	Correlation	.300**	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.001	
	N	118	118

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

With the participants divided according to their speech competence, it was shown that the intermediate competence learners' speech competence and speech performance were both inferior to that of their advanced counterparts in general (see Table 6.3).

Table 6.3

Descriptive Statistics of the Speech Competence Groups

		Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Intermediate Speech Competence Group	Competence	21.20	3.915	61
	Performance	18.801	1.707	61
	Age	21.38	2.5	61
Advanced Speech Competence Group	Competence	26.77	1.452	57
	Performance	20.637	1.873	57
	Age	23.36	4.42	57

Table 6.4

Correlations of the Speech Competence Groups

			Competence	Performance
Intermediate Speech Competence Group	Competence	Pearson Correlation	1	-.207
		Sig. (1-tailed)		.055
		N	61	61
Advanced Speech Competence Group	Performance	Pearson Correlation	-.207	1
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.055	
		N	61	61
Intermediate Speech Competence Group	Competence	Pearson Correlation	1	.456**
		Sig. (1-tailed)		.000
		N	57	57
Advanced Speech Competence Group	Performance	Pearson Correlation	.456**	1
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.000	
		N	57	57

** . Correlation is significant at the .01 level (1-tailed).

Table 6.4 presents the bivariate correlations of CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance between two groups divided based on speech competence. It shows that, in the advanced speech competence group, the learners' speech competence and speech performance were significantly and positively correlated at the .01 level for a one-tailed prediction with $r = .456$, which indicates a moderate correlation (effect size). However, there was no significant correlation between speech competence and speech performance in the intermediate speech competence group learners at the .01 level for a one-tailed prediction. More surprisingly, they were in a negative relationship with $r = -.207$

and p value close to .05. The lack of significant correlation between speech competence and speech performance in the intermediate speech competence group learners implied that learners' speech performance at this proficiency level was less stable and might be more subject to the influence of other factors.

With the participants divided according to their performance scores, it could be found that the advanced speech performance learners' speech competence and speech performance both outperformed their intermediate performance counterparts' on average (see Table 6.5). It could be implied that speech competence and speech performance are positively correlated with each other. However, there was no statistical significance detected in terms of the correlations between CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance of the two groups divided on the basis of their speech performance results (see Table 6.6). In other words, speech performance was not able to reflect speech competence from a statistical perspective.

Table 6.5

Descriptive Statistics of the Speech Performance Groups

		Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Intermediate	Competence	22.91	3.334	67
Speech	Performance	18.294	1.211	67
Performance	Age	22.0	3.60	67
Group				
Advanced	Competence	25.18	4.629	51
Speech	Performance	21.520	1.203	51
Performance	Age	22.78	3.77	50
Group				

Table 6.6

Correlations of the Speech Performance Groups

			Performance	Competence
Intermediate Speech Performance Group	Performance	Pearson Correlation	1	.081
		Sig. (1-tailed)		.258
		N	67	67
Advanced Speech Performance Group	Competence	Pearson Correlation	.081	1
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.258	
		N	67	67
Intermediate Speech Performance Group	Performance	Pearson Correlation	1	.197
		Sig. (1-tailed)		.083
		N	51	51
Advanced Speech Performance Group	Competence	Pearson Correlation	.197	1
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.083	
		N	51	51

6.4.2 Summary of Findings

The quantitative findings reported above concerning the first research question of this study (i.e., what are the relationships between CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance?) can be summarised as follows.

Regarding the general correlation between CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance, it was noted that students' speech competence was positively and moderately correlated with their speech performance, and vice versa. This means, generally, a student with good speech competence and performance will have good speech performance and competence, respectively.

Regarding the correlation of CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance between two groups divided according to their speech competence, it was found that speech competence and speech performance was still positively correlated in the advanced competence group. This means that students who are equipped with more advanced competence will perform better in speaking, and vice versa. However, there was no significant statistical correlation found between speech competence and performance of the intermediate competence

group. On the contrary, they were likely to be in a negative correlation as the Pearson correlation coefficient (r) was $-.207$ and the p value was close to the $.05$ significant level.

Regarding the correlation of CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance between the two groups divided according to their speech performance, there was no significant correlation detected. In other words, learners who perform well in speaking do not necessarily mean that they have good speech competence.

6.5 Quantitative Findings for Research Question 2

The second question of this study was “what are the differences between the intermediate level and the advanced level CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance, and their cognitive (i.e., speaking strategy, learning style, processing speed, and age), affective (i.e., motivation, anxiety, speaking self-efficacy, and WTC), and socio-cultural (i.e., L2 cultural interest, attitudes towards L2 communities, and attitudes towards L2 classes) factors?” In order to answer this question, independent samples t tests were employed to examine the differences between the intermediate and advanced levels in terms of the above mentioned aspects.

6.5.1 Differences Between the Intermediate Competence Level and the Advanced Competence Level CSL Learners

Independent-samples t tests were conducted to determine whether there was any difference between the intermediate and the advanced levels of CSL learners in terms of the proposed aspects in Research Question 2. The results suggested that there was a significant difference between the intermediate competence level ($M = 21.20$, $SD = 3.92$) and the advanced competence level ($M = 26.77$, $SD = 1.45$) learners in terms of their speech competence with $t(116) = -10.12$, $p = .001$, and $r = .69$ (large effect size). The results also revealed that there was a significant difference between the intermediate competence level ($M = 18.80$, $SD = 1.71$) and the advanced competence level ($M = 20.64$, $SD = 1.87$) learners in terms of

their speech performance with $t(116) = -5.57$, $p = .001$, and $r = .46$ (medium effect size).

Regarding the differences between the intermediate competence level and the advanced competence level CSL learners in terms of the proposed cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural factors, independent-samples t tests indicated that the two levels of learners were significantly different with respect to age, anxiety, WTC, L2 cultural interest, and attitudes towards L2 classes.

Regarding age, the average age of the intermediate competence level learners ($M = 21.38$, $SD = 2.50$) was younger than that of the advanced competence level learners ($M = 23.36$, $SD = 4.42$) with $t(114) = -2.99$, $p = .003$, and $r = .27$ (small effect size). As for anxiety, the intermediate competence level learners ($M = 2.98$, $SD = .97$) were more anxious than the advanced competence level learners ($M = 2.54$, $SD = .91$) with $t(116) = 2.57$, $p = .011$, and $r = .23$ (small effect size). Regarding WTC, the intermediate competence level learners ($M = 3.59$, $SD = .81$) were less willing to use L2 Chinese for communication than the advanced competence level learners ($M = 3.90$, $SD = .81$) with $t(116) = -2.10$, $p = .038$, and $r = .19$ (small effect size). In terms of L2 cultural interest, it was suggested that the advanced competence level learners ($M = 3.98$, $SD = .74$) were more interested in Chinese culture compared with their intermediate competence level counterparts ($M = 3.65$, $SD = .72$) with $t(116) = -2.40$, $p = .018$, and $r = .22$ (small effect size). Regarding attitudes towards L2 classes, the advanced competence group's attitude ($M = 4.10$, $SD = .73$) was more positive than that of the intermediate competence group ($M = 3.81$, $SD = .77$); $t(116) = -2.13$, $p = .035$, and $r = .19$ (small effect size).

In terms of the other factors, including auditory/visual, kinaesthetic/tactile, group, individual, processing speed, expression practice strategy, native-like and involvement strategy, assistance strategy, speaking self-efficacy, motivation and attitudes towards L2 communities, there was no significant difference found between the intermediate and the advanced CSL learners. One factor, worth mentioning, however, is motivation, as its p value (.051) was nearly at the significant $p < .05$ level.

6.5.2 Differences Between the Intermediate Performance Level and the Advanced Performance Level CSL Learners

Independent-samples t tests were conducted to determine whether there was any difference between the intermediate performance level and the advanced performance level CSL learners in terms of the proposed aspects in Research Question 2. The results showed that there was a significant difference between the intermediate performance level learners ($M = 22.91$, $SD = 3.33$) and the advanced performance level learners ($M = 25.18$, $SD = 4.63$) in terms of their speech competence with $t(116) = -3.09$, $p = .002$, and $r = .27$ (small effect size). The findings also indicated that there was a significant difference between the intermediate performance level ($M = 18.29$, $SD = 1.21$) and the advanced performance level ($M = 21.52$, $SD = 1.20$) learners in terms of speech performance with $t(116) = -14.38$, $p = .001$, and $r = .80$ (large effect size).

Regarding the differences between the intermediate performance level and the advanced performance level CSL learners in terms of the proposed cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural factors, independent-samples t tests indicated that the two levels of learners were significantly different in processing speed, kinaesthetic/tactile, L2 cultural interest and attitudes towards L2 classes.

Regarding processing speed, it was indicated that the average time of processing for the intermediate performance level learners was 151.84 seconds with $SD = 53.19$, which was statistically much slower than that of the advanced performance level learners ($M = 127.86$, $SD = 59.11$) at $p < .05$ significant level with $r = .21$ (small effect size). As for kinaesthetic/tactile, there was a significant difference in the scores of the intermediate performance level learners ($M = 3.57$, $SD = .61$) and the advanced performance level learners ($M = 3.83$, $SD = .67$); $t(116) = -2.16$, $p = .033$, and $r = .20$ (small effect size). In other words, the advanced performance group was more in favour of kinaesthetic/tactile learning style compared with the intermediate performance group. In terms of L2 cultural interest, it was suggested that the advanced performance level learners ($M = 4.02$, $SD = .72$) were more interested in Chinese culture than their intermediate performance level counterparts ($M = 3.65$, $SD = .73$) with $t(116) = -2.71$, $p =$

.008, and $r = .25$. Regarding attitudes towards L2 classes, the advanced performance level learners' attitude ($M = 4.16$, $SD = .70$) was more positive than that of their intermediate performance level counterparts ($M = 3.79$, $SD = .76$); $t(116) = -2.73$, $p = .007$, and $r = .25$ (small effect size).

Although no significant difference was found in the rest of the factors including age, auditory/visual, group, individual, expression practice strategy, native-like and involvement strategy, assistance strategy, speaking self-efficacy, motivation, anxiety and attitudes towards L2 communities, factors such as speaking self-efficacy and anxiety are worth mentioning. The p values of the two factors were close to the significant $p < .05$ level, with speaking self-efficacy $p = .06$ and anxiety $p = .051$.

6.5.3 Summary of Findings

The second question of this study examined the differences between the intermediate level and the advanced level CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance, and also the two levels of CSL learners' differences in terms of cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural factors. The quantitative findings pertaining to this research question can be summarised as follows.

Regarding speech competence groups, it was found that the advanced competence level learners outperformed the intermediate competence level learners in terms of speech competence and speech performance at $p < .05$ significant level. The two levels of CSL learners were also cognitively (age), affectively (anxiety and WTC) and socio-culturally (L2 cultural interest and attitudes towards L2 classes) different. To be more specific, the intermediate competence level CSL learners, compared with their advanced competence level counterparts, were younger in age, more anxious and less enthusiastic in speaking, and less positive towards Chinese culture and the Chinese classes they attended. The effect sizes of these factors, however, were small.

Regarding speech performance groups, it was also found that the advanced performance level learners outperformed the intermediate performance level

learners in terms of speech competence and speech performance at $p < .05$ significant level. The two levels of CSL learners were also cognitively (processing speed and kinaesthetic/tactile) and socio-culturally (L2 cultural interest and attitudes towards L2 classes) different. To be more specific, the intermediate performance level CSL learners, compared with their advanced performance level counterparts, were slower in cognitive processing, less kinaesthetic/tactile oriented, and less positive towards Chinese culture and their classes. The effect sizes of these factors, however, were also small.

6.6 Quantitative Findings for Research Question 3

The third question of this study was “what are the relationships between cognitive factors and CSL learners’ speech competence and performance?” In order to answer this question, a descriptive analysis, including means and standard deviations, was used to capture the general cognitive features of different groups of CSL learners: the intermediate competence group, the advanced competence group, the intermediate performance group, and the advanced performance group. Afterwards, bivariate correlations were performed in order to explore the relationships between cognitive factors and speech competence and speech performance, respectively. Although correlations predict the possibilities of cause-and-effect relationships, they cannot prove them, therefore, multiple regressions are taken afterwards to explore the causal relationships between the cognitive factors and CSL learners’ speech competence and performance, respectively.

6.6.1 Results of the General Cognitive Features of CSL Learners

Table 6.7 provides us with a general summary of the different groups of CSL learners’ cognitive features. In terms of age, it was not surprising to see that either the advanced competence group or the advanced performance group learners were older than their counterparts. In terms of learning style, it can be seen that both the advanced competence group and the advanced performance group learners were more in favour of using auditory/visual, kinaesthetic/tactile, and individual styles, and less in favour of group style, compared with their

counterparts. In terms of speaking strategies, it was found that the advanced performance group learners were more eager to use assistance strategy and native-like and involvement strategy. The other groups, however, showed relatively equal preference towards all the speaking strategies. Another point worth noticing was that the intermediate competence group learners were enthusiastic in utilising all of the three different speaking strategies. In terms of processing speed, it was be found that the advanced performance group had the absolute advantage in the speed of information processing.

Table 6.7

Descriptive Statistics of the General Cognitive Features of the CSL Learners

Factor	Intermediate competence group (N = 61)		Advanced competence group (N = 57)		Intermediate performance group (N = 67)		Advanced performance group (N = 51)	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Age	21.42	.32	23.24	.58	22.02	.44	22.80	.52
Auditory/visual	3.51	.58	3.54	.57	3.47	.59	3.59	.56
Kinaesthetic/tactile	3.64	.62	3.72	.68	3.57	.61	3.83	.67
Group	2.76	.61	2.74	.64	2.78	.62	2.71	.63
Individual	3.24	.61	3.26	.64	3.22	.62	3.29	.63
EPS	3.66	.69	3.53	.89	3.62	.68	3.57	.92
NIS	3.72	.58	3.62	.65	3.65	.65	3.70	.58
AS	3.72	.71	3.68	.60	3.61	.71	3.81	.56
Processing speed	2.30	.91	2.41	.99	2.53	.89	2.13	.99

Note. EPS = expression practice strategy, NIS = native-like and involvement strategy, and AS = assistance strategy.

Regardless of the differences, some common features of the CSL learners can be drawn from Table 6.7. For example, all the CSL learners preferred the kinaesthetic/tactile learning style and they all disliked the group learning style the most. In addition, expression practice strategy was the CSL learners' least favoured speaking strategy.

6.6.2 Results of the Relationships Between Cognitive Factors and CSL Speech Competence

Regarding the correlations between the cognitive factors and CSL learners' speech competence, the results indicated that age was the only factor that was positively correlated with speech competence at a statistical significant level (see Table 6.8). Other positively correlated but statistically non-significant factors were auditory/visual learning style, individual learning style, assistance strategy, and processing speed, while factors such as kinaesthetic/tactile learning style, group learning style, expression practice strategy, and native-like and involvement strategy were negatively correlated with speech competence.

Table 6.8

Correlations Between the Cognitive Factors and Speech Competence

		Age	A/V	K/T	Group	Individual	EPS	NIS	AS	Processing Speed
	N	117	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118
Speech Competence	Pearson Correlation	.249**	.075	-.003	-.077	.131	-.014	-.092	.039	.090
	Sig.	.007	.420	.971	.406	.157	.882	.322	.677	.332
	N	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118

Note. **. Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed), A/V = auditory/visual, K/T = kinaesthetic/tactile, EPS = expression practice strategy, NIS = native-like and involvement strategy, and AS = assistance strategy.

Regarding the causal relationships, a multiple regression with the stepwise method was conducted to explore the causality between the cognitive factors and speech competence. The results indicated that age was the only factor that could explain a significant amount of the variation in the dependent variable with $F(1,116) = 9.177$, $R^2 = .066$, and $p < .05$. In other words, age was a statistically moderate predictor for learners' speech competence with the stepwise method of regression. However, age simply accounted for 6.6% (see Table 6.9) of the variation of speech competence.

Table 6.9

Predictors for CSL Speech Competence

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.272 ^a	.074	.066	.485

a. Predictors: age

According to the coefficients between cognitive factors and CSL speech competence, the next largest t value was for the individual learning style, but its p value was slightly larger than .05 (see Table 6.10). In other words, individual learning style could probably be another factor that differentiates learners' speech competence. However, this was not supported statistically.

Table 6.10

Coefficients^a Between Cognitive Factors and CSL Speech Competence

Model		Coefficients Beta	t	Sig.
1	Age	.272	3.029	.003
Residuals	Auditory/visual	.110	1.186	.238
	Kinaesthetic/tactile	.068	.728	.468
	Group	-.087	-.932	.353
	Individual	.175	1.893	.061
	EPS	-.071	-.765	.446
	NIS	-.030	-.323	.747
	AS	.006	.066	.947
	Processing speed	.070	.744	.458

a. Dependent variable: speech competence

Note. EPS = expression practice strategy, NIS = native-like and involvement strategy, and AS = assistance strategy.

6.6.3 Results of the Relationships Between Cognitive Factors and CSL Speech Performance

Regarding the correlations between the cognitive factors and CSL learners' speech performance, the results indicated that kinaesthetic/tactile learning style and processing speed were the two factors significantly correlated with speech performance at the $p < .05$ level. To be more specific, kinaesthetic/tactile was positively correlated with speech performance, while processing speed was in a

negative correlation with speech performance (see Table 6.11). Other positively correlated but statistically non-significant factors included age, auditory/visual learning style, group learning style, individual learning style, native-like and involvement strategy, and assistance strategy. Surprisingly, expression practice strategy was negatively correlated with speech performance, though it was not statistically identified as a significant factor.

Table 6.11

Correlations Between the Cognitive Factors and Speech Performance

		Age	A/V	K/T	Group	Individual	EPS	NIS	AS	Processing Speed
N		118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118
Speech Performance	Pearson Correlation	.100	.104	.235*	.073	.109	-.059	.044	.103	-.230*
	Sig.	.279	.263	.010	.431	.242	.522	.637	.266	.012
	N	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	118

*. Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

Regarding the causal relationships, a multiple regression with the stepwise method was conducted to explore the causality between the cognitive factors and speech performance. The results indicated that two models could be used to account for the variations of speech performance. By observing the p values in Table 6.12 we can tell that for Modal 1 kinaesthetic/tactile was significantly correlated with speech performance ($p < .05$). However, with Model 2 both kinaesthetic/tactile and processing speed were found to be significant predictors ($p < .05$). On this occasion, we decided to use Model 2 because it accounted for more of the variance of speech performance with $R^2 = .07$ (see Table 6.13). In addition, $R^2 = .07$ suggested a medium effect size or predictability of kinaesthetic/tactile and processing speed.

Table 6.12

Coefficients^a of Different Predictive Models of Speech Performance

Model		Unstandardized		Standardized	t	Sig.
		Coefficients		Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.850	.249		3.418	.001
	Kinaesthetic/tactile	.153	.064	.218	2.393	.018
2	(Constant)	1.125	.275		4.094	.000
	Kinaesthetic/tactile	.145	.063	.206	2.297	.023
	Processing speed	-.103	.047	-.197	-2.197	.030

a. Dependent variable: speech performance

Table 6.13

Predictors for CSL Speech Performance

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.218 ^a	.047	.039	.4882
2	.293 ^b	.086	.070	.4802

a. Predictors: kinaesthetic/tactile

b. Predictors: kinaesthetic/tactile, processing speed

6.6.4 Summary of Findings

The above quantitative findings pertain to the third research question of this study: What are the relationships between cognitive factors (i.e., learning style, speaking strategy, processing speed, and age) and CSL learners' speech competence and performance? The results can be summarised as follows.

Regarding the general cognitive features of the CSL learners, it appeared that both the advanced competence group and the advanced performance group learners were more active in taking advantage of different learning styles compared with their counterparts, with the exception of the group learning style. As for the speaking strategies, the intermediate competence group learners were more in favour of using all three types of strategies compared with the advanced competence group learners, while the intermediate performance group learners were much less in favour of speaking strategies than their advanced performance counterparts, except for the expression practice strategy. In terms of the average

age, the four groups of CSL learners were close to each other, particularly between the intermediate speech performance and the advanced speech performance groups. As for the processing speed, it could be noted that the advanced performance group spent the least amount of time on task planning before speech production.

Regarding the relationships between cognitive factors and CSL learners' speech competence, it was found that age was the only predictive factor (the older the learners, the better their speech competence) but with only 6.6% explanation for the variation of the learners' speech competence. The Pearson R^2 (.066) indicated a medium effect size. Apart from that, the individual learning style could be another important predictive factor as its p value was close to .05.

Regarding the relationships between cognitive factors and CSL learners' speech performance, two predictors emerged from the linear regression analysis: kinaesthetic/tactile and processing speed. The two predictive factors accounted for 7% of the variation of the learners' speech performance with Pearson $R^2 = .07$ suggesting a medium effect size.

6.7 Quantitative Findings for Research Question 4

The fourth question of this study was “what are the relationships between affective factors and CSL learners' speech competence and performance?” Following the same analytic route of Research Question 3, descriptive analysis, bivariate correlations, and multiple regressions with the stepwise method were performed to examine the relationships between the affective factors (i.e., motivation, anxiety, speaking self-efficacy, and WTC) and CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance, respectively.

6.7.1 Results of the General Affective Features of CSL Learners

Table 6.14 provides us with a general summary of the different groups of CSL learners' affective features. It could be noted that the advanced level CSL learners either in the group of speech competence or speech performance were more

motivated, more confident, and more willing to communicate, while the intermediate level CSL learners either in speech competence or speech performance groups were more anxious in terms of CSL speaking. One notable point was that the advanced competence group CSL learners were the most willing in terms of communication, even stronger than the advanced performance group learners.

Table 6.14

Descriptive Statistics of the General Affective Features of the CSL Learners

Factor (<i>N</i> of items)	Intermediate competence group (<i>N</i> = 61)		Advanced competence group (<i>N</i> = 57)		Intermediate performance group (<i>N</i> = 67)		Advanced performance group (<i>N</i> = 51)	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Motivation	4.15	.09	4.23	.09	4.15	.09	4.24	.09
Anxiety	2.99	.12	2.54	.12	2.92	.11	2.57	.14
Speaking self-efficacy	4.23	.10	4.37	.08	4.19	.10	4.44	.08
WTC	3.59	.10	3.90	.11	3.69	.10	3.80	.12

Note. WTC = willingness to communicate

6.7.2 Results of the Relationships Between Affective Factors and CSL Speech Competence

Regarding the correlations between affective factors and CSL learners' speech competence, the results showed that anxiety and WTC were two factors that significantly correlated with speech competence at the $p < .01$ level. It can be seen from Table 6.15 that anxiety was in a negative correlation with speech competence, while WTC was positively correlated with speech competence. Motivation and speaking self-efficacy were positively correlated with speech competence but did not reach statistical significance.

Table 6.15

Correlations Between the Affective Factors and Speech Competence

		Speaking Self-			
		Motivation	Anxiety	efficacy	WTC
Competence	Pearson Correlation	.056	-.277**	.093	.262**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.546	.002	.316	.004
	N	118	118	118	118

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Regarding the causal relationships, a multiple linear regression with the stepwise method was used for analysis. Two models were generated to explain the learners' CSL speech competence (see Table 6.16). By observing the R square values in Table 6.13, it could be found that Model 2 accounted for more of the variance of speech competence compared with Model 1. Therefore, Model 2 should be adopted to predict learners' speech competence. From Model 2 we can see that anxiety and WTC together accounted for 9.8% of the variability of the scores of speech competence. In addition, $R^2 = .098$ suggested a medium effect size or predictability of anxiety and WTC for learners' CSL speech competence.

Table 6.16

Model Summary for CSL Learners' Speech Competence

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.277 ^a	.077	.069	3.943
2	.336 ^b	.113	.098	3.881

a. Predictors: anxiety

b. Predictors: anxiety, WTC

The standardized beta coefficient in Table 6.16 informs us the contribution that each factor made to the model. By observing the p values in Model 2, both anxiety ($p < .05$) and WTC ($p < .05$) were found to be significant predictors. Specifically, t tests suggested that anxiety was in a negative correlation with speech competence, while WTC was positively correlated with speech competence (see Table 6.17).

Table 6.17

Coefficients^a of Different Predictive Models of Speech Competence

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	27.143	1.108		24.506	.000
	Anxiety	-1.176	.378	-.277	-3.109	.002
2	(Constant)	22.776	2.289		9.952	.000
	Anxiety	-.933	.389	-.220	-2.401	.018
	WTC	.988	.456	.199	2.170	.032

a. Dependent variable: speech competence

6.7.3 Results of the Relationships Between Affective Factors and CSL Speech Performance

Regarding the correlations between affective factors and CSL learners' speech performance, the results showed that anxiety was in a significant negative correlation with speech performance at the $p < .01$ level (Table 6.18). Motivation, speaking self-efficacy, and WTC were positively correlated with speech competence but did not reach statistical significance.

Table 6.18

Correlations Between the Affective Factors and Speech Performance

		Motivation	Anxiety	Speaking Self- efficacy	WTC
Competence	Pearson Correlation	.056	-.242**	.158	.106
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.546	.008	.087	.254
	N	118	118	118	118

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Regarding the causal relationships between affective factors and CSL speech performance, the result from a multiple linear regression with the stepwise method showed that anxiety was the only significant predictor, which accounted for 5.1% of the variability of the scores of speech performance (see Table 6.17). However, it was implied that anxiety had small power in predicting speech performance with its $R^2 = .051$, which is lower than the benchmark of .06 for the medium effect size or the medium power. The results of t tests suggested that

anxiety was in a negative correlation with speech performance (see Table 6.18), which supported the result of the bivariate correlation analysis.

Table 6.19

Model Summary for *CSL Learners' Speech Performance*

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.242 ^a	.059	.051	1.954

a. Predictors: (Constant), Anxiety

Table 6.20

Coefficients^a of Different Predictive Models of Speech Performance

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	
1	(Constant)	21.083	.549		38.409	.000
	Anxiety	-.504	.187	-.242	-2.689	.008

a. Dependent variable: speech performance

6.7.4 Summary of Findings

The fourth question of this study investigated the relationships between affective factors (i.e., motivation, anxiety, speaking self-efficacy, and WTC) and CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance. The quantitative findings pertaining to this research question can be summarised as follows.

Regarding the general affective features of the CSL learners, it was found that both the advanced speech competence and the advanced speech performance groups of learners scored higher in terms of motivation, speaking self-efficacy, and WTC, while scoring lower in anxiety. In other words, learners' speech competence and speech performance were positively correlated with motivation, speaking self-efficacy, and WTC, but negatively correlated with anxiety.

Regarding the relationships between affective factors and CSL speech competence, it was found that anxiety (negative correlation) and WTC (positive correlation) were the two significant predictors for CSL learners' speech

competence with 9.8% accountability (predictability) in total or a medium effect size.

Regarding the relationships between affective factors and CSL speech performance, anxiety was the only predictor found to be in a significant negative correlation with CSL learners' speech performance with 5.1% accountability (predictability) or a small effect size.

6.8 Quantitative Findings for Research Question 5

The fifth question of this study was “what are the relationships between socio-cultural factors and CSL learners' speech competence and performance?” In order to answer this question, a descriptive analysis, including means and standard deviations, was taken to capture the general socio-cultural features of different groups of CSL learners including the intermediate competence group, the advanced competence group, the intermediate performance group and the advanced performance group. Multiple regressions with the stepwise method were used to explore the causal relationships between the cognitive factors (i.e., L2 cultural interest, attitudes towards L2 communities, and attitudes towards L2 classes) and CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance, respectively.

6.8.1 Results of the General Socio-Cultural Features of CSL Learners

From Table 6.21, we can see that the four groups of learners' attitudes towards Chinese culture, Chinese communities and Chinese classes were all positive. The advanced performance group learners' attitudes were most positive, with the advanced competence group following closely behind. The attitudes of the intermediate competence group and the intermediate performance group were approximately the same, despite the fact that the intermediate competence group's attitudes were slightly more positive.

Table 6.21

Descriptive Statistics of the General Socio-Cultural Features of the CSL Learners

Factor (<i>N</i> of items)	Intermediate competence group (<i>N</i> = 61)		Advanced competence group (<i>N</i> = 57)		Intermediate performance group (<i>N</i> = 67)		Advanced performance group (<i>N</i> = 51)	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
L2 cultural interest	3.65	.09	3.98	.10	3.65	.09	4.02	.10
Attitudes towards L2 communities	4.01	.08	4.05	.09	3.96	.08	4.12	.09
Attitudes towards L2 classes	3.81	.10	4.10	.10	3.79	.09	4.16	.10

6.8.2 Results of the Relationships Between Socio-Cultural Factors and CSL Speech Competence

Regarding the linear relationship between socio-cultural factors and CSL learners' speech competence, the results of the stepwise method of regression indicated that L2 cultural interest was the only factor that could explain a significant amount of the variation of speech competence. L2 cultural interest, however, only accounted for 3.9% of the dependent variable (speech competence) with a small effect size ($R^2 = .039$). As a significant predictor, L2 cultural interest was in a positive correlation with speech competence with $t = 2.40$ and $p = .018$. Although the other two factors were not in a significant correlation with speech competence statistically, attitudes towards L2 communities ($t = -.673$) and attitudes towards L2 classes ($t = 1.422$) were negatively and positively correlated with speech competence, respectively.

6.8.3 Results of the Relationships Between Socio-Cultural Factors and CSL Speech Performance

Regarding the linear relationship between the socio-cultural factors and CSL learners' speech performance, the results of the stepwise method of regression indicated that attitudes towards L2 classes was the only factor that could explain a significant amount (5.2%) of the variation of speech performance with a small effect size ($R^2 = .052$). As a significant predictor, attitudes towards L2 classes was in a positive correlation with speech performance ($t = 2.73$, $p = .007$).

Although the other two factors were not in a significant correlation with speech competence statistically, L2 cultural interest ($t = 1.918$) and attitudes towards L2 communities ($t = .07$) were both positively correlated with speech performance. What is worth noticing is that the p value of L2 cultural interest ($p = .058$) was quite close to $p < .05$ significance level.

6.8.4 Summary of Findings

The fifth question of this study investigated the relationships between socio-cultural factors (i.e., L2 cultural interest, attitudes towards L2 communities, and attitudes towards L2 classes) and CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance. The quantitative findings pertaining to this research question can be summarised as follows.

Regarding the general socio-cultural features of the CSL learners, it was found that all four types of learners were quite positive in terms of L2 cultural interest, attitudes towards L2 communities, and attitudes towards L2 classes. Generally speaking, the higher the learners' language proficiency, the stronger their attitude towards Chinese culture, community and class. However, this does not necessarily mean that learners are statistically significant in terms of these socio-cultural attitudes.

Regarding the linear relationship between the socio-cultural factors and CSL learners' speech competence, it was found that L2 cultural interest, as the only predictive factor with 3.9% accountability (predictability) or a small effect size, was in a positive correlation with speech competence.

Regarding the linear relationship between the socio-cultural factors and CSL learners' speech performance, it was found that attitudes towards L2 classes, as the only predictive factor with 5.2% accountability (predictability) or a small effect size, was in a positive correlation with speech performance. Although L2 cultural interest was not a statistically significant factor, its p value (.058) was close to $p < .05$.

6.9 Discussion of Findings

6.9.1 Relationship Between Speech Competence and Speech Performance

The quantitative analysis of the first question reveals that the relationship between speech competence and speech performance is not just a simple positive linear relationship. Generally speaking, it could be claimed that good speech competence predicts good speech performance, and vice versa. Although performance is the constrained actualisation of competence, it “is still the exact rendering of the competence and vice-versa” (Decoo, 2011, p. 160).

However, this rule of thumb that competence and performance are positively correlated, may not be applicable in every context. On the one hand, if we divide learners into two groups according to their performance scores in this study, we are not able to find a significant correlation between each group’s speech competence and speech performance from a statistical perspective. One possible reason could be the different nature of speech competence and speech performance. The nature of speech competence is more implicit. It refers to learners’ grammatical and pragmatic knowledge about how to use a language accurately and appropriately in various situations, thus their speech competence could remain relatively stable. The nature of speech performance, in contrast, is more explicit. It is the actual production of a language in real situations, thus learners’ speech performance may fluctuate under the influence of different situational factors such as anxiety and communicative willingness. Given the different natures of speech competence and speech performance, we should be cautious when we use speech performance to predict learners’ speech competence. Such a statement is evidenced by the findings of Research Question 1 that good speech performance does not necessarily mean good speech competence.

On the other hand, if we divide learners according to their competence scores into two groups and analyse the relationship between the speech competence and speech performance of each group, we may find that there is a moderate statistical correlation between speech competence and speech performance in the advanced

competence group. Such a correlation, however, cannot be found in the intermediate competence group. Why it is inappropriate to infer the intermediate level learners' speech competence from their speech performance and vice-versa? The reason could be that the intermediate level learners may be more easily subject to factors such as anxiety, speaking self-efficacy, and L2 WTC, compared with their advanced level counterparts.

According to MacIntyre et al. (1998), WTC is learners' behavioural intention of communication indicating their extent of readiness to be involved in using an L2. As evident in the literature (see Section 2.3.3 for details), factors, such as anxiety, communication confidence, and attitude toward the international community, could determine learners' L2 WTC (Ghonsooly et al., 2012; Peng & Woodrow, 2010; Yashima, 2002; Yashima et al., 2004). Intermediate level CSL learners whose speech competence may be less developed than their advanced counterparts, may be less ready to take part in L2 communicative situations. Consequently, the intermediate CSL learners' speech performance could be more unstable and unpredictable.

Age difference could be another possible cause of the nonlinear relationship between speech competence and speech performance. From Tables 6.3 and 6.4, it can be noted that there is a two-year average age gap between the intermediate speech competence group and the advanced speech competence group. However, there is not much age difference between the intermediate speech performance group and the advanced speech performance group. This implies that the older the learners are, the longer they may have stayed in China. The longer their sojourn in China, the more opportunities the learners might have had for developing their speech competence and speech performance. Therefore, it is not surprising to find that there is a moderate statistical correlation between speech competence and speech performance in the advanced competence group while not in other groups such as the intermediate performance group and the advanced performance group.

To sum up, we should be cautious when predicting a learner's speech competence and speech performance. Generally, good speech competence means good speech performance, because speech competence is the foundation and reflection of

speech performance. However, this does not apply the other way around. The findings suggest that speech competence in prediction of speech performance could be applied to the advanced CSL learners in particular, but not for the intermediate CSL learners, either of the intermediate competence level or the intermediate performance level. In short, when learners are at an intermediate level, we should be careful in predicting their speech competence or speech performance.

6.9.2 Differences Between the Intermediate and the Advanced CSL Learners

The quantitative findings of the second question suggest that the intermediate level and the advanced level CSL learners are different not only in terms of speech competence and speech performance but also in terms of cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural aspects. The differences in the three above aspects might be the reasons why the two levels of CSL learners are significantly different in terms of their speech competence and speech performance.

Divided according to speech competence, the intermediate competence level and advanced competence level CSL learners are found to be statistically different in terms of cognitive (age), affective (anxiety and WTC) and socio-cultural (L2 cultural interest and attitudes towards L2 classes) factors. To be more specific, the results suggest that the advanced competence level CSL learners who outperform the intermediate competence level CSL learners, both in terms of speech competence and speech performance, are relatively older, less anxious and more enthusiastic about speaking, and more positive towards Chinese culture and their L2 Chinese classes.

It is not surprising, in the context of university, that the older the learners are, the longer their learning experiences have been. Therefore, these older CSL learners may have had more years of CSL learning experience, which could contribute to their speech competence and speech performance development. This may explain why the advanced competence level CSL learners are generally older in terms of age. Such a finding echoes Papi and Teimouri's (2012) claim that age and L2 learning experience are in a positive relationship. The finding also to some extent

supports Dörnyei's (2009) L2 motivational self system and Segalowitz's (2010) L2 speech production model. On the one hand, L2 learning experience, as one of the three components of the L2 motivational self system, could exert a motivational impact on L2 learning (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009), because learners' intended learning effort and outcome are mostly due to their L2 learning experience (Islam et al., 2013, Lamb, 2012). On the other hand, social context, according to Segalowitz's (2010) L2 speech production model, is one of the major factors contributing to L2 speech production. For learners in university contexts, their immediate classroom learning environment often serves as one of their main social and communicative contexts. This is particularly true in the CSL context where classroom teaching is social and communication focused under the guidance of seven teaching principles proposed by Hanban (see Section 1.4.3 for review). Learners' attitudes towards such a context, therefore, could be a result of their L2 learning experience in classroom contexts. Consequently, the older learners who are relatively more experienced in terms of L2 learning would benefit more from such a classroom-based social context. This in turn contributes to their speech competence and speech performance progress.

In terms of affective factors, much research (e.g., Alemi et al., 2011; Mahmoodzadeh, 2012; Onwuegbuzie et al., 2000; Scovel, 1978; Yousefi & Kasaian, 2014) has proven that anxiety and WTC are influential factors in L2 speaking. It is suggested that learners who are better at speaking are normally less anxious and want to communicate more (e.g., Alemi et al., 2011; Dewaele, et al., 2008). This probably explains why the intermediate competence level and the advanced competence level CSL learners are significantly different in terms of anxiety and WTC. Such findings not only lend evidence to Krashen's (1982) affective filter hypothesis that filters such as anxiety could hinder learners' language competence development, but also partially support MacIntyre et al.'s (1998) L2 WTC model that WTC has a direct impact on L2 use. Consequently, different frequencies of L2 use may lead to different outcomes of learners' speech competence.

Findings also reveal that a positive attitude, as a mediator of language learning (e.g., Wesely, 2012), could contribute to learners' speech competence

development. As Toonmnan and Intaraprasert (2015) point out, students who are positive towards speaking (English) employ significantly more communicative strategies to deal with communication breakdowns. As a result, learners' speech production skills (speech competence) improve through their utilisation of communicative strategies. In addition, Dörnyei (2005) and Segalowitz (2010) point out that learning experience originating from social contexts could have direct relevance on learners' language operation system. It is, therefore, of great importance to create an engaging social context either inside or outside the classroom to foster a positive attitude towards L2 use, particularly towards speaking, among learners. Consequently, the seven student-centred CSL teaching principles proposed by Hanban could be optimised (see Section 1.4.3 for review).

Divided according to speech performance, the intermediate performance level and the advanced performance level CSL learners are found to be statistically different in terms of cognitive (processing speed and kinaesthetic/tactile) and socio-cultural (L2 cultural interest and attitudes towards L2 classes) factors. To be more specific, the results suggest that the advanced performance level CSL learners who outperform the intermediate performance level CSL learners, both in terms of speech competence and speech performance, are relatively faster in organising/planning their speech, more kinaesthetic/tactile oriented, and more positive towards Chinese culture and their L2 Chinese classes.

In terms of processing speed, it is understandable that learners who have stronger CSL speech performance ability take less time to plan their L2 Chinese speaking. Such a finding lends evidence to de Bot's (1992) argument that the level of language proficiency largely determines learners' automaticity of articulation. The finding also partially supports Segalowitz's (2010) L2 speech production model which states that learners' cognitive perceptual processing systems have a direct impact on their L2 speech production (speech performance). To be more specific, such a cognitive system (characterised by cognitive fluency or processing efficiency) determines learners' L2 speech performance (characterised by utterance fluency). However, the finding does not support Ellis's (2005) claim that giving learners' "the opportunity for both pre-task planning and unpressured within-task planning" could lead to the maximum outcome of performance (p. 5).

In terms of learning style, it is surprising to note that the advanced performance level learners' learning style is more kinaesthetic/tactile oriented than group oriented, because group learning is often regarded as an efficient way of contributing to learners' mastery of a language, specifically speaking. Nevertheless, the finding supports the literature that learners prefer kinaesthetic and tactile learning style (e.g., Naserieh & Anani Sarab, 2013; Peacock, 2001; Reid, 1987). The advantage of group learning style, however, should not be underestimated. A lack of significance detected between the two groups only means that they hold relatively similar opinions towards group learning. In brief, the statistical difference between the two levels in terms of kinaesthetic/tactile learning style not only implies that learners have different preferences but also that kinaesthetic/tactile learning possibly contributes to their speech performance development.

Findings also imply that a positive socio-cultural attitude, namely, L2 cultural interest and attitudes towards L2 classes, could be beneficial to learners' speech performance. Such findings lend weight to MacIntyre et al.'s (1998) L2 WTC model in which social contexts enable learners to use an L2 to engage with native speakers, which in turn helps foster learners' positive intergroup attitudes and reinforce their communicative competence. As a result, the strengthened positive attitudes and competence could boost learners' WTC, which in turn builds up their speech performance.

To sum up, the intermediate and the advanced CSL learners are cognitively, affectively, and socio-culturally different. Specific attention should be paid to factors such as age, anxiety, WTC, L2 cultural interest, and attitudes towards L2 classes, for improving learners' speech competence, while processing speed, kinaesthetic/tactile, L2 cultural interest, and attitudes towards L2 classes improves speech performance.

6.9.3 Influences of Cognitive Factors on the Intermediate and the Advanced CSL Learners' Speech Competence and Speech Performance

The quantitative findings of the third question reveal that certain cognitive related factors could differentiate the intermediate level and the advanced level CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance, respectively.

In terms of speech competence, it is found that age is the only statistically significant predictor with a medium effect size. The result seems reasonable considering the length of the learners' access to CSL learning. As we know, the relatively older learners are postgraduates while the relatively younger learners are undergraduates. It is not surprising to hypothesise, based on our participants, that the older the learners the longer CSL learning experience they have had. The hypothesis can be proved by participants' self-reported age and CSL learning length in this study (see Table 5.6). Consequently, the longer learning experience, the better speech competence. Such a finding not only confirms the earlier discussion regarding the possible important influence of CSL learning experience on learners' speech competence progress, but also endorses the two theoretical frameworks, namely, L2 motivational self system and L2 speech proposed by Dörnyei (2009) and Segalowitz (2010), respectively (see Section 6.9.2 for details).

According to Schauer (2006), "the longer exposure to the L2 provides learners with more opportunities to observe and notice native speakers perform pragmatic acts" (pp. 138-139). Therefore, learners who have the most frequent exposure to L2 would have the strongest L2 pragmatic awareness and L2 knowledge, in other words, speech competence. As Armon-Lotem, Joffe, Abutbul-Oz, Altman, and Walters (2014) point out, there is a positive relationship between the length of exposure and L2 competence. They claim that the longer the exposure to an L2, the better the command of the L2 language (competence) will be, irrespective of communication apprehension (anxiety). Therefore, CSL learners should understand the importance of their L2 learning experience or social context on the development and reinforcement of their speech competence.

Although the rest of the cognitive factors are not statistically detected as significant predictors, some factors are still worth noticing. For example, the individual learning style, as the CSL learners' least favourite learning style, is found to have the strongest correlation with learners' speech competence compared with the other learning styles. One possible reason could be that individual learning provides learners with a learning context which is less anxiety provoking and threatening (M. Chu & Nakamura, 2010). Under such a learning environment, the time and effort devoted to individual learning would be in direct proportion with students' learning outcomes (speech competence). However, learners might find it difficult to be persistent in individual learning, as such learning requires strong self-regulation (Schmitz & Wiese, 2006). Being self-regulated learners, therefore, may be the real factor contributing to learners' development of speech competence.

Other factors such as kinaesthetic/tactile learning style, group learning style, expression practice strategy, and native-like and involvement strategy are found to be in negative relationships with speech competence, although such negative relationships are not statistically significant. To be more specific, if learners were better in speech competence, their learning style would probably be less kinaesthetic/tactile and group oriented. In addition, they would be less likely to take advantage of the expression practice strategy and the native-like and involvement strategy to improve their speaking. One possible reason could be that the advanced speech competence learners might hold their self-perceived speech performance in high regards. As a result, they would more likely overlook the social interactional group learning, and be less likely to use the expression practice strategy and the native-like and involvement strategies. The intermediate speech competence learners, in contrast, may have a stronger desire to improve their speech competence and be more likely to take advantage of every possible way to enhance their speech competence. Thus, it will not be surprising to find that the four factors (kinaesthetic/tactile, group, expression practice strategy, and native-like and involvement strategy) and speech competence are negatively correlated, although they do not reach $p < .05$ level.

In terms of speech performance, it has been noticed that kinaesthetic/tactile learning style and processing speed are the two significant predictors. As kinaesthetic/tactile style people learn best by doing, moving, and touching, they favour interaction with the physical world or social interactive learning. In other words, kinaesthetic/tactile is a socially mediated learning style. Learners with this style may, therefore, seek more opportunities to practise their Chinese by experiencing the real Chinese context compared with the auditory/visual, group, or individual learning style learners. As a result, their speech performance may become superior to that of their counterparts who are in favour of other learning styles. This echoes I. Jung, Choi, Lim, and Leem's (2002) finding that social interaction compared with academic interaction and collaborative interaction contributed more to students' learning achievement. The socially mediating feature of kinaesthetic/tactile learning style also supports Segalowitz's (2010) L2 speech production model that an interactive and communicative social context could have a direct impact on learners' L2 speech production.

Processing speed as a measurement of learners' cognitive fluency or automaticity (see Section 2.2.6) or their pre-task planning ability (see Section 4.2.1) was in a significant negative correlation with speech performance. In other words, the faster processing speed (cognitive fluency) learners have, the better speech performance they achieve. According to the speech production models of Levelt (1989) and de Bot (1992), certain stages will occur before the actual articulation or speech performance, such as stages of processing, parsing, conceptualising, and formulating (see Section 2.5.1 for review). All these cognitive pre-articulation stages take time to execute before the actual articulation. It is generally believed that less preparation time means being more cognitively fluent, and thus more automatic. As Segalowitz and Hulstijn (2005) pointed out, automaticity plays a significant role in distinguishing fluent or non-fluent abilities. Therefore, it is not surprising to find that processing speed is a significant predictor for speech performance in this study. Such a finding also corroborates Segalowitz's (2010) L2 speech production model that learners' L2 speech production is directly subject to their cognitive perceptual processing systems (processing efficiency). However, such a finding contradicts the literature that pre-task planning (measured by pre-task preparation time length, namely,

processing speed in this study) is positively correlated with the quality and quantity of oral production (see Section 4.2.1 for details). The possible reason could be that the participants are from two proficiency levels. Their ability for pre-task planning could be significantly different from each other. It is reasonable to hypothesise that the advanced CSL learners could have a greater ability to plan tasks and therefore use less preparation time.

What is of particular interest regarding the findings in relation to the cognitive dimension is that none of the three types of speaking strategies is found to be statistically significantly correlated with learners' speech performance. One possible reason might be that speaking strategies, like other language learning strategies, need learners' conscious use irrespective of how beneficial the strategies may be. This echoes Panzachi Heredia and Luchini's (2015) finding that the conscious use of different learning strategies may account for success in becoming a competent language learner. In line with the above argument, Nakatani (2005) examined the effects of awareness-raising training on oral communication strategy use. His study revealed that learners' oral proficiency was significantly improved with their increased awareness of using communication strategies. Nevertheless, strengthening students' awareness of speaking strategy use may not be enough. Students need to learn how to make best use of these speaking strategies so that they can better understand the benefits of such strategies to improve their speech performance.

To sum up, findings pertaining to the cognitive dimension in this study reveal that age could predict CSL learners' speech competence with a medium effect size, while kinaesthetic/tactile learning style and processing speed could predict CSL learners' speech performance with a medium effect size. Such findings indirectly support Dörnyei's (2009) L2 motivational self system that L2 learning experience (which could be reflected through age and learning style in this study) could influence learners' motivation in L2 learning and consequently their learning outcomes (or speech competence in this study). These findings also confirm Segalowitz's (2010) L2 speech production model that cognitive perceptual processing systems (or process speed in this study) could directly impact learners' L2 speech production (speech performance).

6.9.4 Influences of Affective Factors on the Intermediate and the Advanced CSL Learners' Speech Competence and Speech Performance

The quantitative findings of the fourth question suggest that anxiety is the major reason causing the disparities between the intermediate level and the advanced level CSL learners both in terms of their speech competence and speech performance. In addition to anxiety, WTC is another important factor that could result in different outcomes of CSL learners' speech competence but not in terms of their speech performance.

In terms of speech competence, anxiety is found to be a significant predictor. It is suggested that the more anxious the CSL learners are, the worse their speech competence is. This finding supports the result of a large body of research that anxiety exerts detrimental effects on foreign language learning (Tran & Moni, 2015). This detrimental anxiety, from the function perspective, echoes Scovel's (1978) construct of debilitating anxiety. Learners with high levels of such anxiety may become less receptive to L2 input (Krashen, 1985). Consequently, this may impede the learners' L2 learning process and the development of their speech competence, thus their speech competence outcome.

In addition to anxiety, WTC is another significant predictor for learners' speech competence. It is suggested that the more willing to communicate people are, the better their speech competence will be. This finding lends evidence to the literature that higher levels of WTC could result in higher achievement, such as grades and communicative proficiency (Menezes & Juan-Garau, 2015; Munezane, 2015). One possible explanation lies in the fact that higher levels of WTC will lead to more frequent use of an L2 (Baker & MacIntyre, 2003), thus contributing to the development and improvement of speech competence. Such a finding also corroborates Segalowitz's (2010) L2 speech production model. According to this model, motivation to communicate is one of the major contributors to learners' L2 speech production. Although Segalowitz did not distinguish speech competence from speech performance or vice versa, speech competence and speech performance are two sides of the coin. In other words, either speech competence or speech performance can reflect learners' speech

production capacity, as speech competence and speech performance have been found to be positively correlated with each other in general in Question 1 of this study.

In terms of speech performance, anxiety is found to be the only significant negative predictor. This, to some extent, supports M. Liu and Huang's (2011) finding that anxiety as a predictor for students' English performance is negatively correlated with English performance. According to the affective filter hypothesis (Krashen, 1982), learners with high levels of foreign language anxiety may experience a mental block (M. Liu, 2006), which may result in a prompt negative influence on learners' speech performance. Drawing on the findings of anxiety pertaining to speech competence and speech performance, it could be concluded that Krashen's (1982) affective filter hypothesis works not only in the language acquisition stage but also in the stage of language production.

WTC, as an alternative framework to anxiety (Horwitz, 2010), is not found to be a significant predictor of learners' speech performance. In other words, being willing to communicate may not imply better speech performance, although some researchers, such as Yousefi and Kasian (2014), have found a significant positive relationship between WTC and speaking fluency and accuracy. It could be speculated that once the affective filter or mental block was turned on, learners could not only lose control of their speech performance but also their WTC. As a result, the positive effects of WTC on speaking may be devalued when learners are anxious.

Speaking self-efficacy is not found to be a significant predictor of speech performance, although it is highly correlated with speech performance as its p value (.087) is close to $p < .05$. Such a finding indirectly contradicts the literature that there is a causal relationship between (writing) performance and self-efficacy (see Section 4.3.2 for review). To be more specific, self-efficacy could predict (writing) performance.

Surprisingly, motivation is found to be neither a contributing factor nor a correlated factor to CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance

with p values far larger than .05. This contradicts the literature which identifies motivation as a prime factor in predicting learners' learning outcomes or success. For example, Shaikholeslami and Khayyer's study (2006) reveals that intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and amotivation could predict learners' different achievements (see Section 4.3.3 for review). A possible explanation to the contradiction is that motivation in this study is constructed as an integrated macromotivation rather than distinctive microones. As a result, the predictive value of motivation is weakened.

To sum up, findings pertaining to the affective dimension in this study reveal that anxiety and WTC together could predict CSL learners' speech competence with a medium effect size, while anxiety could predict CSL learners' speech performance with an effect size close to medium. Such findings have, to some extent, enriched Krashen's (1982) affective filter hypothesis that affective filters such as anxiety not only work in language acquisition but are also applicable in language production. The findings also lend evidence to MacIntyre et al.'s (1998) L2 WTC model and Segalowitz's (2010) L2 speech production model that WTC or motivation to communicate could directly influence learners' L2 use/production and consequently their L2 use/production capacity.

6.9.5 Influences of Socio-Cultural Factors on the Intermediate and the Advanced CSL Learners' Speech Competence and Speech Performance

The quantitative findings of the fifth question suggest that L2 cultural interest and attitudes towards L2 classes are predictors for learners' speech competence and speech performance, respectively. On the one hand, learners who are more interested in Chinese culture would develop a stronger ability in their speech competence (knowledge about how to speak authentically) rather than their speech performance (actual production of speaking). On the other hand, learners who show preference towards Chinese spoken classes would perform better when speaking. However, this does not necessarily mean that they would possess better speech competence.

The results, at first sight, may look odd, but are still justifiable. L2 cultural interest or attitude towards L2 culture, as a motivational and socio-cultural variable, has an indirect impact on learners' L2 choice and commitment to L2 study (Dörnyei et al., 2006). Learners who are more culturally motivated would probably make more effort to learn Chinese culture. This would contribute to the development of their understanding of Chinese culture and society, which in turn could be beneficial to learners' linguistic and pragmatic knowledge of speaking (speech competence) development. However, such a knowledge accumulation-based development does not imply the development of learners' speech performance, because the speech performance development, different from speech competence, requires learners' constant speech output and practice. Although L2 cultural interest may serve as an impetus for learners to learn the target language culture, it may not motivate learners to seek opportunities to practise their L2 speaking. Thus, learners' speech performance might not be able to be predicted by their L2 cultural interest.

The reason that attitudes towards L2 classes (spoken classes in this study) can predict learners' speech performance rather than their speech competence could be the positive effects of attitudes towards L2 classes on promoting learners' desire to interact and communicate in class, which may result in the development of their speech performance. However, the development of speech performance may not necessarily go hand in hand with the development of speech competence. This is particularly true according to the results of Research Question 1, that speech competence cannot simply predict speech performance and vice versa among the intermediate CSL learners, as the intermediate level learners may be more easily subject to other motivational and affective factors, such as anxiety and speaking self-efficacy.

To sum up, findings pertaining to the socio-cultural dimension in this study reveal that socio-cultural factors such as L2 cultural interest and attitudes towards L2 classes can predict CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance both with a small effect size, respectively. Such findings lend support to MacIntyre et al.'s (1998) L2 WTC model that the social and individual context, as the bottom layer of this model, could contribute to learners' L2 use but only

indirectly. The findings also corroborate Segalowitz's (2010) L2 speech production model suggesting that social context could influence learners' L2 speech production.

CHAPTER SEVEN

QUALITATIVE RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

7.1 Chapter Overview

This chapter presents the results and discussion in line with the five research questions of the present study on the basis of the qualitative data collected and analysed from the focus groups and semi-structured interviews. A total of seven focus groups and 10 semi-structured interviews were conducted in order to explore the research questions from a more in-depth qualitative perspective. Two types of interviews were utilised in order to bring different lines of insights together ensuring that more profound and appropriate understandings of the research questions could be facilitated.

This chapter starts with an introduction to the background information of the participants and to the coding system. The qualitative findings in relation to each research question are presented sequentially followed by a brief summary and discussion.

7.2 Background Information

The qualitative data were collected from focus groups and semi-structured interviews. The two types of data gathering were conducted from March to June 2014 in order to obtain an in-depth understanding of CSL learners' points of views with respect to both their speech competence and speech performance from both collective and individual perspectives. Particular attention was paid to participants' beliefs regarding the impact of cognitive, affective and socio-cultural factors on their L2 Chinese speech performance.

Participants for the qualitative stage were selected from the total sample of 118 valid respondents to the quantitative study based on a purposive convenient sampling principle. In total, 34 CSL learners took part in the qualitative data collection phase (see Tables 5.8 & 5.9 in Section 5.5.2 for detailed background information on the participants). The 34 CSL participants could be divided to two

levels (intermediate and advanced) according to their speech performance: intermediate and advanced. The intermediate speakers were normally undergraduates majoring in Chinese or Chinese-related disciplines with a focus on L2 Chinese language courses. The advanced speakers were normally postgraduates also majoring in Chinese or Chinese-related disciplines but with more professional focuses, such as teacher training and applied linguistics.

The coding system (see Table 7.1) in this study was established through a bottom-up coding method. First, the researcher ran a word frequency query through NVivo 10 software (Mac version) in order to identify the most frequently used words in interviews. With reference to the word frequency list thus developed, the researcher started to code the interview transcripts and classified similar codes into a theme and similar themes into a category. In the process of analysing the data from focus groups and semi-structured interviews collected from the 34 participants, 12 themes emerged from 37 codes. The 12 themes were then grouped into four categories. Verification of the coding system was sought through peer debriefing.

Table 7.1

Categories, Themes, Codes, Descriptions, and Examples

Category	Theme	Code	Description and Example
Relationship between speech competence and speech performance	Relationship	Direct proportion	Indicating that learners believe that their speech competence equates with their speech performance, and vice versa. e.g., <i>I am happy with my Chinese speaking because I have been here (China) for four years. There is no major obstacle that will hinder me from understanding Chinese.</i> (FG5May12/04/2014)
		Inverse proportion	Indicating that learners believe that their speech competence does not equate with their speech performance, and vice versa. e.g., <i>I know my spoken competence is better than my spoken performance. When I watch TV or take part in a conversation, I can understand very well. However, I cannot express myself as well as I could be.</i> (FG5Tao12/04/2014)
Cognitive perspective	Learning style	Auditory-Visual style	Learners prefer to learn through listening and/or seeing. e.g., <i>I love watching Chinese TV series. And it helps a lot.</i> (FG4Amy01/05/2014)
		Individual style	Learners prefer to learn by themselves. e.g., <i>I like to find a quiet place and study there by myself. This is my learning style.</i> (FG1Fang20/03/2014)
		Integrated style	Learners prefer to use every possible learning style for learning. e.g., <i>I like using different ways to improve my Chinese, for example, reading Chinese books and watching Chinese TV programmes and movies by myself. Then, I will discuss with my friends about what I have read and watched. I think this is the best way for me, because it practises every aspect of my Chinese, not only my spoken Chinese.</i> (Int5Cole10/06/2014)
		No Particular Learning Style	Learners do not disclose any dominant learning style. e.g., <i>I am not sure what my learning style is.</i> (FG4Zaya01/05/2014)
		Group style	Learners prefer to learn through group activities. e.g., <i>However, my speaking has improved a lot after I came here, as I have more opportunities to study and discuss together with my classmates. I guess my speaking ability has definitely become better because of it.</i> (FG7Judy10/06/2014)
	Speaking strategy	Memorisation strategy	Learners try to strengthen their speaking by memorising either vocabulary or good sentences. e.g., <i>when I was watching Chinese movies, I like Chinese movies very much, I definitely would try to memorise some words and expressions to strengthen my speaking ability.</i> (FG5May12/04/2014)
		Imitation strategy	Learners try to strengthen their speaking by imitating native speakers either phonetically or structurally. e.g., <i>When I got chance, I tried to listen carefully to the natives, paying a lot attention to the ways of how they articulate and express their ideas. Sometimes, I even murmured after them, trying to make myself sound beautifully and authentically.</i> (FG4Amy01/05/2014)
		Comparative practice strategy	Learners try to comparatively practise their speaking either to themselves or with native speakers. e.g., <i>My classmates are all foreigners. When we communicate, I can find that some of their spoken Chinese is not that authentic. Because when I practise my Chinese with my Chinese friends, I can hear a lot of authentic expressions and I try to learn from them.</i> (Int4Janet03/04/2014)
		Practice-oriented strategy	Learners try to improve their speaking by practising with other learners or native speakers. e.g., <i>I happened to encounter some interesting words for many times, and I would unconsciously pick up these words. Often when I was talking to a janitor [in my apartment building], I would try to use these words. If I were wrong, the janitor would point out my mistakes. And then, I remembered how to use them correctly.</i> (FG5Tao12/04/2014)

Category	Theme	Code	Description and Example
		Substitution-oriented strategy	Learners would first try to replace one expression with another one if certain expressions could not be recalled. e.g., <i>There are circumstances where I cannot remember a word that I normally use. I have no idea, but I just cannot recall the word. Then, I will use other similar words to replace the word. If I cannot think of any similar words, I will resort to my body language or even drawing to help get myself explained.</i> (FG5Tao12/04/2014)
	Automaticity	Processing speed	Refers to the time that it takes the learners for mental processing before speech production. e.g., <i>I think the faster you process the better your speaking [speech performance] could be.</i> (Int8steve23/06/2014)
Affective perspective	Intrinsic speaking motivation	Knowledge-driven	Learners practise their spoken Chinese to gain new knowledge. e.g., <i>I will directly ask questions if I do not understand, though I feel worried that I may disturb the class. However, if I do not push myself to ask, I may never know the answer.</i> (FG1Rong20/03/2014)
		Interest-driven	Means that learners practise their spoken Chinese out of their interest. e.g., <i>Learning a language without interest will bring you nothing. Interest is the number one prerequisite.</i> (Int3Meilin30/05/2014)
	Extrinsic speaking motivation	People-driven	Indicates that learners try to improve their spoken Chinese for the sake of others, such as parents or partners. e.g., <i>Not only I have to talk to my girlfriend but also her parents. I want to leave a good impression on them.</i> (FG3Sun25/04/2014)
		Work-driven	Means that learners try to improve their spoken Chinese for the sake of future job. e.g., <i>My second motive is job-related. China's economy is getting stronger and stronger. If I have a good command of Chinese, I will be more competitive.</i> (Int3Meilin30/05/2014)
		Goal-driven	This means that learners try to improve their spoken Chinese in order to accomplish certain goals, such as passing a test. e.g., <i>I hope I can pass HSK 6 this year. So, I have really tried a lot to improve both my written and spoken Chinese.</i> (FG1Rong20/03/2014)
		Introjection-driven	Refers to learners' behaviour regulation driven by ego-enhancement, shame, and guilt. e.g., <i>When I was talking to my Chinese friends, I always felt that I could have done better. I could have used one to two sentences to express myself, but I used three or four, maybe even more, sentences to get my message through. I felt really bad and guilty for myself. For this reason, I have been trying to improve my spoken Chinese.</i> (FG6Feng08/06/2014)
	Anxiety	Fear-related anxiety	Refers to learners' fear of being laughed at and fear of negative evaluation when speaking. e.g., <i>I want to say that when I was talking to my classmates in Chinese, some of them speak better Chinese than I do, so when I was talking to the good ones, I was afraid that I could not get my meaning across. I was thinking that what if they did not understand what I said, what would they think of me?</i> (FG1Rong20/03/2014)
		Communication apprehension	Refers to learners' fear of talking to people either in real, or in anticipated, conversational situations. e.g., <i>I am so scared of talking to teachers. It is so nervous, because they are Chinese and they are teaches. You cannot talk to them like friends, especially when teachers are much older than you.</i> (FG5May12/04/2014)
		Test anxiety	Refers to learners' fear of taking oral examinations. e.g., <i>I used be anxious when I was having an oral exam. A lot of words and expressions would suddenly disappear.</i> (Int4Janet03/06/2014)
		Speaking self-efficacy	Language proficiency

Category	Theme	Code	Description and Example	
		Interlocutor	Indicates that different interlocutors will result in different speaking self-efficacy. e.g., <i>Every time I saw my Chinese teacher, I had to hide from her, because she would speak Chinese with her students. Because at that time I was so afraid of speaking Chinese, I did not practise my spoken Chinese at all.</i> (FG5Leigh12/04/2014)	
		Topic	This means different topics will result in different speaking self-efficacy. e.g., <i>If the topic is what I am familiar with, no problem at all to discuss with.</i> (FG1Min20/03/2014)	
		Practice	This means practice can build up one's speaking self-efficacy. e.g., <i>And I think the confidence has a lot to do with the frequency of repetition. If you practise the same topic again and again, you know what to talk about, even without thinking.</i> (FG5June12/04/2014)	
		Self-encouragement	Meaning self-encouragement can build up one's speaking self-efficacy. e.g., <i>Every time when I do a presentation, I will encourage myself saying that I can do it, I can do it. It helps.</i> (FG6Mia08/06/2014)	
		Others' compliment	This means others' compliments can build up one's speaking self-efficacy. e.g., <i>When the teachers' feedback is positive, I will feel really encourage to talk more.</i> (Int10Tom29/06/2014)	
	L2 WTC	Interlocutor	Indicates different interlocutors will result in different L2 WTC. e.g., <i>If the person looks nice and easy-going, I will probably be more willing to communicate with him/her.</i> (FG1Yun20/03/2014)	
		Topic	Means different topics will result in different L2 WTC. e.g., <i>I would like to talk to people with more common topics. Otherwise, I will keep quiet.</i> (FG5May12/04/2014)	
		Volition	Means that L2 WTC can be volitionally controlled regardless of whether a person is truly willing or not. e.g., <i>I used to be more willing to practise my Chinese with people whom I like. I did not talk to people like construction workers. I feel we are from two different worlds. Now, I tumble down such kind of perception. Instead, I try my best to talk with anyone rather than people that I like. After all, they are all native Chinese people.</i> (Int9Gaoen27/06/2014)	
	Socio-cultural perspective	Social cultural interest	Songs	Chinese songs as a kind of social culture contributes to one's speech competence/performance improvement. e.g., <i>Songs can renovate vocabulary and perfect pronunciation.</i> (FG4Amy01/05/2014)
			Movies and Television	Chinese movies and television, also a kind of social culture, contribute to one's speech competence/performance improvement. e.g., <i>I really like Chinese movies and television. Movies and television can teach you specific sets of vocabulary that you may not be able to learn from textbooks. Learning the way the language is spoken by listening to native people is the best way to start talking "normally".</i> (Int6Dan15/06/2014)
Attitude towards Chinese society		Travelling in China	Indicates speech competence/performance can be improved by travelling in China. e.g., <i>Travelling in China can broaden my horizon, enrich my experience, deepen my understanding of Chinese culture and improve my oral Chinese, because you have to talk to local people when travelling.</i> (FG1Rong20/03/2014)	
		Local Chinese community	Speech competence/performance can be improved by living in Chinese local community. e.g., <i>At some level I think you have to enjoy living here to continue studying and improving your language, as Chinese language will ultimately be used to communicate with the Chinese community.</i> (Int1Mat06/05/2014)	
Attitude towards Chinese class		Positive	Means learners like having classes in China and believe that such kind of attitude is beneficial to their speech competence/performance. e.g., <i>Without a positive attitude, you will not make any progress.</i> (FG1Fang20/03/2014).	
		Neutral	Learners have a love and hatred attitude towards Chinese classes. e.g., <i>I love language courses but I do not like college courses.</i> (FG3Sha25/04/2014)	

7.3 Qualitative Findings and Discussion of Research Question 1

This section presents the qualitative findings for Research Question 1: “What are the relationships between CSL learners’ speech competence and speech performance?” The qualitative analysis of the data from focus groups and semi-structured interviews indicated that there were both congruence and disparities between the intermediate- and the advanced-level CSL speakers in their speech competence and speech performance.

7.3.1 Intermediate CSL Speakers’ Perspectives on Speech Competence and Speech Performance

Among the 17 intermediate CSL speakers, the numbers of the participants in focus groups and semi-structured interviews were 12 and five, respectively. A total of 7/12 of the intermediate CSL speakers from the focus groups were satisfied with their Chinese speaking performance, believing that their CSL speech competence and speech performance were in direct proportion but with exceptions; the rest thought that their CSL speech performance was in inverse proportion to their speech competence. Some excerpts follow:

May: Generally speaking, I am happy with my Chinese speaking because I have been here [China] for four years. There is no major obstacle that will hinder me from understanding Chinese. Of course, my performance fluctuates sometimes. For example, when I talk to strangers, I will become a little nervous. But that is not because my Chinese is bad. It is just a feeling. (FG5May12/04/2014)

Rong: I think my Chinese competence and performance are generally at the same level. Not super good, but they are progressing. Sometimes I even feel my Chinese performance is better. I reckon it has a lot to do with my strict teacher and also my talent. I am not afraid of talking to people. (FG1Rong20/03/2014)

Xin: I am satisfied. I think my Chinese speaking is not bad. I do not think that I will be nervous when speaking. However, when I pay a lot attention to grammar and want to use advanced words, normally I will not perform well. My Chinese was not that good when I was here at the very beginning. In my class, I spent the least time in China, so I felt a bit self-contemptuous. Now I am getting better and better. (FG2Xin15/05/2014)

The excerpts above from the 7/12 intermediate CSL speakers of focus groups demonstrated the underlying reasons for being satisfied with their Chinese speech performance, such as studying in China for a long time (this echoes the L2 learning experience variable in Dörnyei's (2009) L2 motivational self system), good understanding of Chinese natives (supports the function of social context in Segalowitz's (2010) L2 speech production model), no anxious feelings when speaking (corroborates the mechanism of Krashen's (1982) affective filter hypothesis), and language talent. However, they realised that, sometimes, their CSL speech competence and speech performance were not at the same level due to affective reasons including nervousness when speaking to strangers and self-contempt when comparing themselves with others. In other words, for affective reasons, there were conflicts between the *ideal* speech competence and *actual* speech performance of the intermediate CSL speakers (in focus groups).

Sha: I don't think my speech competence and performance are equivalent. Although I am a PhD student in Religious Philosophy, I cannot do a long presentation; the tones are still big problems for me. I may have a lot of professional knowledge, but I cannot talk about it in a professional way. (FG3Sha25/04/2014)

Leigh: Oh, I feel bad about my spoken Chinese. I can express myself in simple sentences. That's no problem for me. However, when it comes to slightly complicated sentence structures, I cannot speak fluently. Stuttered here and there. (FG5Leigh12/04/2014)

Min: I am not nervous when I am prepared. A lot of times, I understand (what people are talking about), but I cannot speak well. I cannot express myself as freely as I want. I thought after two years in China I could be like that, but it seems not. I speak in simple Chinese. (FG2Min20/03/2014)

The excerpts above from the 5/12 intermediate CSL speakers of focus groups who believed that their spoken Chinese was underperforming showed that these learners exhibited similar features: high expectations (supports the ideal L2 self in Dörnyei's (2009) L2 motivational self system). They would like to speak Chinese in a professional and complicated way without constraints (the ideal L2 self), which often would lead them to what they considered an unsatisfactory performance (the actual L2 self).

As to the five intermediate CSL speakers from semi-structured interviews, the majority implied that they were satisfied with their spoken Chinese and believed that their CSL speech competence and performance were at the same level. A common feature of these learners was that they were highly motivated and interested in learning Chinese. They were also not shy to express themselves, even if they made mistakes in speaking. Some excerpts follow:

Mat: I really like learning Chinese. I am different from other students. I have particular goals, such as to speak Chinese fluently within one or two years and to do business with Chinese. So far, I think I did a pretty good job. My only concern is my tones, but I am not afraid of being picked on. (Int1Mat16/05/2014)

Meilin: I think my Chinese is ok. I do not think my speech competence is much outperformed my performance. Actually my spoken Chinese was horrible when I first started learning Chinese, but I think I have gone through that period. Yes, my competence to some extent is slightly better than my performance, but it is normal right. I am not afraid of speaking. I can speak Chinese in whatever circumstances, such as in class, at company, and shopping malls. (Int3Meilin30/05/2014)

Janet: I am different from other students. Chinese is my second degree. I have been through the process of feeling confused, anxious, and defeated while learning something new. Now I have such feelings no more. I think it helps develop my Chinese in a balanced way. (Int4Janet03/06/2014)

Cole: Once I decide what I want, I will try my best to accomplish it. I am doing double majors in school, Chinese and finance. I want to do international business between China and America. I know I need to have a very high level of Chinese proficiency to find such a job. If I decide to learn a language, I will try to speak it fluently. Otherwise, I will feel rather dissatisfied. (Int5Cole10/06/2014)

Although one of the intermediate CSL speakers described his dissatisfaction towards his CSL speech competence and performance indicating that his Chinese “is far far away from good enough, though he has [I have] a good foundation of Chinese” (Int2Ben23/05/2014), this learner’s CSL speech competence and performance, in fact, were the best among the five interviewees based on his CSCT, CSPT and performance in the interview.

7.3.2 Advanced CSL Speakers' Perspectives on Speech Competence and Speech Performance

In addition, there were 17 advanced CSL speakers according to their CSPT scores. Twelve of the advanced CSL speakers were from focus groups and five from semi-structured interviews. Surprisingly, nine out of the 12 advanced CSL speakers suggested that their CSL speech competence and speech performance were in inverse proportion, though they were capable of expressing themselves most of the time. One possible reason is that there is a self-perceived gap from *knowing* (input) to *doing* (output) among these learners. Such a gap will become wider when more input opportunities than output opportunities have been provided. Furthermore, introverted advanced CSL speakers contributed their self-perceived imbalanced CSL speech competence and speech performance development to the nature of their personality (such as being shy). In other words, this implies that there might be a conflict between their ideal L2 self (outgoing) and actual L2 self (shy). Some excerpts follow:

Tao: I know my spoken competence is better than my spoken performance. When I watch TV or take part in a conversation, I can understand very well. However, I cannot express myself as well as I could be. I guess it is because the progress I made both in competence and performance in my early years of Chinese learning was at the same pace, because there was not much learn. Now my speech competence is outpaced by my performance, because I know so much more than I can actually perform. (FG5Tao12/04/2014)

Feng: My Chinese speaking performance is not good. When I describe something, it takes much longer time than I expected. In fact, I thought I could have spoken in a more concise way. However, I just could not help beating around the bush. Moreover, I am a shy person. Speaking is not my comfort zone. (FG6Feng08/06/2014)

Mia: I do not think I speak so well and so fluently like others do. I am quite shy. My Chinese cannot be compared to natives. It is impossible for me to reach a native speaker's level. Now, I am in my final year. I have to focus on my thesis writing, so I do not speak much everyday. Just read and write. I can feel that my actual spoken Chinese is getting worse. (FG6Mia08/06/2014)

Krimu: I do not think my Chinese competence and performance is in direct proportion. I can organise my thinking in a logical way. However, when it comes to speaking, it turns out to

be a disaster. I will speak a bit of something here and a bit of something there, which makes people feel lost I believe. (FG6Krimu08/06/2014)

As to the rest (3/12) of the advanced CSL speakers from focus groups, they tended to perceive that their CSL speech competence and speech performance were in direct proportion, not always, but quite often. For example:

Hanna: I think our speech competence and performance are in direct proportion. You know, we have to pass the HSK 5 to become undergraduate students in China. I guess this proves that our competence and performance match each other. And I don't see any difficulties to express myself so far. (FG7Hanna10/06/2014)

The five advanced CSL speakers from the semi-structured interviews indicated that their CSL speech competence and speech performance were in direct proportion. They believed that they could organise their speech in a logical and native-like way (ideal L2 self), which could be reflected in their actual speaking (actual L2 self). This suggests that there might be no conflict between ideal L2 self and actual L2 self among those learners. Some excerpts follow:

Dan: I like sharing my ideas, which is common in the US. It is actually an opportunity to show my Chinese to my teacher. I normally will organise my ideas directly in Chinese rather than in English, because it feels more natural to me. I could not do it in the early years of my Chinese learning. I guess my Chinese competence was not good enough at that time to automatically produce something. Now I can do it. I think my competence and performance are both advanced level now. (Int6Dan15/06/2014)

Mads: I am good at speaking. In fact there are some characters I cannot recognise, but I can use them in speaking. I guess it is because I have a lot of Chinese friends, and I am not shy to speak Chinese with them. I try to think in Chinese before speaking up. I think this is very important to keep my Chinese sounds more authentic rather than sounds like translated. (Int7Mads23/06/2014)

Tom: I think my Chinese competence and performance are in direct proportion now. I know my Chinese is not perfect, but I have the confidence in speaking. I was not that confident before I came to China. In fact, I was quite defeated at the beginning. It was defeating but it did not demotivate me. On the contrary, I wanted to learn more. Gradually, my ability and performance came to a similar level. (Int10Tom29/06/2014)

7.3.3 Summary and Discussion

The findings relating to Research Question 1 reported above can be summarised as follows: (1) there are more intermediate CSL speakers from focus groups believing that their CSL speech performance is in direct proportion to their CSL speech competence; (2) most of the advanced CSL speakers from focus groups believe that their CSL speech competence and performance are in inverse proportion; (3) the majority of both intermediate and advanced CSL speakers from the semi-structured interviews suggest that their CSL speech competence and speech performance are in direct proportion.

To be more specific, the intermediate CSL speakers of focus groups are more positive towards their speech competence and speech performance compared with their advanced CSL counterparts. Contrary to the result, the advanced CSL learners of focus groups' speech competence and speech performance, in fact, are more likely to be in direct proportion compared with their intermediate CSL counterparts according to their test results of CSCT and CSPT (see Tables 5.3 & 5.4). Three reasons may cause the inclination of the intermediate CSL speakers from focus groups to perceive that their speech competence and speech performance are in direct proportion (but were rather imbalanced as a matter of fact). The three reasons are (1) the small academic gap between what students are required to know and what they can actually perform; (2) the possible conflicts between ideal L2 self and actual L2 self; and (3) the drawback of using focus groups.

Firstly, the intermediate speakers are basically undergraduate CSL students. The courses that they are taking are mostly Chinese language courses with some major courses, such as international business. The advanced speakers, in contrast, are mostly postgraduates. Their academic input and expected outcomes are more demanding. The academic gap (between students' input knowledge and output knowledge) of the advanced CSL speakers', therefore, will be much more significant than that of the intermediate CSL speakers. In other words, the advanced learners may have learnt more academic knowledge which is not ready to be actually performed in a way that they want to use it. Consequently, the

advanced CSL speakers may become more stressed and anxious when perceiving the gap between their actual academic L2 self and their ideal academic L2 self. This may result in learners' different opinions about their speech competence and speech performance.

Secondly, as shown in the data above, CSL speakers who believed that their speech competence and speech performance were in inverse proportion tend to have conflicts between their different L2 selves. For instance, some speakers are not happy about their personality (actual L2 self), such as being shy. They would like themselves to be extroverted (ideal L2 self) enough to express themselves. Other speakers hold high expectations of their L2 speech competence (ideal L2 self). Their actual L2 speech performance (actual L2 self), however, could not live up to their ideal L2 self. Such a conflict between the two selves would possibly lead them to believe that their speech competence and speech performance are in inverse proportion.

Lastly, participants' opinions could be swayed by other participants from the same focus group. A limitation of focus groups, as Stewart and Shamdasani (2015) pointed out, is that members of focus groups may be dependent on one other. As a result, participants would give similar answers to the questions. Such a phenomenon could be identified in the similar responses from the advanced CSL speakers of focus groups in this study, where these participants all compare their actual L2 selves with their ideal L2 selves. The conflict or gap between the two selves leads them to negatively perceive the relationship between their speech competence and performance. In brief, focus groups can be collectively dependent. This is particularly true in Asian classroom contexts where students tend to speak collectively rather than individually in order to show humility.

As to the perceptions of the semi-structured interviewees, almost all the participants from the two levels suggest that their CSL speech competence is in direct proportion to their CSL speech performance. If we take a closer look at the participants' background information (see Tables 5.8 & 5.9 in Section 5.5.2), we could find that the majority constitute self-reported extroverted Caucasians. Different from most of the participants in the focus groups who are from Asian

countries, Caucasians are more likely to be active learners in the classrooms who prefer to convey their ideas and communicate with others. Such speculation could be evidenced in the semi-structured interviewees' responses which suggest that Caucasian learners are highly motivated and interested in learning and using Chinese. In brief, it may be postulated that personality and motivation probably play a joint role in strengthening the semi-structured interviewees' recognition of their balanced development of speech competence and speech performance.

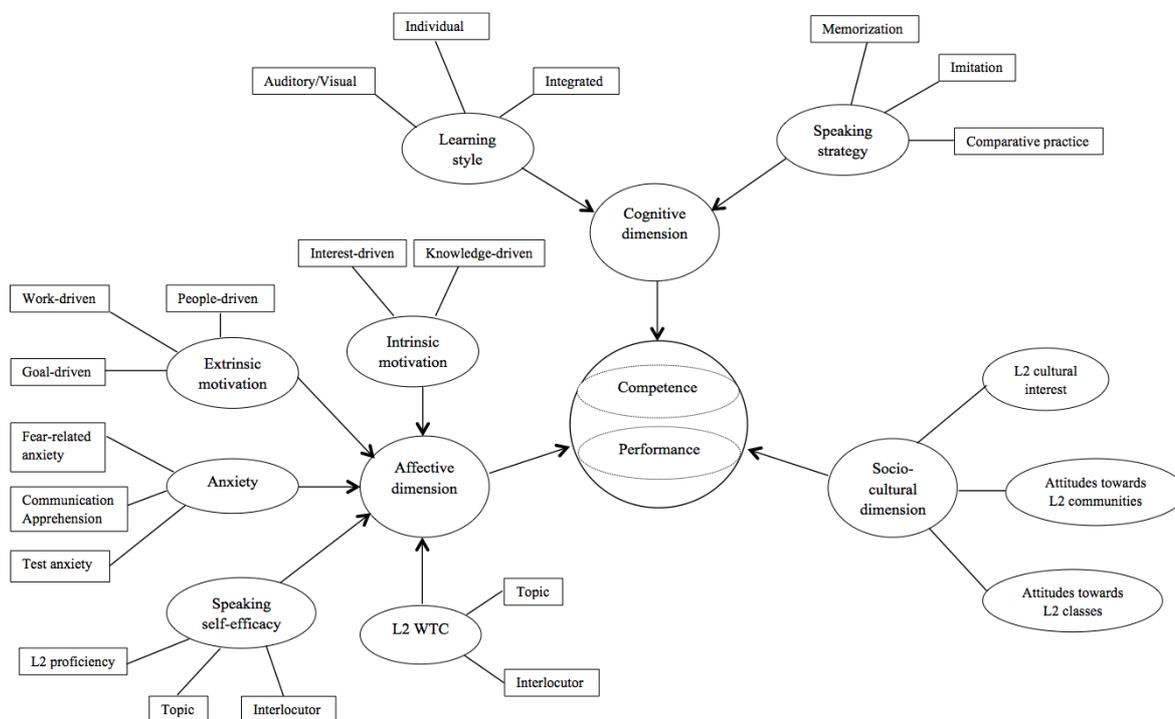
7.4 Qualitative Findings and Discussion of Research Question 2

Question 2 in the present study is: "What are the differences between the intermediate level and the advanced level CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance, and their cognitive (i.e., learning style, speaking strategy, processing speed, and age), affective (i.e., motivation, anxiety, speaking self-efficacy, and WTC), and socio-cultural (i.e., L2 cultural interest, attitudes towards L2 communities, and attitudes towards L2 classes) factors?" The themes emerging from the qualitative data demonstrated both the congruence and disparity between the intermediate- and the advanced-level CSL learners in relation to their speech competence/performance (see Figures 7.1 & 7.2).

Before presenting the findings, a note of caution regarding speech competence and speech performance is in order. As the participants used the terms speech competence and speech performance interchangeably in their interviews after Research Question 1; the two concepts were then conflated as "speech competence/performance" in the presentation of the qualitative results. It also should be noted that this section forms only a brief summary of the results relating to Research Question 2. Detailed results and discussions can be found in the rest of research questions (see Sections 7.5, 7.6, & 7.7).

Figure 7.1

Factors in Relation to the Intermediate CSL Speakers' Speech Competence/performance

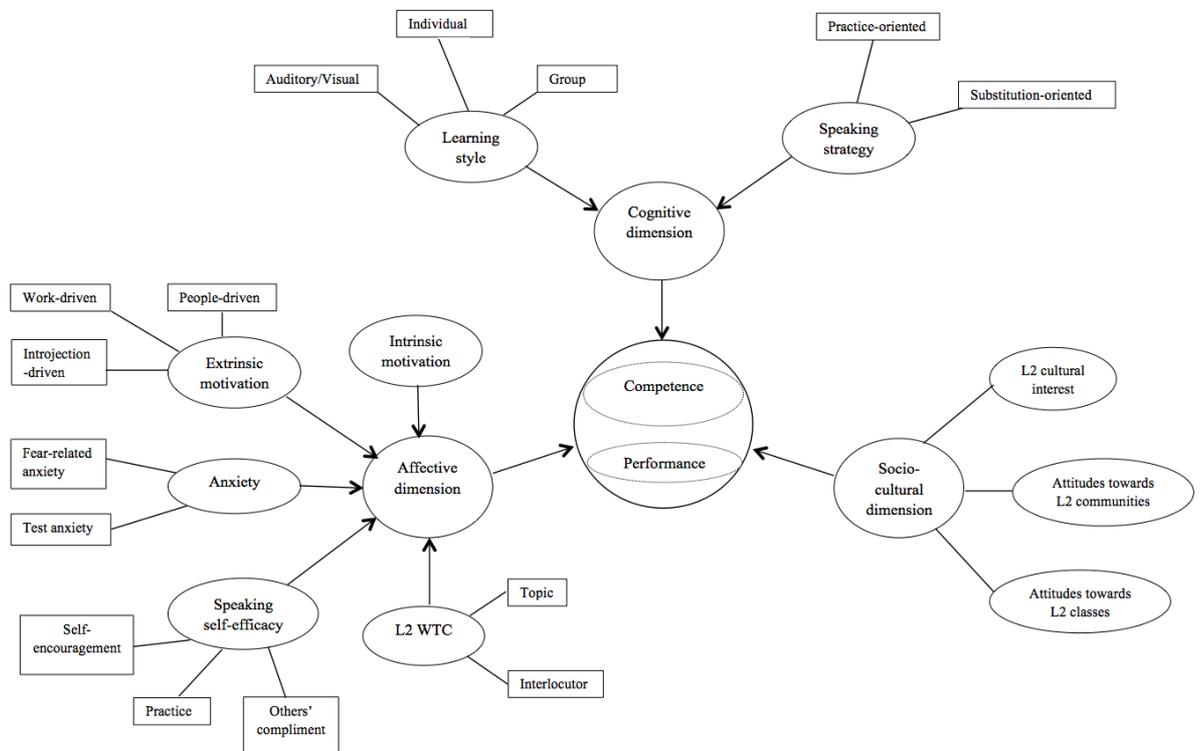


Note. The oval sizes of competence and performance refers to learners' self-perceived levels of speech competence and speech performance. The arrow direction refers to the cause and effect direction.

It could be inferred, from the figures 7.1 and 7.2, that both the intermediate and the advanced CSL speakers were subject to the three proposed dimensions: cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural. The two levels of speakers were almost unanimous in terms of the contributions of the socio-cultural dimension to their CSL speech competence/performance. They all acknowledged the positive effect of socio-cultural factors on the improvement of their speech competence/performance. Nevertheless, such a consensus was not in line with the quantitative findings which revealed that there was a difference between the intermediate level and the advanced level learners' attitudes towards Chinese culture or classes (see Section 6.5). In terms of the cognitive and affective dimensions, the congruence and disparity of the intermediate and advanced CSL speakers' beliefs can be summarised as follows.

Figure 7.2

Factors in Relation to the Advanced CSL Speakers' Speech Competence/performance



Note. The oval sizes of competence and performance refers to learners' self-perceived levels of speech competence and speech performance. The arrow direction refers to the cause and effect direction.

In terms of the cognitive dimension, learning style, speaking strategy, and processing speed were regarded by the two levels of CSL speakers as influential factors in their speech competence/performance. This partially corroborates the quantitative findings which found a significant difference in learning style (kinaesthetic/tactile) and processing speed between the intermediate performance level and the advanced performance level CSL learners (see Section 6.5.2). The two levels of CSL speakers in this qualitative phase agreed that auditory/visual style and group style could be beneficial to their speech competence/performance, which partially supports Kim and Kim's (2014) finding that there is a positive relationship between visual and auditory styles and language proficiency. As for the individual style, the intermediate CSL speakers suggested that studying alone could be the reason that hindered their speech competence/performance development, while the advanced CSL speakers held the opposite opinion.

Despite the difference, such a finding contradicts other findings reported in the literature (e.g., Naserieh & Anani Srab, 2013; Peacock, 2001) that learners normally prefer group style over individual style. With regard to the speaking strategies, the intermediate CSL speakers used strategies (such as memorisation and imitation) that contributed more to their speech competence, while the advanced CSL speakers adopted strategies (such as practice-oriented and substitution-oriented strategies) that could add more value to their speech performance. Such a finding adds evidence to the literature that the use of speaking strategies does contribute to language proficiency and learners of different levels may use different strategies (e.g., Magogwe & Oliver, 2007; Nakatani, 2006; Nakatani & Goh, 2007).

In terms of the affective dimension, motivation, anxiety, speaking self-efficacy, and WTC were all implied as contributing factors by both levels of CSL speakers. Firstly, intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation were found to improve their speech competence/performance. Nevertheless, the advanced CSL speakers tended to be more extrinsically motivated, while the intermediate CSL speakers were more likely to be effected by both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. People-driven and work-driven motivations were two common extrinsic motivations shared by both levels of CSL speakers. In addition, the intermediate CSL speakers were also goal-driven, while the advanced were introjection-driven. Despite the difference between the two levels of CSL learners, the above findings add evidence to the literature that motivations can facilitate L2 development (e.g., Hernández, 2006; Shaikholeslami & Khayyer, 2006). In brief, such qualitative findings enrich our understanding of the contributions of motivation to CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance, which the quantitative data are not able to reveal.

Secondly, anxiety was suggested by the two levels of speakers as one of the main factors influencing their speech competence/performance. This echoes the quantitative findings that the intermediate performance level and the advanced performance level CSL learners were significantly different in terms of anxiety (see Section 6.5.2). To be more specific, fear-related anxiety and test anxiety were found to hinder the speech competence/performance of both levels of

speakers in the qualitative data. In addition, communication apprehension was found to be another negative contributor to the speech competence/performance for the intermediate CSL speakers. Regardless of the negative impact of anxiety on L2 speaking, its positive influence was also revealed in the qualitative data. Such findings lend more evidence to the literature that the influence of anxiety could be both positive and negative (e.g., M. Liu & Huang, 2011; Mahmoodzadeh, 2012; Scovel, 1978).

Thirdly, speaking self-efficacy was implied to be positively linked with speech competence/performance. This, to some extent, supports Florack et al.'s (2014) finding that speaking self-confidence might contribute to communication. Nevertheless, the intermediate CSL speakers' speaking self-efficacy was less stable than, or inferior to, their advanced counterparts. In other words, while the intermediate CSL speakers were confident about speaking, their speaking self-efficacy varied depending on interlocutors, topics, and language proficiencies. On the contrary, the advanced CSL speakers sought more opportunities such as practice, self-encouragement, and others' compliments to maintain their speaking self-efficacy. The above findings enrich our knowledge as to the contributions of speaking self-efficacy to CSL speakers' speech competence/performance. Such findings, however, were not revealed in the quantitative data.

Lastly, WTC was more acknowledged by the advanced CSL speakers in relation to its impact on speech competence/performance. They suggested that WTC mainly determined the quantity rather than the quality of their CSL speech production. WTC was also found to be volitional or controllable (Clément et al., 2003) regardless of whether learners are truly willing or not. The intermediate CSL speakers, in contrast, did not see the value of volition on WTC. Instead, the intensity of their WTC was subject to topics and interlocutors. The volitional feature of WTC implied in the qualitative data to some extent could be an explanation for the quantitative finding that the advanced level CSL learners compared with their intermediate level counterparts were more willing to communicate in L2 Chinese (see Section 6.5.1 for details).

7.5 Qualitative Findings and Discussion of Research Question 3

This section presents the qualitative findings for Research Question 3: “What are the relationships between cognitive factors and CSL learners’ speech competence and speech performance?” The qualitative analysis of the data from both focus groups and semi-structured interviews indicated that there were congruence and disparities between the intermediate level and the advanced level CSL speakers in terms of their perspectives on this question.

7.5.1 Intermediate CSL Speakers’ Perspectives on Learning Style

In terms of learning styles, auditory/visual, group, and individual learning were the styles mentioned most frequently among the intermediate CSL speakers in the focus groups. Some even pointed out that they took advantage of all their senses to improve their speaking; this was labelled as the integrated learning style in this analysis. No one, however, suggested that there was any association between kinaesthetic/tactile and speech competence/performance. This contradicts the quantitative finding that kinaesthetic/tactile was the predictor for CSL learners’ speech performance.

7.5.1.1 Auditory/Visual Learning Style

Five out of the 17 intermediate CSL speakers suggested that the auditory/visual style was positively associated with their CSL speech competence/performance development. Some excerpts follow:

Amy: I love watching Chinese TV series. And it helps a lot. When I am watching, I will pay attention to their expressions, and try to remember some useful ones for my future use. For example, when I am chatting with my Chinese friends. I am not a person who likes sitting in a classroom studying quietly by myself. That is not my learning style. (FG4Amy01/05/2014)

Sha: I do not think making friends with Chinese people is the most important way. I have a couple of learners from my country [Iran] who can speak Chinese very well. They learn how to speak by watching Chinese TV series. (FG3Sha25/04/2014)

From both Amy's and Sha's viewpoints, we could tell that Chinese TV series served as importance sources for learners to acquire some useful expressions which were helpful for the progress of their speech competence/performance. In addition to the Chinese TV series, some pointed out that listening to Chinese natives' conversations could be another authentic and helpful input source. As Amy claimed that "there will be good influences. That is my pronunciation will get better and I will learn authentic expressions from native speakers" (Amy: 4FG01/05/2014). However, some pointed out that being visual learners did not necessary mean that they were good at speaking. For instance:

Jin: One of my good friends, he is a kind of visual learner. He always outperforms me in exams, but my spoken Chinese is much better than his. He likes reading books and online news, but I like hanging out and talking to people. Gradually, his spoken Chinese is not as good as his reading ability. (FG2Jin15/05/2014)

According to Jin, if visual learners were reading oriented without actual practice or oral output, it might make little contribution to their speech competence/performance, despite them being good writers or readers.

7.5.1.2 Individual Learning Style

In contrast with the auditory/visual style, five out of the 17 intermediate CSL speakers suggested that the group learning style might be positively linked with the development of their speech competence/performance. They also mentioned that although the group learning style could be helpful, it ran counter to their personality or fossilised individual learning style. Some excerpts follow:

Fang: My learning style has been stabilised. I like to find a quiet place and study there by myself. This is my learning style. To some point, I find such kind of learning style does not contribute to my speech competence, maybe a little bit. I think it will be more helpful for my writing. I may not be able to understand or to say something beyond textbooks. I know group discussion or cooperative learning will be good for my speaking, but I just do not like it. (FG1Fang20/03/2014)

Leigh: I think group activities will be helpful for the development of speaking. However, I am rather shy. Sometimes I will just listen to my group members' discussion. When they

discuss so well, I feel like I am under a huge pressure. Then, I do not want to say anything, because I am afraid of making mistakes in front of my classmates. (FG5Leigh12/04/2014)

It could be implied from the above excerpts that learners, particularly introverted learners, who were in favour of individual learning would be more likely to stay in their comfort zone, although they acknowledged the benefits of group learning. Even if learners were not shy, with a stabilised learning style, it could be hard for them to change to another style. This could harm their speech performance as Janet reported:

Janet: My style is learning by myself. I know my listening is not good, and I should try to listen more or talk to Chinese people more, which will be beneficial to my speaking ability development. But it is very hard to change it just by myself, because I am so get used to my style. I think learning style could be extremely influential to a person's speaking. You know, a style you do not like normally reflects the weak part of your language. (Int4Janet03/06/2014)

7.5.1.3 Integrated Learning Style

Although many learners pointed out that auditory/visual and group learning were positively linked with CSL speech competence/performance, some held an opposite opinion. Four out of the 17 intermediate CSL speakers pointed out that the auditory/visual or the group learning style was not the sole learning style that they adopted, rather they took advantage of all the senses or all possible learning styles to improve or even to maintain their CSL speech competence/performance. Some excerpts follow:

Rong: I used my five senses in my early stage to learn Chinese. For example, suppose I have something eatable in my hand, say, an apple. I will describe the apple while observing it and eating it. And I listen to myself as well. If I noticed some parts that I did not speak well, I would repeat again. I think because I use all the senses continuously, and my spoken Chinese naturally improves. (FG1Rong20/03/2014)

Yun: It is the same for me as well. If I only read textbooks by using my eyes, it will not help too much for my spoken Chinese. Maybe my knowledge of Chinese increases, but it does not practise my speaking. If I speak, listen, and watch at the same time, it will become much easier for me to remember stuff. (FG1Yun20/03/2014)

Cole: I like using different ways to improve my Chinese, for example, reading Chinese books and watching Chinese TV programmes and movies by myself. Then, I will discuss with my friends about what I have read and watched. I think this is the best way for me, because it practises every aspect of my Chinese, not only my spoken Chinese. (Int5Cole10/06/2014)

A common feature of these integrated style learners is that they share a similar routine of using different learning styles. Firstly, they took advantage of both the auditory/visual learning style or the individual learning style. The two styles could provide learners with an abundance of L2 Chinese input opportunities where they could develop their speech competence. Later, the group learning style enabled learners to practise what they had accumulated through either auditory/visual or individual learning. Consequently, this method of learning style use appeared to contribute to learners' speech performance progress.

7.5.1.4 No Particular Learning Style

Although learning styles were important and closely linked with most of the intermediate CSL learners' speech competence/performance development, two out of the 17 intermediate CSL speakers self-reported that they did not have any particular learning style, or perhaps were not even aware of their learning styles. Some excerpts follow:

Zaya: I am not sure what my learning style is. I learn Chinese whenever I want to and in whatever way it might be. I think my unstable learning style has bad effect on my spoken Chinese. I tried to stick to some learning styles, but I could not make it for more than five days and I gave up. I am very regretful, because I do not have a particular learning style. This is bad for my spoken Chinese. (FG4Zaya01/05/2014)

Mat: Sometimes I like learning by myself, sometimes I like group learning or other styles. I do not know what my learning style is. I think they are related, learning styles and speaking. If you study alone, then you miss the opportunities to talk with Chinese natives, and then you do not know how to speak Chinese in an authentic way. Sometimes, the tones are different. I mean comparing what you have learnt with the tones in reality. So I think it matters, your learning styles. (Int1Mat16/05/2014)

It could be suggested from the above that learning styles were important for the improvement of spoken Chinese but, more important, it was the willingness to commit to certain learning styles. With such a commitment, the positive effects, on the progress of L2 Chinese speaking, of learning styles could be realised.

7.5.2 Advanced CSL Speakers' Perspectives on Learning Style

Three major learning styles emerged from the 17 advanced CSL speakers: group, auditory/visual, and individual. The majority of these 17 advanced CSL speakers tended to believe that there was a positive link between learning styles and their CSL speech competence/performance.

7.5.2.1 Group Learning Style

A total of eight out of the 17 advanced CSL speakers (from either focus groups or semi-structured interviews) claimed that the group learning style was of great importance for the development of individuals' speaking competence/performance, even though the group learning style may not necessarily be their first choice. Some excerpts follow:

June: I used to study alone. I did not like group learning. However, when I am here, I have a lot of opportunities to discuss some issues with other classmates, because teachers like to divide us into groups. While in discussion, I find everyone's opinions are different. Due to the differences, you have to reason with others to prove that your idea is better. Through discussion and reasoning, our oral competence and performance improves greatly. Now I like this kind of learning. (FG5June12/04/2014)

Tao: I personally think that group activities influence my oral expression a lot. If I study alone, it is just one way. I mean if I do not communicate with others, there will be no output, just input. Consequently, the knowledge I received in the studying alone circumstance will be much lesser than in the group activities circumstance, because there is no discussion and knowledge exchange opportunities. (FG5Tao12/04/2014)

Judy: Back in my country, I studied Chinese by myself. I did not see much difference in terms of my reading and writing ability whether studying in China or Korea. However, my speaking has improved a lot after I came here, as I have more opportunities to study and

discuss together with my classmates. I guess my speaking ability has definitely become better because of it. (FG7Judy10/06/2014)

The perceived advantage of group learning, according to these learners, is that such a style of learning may provide more meaningful and interactive opportunities to verbalise their ideas and knowledge. Consequently, learners' L2 speech competence/performance may improve faster than learning through using other styles. One of the participants, for example, mentioned "I spent a long time and a lot of time to practise my speaking with Chinese through chatting and discussion. If you are learning by yourself, not socialising with people, you can hardly make progress in speaking" (Int7Mads23/06/2014).

7.5.2.2 Auditory/Visual Learning Style

Five out of the 17 advanced CSL speakers believed that the auditory/visual learning style could be a factor that differentiated people's CSL speech competence/performance. To be more specific, some of the five advanced CSL speakers claimed that the auditory/visual learning style could directly contribute to the development of individuals' speech competence/performance. For example:

Cai: I guess you all have heard about Wei who is from Burma. His learning style is watching TV. You know how good his spoken Chinese is, right? I am not such kind of learner. You can tell the difference between my spoken Chinese and his, right? (FG6Cai08/06/2014)

Gaoen: I watch a lot Chinese television. I find it is an effective way to improve my spoken Chinese. By listening and watching to the authentic Chinese, I develop a sense of what is right and what is wrong. (Int9Gaoen27/06/2014)

However, some of the five advanced CSL speakers held a slightly different point of view implying that auditory/visual learning might not be directly linked with the progress of their CSL speech competence/performance. It was suggested that auditory/visual learning might be helpful for learners' speech competence but not necessarily for their speech performance as, for some learners, speech performance could easily be subject to affective factors. Some excerpts follow:

Jenny: I used to listen to the radios and watching TV, and wrote down what they were talking about. I felt it was really helpful for my listening, and I think listening is speaking. But it may not necessarily mean that you can actually speak well; it just means that you have accumulated more knowledge. And because of such accumulation, you may outperform others. However, your performance sometimes has a lot to do with psychological factors, such as anxiety and nervousness. (Jenny: 7FG10/06/2014)

Feng: I also like learning by listening and watching. However, I do not perceive myself as a good speaker. I am much worse than Wei. Sometimes I feel it does not matter whether you like listening, watching, or group activities, what matters is whether you have the courage to speak up or not. Listening and watching Chinese TV programmes could be helpful for my speaking ability, but when I actually perform, I worry too much. (Feng: 6FG08/06/2014)

7.5.2.3 Individual Learning Style

Out of the 17 advanced CSL speakers, four pointed out that they preferred studying individually, as it provided them with a much safer and less disturbing environment in which to learn Chinese. As a result, individual learning contributed to learners' Chinese competence development and, gradually, their speech performance. In addition, personality might partially, but not necessarily, determine their learning style. For instance, Jenny, who perceived herself to be an extroverted person, used to study in a group, but she favoured the individual learning style now. More examples follow:

Yeats: I think that is because I read a lot of books by myself and I will take notes of the useful sentences while reading. I like this kind of non-pressure learning. And I believe this gradually builds up my confidence in speaking as my competence progresses. Also, I will try to consciously use what I have learnt either in class or after class. I guess this helps improve my speaking [performance]. (FG3Yeats25/04/2014)

Jenny: I like studying alone now. I feel it is more efficient just by myself. I feel when I study in a group I will easily get distracted and end up gossiping with them in Korean. So, I like to study by myself. And I often do self-talking to my dog. That's true. I like talking to my dog in Chinese everyday, because it is casual and it releases my pressure. (FG7Jenny10/06/2014)

However, one advanced CSL speaker pointed out that her individual learning style could hinder her speaking. "I just like studying by myself such as learning

new words and good sentence structures and so on. I feel my oral Chinese is really bad” (FG6Mia08/06/2014).

7.5.3 Intermediate CSL Speakers’ Perspectives on Speaking Strategies

In relation to speaking strategies, memorisation (12/17), imitation (10/17) and comparative practice (7/17) were the three most commonly mentioned strategies that the intermediate CSL speakers would use to maintain and improve their speech competence/performance. They believed that their speaking strategies were positively linked with their speech competence/performance.

7.5.3.1 Memorisation Strategy

According to 12/17 intermediate CSL speakers, they often used the memorisation strategy for remembering vocabulary and expressions, which was similar to the expression practice strategy that emerged from the quantitative data (see Section 6.6 for review). For example, as Min pointed out: “I often try to memorise those words that we have learnt, if I find them useful. It is helpful for my speaking ability [speech competence]” (FG1Min20/03/014). May also stated: “When I was watching Chinese movies, I like Chinese movies very much, I definitely would try to memorise some words and expressions to strengthen my speaking ability” (FG5May12/04/2014). It seemed that Min and May used the memorisation strategy (expression practise strategy) for the development of their speech competence, while some used it for strengthening speech performance. For instance:

Yun: Yes, I try to store them in my brain. However, if I just read the words or expressions out without using them, I will easily forget them and may not have the certainty or confidence of using them. If I try to use them, however, even just once, I can naturally use them again in the future. (FG1Yun20/03/2014)

From Yun’s perspective, it was possible to tell that sheer memorisation might not be enough for the development of learners’ speech performance. It is the memorisation plus the actual practice that contributes to learners’ development of speech competence and speech performance.

7.5.3.2 Imitation Strategy

Imitation happened when the 10 out of the 17 intermediate CSL speakers wanted to sound like native speakers either phonetically or structurally. Phonetically is where learners try to sound as native-like as possible. On the other hand, structurally means learners pay more attention to make themselves use Chinese in an accurate way, either grammatically or pragmatically. Some excerpts follow:

Amy: When I got chance, I tried to listen carefully to the natives, paying a lot attention to the ways of how they articulate and express their ideas. Sometimes, I even murmured after them, trying to make myself sound beautifully and authentically. I do. Sometimes, when I watch TV, I do the same thing, imitation. (FG4Amy01/05/2014)

Yun: Yes, the first time when I was here in China, my intonation and pronunciation were not good, though not too bad. When I was talking to my Chinese friends, they were amazed, saying, how could you pronounce so native-like, something like that. Actually, it was because I was imitating the pronunciation right after them. (FG1Yun20/03/2014)

Sun: When I was a first year student, I liked watching Chinese movies and TV series very much. If there were subtitles, I would follow what they said. So in every five minutes, [when] he said a sentence, I followed him. That was the reason why I found my pronunciation was getting better. That is the biggest advantage. (FG3Sun25/04/2014)

The above quotations imply that imitation functions as an important way for maintaining learners' speaking, either in terms of their speech competence or speech performance. Just as May pointed out: "It is very helpful for the improvement of my Chinese. When I watch movies and listen to songs, I will murmur after them" (May: 5FG12/04/2014). In addition, the imitation strategy that revealed in the qualitative data is similar to the native-like and involvement strategy disclosed in the quantitative data (see Section 6.6 for review).

7.5.3.3 Comparative Practice Strategy

Six out of 17 intermediate CSL speakers pointed out that they would practise their Chinese comparatively either in their own mind or with the native speakers. For example, Rong mentioned that one of her Vietnamese classmate spoke good

Chinese. One of the classmate's problems was that he preferred using formal expressions, which may or may not be appropriate at times. Rong, therefore, started to critique (in his own mind) on his classmate's oral Chinese. She pointed out that, "while he was speaking, I was imagining in my head how I could speak better or more authentic than him" (FG1Rong20/03/2014). Janet, on the other hand, pointed out that she often tried to practise her Chinese with both her classmates and Chinese friends so that she could compare the differences between the two and figure out an authentic way of communication. For instance:

Janet: I think they [speaking strategies] are helpful for my spoken Chinese. My classmates are all foreigners. When we communicate, I can find that some of their spoken Chinese is not that authentic. Because when I practise my Chinese with my Chinese friends, I can hear a lot of authentic expressions and I try to learn from them. Gradually, I kind of developed a sense of authenticity. (Int4Janet03/06/2014)

As suggested above, both Rong and Janet consciously tried to practise and develop their speaking proficiency when opportunities were presented. They both tried to become authentic speakers of Chinese. In other words, they tried to become more native-like.

7.5.3.4 Other Strategies

In addition to the memorisation, imitation, and practice strategies, other strategies such as substitution, involvement, and dynamic strategies were adopted by some intermediate CSL speakers (5/17). Some excerpts follow:

Jin: I think speaking strategy will influence my speaking performance. If there is a word that I could not remember at the moment, I will directly explain the meaning of the word, or I may use another word to substitute for it. However, for those listeners, they will think that my speaking proficiency is very high. Actually, my proficiency is still the same, it just sounds like I am good at speaking. It is much better than not saying a word I think. [Substitution strategy] (FG2Jin15/05/2014)

Zaya: My strategy is that when people are talking something about sports or whatever that I am not interested in or I do not have much knowledge of it, I will try to talk movies and music with them. Then, I can be a part of the conversation without feeling too bored. [Involvement strategy] (FG4Zaya01/05/2014)

Cole: I tried a lot different strategies. I have not found a perfect one so far. But these strategies are not bad for the improvement of my spoken Chinese. Sometimes, I read books. After reading a paragraph, I will try to summarise the content of it verbally. Sometimes, I watch movies and TV series. When I am listening to it, I will try to memorise some good words and expressions. I will also murmur after it, something like that. [Dynamic strategy] (Int5Cole10/06/2014)

7.5.4 Advanced CSL Speakers' Perspectives on Speaking Strategies

In terms of speaking strategies, practice-oriented (10/17) and substitution-oriented (7/17) strategies were the two major ones adopted by the advanced CSL speakers.

7.5.4.1 Practice-oriented Strategy

According to some advanced CSL speakers (5/17), there was an unconscious accumulation stage before their actual speaking practice. They tried not to consciously memorise new words, but rather unconsciously picked up some words or expressions that grabbed their attention. For example:

June: For me, did I try to deliberately and consciously remember something? No. For example, when I watch TV, I constantly hear some words such as 土豪 [tǔháo, tuhao], 非诚勿扰 [fēichéngwùrǎo, if you are not sincere then do not disturb] and 异地恋 [yìdì liàn, long-distance relationship]. These words are so interesting to me. They just stick in my head. And because we are young people, unavoidably we will talk about love and such. And these words just fit these topics. So after using them, these words are mine. I find this is quite helpful for me. (FG5June12/04/2014)

Tao: I used to listen to radios and read novels. As what she said [June], I happened to encounter some interesting words for many times, and I would unconsciously pick up these words. Often when I was talking to a janitor [in my apartment building], I would try to use these words. If I were wrong, the janitor would point out my mistakes. And then I remembered how to use them correctly. (FG5Tao12/04/2014)

For some (4/17) advanced CSL speakers, they wanted to consciously memorise some words and expressions before putting them into real practice. They found

this was the best way for them to improve their speaking proficiency. Some excerpts follow:

Hanna: I do not know why, but I often will try listening to my Chinese friends' conversations attentively. If I find useful expressions, I will try to remember them. Next time when I will attempt to use what I have learnt, and then those expressions will become completely mine. (FG7Hanna10/06/2014)

Mads: I am not exactly sure how good this is, but I find it helpful. For example, I may use certain structures to express my ideas, while others may use other structures. When I notice that these are different ways of expressions, I will memorise them. And I know that next time I probably will use these structures. (Int7Mads23/06/2014)

Dan: Often if a person uses a word that I do not understand well, and I find the word is interesting or useful, I may ask him the meaning of it and how to use it directly, saying, is this a noun? Can it be used as a verb as well, and so on? You know, by asking questions it helps me to remember the word. And later on, I may use it as well. (Int6Dan15/06/2014)

In addition to the above, one advanced CSL speaker mentioned that her practice strategy was to force herself to speak Chinese with her Chinese friends on the phone, so that she could not use body language to help express herself resulting in an improvement of her speech performance (FG7Judy10/06/2014). June and Krimu (FG6Krimu08/06/2014) mentioned that as advanced CSL speakers, they would constantly remind themselves to keep their speaking simple and clear rather than beating around the bush when practising Chinese.

In brief, the above advanced CSL speakers all believed that the practice-oriented strategy was helpful for strengthening their CSL speech competence/performance. They thought the effect might not be immediate, but it would be revealed in the long run.

7.5.4.2 Substitution-oriented Strategy

Many advanced CSL speakers (7/17) indicated that they preferred using substitution as a strategy to help express their ideas. Such a strategy shares similarities with the compensation strategy (Oxford, 1990; Chi, 2006) and

paraphrasing (Tarone, 1981). Both strategies allow learners to communicate in an L2 despite their L2 knowledge limitations through alternative ways. These speakers believed this strategy was closely and directly related to a person's speech performance, because "people's impression of your performance is based on what you say. If you speak clearly without much stopping, they will think you are a good speaker" (FG5Tao12/04/2014).

Tao: There are circumstances where I cannot remember a word that I normally use. I have no idea. I just cannot recall the word. Then, I will use other similar words to replace the word. If I cannot think of any similar words, I will resort to my body language or even drawing to help explain myself. (FG5Tao12/04/2014)

Tom: Normally if I can use similar words or simple sentences to explain the word that I cannot think of. This is my number one choice. However, if I cannot find a word or similar expressions to explain it, I will use English. I found that I often used English to substitute the words that I could not remember when my Chinese competence was not good. Now, I use synonyms because my vocabulary has expanded a lot. (Int10Tom29/06/2014)

Hanna: Also, I will try to remember some synonyms, so that I can use them to substitute words that I cannot think of at the moment. When people hear me, they just know I speak fluently, but they do not know that actually I use the substitution skill to help myself speak smoothly. (FG7Hanna10/06/2014)

7.5.4.3 Other Strategies

Apart from the above two major speaking strategies, other strategies, such as seeking others' assistance, key words, body language, and self-talking, were adopted by the advanced CSL speakers sporadically as well. Some excerpts follow:

Feng: Sometimes when I was called to answer a question that I did not quite get it, I still tried to answer it in one way or another. If I noticed that my answer was not what the teacher was looking for, I often would suggest our class rep to answer it, saying, oh it seems class rep would like to follow on the question. What is your opinion? Haha. (FG6Feng08/06/2014)

Cai: For me, I will try to look for the key words, trying to figure out what their discussion is about. After knowing their topic, I will jump to their discussion. This is my speaking

strategy to get involved in a conversation, to seize opportunities to practise my speaking.
(FG6Cai08/06/2014)

Judy: I often use a lot of my body language while speaking, moving my hands in the air, shrugging my shoulders, or shaking my head, whatever. I feel more comfortable to speak with my body language involved. It helps to convey myself even if I am stuck [in speaking].
(FG7Judy10/06/2014)

Jenny: As I mentioned earlier, I talk to my dog everyday. I practise what I have learnt by talking to my dog. I find it is quite useful. You can practise some new expressions before you actually use them. The more you practise, the more formulaic your speaking will become. Next time when you say something similar, you can say it right away.
(FG7Jenny10/06/2014)

7.5.5 CSL Speakers' Perspectives on Age and Processing Speed

As for age and processing speed, most of the participants both the intermediate and the advanced CSL learners suggested that age had no connection with a person's CSL Chinese speech competence and speech performance, while processing speed could be in a positive relationship with speech performance and also could be a reflection of speech competence. The result corroborates the quantitative findings in this study that processing speed was a predictor for learners' speech performance (see Section 6.6.3). Some excerpts follow:

Mat: I think so. I think processing speed has a lot to do with my speaking. I cannot speak fast [speech performance], because I am thinking how to speak. If I had advanced level, I might not need to spend too much time in thinking. I might speak spontaneously. I think processing speed is important. It represents how good your spoken Chinese [speech competence/performance] is. (Int11Mat16/05/2014)

Steve: I think the faster you process the better your speaking [speech performance] could be. Therefore, I think processing speed is positively correlated with speaking performance. Also the better you perform the better your speaking ability [speech competence] could be. In this sense, your processing speed reflects your speaking ability [speech competence] as well.
(Int18Steve23/06/2014)

Although age may not be a reason for explaining why some students are good at speaking and others are not, some pointed out that the length of time learning

Chinese might be the reason. Such a point not only resonates the quantitative findings of the predictive role of age (or length of time learning the language) on learners' speech competence, but also it supports Schauer's (2006) and Armon-Loten, et al.'s (2014) finding of the positive relationship between learning length and L2 competence.

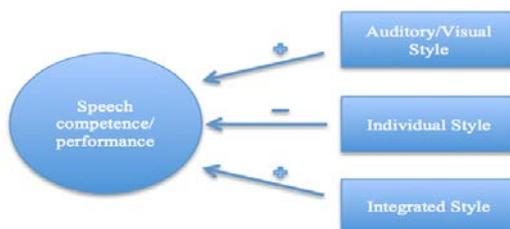
Gaoen: I do not think that age has any influence on speaking. It does not mean that the older you are the better performance you have. I guess it is more like that the longer you learn the better your Chinese is. Therefore, I think your speaking ability [speech competence] and performance have something to do with your learning length. (Int9Gaoen27/06/2014)

7.5.6 Summary and Discussion

The findings relating to Research Question 3 reveal the congruence and disparity of this representative group of CSL learners' understanding of the relationship between cognitive factors and CSL speech competence/performance (see Figures 7.3 & 7.4).

Figure 7.3

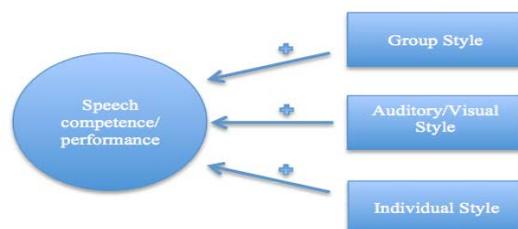
Intermediate CSL Speakers' Perspectives on Learning Styles



Note. The arrow direction refers to the cause and effect direction: + means positive effect and - means negative effect.

Figure 7.4

Advanced CSL Speakers' Perspectives on Learning Styles



Note. The arrow direction refers to the cause and effect direction: + means positive effect.

In terms of learning styles, auditory/visual, individual, and integrated learning are the three top styles adopted by the intermediate CSL speakers, while the advanced CSL counterparts preferred using group, auditory/visual, and individual learning styles.

The congruence here between the intermediate and the advanced CSL speakers is that they both agree that the auditory/visual learning style has positive effects on the development of their CSL speech competence/performance. The reasons could be that the auditory/visual learning style learners prefer listening and speaking activities, which are highly correlated with the development of speech competence/performance. In addition, neither of the two groups of CSL speakers point out the impact of the kinaesthetic/tactile learning style on the development of their CSL speech competence/performance. The reason could be that learners with such kinds of learning style are in favour of working with objects and moving around in classrooms. Such a learning style might distract learners' attention from taking opportunities to actually practise their CSL speaking. Consequently, this might hinder the progress of learners' L2 speech competence/performance due to the lack of practice. This finding lends evidence to the literature finding that visual and auditory styles are positively correlated with the achievement of L2 proficiency, while the kinaesthetic style is not a contributing factor to L2 proficiency (Kim & Kim, 2014).

The disparities between the intermediate and the advanced CSL speakers include that: 1) the group learning style is frequently used among the advanced CSL speakers which is not the case for their intermediate CSL counterparts; 2) the individual learning style is negatively linked with the intermediate CSL speakers' speech competence/performance, while the advanced CSL speakers find it beneficial; and 3) some intermediate CSL speakers are uncertain about their learning style, while most advanced CSL speakers are clear about what kind of learners they are.

First of all, although group learning is not a style found in the intermediate CSL speakers due to their self-perceived introverted personalities and their stabilised learning style, both the intermediate and the advanced CSL speakers point out

that group learning style is and could be positively linked with their CSL speech competence/performance. Apart from personality traits and learning styles, the length of time in classes with Chinese native teachers could be another factor that distinguishes the advanced CSL speakers from their intermediate counterparts in terms of their preference for group learning style. According to Hyland (1993), students who attended native teachers' classes for more than two years were more group-oriented than those who attended for less than a year.

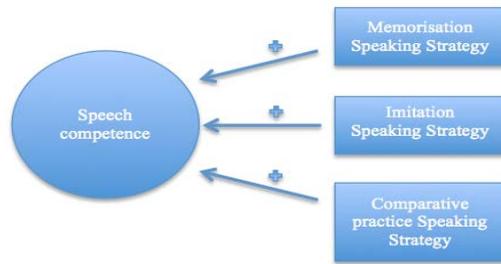
As for the individual learning style, there is a notable difference between the intermediate and the advanced CSL speakers. The intermediate CSL speakers' individual learning style is, basically, learning by themselves after class in a quiet place. They believe that such isolated individual learning prevents them from improving their CSL speech competence/performance. In contrast, the advanced CSL speakers' individual learning style is not purely studying alone but is individual-dominant. They normally seek opportunities to use what they have learned from self-study, which contributes to the progress of their CSL speech competence/performance. It can be suggested that individual learning may not be a factor resulting in learners' speech competence/performance differences, but rather the differences depend on whether individual style learners seek to practise Chinese with others or not.

The last difference is that some intermediate CSL speakers have not yet identified any particular learning styles, but they do believe that adopting a learning style may be a factor differentiating learners' speech competence/performance. On the other hand, most advanced CSL speakers are not only affirmative about their learning styles but also assert that their preferred learning styles contribute to the progress of their speech competence/performance.

In terms of speaking strategies, memorisation, imitation, and comparative practice strategies are the three most frequently identified speaking strategies among the intermediate CSL speakers, while practice-orientated and substitution-orientated strategies are for the advanced CSL speakers (see Figures 7.5 & 7.6). The details of congruence and disparity between the intermediate and advanced CSL speakers are as follows:

Figure 7.5

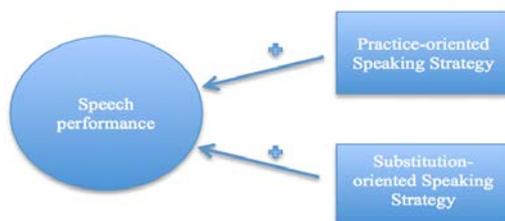
Intermediate CSL Speakers' Perspectives on Speaking Strategies



Note: The arrow direction refers to the cause and effect direction: + means positive effect.

Figure 7.6

Advanced CSL Speakers' Perspectives on Speaking Strategies



Note: The arrow direction refers to the cause and effect direction: + means positive effect.

The congruence between the intermediate and the advanced CSL speakers is that both types of speakers acknowledge that actual practice is crucial for the improvement of their speech performance. This implies that mere exposure to, or just input of, a target language may not be sufficient to reinforce learners' capacity in speech performance. Rather, it is rather the actual practice that builds up learners' self-efficacy in using CSL for communication and consequently improves their speech performance.

The disparity between the intermediate and the advanced CSL speakers mainly lies in the speaking strategies they report using. The speaking strategies used by the intermediate CSL speakers contribute more to their speech competence rather than to their speech performance. The speaking strategies used by the advanced CSL speakers, in contrast, not only contribute to their speech competence but also their speech performance. For example, the intermediate CSL speakers in the study suggest that they frequently use speaking strategies such as memorisation and imitation. Such strategies are less production-oriented but more

accumulation-orientated. It seems the intermediate CSL speakers are more likely to be in the stage of strengthening their speech competence prior to their actual speech performance. The advanced CSL speakers, however, prefer using practice-oriented and substitution-oriented strategies while speaking. This suggests that the advanced CSL speakers focus more on the reinforcement of their speech performance rather than on the development of their speech competence. Although one of the intermediate CSL speaking strategies is called comparative practice, it is more imagination-oriented in comparison with the actual practice. In other words, practice without actual output may not directly contribute to the improvement of learners' speech performance.

The reason that the intermediate CSL speakers' speaking strategies are more accumulation-oriented (or less practice-oriented) are while their advanced counterparts are more practice-driven could be due to the different stages of their interlanguage or speech competence. For the intermediate CSL speakers, their interlanguage system is more under-developed than that of the advanced CSL speakers. Therefore, they may resort to the strategies such as memorisation and imitation more frequently in order to improve their CSL native-likeness and authenticity to build up their interlanguage system, particularly their formulaic phrases and vocabulary (speech competence). The advanced CSL speakers, who have developed a relatively comprehensive interlanguage system, in contrast, would be more likely to adopt practice-oriented strategies to enhance their speech performance and to further expand their interlanguage system. The different focuses or purposes of the two types of CSL speakers, to some extent, suggest that the advanced CSL speakers may be more confident and competent than their intermediate counterparts in terms of their CSL speech competence/performance.

In terms of the influence of age and processing speed on CSL learners' speech competence/performance, they all agree that age was not a factor that would differentiate individuals' speech competence/performance but rather their CSL learning length. They also agree that processing speed (to a certain extent) could reflect how effective individuals' speech performance is but not necessarily in terms of their speech competence. Such a finding lends evidence to Segalowitz's

(2010) L2 speech production model that cognitive fluency (processing efficiency) has a direct impact on L2 speech production.

7.6 Qualitative Findings and Discussion of Research Question 4

This section presents qualitative findings for Research Question 4: “What are the relationships between affective factors and CSL learners’ speech competence and speech performance?” The qualitative analysis of the data from focus groups and semi-structured interviews indicated that there were both congruence and disparities between the intermediate and advanced CSL speakers in relation to their perspectives on affective factors and speech competence/performance.

7.6.1 Intermediate CSL Speakers’ Perspective on Motivation

The majority of the intermediate CSL speakers believed that motivation has a direct positive impact on their speech competence/performance, and this motivated them to improve their speaking. However, several of them mentioned that certain motivations would exert a negative influence on their Chinese learning. Intrinsic motivation (8/17) and extrinsic motivation (9/17) were revealed as two major categories of motivation among the intermediate CSL speakers.

7.6.1.1 Intrinsic Motivation

There were two types of intrinsic motivation found among the intermediate CSL speakers: knowledge-driven and interest-driven. The knowledge-driven CSL speakers intended to ask teachers questions in class when they had the desire to seek out or gain new knowledge. For example, Rong stated: “I will directly ask questions if I do not understand, though I feel worried that I may disturb the class. However, if I do not push myself to ask, I may never know the answer” (FG1Rong20/03/2014). Yun added to this by saying, “if you force yourself to ask questions, you will remember the answers better. This is good for your speaking” (FG1Yun20/03/2014). It can be implied that learners with knowledge-driven intrinsic motivation will seek to gain knowledge by raising questions in class, which, in turn, helps their speech competence/performance development.

The interest-driven CSL learners claimed that interest was the primary drive for their continuous learning of Chinese and their desire to improve their spoken Chinese. It was suggested that, without interest, a person would not have the on-going motivation to make progresses in terms of their speaking. For example, Meilin stated that “learning a language without interest will bring you nothing. Interest is the number one prerequisite” (Int3Meilin30/05/2014). Similar such examples follow:

Janet: There is a significant correlation between motivation and Chinese speech competence and performance. If a person is very interested in learning Chinese, they [he/she] may try to watch more Chinese TV programmes, movies, talk more with Chinese people. If you are not interested in this language, you will not do these things. (Int4Janet03/06/2014)

Mat: My motivation is that I like learning Chinese. I would like to be able to speak Chinese fluently in two years. I hope I can communicate with people without problems, just like my English. I will not stay in a society that I could not speak the language of the country. I study Chinese everyday. It is not because I am forced to do it. It is because I like Chinese, and I like to learn it well and speak it well. (Int1Mat16/05/2014)

Slightly different in Mat’s case, he was not only intrinsically interested in improving his spoken Chinese, but also he was motivated by his ideal L2 self of becoming a fluent CSL speaker.

7.6.1.2 Extrinsic Motivation

Three types of extrinsic motivation emerged from the intermediate CSL speakers’ focus groups and semi-structured interviews: people-driven, work-driven, and goal-driven motivations. Learners with people-driven extrinsic motivation were either willing or forced to learn Chinese. For instance, Sun (FG3Sun25/04/2014) and May (FG5May12/04/2014) mentioned that they were learning Chinese for the sake of his girlfriend and her boyfriend, respectively. Such people-driven motivation plays a positive role in the improvement of their Chinese, especially spoken Chinese. As Sun pointed out: “Not only I have to talk to my girlfriend but also her parents. I want to leave a good impression on them” (FG3Sun25/04/2014). Different from Sun’s and May’s motivation, Rong was partially driven by her parents in a positive way. Rong (FG1Rong20/03/2014)

pointed out that she was under a lot of pressure to live up to her parents' expectations, because they had invested so much money in her. Such a fact constantly reminded her to learn Chinese well so that her parents' investment in her would be repaid. However, if the people-driven motivation is forced, it will not generally last long. At the least though, it plays a least significant role in individuals' language learning, even in a negative way. For example, Zaya (FG4Zaya01/05/2014) and many others pointed out that their friends were forced to learn Chinese. They did not like China or the Chinese language at all. They tried for a couple of years but eventually gave up.

Work-driven motivation was another major extrinsic motivation commonly mentioned by the intermediate CSL speakers. Such motivation, serving as an engine for learning, is often positively linked with learners' speech competence/performance. For instance:

Meilin: My second motive is job-related. China's economy is getting stronger and stronger. If I have a good command of Chinese, I will be more competitive. Therefore, I think interest and your purpose of learning Chinese are the two most important motivations. With the help of these two motivations, you will be able to reach a good level of Chinese in a year. (Int3Meilin30/05/2014)

Mat (Int1Mat16/05/2014) and Cole (Int5Cole10/06/2014) also mentioned that one of their major reasons for learning L2 Chinese was that they would be involved in international business or related work in the future. One requirement of such jobs was high proficiency in Chinese. Therefore, they strove to make themselves speak Chinese fluently. Leigh (5FG12/04/2014), May (5FG12/04/2014) and Fang (1FG20/03/2014), for example, pointed out that they would like to train themselves to become more competent Chinese teachers. As a result, they were determined to improve their L2 Chinese, particularly spoken Chinese.

Goal-driven motivation was the third extrinsic motivation frequently mentioned by the intermediate CSL learners. Goal-driven learners would set up particular goals for themselves to accomplish. Such motivation is similar to the ideal L2 self that proposed in Dörnyei's (2005) L2 motivational self system. For example, both Min's (FG1Min20/03/2014) and Rong's (FG1Rong20/03/2014) goal was to pass

HSK 6 (the highest level of the Chinese proficiency test). Therefore, Min and Rong decided to homestay with Chinese families and to immerse themselves in Chinese without making any contact with Koreans in order to get good grades in the HSK test. Xin's (FG2Xin15/05/2014) goal was to follow her brothers' path of becoming a student of the top university in China. This goal motivated her to study Chinese hard. Sha (FG3Sha25/04/2014) pointed out that he would like to become a competent CSL speaker like his classmates. Thus, he decided to take part in any possible activities on campus for strengthening his spoken Chinese. Although the cases above demonstrated the extrinsic features of goal-driven motivation, some implied that goal-driven motivation alone may not be enough for the fulfilment of goals. For instance:

Jin: If you can set up an approachable goal, that is great. However, if you only have the goal but do nothing, then you will definitely fail. Actually, it is a matter of whether you want to accomplish the goal or not. If you really want something, you will not give up easily. You will not easily be distracted if your friends ask you to have fun together. (FG2Jin15/05/2014)

In spite of the importance of goal-driven extrinsic motivation in the development of learners' CSL proficiency, extrinsic goals may not be the sole or ultimate reasons that motivating learners to improve their CSL speaking, but rather extrinsic goals together with self-regulation/self-control help learners accomplish their goals.

7.6.1.3 Change in Motivation

In addition to the two categories of motivation shown above, some learners mentioned that they experienced some changes in their motivation, which contributed to the development of their CSL competence/performance. For instance, Ben (Int2Ben23/05/2014) and Jin (FG2Jin15/05/2014) suggested that they were forced to learn Chinese when they were young. Nevertheless, they afterwards found Chinese was actually quite interesting to learn. When they grew up, they decided to go to China for college education out of their interest in Chinese. Cole (Int5Cole10/06/2014) also pointed out that, even though his motivation was more work-oriented, he gradually fell in love with Chinese and decided to master the language.

7.6.2 Advanced CSL Speakers' Perspectives on Motivation

The advanced CSL speakers all believed that motivation, either intrinsic or extrinsic, provided them with the main impetus to improve their speech competence/performance. However, only four out of the 17 participants pointed out that they were inspired by their intrinsic motivation; the majority of the advanced CSL speakers were more driven by extrinsic motivation.

7.6.2.1 Intrinsic Motivation

One of the four learners who was intrinsically motivated mentioned that he wanted to challenge himself to learn a foreign language successfully. Chinese as an exotic and unique language, different from most other languages, turned out to be his first option. The learner pointed out that “if you are not interested in learning it, you will not look for any extra stuff, such as online materials, to assist your learning” (Int7Mads23/06/2014). He further added that he was more interested in communication, which led him to make more effort to improve his speaking, such as “talking to Chinese friend, online learning, and coming over to China for improving [his] Chinese” (Int7Mads23/06/2014). More example of such follow:

Steve: I like Chinese. I have always been interested in Chinese and China even when I was a child. When I was a student in Austria, there was no opportunity for me to learn Chinese. My desire to learn Chinese has been accumulating since then. Later, I came to China for the sake of Chinese. I think a lot of Chinese culture and history cannot be explained by other languages, or explained clearly. You have to know Chinese for a complete comprehension of them, such as Chinese idioms, slangs, and their origins, which are all a part of Chinese culture and are commonly used by Chinese people. If you don't have a decent level of Chinese, you will find it hard to understand and use them, even with good translation. (Int8Steve24/06/2014)

Yeats: I love Chinese. I find it interesting and logical to learn. Each character contains a meaning and can be freely combined with other characters to make up different phrases with different meanings. I hope I can become a Chinese writer one day. I have been trying to write something in Chinese. Yes, this to some extent helps my spoken Chinese as well. Because I like memorising some good sentence structures and expressions for the

improvement of my Chinese, and all these can be used in my spoken Chinese as well. (FG3Yeats25/04/2014)

Tom: The more I learnt Chinese, the more interested that I became. When I learnt a new sentence structure, I thought it was awesome that I could use it next time. Other students were learning it for passing exams. When they learnt the new structure, they would think “oh my god another new grammatical structure”. Instead, they should be happy for learning another new practical application. (Int10Tom19/06/2014)

7.6.2.2 Extrinsic Motivation

The three main extrinsic motivations that emerged from the advanced CSL speakers included work-driven, introjection-driven, and people-driven motivations. Work-driven motivation was one of the most frequently mentioned extrinsic motivations. Such outward work-driven motivation often stimulated and sustained learners’ inward responsibility towards their work or their inward desire for getting the work. Some excerpts follow:

June: For various reasons I become a Chinese teacher at a school. Since it is my occupation now, I must be responsible for it. So, I came to China in order to enrich my knowledge of Chinese so that I can better serve my teaching and my students. I particularly paid a lot of attention for the improvement of my spoken expression ability for the sake of my job. It is also because I am here in China now; I should make use of it. (FG5June12/04/2014)

Bai: To be frank my motivation has nothing to do with interest. The reason I learn Chinese is only because of the job requirement. Knowing how to use Chinese is getting more and more important in Mongolia nowadays. If you know how to write and speak Mandarin, especially speaking, you will have a certain advantage of getting a good job. This becomes my impetus for learning Chinese. (FG3Bai25/04/2014)

Tao: I was a Chinese teacher back in Thailand as well. I came here to work on my master’s degree, as I believed it was very important for my career. The programme can improve my teaching ability and my Chinese proficiency. I am very strict with myself. In addition to assignments, I practise a lot in order to improve my spoken Chinese. It is getting better and better. (FG5Tao12/04/2014)

Introjection-driven motivation refers to learners’ behaviour regulation out of ego-enhancement, shame, and guilt (R. M. Ryan & Deci, 2000a). For example, June

(FG5June12/04/2014) mentioned that she felt that she represented her country when she was speaking Chinese, because her classmates were from different countries. She did not want to leave an impression on her peers that students from Burma could not speak Chinese well. Therefore, she reminded herself that she must study hard on behalf of her country. More such examples can be found as follows:

Feng: When I was talking to my Chinese friends, I always felt that I could have done better. I could have used one to two sentences to express myself, but I used three or four, maybe even more, sentences to get my message through. I felt really bad and guilty for myself. For this reason, I have been trying to improve my spoken Chinese. (FG6Feng08/06/2014)

Krimu: I guess when I was talking to lower class [language students or undergraduates] students, they would have the impression that we upper class students [postgraduates] have been learning Chinese for seven or eight years, and our Chinese must be very good. Not only did they have such kind of feeling, but we have such a feeling as well. This may not be true, but I have such kind of imagination. I would feel ashamed of myself if I could not speak well in front of them. (FG6Krimu08/06/2014)

Lin: The competition among us is so fierce. I have to study really hard in order not to fall behind my classmates. We have presentations every week. I usually prepare them well. You know, I am an overseas Chinese. My great-great grandparents were from China. I definitely should speak Chinese well. Otherwise my classmates will laugh at me I guess. (FG2Lin15/15/2014)

People-driven motivation was the third commonly mentioned extrinsic motivation among the advanced CSL speakers. Jenny (FG7Jenny10/06/2014) mentioned that she tried to speak good Chinese in order to make her parents feel proud of her and also to gain face for them. Similar such excerpts follow:

June: When I was teaching Chinese in Burma, I found that the generation after me their motivation was low. They were normally forced by their parents to learn Chinese. Because they were so lack of motivation and the school did not offer Chinese class everyday, their oral Chinese was pretty bad, even after a few years' learning. I want to improve my Chinese, particularly my spoken Chinese, while I am doing my master degree here. I want to bring back good teaching methods to Burma to help my students learn Chinese. (FG5June12/04/2014)

It can be noted from June that many L2 Chinese learners in Burma were reluctant to learn Chinese partly due to parental compulsion. Such a negative people-driven phenomenon, in contrast, strengthened June's people-driven motivation to improve her Chinese for her students.

7.6.3 Intermediate CSL Speakers' Perspectives on L2 Anxiety

All the 17 intermediate CSL speakers indicated that L2 anxiety was negatively associated with their speech competence/performance. Once they were anxious and worried, especially when the feeling was too intense, they could not remember what they had memorised or organised in their minds and their speech suffered from distorted intonation and pronunciation. Although the intermediate CSL speakers all agreed on the debilitating effect of L2 anxiety on speech competence/performance, six out of the 17 implied that L2 anxiety was no longer a problem for them (FG3Sun25/04/2014; Int1Mat16/05/2014; Int2Ben23/05/2014; Int3Meilin30/05/2014; Int4Janet03/06/2014; Int5Cole10/06/2014). There were certain formal occasions, such as a conference or a contest with a large audience, where the anxiety would probably bother them; otherwise they were not afraid of being anxious when speaking. Apart from the above, two out of the 17 interviewees also suggested that a little bit of L2 anxiety (or facilitating anxiety) could contribute to their speech competence/performance (FG1Yun20/03/2014; FG2Jin15/05/2014). Three main types of L2 anxiety emerged from the intermediate CSL speakers including fear-related anxiety, communication apprehension, and test anxiety.

Fear-related anxiety was the most common anxiety mentioned by the intermediate CSL speakers (11/17). More specifically, fear of being laughed at and fear of negative evaluation were the two main types. Fear of negative evaluation refers to the "apprehension about others' evaluations and avoidance of evaluative situations" (Alrabai, 2015, p. 165). Such a fear restrained students, specifically Asian students, from taking an active role in conversations. For example, May pointed out that she was "scared of being criticised by teachers" if she did not speak well. This made her feel worried that the teachers would regard her as "a

bad student” (FG5May12/04/2014). Rong also pointed out that she was afraid of being negatively evaluated by her peer students:

Rong: I want to say that when I was talking to my classmates in Chinese, some of them speak better Chinese than I do, so when I was talking to the good ones, I was afraid that I could not get my meaning across. I was thinking that what if they did not understand what I said, what would they think of me? (FG1Rong20/03/2014)

Although fear of negative evaluation (4/17) was one of the main types of fear-related anxiety, it was a fear of being laughed at that was more frequently stated by the intermediate CSL speakers (7/17). For example, Yun pointed out: “I was worried that if I spoke something wrong, my classmates would laugh at me. Then I do not want to say anything even if I have something to say” (FG1Yun20/03/2014). Yun’s focus group peers all seconded her opinion. Similar such excerpts follow:

Leigh: In class, when teachers say let us discuss, then I will turn to be really anxious and nervous. What I said is normally different from what I wanted to say. I really do not like speaking in class. Because if you speak something stupid, you will be laughed. It is embarrassing. (FG5Leigh12/04/2014)

Amy: I have a boyfriend. He has been learning Chinese for six years. Until now I still do not want to speak Chinese with him, because his Chinese is much better than mine. If I say something wrong, he will laugh at me, then I feel embarrassed, so I do not speak Chinese with him. (FG4Amy01/05/2014)

Communication apprehension was the second most commonly mentioned L2 anxiety in the intermediate CSL speakers (7/17). Learners with communication apprehension were afraid of talking to people either in real, or anticipated, conversational situations. Often they experienced communication apprehension when talking to teachers, strangers, and authorities. For example:

May: I am so scared of talking to teachers. I am so nervous, because they are Chinese and they are teachers. You cannot talk to them like friends, especially when teachers are much older than you. Just like what she said, my sentence structures are all messed up and many words are forgotten when talking to teachers. (FG5May12/04/2014)

Jin: One time when I was walking on the street. A Beijinger walked towards me. The moment he asked me questions, I was very anxious. I could not understand at all about what he said, because Beijing people speak rather loud and fast, like shouting, and their accent is strong to me. I just replied that I was a foreigner and could not understand what he said. Then I walked away. (FG2Jin15/05/2014)

Test anxiety, though not as common as fear-related anxiety and communication apprehension, was another notable L2 anxiety experienced by the intermediate CSL speakers (5/17). Speakers who suffered from test anxiety pointed out that extreme pressure and nervousness engendered negative (and debilitating) effects on their speaking, such as distorted sentence structure, sharpened accent, and forgotten words. For example, Yun mentioned that “some words can be used in conversation without a problem. However, it will turn out to be a different scenario when trying to use them in oral exams” (FG1Yun20/03/2014). In addition, “pre-planned ideas cannot be delivered because of the intense test anxiety” (FG5Leigh12/04/2014), and their “Chinese will sound ugly” (FG3Sha25/04/2014).

Janet: I used be anxious when I was having an oral exam. A lot of words and expressions would suddenly disappear. I do not know why, maybe because of the pressure and the anxiety. You want to show the best of yourself to the examiner. However, the harder you try, the worse you perform. You have to let the feeling go and try to focus on the exam itself. I am no longer like that, because I have been through it. (Int4Janet03/06/2014)

7.6.4 Advanced CSL Speakers’ Perspectives on L2 Anxiety

More than half (12/17) of the advanced CSL speakers suggested that L2 anxiety was the source of their inferior speech competence/performance. They would experience a moment of mind block, nervousness, stuttering, and shaking voice and body. As Yeats (FG3Yeats25/04/2014) mentioned that he could not organise his speech and could not speak a word when devastated by anxiety. Fear-related anxiety and test anxiety were the two notable types of L2 anxiety emerged from the 12/17 advanced CSL speakers. Interestingly, four out of the 17 advanced CSL speakers pointed out that L2 anxiety could be both facilitating (when anxiety is not intense) and debilitating (when anxiety is intense) to their speech competence/performance (FG2Lin15/05/2014; FG7Hanna10/06/2014;

FG7Judy10/06/2014; FG7Jenny10/06/2014). Five out of the 17 did not have the L2 anxiety problem at all when speaking Chinese either formally or informally (Int6Dan15/06/2014; Int7Mads23/06/2014; Int8Steve24/06/2014; Int9Gaoen27/06/2014; Int10Tom29/06/2014).

Fear-related anxiety was the number one cause of inferior speech competence/performance for the advanced CSL speakers. To be more specific, they pointed out their fear of being negatively evaluated or of impeding the communication flow caused their speech breakdowns, particularly the fear of negative evaluation. Such examples include: “I am worried when I am speaking, especially when I cannot speak fluently. Others will think that you are a postgraduate student, and is this your Chinese level? I am scared of this [judgement]” (FG5Tao12/04/2014); “although I like speaking Chinese with my friends, to communicate with them, I am concerned that if I make mistakes or if I cannot speak so well, they will think okay this is your level. You even cannot even speak this” (FG6Krimu08/06/2014).

Feng: I will go back to Thailand to be a teacher. Because we have a lot of ethnic Chinese, some students started speaking Chinese when they were little. I have the fear that some students can speak much better Chinese than I do. They probably will wonder why I speak so poorly. I am really worried. (FG6Feng08/06/2014)

June: After I finish my Masters, I will resume my job as a teacher back home. I fear that when I go back after two years of study, my colleagues will think that there is no change in my language proficiency. This feeling will make me nervous when I speak in Chinese. (FG5June12/04/2014)

Other advanced CSL speakers mentioned that they were “very scared of causing misunderstandings” (FG6Cai08/06/2014) if there was something wrong with their expressions. Therefore, they did not want to “interrupt the normal speed of communication” (FG6Feng08/06/2014). Such a fear of impeding the communication flow impeded learners from taking initiatives in communication.

Test anxiety was another type of L2 anxiety commonly reported by the advanced CSL speakers, in addition to fear-related anxiety. In fact, speaking itself was not a problem for the advanced CSL speakers; it was the pressure caused by tests that

to a large extent affected the advanced CSL speakers' speech competence/performance. Examples included:

Lin: When I take oral exams, I definitely cannot do well. Because you only have one chance, if you cannot get a good score, your GPA will be affected. The pressure is huge. However, when I am in class or out of class, I am very relaxed. I can speak whatever I want. I do not pay attention to grammar or structure or anything. In contrast, in such kind of relaxing moments, I can perform much better than the moments when I am anxious and struggling with every detail while speaking. In fact, such anxiety and struggle will result in making more mistakes. (FG2Lin15/05/2014)

Hanna: Normally speaking, I am ok. I don't think oral exams will be difficult for me. However, when I was taking HSK, the oral examination part, it was out of expectation, my heart beat so fast. It was so intense, the pressure. When I was listening to the audio, my mind could not remember anything. My mind was such a blank. In the end, I could not speak a word. (FG7Hanna10/06/2014)

7.6.5 Intermediate CSL Speakers' Perspectives on L2 Speaking Self-Efficacy

In terms of speaking self-efficacy, more than half of the intermediate CSL speakers (9/17) indicated that they were confident about their L2 Chinese speaking. The rest (8/17) perceived themselves as relatively confident speakers but with reservations, because many factors could influence the status of their L2 speaking self-efficacy, such as language proficiency level, frequency of practice, feedback, and familiarity (such as with topics and interlocutors). Due to the effect of these factors, the intermediate CSL speakers' L2 speaking self-efficacy was rather unstable. Nevertheless, they all tended to agree that L2 speaking self-efficacy was positive linked with their CSL speech competence/performance.

Taking the influence of language proficiency level on L2 speaking self-efficacy for example, the intermediate CSL speakers suggested that low language proficiency would impair their confidence to talk to CSL learners with high language proficiency. Yun, for instance, pointed out that she "may not have the ability to understand or follow the advanced level speakers" (FG1Yun20/03/2014). Her confidence in speaking, therefore, would wane when talking to the advanced speakers. Practising Chinese on a regular basis (frequency

of practice) is also a factor that contributes to the intermediate CSL learners' L2 speaking self-efficacy.

Leigh: When I was in Thailand, I could not speak at all. I had such a lack of confidence to even say hi. Every time I saw my Chinese teacher, I had to hide from her, because she would speak Chinese with her students. Because at that time I was so afraid of speaking Chinese, I did not practise my spoken Chinese at all. As a result, I could not speak Chinese even after graduation. Also, there are limited opportunities in Thailand to use Chinese. Until I got the chance to study in China, my confidence in speaking Chinese gradually built up due to my frequent contact with Chinese. (FG5Leigh12/04/2014)

In addition, the intermediate CSL speakers also pointed out that the interlocutors' feedback was important. They indicated that their L2 Chinese speaking self-efficacy would wane in circumstances when they thought that they had expressed themselves clearly, but they were then asked by native speakers to repeat or explain what they had just said. Apart from feedback, it was suggested that they would be more confident if the topic or the interlocutor was familiar to them.

Overall, the intermediate CSL speakers' speaking self-efficacy was still in a stage of construction and reconstruction. Although most of them were confident about their CSL speaking, there were circumstances in which they were not confident, such as talking to the advanced CSL speakers. All the intermediate CSL speakers, however, seemed to agree that speaking self-efficacy was positively associated with their CSL speaking. They also indicated that the more they learned, "the more difficult" (FG1Min20/03/2014) they found Chinese was and "the more aspects" (FG2Jin15/05/2014) they thought they should learn, which weakened their speaking self-efficacy to some degree.

7.6.6 Advanced CSL Speakers' Perspectives on L2 Speaking Self-Efficacy

The majority of the advanced CSL speakers (15/17) claimed that they were confident about their spoken Chinese in most cases (except in complicated and in-depth discussions), while the rest (2/17) indicated that they were not that confident about their CSL speaking. In terms of the relationship between L2 speaking self-efficacy and CSL speech competence/performance, they all agreed

that the two were positively linked. Nevertheless, their L2 speaking self-efficacy was mostly subject to their frequency of practice. Sometimes, self-encouragement and others' compliments were important for the maintenance of their L2 speaking self-efficacy. Some excerpts follow:

June: I think my speaking confidence is in a way the reflection of my oral Chinese. They are closely related. And I think the confidence has a lot to do with the frequency of repetition. If you practise the same topic again and again, you know what to talk about, even without thinking. So I think your confidence is stemmed from the repetition. If you do the same thing everyday, you will find which part is good, which part is not good. Then you will improve. (FG5June12/04/2014)

Krimu: I agree. They are positively correlated. If you want to be successful [to speak well], you have to be confident. I think there are two relevant factors that are important for your confidence. One is external, which is the compliments from others. The other is internal. You have to say to yourself over and over again that you can do it. (FG6Krimu08/06/2014)

In brief, the advanced CSL speakers' speaking self-efficacy was relatively stable. The majority of them were confident in speaking Chinese in whatever circumstance. They believed that speaking self-efficacy was positively associated with their CSL speech competence/performance.

7.6.7 Intermediate CSL Speakers' Perspectives on L2 WTC

In terms of L2 WTC, 10 out of the 17 intermediate CSL speakers agreed that L2 WTC was positively linked with CSL speech competence/performance. For example, Cole mentioned that "the biggest reason that my spoken Chinese improved so quickly and so much was because [he likes] talking to people very much. However, if you are not willing to speak up, you will lose a lot of opportunities to improve your proficiency" (Int5Cole10/06/2014).

A total of seven out of the 17 intermediate CSL speakers indicated that there was not necessarily any relationship between L2 WTC and CSL speech competence/performance in the short term. Nevertheless, L2 WTC could be "helpful for the development of CSL competence/performance in the long run" (FG4Amy01/05/2014). For example:

Jin: Some of my classmates who have a strong willingness to communicate. Every time when class is over, they will ask teachers questions. However, they cannot speak well. It sounds stuttering and repetitive. In the end, the teachers even reply “what on earth are you saying?” Although my classmates’ spoken Chinese may not be positively correlated with their willingness to communicate at first sight, they did make some progress compared with their spoken Chinese last year. (FG2Jin15/05/2014)

Despite the two differing views on the relationship between L2 WTC and CSL speech competence/performance, the intermediate CSL speakers implied that topic and interlocutor were the two main factors that would influence their L2 WTC. It was pointed out that if a topic was interesting they would be more willing to participate and would perform better. For instance:

Xin: I have two language partners, one male and one female. When I talk to the male friend, it is not smooth, because we do not share much in common. Whereas with my female friend I can talk a lot, we can talk about cosmetics, shopping, and Korean stars. A lot of topics. When I talk to her, I speak better and speak more. I am more willing to speak Chinese. (FG2Xin15/05/2014)

In addition to topic, interlocutor was another important factor that could determine to what extent an intermediate CSL speaker would like to participate in a conversation. It was mentioned that if “an interlocutor looks nice and approachable” (FG1Yun20/03/2014), they would be more willing to communicate with the person. Regardless of topic and interlocutor, one thing that the intermediate CSL learners were looking for was a sense of familiarity. Once they felt related, the intermediate CSL learners would be more enthusiastic about engaging in communication, which, in turn, improved their CSL speech competence/performance.

7.6.8 Advanced CSL Speakers’ Perspectives on L2 WTC

As for the 17 advanced CSL speakers, they claimed that L2 WTC was, to some extent, correlated with CSL speech competence/performance. June, for instance, mentioned that “there is a certain influence of willingness to communicate in spoken Chinese. Nevertheless, the influence was not big” (FG5June12/04/2014). Among the 17 speakers, five specifically indicated that, although L2 WTC and

CSL speech competence/performance were linked, L2 WTC could influence their speaking more in terms of its quantity rather than its quality. This, to some extent, implied that L2 WTC has more to do with speech performance (speech amount) but less to do with speech competence (speech quality). For example, Bai mentioned that “willingness to communicate will influence speaking. It is that you are eager and willing to speak more. That is it” (FG3Bai25/04/2014). More evidence follows:

Dan: If I do not want to speak to a person, I may speak less [speech performance]. However, it will not influence my speaking ability [speech competence] because I do not like the person. It is just that I will speak less and speak unwillingly. My oral Chinese will not become bad because of the person. (Int6Dan15/06/2014)

Another five out of the 17 suggested that, despite the association between L2 WTC and speech competence/performance, the interlocutor was one of the main factors determining the extent to which they would like to communicate. It was for example, whether the interlocutor was “approachable and interesting” (FG5Tao12/04/2014), or whether the interlocutor was “familiar” to the learner or not (FG7Judy10/06/2014), or whether the interlocutors’ “feedback was positive or not” (FG06Mia08/06/2014).

More interestingly, seven out of the 17 advanced CSL speakers pointed out that L2 WTC could be volitional, which means no matter whether they are truly willing or not, their volition could determine how much they would like to participate in a conversation. For example:

Steve: Definitely, if you are more willing, you will speak more. My oral Chinese is like a cup of tea, I have to continuously add hot water to it no matter what. Otherwise, it will get cold. That is to say, I must challenge myself constantly to practise my oral Chinese for maintaining a certain level no matter I like it or not. (Int8Steve24/06/2014)

Gaoen: I used to be more willing to practise my Chinese with people whom I like. I did not talk to people like construction workers. I feel we are from two different worlds. Now, I tumble down from such kinds of perception. Instead, I try my best to talk with anyone rather than just people that I like. After all, they are all native Chinese people. (Int9Gaoen27/06/2014)

Yeats: I am quite shy, so actually my willingness to communicate is not that strong. However, I know that if I want to improve my Chinese, I have to force myself to practise in order to improve my oral Chinese. If you are determined and have goals in mind, regardless of what kind of method you are taking, if it can help you to accomplish your goals, it is a good one. (Int9Gaoen27/06/2014)

7.6.9 Summary and Discussion

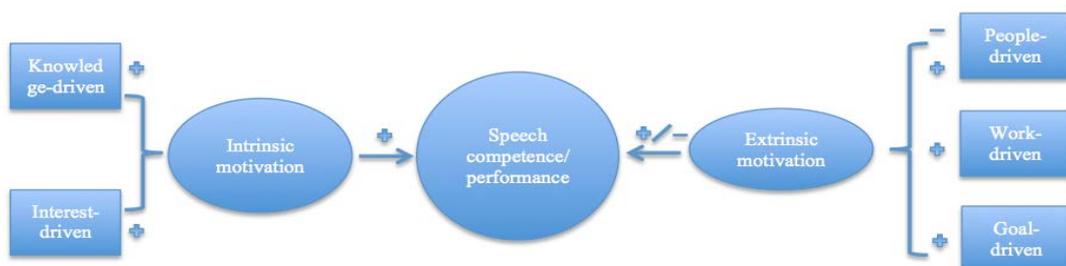
There are both congruence and disparities in relation to the intermediate and the advanced CSL speakers' understandings of the relationship between affective factors and CSL speech competence/performance drawing on the above results.

7.6.9.1 Influences of Motivation on CSL Speech Competence/Performance

In terms of motivation, both the intermediate and advanced CSL speakers generally acknowledged the positive contribution of motivation for the improvement of their speech competence/performance (see Figures 7.7 & 7.8). Intrinsic and extrinsic are the two main categories of motivation that were revealed from the data for both the intermediate and the advanced CSL speakers. Nevertheless, more intermediate CSL speakers (8/17) are intrinsically motivated compared with their advanced counterparts (4/17). The cause of the drop in intrinsic motivation among the advanced CSL learners could be due to “non-intrinsically interesting tasks” in their postgraduate courses in classroom contexts, which may lead the intrinsic motivation to become “weaker with each advancing grade” (R. M. Ryan & Deci, 2000a, p. 60).

Figure 7.7

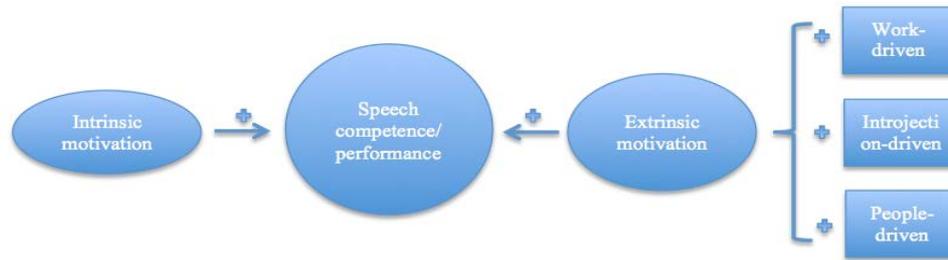
Intermediate CSL Speakers' Perspectives on Motivation



Note. The arrow direction refers to the cause and effect direction: + means positive effect and – means negative effect.

Figure 7.8

Advanced CSL Speakers' Perspectives on Motivation



Note. The arrow direction refers to the cause and effect direction: + means positive effect.

The difference in terms of extrinsic motivation is that although the two levels of speakers are both more extrinsically motivated, the intermediate CSL speakers are firstly people-driven, then work-driven, and lastly goal-driven (see Figure 7.7), while the advanced CSL speakers are firstly work-driven, then introjection-driven, and lastly people-driven (see Figure 7.8) according to their frequencies, respectively. Apart from the frequency difference, the intermediate CSL speakers believe that people-driven extrinsic motivation has either positive or negative effects on their CSL speech competence/performance, while the advanced CSL learners claim that there is a negative effect from people-driven extrinsic motivation on their CSL speech competence/performance. The differences between the two levels of speakers could be due to their different independence levels. In other words, the advanced CSL speakers are more mature than the intermediate CSL speakers. This means the advanced CSL speakers might be clearer about what they are looking for, while the intermediate CSL speakers would just obey their parents' instructions.

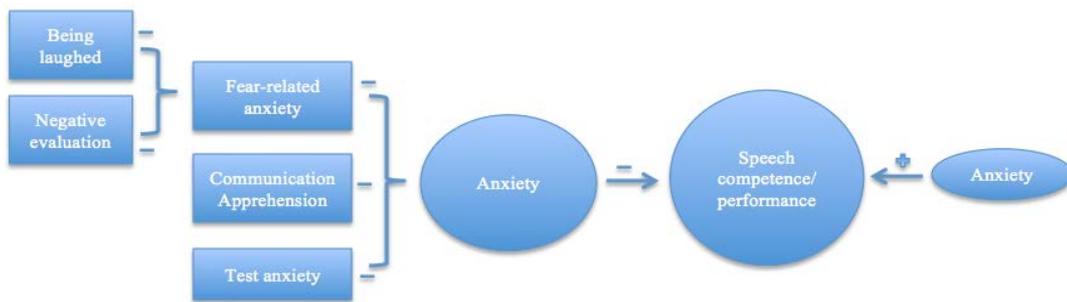
To sum up, the qualitative findings concerning motivation in this study lend evidence not only to the dichotomous framework of motivation (intrinsic and extrinsic) shown in the literature (see Section 4.3.3 for details), but also Dörnyei's (2005) L2 motivational self system that motivation can originate from learners' internally or externally engendered self images.

7.6.9.2 Influences of Anxiety on CSL Speech Competence/Performance

In terms of L2 anxiety, both the intermediate and the advanced CSL speakers claim that anxiety could be positively and negatively linked with their speech competence/performance (see Figures 7.9 & 7.10). The negative influence of anxiety on learner' speech competence/performance, however, could be more frequently found in CSL learners. In addition, fear-related anxiety and test anxiety are also commonly identified in the two levels of CSL speakers. The qualitative results corroborate the quantitative findings in this study that anxiety could negatively predict learners' both CSL speech competence and speech performance (see Sections 6.7.2 & 6.7.3).

Figure 7.9

Intermediate CSL Speakers' Perspectives on Anxiety



Note. The arrow direction refers to the cause and effect direction: + means positive effect and – means negative effect.

Figure 7.10

Advanced CSL Speakers' Perspectives on Anxiety



Note. The arrow direction refers to the cause and effect direction: + means positive effect and – means negative effect.

The disparity in terms of anxiety between the intermediate and the advanced CSL speakers can be clearly detected by comparing Figure 7.9 with Figure 7.10. To be more specific, communication apprehension is a source of anxiety for the

intermediate CSL speakers, while it is not for the advanced. In addition, a slight difference is found between the two levels of speakers in terms of fear-related anxiety. Fear of being laughed at and fear of negative evaluation are the sources of fear-related anxiety for the intermediate CSL speakers, while fear of negative evaluation and fear of being misunderstood are significant for the advanced CSL speakers. Last but not least, anxiety is found to be more facilitating for the advanced CSL speakers than for their intermediate counterparts. In general, the intermediate CSL speakers are more easily subject to the negative influence of anxiety compared with their advanced counterparts.

The possible explanation for the differences between the two levels of speakers in relation to anxiety could be due to their different CSL speaking experiences in the past. As different past L2 learning experience could result in different pre-understandings of future actions (Dörnyei, 2005, Nicolson & Adams, 2008); this, in turn, could result in different types and levels of anxiety contributing to learners' CSL speaking. For example, the advanced CSL speakers are comparatively more experienced than the intermediate CSL speakers in terms of CSL speaking. They would consider speaking as more like exchanging ideas with others rather than being judged by others. As a result, the advanced CSL speakers might suffer less from communication apprehension.

To sum up, the qualitative results concerning anxiety in this study enrich our understanding of what specific anxieties might influence learners' speech competence/performance. Such findings not only add more evidence to the literature (see Section 4.3.1 for details) that anxiety can be debilitating but also can be facilitating.

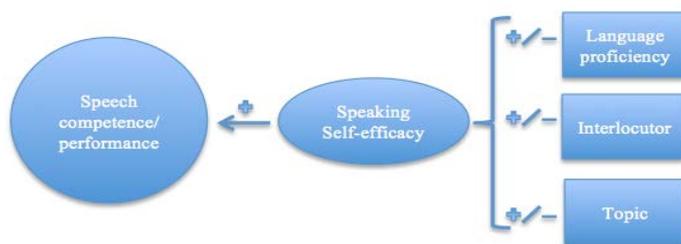
7.6.9.3 Influences of Self-Efficacy on CSL Speech Competence/Performance

In terms of L2 speaking self-efficacy (see Figures 7.11 & 7.12), both the intermediate and the advanced CSL speakers perceive themselves as confident L2 Chinese speakers. They believe that L2 speaking self-efficacy is positively linked with their CSL speech competence/performance. Comparatively speaking, the intermediate CSL speakers are less confident than their advanced counterparts in

CSL speech competence/performance. Moreover, the intermediate CSL speakers are more easily subject to their language proficiency, the interlocutors, and the topics. The advanced CSL speakers, in contrast, are more conscious of utilising practice, self-encouragement, and others' compliments strategies to reinforce their CSL speaking self-efficacy. This might result in the differences between the intermediate and the advanced CSL speakers in their CSL speech competence/performance.

Figure 7.11

Intermediate CSL Speakers' Perspectives on Self-Efficacy



Note. The arrow direction refers to the cause and effect direction: + means positive effect and – means negative effect.

Figure 7.12

Advanced CSL Speakers' Perspectives on Self-Efficacy



Note. The arrow direction refers to the cause and effect direction: + means positive effect and – means negative effect.

It is not surprising to find a positive relationship between CSL speech competence/performance and L2 speaking self-efficacy in the two levels of CSL speakers. Much evidence has suggested that self-efficacy appears to be closely related to academic performance (Caprara, Vecchione, Alessandri, Gerbino, & Barbaranelli, 2011). Nevertheless, the reason why the intermediate CSL speakers are less confident than their advanced counterparts in terms of speaking might be more worthy of more investigation. One possible reason could be the continuous

corrective feedback in relation to speech performance that they might receive from teachers in classroom contexts, as the courses that the intermediate CSL speakers take are more CSL language-training oriented. According to Lyster, Saito, and Sato (2013), corrective feedback may affect students' self-esteem and motivation in a negative manner. As a result, students' speaking self-efficacy could be adversely affected due to their low self-esteem and motivation.

In brief, the qualitative results concerning self-efficacy in this study add to our knowledge regarding the role of speaking self-efficacy in the two levels of CSL learners' speech competence/performance.

7.6.9.4 Influences of WTC on CSL Speech Competence/Performance

In terms of L2 WTC, slightly over half of the intermediate CSL speakers attribute the improvement of their speech competence/performance to their WTC, while the rest do not see a strong positive relationship between their speech competence/performance and L2 WTC. The result partially corroborates the quantitative findings in this study that L2 WTC can positively predict learners' CSL speech competence (see Section 6.7.2 for details). To be more specific, the advanced CSL speakers from the qualitative phase all tend to agree that speech competence/performance is partially associated with their L2 WTC. However, L2 WTC has an impact on the advanced CSL speakers' speech quantity rather than on their speech quality. It is, therefore, hard to conclude whether the link between L2 WTC and CSL speech competence/performance is positive or negative. Nevertheless, such a finding lends evidence to the volitional nature of L2 WTC (Kang, 2005; MacIntyre, 2007). In brief, the extent to which the advanced CSL speakers would like to talk to others is a matter of their self-control, whereas for the intermediate CSL speakers L2 WTC is mostly determined by topics and interlocutors.

7.7 Qualitative Findings and Discussion of Research Question 5

This section presents the qualitative findings for Research Question 5: "What are the relationships between socio-cultural factors and CSL learners' speech

competence and speech performance?” The perspectives of the intermediate level and the advanced level CSL speakers will be summarised in the following sections.

7.7.1 Intermediate CSL Speakers’ Perspectives on L2 Cultural Interest

All the 17 intermediate level CSL speakers pointed out that they were interested in Chinese social culture. They also indicated that the positive effect of such an interest was that it helped improve their CSL speech competence/performance, particularly over the aspects such as vocabulary, grammar, fluency and accuracy.

Among the 17 intermediate CSL speakers, 5/17 revealed their strong interest in Chinese social culture. For example, Ben said: “I really enjoy reading Chinese literature and watching Chinese movies. I appreciate the way stories and culture are told through books and act through movies” (Int2Ben23/05/2014). Amy stated: “I like Chinese culture very much, because China has 56 ethnic groups and their cultures are different” (FG4Amy01/05/2014).

Eight out of the 17 intermediate CSL speakers pointed out that they liked Chinese songs and found that listening to songs was helpful for learning vocabulary, sentence structures, and pronunciation. For example, Leigh mentioned that listening to songs could “renovate vocabulary and perfect pronunciation” (FG5Leigh12/04/2014).

Zaya: If there is a song that I do not quite get the meaning of it, I will look it up, so that I can learn some new words and expressions, because there may be some beautiful and insightful sentences in lyrics. In addition, every singer has his/her own accent, listening to different accents can be helpful for improving listening, thus speaking. (FG4Zaya01/05/2014)

Eleven out of the 17 intermediate CSL speakers pointed out that movies and TV programmes were good for the improvement of their spoken Chinese, such as vocabulary, fluency, and accuracy aspects. For instance, Sun pointed out that “I am interested in Chinese social culture, such as TV shows and movies. These are all helpful for the improvement of my oral Chinese, such as vocabulary, grammar, fluency and so on” (FG3Sun25/04/2015).

Yun: I was not fond of Chinese society and culture. After I came to China, I became particularly interested in Chinese TV series. I often spent my leisure time watching TV series and chatting with my Chinese friends. These methods contributed a lot to my spoken Chinese, such as vocabulary, sentence structure and fluency. (FG1Yun20/03/2014)

7.7.2 Advanced CSL Speakers' Perspectives on L2 Cultural Interest

All the 17 advanced level CSL speakers pointed out that they were very attracted to Chinese culture, specifically Chinese movies and television. They also implied that such an attachment was beneficial to the progress of their CSL speech competence/performance, particularly aspects such as vocabulary, fluency, and authenticity. Examples include:

Cai: Very helpful. Because I am interested in Chinese culture, I will try every possible means, such as television and movies, to know more and deeper about it. This kind of behaviour contributes a lot to support me to continuously improve my spoken Chinese and my Chinese overall. (FG6Cai08/06/2014)

Dan: I really like Chinese movies and television. Movies and television can teach you specific sets of vocabulary that you may not be able to learn from textbooks. Learning the way the language is spoken by listening to native people is the best way to start talking "normally". (Int6Dan15/06/2014)

Tom: I like Chinese social culture very much, such as Chinese television, movies, music, and entertaining shows, particularly 非诚勿扰 [Chinese dating show] and 我是演说家 [I am an orator]. Through watching these shows I get to know the current situations of China, people's opinions at different ages, and popular online expressions, which enlarges my vocabulary, enhances the authenticity of my Chinese, and enriches my knowledge of Chinese cultural etiquette. All these make it easier for me to adapt to Chinese society. (Int10Tom29/06/2014)

7.7.3 Intermediate CSL Speakers' Perspectives on Attitudes towards L2 Communities

The 17 intermediate level CSL speakers indicated that the positives of L2 community outweigh the negatives in terms of its impact on their CSL speech competence/performance development. To be more specific, the majority of the intermediate CSL found that travelling in China (14/17) or living in their local

Chinese community (8/17) contributed to the improvement of their CSL speech competence/performance. Nevertheless, some intermediate CSL speakers (8/17) also revealed their negative attitudes towards the L2 communities where people were impolite or there was a lack of the awareness of personal hygiene. For instance, Yun pointed out that she did “not like living in a place where people are rude and dirty” (FG1Yun20/03/2014), as a bad impression of a place would quench their desire to interact with the locals. Consequently, such negative attitudes towards L2 communities may inhibit the progress of CSL learners’ speech competence/performance. More examples include:

Rong: I like travelling in China, because there are so many beautiful places. Travelling in China can broaden my horizon, enrich my experience, deepen my understanding of Chinese culture and improve my oral Chinese, because you have to talk to local people when travelling. And different places have different accents; you have to really listen carefully for understanding. However, I think some Chinese people are not that polite and are always in a rush. (FG1Rong20/03/2014)

Mat: At some level I think you have to enjoy living here to continue studying and improving your language, as Chinese language will ultimately be used to communicate with the Chinese community. If you did not like the Chinese community I think it would be very hard to improve your Chinese or spoken Chinese, as you would have no real motivation to learn it. So, yes, it does help a lot. (Int1Mat06/05/2014)

Jin: I like living in China, because I have a lot of Chinese friends. I often communicate with them. I think my spoken Chinese has improved very much due to it. For example, if there are some words that I cannot think of, I will explain to them what I want to say. Then they will tell me these words. After that I will know how to use the words. And the words will be in my head forever. (FG2Jin15/05/2014)

7.7.4 Advanced CSL Speakers’ Perspectives on Attitudes towards L2 Communities

The 17 advanced CSL speakers indicated that their attitudes towards Chinese communities were positively linked with their speech competence/performance. To be more specific, 16 out of the 17 advanced CSL speakers suggested that they liked living and travelling in China and making friends with Chinese natives. Only one advanced CSL learner suggested that his attitude towards the Chinese

community was neutral, as he pointed out that “I spend most of my time staying in my dorm reading books or surfing the Internet. So, I am [he was] not sure whether I like/dislike the community or not” (FG3Yeats25/04/2014). Despite his neutral attitude, he claimed: “if you want to speak authentic Chinese, you should appreciate the local culture and make friends with local people” (FG3Yeats25/04/2014). More evidence of CSL advanced learners’ attitudes towards Chinese communities can be found in the following:

Mads: Living in China and loving it gave me the energy and the initiative to start talking to native Chinese people about their lives and making real friends with natives outside of school. I got to talk to people across all walks of life, from the stores on my block throughout the broader city. (Int7Mads23/05/2014)

Gaoen: When I was in Guangxi, I did not like it at all. The climate there was so bad for me to get used to it. Moreover, I did not like the local environment and dialects there. I felt the learning opportunities were limited and the learning entertainment there was so poor. So, my Chinese did not improve much. Later on, I moved to Beijing, studying and living there. I love Beijing very much. For me, except the polluted air, everything about Beijing fits me so well. This makes me love China even more and determines my resolution to stay in Beijing. Because of my falling love with the life in China, this attitude definitely will be beneficial to the improvement of my spoken Chinese. When you love a city, you will love the language there, and you will be more active and willing to communicate with the locals, to go travelling, to get to know every aspect of life, and to adapt yourself to the society. ... Overall, I think if I like the living environment surround me, this attitude definitely will contribute to my Chinese oral proficiency. (Int9Gaoen27/06/2014)

From Gaoen’s case, it could be implied that learners’ attitude towards an L2 community might be subject to the economic status of a community. High economic status would result in a positive attitude towards the community among L2 learners, and vice versa. Learners with a positive attitude toward a community would have more opportunities and be more willing to socialise with the local people. As a result, learners’ speech competence/performance could be improved through positive social contacts and interactions.

7.7.5 Intermediate CSL Speakers' Perspectives on Attitudes towards L2 Classes

The majority of the intermediate level CSL speakers (15/17) reported that they preferred having classes in China. They suggested that their positive attitudes towards Chinese classes sustained them promoting passion and confidence for improving their speech competence/performance. Fang, for example, claimed that “without a positive attitude [towards L2 classes], you will not make any progress” (FG1Fang20/03/2014). May also explicitly pointed out how her positive attitude towards CSL classes contributed to the progress of her speech competence/performance.

May: Yes, I like having classes in China very much. ... It is different here. I always listen attentively to teachers, because they are natives. They pronounce clearly and beautifully, and they frequently teach us how to apply these words into real situations. So, I think my Chinese proficiency improves rapidly and my spoken Chinese progresses a lot, such as my grammar, sentence structure, and accuracy. (FG5May12/04/2014)

Two out of the 17 intermediate CSL learners suggested they had a love-hatred attitude towards Chinese classes. For example:

Ben: Yes and no. What I have found is that there is a difference between Chinese language courses and ordinary college classes [non-CSL language courses]. Personally I do not really enjoy the teaching style of most ordinary college classes in China, mainly because of the lack of teacher-student interaction. That being said, I have found Chinese language courses are often taught in a different and more enjoyable way. Which is to say the topics brought up in class are generally up for discussion amongst the students and teachers, which are helpful for spoken Chinese, but ordinary college courses are not. (Int2Ben23/05/2014)

It could be implied, from both May's and Ben's perspectives, that the determinant of learners' attitudes towards L2 classes are largely dependent on how classes are executed by teachers.

7.7.6 Advanced CSL Speakers' Perspectives on Attitudes towards L2 Classes

The majority (14/17) of the advanced level CSL speakers held a positive attitude towards L2 Chinese classes in China. Specifically, 11 out of the 17 pointed out that they liked having classes in school, because “Chinese teachers can anticipate problems [they] may have in class and will try to answer any questions [they] may propose” (FG6Feng08/06/2014). As a result, they “will become more cooperative in class” (FG6Mia08/06/20014), which helps to build up their oral speaking foundation, such as “grammar, sentence structure, and pronunciation” (FG7Judy10/06/2014). Three out of the 17 advanced CSL speakers held Chinese classes in high regard. They enjoyed having classes with native Chinese students, “because it is an effective way to improve Chinese quickly” (FG6Krimu08/06/2014).

Nevertheless, three out of the 17 held a neutral attitude towards Chinese classes. It was pointed out that “the knowledge from class is limited, because a lot of authentic expressions and slangs cannot be found in textbooks” (FG7Jenny10/06/2014). It was also pointed out that “taking only Chinese language classes was slightly boring and taking other college classes was slightly too difficult. It is hard to find the balance” (Int6Dan15/06/2014).

7.7.7 Summary and Discussion

The intermediate level and the advanced level CSL speakers' attitude towards socio-cultural factors are generally the same with only minor differences as to the above findings. More details are presented as follows.

7.7.7.1 Influences of L2 Cultural Interest on CSL Speech Competence/Performance

In terms of L2 cultural interest, the two levels of speakers both show a great interest in Chinese movies and television and imply that their L2 cultural interest plays a positive role in terms of their CSL speech competence/performance development including vocabulary, grammar, fluency, accuracy, and authenticity.

This echoes the quantitative finding that L2 cultural interest could predict CSL learners' speech competence (see Section 6.8.2).

Despite the congruence, a minor disparity has been revealed from the findings as well. For example, the intermediate CSL speakers suggest that their positive L2 cultural interest contributes more to their vocabulary, grammar, fluency, and accuracy, while the advanced CSL speakers suggest that their positive L2 cultural interest contributes more to their vocabulary, fluency, and authenticity. Such a difference exemplifies the different foci in the process of the two levels of learners' speech competence/performance development. For the intermediate CSL speakers, their intention is to upgrade their current speech competence/performance to a more advanced level. Consequently, these learners will pay great attention to developing and reinforcing their linguistic ability in grammar and accuracy. While for the advanced CSL speakers, their attempt is to elevate their speech competence/performance to be native-like. As a result, they will devote energy to strengthening their pragmatic abilities, such as authenticity.

7.7.7.2 Influences of Attitudes towards L2 Communities on CSL Speech Competence/Performance

In relation to attitudes towards L2 communities, the two levels of speakers indicate that they are in favour of living and travelling in China. They also suggest that their positive attitudes towards Chinese communities contribute to the improvement of their speech competence/performance. They imply that a positive attitude towards an L2 community means they would like to be a part of Chinese society, which will result in more social contacts with native speakers. This, in turn, will develop their speech competence/performance. Despite their positive attitudes towards Chinese communities, some intermediate CSL speakers express negative feelings towards Chinese people for their impoliteness and poor hygiene. However, this is not the case for the advanced CSL speakers.

7.7.7.3 Influences of Attitudes towards L2 Classes on CSL Speech Competence/Performance

In terms of attitudes towards L2 classes, the two levels of speakers acknowledge the positive influence of their attitudes towards L2 Chinese classes on the improvement of their speech competence/performance. This lends evidence to the quantitative result that attitudes towards L2 classes is a significant predictor, which is positively correlated with CSL learners' speech performance (see Section 6.8.3). The two levels of speakers in the qualitative phase suggest that their positive attitudes towards L2 Chinese classes enable them to participate in class more actively, which, in turn, provides them with more opportunities to practise Chinese. As a result, their speech competence/performance is reinforced.

7.7.7.4 Summing up

To sum up, the qualitative findings regarding the relationships between socio-cultural factors (i.e., L2 cultural interest, attitudes towards L2 communities, and attitudes towards L2 classes) and speech competence/performance in this study lend weight to evidence in the literature that society and culture function as agencies shaping learners' self-perceived language learning attitudes and interest, which, in turn, influences learners' speech competence/performance (either positively or negatively). To be more specific, L2 cultural interest, attitudes towards L2 communities, and attitudes towards L2 classes, as three measures of the contribution of socio-cultural context in this study, have been suggested to be positively associated with CSL learners' speech competence/performance in general. This is despite the fact that a minority of them have mixed attitudes (positive and negative) with respect to the three socio-cultural factors. Such an overarching finding evidences MacIntyre et al.'s (1998) hypothesis in the L2 WTC model that the social context, as an agency for learners to learn and use an L2, could indirectly contribute to learners' L2 use/production; corroborates Dörnyei's (2005) L2 motivational self system that L2 learning environment and experience (derived from the social and cultural context) could influence learners' perceived motivational selves and thus the outcome of their L2 learning; and supports Segalowitz's (2010) L2 speech production model that the interaction and

communication in the social context could directly contribute to learners' L2 speech production.

CHAPTER EIGHT

CONCLUSION, IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 Summary of Results and Conclusion

The study reported in this thesis explored the underlying reasons for the discrepancy between CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance from cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural perspectives. Speech competence and speech performance, as two sides of speaking, have been proposed and defined given the limitation of Chomsky's linguistic competence and performance (see Section 3.2). A mixed methods design was adopted in order to answer the over-arching question of this study systematically and comprehensively: What are the differences between intermediate and advanced CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance in terms of cognitive (i.e., learning style, speaking strategy, processing speed, and age), affective (i.e., motivation, anxiety, speaking self-efficacy, and WTC), and socio-cultural (i.e., L2 cultural interest, attitudes towards L2 communities, and attitudes towards L2 classes) factors that play significant roles in their L2 learning?

8.1.1 Quantitative Summary

The quantitative results of this study, on the one hand, indicated that in general CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance were positively correlated with each other. However, such correlation was not consistent between the two groups (intermediate and advanced) divided according to their speech competence and speech performance, respectively. For example, there was no positive correlation found between CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance if the learners were divided into the intermediate and the advanced levels based on their speech performance. However, if the learners were divided into the intermediate and the advanced levels based on their speech competence, it was found that the positive correlation was tenable for the group of learners with the advanced speech competence, but not for their intermediate counterparts.

The above quantitative findings have shown that speech competence and speech performance are not in a simple linear correlation. Such a non-linear correlation suggests that the development of CSL learners in terms of speech competence and speech performance is unbalanced. The cause of the discrepancy might be the influence of certain cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural factors. For example, cognitive factors, such as learning styles and speaking strategies, have been found to be either positively or negatively correlated with learners' language proficiency (see Sections 4.2.2.4 & 4.2.3.4). Affective factors, such as anxiety, speaking self-efficacy, motivation, and WTC, have been proven to be influential to learners' language proficiency (see Sections 4.3.1.4, 4.3.2.4, 4.3.3.4, & 4.3.4.4).

The quantitative results of this study also revealed that CSL learners were different in terms of their speech competence and speech performance at $p < .5$ significant level either cognitively, affectively or socio-culturally. To be more specific, the intermediate competence group of CSL learners, compared with the advanced competence group, were younger in age (cognitive aspect), more anxious and less enthusiastic in speaking (affective aspect), and less positive in Chinese culture and class (socio-cultural aspect). The intermediate performance group of CSL learners, compared with their advanced counterparts, were slower in processing speed and less kinaesthetic/tactile oriented (cognitive aspect), and less positive in Chinese culture and class (socio-cultural aspect).

Further analysis of the quantitative data indicated that age, anxiety, WTC, and L2 cultural interest were the predictors for CSL learners' speech competence, while kinaesthetic/tactile, processing speed, anxiety, and attitudes towards L2 classes were the predictive factors for learners' speech performance.

The above quantitative findings have revealed that the discrepant/unbalanced development between CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance could be subject to cognitive, affective, or socio-cultural factors. Such findings lend support to the major theoretical and conceptual frameworks relating to L2 speech performance proposed in this study, particularly Krashen's (1982) affective filter hypothesis, MacIntyre et al.'s (1998) L2 WTC model, Dörnyei's (2009) L2 motivational self system, and Segalowitz's (2010) L2 speech

production model (see Section 6.9 for detailed discussions). To be more specific, the quantitative findings enrich our understanding that Krashen's (1982) affective filter hypothesis not only functions in L2 acquisition but also in L2 production, as anxiety has been found to be a negative predictor for CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance. The quantitative findings also support MacIntyre et al.'s (1998) L2 WTC model that willingness to communicate has a positive impact on learners' L2 use/production. Last but not least, the quantitative findings lend evidence to Segalowitz's (2010) L2 speech production model that L2 speech production could be subject to processing efficiency, motivation to communicate, and social context.

8.1.2 Qualitative Summary

The qualitative findings of this study, on the other hand, suggested that most CSL learners, either from semi-structured interviews or focus groups, believed that the development of their speech competence and speech performance were in direct proportion or evenly balanced, except the advanced CSL speakers from focus groups. This result partially supports the quantitative findings that there was an inconsistent correlation between the groups of CSL learners if divided according to their speech competence and speech performance, respectively.

The qualitative findings of this study also indicated that there were congruence and disparities between the intermediate and the advanced CSL speakers along cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural dimensions (see Sections 7.3 for more detailed discussions).

In terms of the cognitive dimension, auditory/visual and integrated learning styles were found to be beneficial for the intermediate CSL learners' speech competence/performance, while group, auditory/visual, and individual learning styles were found to be helpful for the advanced CSL learners' speech competence/performance. Despite that, the intermediate CSL learners found that individual learning style did not contribute much to their speech competence/performance. In addition to the different learning styles, CSL learners were found to use different speaking strategies. For example, the

intermediate CSL speakers used speaking strategies, such as memorisation, imitation, and comparative practise speaking strategies, which contributed more to their speech competence development. The advanced CSL speakers used speaking strategies, such as practise-oriented and substitution-oriented speaking strategies, that contributed more to their speech performance.

In comparison, the qualitative and quantitative results from the cognitive dimension are quite different. Age, kinaesthetic/tactile, and processing speed did not emerge from the qualitative data as major themes (factors) in influencing CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance. Instead, learning styles (such as group, individual, integrated, and auditory/visual) and speaking strategies (such as memorisation, imitation, comparative practice, practise-oriented and substitution-oriented) were found to be influential.

In terms of the affective dimension, the intermediate CSL speakers were more intrinsically motivated and less extrinsically motivated to improve their speech competence/performance, while this was the opposite case for the advanced CSL speakers. Some intermediate CSL speakers were even extrinsically demotivated by their parents' expectation. With respect to anxiety, both the intermediate and the advanced CSL speakers pointed out that the influence of anxiety on their speech competence/performance was twofold: debilitating (negative) and facilitating (positive). On the one hand, anxiety, such as fear-related anxiety and test anxiety, may negatively influence their speech competence/performance. On the other hand, anxiety sometimes may be helpful in inspiring better speech competence/performance. As for speaking self-efficacy, both the intermediate and the advanced CSL speakers suggested that speaking self-efficacy was positively linked with their CSL speech competence/performance. The difference between the two levels of speakers was that the speaking self-efficacy of the intermediate CSL speakers was subject to factors such as language proficiency, interlocutors, and topics, while the advanced CSL speakers were more tactical in strengthening their speaking self-efficacy through practice, self-encouragement, and others' compliments. With regards to WTC, more than half of the intermediate CSL speakers believed that WTC contributed to their speech competence/performance. However, the advanced CSL speakers claimed that the WTC had influence on

their speech quantity rather than speech quality, as the extent of WTC could be self-controlled.

In comparison, the qualitative and quantitative results from the affective dimension are partially different. First, anxiety was found to negatively contribute to CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance. However, the qualitative data also revealed the positive effect of anxiety on speaking. The different findings of this study support the complex and multi-faceted nature of anxiety in the literature (Horwitz, 2010). Second, although the quantitative data showed that WTC was a predictive factor for CSL learners' speech performance, the qualitative data suggested that WTC as a contributing factor could be volitionally controlled. This not only supports MacIntyre et al.'s (1998) L2 WTC model that learners' willingness to communicate is directly linked to L2 use, but also reveals the volitional nature of WTC. Third, motivation and speaking self-efficacy were not found to be factors contributing to CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance from the quantitative data, as they were from the qualitative data. Such contradictory results indicate that motivation should not be examined as an integrated static macro-motivation from a quantitative perspective. Instead, different micro-motivations should be specified for in-depth investigations.

In terms of the socio-cultural dimension, both the intermediate and the advanced CSL speakers have acknowledged the contributions of L2 cultural interest, attitudes towards L2 communities, and attitudes towards L2 classes to the development of their speech competence/performance. For example, the intermediate CSL speakers found that L2 cultural interest contributed more to their vocabulary, grammar, fluency, and accuracy, while the advanced CSL speakers suggested that it was more helpful for their vocabulary, fluency, and authenticity. Moreover, the two levels of speakers indicated that positive attitudes towards L2 communities provided them with stronger impetus to practise their Chinese in authentic social situations, which in turn could improve their speech competence/performance. Lastly, the two levels of speakers suggested that positive attitudes towards L2 classes could inspire them to take a more active part

in the class. As a result, such inspirations and initiatives could strengthen learners' speech competence/performance.

In comparison, the quantitative and the qualitative results from the socio-cultural dimension are alike yet different. The quantitative and the qualitative data both showed the importance of L2 cultural interest and attitudes towards L2 classes to the development of CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance. However, the quantitative data did not find attitudes towards L2 communities to be a predictive factor for either speech competence or speech performance. It was revealed in the qualitative data that a positive attitude towards L2 communities was important for the development of speech competence/performance.

8.1.3 Brief Conclusion

To sum up, this study, following a mixed methods design, investigated CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance from cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural perspectives. The findings suggest that there are discrepancies between the intermediate level and the advanced level CSL learners in terms of their speech competence and speech performance. Both quantitative and qualitative results show that cognitive (such as age, processing speed, learning style, and speaking strategy), affective (such as anxiety, WTC, motivation, and speaking self-efficacy), and socio-cultural factors (such as L2 cultural interest, attitudes towards L2 communities, and attitudes towards L2 classes) could, either directly or indirectly, account for CSL learners' discrepant/unbalanced development between speech competence and speech performance.

8.2 Theoretical Implications

The results from this thesis have a number of important theoretical implications. Firstly, the quantitative and the qualitative findings of the study both support the applicability of Krashen's (1982) affective filter hypothesis in the CSL speech production. Originally, the affective filter hypothesis was proposed to address how the affective filters contribute to learners' language acquisition without acknowledging that the affective filters such as motivation, self-efficacy (self-

confidence), and anxiety might contribute to learners' speech production as well. This study shows that affective factors, such as anxiety, speaking self-efficacy, motivation, and WTC, to some extent, do influence CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance. In particular, anxiety has been found to be a major predictive factor for both speech competence and speech performance of CSL learners.

Secondly, although the results of this study could not prove the hierarchical layers in MacIntyre et al's (1998) L2 WTC model, many proposed influential factors on L2 WTC and eventually on L2 production (use) have been manifested in the findings. For instance, WTC has been found significantly and positively correlated with speech competence in the quantitative data. Given the general positive relationship between speech competence (communicative competence) and speech performance (L2 use) revealed in Research Question 1, it could be implied that WTC may also positively contribute to L2 use. Moreover, the findings of the qualitative data have supported that *desire to communicate with specific person* and *state communicative self-confidence* are the two situated antecedents to WTC demonstrated in the L2 WTC pyramid model. Other motivational (motivation and speaking self-efficacy), affective-cognitive (attitudes towards L2 communities, attitudes towards L2 classes, and speech competence), and social and individual factors also have been, either directly or indirectly, manifested in the qualitative data of this study.

Thirdly, the qualitative results partially lend evidence to Dörnyei's (2009) L2 motivational self system in the CSL context. It has been suggested in this study (see Section 7.3) that ideal speech competence (ideal L2 self) and actual speech performance (actual L2 self) may or may not contradict each other. If the two selves conflict with each other, learners will tend to believe that their speech competence and speech performance are in inverse proportion, and vice versa. It has also been suggested (see Section 7.5) that if learners are intrinsically motivated, their ideal L2 self and ought-to L2 self may have no conflicts, which could result in their speech competence/performance improvement. For learners who are extrinsically motivated, the effects of motivation on their L2 speech competence/performance to some extent depends on the consistency between

their ideal L2 self and ought-to L2 self. If their ideal L2 self and ought-to L2 self share the same motivation, learners could benefit much from such consistency. Otherwise, the inconsistency between learners' ideal L2 self and ought-to L2 self in terms of motivation could do harm to learners' sustainable L2 speech improvement.

Lastly, both the quantitative and the qualitative results of this study corroborate Segalowitz's (2010) L2 speech production model. This study could be the first attempt at soliciting data for verifying this model in the CSL context. According to Segalowitz (2010), L2 speech production could be influenced by cognitive fluency (cognitive aspect), motivation-to-communicate (affective aspect), and social context (socio-cultural aspect). The quantitative results suggest that the predictive factors for CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance include age, kinaesthetic/tactile, processing speed (cognitive factors), anxiety, WTC (affective factors), L2 cultural interest, and attitudes towards L2 classes (socio-cultural factors). The qualitative results imply that CSL learners' speech competence/performance could be interpreted through cognitive dimension (learning style and speaking strategy), affective dimension (intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, anxiety, speaking self-efficacy, and WTC), and socio-cultural dimension (L2 cultural interest, attitudes towards L2 communities, and attitudes towards L2 classes).

8.3 Practical Implications

The findings of this study have important practical implications for CSL learners and teachers. In terms of the cognitive aspect, CSL learners and teachers should understand that learners' preferred learning style might not necessarily contribute to the development and final production of their speech competence and speech performance. According to the indication of the quantitative findings, kinaesthetic/tactile (learning by doing) learning style is the only factor that can predict learners' speech performance. CSL learners, therefore, could consciously devote more effort to train themselves to be kinaesthetic/tactile learners by taking part in CSL-related activities inside/outside the classrooms. For instance, learners could take lessons which feature learning by doing, such as Chinese cooking,

Chinese brush painting, and Chinese knot making. In fact, the advantage of learning by doing (kinaesthetic/tactile) is not about the activities per se but the social interaction that the activities entail.

As for CSL teachers, they should strive to create cognitively engaging social situations for language learning; not only because learners could learn more effectively in social contexts (Jarvis, 1987), but also because transforming language-use (competence) in mind to language-use in reality (performance) requires teachers to provide learners with opportunities to actualise their speech competence in real language-use events. Such participation in using the language could help enhance learners' speech performance. Therefore, simulated social events can be organised through classroom tasks to reinforce the L2 Chinese presence in class; native speakers could be invited to the classroom to provide authentic opportunities for learners to practise their Chinese. In addition to the use of kinaesthetic/tactile learning style, CSL learners could try to read Chinese out loud regularly in order to strengthen their L2 cognitive fluency (processing speed). CSL teachers could assign read-out-loud tasks to students for after-class practice.

In terms of the affective aspect, CSL learners should understand that being anxious is unavoidable, and anxiety does have debilitating effects on L2 speech competence and speech performance. Nevertheless, they should also understand that anxiety could be facilitating as well. It is not a matter of being anxious or not. In fact, it is a matter of how to keep anxiety under control. For instance, learners could write down some hints to assist their speaking. They could consciously challenge themselves by speaking up in anxiety-provoking situations in order to get themselves used to speaking. CSL learners should also understand that WTC could significantly influence their speech production. Given the volitional nature of WTC, CSL learners should understand their WTC could be self-regulated to an appropriate level so that it could contribute to their speech competence/performance or CSL production.

For CSL teachers, they could design communicative activities in which students are encouraged to participate. Also, they should provide immediate help or

comfort for students when they encounter speech breakdowns, so that students do not lose confidence in speaking. Furthermore, learners should understand that WTC is an important factor that positively influences the development of speech competence/performance. Therefore, learners should strategically try to strengthen their communicative willingness either by conversing with people they like or participating in interesting discussions. In addition, teachers should provide communicative opportunities in class for students' participation. Consequently, students would become more willing to speak in L2 Chinese. Teachers also should offer guidance and encouragement to students if they are found to be unwilling to communicate. Most importantly, teachers should create a classroom climate where students are sympathetic to each other so that efforts at using L2 Chinese can be maximised.

In terms of the socio-cultural aspect, CSL learners should understand that L2 cultural interest contributes to the development of their speech competence. Therefore, learners could try to enrich their knowledge of Chinese culture in order to foster their Chinese cultural interest. For teachers, they could incorporate some attention-grabbing Chinese cultural contents into classroom teaching to intrigue students' Chinese cultural interest. Besides L2 cultural interest, attitudes towards L2 classes is found to be a predictive factor for learners' speech performance. Teachers, therefore, should have knowledge of students' attitude towards their class, so that better lesson planning and classroom management could be provided to meet students' divergent needs. Consequently, students may form a positive attitude towards their CSL classes, which may lead to a positive outcome.

In brief, learners and teachers should understand that the discrepant/unbalanced development of speech competence and speech performance is inevitable during L2 learning, given that speech competence and speech performance could be subject to influences of different cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural factors, respectively. Nevertheless, with specific attention paid to the influential factors that were revealed in the quantitative and qualitative findings of this study, such a discrepant/unbalanced development could be minimised. For instance, learners, on the one hand, could improve their speech competence and speech performance

by adjusting themselves in accordance with the results revealed in both the quantitative and the qualitative findings. Teachers, on the other hand, could provide needed guidance, support, and encouragement for students along the development of their speech competence and speech performance.

8.4 Limitations

This study has several limitations. First, the participants were recruited through a convenient and purposive sampling method in order to ensure a sufficient sample size. The participants were from two universities in Beijing, who were majoring in CSL or CSL-related disciplines. Moreover, the participants who did volunteer may have biased interest in speaking, thus the results of their speech performance may have been skewed from the whole population. As a result, the findings of this thesis may be restricted from being generalised to different cultural and educational contexts with other populations.

Second, the CFA results of the affect and socio-cultural attitude questionnaire (ASAQ) were not that satisfactory, although the seven-factor structure of the ASAQ was satisfactorily constructed through the EFA. A possible reason could be the insufficient participants recruited for the CFA. Given the time limitation and financial constraints, the researcher decided not to enlarge the sample size in this study. Moreover, the ASAQ has been examined through any factor analyses, thus it is appropriate to accept the EFA outcome rather the CFA's in this study.

Third, although multiple regressions were adopted for analysing the causal relationships in this study, structural equation modeling could have been used as a more powerful statistical analysis of causal relationships in non-experimental research. However, structural equation modeling requires large sample size ($n \geq 200$) (J. Foster, Barkus, & Yavorsky, 2006). It would be inappropriate to carry out structural equation modeling in this study considering the sample size ($n = 118$) and the number of variables ($n = 16$).

Fourth, although focus groups and interviews were adopted for the qualitative data collection in this study, methods such as think-aloud protocol and a

retrospective diary could have been more informative and observational. Such methods may allow for a more in-depth analysis of CSL learners' discrepant/unbalanced development between speech competence and speech performance, particularly the advanced CSL learners. Moreover, the qualitative data collection of this study was not longitudinal. This means the patterns that were discovered in the qualitative phase may not be able to concisely reflect the hidden cause and effect relationships that may be observed in a longitudinal context. In other words, adding more triangulating qualitative methods could reinforce the trustworthiness of the study.

Fifth, this study is purely descriptive in nature. It would be better to add an intervention to examine whether certain classroom-based instructions could be developed to improve learners' speech competence and speech performance through mediating the cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural influences on learners.

Lastly, the theoretical foundation of this study may be solid and comprehensive by drawing on different models. This, however, also causes difficulties for the researcher to have an in-depth and targeted discussion given the broad theoretical framework established in this study. It would be better to undergo a study by focusing on a particular model so that better and more concise results could be achieved.

8.5 Recommendations for Future Research

This thesis reports on a study that comprehensively and systematically looks into the contributing effects of cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural variables on CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance by comparing the two levels (intermediate and advanced) of learners in the CSL classroom contexts. The findings of the study reveal that learners' speech competence and speech performance could be subject to different cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural variables, which leads to discrepant/unbalanced development of their speech competence and speech performance.

Future research can continue to explore speech competence and speech performance systematically with different populations in different contexts. For example, it would be meaningful to carry out a comparative study between CSL advanced and CFL advanced learners. Such a study could enrich our understanding of whether there are any differences in terms of the contributing factors to the two types of advanced CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance. It also could add to our understanding of the effects of context (target language context and non-target language context), particularly the length of time in those contexts, on the two types of CSL learners. In brief, future research should respectively look at different levels of CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance from cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural facets for a better and more systematic understanding of learners' speech production.

Future research may also consider utilising more powerful statistical methods, such as structural equation modeling (SEM), for data analysis, so that the relationships could be explored not only between variables but also among variables. In other words, the complex patterns in the collected data could be better revealed and explained (J. Foster et al., 2006).

Future research can also adopt different methodologies for investigating learners' L2 speaking. For instance, large-scale quantitative studies could be replicated so that a better generalisation of the results could be achieved. In addition, in-depth longitudinal qualitative studies could be carried out to explore several learners' L2 speaking development from cognitive, affective, and/or socio-cultural perspectives.

Future research can also focus on classroom instructional interventions on the basis of the results of this study. Questions, such as how interventions could be tailored to better serve learners' development of speech competence and speech performance; whether interventions could effectively lower speakers' anxiety and boost their motivation for speaking or WTC; and whether interventions could successfully create a social and cultural classroom context for better reinforcing and facilitating learners' L2 speaking, are worthy of exploration.

To conclude, this study looks into the contributing factors to the intermediate level and the advanced level CSL learners' speech competence and speech performance from cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural perspectives. It contributes to our understanding of what potential factors may cause learners' discrepant/unbalanced development between speech competence and speech performance in the CSL classroom contexts. In order to promote the continuous improvement of CSL learners' L2 speaking and CSL teachers' L2 Chinese teaching, further detailed and in-depth research in relation to learners' L2 speech in the CSL/CFL field is in urgent need.

Appendixes

Appendix A: Participant Information Sheet and Consent Form (Sample)



Faculty of Education
74 Epsom Avenue
Telephone 64 9 623 8899
Facsimile 64 9 623 8898
www.education.auckland.ac.nz

University of Auckland
Bag 92601, Symonds Street
Auckland 1150, New Zealand

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET (Pilot Study)

Project Title: A Study of Chinese as a Second Language (CSL) Learners' Speech Competence and Performance in Classroom Contexts: Cognitive, Affective, and Socio-cultural Perspectives

Researcher Introduction

My name is Peijian Sun, a PhD candidate in the School of Curriculum and Pedagogy, Faculty of Education, The University of Auckland. I am conducting research on CSL learners' speech competence and performance from cognitive, affective and socio-cultural perspectives.

Project Description and Invitation

This pilot study is designed to validate a Chinese as a second language learner questionnaire (CSLLQ), a speech competence test (SCT), a speech performance test (SPT), and interviews. These instruments are developed for investigating Chinese as-a-second-language (CSL) learners' speech competence and performance from cognitive, affective, and socio-cultural perspectives. As I have gained the permission from your faculty, you are therefore cordially invited to take part in this pilot study.

Participation

In the pilot study part, participants will complete a Chinese as a second language learner questionnaire (CSLLQ) at their spare time. The questionnaire covers learning strategy, learning style, attitudes, and motivation. It takes 30-40 minutes in total to complete. After completing the questionnaire, participants may be invited to take a 20-minute Speech-competence-test (SCT) and a 20-minute Speech-performance-test (SPT). Participants may also be invited to check the wording of the CSLLQ, the SCT, the SPT, and interviews.

Data Management

Hard copy data will be securely stored in a locked cabinet at the University of Auckland, and electronic data will be stored confidentially on the researcher's computer. After six years, all hard copy data will be shredded and the digital information will be deleted. The data collected will be primarily presented in the researcher's PhD thesis, and may be used for future academic publications or conference presentations. If you would like to have a copy of the final research findings, please indicate this on the consent form, and I will send a summary to you.

Participants' Rights

Before the data collection ends on 1st January 2014, you are entitled to withdraw yourselves at any time and have the right to ask the researcher to unconditionally destroy the quantitative data that the researcher has collected from you. The assurance has given by the Dean that your participation or withdrawal will not bring any consequences to you or to anyone at any level in the faculty.

Anonymity and Confidentiality

The anonymity of participants and non-participants in the quantitative data collection will be preserved. Confidentiality will be assured throughout the whole process of data collection. If the information provided by participants is reported/published, pseudonyms will be used to protect their identities. No identifying information and data collected from the research will be disclosed to a third party.

Thank you for taking time to read this information sheet. If you have any inquiries or questions, please feel free to contact anyone in the following contact list.

Researcher	Main supervisor	Co-supervisor
Peijian Sun psun875@aucklanduni.ac.nz Ph: +64 09 373 7599 ext. 48576	Professor Lawrence Jun Zhang lj.zhang@auckland.ac.nz Ph: +64 0 9 623 8899 ext. 48750	Senior Lecture Susan Gray s.gray@auckland.ac.nz Ph: +64 0 9 373 7599 ext. 48514

You may also contact the head of the School of Curriculum and Pedagogy, Professor Judy Parr at jm.parr@auckland.ac.nz or +64 09 623 8899 ext. 88998.

For any queries regarding ethical concerns, you may contact the Chair, The University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee, The University of Auckland, Office of the Vice Chancellor, Private Bag 92019, Auckland, 1142. Telephone: 09 373-7599 ext. 83711.

APPROVED BY THE UNIVERSITY OF AUCKLAND HUMAN PARTICPANTS ETHICS COMMITTEE ON 11/SEPTEMBER/2013 FOR A PERIOD OF THREE YEARS. REFERENCE NUMBER 010306.

CONSENT FORM

(Pilot Study)

Project Title: A Study of Chinese as a Second Language (CSL) Learners' Speech Competence and Performance in Classroom Contexts: Cognitive, Affective, and Socio-cultural Perspectives

Researcher: Peijian Sun

I have read the Participant Information Sheet, and understood the nature of this pilot study and why I have been invited to participate. I have had the opportunity to ask questions and have them answered to my satisfaction. I agree to participate in this pilot study and understand that my participation is voluntary.

- I agree to participate in the quantitative data collection.
- I understand that there is a questionnaire in this pilot study.
- I understand that I may be invited to take part in two tests in this pilot study.
- I understand that I have the right to unconditionally withdraw myself from this pilot study before 1st January 2014.
- I understand that the Dean has given the assurance that my participation or withdrawal will not bring any consequences to me or to anyone at any level in the faculty.
- I understand that the data collected will be used for the researcher's PhD thesis, and may be used for future academic publications or conference presentations.
- I understand that no identifying information will be disclosed to the third party or the public.
- I wish to receive a copy of the research findings by email _____.

Name: _____

Signature: _____

Date: _____

APPROVED BY THE UNIVERSITY OF AUCKLAND HUMAN PARTICIPANTS ETHICS COMMITTEE ON 11/SEPTEMBER/2013 FOR A PERIOD OF THREE YEARS. REFERENCE NUMBER 010306.

Appendix B: Chinese as Second Language Learner Questionnaire (pilot version)

You are cordially invited to participate in this survey which aims to better understand the thoughts and beliefs of learners of Chinese in China. There are no right or wrong answers to these statements. Your genuine answers will be much appreciated. Thank you very much for your help.

Please answer in terms of how well the statement describes you **by ticking (✓) a number from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree)**. Please try not leave out any of the items.

(Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire)

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	5	6

1.	When the teacher tells me the instructions I understand better.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I prefer to learn by doing something in class.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I get more work done when I work with others.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I learn more when I study with a group.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	In class, I learn best when I work with others.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I learn better by reading what the teacher writes on the chalkboard.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	When someone tells me how to do something in class, I learn it better.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	When I do things in class, I learn better.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I remember things I have heard in class better than things I have read.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	When I read instructions, I remember them better.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	I learn more when I can make a model of something, such as paper cutting and Chinese knot making.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	I understand better when I read instructions.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	When I study alone, I remember things better.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	I learn more when I make something for a class project.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	I enjoy learning in class by doing experiments.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	I learn better when I make drawings as I study.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	I learn better in class when the teacher gives a lecture.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	When I work alone, I learn better.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	I understand things better in class when I participate in role-playing.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	I learn better in class when I listen to someone.	1	2	3	4	5
21.	I enjoy working on an assignment with two or three classmates.	1	2	3	4	5
22.	When I build something, I remember what I have learned better.	1	2	3	4	5
23.	I prefer to study with others.	1	2	3	4	5
24.	I learn better by reading than by listening to someone.	1	2	3	4	5
25.	I enjoy making something for a class project.	1	2	3	4	5

26.	I learn best in class when I can participate in related activities.	1	2	3	4	5
27.	In class, I work better when I work alone.	1	2	3	4	5
28.	I prefer working on projects by myself.	1	2	3	4	5
29.	I learn more by reading textbooks than by listening to lectures.	1	2	3	4	5
30.	I prefer to work by myself.	1	2	3	4	5

(Speaking Strategies Questionnaire)

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	5	6

1.	I review words periodically so I can remember and use them.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I write down useful words or expressions and try using them.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I practise saying new expressions to myself.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I practise new grammatical structures in different situations to build my confidence level in using them.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I imagine about how a native speaker might say something and practise saying it that way.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I regularly seek out opportunities to talk with native speakers.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I initiate conversations in the target language as often as possible.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I direct the conversation to familiar topics.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I plan out in advance what I want to say.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I ask questions as a way to be involved in the conversation.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	I anticipate what will be said based on what has been said so far.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	I try topics even when they aren't familiar to me.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	I encourage others to correct errors in my speaking.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	I try to figure out and model native speakers' language patterns when requesting, apologising, or complaining.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	I ask for help from my conversation partner.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	I look for a different way to express my idea, like using a synonym.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	I use words from my own language, but say them in a way that sounds like words in the target language.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	I make up new words or guess if I don't know the right ones to use.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	I use gestures as a way to try to get my meaning across.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	I switch back to my own language momentarily if I know that the person I'm talking to can understand what is being said.	1	2	3	4	5

(Affect and Socio-cultural Attitudes Questionnaire)

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	5	6

1.	I am satisfied with my Chinese pronunciation.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	If I make more effort, I am sure I will be able to speak Chinese better.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I believe that I will be capable of speaking Chinese in any situations if I keep studying it hard.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I am sure I have the ability to improve my spoken Chinese.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I get nervous when I am speaking in my Chinese class.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I get nervous when I am speaking Chinese after class.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I would feel nervous speaking Chinese with native Chinese speakers.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I would feel nervous speaking Chinese with non-native Chinese speakers.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I will get nervous when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in Chinese class.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I will get nervous even if I am well prepared for my Chinese class.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	I will get worried when others don't understand what I am saying in Chinese.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	I will get worried about making mistakes such as grammar mistakes, vocabulary mistakes when I am speaking Chinese.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	I am worried about being corrected in class, because it embarrasses me.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	I won't normally raise or respond a question in Chinese either in class or after class.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	I would get nervous either in class or after class if a person asked me a question in Chinese.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	I get nervous when I am taking an oral Chinese test.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	I think it is getting more and more important to be able to speak Chinese.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	I think being able to speaking Chinese will be useful in travelling.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	I think having the ability to speak Chinese will be useful in getting a job.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	I think having the ability to speak Chinese will be helpful for my college application.	1	2	3	4	5
21.	I practise speaking Chinese a lot is because I want to get good scores.	1	2	3	4	5
22.	I would like to use Chinese to make a presentation in front of a large group.	1	2	3	4	5
23.	I would like to use Chinese to talk with an acquaintance while standing in a queue.	1	2	3	4	5
24.	I would like to use Chinese to talk with a salesperson in a store.	1	2	3	4	5
25.	I would like to use Chinese to talk in a small group with strangers.	1	2	3	4	5
26.	I would like to use Chinese to talk with a friend while standing in a queue.	1	2	3	4	5
27.	I would like to use Chinese to talk in a small group of friends.	1	2	3	4	5
28.	I like Chinese songs.	1	2	3	4	5

29.	I like watching Chinese movies.	1	2	3	4	5
30.	I like reading magazines, newspapers or books in Chinese.	1	2	3	4	5
31.	I like watching Chinese TV shows.	1	2	3	4	5
32.	I like Chinese traditional culture.	1	2	3	4	5
33.	I like traveling in China.	1	2	3	4	5
34.	I like the Chinese people in the city I am living.	1	2	3	4	5
35.	I like making friends with Chinese people.	1	2	3	4	5
36.	I would like to know more about Chinese people.	1	2	3	4	5
37.	I would like to work in China.	1	2	3	4	5
38.	My living habits have changed because of living in China.	1	2	3	4	5
39.	I like taking Chinese Speaking Class.	1	2	3	4	5
40.	I like the atmosphere in Chinese Speaking Courses.	1	2	3	4	5
41.	I think Chinese Speaking Courses are interesting.	1	2	3	4	5
42.	I am looking forward to taking Chinese Speaking Courses.	1	2	3	4	5

(Background Information Questionnaire)

Gender: _____ Nationality: _____ Student ID: _____.

Age: _____ Year of study Chinese: _____.

Personality: a. introverted; b. extroverted; c. uncertain (Please circle one)

Please rate your Chinese speaking ability by **ticking** (✓) one:

() I can take part effortlessly in any conversation or discussion and have a good familiarity with idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms. I can express myself fluently and precisely. If I do have a problem I can backtrack and restructure around the difficulty so smoothly that other people are hardly aware of it.

() I can express myself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. I can use language flexibly and effectively for social and professional purposes. I can formulate ideas and opinions with precision and relate my contribution skillfully to those of other speakers.

() I can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity with native speakers. I can give detailed descriptions on familiar topics. I can take an active part in discussion in familiar contexts, accounting for and sustaining my views.

() I can enter unprepared into conversation on familiar topics, of personal interest or pertinent to everyday life (e.g. family, hobbies, work, travel and current events). I can connect phrases in a simple way in order to describe experiences and events, my dreams, hopes and ambitions. I can briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans. I can narrate a story or relate the plot of a book or film and describe my reactions.

汉语作为第二语言学习者问卷调查 (Chinese Version)

我们诚意邀请您参与此项调查。该调查旨在更好地了解学习者在汉语学习上的看法和信念，所以答案无所谓对错。非常感激您真诚地回答。

请在选项中选出最符合您实际情况的选项。您的看法对我们很重要，**所以请务必完成所有题目**。谢谢。

(学习风格问卷)

非常不同意	不同意	不确定	同意	非常同意
1	2	3	4	5

1.	当老师告诉我该怎么做的時候，我能更好地理解。	1	2	3	4	5
2.	课堂上，我更喜欢通过动手实践的方式学习。	1	2	3	4	5
3.	和其他人一起合作，我会做得更多。	1	2	3	4	5
4.	和小组一起学习，我会学到更多。	1	2	3	4	5
5.	课堂上，当我和其他人一起合作的时候，我学习得最好。	1	2	3	4	5
6.	阅读黑板上老师的板书(notes on the chalkboard)能使我学习得更好。	1	2	3	4	5
7.	课堂上，如果有人告诉我该怎么做的話，我会学得更好。	1	2	3	4	5
8.	课堂上，如果是通过动手实践学的话，我会学得更好。	1	2	3	4	5
9.	课堂上，我能记住更多听到的内容，而不是看到的。	1	2	3	4	5
10.	通过阅读（如：说明书，操作流程，课文），我能记得更好。	1	2	3	4	5
11.	通过动手制作东西(如: 中国结，剪纸，等)，我能够学到更多。	1	2	3	4	5
12.	当我阅读（如：说明书，操作流程，课文）的时候，我理解得更好。	1	2	3	4	5
13.	当我一个人学习的时候，我记得更好。	1	2	3	4	5
14.	当课堂作业中有动手实践部分的时候，我能学得更多。	1	2	3	4	5
15.	我喜欢上有动手操作的课。	1	2	3	4	5
16.	当我涂涂画画的时候，我学得更好。	1	2	3	4	5
17.	在以老师讲课(lecturing)为中心的课堂上，我学得更好。	1	2	3	4	5
18.	当我一个人学习的时候，我学得更好。	1	2	3	4	5
19.	课堂上，当我参与角色扮演(role-playing)的时候，我会理解得更好。	1	2	3	4	5
20.	课堂上，当我听别人讲的时候，我会学得更好。	1	2	3	4	5
21.	我喜欢和两三个同学一起完成作业(assignments)。	1	2	3	4	5
22.	通过动手操作，我能更好得记住学过的内容。	1	2	3	4	5
23.	我喜欢和其他人一起学习。	1	2	3	4	5
24.	比起听其他人说，阅读能让我学得更好。	1	2	3	4	5
25.	我喜欢动手做一些东西来完成课堂作业。	1	2	3	4	5
26.	课堂上，当我能参与活动的时候，我学得最好。	1	2	3	4	5
27.	课堂上，需要独立完成任務的时候，我完成得更好。	1	2	3	4	5
28.	我喜欢独立完成作业(projects)。	1	2	3	4	5
29.	比起听老师讲课，阅读课文能使我学得更多。	1	2	3	4	5
30.	我喜欢自己一个人做事情。	1	2	3	4	5

(口语策略问卷)

非常不同意	不同意	不确定	同意	非常同意
1	2	3	4	5

1.	我时常复习单词，这样我能记住并且使用它们。	1	2	3	4	5
2.	我会记下有用的单词或表达，并试着使用它们。	1	2	3	4	5
3.	我会自己和自己（自言自语）练习新的表达方式。	1	2	3	4	5
4.	我会在不同场合下练习新的语法结构，这样在以后使用的时候我会更加有自	1	2	3	4	5

	信。					
5.	我会想象着母语者(native speaker)他们的表达方式, 然后模仿练习。	1	2	3	4	5
6.	我会定期寻找和母语者说话的机会。	1	2	3	4	5
7.	我会尽量多地用汉语对话。	1	2	3	4	5
8.	我会把对话引入到自己熟悉的话题。	1	2	3	4	5
9.	我会预先想好自己要说的。	1	2	3	4	5
10.	我会通过提问的方式加入到别人的谈话。	1	2	3	4	5
11.	我会基于之前谈话的内容, 来预想谈话将会出现的内容。	1	2	3	4	5
12.	即使话题我不熟悉, 我也会尝试讨论。	1	2	3	4	5
13.	我会让别人纠正我说的汉语, 如果我说的不正确。	1	2	3	4	5
14.	在询问、道歉, 或抱怨的时候, 我会在脑海里回忆并构思地道的汉语表达方式。	1	2	3	4	5
15.	我会寻求和我谈话的人的帮助, 当遇到表达困难的时候。	1	2	3	4	5
16.	我会用别的方法来表达自己的意思, 比如使用同义词。	1	2	3	4	5
17.	我会用自己母语的单词, 然后把它说得听起来像中文。比如: 把 'Bush' 说出 '布什'	1	2	3	4	5
18.	我会造一些新的词语, 如果我不知道正确的词语。	1	2	3	4	5
19.	我会用肢体语言来帮助表达自己的意思。	1	2	3	4	5
20.	我会使用我的母语辅助交流, 如果我知道和我谈话的人懂得我的母语。	1	2	3	4	5

(情感和态度问卷)

非常不同意	不同意	不确定	同意	非常同意
1	2	3	4	5

1.	我满意自己的汉语发音。	1	2	3	4	5
2.	如果我更加努力的话, 我的中文可以说得更好。	1	2	3	4	5
3.	我相信如果我不断努力学习的话, 我能够在任何场合下用中文表达。	1	2	3	4	5
4.	我相信我有能力提高我的汉语口语。	1	2	3	4	5
5.	在课堂上说中文, 我会紧张。	1	2	3	4	5
6.	下课后说中文, 我会紧张。	1	2	3	4	5
7.	和汉语母语者说中文, 我会紧张。	1	2	3	4	5
8.	和母语不是汉语的人说中文, 我会紧张。	1	2	3	4	5
9.	汉语课堂上, 我听不懂老师说的话的时候, 我会紧张。	1	2	3	4	5
10.	即使上课前我做好了准备, 课上我还是会紧张。	1	2	3	4	5
11.	当别人听不懂我说的话的时候, 我会紧张。	1	2	3	4	5
12.	说中文的时候, 我会担心犯错误, 比如语法错误, 用词错误。	1	2	3	4	5
13.	我会担心课堂上被纠正错误, 因为这样很尴尬。	1	2	3	4	5
14.	通常情况下, 我不会用中文提出或回答问题, 不论是在课堂上还是下课后。	1	2	3	4	5
15.	不论是在课堂上还是下课后, 如果有人用中文问我问题, 我会紧张。	1	2	3	4	5
16.	当我参加汉语口语考试的时候, 我会紧张。	1	2	3	4	5
17.	我认为 会说中文 变得越来越重要。	1	2	3	4	5
18.	我认为会说中文能够帮助我旅游。	1	2	3	4	5
19.	我认为一个人会说中文的话会对他/她找工作有帮助。	1	2	3	4	5
20.	我认为会说中文对我申请大学有帮助。	1	2	3	4	5
21.	我努力练习汉语口语是因为我想取得高分。	1	2	3	4	5
22.	我愿意在一大群人面前用中文做报告。	1	2	3	4	5
23.	在排队的时候, 我愿意和前面的人用中文对话。	1	2	3	4	5
24.	在商店里, 我愿意和售货员用中文对话。	1	2	3	4	5
25.	我愿意在一小群陌生人面前用中文对话。	1	2	3	4	5
26.	在排队的时候, 我愿意和我的朋友说中文。	1	2	3	4	5

27.	我愿意在一群朋友中说中文。	1	2	3	4	5
28.	我喜欢听中文歌。	1	2	3	4	5
29.	我喜欢看中文电影。	1	2	3	4	5
30.	我喜欢看中文的杂志、报纸，或书籍。	1	2	3	4	5
31.	我喜欢看中国的电视节目。	1	2	3	4	5
32.	我喜欢中国的传统文化。	1	2	3	4	5
33.	我喜欢在中国旅游。	1	2	3	4	5
34.	我喜欢生活在我周围的中国人。	1	2	3	4	5
35.	我喜欢和中国人做朋友。	1	2	3	4	5
36.	我想更多、更深入地了解中国人。	1	2	3	4	5
37.	我希望能在中国工作。	1	2	3	4	5
38.	因为生活在中国，我的生活习惯发生了改变。	1	2	3	4	5
39.	我喜欢上汉语口语课。	1	2	3	4	5
40.	我喜欢汉语口语课的氛围。	1	2	3	4	5
41.	我觉得汉语口语课很有趣。	1	2	3	4	5
42.	我每次都期待上汉语口语课。	1	2	3	4	5

(背景信息问卷)

学号:_____ 性别:_____ 国籍:_____ 年龄:_____

开始学习汉语到现在多久了:_____ 性格: a.内向 b.外向 c.不确定

请选择最符合您汉语能力的级别。

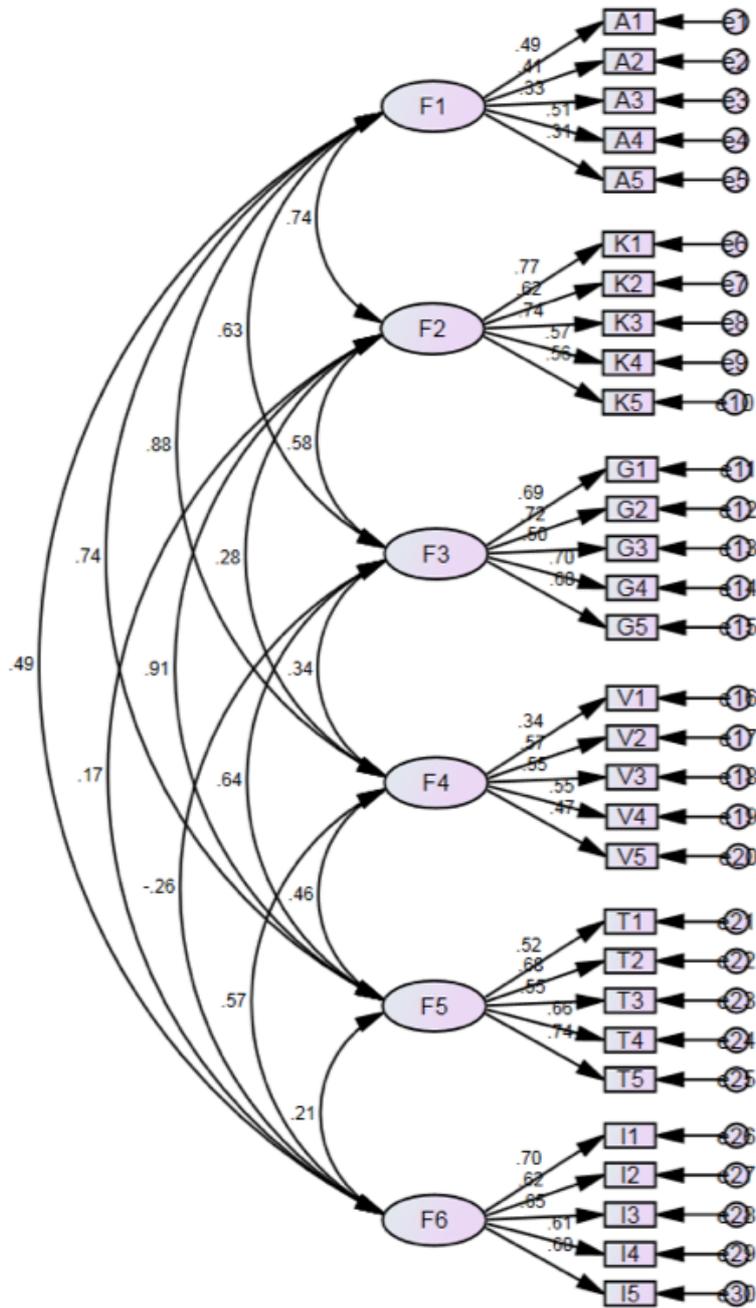
()我能在不同场景下选择合适的语体(如:正式、非正式)进行清楚流利并富有逻辑性的陈述;能参与任何对话和讨论;遇到表述问题时能不被察觉地快速重新组织自己的语言。

()我能流利地参与复杂话题的讨论,不需要太多考虑时间;能有针对性地使用语体;能重述别人的观点并在他人观点基础上加入自己的观点。

()我能对熟悉的话题清楚而又详细地描述;能对热点问题表达自己的观点;能积极参与自己熟悉话题的讨论,并能对自己的观点进行解释。

()我能够比较自如地描述自己的经历、梦想、期望、志向,计划等等;我能简短地表达自己的观点,陈述自己的建议;我能对一个故事或者一本书或者一部电影的相关情节进行描述,并表达自己的看法。我能在大多数场合下和其他人进行日常生活方面的交流,比如家庭、爱好、工作、旅游等等。

Appendix C: The Six-Factor Structure of the PLSPQ



Note. F1 = auditory style, F2 = kinaesthetic style, F3 = group style, F4 = visual style, F5 = tactile style, F6 = individual style

Appendix D: Factor Loadings of the Four-Factor Structure of the PLSPQ

	Factor			
	1	2	3	4
Q17 Auditory				.491
Q24 Visual				.616
Q27 Individual			.631	
Q28 Individual			.903	
Q30 Individual			.409	
Q2 Kinaesthetic		.874		
Q8 Kinaesthetic		.663		
Q15 Kinaesthetic		.715		
Q14 Tactile		.606		
Q3 Group	.725			
Q4 Group	.632			
Q5 Group	.557			
Q21 Group	.608			
Q23 Group	.670			
Q6 Visual				
Q10 Visual				.641
Q12 Visual				.486

Note: Extraction method is principal axis factoring; Rotation method is Promax with Kaiser Normalisation; Items factor loading of .30 or greater are included.

Appendix F: Factor Loadings of the Three-Factor Structure of the SSQ

Factor	Item	Factor loading		
		1	2	3
<i>Expression practice strategy</i> (EPS)	EPS 1	.889		
	EPS 2	.790		
	EPS 3	.527		
<i>Native-like and involvement</i> <i>strategy</i> (NIS)	NIS 1		.659	
	NIS 2		.710	
	NIS 3		.570	
	NIS 4		.726	
	NIS 5		.519	
	NIS 6		.643	
<i>Assistance strategy</i> (AS)	AS 1			.602
	AS 2			.678
	AS 3			.757
	AS 4			.518
	AS 5			.700

Appendix G: Factor Loadings of the Seven-Factor Structure of the ASAQ

	Factor						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Speaking self-efficacy 2							.625
Speaking self-efficacy 3							.746
Speaking self-efficacy 4							.729
Anxiety 5		.698					
Anxiety 6		.793					
Anxiety 7		.758					
Anxiety 8		.789					
Anxiety 9		.775					
Anxiety 10		.760					
Anxiety 11		.752					
Anxiety 12		.717					
Anxiety 13		.695					
Anxiety 14		.660					
Anxiety 15		.842					
Anxiety 16		.561					
Motivation 17			.557				
Motivation 18			.645				
Motivation 19			.741				
Motivation 20			.630				
WTC 22	.601						
WTC 23	.730						
WTC 24	.655						
WTC 25	.853						
WTC 26	.767						
WTC 27	.697						
L2 cultural interest 28							-.626
L2 cultural interest 29							-.773
L2 cultural interest 30							-.493
L2 cultural interest 31							-.682
L2 cultural interest 32							-.394
Attitudes towards L2 communities 33							-.602
Attitudes towards L2 communities 34							-.810
Attitudes towards L2 communities 35							-.678
Attitudes towards L2 communities 36							-.626
Attitudes towards L2 communities 37							-.425

Attitudes towards L2 communities 38		-0.352
Attitudes towards L2 classes 39	-0.838	
Attitudes towards L2 classes 40	-0.781	
Attitudes towards L2 classes 41	-0.811	
Attitudes towards L2 classes 42	-0.750	

Extraction method: principal axis factoring.

Rotation method: oblimin with Kaiser normalisation.^a

a. Rotation converged in 10 iterations.

Appendix H: Chinese as Second Language Learner Questionnaire (finalised)

You are cordially invited to participate in this survey which aims to better understand the thoughts and beliefs of learners of Chinese in China. There are no right or wrong answers to these statements. Your genuine answers will be much appreciated. Thank you very much for your help.

Please answer in terms of how well the statement describes you by **ticking (✓)** a number from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). Please try not leave out any of the items.

(Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire)

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	5	6
1.	I prefer to learn by doing something in class.				1 2 3 4 5
2.	I get more work done when I work with others.				1 2 3 4 5
3.	I learn more when I study with a group.				1 2 3 4 5
4.	In class, I learn best when I work with others.				1 2 3 4 5
5.	When I do things in class, I learn better.				1 2 3 4 5
6.	When I read instructions, I remember them better.				1 2 3 4 5
7.	I understand better when I read instructions.				1 2 3 4 5
8.	I learn more when I make something for a class project.				1 2 3 4 5
9.	I enjoy learning in class by doing experiments.				1 2 3 4 5
10.	I learn better in class when the teacher gives a lecture.				1 2 3 4 5
11.	I enjoy working on an assignment with two or three classmates.				1 2 3 4 5
12.	I prefer to study with others.				1 2 3 4 5
13.	I learn better by reading than by listening to someone.				1 2 3 4 5
14.	In class, I work better when I work alone.				1 2 3 4 5
15.	I prefer working on projects by myself.				1 2 3 4 5
16.	I prefer to work by myself.				1 2 3 4 5

(Speaking Strategies Questionnaire)

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	5	6
1.	I review words periodically so I can remember and use them.				1 2 3 4 5
2.	I write down useful words or expressions and try using them.				1 2 3 4 5
3.	I practise saying new expressions to myself.				1 2 3 4 5
4.	I imagine about how a native speaker might say something and practise saying it that way.				1 2 3 4 5
5.	I regularly seek out opportunities to talk with native speakers.				1 2 3 4 5
6.	I direct the conversation to familiar topics.				1 2 3 4 5
7.	I plan out in advance what I want to say.				1 2 3 4 5

8.	I ask questions as a way to be involved in the conversation.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I anticipate what will be said based on what has been said so far.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I encourage others to correct errors in my speaking.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	I ask for help from my conversation partner.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	I look for a different way to express my idea, like using a synonym.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	I make up new words or guess if I don't know the right ones to use.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	I use gestures as a way to try to get my meaning across.	1	2	3	4	5

(Affect and Socio-cultural Attitudes Questionnaire)

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	5	6

1.	If I make more effort, I am sure I will be able to speak Chinese better.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I believe that I will be capable of speaking Chinese in any situations if I keep studying it hard.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I am sure I have the ability to improve my spoken Chinese.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I get nervous when I am speaking in my Chinese class.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I get nervous when I am speaking Chinese after class.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I would feel nervous speaking Chinese with native Chinese speakers.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I would feel nervous speaking Chinese with non-native Chinese speakers.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I will get nervous when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in Chinese class.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I will get nervous even if I am well prepared for my Chinese class.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I will get worried when others don't understand what I am saying in Chinese.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	I will get worried about making mistakes such as grammar mistakes, vocabulary mistakes when I am speaking Chinese.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	I am worried about being corrected in class, because it embarrasses me.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	I won't normally raise or respond a question in Chinese either in class or after class.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	I would get nervous either in class or after class if a person asked me a question in Chinese.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	I get nervous when I am taking an oral Chinese test.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	I think it is getting more and more important to be able to speak Chinese.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	I think being able to speaking Chinese will be useful in travelling.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	I think having the ability to speak Chinese will be useful in getting a job.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	I think having the ability to speak Chinese will be helpful for my college application.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	I would like to use Chinese to make a presentation in front of a large group.	1	2	3	4	5
21.	I would like to use Chinese to talk with an acquaintance while standing in a queue.	1	2	3	4	5

22.	I would like to use Chinese to talk with a salesperson in a store.	1	2	3	4	5
23.	I would like to use Chinese to talk in a small group with strangers.	1	2	3	4	5
24.	I would like to use Chinese to talk with a friend while standing in a queue.	1	2	3	4	5
25.	I would like to use Chinese to talk in a small group of friends.	1	2	3	4	5
26.	I like Chinese songs.	1	2	3	4	5
27.	I like watching Chinese movies.	1	2	3	4	5
28.	I like reading magazines, newspapers or books in Chinese.	1	2	3	4	5
29.	I like watching Chinese TV shows.	1	2	3	4	5
30.	I like Chinese traditional culture.	1	2	3	4	5
31.	I like traveling in China.	1	2	3	4	5
32.	I like the Chinese people in the city I am living.	1	2	3	4	5
33.	I like making friends with Chinese people.	1	2	3	4	5
34.	I would like to know more about Chinese people.	1	2	3	4	5
35.	I would like to work in China.	1	2	3	4	5
36.	My living habits have changed because of living in China.	1	2	3	4	5
37.	I like taking Chinese Speaking Class.	1	2	3	4	5
38.	I like the atmosphere in Chinese Speaking Courses.	1	2	3	4	5
39.	I think Chinese Speaking Courses are interesting.	1	2	3	4	5
40.	I am looking forward to taking Chinese Speaking Courses.	1	2	3	4	5

(Background Information Questionnaire)

Gender: _____ Nationality: _____ Student ID: _____.

Age: _____ Year of study Chinese: _____.

Personality: a. interverted; b. extroverted; c. uncertain (Please circle one)

Please rate your Chinese speaking ability by **ticking** (✓) one:

() I can take part effortlessly in any conversation or discussion and have a good familiarity with idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms. I can express myself fluently and precisely. If I do have a problem I can backtrack and restructure around the difficulty so smoothly that other people are hardly aware of it.

() I can express myself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. I can use language flexibly and effectively for social and professional purposes. I can formulate ideas and opinions with precision and relate my contribution skillfully to those of other speakers.

() I can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity with native speakers. I can give detailed descriptions on familiar topics. I can take an active part in discussion in familiar contexts, accounting for and sustaining my views.

() I can enter unprepared into conversation on familiar topics, of personal interest or pertinent to everyday life (e.g. family, hobbies, work, travel and current events). I can connect phrases in a simple way in order to describe experiences and events, my dreams, hopes and ambitions. I can briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans. I can narrate a story or relate the plot of a book or film and describe my reactions.

汉语作为第二语言学习者问卷调查 (Chinese Version)

我们诚意邀请您参与此项调查。该调查旨在更好地了解学习者在汉语学习上的看法和信念，所以答案无所谓对错。非常感谢您真诚地回答。

请在选项中选出最符合您实际情况的选项。您的看法对我们很重要，**所以请务必完成所有题目**。谢谢。

(学习风格问卷)

非常不同意	不同意	不确定	同意	非常同意
1	2	3	4	5

1.	课堂上，我更喜欢通过动手实践的方式学习。	1	2	3	4	5
2.	和其他人一起合作，我会做得更多。	1	2	3	4	5
3.	和小组一起学习，我会学到更多。	1	2	3	4	5
4.	课堂上，当我和其他人一起合作的时候，我学习得最好。	1	2	3	4	5
5.	课堂上，如果是通过动手实践学的话，我会学得更好。	1	2	3	4	5
6.	通过阅读（如：说明书，操作流程，课文），我能记得更好。	1	2	3	4	5
7.	当我阅读（如：说明书，操作流程，课文）的时候，我理解得更好。	1	2	3	4	5
8.	当课堂作业中有动手实践部分的时候，我能学得更多。	1	2	3	4	5
9.	我喜欢上有动手操作的课。	1	2	3	4	5
10.	在以老师讲课(lecturing)为中心的课堂上，我学得更好。	1	2	3	4	5
11.	我喜欢和两三个同学一起完成作业(assignments)。	1	2	3	4	5
12.	我喜欢和其他人一起学习。	1	2	3	4	5
13.	比起听其他人说，阅读能让我学得更好。	1	2	3	4	5
14.	课堂上，需要独立完成的任务的时候，我完成得更好。	1	2	3	4	5
15.	我喜欢独立完成作业(projects)。	1	2	3	4	5
16.	我喜欢自己一个人做事情。	1	2	3	4	5

(口语策略问卷)

非常不同意	不同意	不确定	同意	非常同意
1	2	3	4	5

1.	我时常复习单词，这样我能记住并且使用它们。	1	2	3	4	5
2.	我会记下有用的单词或表达，并试着使用它们。	1	2	3	4	5
3.	我会自己和自己（自言自语）练习新的表达方式。	1	2	3	4	5
4.	我会想象着母语者(native speaker)他们的表达方式，然后模仿练习。	1	2	3	4	5
5.	我会定期寻找和母语者说话的机会。	1	2	3	4	5
6.	我会把对话引入到自己熟悉的话题。	1	2	3	4	5
7.	我会预先想好自己要说的。	1	2	3	4	5
8.	我会通过提问的方式加入到别人的谈话。	1	2	3	4	5
9.	我会基于之前谈话的内容，来预想谈话将会出现的内容。	1	2	3	4	5
10.	我会让别人纠正我说的汉语，如果我说的不正确。	1	2	3	4	5
11.	我会寻求和我谈话的人的帮助，当遇到表达困难的时候。	1	2	3	4	5
12.	我会用别的方法来表达自己的意思，比如使用同义词。	1	2	3	4	5
13.	我会造一些新的词语，如果我不知道正确的词语。	1	2	3	4	5
14.	我会用肢体语言来帮助表达自己的意思。	1	2	3	4	5

(情感和态度问卷)

非常不同意	不同意	不确定	同意	非常同意
1	2	3	4	5

1.	如果我更加努力的话, 我的中文可以说得更好。	1	2	3	4	5
2.	我相信如果我不断努力学习的话, 我能够在任何场合下用中文表达。	1	2	3	4	5
3.	我相信我有能力提高我的汉语口语。	1	2	3	4	5
4.	在课堂上说中文, 我会紧张。	1	2	3	4	5
5.	下课后说中文, 我会紧张。	1	2	3	4	5
6.	和汉语母语者说中文, 我会紧张。	1	2	3	4	5
7.	和母语不是汉语的人说中文, 我会紧张。	1	2	3	4	5
8.	汉语课堂上, 我听不懂老师说的话的时候, 我会紧张。	1	2	3	4	5
9.	即使上课前我做好了准备, 课上我还是会紧张。	1	2	3	4	5
10.	当别人听不懂我说的话的时候, 我会紧张。	1	2	3	4	5
11.	说中文的时候, 我会担心犯错误, 比如语法错误, 用词错误。	1	2	3	4	5
12.	我会担心课堂上被纠正错误, 因为这样很尴尬。	1	2	3	4	5
13.	通常情况下, 我不会用中文提出或回答问题, 不论是在课堂上还是下课后。	1	2	3	4	5
14.	不论是在课堂上还是下课后, 如果有人用中文问我问题, 我会紧张。	1	2	3	4	5
15.	当我参加汉语口语考试的时候, 我会紧张。	1	2	3	4	5
16.	我认为 会说中文 变得越来越重要。	1	2	3	4	5
17.	我认为会说中文能够帮助我旅游。	1	2	3	4	5
18.	我认为一个人会说中文的话会对他/她找工作有帮助。	1	2	3	4	5
19.	我认为会说中文对我申请大学有帮助。	1	2	3	4	5
20.	我愿意在一大群人面前用中文做报告。	1	2	3	4	5
21.	在排队的时候, 我愿意和前面的人用中文对话。	1	2	3	4	5
22.	在商店里, 我愿意和售货员用中文对话。	1	2	3	4	5
23.	我愿意在一小群陌生人面前用中文对话。	1	2	3	4	5
24.	在排队的时候, 我愿意和我的朋友说中文。	1	2	3	4	5
25.	我愿意在一群朋友中说中文。	1	2	3	4	5
26.	我喜欢听中文歌。	1	2	3	4	5
27.	我喜欢看中文电影。	1	2	3	4	5
28.	我喜欢看中文的杂志、报纸, 或书籍。	1	2	3	4	5
29.	我喜欢看中国的电视节目。	1	2	3	4	5
30.	我喜欢中国的传统文化。	1	2	3	4	5
31.	我喜欢在中国旅游。	1	2	3	4	5
32.	我喜欢生活在我周围的中国人。	1	2	3	4	5
33.	我喜欢和中国人做朋友。	1	2	3	4	5
34.	我想更多、更深入地了解中国人。	1	2	3	4	5
35.	我希望能在中国工作。	1	2	3	4	5
36.	因为生活在中国, 我的生活习惯发生了改变。	1	2	3	4	5
37.	我喜欢上汉语口语课。	1	2	3	4	5
38.	我喜欢汉语口语课的氛围。	1	2	3	4	5
39.	我觉得汉语口语课很有趣。	1	2	3	4	5
40.	我每次都很期待上汉语口语课。	1	2	3	4	5

(背景信息问卷)

学号:_____ 性别:_____ 国籍:_____ 年龄:_____

开始学习汉语到现在多久了:_____ 性格: a.内向 b.外向 c.不确定

请选择最符合您汉语能力的级别。

()我能在不同场景下选择合适的语体(如:正式、非正式)进行清楚流利并富有逻辑性的陈述;能参与任何对话和讨论;遇到表述问题时能不被察觉地快速重新组织自己的语言。

()我能流利地参与复杂话题的讨论,不需要太多考虑时间;能有针对性地使用语体;能重述别人的观点并在他人观点基础上加入自己的观点。

()我能对熟悉的话题清楚而又详细地描述;能对热点问题表达自己的观点;能积极参与自己熟悉话题的讨论,并能对自己的观点进行解释。

()我能够比较自如地描述自己的经历、梦想、期望、志向,计划等等;我能简短地表达自己的观点,陈述自己的建议;我能对一个故事或者一本书或者一部电影的相关情节进行描述,并表达自己的看法。我能在大多数场合下和其他人进行日常生活方面的交流,比如家庭、爱好、工作、旅游等等。

Appendix I: Qualitative Instruments

Semi-Structured Interview Prompts (finalised version)

- Warm-up questions.
- Are you confident about your speaking?
- What makes you feel unconfident when speaking Chinese? Say, lack of vocabulary? Or?
- What would you do to strengthen your confidence of speaking? Have you tried something before?
- Are you more confident speaking in class or out of class? Why?
- Are you nervous when you are speaking? Do you have the moments when you are really nervous in speaking Chinese? Can you describe the moments for me?
- In what situations you will feel relaxed and you think you can control your speaking well?
- Do you have the moments when you were so worried that you forgot all what you had prepared?
- Do you think you can do something to get rid of such feeling? Any effective ways?
- Are there any classmates whose spoken Chinese is better than you? Why better than you? Do you think they have some special tricks? Or do you think they just more hardworking and more motivated? What motivates them to speak Chinese well?
- Do you know anything about speaking strategies? Do you have any strategies to help speaking? Or any strategies to improve speaking?
- Do you think speaking strategy matters a lot in a person's speaking? Any examples?
- What kind of learner you are? Say, like learning by seeing, learning by doing, or learning by listening?
- Do you think your learning style has anything to do with Chinese speaking ability? Or have you ever thought that if I were learning by doing, my spoken Chinese would be better?
- Do you think your Chinese spoken ability in class is as good as that out of class?
- We have been discussing so many factors that may or may not influence a person's Chinese speaking ability. Which ones that you think matter most to the development of your Chinese speaking ability?
- What have you done to improve your Chinese speaking?
- What would like to do in the future to improve your Chinese speaking?
- How could teachers help to improve your Chinese speaking ability?
- Is there anything else you would like to add, or are there any other factors that you think it may influence your Chinese speaking?

Focus Group Questioning Route (finalised version)

Opening: *** Hi, my name is Paul, a PhD student at the University of Auckland. I am so glad to meet you all. Today we are going to share our experiences and thoughts on the topic: what is going on with my spoken Chinese. Before that, can you guys introduce yourselves a bit, say, What is your name? Where are you from? Why are you here? How long have you been learning Chinese? What motivates you to learn Chinese?

Introductory: *** Well, you guys are all intermediate or advanced learners, and have been using Chinese in China for years. I was wondering are you satisfied/happy with your spoken Chinese? How would you rate your spoken Chinese?

Transition: *** You know, I had a wonderful time in the US when I was an exchange student there. However, there was one thing bothered me all the time, and it still bothers me. I always say to myself: What happened to my English? You know, sometimes I could speak fluently and confidently; sometimes I felt I could not jump into the conversation or discussion. Do you have such kind of experience or moments?

Key Questions: *** Did you have the times when you just could not think of what to say next? Can anyone share with us what happened and how did you cope with it?

a. affect *** I think a lot of times a person's speaking has a lot to do with his/her willingness to communicate? Say, if the person does not want to talk, no matter how interesting the topic is, he/she will still keep silent. What do you think? Or do you have such moments? Do you think willingness to communicate is an important or major factor affecting your spoken Chinese?

*** Some people say self-confidence determines how good a person's spoken Chinese could be? Do you agree or not? Why?

b. cognition *** Do you think are there anything emotion related factors that affect your spoken Chinese? (how about motivation, anxiety?)

*** Some people may think speaking strategies have a lot to do with how good a person can speak. For example, if a person consciously practices new words or expressions in his/her daily conversation, his/her spoken Chinese definitely will improve. Or if a person cannot think of a word he/she wants to use, he/she may try to use others words sharing the similar meaning. His/her Chinese will seem to be better than those who just stop and do nothing.

What is your opinion of the relationship between speaking strategies and spoken Chinese execution?

*** Do you think your Chinese speaking ability has to do with your learning style? For example, I am person more visual orientated. I like learning by seeing. Other people may like learning by doing, or learning by listening, or learning by cooperation and so on. Do you think different learning style matters? If it matters, do you have any examples or anything you would like to share?

c. Culture and society

*** Do you think age or past experience has anything to do with your Chinese speaking ability?

*** Which one do you think it will be helpful to improve your Chinese speaking, studying in your home country or studying in China. Or you believe it does not matter as long as a person are willing to learn and willing to speak Chinese?

Ending Questions:

*** If you think studying in China matters? What are the benefits of studying in China? And how it will help improve your Chinese speaking ability? (for example, immersion environment, authentic culture experience, contacts with local people, etc.)

*** Do you think your spoken Chinese performance will be different in class and out of class?

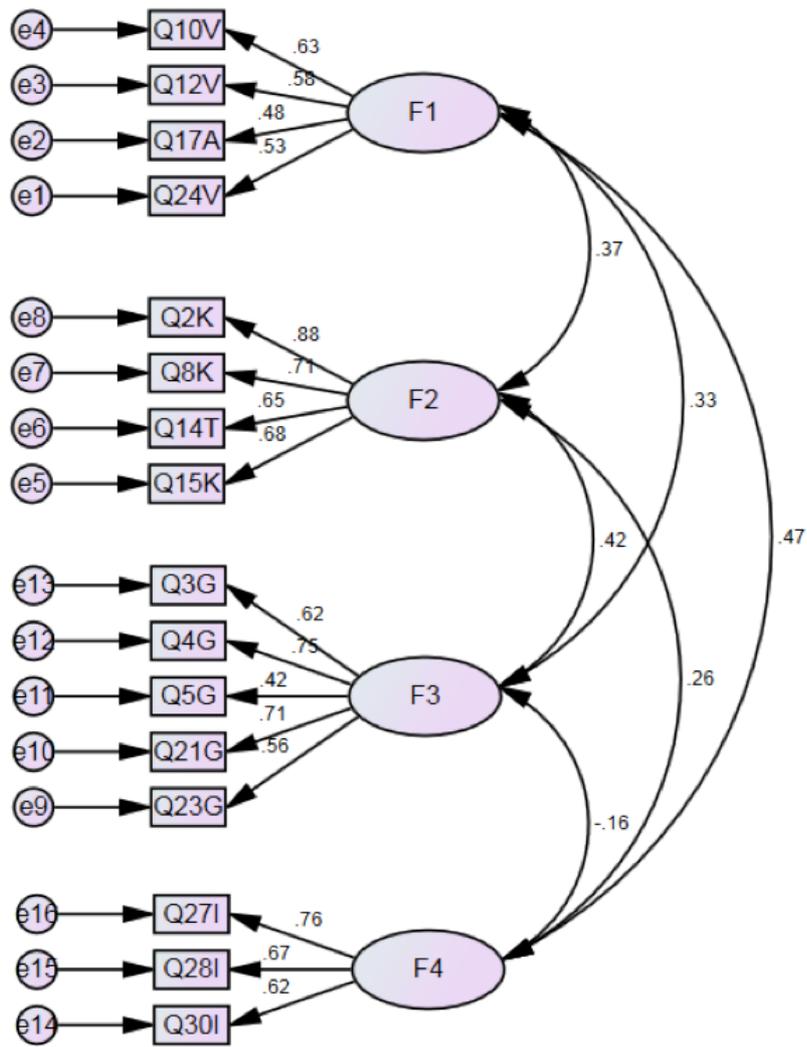
*** We have been discussing so many factors that may or may not influence a person's Chinese speaking ability. Which ones that you think matter most to the development of your Chinese speaking ability?

*** What have you done to improve your Chinese speaking?

*** What would like to do in the future to improve your Chinese speaking?

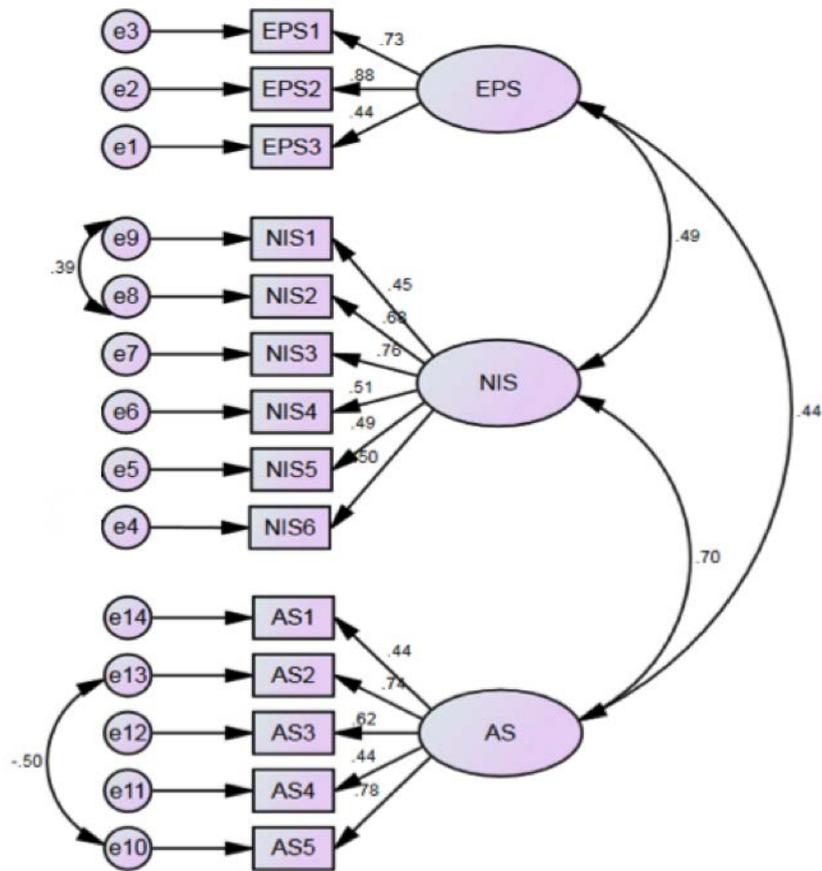
*** How could teachers help to improve your Chinese speaking ability?

Appendix J The Four-Factor Structure of the PLSPQ



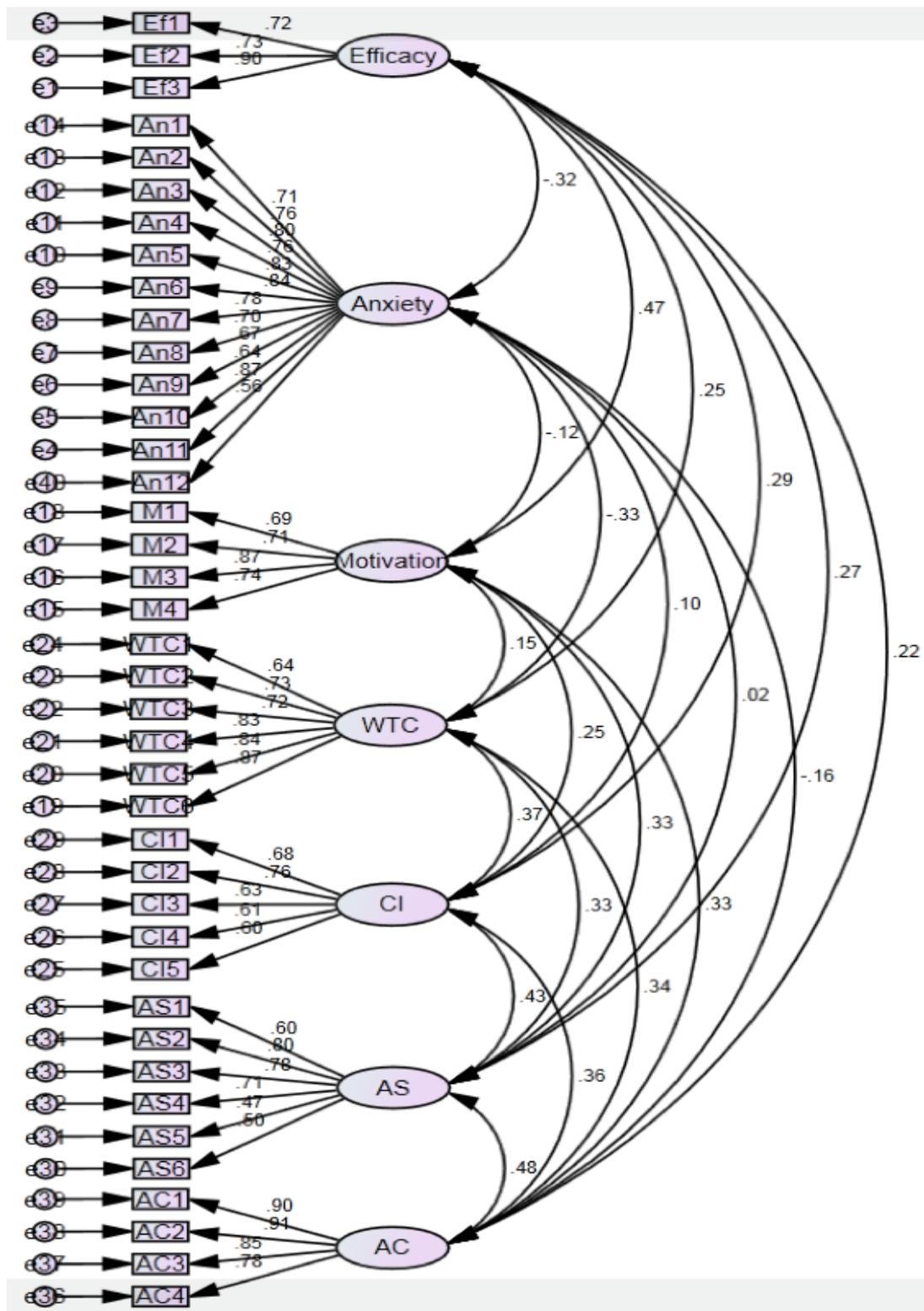
Note. F1 = auditory/visual style, F2 = kinaesthetic/tactile style, F3 = group style, F4 = individual style

Appendix K The Three-Factor Structure of the SSQ



Note. EPS = expression practice strategy, NIS = native-like and involvement strategy, AS = assistance strategy

Appendix L The Seven-Factor Structure of the ASAQ



Note. Efficacy = speaking self-efficacy, WTC = willingness to communicate, CI = L2 cultural interest, AS = attitudes towards L2 communities, AC = attitudes towards L2 classes

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