THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN PROFICIENCY
AND L2 LEARNING VARIABLES:
PERSONALITY, THE WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE,
AND MOTIVATION

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論 文 要 旨

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論文題名　　　　学力と個人差の関係
　　　　　　　　－性格・コミュニケーションの意思・動機を中心に―

論 文 要 旨

　第二言語としての英語習得の領域において、学習者がより効果的に第二言語を習得する方法に関しての研究は数多い。個々の学習者に目を向けた授業の構築・実践を目標とする場合、学習者の性格や学習スタイル等の個人差を知ることは教員にとって重要であり、それに伴うカリキュラム開発や指導法の改善など、色々な教育的応用がなされている。

　しかしながら、複数の要因と学力における研究の中で、日本の大学における英語学習者を対象とした研究はほとんど見られない。よって本論の目的は、第二言語としての英語習得に関する複数の要因と学力（第二言語を運用する能力）の関係を明らかにし、それを大学英語教育に資することである。複数の要因として、性格・コミュニケーションの意思(WTC)・動機を取り上げ、学力は認知学力的言語能力（cognitive academic language proficiency: CALP)と基礎的対人伝達スキル(basic interpersonal communicative skills: BICS)で測定した。以下が 6 つのリサーチクエスチョンである。

（１）　性格と学力の間にどのような関係があるか。
（２）　WTC と学力の間にどのような関係があるか。
（３）　動機と学力の間にどのような関係があるか。
（４）　性格と WTC の間にどのような関係があるか。
（５）　性格と動機の間にどのような関係があるか。
（６）　WTC と動機の間にどのような関係があるか。

　研究手法は、３つの要因（性格・WTC・動機）に関しては質問紙を実施し、CALP に関しては TOEIC、BICS に関しては一連の絵を見て物語を英語で描写するタスクを実施し、統計ソフト（SPSS）を用いて分析した。結果を以下にまとめる。

（１）　内向的な性格を持つ学習者の発話量は少なく、BICS が低い。
（２）　WTC が高い学習者は、友人や知り合いとの間では発話量が多く、流暢になり BICS が高い。WTC が低い学習者は、グループのような公共の場や見知らぬ人との間では発話量が少なく、流暢ではなくなり BICS が低い。
（３）　動機が高い学習者は、流暢ではなく BICS が低い。
（４）　外向的な性格を持つ学習者は、友人や知人と積極的にコミュニケーションを取り WTC が高い。内向的な性格を持つ学習者は、見知らぬ人とコミュニケーションを取らず WTC が低い。
（５）　内向的な性格を持つ学習者の動機は低い。
（６）　動機が高い学習者は、あらゆる会話の場面で積極的にコミュニケーションを取り

WTC が高い。動機が低い学習者は、知人とコミュニケーションを取らず WTC が低い。

　以上の結果を踏まえて、学習者がよりよく学べる学習環境を提供するためには、教員が学習者の複数の要因に目を向けることが重要であると考える。こうすることによって、一人の学習者を総合的に概観し、相関関係を探求し、個人差に関する理論的な知識をもとに柔軟なアプローチが可能になる。学習者全員の第二言語としての英語習得に関わる要因を考慮して授業を実践することは不可能であることはいうまでもない。また、個人差のどの適性が英語学習に関して最適であると断言できないが、教員にとって本論で取り上げた 3 つの要因は学習者の学習機会を最大限に生かすことのできる、より良い授業を実践するための大切な情報であると考える。

　第二言語習得に関わる複数の要因と学力の関係の研究はほとんど見られないため、本論は研究領域において新しい可能性を拓くものであると考える。

ABSTRACT

The purposes of this study are to investigate how ID variables mediate L2 learning and what kinds of relationships these IDs have with proficiency. It explores the relationships among students' personality, willingness to communicate (WTC), motivation, and proficiency in the L2. In this study, L2 proficiency refers to a learner's skill in using the L2. Two measures of language learning proficiency were administered. The speaking test was considered a basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) type measure, and the TOEIC was considered a cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) type measure. This study specifically aims at university students in Japan and it should be considered a type of action research.

The data were collected with 45 university students. The participants were asked to fill in questionnaires to measure their (a) personality, (b) the WTC, and (c) motivation. In terms of the speaking task, they were asked to describe a sequence of pictures. They were measured for the amount of output and fluency. The three instruments were scored and the speaking data were transcribed, and counted for the total number of syllables, words and C-units. In order to measure temporal variables, the articulation rate, speech rate, pause, and mean length of run were calculated using the transcription software Transana. A correlational analysis among the scores, the number of participants' utterances, and TOEIC scores, was conducted to answer the research questions. In addition, to provide a measure of construct validity, all of the instruments were subjected to factor analysis.

There were interesting relationships between the L2 ID variables and proficiency. In terms of the relationships between personality and proficiency, neurotic personality

traits and C-units had significant negative correlations and the neurotic participants were more likely not to produce long utterances. Second, there were relationships between the WTC and proficiency. The participants were more likely to produce more utterances in terms of syllables with those close to them. Also, the participants were less likely to produce more utterances in terms of C-units in large group and were more fluent with strangers and less fluent with friends. Third, in terms of motivation, the motivated participants were not fluent in terms of mean length of run (MLR) and articulation rate (AR). Fourth, there were significant relationships between personality and the WTC. The extraverted participants tended to actively interact with friends and acquaintances and the neurotic participants tended not to communicate with strangers. Fifth, there were relationships between personality and motivation. The participants who scored high on neurotic traits had low levels of motivation. Finally, there were relationships between the WTC and motivation. The motivated participants were more likely to be talkative in various settings. The less motivated participants were more likely to be quiet with strangers.

This study demonstrated relationships between proficiency as well as multiple L2 variables and found that these IDs greatly mediated learners' L2 learning. Keeping this mentioned above in mind, educators will have a better understanding of their learners, will explore various tasks, and will modify teaching practices. These efforts will help language learners actively participate in class and may be one of key issues to contribute to L2 language learning in Japan.

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Dedicated to the memory of Makiko Tsuneyasu
who always supported me.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The Background to the Issue

The study of individual differences (IDs) has a long history. At first, learners were classified as "good and bad, intelligent and dull, motivated and unmotivated" (Horwitz, 2000). Recently, on the contrary, researchers have sought to explain why some learners succeed more than others (Ellis, 2008).

It is important for educators to consider students' differences. Some favor communicative activities and others do not. Individuals have different learning experiences, beliefs, goals, and orientations. There are, of course, differences in how individual learners respond to classroom instruction and what they learn from it. Ellis (2012) states that relatively few studies have explored how individual difference factors influence learners' response to instruction in actual classrooms. Ellis claims that cognitive processes that have been hypothesized to be involved in language learning are as explained below, and, in order to activate these processes, instruction can be seen as a means:

1) Noticing (the learner consciously attends to a linguistic form in the input).

2) Rehearsing (the learner rehearses the form in working memory).

3) Semantic processing (the learner constructs a form-function mapping by assigning meaning to a linguistic form).

4) Comparing (the learner compares the form noticed in the input with her own mental grammar, registering to what extent there is a "gap" between the input and her grammar).

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5) Rule-formation (the learner constructs an explicit rule to account for the new information derived from the above processes).

6) Integrating (the learner integrates a representation of the new linguistic feature into implicit memory and, if necessary, restructures the existing mental grammar).

Along with these cognitive processes we can add IDs, creating various factors that have an influence on each other. Dörnyei (2005) defines IDs as enduring personal characteristics that are considered to apply to all people and on which people differ by degree.

The ID factors are complex and dynamic: "… the various factors interact with the social and cognitive processes involved in learning in different ways, at different times, and in different kinds of instructional activities" (Ellis, 2012, p. 19). According to another researcher, Dörnyei (2010), IDs are defined as characteristics or traits in respect of which individuals may be shown to differ from each other. Among researchers, there is some disagreement as to which factors should be considered as IDs. However, Skehan (1989), Robinson (2002), and Dörnyei (2005) all agree that they include language aptitude, motivation, personality, and anxiety. Dörnyei (2009) summarizes three major sets of learner factors: (a) cognitive factors including language aptitude and working memory, (b) affective factors including language anxiety and willingness to communicate, and (c) motivational factors.

Ellis (2008) provides a table that shows the different IDs identified in these three researchers' taxonomies and divides ID factors into major four groups: (a) abilities, (b) propensities, (c) learner cognitions about L2 learning, and (d) learner actions. These categories and factors are summarized as follows: abilities (intelligences, working memory, language aptitude), propensities (learning style, motivation, anxiety,

personality, willingness to communicate), learner cognitions (learner beliefs), learner actions (learning strategies).

Table 1

Factors Listed as Influencing Individual Learner Differences in Language Learning in Three Surveys

Skehan (1989)	Robinson (2002)	Dörnyei (2005)
1. Language aptitude	1. Intelligence	1. Personality
2. Motivation	2. Motivation	2. Language aptitude
3. Language learning strategies	3. Anxiety	3. Motivation
4. Cognitive and affective factors	4. Language aptitude	4. Learning and cognitive styles
a. extraversion/ introversion	5. Working memory	5. Language learning strategies
b. risk-taking	6. Age	6. Other learner characteristics
c. intelligence		a. anxiety
d. field independence		b. creativity
e. anxiety		c. willingness to communicate
		d. self-esteem
		e. learner beliefs

(Ellis, 2008)

Among the learner factors there are a great number of theoretical and measurement problems. Aptitude remains largely undefined and appropriate measures are not readily available. Similarly with language learning strategies and styles, both areas remain largely undefined and lack valid measures (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). This basically leaves personality, willingness to communicate, and motivation as areas that have been well defined and that have, particularly in the case of personality, reliable and valid measures. Moreover, very few studies have actually investigated the relationship among these three IDs. Thus, these ID factors will be the focus of this study.

In terms of the methodology of ID research, much of this research has been conducted quantitatively in terms of data collection and analysis (Ellis, 2008). One of the popular methods is the use of Likert scale questionnaires, which require learners to

self-report on some aspect of their language learning. Researchers have put a lot of effort into developing questionnaires in order to ensure their validity and reliability. As a result, there are now various well-established instruments such as those shown in the following table:

Table 2

Frequently Used Instruments in Researching Individual Difference Factors in SLA

Individual difference factors	Research instruments
Personality	Eysenck Personality Inventory (Eysenck and Eysenck, 1964)
	Yatabe-Guilford Personality Inventory (Yatabe and Guilford, 1982)
	Myers Briggs Type Indicator (Myers and Briggs, 1976)
Willingness to Communicate	Willingness to Communicate Scale (MacIntyre, Baker, Clement and Conrad, 2001)
Motivation	Attitude Motivation Index (Gardner, 1985)
	Language Learning Orientation Scale-Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation, and Amotivation Subscales (Noels et al., 2000)
Anxiety	Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope, 1986)
	Input Anxiety Scale, and Output Anxiety (Macintyre and Gardner, 1994)
Language aptitude	Modern Language Aptitude Test (Caroll and Sapon, 1959)
	Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery (Pimsleur, 1966)
	Cognitive Ability for Novelty of Acquisition of Language (Grigorenko et al., 2000)
Learning style	Group Embedded Figures Test (Witkin et al., 1971)
	Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire (Reid, 1987)
	Learning Style Questionnaire (Ehrman and Leaver, 2003)
Learners beliefs	Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (Horwitz, 1987a)
Learning strategies	The Strategies Inventory for Language Learning (Oxford, 1990)
	Language Strategy Survey (Cohen and Chi, 2001)

(Ellis, 2004)

Qualitative methods have been seen as complementary to mainstream research in SLA (Ellis, 2008). This method seeks to explore the processes and experiences of individual motivation and its dynamic interactions with contextual factors (Dörnyei &

Ushioda, 2012). Observation of learners in classroom settings, interviews, diaries, and autobiographical narratives are some of the promising methods. Observation methodology seems effective, but this method has not been successful in the study of IDs. Ellis continues that the reason is that learners do not reveal much about their psychological states or their strategies when simple observation is used. There is increasing recognition that mixed methods approaches can help to capture more of the complexity of the issues under investigation. Ellis adds that, more recently, triangulation seems an effective method to investigate ID variables.

Personality is an important learners' factor and has attracted a great deal of attention from researchers. Ellis (2008) claims that personality is conceived of as being composed of a series of traits such as Extraversion/Introversion and Neuroticism/Stability. Researchers have indicated that extraverts are better language learners but there are, of course, some exceptions. It is natural that there is no such thing as a good personality with regard to being a successful learner. Ellis also adds that there is no clear theoretical basis for predicting which personality variables are positively or negatively related to which aspects of L2 proficiency. The important thing is, with respect to students' different characters and natures, that educators provide variety and alternatives in classroom activities to suit students' personalities (Ehrman, 2008).

The Willingness to Communicate (WTC) is also an important factor for motivation and educators need to take this variable into consideration for learners' successful learning. Individual's WTC depends on the situations as well as the interlocutors and, as such, it is obvious that the classroom environment is crucial for learners (Tomimizu, 2013). As the WTC is an individuals' degree of readiness to participate in discourse, teachers need to create apprehension-free environments for learners for this to take

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place (MacIntyre, Clement, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1998). Classroom activities should be designed to reduce anxiety and to build communicative confidence in English.

Motivation is also one of the most important factors for successful learning and is a well-established area of research. A number of research studies have concluded that the more motivated learners are, the more successful their language learning. Then, the question goes to how learners can be motivated. Dörnyei (2010) claims motivation can go through diverse phases; namely, it is changeable. It is also situation-oriented, so classroom environments as well as teachers have a huge influence on learners. People get motivated and engaged in activities when they are enjoyable and satisfying to do (Noel et al., 2000). In order to sustain learners' motivation, educators and researchers need to intervene in their learning processes.

According to Ellis (2008), L2 proficiency refers to a learner's skill in using the L2. It can be divided into two types: BICS and CALP (Brown, 2007). This distinction is crucial for language learners in terms of their goals for the target language. Educators must surely make efforts to enhance these two skills.

Statements of the Problem

In order for students to learn effectively, educators need to consider various complex ID factors, and thus, it is crucial to pay attention to student IDs more closely. If teachers know their students well or have information about their students, teachers may be able to provide better lessons for them. In addition, researchers have sought to establish direct relationships between various ID factors and measures of language learning (Ellis, 2012). Most of the ID variables are related to a complicated and rather diverse body of research within the field of psychology. There has been considerable

research regarding the relationships between a particular ID and proficiency; however, such research often lacks sufficient theoretical coherence (Dörnyei, 2010). Thus, it is important to investigate the relationships between ID variables and the different kinds of behaviors in which learners engage based on theoretical principles.

Purposes of the Study

There is not much research that has dealt with multiple ID variables and investigated them with L2 learning in a Japanese tertiary setting. The central purpose of this action research study is to investigate how such ID variables as personality, the willingness to communicate, and motivation impact on proficiency in a particular class in order to better enhance the participants' potential in learning.

The Audience of the Study

Although this study may not be generalizable, it will provide effective information for individuals such as second language researchers, teachers, curriculum/materials developers, and school administrators in Japan. Getting familiar with the various kinds of ID factors of English learners will surely be helpful for those who are related to English language education.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Personality

An Overview

Many researchers have shown great interest regarding the relationship between personality and L2 learning since personality has long been regarded as one of the important factors in language learning classrooms. Ellis (2008) defines it as follows:

Personality is generally conceived of as composed of a series of traits such as extraversion/introversion and neuroticism/stability. It constitutes a factor believed to account for individual differences in L2 learning (p. 975).

One of the most accepted set of traits is known as the "big five" model, which is based on a long history of factor analyses conducted on questionnaire items (Ellis, 2001; Dörnyei, 2010; Robson, 1994). The five dimensions of this personality theory are: (a) Openness to Experience, (b) Conscientiousness, (c) Extraversion-Introversion, (d) Agreeableness, and (e) Neuroticism-Emotional Stability. Dörnyei (2010) summarizes these traits as follows:

Table 3

The Big Five Dimensions of Personality

Components	High score	Low score
openness to experience	imaginative, curious	conservative, conventional
conscientiousness	systematic, meticulous	unreliable, aimless
extraversion-introversion	sociable, gregarious	passive, quiet
agreeable	friendly, good-natured	cold, cynical
neuroticism-emotional stability	worrying, anxious	calm, relaxed

(Dörnyei, 2010, p. 15)

The "big five" model, as previously mentioned, is a solid model regarding personality (Ellis, 2001; Dörnyei, 2010; Robson, 1994). Among the five personality traits, Extraversion/Introversion, and Neuroticism/Stability are the dominant traits known as the "big two" (Brown et al., 2002; Brown, 2007; Dewaele & Furnham, 1999). More specifically, the extraversion-introversion dimension has been researched the most frequently.

Extraversion - Introversion

Brown (2007) defines an extraverted person as one who has deep-seated needs to receive ego enhancement, self-esteem, and a sense of wholeness from other people. An introverted person, on the other hand, is defined as one who derives a sense of wholeness and fulfillment apart from a reflection of this self from other people. Brown (2002) summarizes these traits by showing the advantages and disadvantages of an extraverted learner and an introverted learner for language learning.

Extravert

Advantages

a) Practicing English with other people is natural and easy for you, b) You usually do not mind taking risks, and c) You enjoy group work in class.

Disadvantages:

a) You can be too dependent on people, b) You might not study enough on your own, and c) You do not like individual work.

Introvert

Advantages

a) You enjoy solving problems on your own, b) You are happy by yourself, and c) You

usually have good study skills.

Disadvantages

a) You might not try to meet other people, b) You could be a low risk taker, and c) You do not like group work.

Personality and Tasks/Instructions, and Proficiency

   Ellis (2008) emphasizes an important relationship between personality and tasks/instructions. Extraverts and introverts may make different choices in accuracy when they are required to perform in the L2. One of the crucial factors may be the task used to elicit samples of oral language. There is evidence that Extraversion/Introversion are related to measures of communicative language use, especially fluency. Dewaele and Furnham (1999) point out that the strength of the relationship depends on the task. Extraverted people are likely to be more fluent than introverted people in both L1 and L2.

   There are some relationships between language ability and personality. Using Cummins models (1981), Ellis (2008) states that extraverted learners do better in acquiring basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS). The reason for this is that sociability result in more communicative activities in the L2. Introverted learners, on the other hand, do better at developing academic language proficiency (CALP) because they, perhaps, spend more time reading and writing. The research related to these claims will be discussed in greater detail below.

Neurotic – Stable

   Neurotic/Stable is also the one of important personality dimensions. This trait is a

part of the big five, which is the dominant personality theory in psychology (Ellis, 2004). Neuroticism/Stability is also known as the big two (Ellis, 2001; Brown et al., 2002; Brown, 2007; Dewaele & Furnham, 1999). In addition, this trait is one of the categories of the YG Personality Inventory. On the YG Personality Inventory (1957), there are certain six Neurotic/Stable traits. They are (a) Depression, (b) Cyclic Tendencies, (c) Inferiority Feelings, (d) Nervousness, (e) Lack of Objectivity, and (f) Lack of Cooperatives. Several researchers (Dörnyei, 2010; MacIntyre et al., 1994) found some advantages and disadvantages of these two traits:

Neurotic

Advantages

a) You have increased drive, b) You have increased productivity, and c) You have greater sensitivity to negative outcomes.

Disadvantages

a) You are worried, b) You are moody, and c) You feel envy.

Stable

Advantages

a) You are calm, b) You are less reactive to stress, and c) You are even-tempered.

Disadvantages

a) You are low in negative emotion and b) You are not necessarily high on positive emotion.

Also, anxious students tend to underestimate their competence. On the other hand, less anxious students tend to overestimate their competence.

Personality, Tasks/Participation, and Proficiency

Most research has shown some relationships between Neurotic – Stable traits, tasks/participation, and proficiency. For instance, Robson and Midorikawa (2008) investigated the relationship between personality (YG Personality Inventory) and proficiency for both CALP and BICS. The study found that neurotic students scored better on the pre-test administration of the TOEIC test (CALP) than extraverted students. On the post-test, the neurotic students made fewer gains, and the extraverted students scored lower on the reading section. In terms of the oral proficiency test (BICS), the socially extraverted participants were more fluent than the neurotic ones.

Also, Robson (1994) investigated the relationship between personality using the YG Personality Inventory and participation by obtaining a measure of voluntary oral participation. He found that university students in Japan who were extraverted and emotionally stable actively participated more in the classes than the students who were introverted and neurotic.

There are some negative relationships between anxiety, which is a neurotic sub-trait, and language learning. For instance, Chapman (2002) conducted research investigating the relationship between second language speaking anxiety and oral performance. The participants completed anxiety subscales on Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) and the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) interview, which was used to assess oral performance. The study revealed that there was a significant negative relationship between second language speaking anxiety and oral performance.

Measurements for Personality

Personality traits are typically measured by analyzing responses to self-reports or

questionnaires such as the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire, the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), or the YG Personality Inventory (Ellis, 2001). In this paper, the MBTI and the YG inventory are the focus of this review as they have often been administered in various L2 contexts.

Myers-Briggs Type Indicator

The Myers Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) is used to describe different personality types (Myers et al., 1976). This was developed from Carl Jung's theory of psychological. Ehrman (2008) states that this questionnaire is used by educational psychologists, counselors, and organization development specialists and targets four personality dichotomies: (a) Extraversion-Introversion, (b) Sensing-Intuition, (c) Thinking-Feeling, and (d) Judging-Perceiving.

The scales have 16 possible combinations of four-letter types, such as ENFP (Extraversion, Intuition, Feeling, and Perceiving). Myers and Briggs develop a set of four indices measuring Extraversion-Introversion (EI), Sensing – Intuition (SN), Thinking-Feeling (TF), and Judgment-Perception (JP). Here is a brief summary of these dimensions:

a. Extraversion (E)-Introversion (I): An introvert prefers working alone. An extravert prefers working in a team.

b. Sensing (S)-Intuition (N): A sensor follows a step-by-step approach. An intuitive thinker thinks about issues using abstract possibilities.

c. Thinking (T)-Feeling (F): A thinking person prefers to make decisions in an impersonal, logical, and objective manner. A feeling person makes decisions based more on personal values, relationships, and the feelings of others.

d. Judging (J)-Perceiving (P): The judger looks for a planned and controlled life. The

    perceiver deals with the outside world through sensing or intuition.

Brown (2007) nicely lists the character types for the following categories:

    Extraversion (E): sociability, interaction, external

    Introversion (I): territoriality, concentration, internal

    Sensing (S): experience, past, realistic

    Intuition (N): hunches, future, speculative

    Thinking (T): objective, principles, policy

    Feeling (F): subjective, values, social values

    Judging (J): settled, decided, fixed

    Perceiving (P): pending, gather more data, flexible

There is a 123-item glossary and the MBTI requires people to decide on one pole of

each of the four preferences. The use of the term indicator does not refer to traditional

scales ranging from positive to negative. Rather, every type can have positive or

negative effects in a specific life domain (Dörnyei, 2010). This approach is similar to

learning styles and is frequently uses personality type inventory in the L2 field. In

addition, it has often been used in L2 studies as a learning styles measure.

Yatabe-Guilford Personality Inventory

    As previously noted, personality is typically measured by means of some kind of

self-report questionnaire (Ellis, 2008). One of these example questionnaires is the

Yatabe-Guilford Personality Inventory (YG) which is based on the work of Guilford. He

and his colleagues examined the correlations between typical items on Extraversion-

Introversion and Neuroticism-Stable tests, and through factor analysis, constructed a

number of personality measures. These became the basis of the 12 traits that make up this inventory: (a) Depression, (b) Cyclic Tendencies, (c) Inferiority Feelings, (d) Nervousness, (e) Lack of Objectivity, (f) Lack of Cooperativeness, (g) Disagreeableness, (h) General Activity, (i) Easy-Goingness, (j) Extraverted Thinking, (k) Dominance/Controlling/Ascendance, and (l) Social Extraversion. Robson (1994) summarized the translations of the above traits as follows:

a) Depression (D): an individual frequently feels depressed and has a predisposition for melancholy and pessimism.

b) Cyclic Tendencies (C): an individual undergoes mood shifts easily, becomes emotionally excited, and is seen to have a personality that lacks emotional stability.

c) Inferiority Feelings (I): an individual is afflicted with a sense of inferiority and lacking of self-confidence.

d) Nervousness (N): an individual has a nervous temperament, is given to worrying and has a predisposition for being irritable.

e) Lack of Objectively (O): an individual engages in improbable daydreams, is unable to sleep, stays awake fantasizing, and is hypersensitive.

f) Lack of Cooperativeness (Co): an individual is greatly dissatisfied and unreliable with a predisposition for discontent and insincerity.

g) Disagreeableness (Ag): an individual is short tempered, and acts as if he or she feels in the right regardless of what other believe.

h) General Activity (G): an individual is physically active and prompt in the workplace, exhibiting energetic behavior and having bright dispositions.

i) Easy-Goingness/Rhathymia (R): an individual is always seeking some kind of stimulation, is lighthearted and easygoing with a predisposition for impulsiveness.

j) Extraverted Thinking (T): an individual has a tendency for thinking about everything deeply with a propensity for frequently being lost in thought.

k) Dominance/Controlling/Ascendance (A): an individual works for the group or club, and never thinks about being alone.

l) Social Extraversion (S): an individual enjoys the company of others, and takes great pleasure in talking to others.

Factor analysis of these twelve traits places the first six in one factor, Neuroticism, and the second six in another factor, Extraversion (Robson, 1994). In other words, the six Neurotic-Stable traits are from 1 to 6, and the other six Extravert-Introvert traits are from 7 to 12. These 12 traits each have ten questions for a total of 120 items. The participants are required to choose among: (a) yes, (b) no, and (c) uncertain. (a) as well as (b) are scored two points and (c) is scored one point for a possible zero to 20 points per trait.

After more than a decade of piloting and revising, the final version of the Yatabe-Guilford inventory was created by Yatabe and other psychologists in 1957. Nowadays, in Japan, this method is seen as one of the most effective ways to measure personality in various contexts. For instance, many companies in Japan have administered this test to get familiar with new employees and to use it as a screening tool. Also, the YG inventory is often administered in educational institutions in order to know students' personalities.

Personality Studies

Strong (1983) investigated the relationship between extraversion and proficiency, natural communicative language, and found that an extraverted trait was an advantage.

Robson (1994) found that extraverted and emotional stable learners tended to participate more in oral activities compared with introverted and neurotic learners. According to Ellis (2008), extraversion including talkativeness, responsiveness, and gregariousness, is an important variable in relation to BICS.

On the other hand, several studies have showed a negative relationship between extraversion and communicative skills. For instance, Dörnyei and Kormos (2000) conducted a study regarding the relationship between measures of social cohesiveness or of sociometric interrelationships and measures of engagements in an oral argumentative tasks with Hungarian EFL students. They found that extraversion was negatively related to learners' oral language and interpreted this finding as follows: students are more likely to change their learning mode when they perform a task in their second language which negates the effect of social factors.

Regarding the relationship between introversion and CALP style proficiency, it seems that there are few positive effects of personality on proficiency. For instance, Busch (1982) investigated the effects of introversion on formal proficiency measures using her translated version of the Eysenck Personality Inventory. She found a negative relationship between introversion and scores measuring a four-part written proficiency test. However, there are some serious weaknesses with her instruments, particularly her measure of personality. Generally speaking, Neurotic-Stable and introverted students are more likely to prefer structured activities and not to participate in the language classroom (Robson et al., 2008).

Studies based on the Hypothesis that Extraverted Learners Do Better at BICS

Many researchers agree that Extraversion/Introversion and Neuroticism/Stability

are basic human personality traits (Robson, 1994; Ellis, 2008). All the models of personality reviewed accept Extraversion/Introversion and Neuroticism/Stability as traits of human behavior. Various studies have shown mixed results regarding which personality trait would be effective for learning. All personality dimensions are just different. For instance, one research study showed that extraverts tend to spend less processing time while introverts need more time in testing situations (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1964). Riding and Parker (1979) conducted a study that looked at the effect of personality on the recall of prose by children. The 11 year-old pupils took a comprehension test, and the study found that overall recall was not significantly different among the personality types.

Also, personality has an influence on the way learners respond to classroom instruction (Ellis, 2008). Generally speaking, extraverts prefer unstructured classroom activities, and, on the other hand, introverts seem to prefer structured activities (Brown, Robson & Rosenkjar, 2002; Robson, 1994). Robson conducted a study with Japanese college students to compare the amount of voluntary oral participation with personality traits using the YG inventory. The results showed that extraverts and emotionally stable individuals favored uncontrolled and unfocused oral participation over introverts and neurotics.

In addition, Riding and Parker (1979) mentioned that extraverts were better at identifying the main idea of reading passages and introverts could be better at processing the details. Extraverts outperformed in identifying the main idea of the reading passages, while introverts outperformed in the processing of detailed information. The former had better recall of general information, while the latter had better recall of constructed information. According to them, introverts tend to store

information by using images, and, on the other hand, extraverts tend to store information verbally. In the following sections, some research results of these personality traits are described.

Introverted Dimension

Much of the literature has indicated that introverts are better language learners. For instance, Busch (1982) examined the relationship between extraversion and higher levels of proficiency for learners in Japan. The study found that introverts were actually more proficient than extraverts in terms of their pronunciation even though Busch originally predicted that the extraverts would be more proficient language learners. Nonetheless, she used her own translation of the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire despite the existence of an authorized Japanese translation, which casts doubts about the validity of her instrument. In addition, Ehrman (2008) conducted a study and found that the best language learners tended to have introverted personalities.

Based on Dewaele and Furnham (1999), their finding probably resulted from the following descriptions of the behavior of a highly extraverted and highly introverted person: the typical extravert is sociable, has many friends, and does not like reading or studying by him/herself. On the other hand, the typical introvert is a quiet, retiring sort of person and more fond of books rather than people. Midorikawa and others (2008) found similar results: the introverts outperformed on the pre-test TOEIC. Brown (2007) adds that introverts may have the patience and focus to attend to learning language.

Understanding the results of the MBTIs allows students to become more effective language learners. One study found that INTJ (introversion-intuition-thinking-judging) was significantly over-represented among good language learners (Ehrman, 2008).

There are, of course, some exceptions. Dörnyei and Kormos (2000) failed to find a relationship between measures of social cohesiveness among Hungarian EFL students and measures of engagement in an oral argumentative task such as the number of turns or words used. They negated a positive relationship between social factors and performance, such as participants' relationship to their interlocutor, and the oral task. It has been theorized that neurotic traits can be a positive factor in test taking and that extravert traits can be a negative factor.

Extraverted Dimension

Of course, there are some exceptions to positive aspects of introverted personality. Brown (2007) suggested that extraversion may be a factor in the development of general oral communicative skills, which require face-to-face communication. Dewaele and Furnham (1999) confirmed that extraversion affects speech production: "… extraversion does affect both L1 and L2 speech production" (p. 509). In addition, Wakamoto (2000) conducted a study of university students in Japan and found that the extraverted students were more likely to make better use of learning strategies than the introverted ones.

Robson (1992, 1994) conducted several studies of English learners in Japan in order to measure personality using the YG Inventory and voluntary participation in oral English classes with Japanese female junior college students. The 1992 study showed that Inferiority Feelings had a negative relationship with participation while the Lack of Agreeableness or Aggression, General Activity, Rhathymia, and Ascendance had positive relations. In addition, he found that extravert and emotionally stable learners were more active and willing to participate in classroom activities compared to

introverts and neurotics. Robson concludes that the extraverts and the emotionally stable were fond of uncontrolled and unfocused oral participation over introverts and neurotics.

Summary

Many researchers agree that it is not clear that extraversion or introversion helps or hinders the learning of an L2. What is important is that researchers and educators be sensitive to the extraversion and introversion personality traits that vary from student to student (Brown, 2007). Thus, Skehan (1989) states that, "we may need to accept that both extraversion and introversion have their own positive features, and that an extreme either way is likely to work against some aspects of target-language development" (pp. 104-105).

Additionally, knowing students' personal dimensions is surely beneficial for teachers. It may be possible to provide variety and alternatives in classroom activities to suit students' different personalities and learning styles (Brown, 2002, 2007). For instance, teachers can help their learners, who are relatively introverted, by not forcing participation in extraverted activities such as group work, discussion, or presentation, which would be against the students' natural inclinations. These students would be show more interest in individual work such as paper-pencil based tasks, writing, or reading.

Lastly, learners need to know their preferences. Successful learners know their strengths as well as their weaknesses. In addition, they utilize their strengths and compensate for their weaknesses regardless of their natural preferences (Brown, 2002, 2007; Ellis, 2008).

Willingness to Communicate

An Overview

Another variable that can influence SLA is the Willingness to Communicate (WTC). The WTC is a relatively new concept among individual differences, and this variable is based on a concept in first language communication research where it has been studied in the field of speech communication and pathology.

The WTC explains an individual's degree of readiness to participate in discourse (MacIntyre, Clement, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1998). In other words, it is the probability of engaging in communication when free to choose to do so, that is, a volitional process or the respondents' predisposition toward approaching or avoiding the initiation of communication (McCroskey, 1992). According to Ellis (2008),

> This is the extent to which learners are prepared to initiate communication when they have a choice. It constitutes a factor believed to lead to individual differences in language learning (p. 983).

McCroskey (1992) explained that the WTC is based on the combination of greater perceived communicative competence, and a lower level of communication anxiety. It is also seen to be directly influenced by a combination of communication apprehension and perceived communication competence (MacIntyre et al., 1998; Yashima, 2002). According to McCroskey, the WTC captures the implications of communication apprehension, introversion, and shyness behaviors depending on communication contexts and interlocutors. The WTC is a complex factor that is influenced by a number of other ID variables such as communication anxiety, perceived communication competence and perceived behavioral control (Ellis, 2008).

The Heuristic Model

It is difficult to describe what effect the WTC has on learning the target language.

However, MacIntyre and others (1998) nicely conceptualized a model. The following

heuristic model of variables influencing the WTC is important for explaining the WTC

in the L2. This figure, the heuristic model, shows the range of potential influences on

the WTC in the L2 in the form of a pyramid with 6 layers. These are: (a) the social and

individual context, (b) the affective-cognitive context, (c) the motivational propensities,

(d) the situated antecedents, (e) the behavioral intentions, and (f) the communication

behavior. The bottom three layers show that the learners' WTC is influenced by stable

constructs, namely, enduring influences. The upper three levels show that their WTC is

influenced by situational factors.
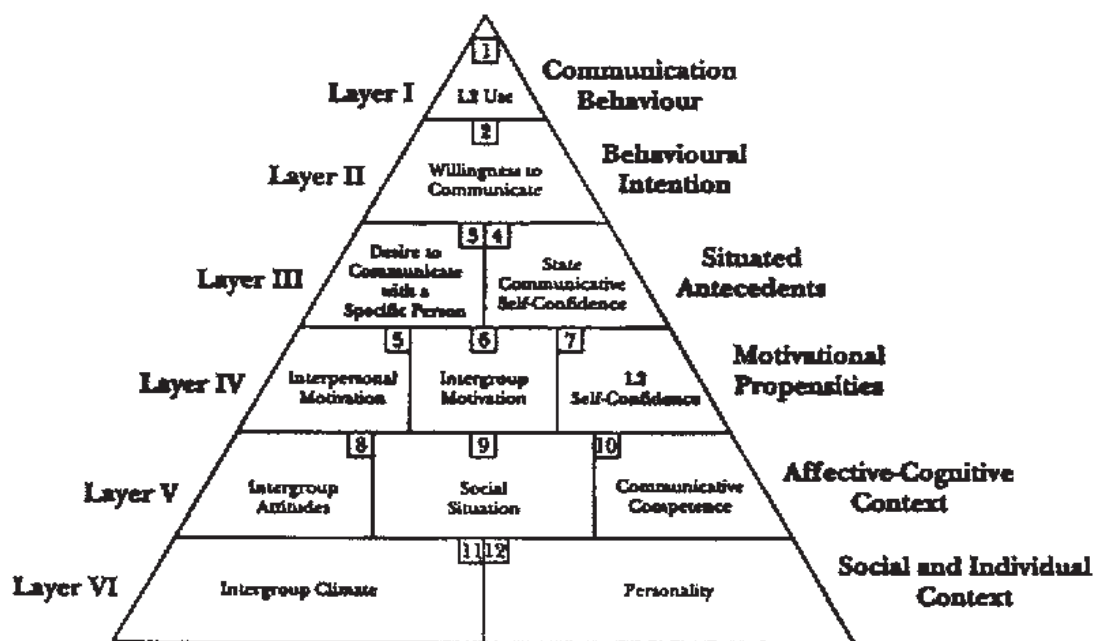
Figure 1. The heuristic model of variables influencing WTC (MacIntyre, Clement, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1998)

Layer VI: social and individual context

There are two boxes: (a) intergroup climate or situation, and (b) personality. Intergroup climate means the situation surrounding the interlocutors' group and personality means the person's traits such as extravert or introvert.

Layer V: affective and cognitive context

There are three boxes: (a) intergroup attitudes, (b) social situation, and (c) communicative competence. Intergroup attitudes mean the person's attitude toward the interlocutor's group. Social situation means that the situation where the person is in socially has an effect on communication. Communicative competence means that the L2 proficiency level has an effect on communication.

Layer IV: motivational propensities

There are three boxes: (a) interpersonal motivation, (b) intergroup motivation, and (c) L2 self-confidence. Interpersonal motivation is in regards to the various relationships between the person and the interlocutor that have an effect on L2 communication. For instance, conversation with authorities, such as teachers or doctors, reduces motivation, as well as affective and behavioral freedom. In other words, motivation can be changed depending on the interlocutors. Intergroup motivation means that motivation is affected by the group to which the person belongs. For instance, if the person communicates with an interlocutor who belongs to a different group, such as a political rival or a member of a competitive team, motivation can be reduced.

Layer III: situated antecedents

There are two boxes: (a) desire to communicate with a specific person, and (b) state communicative self-confidence. Desire to communicate with a specific person means the person needs to have a desire to communicate with a specific person. State

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communicative self-confidence means that if the person has confidence to communicate using their L2, then the person's WTC can be motivated.

Layer II: behavioral intention

There is one box: willingness to communicate. It shows that the person is ready to communicate with people because he/she has confidence using their L2, and a desire to communicate with an interlocutor.

Layer I: communication behavior

There is one box: L2 use, which is the optimal aim of this heuristic model.

WTC in L2

The origins of studies looking at the WTC lie in the first language communication literature. Two researchers, MacIntyre and Charos, first started the WTC research in the field of SLA in 1996. After 2000, in foreign language settings, the WTC research began to be conducted with Japanese English language learners (Yashima, 2002; Yashima et al., 2004). There are differences between the WTC in the L1 and L2. For the WTC in the L2, there is the opportunity to integrate psychological, linguistic, educational, and communicative approaches (MacIntyre, 2007). MacIntyre adds that the WTC may be seen as both an ID factor facilitating L2 development and as a nonlinguistic outcome of the language learning process.

Communication in the L2 depends on a psychological readiness to use the language and to cope with pressures to use the L2. In the L2, learners need to pay extra attention to their target language in a more complex manner than native speakers speaking their first language (MacIntyre et al., 1998). For instance, some learners are willing to communicate with people using their L2, while others are not. Thus, the WTC has been

included as an affective variable concerning L2 learning.

In addition, compared to L1 settings, as L2 competence levels depend on the individual learners, there is a wide range of competences. If the learner does not feel competent, he or she may not be willing to communicate. In terms of second language acquisition, communicative confidence in the L2 means communication without anxiety (Yashima, 2002). Dörnyei (2010) adds that L2 WTC is determined by the interaction of the psychological conditions of excitement, responsibility, and security as well as situational variables, and the conversational context of the communication. Thus, communicating with others is a dynamic and is complex processes. The following six features explain how complicated such communication can be:

a. Communication is a symbolic process only people who are in the conversation can make the language, which can be verbal or non-verbal, meaningful,

b. Communication is a process involving several components – the meaning of communication depends on the interlocutors, contexts, or implications,

c. Communication involves the sharing and negotiating of meaning – only at the time when people communicate, they share and negotiate the meaning of that communication,

d. Communication is dynamic – communication is changing all the time,

e. Communication does not have to be intentional – people can communicate with each other without any purposes, and

f. Communication is receiver-oriented.

(Martin & Nakayama, 2000, in Yashima 2004)

To improve communication skills, learners need to use the target language, and, according to Dörnyei (2010), the purpose of communicative language teaching

approach is to improve learners' communicative competence in the target language.

International Posture

When it comes to communicating with others using an L2, the person's favorable attitude toward that county is crucial. For instance, some learners are more interested in the culture of English speaking countries than other learners. In this case, these learners are motivated as well as being willing to study English and communicate in English.

According to Yashima (2002), international posture is defined as interests in foreign or international affairs and readiness to interact with intercultural partners, and that this has an influence on motivation. MacIntyre (2007) mentions that one of the major aspects of the motivation to learn another language is to have some curiosity and interests in the country, its culture, and its people. In some sense, L2 learners need to learn a second culture along with a second language (Brown, 2007).

International posture also influences the WTC and L2 proficiency (Yashima, 2002). This figure is based on her empirical studies and it shows that international posture, the WTC in terms of frequency of communication, and English proficiency are all related to each other. She found that international posture is strongly correlated with learning motivation, which has a positive relationship with both proficiency and communicative confidence. The last variable, communicative confidence, is related to L2 WTC. She concluded that interpersonal posture has a positive impact on motivation, communication confidence, and L2 proficiency.

Figure 2. A schematic representation of the interaction between L2 WTC, international postre and English proficiency *(*Yashima, 2002)

Yashima et al. (2004) claim that some students might be willing to communicate as they have instrumental reasons, but others may be willing to communicate because they enjoy speaking or writing in English. Thus, these researchers emphasize the importance of relationships between motivational tendencies and the WTC. Yashima (2002) also claims that motivated individuals tend to have confidence in communication, and it influences their WTC in the target language. This is clearly the reason why the WTC is important in the Japanese EFL context. She concludes that one of the ultimate goals of successful learning is to have a will to communicate.

Measurements of WTC

McCroskey (1992) claims that the WTC scale is a high quality and valid measure for use in language learning research. It has a 20-item, probability-estimate scale that includes eight non-scored fillers with the other 12 items being scored as part of the scale.

The scale operationalizes willingness to communicate in terms of listening, speaking, reading and writing both inside and outside of the classroom.

(Ellis, 2008, p.648)

Ellis (2012) states that similar to anxiety, the WTC can also be considered as a trait or as a situational variable, which can be influenced by specific instructional factors. Based on the types of receivers (stranger, acquaintances, and friends), in this scale, there are three sub-scores. Additionally, based on the types of communication contexts (public, meeting, group, and dyad), there are four additional sub-scores; e.g., "Present a talk to a group of strangers.", "Talk with an acquaintance while standing in line.", and "Talk in a large meeting of friends."

Participants filling out the scale indicate the percentage of time they would choose to communicate in each type of situation when completely willing to do so by selecting a number between 0 and 100 (Appendix F). In other words, the WTC specifically directs the respondent to complete the scale with this aspect of free choice in mind (McCroskey, 1992). L2 WTC is not fixed and varies depending on the situations (Ellis, 2008). Ellis continues that L2 communication must be highly situation-oriented and it is likely to be made up of a combination of a number of psychological, linguistic, and contextual variables.

Studies Related to WTC

As previously mentioned, the WTC is a complex concept. In addition, the concept of L2 use differs from country to country. According to McCroskey (1992), the WTC is highly culturally dependent. The following table indicates that not only are the means different, but the ordering is different for the various contexts depending on cultures.

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Table 4

Comparative Means of College Students from Various Countries in terms of Their WTC

WTC Score	U.S.	Sweden	Australia	Micronesia	Finland	Estonia
Total WTC Score	65.2	58.1	56.6	47.3	54.6	54.8
Context Sub-score						
Public	54.2	53.3	46.0	47.0	51.8	53.6
Meeting	59.7	52.2	53.1	37.4	49.4	51.5
Group	70.8	63.3	63.3	55.2	59.8	61.8
Dyad	76.2	63.3	63.8	49.6	72.9	51.9
Receiver Sub-scores						
Stranger	38.5	37.4	38.8	22.9	35.1	38.5
Acquaintance	72.5	62.8	61.0	44.4	60.7	63.3
Friend	84.7	73.8	75.9	74.5	68.1	62.2

Generally speaking, people are willing to communicate in contexts with fewer counterparts and with whom they are familiar. It is additionally important to note that these individuals are in context where they are speaking their first language. Also, the results vary depending on the contexts as well as who the receiver is. The degree of people's willingness to communicate differs from country to country. Clearly, from these results, university students in America are the most willing to communicate. On the other hand, students in Micronesia are not as much. The important thing is to consider these cultural differences and to acknowledge that whatever is "normal" is influenced by culture (McCroskey, 1992).

Also the concepts of WTC differ from individuals to individuals. In the following table, McCroskey (1992) compares various communication situations among Americans. McCroskey (1992) assumes that most people would be more willing to communicate with friends in a dyadic context than to communicate with a group of strangers in a public speaking context. His finding supports this assumption, showing that college students in the U.S. are least willing to communicate in a public speaking

context and with strangers, while they are most willing to communicate with friends and in dyads.

Table 5

Normative Means, Standard Deviations, and Reliabilities for WTC Scores

WTC Score	Mean	S.D.	Reliability
Total WTC Score	65.2	15.1	.92
Context Sub-scores			
Public	54.2	21.3	.74
Meeting	59.7	19.9	.70
Group	70.8	16.3	.65
Dyad	76.2	15.6	.68
Receiver Sub-scores			
Stranger	38.5	21.5	.84
Acquaintance	72.5	18.3	.79
Friend	84.7	14.0	.76

According to Ellis (2012), the WTC has some effect on motivation. Peng and Woodrow (2010) conducted an extensive study of the WTC with 579 Chinese university students from eight different Chinese universities. They created this survey, which was designed to measure variables hypothesized to impact directly or indirectly on the WTC. They were: (a) communication anxiety in English, (b) perceived communication competence in English, (c) motivation to learn English, (d) learner beliefs, and (e) classroom environment. This study found using the L2 involves various factors such as L2 competence, motivation, communication contexts, and anxiety using the L2. Once again, the WTC is an important affective factor related to communication using the L2. Another similar research study indicated that the lack of anxiety and perceived competence led to Japanese learners' WTC. These were ESL university students in Hawaii, and the WTC as well as motivation influenced their L2 communication in the

classroom in terms of fluency (Hashimoto, 2002). Also, Yashima at el. (2002)

investigated the relationship between L2 learning and L2 communication variables

among Japanese university EFL learners. She and her associates found that motivation

enhanced self-confidence in L2 communication and led to the WTC. In addition,

MacIntyre and Charos (1996) investigated how the WTC applied to L2 communication

in various Canadian contexts. MacIntyre and his colleague found that the WTC in the

L2 was a predictor of frequency of L2 communication. In addition, Dörneyi and

Kormos (2000) found significant, positive correlations between their measure of the

WTC and amount of English produced in a communicative task when the learners

responded with positive attitudes toward the task, but almost no correlations with

learners who had low attitudes towards the task.

Summary

The WTC is a matter related to curiosity about the country, culture, and people, and

it is highly affected by the environment. In other words, the WTC is not fixed, but

situation-dependent (Ellis, 2008). For instance, in Japan, there are very few

opportunities to encounter foreigners and use English outside of English classes.

English learners in Japan have more disadvantages because of the EFL environment.

Thus, Japanese require more efforts to develop the WTC compared to learners in ESL

communities.

With regards to Japanese English learners' WTC and interests in communicative

English, Watanabe (2013) summarized as follows: (a) the perceived competence,

confidence in L2 communication, international posture, and lack of L2 anxiety develop

the WTC, and (b) regardless of having several negative experiences toward English,

university students are still interested in communicating in English. According to

Watanabe, positive attitudes toward communicating in English and further efforts seem

to be needed for the growth of Japanese WTC. Alternatively, giving opportunities for

learners to use English is far more important (MacIntyre et al., 1996).

Motivation

An Overview

In the 1990s, most researchers moved their attention to a cognitive-situated view of

motivation, and the role this type of motivation played in language learning. For several

decades, researchers have concentrated on the importance of various types of motivation

for successful second language learning (Deci, 1975; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Gardner,

1985; Ellis, 2001, 2008).

Recently, a more process-oriented view of motivation has emerged. The core issues

during the cognitive-situated and process-oriented periods of motivation research turned

to practical questions of how motivation might be initiated, influenced, supported, or

sustained (Dörnyei, 2001; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2012). Dörnyei and Ushioda have

identified these developments as follows:

(1) The social-psychological period (1959-1990)

This period is characterized by the work of Gardner and his associates in Canada

and their approach was the dominant theory in early motivational research. Their

approach to motivation was designed to account for the role that social factors played in

natural settings in language contexts. This model was developed to explain L2 learning

contexts, especially for foreign language classrooms. Integrative motivation and

instrumental motivation are the important components of Gardner's model in the L2

field. Integrate motivation refers to a positive disposition toward the L2 group and the desire to interact with the members of the community. On the other hand, instrumental motivation refers to the potential pragmatic gains of L2 proficiency such as getting into a good school or earning a higher salary.

Research has found mixed results. Some research (Gardner & Lambert, 1972) found that integrative motivation was a good predictor of L2 learning, while other found that instrumental motivation was an equivalent or better predictor than integrative motivation. More recently, these two motivations have been found to be not mutually exclusive and they could sustain effort (Gardner, 1985).

In terms of correlations between motivation and proficiency, Robson and others (2007) found strong correlations between proficiency and the motivational aspects of integrated motivation. The results show that the group with high proficiency students tended to have practical goals and expected to be taught and learn through traditional learning, grammar and translation. Robson and others concluded that the students' beliefs about this method of teaching was highly related to their proficiency.

(2) The cognitive-situated period (during the 1990s)

The research during this period is characterized by work drawing on cognitive theories in educational psychology. The significance of situation-specific factors, such as the classroom learning situation, was examined, and the general categorizations of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation were developed during this period. Intrinsic motivation refers to a situation in which a student is engaged in for the interest and joy associated with learning the language. Extrinsic motivation, on the contrary, refers to the activities that are engaged in to accomplish goals, for example, learning a language because the learner believes that bilingualism is a crucial job skill.

These orientations also have mixed findings. Through a factor-analytic study conducted for Anglophone learners of L2 French in Canada, Noels and others (2000) found that intrinsic motivation contributes strongly to L2 learning. They interpreted the results of their questionnaires as showing that the more self-determined a learner's motivation is the greater the achievement. On the other hand, Gardner and MacIntyre (1991) conducted a study regarding the importance of rewarding (e.g., money) and found that people are more likely to study harder if they know they would be rewarded. Generally speaking, extrinsic motivation leads to successful learning.

According to Noels and others (2001), these three orientation types, intrinsic, extrinsic, and amotivation all lie on a continuum of self-determination. In other words, the self-determination continuum moves from amotivation to extrinsic motivation, and, finally, to intrinsic motivation.

(3) The process-oriented period (turn of the 21 century)

This period is characterized by a focus on motivational change and emphasizes the dynamic nature of motivation, its temporal variation and evolution. The process model of L2 motivation theory influences L2 learning along a sequence of actional events. This theory has two dimensions: action sequence and motivational influences. Action sequence refers to the sequential pattern of the motivational process and has the following phases – pre-actional phase, actional phase, and finally post-actional phase. Motivational influences refer to the energy sources that can enhance or inhibit the actor's endeavors. This discussion will be further developed below.

Egbert (2003) investigated the concept of 'flow' with university Spanish learners, and he measured their performance on a number of learning tasks. According to him, 'flow' is defined as 'an experiential state characterized by intense focus and

involvement that leads to improved performance on a task' (p.499). The different tasks examined the following aspects: (a) control, (b) focus, (c) interest, and (d) challenge. Egbert found that the nature of the task influenced flow, that is, learners' levels of motivation.

(4) The socio-dynamic period (current)

The current state of motivational research is characterized by a concern with dynamic systems and contextual interactions, and has led to an explosion of interest in the role motivation plays in language learning. That is, it is a move toward relational or dynamic systems perspectives on motivation. There has been a move toward more dynamic contextual paradigms for the analysis of motivation. It means that the relationships between individuals and context are conceived of in terms of dynamic organic systems evolving over time within the context of contemporary theories of self and identity. Dörnyei's new concept, L2 Motivational Self-System, was developed based on these ideas. It is centered on people's vision of themselves in the future. In short, this concept derives from the ideal self, which means the self-one would ideally like to possess based on one's aspirations or wishes. Complexity theory and dynamic systems concepts have also begun to be present in many aspects of SLA. The current socio-dynamic phase may represent a period when motivation research contributes to the development of major issues within SLA.

Dörnyei and Ushioda (2012) further mention regarding the current "new" socio-dynamic phase that it is characterized by a focus on the situated complexity of the L2 motivation process, and its organic development in interaction with a multiplicity of internal (e.g., behaviors, responds, feelings or attention), social (e.g., culture or situations), and contextual factors (e.g., ESL / EFL or classroom settings).

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Dörnyei (2010) states that learners' motivational orientations or intensity can go through rather diverse phases, in other words, they are changeable. Motivational phases are also important components as there has been recognition of motivation's dynamic and temporal aspects. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2012) conclude that, regardless of the changes to more cognitive-situated than process-oriented approaches, L2 motivation research has not shown much of an improvement in bridging the gap between psychological and linguistic perspectives in SLA. The most current approach, the new socio-dynamic phase, may bring about change in this respect.

The Self-Determination Theory

The self-determination theory (STD) is important in the socio-dynamic phase. Noels et al. (2000) developed a motivational measuring instrument that assesses various components based on the SDT of L2 learning. The definitions of SDT as follows:

> […], there are two general types of motivation, one based on intrinsic interest in the activities per se and the other based on rewards extrinsic to the activity itself. These types of motivation are not categorically different, however, but rather lie along a continuum of self-determination […] (p. 38).

Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation, and Amotivation

Through an analysis of L2 motivation, intrinsic and extrinsic orientations gain theoretical prominence as motivational concepts, and the distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation has received much attention (Dörnyei et al., 2012; Noels et al., 2000; Ellis, 2008). L2 orientations can be specifically divided broadly into three categories: (a) intrinsic, (b) extrinsic, and (c) amotivation.

Intrinsic Motivation

People get motivated and engaged in the activities when they are enjoyable and satisfying to do, which characterizes intrinsic motivation. The notion of intrinsic motivation was an old one in psychology and was developed as an alternative to goal-directed theories of motivation that emphasized the role of extrinsic rewards and punishments (Ellis, 2008). Noels and her colleagues (2000) define intrinsic motivation (IM) as the motivation to engage in an activity because the activity is enjoyable to do. Drawing from this basic concept, they developed a three-part taxonomy of IM;

a) IM-Knowledge; the motivation for doing an activity for the feeling of exploring new ideas and developing knowledge.

b) IM-Accomplishment; the sensations related to attempting to master a task.

c) IM-Stimulation; the motivation based on the sensations stimulated by performing the task.

Extrinsic Motivation

In contrast to these intrinsically motivated behaviors, people get motivated and engaged in activities in order to achieve some instrumental end such as entering into good schools or companies, earning a reward or avoiding punishment, which characterizes extrinsic motivation, EM (Noel et al., 2000). Ellis (2008) adds that EM refers to the motivation that comes from a perception of the concrete benefits that learning the L2 might bring about. For instance, "Studying French can be important because it is useful for one's career." Similar to their approach to IM, Noel and others categorize EM into three dimensions.

a) EM-External regulation; the activities that are determined by an external source to the person.

b) EM-Introjected regulation; the motivation that is more internalized into one's self-concept. For instance, they compel themselves to carry out activities or tasks.

c) EM-Identified regulation; people would carry out the activity because of its importance for achieving a goal. The external motivation has the least degree of identified regulation.

Amotivation

The third orientation, amotivation – a lack of motivation – contrasts all types of IM and EM. Noel et al. (2000) define it as the situation in which people see no relation between their actions and the consequences of those actions. In other words, in such a situation, people would be expected to quit the activity as soon as possible. If the situation is traumatic, people eventually suffer from feelings of perpetual anxiety and depression. Also, the effect of instruction can make students lack motivation. Dörnyei (2001) reviews several studies and summarizes the main demotivating factors.

Table 6

Summary of Main Demotivation Factors

General factor	Specific causes of demotivation
Teacher factors	poor relationship with students, failure to give clear instruction and explanation
Learner factors	reduced self-confidence, experience of failure, negative attitudes toward L2/L2 community, negative attitudes toward fellow students
Facilities	class size, frequent change of teachers
Classroom activities	activities perceived by students as irrelevant, overloaded or repetitive, dislike of the course book

(Dörnyei, 2001:142)

Noel and others (2000) continue that amotivation is consistently negatively correlated with motivational intensity, persistence, and positive attitudes. The intrinsic

as well as extrinsic orientations and amotivation lie on a continuum of self-determination, namely, from amotivation, through external motivation, introjected motivation, identified and integrated regulation, and finally to intrinsic motivation. Dörnyei (2010) summarizes the motivational orientations in the following table:

Table 7

The Several Types of Motivational Orientations

Subscale	Example
Amotivation	Honestly, I do not know. I truly have the impression of wasting my time in studying a second language.
EM: External regulation	Because I have the impression that it is expected of me.
EM: Introjected regulation	Because I would feel guilty if I did not know a second language.
EM: Identified regulation	Because I think it is good for my personal development.
IM: Knowledge	For the satisfied feeling I get in finding out new things.
IM: Accomplishment	For the satisfaction I feel when I am in the process of accomplishing difficult exercises in the second language.
IM: Stimulation	For the high feeling that I experience while speaking in the second language.

(Dörnyei, 2010:78)

Other Factors that Mediate Motivation

Foreign language learning motivation has been studied as a trait, as part of students' personality. In a Japanese EFL setting, favorability toward English has been shown to have an effect on students' motivation (Kunimoto, 2006; Yashima et al., 2004). Increasing this favorability by creating an enjoyable classroom atmosphere may enhance learners' motivation. Yashima (2002) adds that a comfortable classroom atmosphere is crucial as it helps reinforce learners' motivation to learn English and to build confidence in the L2. Emotions are often a feature of language classes and some classroom activities evoke stress and anxiety (Richards, 2012). Richards emphasizes that learners need to feel a positive interest and enthusiasm for learning.

In terms of mediating students' motivation, other people may play a part, including peers, employers, and administrators. Motivation develops through social participation and interaction (Griffith, 2008). Noels and others (2000) state that the language teacher also has considerable influence on an L2 learners' motivation. Teachers' responses to students and the concept of learners' autonomy are crucial as well. According to Noel and others, providing informative feedback in a non-controlling manner is important for students' self-perceptions of competence and autonomy.

Autonomy is the ability to take charge of one's learning (Benson & Voller, 1997). According to them, the term autonomy is used in at least five ways:

a) for situations in which learners study entirely on their own,

b) for a set of skills which can be learned and applied in self-directed learning,

c) for an inborn capacity which is suppressed by institutional education,

d) for the exercise of learners' responsibility for their own learning, and

e) for the right of learners to determine the direction of their own learning.

The Effective Application of Motivation in the Second Language Classroom

As previously mentioned, motivation is not seen as a static attribute, but rather as a dynamic factor that displays continuous fluctuation (Ellis, 2008). Dörnyei (2001) develops a comprehensive framework of classroom motivational strategies. This consists of 35 motivational strategies organized according to four key phases of the teaching-learning process: (1) creating the basic motivational conditions, (2) generating initial motivation, (3) maintaining and protecting motivation, and (4) encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation. This framework set is derived in part from empirical research based on *Ten Commandments*. The followings are the *Ten*

Commandments for motivating language learners:

1. Set a personal example with your own behavior.

2. Create a pleasant, relaxed atmosphere in the classroom.

3. Present the tasks properly.

4. Develop a good relationship with the learners.

5. Increase the learners' self-confidence.

6. Make the language classes interesting.

7. Promote learner autonomy.

8. Personalize the learning process.

9. Increase the learners' goal-orientedness.

10. Familiarize learners' with the target culture.

(Dörnyei and Csizer, 1998, p. 215)

Brown (2007) states that these suggestions can begin to offer a picture of the effective application of affective factors in the second language classroom. Thus, educators and researchers play an important role in intervening and helping to enhance learners' motivation for English language learning.

Measurements of Motivation

According to Dörnyei et al. (2012), motivation is notoriously known as being hard to measure in an objective way. One reason for this is that motivation is not directly observable as overt behavior and may well reflect many underlying motivational factors (e.g., an interest in learning, or a desire to display knowledge, outperform others, and seek attention or praise). As a result of these difficulties, motivation research has relied on gathering self-report data as a way to access L2 learners' own perspectives.

Wenden (1998) proposed that a good way of collecting information on how students go about a learning task and becoming aware of their own learning is to assign a task and have them report what they are thinking while they are performing it. This is called the introspective approach since learners are asked to be introspective about their own learning.

The Language Learning Orientations Scale-Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation, and Amotivation Subscales (LLOS-IEA)

The strength of a quantitative approach includes systematicity in data gathering and analysis, as well as comparability and replicability of data collection, and generalizability to wider populations (Dörnyei et al., 2012). One example of this is an instrument created by Noel and her colleagues (2000). The Language Learning Orientations Scale – intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and amotivation subscales (LLOS-IEA) has been useful in guiding research and current understandings of motivational orientations and their relationships with other ID variables.

This instrument is based on self-determination theory (SDT) and distinguishes between two dominant motivational types: intrinsic and extrinsic motivations (Appendix F). This theory may be used as a framework with regards to predicting student successes or failures in acquiring a new language. In short, learners, who are self-determined, have more motivation so that they are more likely to succeed in their studies (Ellis, 2008). This scale allows researchers to examine the psychometric properties of motivation. This is composed of four categories that measure the psychological variables related to intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and amotivation. The four scales are: (a) intrinsic motivation, (b) extrinsic motivation, (c) amotivation, and (d) antecedents and consequences of self-determination.

21 items are listed at random, and the participants are asked to indicate their

agreement to the items on a 7-point scale from 1=Disagree completely to 7=Agree

completely. For (a), (b), and (c), a high score suggests a high degree of correspondence

between the proposed reason and the students' reasons for studying the L2. For (d), a

score can be interpreted as the students' self-perceptions of competence in language

learning and self-determination.

Studies Related to Motivation

Intrinsic Motivation

There are mixed results regarding the relationship between intrinsic motivation and

L2 learning. However, many researchers (Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner, 1985;

Muchnick & Walfe, 1982; Ely, 1986; Ramage, 1990; Robson et al., 2007) found

consistent correlations between intrinsic motivation and L2 achievement. For instance,

Ramage conducted a study with American high school students of French and Spanish,

looking at those who dropped out. She found that students who had an interest in the

target-language culture and a desire to attain proficiency in all language skills chose to

continue their studies.

Noels, Pelletier, Clement, and Vallerand (2000) conducted a factor-analytic study of

Anglophone learners of L2 French in Canada. This study was based on responses to a

questionnaire and showed that the measures of intrinsic motivation were more strongly

correlated with such criterion measures as test scores than the measures of extrinsic

motivation. From the results of this study, generally speaking, intrinsic motivation

contributes strongly to L2 learning.

In order for learners to maintain a level of perseverance necessary for higher levels

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of proficiency, their motivation must come from within. When learners consider the activity as worth doing, their motivation lasts longer. Especially, through activities, which require some negotiation as well as the transactional use of language, students' intrinsic motivation can be greatly enhanced (Robson, 1994). Namely, providing learners with opportunities for the negotiation of meaning is important for their intrinsic motivation (van Lier, 1988).

Extrinsic Motivation

Extrinsic motivation is a component of Gardner's socio-educational model (referred to as instrumental motivation), which was the dominant theory in early motivation research. Research regarding extrinsic motivation has been investigated, and the results are rather mixed due to the influence of the situational and the cultural context of the learning. Thus, the social situation influences both what kinds of orientation learners have and what kinds of orientation are important for language learning (Ellis, 2008). Namely, in second as opposed to foreign language settings, extrinsic motivation may be the most important factor (Ellis, 2012). For instance, for learners with little or no interest in the target-language culture and few or nil opportunities to interact with its members, extrinsic motivation would be much more powerful in such contexts.

Lukmani (1972) found that, for female learners of L2 English in India, extrinsic motivation was more important than intrinsic motivation compared with students in the West. Namely, in India, English is one of the crucial factors leading to a successful life, so learners make some effort to study English for their own sake – their motivation comes from outside, not from inside. Also, Naiman et al. (1978) found the relationship between extrinsic motivation and learners' hand-raising.

Offering learners incentives, such as praise or money, may help their learning by

increasing the time they spend studying. Gardner and MacIntyre (1991) conducted a study with 46 university students majoring in psychology. They found that students who were rewarded $10 outperformed the students who were not given monetary rewards on a paired associate (English-French) vocabulary task. In other words, the students who received money spent more time reviewing the pairs of words.

Whereas there are various results regarding extrinsic motivation, and extrinsic motivation appears less influential than intrinsic motivation, learners with extrinsic motivation can also be successful (Ellis, 2008).

Amotivation

As described before, amotivation can be considered as the opposite of intrinsic motivation. Amotivated students feel that what happens to them is not related to how they behave (Noels, 2002). Such people are more likely not to value the activity, not to feel competent, and not to expect a desired outcome (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

The Relationships among IDs

Despite a long history of ID research, there have been few that have looked at whether there might be relationships between certain personality traits and the WTC, or, between motivation and the WTC employing questionnaires. In terms of the former relationship, MacIntyre and Charos (1996) investigated the role of personality traits on self-reported frequency of communication in a second language. There were both significant negative and positive results. They found that the extraverted participants felt less anxiety regarding communication using L2, which was shown by a significant negative path coefficient. Also, a negative path was found between language anxiety and the WTC. This indicates that the introverted are not willing to communicate as

opposed to the extraverted. Finally, they found a positive path between the WTC and self-reported communication frequency in the L2.

The WTC is clearly related to communication and motivation. In terms of the relationship between motivation and the WTC, Dörnyei and Kormos (2000) found students' WTC was effected by their attitudes toward tasks. That is, students with positive attitudes towards tasks produced more English than those with less positive attitudes. They conclude that motivation plays an important role in facilitating and boosting their WTC. In addition to this, Gliksnan (1987) investigated the relationship between students' behaviors, such as volunteered answers, and motivation. Students with higher motivation showed more active participation in the classroom.

Summary

According to Noels and others (2001), these three orientation types, intrinsic, extrinsic, and amotivation, lie on a continuum of self-determination. In other words, the self-determination continuum moves from amotivation, to extrinsic motivation, and then to intrinsic motivation. They state, based on self-determination theory, that the learners with self-determined motivation are more likely to achieve higher levels of language proficiency. Thus, it is important to consider, even though amotivation is moderately negatively related to these two types of orientations, while extrinsic motivation can work in conjunction with intrinsic motivation, rather than in opposition (Ellis, 2008).

It is important to emphasize the crucial role of the learners' social milieu. This relates to the leaners' experiences in different contexts, and ultimately linguistic and nonlinguistic outcomes in which motivation may be enhanced or frustrated in different contexts depending on the learners (Noels, 2002). She concludes that facilitating

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learners' motivations leads to successful learning.

Proficiency

An Overview

A focus on proficiency has driven the educational field especially regarding aspects of language learning and teaching (Omaggio, 2001). Educators have started to use the term proficiency only within the past 20 years or so. Before that, foreign language proficiency had been defined mainly as grammatical accuracy. However, many practitioners have come to understand that proficiency is not a single concept, but rather it is comprised of a various range of abilities. In addition, proficiency, which is closely related to interlanguage, can be improved gradually, and it is always varied. Ellis (2008) notes that, in different situations, it is usual that learners show a range of proficiencies at the same time. The definition of L2 proficiency is as follows:

> L2 proficiency refers to a learner's skill in using the L2. It can be contrasted with the term 'competence'. Whereas, competence refers to the knowledge of the L2 a learner has internalized, proficiency refers to the learner's ability to use this knowledge in different tasks (Ellis, 2008, p. 976).

In this study, the last sentence of Ellis' definition above will be used to define proficiency.

There are a number of viewpoints regarding the nature of language proficiency, which has an impact on a variety of practical issues in education (Harley et al., 1996). According to Omaggio (2001), common synonyms for the term proficiency include words such as expertise, ability, competence and knowledge. The last term, knowledge, is further defined as the way in which the language system is represented in the mind of

the learner (Bialystok & Smith, 1985). Bialystok and another researcher further

distinguish two types of knowledge, linguistic and pragmatic:

Linguistic knowledge   *Output*

$\Longrightarrow$ Control procedures $\Longrightarrow$ Production reception

Pragmatic

    Grammatical

    competence
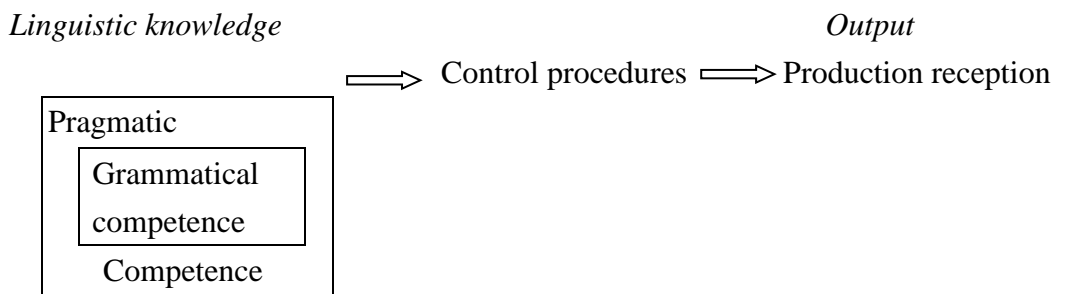
      Competence

Figure 3. The relationship between control procedures and two aspects of linguistic

knowledge (Bialystok & Smith, 1985, p. 106)

    Pragmatic competence means the ability to use knowledge to achieve goals and

control means the processing system to control knowledge during performance

(Bialystok et al., 1985). Robson (1994) also explains that knowledge and control are

linked together, but that each of them functions independently and further develops

through experiences.

    The term competence is also an important concept. Bachman (1990) describes

language competence, which is comprised of two components (a) language knowledge

and (b) strategic competence, or metacognitive strategies. Language knowledge is

specific information regarding language use that is stored in memory. It includes

organizational knowledge and pragmatic knowledge. Organizational knowledge

includes grammatical knowledge and textual knowledge. It means learners have the

knowledge to create and interpret grammatically accurate sentences and to combine

these to create oral and written texts. According to Bachman, pragmatic knowledge

includes functional knowledge and sociolinguistic knowledge. It means learners have

the knowledge to relate words and texts to concepts, communicative goals, and the

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features of the language use setting, such as appropriate usages depending on certain situations.

Strategic competence is comprised of metacognitive strategies and it also provides a means for the individual learners to relate their topical knowledge and language knowledge. It thus means that learners can use such strategies to engage in goal setting, assessment, and planning as well as to take into consideration the individual's affective responses (Bachman, 1990; Bachman & Palmer, 1996).
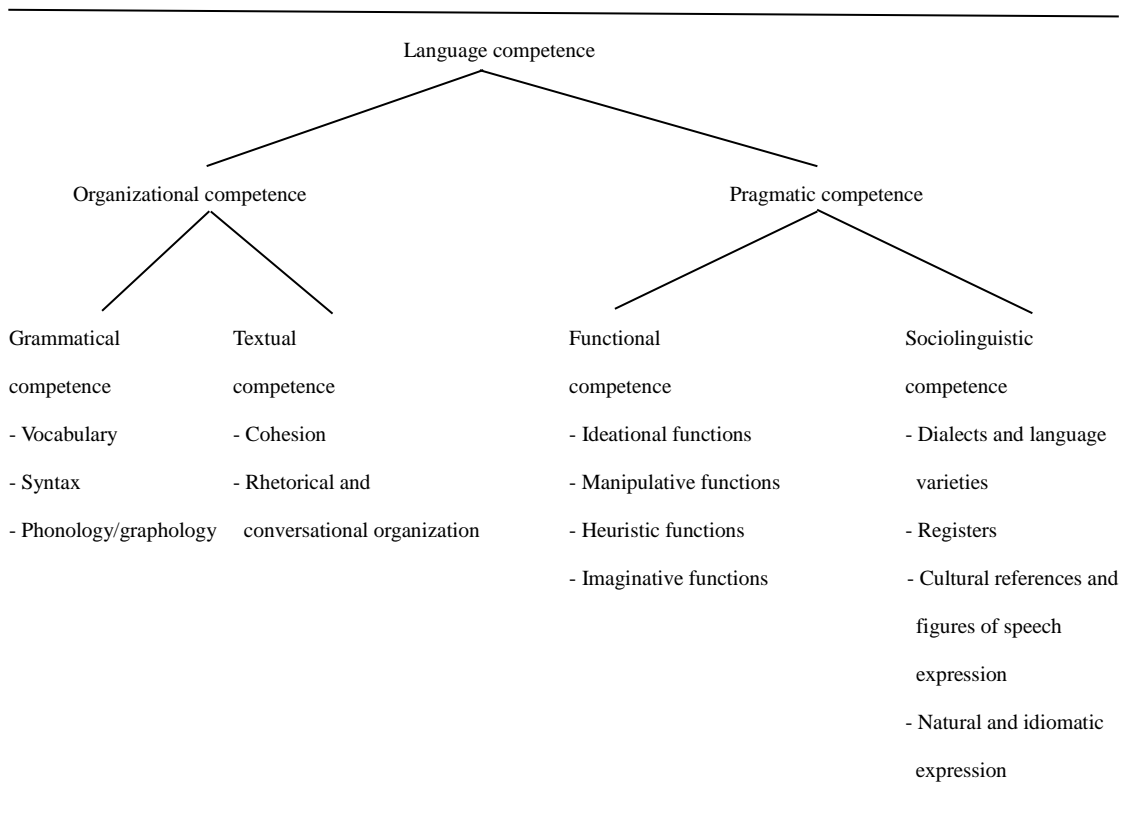
Figure 4. Components of language competence (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 68)

Detailed information for each competence is provided below:

a) Grammatical competence: control of vocabulary, morphology, syntax, and phonemic and graphemic elements

b) Textual competence: cohesion and rhetorical organization

c) Functional competence: control of functional features of language, like the ability to express ideas and emotions (ideational functions) and to get things done (manipulative functions), to use language to teach, learn and solve problems (heuristic functions), and to be creative (imaginative functions)

d) Sociolinguistic competence: sensitivity to dialect and register, naturalness, and understanding of cultural references and figures of speech

(based on Bachman 1990: 87-98)

Thus, we can see that in all of these various approaches to proficiency and it is a multidimensional model. However, in terms of testing such models, there have mainly been failures, both on the part of Bialystok and Bachman. A far easier model to use and test is that provided by Cummins (1981), which will be fully discussed below.

Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency and Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills

Cummins' approach is based on a theoretical framework for relating language proficiency to academic achievement. In this approach, proficiency is divided into two types, basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS) and cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) (Brown, 2007). BICS refers to the communicative capacity and to the ability to use the language appropriately; for instance, in face-to-face conversations with friends. Ellis (2008) states that BICS involves the mastery of context-embedded uses of language in communicative tasks that are relatively undemanding. CALP refers to the ability to use the language academically and cognitively; for instance, in dealing with demanding tasks at school. CALP involves the ability to communicate messages that are precise and explicit in tasks that are context-

reduced and cognitively demanding.

The following figure provides a continuum for language proficiency and moves from the context-embedded to the context-reduced. In context-embedded communication, interlocutors need to negotiate meaning using paralinguistic and situation cues. On the other hand, in context-reduced communication, interlocutors negotiate using linguistic cues. Namely, this continuum moves from daily communication that is context-embedded, to an academic setting that is context-reduced.
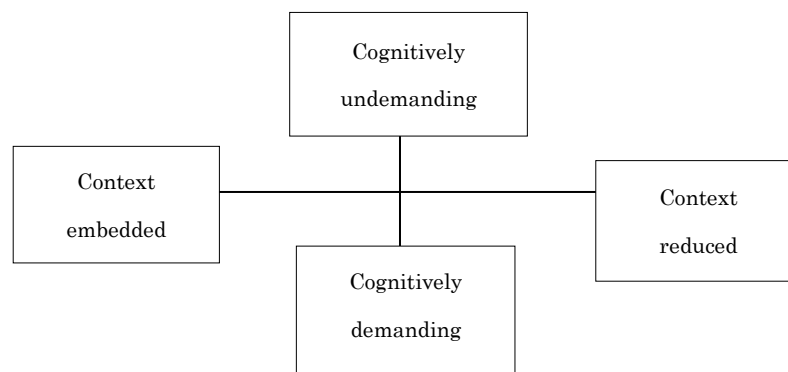
Figure 5. Range of contextual support and degree of cognitive involvement in communicative activities (Cummins & Swain, 1986, p. 153)

Cognitive demanding means the amount of active cognition required by a given task or activity. As sub-skills become acquired, the requirements for active cognitive involvement are reduced (Robson, 1994). The other continuum, cognitively demanding, refers to the tasks and activities in which the linguistic tools may not have become mastered. Thus it requires active cognitive involvement. In other words, cognitively undemanding and context embedded fits into BICS, while cognitively demanding and context reduced fits into CALP. Cummins (1981) conducted studies with immigrant

students and reported that it took them approximately two years after they arrived in a host country to master their interpersonal communicative skills. On the other hand, it took five to seven years for them to master L2 academic skills.

According to Robson (1994), the model is flexible enough to allow its adaptation to various settings. For instance, in the classroom, it is proper to use the L2 in the context-reduced CALP, while in face-to-face communication, it is appropriate to use the L2 in the context-embedded BICS. More specifically, according to Robson, some argumentative discussion may be a good example of a cognitively demanding and context-embedded activity. For the quadrant of cognitively undemanding and context-reduced, pattern practice may be a suitable example.

Although Cummins' model has not been supported with any validated results thus far, it provides a moderately straightforward approach to proficiency (Robson, 1994). Bachman and Palmer (1996) also support a framework that provides a task analysis of language measures that can be undertaken to decide the range of cognitive demand or context reduction/embedding. Different approaches for the four quadrants require acquiring knowledge of the language (Tomimizu, 2013). That is, learning gradually moves from context embedded to context reduced as well as cognitively undemanding to cognitively demanding. In summary, the distinctions of BICS and CALP are important for language learners in terms of their goals for the target language.

Measurements of Proficiency

A proficiency test measures overall ability. It traditionally consists of standardized multiple-choice items on grammar, vocabulary, reading and aural comprehension (Brown, 2002; Brown & Abeywickrama, 2010). Recent tests include writing and oral

production performance. These tests are more likely to be summative, norm-referenced and provide a single score (Brown, 2004).

A key issue in testing proficiency is how the constructs of language competency are specified. The instructions of each exercise need to be clear and legitimate samples need to be given to test-takers (Brown, 2004; Brown et al., 2010). Brown explains that creating these tests is time-consuming, and it is a costly process. As such, it would be wise for language teachers not to create an overall proficiency test on their own. Moreover, there are a great number of validated proficiency tests that are available.

Test of English for International Communication

The TOEIC test (Test of English for International Communication) includes tests of listening and reading. The test consists of 100 items for each section, 200 items in total. It requires about 2 hours to complete. The full score on the test is 990 points:

Table 8

TOEIC Organization

Section I: Listening test	
Part I: Picture description	10 questions
Part II: Questions and responses	30 questions
Part III: Short conversation	30 questions
Part IV: Short talks	30 questions
Listening total	100 questions / about 45 minutes
Section II: Reading test	
Part V: Incomplete sentences	40 questions
Part VI: Incomplete texts	12 questions
Part VII: Reading comprehension	48 questions
Reading total	100 questions / about 1 hour 15 minutes
Grand total	*200 questions / about 2 hours*

Some of the listening questions, such as daily conversations and short talks, may be considered to measure BICS; however, it is difficult to separate out which items require cognitive skills from the items that do not require cognitive skills. Thus, in this study, both the listening and reading scores will be considered CALP-like measurements.

Studies Related to Proficiency

Robson (1994) examined the relationships between personality, anxiety, and proficiency with participations of 47 female university students in Japan. For this study, two measures of language learning proficiency were used. The Test of Spoken English (SPEAK) was administered as a measure of BICS and the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) was administered as a measure of CALP. He found no relationships between personality traits as measured by the YG Personality Inventory and proficiency as measured by TOEFL. All of the relationship found were between various extravert personality traits and voluntary classroom oral participation, amount of oral output, fluency as measured by the SPEAK test.

In another study, Robson and other researchers (2008) investigated the relationships among the effects of a study abroad program either for a short term or long term, proficiency, fluency, and individual differences. For proficiency, TOEIC was used and for individual differences, the YG Personality Inventory was used. Significant negative correlations were found between extravert traits and the TOEIC pre-test with several positive significant correlations between Inferiority Feelings and the TOEIC pre-test. However, between the TOEIC post-test and personality, no significant correlations were found. Similar to Robson's previous study (1994), the majority of significant positive correlations were between extravert measures and the SPEAK Test, amount of oral

output and fluency with the significant negative correlations being between the neurotic measures like Inferiority Feelings and these same proficiency measures.

In terms of proficiency as measured by such paper and pencil tests as the TOEIC, Lin (2012) investigated the relationships between personality traits of college students and the TOEIC as well as the GEPT (General English Proficiency Test). Another focus of this study was the students' satisfaction related to personality, and thus, in order to measure and understand students' satisfaction, their personality traits were examined. The study revealed that the personality traits of Conscientiousness, Extraversion, and Agreeableness was related to their satisfaction, however, the two proficiency tests (i.e., TOEIC and GEPT) had no relationships with their personality traits. Reflecting these findings, Lin suggests that people working at educational organizations need to reexamine the quality of the TOEIC and GEPT.

Measurements of Oral Production

The development of L2 procedural skill is an intriguing topic for researchers. In order to produce the target language, learners need to increase their control over the knowledge they have already acquired so that they can manipulate this knowledge in unplanned and planned language use (Ellis, 2008). Ellis (2001) explains two kinds of planning regarding L2 production; pre-task and within-task planning. According to him, pre-task means that the learners have planning time before their performance, and within-task planning means that learners have planning time during their performance. Pre-task is further divided into two parts; (a) rehearsal and (b) strategic planning. He explains that rehearsal means that learners have an opportunity to perform the task before their performance. On the other hand, strategic planning means that learners have

an opportunity think about what language they are going to use before their

performance, i.e., without rehearsal. Also, Skehan and Foster (1999) distinguish three

aspects of language production, and they are fluency, complexity, and accuracy.

Table 9

Definitions of Fluency, Complexity, and Accuracy

Aspect	Definition
Fluency	The ability to produce language and to focus on meaning
Complexity	The ability to produce language with advanced structures
Accuracy	The ability to produce error-free language

(based on Skehan and Foster, 1999: 96-97)

Numerous studies regarding L2 oral production as measured by both pre-task and

within-task planning show the effectiveness of fluency, however the results of

complexity and accuracy are rather mixed. The reasons are these two measure types

contain various factors such as task designs, implementation variables, and individual

difference factors (Ellis, 2009).

The Speaking Test

In this specific study, L2 oral production was used as a measure of the learners'

BICS style proficiency. Thus, learners' utterances were investigated quantitatively.

According to Ellis' descriptions (2009), this current speaking task was considered as

pre-task planning (i.e., strategic planning). In other words, these particular participants

had time to plan what content and what language they would use before their

performance; however, they did not have a chance to rehearse their performance.

The learners were required to look at a sequence of pictures and tell a story with no

time constraint. Quantity was measured by syllables, words and C-units. Fluency was

measured by using temporal variables such as speech rate, articulation rate, pause length, and mean length of run. Further descriptions of these temporal variables are provided below.

Table 10

Descriptions of Temporal Variables

Temporal variable	Description
Speech rate	The number of syllables uttered per second / This measure includes pause time
Articulation rate	The number of syllables uttered per second / This measure excludes pause time
Pause length	The mean length of pauses above a stated threshold level
Length of run	The mean number of syllables uttered between pauses

(based on Wiese, 1984:22)

Ellis (2001) has stated that more attention needs to be paid to individual learner factors, particularly when measuring students' L2 oral proficiency.

Studies Related to Oral Production

In terms of L2 oral production, Wendel (1998) conducted a study with 40 Japanese female students. The college students were put into two groups: the planning group, which was given 10 minutes of pre-task planning, and the no planning group. The study measured (a) syllables per minute, (b) mean length of pause, (c) average number of T-units, (d) lexical richness (numbers of word families), and (e) percentage of correctly used verbs. These students were asked to do two narrative tasks. Wendel found that students with some planning time increased fluency as measured by (a) and (b). This study did not investigate accuracy rates, but planning time seemed to lead to greater syntactical complexity, but not to greater lexical richness.

In another study looking at the development of fluency, Towell (2002) conducted a four-year, longitudinal study with several British university students of L2 French when

the students participated in a study-abroad program in France and measured their temporal variables. They were video-recorded while they were working on a personal adventure task and a story continuation task on three different occasions. The study found that a single learner increased her speaking rate by 65 percent and decreased her pause/time ratio by 37 percent. She also increased her articulation rate by 20 percent, and the length of runs between pauses by 95 percent. Towell also reported that 11 learners increased in speech rate, mean length of run, and phonation/time ratio, and the amount of pausing time was reduced. From these results, he concluded that the way in which students stored, accessed, and produced speech had changed over time.

Summary

Cummings (1981) hypotheses two types of language proficiency, CALP and BICS. Ellis (2008) summarizes this model writing that CALP is related to cognitively demanding tasks for academic study and BICS is related to face-to-face interaction as well as oral fluency tasks, which allow learners to take into consideration the social appropriateness of their language. Learners need these two types of language proficiency because they interact with each other. Learners need both abilities in order to engage in context-reduced tasks (i.e., CALP) and in context-embedded tasks (i.e., BICS), both of which contribute to learners' successful language learning.

Research Questions

The purposes of this study are to investigate how ID variables mediate L2 learning and what kinds of relationship these IDs have with proficiency. Moreover, although the measures of proficiency do include a paper and pencil test, the amount of oral output

and fluency in terms of temporal variables are emphasized in this study. It specifically aims at university students in Japan attending intact English classes and this study should be considered as a type of action research. The following research questions are proposed:

(1) How is personality related to proficiency, amount of oral output, and fluency?

(2) How is the WTC related to proficiency, amount of oral output, and fluency?

(3) How is motivation related to proficiency, amount of oral output, and fluency?

(4) How is personality related to the WTC?

(5) How is personality related to motivation?

(6) How is the WTC related to motivation?

The alpha level for all statistical decisions was set at $a < .05$.

CHAPTER 3
METHOD

Participants

The participants in this study were 54 university students. All were native speakers
of Japanese who were 19 or 20 years old, attending a university in Japan. They had
completed at least six-years of English education in Japan before entering university.
There were 26 female students and 28 male students. They were enrolled in required
English classes and their English proficiency level was low-intermediate with an
average score of 346 points on the TOEIC.

Procedures

The participants took the TOEIC in 2013 and regarding the questionnaires, the YG
Personality Inventory, the WTC scales and the Language Learning Orientations Scale,
were administered during class time in 2013. The procedures for each questionnaire
took about 15 to 20 minutes. As for the speaking test, the participants were asked to
describe six pictures that tell a story and the test did not have a time restraint. Their
utterances were recorded with an IC recorder that was showing at desk level. The
participants were informed that completing these questionnaires was voluntary, and that
the results would not affect their course grades.

Instruments

Yatabe-Guilford Personality Inventory

This instrument is in Japanese and has been used in Japan for almost 60 years.
Robson (1994) mentions that it has high face validity as well as criterion–related

validity. Also, this measure has a high degree of content and factor analytic validity (Angleitner, 1991). In addition, reliability for this instrument has been consistently high enough that it is considered the most appropriate measure to use with Japanese students (Robson, 1992, 1994).

This inventory has measures for twelve traits: Depression, Cyclic Tendencies, Inferiority Feelings, Nervousness, Lack of Objectivity, Lack of Cooperativeness, Lack of Agreeableness, General Activity, Easy-goingness, Extroverted Thinking, Dominance/Controlling/Ascendance, and Social Extraversion. These traits are divided into two types: the first six being on the Neurotic/Stable continuum and the next six being on the Extravert/Introvert continuum.

Each trait has ten questions and the participants were asked to choose (a) yes, (b) no, or (c) not sure. Yes and no were marked with a circle and uncertain is marked with a triangle on the answer sheet. A yes or no received two points and a not sure received one point for a total of twenty points per trait. Then, the total score on each trait was totaled and were classified into one of five personality types, which are (a) Nervousness, (b) Social Adaptability, (c) Activeness, (d) Extravert, and (e) Controlling.

Willingness to Communicate Scale

The WTC scale is claimed by McCroskey (1992) to be a valid measure, and he also maintains that it has very satisfactory stability, which is critical to the validity of the instrument. McCroskey conducted a study with various colleagues, and they found the estimates of internal reliability of the total score on the instrument to range from .86 to .95 with a modal estimate of .92. Data collected from another cultures also found similar estimates. Moreover, he confirms its reliability and concludes saying that the

WTC scale is of good enough quality to be recommended for research and screening purposes. Thus, as a measure of the WTC, the WTC scale has been shown to be both valid and reliable. For this study, the reliability was re-analyzed and found to have an alpha of .79. This reliability, approximately .80, is not as high as found in previous studies, but is acceptable, and so, this measure will be employed for further statistical procedures. However, the results should be interpreted cautiously.

The WTC scale has 20 items and a probability-estimate scale. Among these, there are eight fillers, which are not scored. Three sub-scales are divided based on the types of receivers (a) strangers, (b) acquaintances, and (c) friends. In addition, there are four sub-scales based on communication contexts: (a) public, (b) meeting, (c) group, and (d) dyad. The participants indicate using a number between 0 and 100, which reflect the percentages of time they would choose to interact with receivers in various contexts, when completely willing to do so.

Language Learning Orientations Scale - Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation, and Amotivation Subscales

This instrument has been shown to be a validated measure through a sample of Anglo-Canadian L2 university students using exploratory factor analysis, and it was shown to have good psychometric properties for use with this learner population. It examines the psychometric properties of motivation through four categories: (a) intrinsic motivation, (b) extrinsic motivation, (c) amotivation, and (d) antecedents and consequences of self-determination.

Twenty items are randomly listed and the participants choose from a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = disagree completely to 7 = agree completely. It was translated

into Japanese by the author and another professor working at a private university in Japan with a PhD in the field of education. It was then checked for reliability, which was found to be .84. This figure is high enough so that additional statistical analysis can be administered using this instrument.

Test of English for International Communication

The TOEIC is a widely accepted measure of academic English language proficiency in Asian countries. Although, Robson et al. (2009) noted that this measure seems less academic and more business English oriented. However, it can be considered to be a measure of CALP as some sections, especially the reading parts, are cognitively demanding and context reduced. Additionally, the TOEIC is considered a reliable and validated measurement of learners' L2 proficiency. The test mainly measures listening, vocabulary, grammar, and reading comprehension.

There are 200 multiple-choice items, and the test requires approximately two hours to complete. The full score on the test is 990 points. Scores are given for each sub-test, listening and reading, as well as an overall score. Along with the TOEFL (the Test of English as a Foreign Language), the TOEIC is a widely considered measure of academic English language proficiency and it is a standard measure, and, as such, this measure will be administered in order to determine the learners' CALP style L2 proficiency.

The Speaking Test

The speaking test can be used as a measure of the learners' BICS style L2 proficiency by analyzing the students' utterances in terms of quantity and fluency. The

students were asked to describe six sequenced-pictures to tell a story. The test did not have a time restraint and their utterances were recorded with an IC recorder that was showing at desk level. Then, the students' utterances were transcribed using the transcription software Transana (2005).

Quantity was measured as the number of syllables, words and C-units. A C-unit is a measure based on each incident of independent predication, and unlike the T-unit, it does not require error-free utterances. Fluency was measured using the temporal variables of (a) speech rate or the mean number of syllables spoken per second, which includes pausing; (b) articulation rate or the mean number of syllables spoken per second not including pausing; (c) pause length or the mean length of any pause longer than two seconds; and (d) mean length of run or the mean number of syllables between pauses of more than two seconds in length. Using the transcription software Transana (2005), the temporal variables of speech rate, articulation rate, pause length, and length of run were calculated. An example transcript from the speaking task is provided below.

Eh, eh, he is school (5 syllables, 24.3 second run, 1.7 pauses). Eh, he is wrong (4, 11.7, 2.7), late, late, late school (7, 6.0, 3.1), he is phone tell, cell phone, have not cell phone (14, 13.9, 3.0). he is call phone (5, 4.7, 1.3), eh, he say please oh, odenwa, eh, dakara, super, janai, convenience store, is eh, eh, eh, don't understand (35, 11.5, 6.1). Oden and Odenwa (8, 9.9, 6.4). he is he, eh, arrive school (7, 6.4, 3.6), eh, student is is, door Oden, eto, phone, de, student eat Oden (16, 9.0, 2.5). Eh, Oden is his bag (7, 7.9).

This transcript has 108 syllables including filled pauses, repetitions or repairs, 71 words, and 9 C-units. The length of the utterance was 81 seconds with 30.4 seconds of total pause time. The speech rate was 1.80, the articulation rate was 3.64, the mean length of

pause was 5.60, and the mean length of run was 3.55.

In addition to quantity, it would also be better to measure the quality of these utterances in terms of accuracy as well. However, considering the students' utterances in this study, investigating T-units or AS units was not worthwhile as they hardly produced any error-free clauses or complicated sentences. From these reasons, this study only investigated amount of oral production and fluency.

Analysis

Using each of the scores, the TOEIC, the calculations of the amount of speech and the calculations of the temporal variables, correlational analysis using Pearson r was run among these measures and the ID measures in order to answer the research questions. The statistical program SPSS was used to analyze the descriptive statistics, correlations, and the principal components factor analyses with varimax rotation and eigen values set at one. Loadings of .3 or greater were considered to be significant. The factor analyses were used to establish a measure of validity of each of the instruments.

In addition, factor analysis was used to see if each measure was composed of the hypothesized factors: (a) two factors, which are neuroticism and extraversion, were proposed for the YG inventory, (b) four factors, which are dyad, group, meeting, and public, were proposed for the WTC scale, and (c) four factors, which are intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, amotivation, and antecedents and consequences of self-determination, were proposed for motivation. If the results of the factor analyses confirms these breakdowns, then that will establish a level of validity for each instrument, which is particularly important for the measures of the WTC and motivation, which have not been validated in a Japanese context. As a result, the use of

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factor analysis for these two measures will provide a strong measure of validation should the theorized breakdowns be confirmed.

Finally, the high and low scorers on the Neurotic/Stable, Introvert/Extravert, WTC and Language Learning Orientation Scales will be profiled in terms of their proficiency in order to provide further information.

CHAPTER 4
RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics for All Variables

In the following sections, the descriptive statistics and the results of the factor

analysis and the correlational analysis will be presented.

Table 11

Descriptive Statistics for YG Personality (*N=54*)

Item	M	SD	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Skewness	Kurtosis
D	12.38	5.83	1	20	19	-.93	-.53
C	10.53	5.07	2	20	18	-.99	.00
I	11.32	5.81	0	20	20	-1.12	-.09
N	11.13	5.63	1	20	19	-1.32	-.04
O	10.49	4.15	0	20	20	.16	-.20
CO	9.15	4.60	0	19	19	-.66	.15
AG	8.17	4.65	1	19	18	-.89	.43
G	8.25	4.47	1	18	17	-.35	.49
R	10.42	4.44	0	20	20	-.29	-.16
T	9.62	4.86	1	20	19	-.55	.26
A	8.49	4.81	0	20	20	-.19	.44
S	9.87	5.61	0	20	20	-.83	.24

Note. D = Depression; C = Cyclic Tendencies; I = Inferiority Feelings; N = Nervousness; O = Lack of Objectivity; CO = Lack of

Cooperativeness; AG = Disagreeableness; G = General Activity; R = Easy-goingness; T = Thinking Extraversion Thinking; A =

Dominance/Controlling/Ascendance; S = Social Extraversion.

First, with regard to the YG Personality Inventory, the means showed that the

students scored high on Depression (D), Cyclic Tendencies (C), Inferiority (I),

Nervousness (N), and Lack of Objectivity (O). Moreover, many of the extravert traits

had rather low scores. With the size of this population, a skew statistic of 1.0 up to 2.0

can be accepted. As such, a few of the distributions were a bit skewed, but not enough

to warrant caution. These findings tell us that, in general, these participants had more neurotic tendencies than extraverted tendencies.

Next, the descriptive statistics for the WTC follows.

Table 12

Descriptive Statistics for the WTC (N = 54)

Item	*M*	*SD*	*Minimum*	*Maximum*	*Range*	*Skewness*	*Kurtosis*
Public, stranger	27.62	25.59	0	100	100	1.14	1.30
Interpersonal, acquaintance	66.55	30.26	0	100	100	-.32	-.66
Meeting, friend	83.18	22.59	0	100	100	2.20	-1.51
Group, stranger	39.09	36.48	0	100	100	-1.12	.59
Interpersonal, friend	78.55	28.56	0	100	100	1.57	-1.49
Meeting, acquaintance	63.18	25.43	0	100	100	.11	-.39
Interpersonal, stranger	38.73	30.51	0	100	100	-.43	.56
Public, friend	52.18	32.76	0	100	100	-1.10	-.06
Group, acquaintance	61.27	32.82	0	100	100	-1.06	-.39
Meeting, stranger	29.73	29.81	0	100	100	.31	1.04
Group, friend	75.82	33.54	0	100	100	.62	-1.37
Public, acquaintance	56.73	32.99	0	100	100	-.93	-.57

Regarding the WTC, the participants were willing to communicate with friends either in meetings or groups. However, they were not as willing to do so with strangers in various contextual situations. Again, some of the distributions were a bit skewed, though only meeting, friend would seem to violate the assumption of a normal distribution.

Table 13

Descriptive Statistics for Motivation (N=54)

Item	M	SD	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Skewness	Kurtosis
Amotivation 1	2.80	1.86	0	8	8	.20	.91
Amotivation 2	2.40	1.40	1	6	5	.03	.85
Amotivation 3	2.36	1.35	1	6	5	.47	.98
External regulation 1	5.45	1.68	1	7	6	.80	-1.23
External regulation 2	4.45	1.62	1	7	6	-.45	-.43
External regulation 3	4.60	1.53	1	7	6	-.28	-.53
Introjected regulation 1	3.33	1.93	1	7	6	-1.14	.27
Introjected regulation 2	3.24	1.85	1	7	6	-.81	.43
Introjected regulation 3	2.18	1.54	1	7	6	.89	1.26
Identified regulation 1	5.24	1.87	1	7	6	-.16	-.94
Identified regulation 2	5.51	1.30	2	7	5	-.18	-.62
Identified regulation 3	5.42	1.67	1	7	6	.23	-1.04
Intrinsic motivation- knowledge 1	4.18	1.79	1	7	6	-.70	-.32
Intrinsic motivation- knowledge 2	4.45	1.66	1	7	6	-.18	-.52
Intrinsic motivation- knowledge 3	4.07	1.63	1	7	6	-.21	-.36
Intrinsic motivation- accomplishment 1	3.27	1.83	1	7	6	-1.27	.12
Intrinsic motivation- accomplishment 2	2.89	1.58	1	7	6	-.90	.27
Intrinsic motivation- accomplishment 3	2.64	1.57	1	7	6	-.30	.67
Intrinsic motivation – stimulation 1	2.95	1.79	1	7	6	-.36	.69
Intrinsic motivation – stimulation 2	2.89	1.95	1	7	6	-.78	.69
Intrinsic motivation – stimulation 3	3.25	1.87	1	7	6	-1.36	.11

Next, with motivation, the means showed that the students had a higher level of External Regulation (In the questionnaire, it says, for instance, in order to get a more prestigious job later on.) and Identified Regulation (e.g., Because I think it is good for my personal development.) In addition, the Intrinsic Motivation scores (e.g., For the satisfied feeling I get in finding out new things.) were also relatively higher. In contrast, participants had low scores on Amotivation (e.g., Honestly, I do not know. I truly have the impression of wasting my time in studying a second language.). Also, Intrinsic

Motivation – Accomplishment (e.g., For the enjoyment I experience when I grasp a difficult construct in the second language.) was relatively low. As with the other measures, a few of the items had slightly skewed distributions, though again, not enough to create problems.

Table 14

Descriptive Statistics for TOEIC (N=54)

Item	*M*	*SD*	*Minimum*	*Maximum*	*Range*	*Skewness*	*Kurtosis*
TOEIC	346.45	26.29	305	400	95	-.49	.48
Listening	205.91	26.96	135	255	120	-.04	-.49
Reading	140.71	23.48	100	200	100	-.63	.04

With the TOEIC, the participants were better at listening compared to reading as the listening scores were much higher than those for reading. The mean for the total TOEIC score was also rather low at 346. The distributions here were not particularly skewed.

Table 15

Descriptive Statistics for Amount of Oral Output and Fluency (N=54)

Item	*M*	*SD*	*Min*	*Max*	*Range*	*Skewness*	*Kurtosis*
Syllables	121.57	33.02	50	192	142	.14	-.33
Words	92.50	24.08	44	139	95	-.00	-.42
C-units	14.60	4.42	6	25	19	.27	-.09
SR	1.57	.43	.81	3.35	2.54	1.51	4.17
AR	1.58	.42	.79	3.30	2.51	1.38	3.85
MLP	2.12	.83	.92	4.83	3.91	1.53	2.39
MLR	.85	.35	.31	2.15	1.84	1.89	4.74

Lastly, regarding oral proficiency, the table showed that the number of syllables and C-units were quite high. In addition, all the temporal measures were rather skewed, though not enough to warrant caution.

Principal Components Factor Analysis for All Variables

In the following sections, the results of the factor analyses for each instrument will be shown. In order to establish the validity of each of the instruments, principal components factor analysis with varimax rotation was used. To begin with, the YG Personality Inventory was analyzed to see if the first six traits could be categorized into Neurotic/Stable, and if the other six traits would factor together into Introvert/Extravert. The results of the factor analysis were based on the eigen values, which were set at 1, with loadings of .3 or greater considered significant. However, given the small sample size, .3 was a very weak loading, making the loadings of .6 and above far more salient.
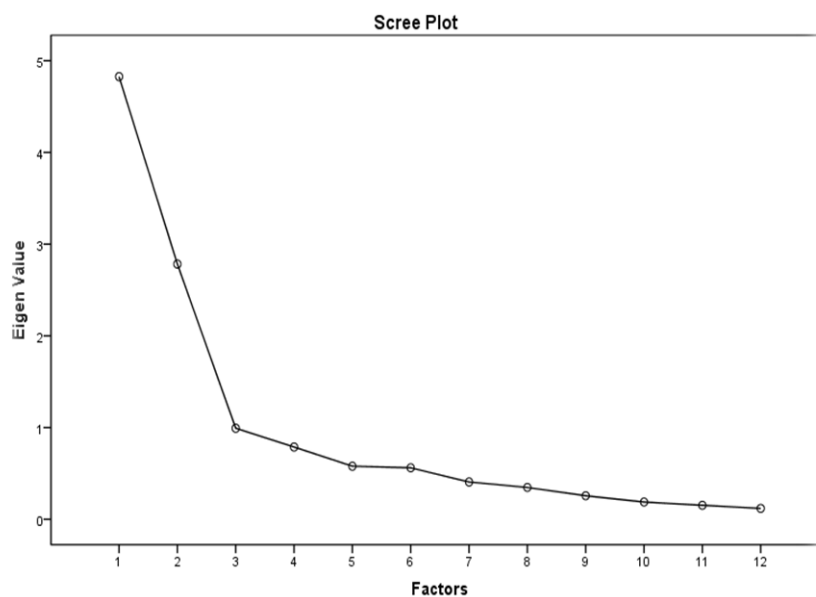
Figure 6
Scree plot of the principal components factor analysis for the YG Personality Inventory

The purpose of the scree plot is to provide a visual format for the factor loadings. Here, the scree plot shows that a two factor solution is best with factors one and two taking up all the variance.

Table 16

Principal Components Factor Analysis for YG Personality Inventory

| Item | Factor loading | | Communality |
	Factor 1	Factor 2	
D	**.82**	-.27	.76
C	**.86**	.11	.76
I	**.73**	**-.32**	.64
N	**.85**	-.13	.74
O	**.84**	.05	.72
CO	**.71**	.02	.51
AG	**.40**	**.70**	.66
G	**-.33**	**.65**	.54
R	**.30**	**.72**	.62
T	-.27	.23	.12
A	-.22	**.83**	.75
S	**-.36**	**.78**	.74
% of variance	38.10	63.41	

Note. Bold indicates high factor loadings. D = Depression; C = Cyclic Tendencies; I = Inferiority Feelings; N = Nervousness; O = Lack of Objectivity; CO = Lack of Cooperativeness; AG = Disagreeableness; G = General Activity; R = Easy-goingness; T = Thinking Extraversion; A = Dominance/Controlling/Ascendance; S = Social Extraversion.

The analysis generally supported the pattern of two YG categories (1) Neurotic/Stable and (2) Introvert/Extravert. According to the results, the first six, Depression (D), Cyclic Tendency (C), Inferiority Feelings (I), Nervousness (N), Lack of Objectivity (O), and Lack of Cooperativeness (CO) had loadings of .7 or better on the first factor. Thus, it would be fine to label the first factor as Neurotic/Stable. The second factor also had loadings on such Extravert items as Disagreeableness (AG), General Activity (G), Rhathymia (R), Ascendance (A), and Social Extraversion (S). Therefore, the second factor can be labeled as Introvert/Extravert. However, it should be noted that the loadings for Thinking Extraversion (T) were very low. In this study, loadings of .3 or

greater were considered significant, and thus loadings of .3 and above are acceptable. In other words, this trait did not load on either factor.
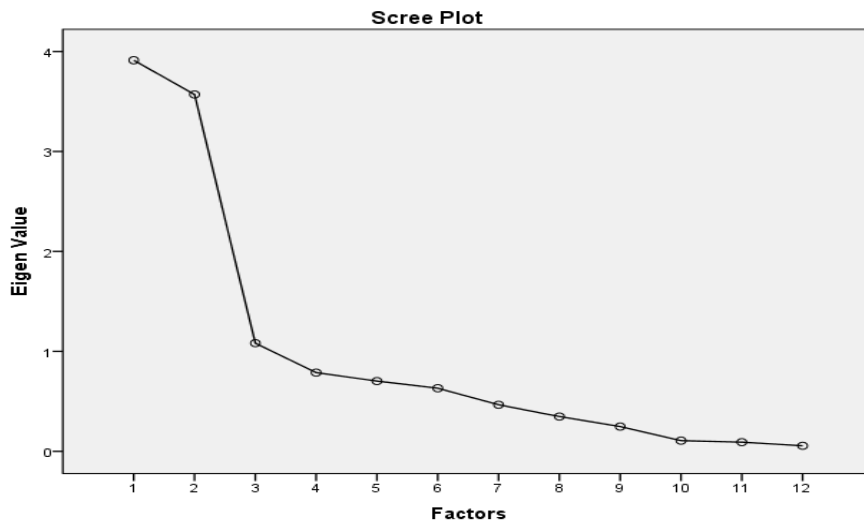
Figure 7. Scree plot of the principal components factor analysis for the WTC scale

Table 17

Principal Components Factor Analysis for the WTC Scale

	Factor loading			
Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Communality
Public, stranger	-.18	**.80**	.10	.69
Interpersonal, acquaintance	**.73**	-.14	.05	.56
Meeting, friend	**.68**	-.01	**.32**	.56
Group, stranger	-.12	**.46**	**.82**	.90
Interpersonal, friend	**.85**	-.17	-.15	.78
Meeting, acquaintance	.16	**.64**	**.42**	.61
Interpersonal, stranger	.17	.14	**.88**	.83
Public, friend	**.71**	**.48**	-.06	.74
Group, acquaintance	**.67**	.11	**.36**	.60
Meeting, stranger	**-.20**	**.82**	.06	.72
Group, friend	**.84**	-.14	-.02	.73
Public, acquaintance	.09	**.76**	**.44**	.77
% of variance	29.76	53.74	71.37	

Note. Bold indicates high factor loadings.

The scree plot here shows that either a two or three factor solution is possible. Given the complicate sat of variables in the WTC measure, a three factor solution seems to be the best. However, the results of the principal components factor analysis only supported some of the theorized features of the WTC questionnaire. The first factor had loadings for those items associated with friend and acquaintance, and it was made up of Interpersonal/Acquaintance, Meeting/Friend, and Group/Friend. Thus, it seems reasonable to label this factor Friend/Acquaintance. The second factor consisted of Meeting, Public, and Stranger. Also, it had two contextual situations (a) talk in public with strangers and (b) talk in a large meeting with strangers. It would, therefore, be safe to label this as talk to group or meeting with strangers. Regarding the last factor, it was composed of group/stranger and interpersonal/stranger. Two items are related to stranger, so it seems reasonable to label this factor stranger.
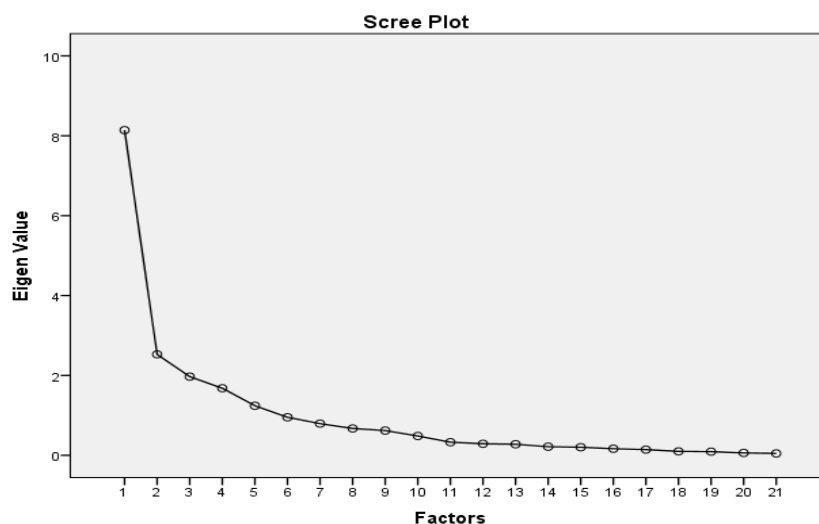
Figure 8. Scree plot of the principal components factor analysis for motivation

The scree plot gives a possible two to five factor solution. Again, due to the nature of the motivation measure, a five factor solution is favored.

Table 18

Principal Components Factor Analysis for Motivation

	Factor loading					
	Factor	Factor	Factor	Factor	Factor	
Item	1	2	3	4	5	Communality
Amotivation 1	**-.**22	**.74**	-.14	.08	.12	.63
Amotivation 2	**-.**14	**.81**	-.14	.03	-.05	.72
Amotivation 3	**-.**16	**.81**	-.09	.02	-.14	.72
External regulation 1	**-.**24	.19	.16	**.68**	-.00	.59
External regulation 2	**.**11	-.04	-.18	**.90**	-.01	.87
External regulation 3	**.**14	.02	.06	**.92**	.02	.88
Introjected regulation 1	**.78**	-.18	-.05	.26	-.01	.73
Introjected regulation 2	**.69**	-.16	.26	-.03	.17	.60
Introjected regulation 3	**.58**	.27	**.43**	.01	-.14	.61
Identified regulation 1	.22	-.05	**.83**	.07	.15	.77
Identified regulation 2	.04	-.28	**.77**	-.04	.21	.73
Identified regulation 3	**.**24	-.47	**.64**	.00	.04	.70
Intrinsic motivation- knowledge 1	**.44**	-.34	.24	-.14	**.46**	.60
Intrinsic motivation- knowledge 2	.22	-.02	.09	-.03	**.90**	.88
Intrinsic motivation- knowledge 3	**.38**	.01	.21	.12	**.78**	.81
Intrinsic motivation-accomplishment 1	**.77**	-.08	.17	-.00	**.34**	.75
Intrinsic motivation- accomplishment 2	**.87**	-.24	.06	.01	.18	.85
Intrinsic motivation- accomplishment 3	**.88**	-.12	.01	.00	.10	.80
Intrinsic motivation – stimulation 1	**.75**	-.11	.23	.06	.14	.66
Intrinsic motivation – stimulation 2	**.77**	-.25	.17	-.12	.17	.74
Intrinsic motivation – stimulation 3	**.82**	-.13	.04	-.08	**.31**	.80
% of variance	27.29	53.25	71.68	85.71	85.71	

Note. Bold indicates high factor loadings.

The result of the factor analysis showed that the motivation questionnaire was divided into five factors. The first factor contained items related to Intrinsic Motivation/Accomplishment and Intrinsic Motivation/Stimulation. Thus, this factor was

labeled Intrinsic Motivation/Accomplishment and Intrinsic Motivation/Stimulation. As for the second factor, all the Amotivation items loaded here, .74, .81, and .81, so this one was labeled Amotivation. Also, the third factor had a similar distinct feature in that all the Identified Regulation items loaded here, .83, .77, and .64, which provided the name for this factor - Identified Regulation. The fourth factor was composed of the External Regulation items, .90 and .92, so it seems reasonable to label this factor External Regulation. Finally, the fifth factor was made up of those items measuring Intrinsic Motivation/Knowledge, which were .90 and .78, so it would be safe to label this as Intrinsic/Knowledge.

Nonetheless, the factor analysis did not fully support the original labels given to the questionnaire items in that both Introjected Regulation and Intrinsic Motivation loaded together instead of separately. However, it is more likely that these results have been adversely affected by the few items per category. In this study, new labels created by the results of factor analysis were used instead of using the original theorized labels.
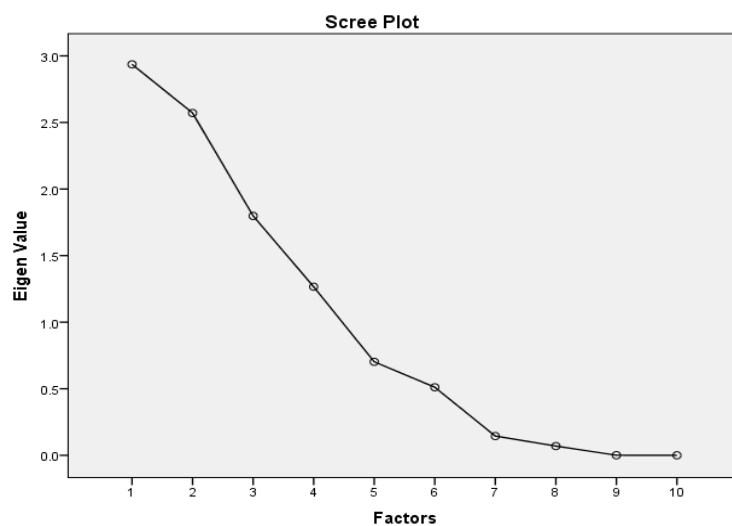
Figure 9. Scree plot of the principal components factor analysis for proficiency

The scree plot shows a very clear four factor solution, and that was accepted.

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Table 19

Principal Components Factor Analysis for Proficiency

Item	Factor loading				Communality
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	
TOEIC	.08	-.28	**.88**	.16	.89
Listening	.17	-.23	**.67**	-.65	.95
Reading	-.10	-.05	.20	**.95**	.92
Syllables	**.90**	-.15	.22	.01	.93
Words	**.97**	.02	-.03	-.07	.92
C-units	**.93**	.07	-.04	-.14	.66
SR	.06	**.95**	.08	.00	.44
AR	.05	**.95**	-.00	.09	.90
MLP	-.06	**.45**	**.69**	.08	.96
MLR	-.13	**.51**	-.20	-.07	.96
% of variance	27.29	53.25	71.68	85.71	

Note. Bold indicates high factor loadings. SR = Speech Rate; AR = Articulation Rate; MLP = Mean Length of Pause; MLR = Mean Length of Run.

The first factor had loadings on syllables, words, and C-units, so it can be labeled oral output. The next factor was made up of loadings on speech rate (SR), articulation rate (AR) and mean length of run (MLR), so it would be appropriate to label this fluency. However, there was also a secondary loading here for mean length of pause (MLP). The primary loading for MLP was factor three. This factor was difficult to label because, in addition to MLP, there was high loadings on the total score of the TOEIC and the listening subtest. Those participants with high TOEIC and listening scores also had high length of pause scores. Or, to put it another way, the participants were just as poor on the TOEIC as they were at fluency. Perhaps the best label for this factor would be lack of proficiency. For the last factor, reading had a high loading here, so it was labeled reading.

Correlations among All Variables

Next, the correlation results among the variables will be shown.

Table 20

Correlations Between TOEIC and Neurotic/Stable

Item	TOEIC	Listening	Reading
D	-.03	-.05	.03
C	-.12	-.21	.12
I	.16	.11	.06
N	.02	-.11	.16
O	.00	-.12	.16
CO	-.17	-.12	-.04

Note. $* = p < .05$. D = Depression; C = Cyclic Tendencies; I = Inferiority Feelings; N = Nervousness; O = Lack of Objectivity; CO = Lack of Cooperativeness.

Although factor analysis would allow us to collapse these primary traits into super-traits, the results did not turn out to be as predicted. Moreover, the main purpose of the factor analysis was to provide validation for the theorized clustering of the primary traits, which was not fully confirmed. Moreover, as Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) have pointed, out, most correlational results have been between the primary personality traits and not the super-traits such as Neurotic/Stable and Introvert/Extravert, and some measure of proficiency. Nonetheless, there were no significant relationships among the correlations between the neurotic traits and the TOEIC test.

Table 21

Correlations Between TOEIC and Introvert/Extravert

Item	TOEIC	Listening	Reading
AG	-.01	-.23	.24
G	.10	.00	.10
R	.08	.06	.02
T	.08	.05	.03
A	-.16	-.30*	.17
S	-.07	-.04	-.03

Note. * = *p* < .05. AG = Disagreeableness; G = General Activity; R = Easy-goingness; T = Thinking Extraversion; A =

Dominance/Controlling/Ascendance; S = Social Extraversion.

As for the results between the extraverted traits and the TOEIC, there was one

negative relationship between Dominance/Controlling/Ascendance and listening (-.30).

Table 22

Correlations Between Oral Proficiency and Neurotic/Stable

Item	D	C	I	N	O	CO
Syllables	-.18	-.10	.01	-.18	-.13	-.03
Words	-.21	-.09	-.06	-.24	-.19	-.06
C-units	-.27*	-.16	-.10	-.31*	-.26	-.16
SR	.11	.15	.00	-.05	.14	.12
AR	.11	.16	-.03	-.03	.14	.16
MLP	-.01	-.09	.02	-.09	.05	-.14
MLR	.03	-.00	.00	-.10	-.06	-.05

Note. * = *p* < .05. D = Depression; C = Cyclic Tendencies; I = Inferiority Feelings; N = Nervousness; O = Lack of Objectivity; CO

= Lack of Cooperativeness.

The correlation table between the Neurotic/Stable traits and oral proficiency

showed the following results. Almost all the relationships with these traits and syllables,

words, as well as C-units were negative. Among these, there were a few significant

relationships, especially between the amount of C-units and neurotic personality. These

traits were Depression (-.27) and Nervousness (-.31), which had weak but significant, negative correlations with C-units. Also, there was a weak negative correlation between Lack of Objectivity (-.26) and C-units; however, it was not strong enough to reach significance.

Table 23

Correlations Between Oral Proficiency and Introverted/Extraverted

Item	AG	G	R	T	A	S
Syllables	-.15	.11	.04	.21	.01	.02
Words	-.19	.13	-.01	.19	-.00	.00
C-units	-.23	.16	-.05	.19	-.04	.01
SR	.09	-.15	.01	.05	.11	-.00
AR	.13	-.20	.01	.05	.15	-.01
MLP	-.20	-.03	-.08	.13	-.01	-.03
MLR	-.10	-.04	-.15	-.06	.14	.05

Note. $* = p < .05$. AG = Disagreeableness; G = General Activity; R = Easy-goingness; T = Thinking Extraversion; A = Dominance/Controlling/Ascendance; S = Social Extraversion.

The results of the correlations between the extravert traits and oral proficiency had no significant relationships. Almost all the correlations, except for MLR, were positive.

Table 24

Correlations Between TOEIC and Talk to Group or Meeting

Item	TOEIC	TOEIC Listening	TOEIC Reading
Public, stranger	-.21	-.04	-.19
Meeting, acquaintance	-.10	-.06	-.03
Meeting, stranger	-.18	-.12	-.07
Public, acquaintance	.04	-.04	.09

Note. $* = p < .05$

Most of the results of the correlations between the WTC as measured by talk to Group/Meeting and proficiency as measure by TOEIC were negative.

Table 25

Correlations Between TOEIC and Friend or Acquaintance

Item	TOEIC	TOEIC Listening	TOEIC Reading
Interpersonal, acquaintance	.12	.16	-.04
Meeting, friend	.06	.09	-.05
Interpersonal, friend	.21	.17	.03
Public, friend	.17	.18	-.02
Group, acquaintance	.11	.07	.04
Group, friend	.21	.16	.05

Note. * = *p* < .05

There were no significant relationships between English proficiency as measured by the TOEIC test and the WTC as measured by Friend and Acquaintance.

Table 26

Correlations Between TOEIC and Stranger

Item	TOEIC	TOEIC Listening	TOEIC Reading
Group, stranger	-.11	.02	-.16
Interpersonal, stranger	-.03	.05	-.01

Note. * = *p* < .05

Most of the results of correlations between the WTC, Stranger, and the TOEIC test were negative; however, no significant relationships were found.

Table 27

Correlations Between Oral Proficiency and Talk to Group or Meeting

Item	Public, stranger	Meeting, acquaintance	Meeting, stranger	Public, acquaintance
Syllables	-.15	-.18	-.11	-.25
Words	-.07	-.02	.01	-.23
C-units	-.09	-.28*	-.03	-.25
SR	-.07	-.12	.09	.06
AR	.00	-.84	.17	.10
MLP	-.18	-.18	-.07	-.15
MLR	.28*	-.12	.36*	.09

Note. * = *p* < .05

Some significant positive relationships between the WTC as measured by talk to Group/Meeting and oral proficiency were found. The WTC was positively related to several measures of fluency. There were positive correlations between the WTC (Public/Stranger) and MLR (.28) as well as the WTC (Meeting/Stranger) and MLR (.36). There was one negative relationship between the WTC (Meeting/Acquaintance) and oral proficiency (C-units) (-.28).

Table 28

Correlations Between Oral Proficiency and Friend or Acquaintance

Item	Interpersonal, acquaintance	Meeting, friends	Interpersonal, friends	Public, friend	Group, acquaintance	Group, friend
Syllables	.20	.18	.34*	-.03	.15	.26
Words	.09	.17	.21	-.13	.05	.14
C-units	.07	.04	.18	-.10	.03	.12
SR	-.23	-.26	-.34*	-.23	-.07	-.23
AR	-.29	-.23	-.31*	-.19	-.08	-.30*
MLP	-.10	-.24	-.02	-.03	-.10	-.15
MLR	-.11	-.06	-.14	.04	.04	-.04

Note. * = *p* < .05

Regarding correlations among oral proficiency and the WTC, there were both negative and positive relationships. There was a significant positive correlation between number of syllables and Interpersonal/Friend (.34). There were also negative correlations between SR and Interpersonal/Friend (-.34), AR and Interpersonal/Friend (-.31), and AR and Group/Friend (-.30).

Table 29

Correlations Between Oral Proficiency and Stranger

Item	Group, stranger	Interpersonal, stranger
Syllables	-.15	-.11
Words	-.05	-.07
C-units	-.11	-.15
SR	.01	-.03
AR	.07	-.00
MLP	-.17	-.14
MLR	.08	.05

Note. $* = p < .05$

Regarding the relationships between the WTC as measured by Stranger and oral proficiency, there were no significant correlations.

Table 30

Correlations Between TOEIC and Introjected Regulation, Intrinsic Accomplishment and Stimulation

Item	TOEIC	TOEIC Listening	TOEIC Reading
Introjected Regulation 1	.05	-.04	.11
Introjected Regulation 2	-.02	-.03	.01
Introjected Regulation 3	-.07	-.02	-.03
Intrinsic accomplishment 1	.08	.01	.08
Intrinsic accomplishment 2	.04	-.04	.10
Intrinsic accomplishment 3	-.00	-.08	.08
Intrinsic Stimulation 1	-.07	-.10	.03
Intrinsic Stimulation 2	.03	-.09	.14
Intrinsic Stimulation 3	.09	-.02	.13

Note. * = *p* < .05

There were both weak and non-significant positive and negative relationships between motivation, Introjected Regulation, Intrinsic/Accomplishment as well as Intrinsic/Stimulation and English proficiency as measured by the TOEIC test.

Table 31

Correlations Between TOEIC and Amotivation

Item	TOEIC	TOEIC Listening	TOEIC Reading
Amotivation 1	-.10	-.18	.09
Amotivation 2	-.12	-.09	-.02
Amotivation 3	-.26	-.10	-.17

Note. * = *p* < .05

There were no significant relationships between Amotivation 1, 2, and 3, and the TOEIC test, which were all negative.

Table 32

Correlations Between TOEIC and External Regulation

Item	TOEIC	TOEIC Listening	TOEIC Reading
External Regulation 1	.16	.11	.05
External Regulation 2	-.00	.03	-.04
External Regulation 3	.08	.12	-.17

*Note. * = p < .05*

This result shows that there were weak and non-significant relationships between motivation as measured by External Regulation 1, 2, and 3 and English proficiency as measured by the TOEIC test.

Table 33

Correlations Between TOEIC and Identified Regulation

Item	TOEIC	TOEIC Listening	TOEIC Reading
Identified Regulation 1	.08	-.07	.19
Identified Regulation 2	.11	.01	.10
Identified Regulation 3	.01	-.01	.02

*Note. * = p < .05*

The correlations between motivation as measured by Identified Regulation 1, 2, and 3 and proficiency as measured by the TOEIC test showed very weak relations.

Table 34

Correlations Between TOEIC and Intrinsic Motivation, Knowledge

Item	TOEIC	TOEIC Listening	TOEIC Reading
Intrinsic Motivation - knowledge 1	-.15	-.09	-.06
Intrinsic Motivation - knowledge 2	.06	-.06	.14
Intrinsic Motivation - knowledge 3	-.05	-.06	.01

*Note. * = p < .05*

The results of the correlations between motivation as measured by Intrinsic

Motivation/Knowledge, 1, 2, and 3, and proficiency as measured by the TOEIC test were very weak and non-significant.

Table 35

Correlations Between Oral Proficiency and External Regulation

Item	External Regulation 1	External Regulation 2	External Regulation 3
Syllables	.03	.03	.15
Words	-.21	-.08	.08
C-units	-.25	-.11	.01
SR	-.01	.01	.05
AR	-.01	-.00	.04
MLP	.23	.08	.12
MLR	.05	-.06	.04

Note. * = $p < .05$

There were no significant relationships between motivation as measured by External Regulation 1, 2, and 3 and oral proficiency.

Table 36

Correlations Between Oral Proficiency and Identified Regulation

Item	Identified Regulation 1	Identified Regulation 2	Identified Regulation 3
Syllables	.03	.12	.03
Words	.02	.01	.14
C-units	.01	.07	.01
SR	.16	.03	.13
AR	.16	.03	.12
MLP	-.07	.09	-.21
MLR	-.01	-.18	.11

Note. * = $p < .05$

The correlations between motivation as measured by Identified Regulation 1, 2, and 3 and oral proficiency showed weak or non-significant relationships, which were mostly

positive.

Table 37

Correlations Between Oral Proficiency and Intrinsic Motivation, Knowledge

Item	Intrinsic Knowledge 1	Intrinsic Knowledge 2	Intrinsic Knowledge 3
Syllables	0.0	-.03	.03
Words	.13	-.05	.09
C-units	.17	-.11	.07
SR	.24	.16	.14
AR	.23	.14	.12
MLP	.11	-.06	-.06
MLR	-.09	-.07	.08

Note. $* = p < .05$

The correlation table between Intrinsic Motivation/Knowledge 1, 2, and 3 and oral proficiency showed no significant relations.

Table 38

Correlations Between Oral Proficiency, Internal Regulation, Intrinsic Motivation, Accomplishment, and Intrinsic Motivation, Stimulation

Item	Internal regulation 1	Internal regulation 2	Internal regulation 3	Intrinsic acc 1	Intrinsic acc 2	Intrinsic acc 3	Intrinsic Sti 1	Intrinsic Sti 2	Intrinsic Sti 3
Syllables	-.00	-.10	.00	.06	-.00	-.00	.00	-.00	-.00
Words	-.00	-.10	.10	.10	-.00	-.00	.00	-.00	-.00
C-units	-.00	-.00	.10	.16	.00	-.00	.00	.20	.00
SR	.01	-.10	.20	.14	.10	.00	.00	.10	.10
AR	.02	-.00	.20	.14	.10	.00	.00	.10	.10
MLP	-.10	-.20	-.00	.03	-.00	-.00	-.00	-.00	-.00
MLR	.04	-.10	.10	-.00	-.00	-.00	.00	-.00	.10

Note. $* = p < .05$

There were no significant results among the correlations between motivation as

measured by Internal Regulation, Intrinsic/Accomplishment and Intrinsic/Stimulation and oral proficiency.

Table 39

Correlations Between Oral Proficiency and Amotivation

Item	Amotivation 1	Amotivation 2	Amotivation 3
Syllables	-.50	.09	-.04
Words	-.04	.16	-.03
C-units	-.15	.07	-.10
SR	.20	.22	.11
AR	.27	.31*	.11
MLP	.13	.23	.09
MLR	.34*	.38*	.13

Note. * = *p* < .05

There were some significant relationships between Amotivation and oral proficiency, which were mostly positive. The significant correlations were between Amotivation 1 and mean length of run (.34), Amotivation 2 and articulation rate (.31), and finally, Amotivation 2 and mean length of run (.38).

Table 40

Correlations Between Friend or Acquaintance and Neurotic/Stable

Item	Interpersonal, acquaintance	Meeting, friends	Interpersonal, friends	Public, friend	Group, acquaintance	Group, friend
D	.09	.32*	.23	-.00	.16	.15
C	.08	.12	.31*	-.04	.25	.22
I	-.01	.21	.09	-.09	.05	-.04
N	.04	.26*	.23	-.09	.08	.02
O	.13	.15	.29	.10	.22	.24
CO	.12	.14	.20	.06	.05	.18

Note. * = *p* < .05. D = Depression; C = Cyclic Tendencies; I = Inferiority Feelings; N = Nervousness; O = Lack of Objectivity; CO = Lack of Cooperativeness.

The correlations between Neurotic/Stable and the WTC showed that most of them were positive. Among these, the relationships between two traits, Depression (.32) as well as Nervousness (.26) and Meeting/Friend were significant. In addition, the participants with Cyclic Tendencies tended to talk interpersonally with Friends (.31).

Table 41

Correlations Between Talk to Group or Meeting and Neurotic/Stable

Item	Public, stranger	Meeting, acquaintance	Meeting, stranger	Public, acquaintance
D	-.29*	.14	-.15	-.08
C	-.37*	-.10	-.27*	-.07
I	-.12	-.10	-.00	-.11
N	-.33*	-.00	-.13	-.12
O	-.28*	-.00	-.11	-.01
CO	-.29*	-.10	-.27*	-.23

Note. * = $p < .05$. D = Depression; C = Cyclic Tendencies; I = Inferiority Feelings; N = Nervousness; O = Lack of Objectivity; CO = Lack of Cooperativeness.

There were significant relationships between the WTC, talk to Group/Meeting, and the neurotic personality traits, which were all negative. There were significant negative correlations between Public/Stranger and the neurotic measures of Depression (-.29), Cyclic Tendencies (-.37), Nervousness (-.33), and Lack of Cooperativeness (-.29). Similar results were also found in the relationships between the neurotic tendencies and Meeting/Strangers. Significant negative correlations were between Meeting/Strangers and Cyclic Tendencies (-.27) and Meeting/Strangers and Lack of Cooperativeness (-.27).

Table 42

Correlations Between Stranger and Neurotic/Stable

Item	Group, stranger	Interpersonal, stranger
D	-.14	-.04
C	-.14	-.03
I	-.07	.05
N	-.07	.08
O	-.19	.02
CO	-.17	.00

Note. $* = p < .05$. D = Depression; C = Cyclic Tendencies; I = Inferiority Feelings; N = Nervousness; O = Lack of Objectivity; CO = Lack of Cooperativeness.

The results of the correlations between the introverted personality traits and the WTC as measured by Interpersonal/Stranger showed no significant relationships.

Table 43

Correlations Between Group or Meeting and Introvert/Extravert

Item	Public, stranger	Meeting, acquaintance	Meeting, stranger	Public, acquaintance
AG	-.24	-.18	-.23	.20
G	.07	-.17	.01	-.01
R	.06	-.24	-.04	.11
T	.06	-.18	-.00	-.04
A	.01	-.10	-.05	.12
S	.08	.10	-.05	.19

Note. $* = p < .05$. AG = Disagreeableness; G = General Activity; R means Easy-goingness; T = Thinking Extraversion; A = Dominance/Controlling/Ascendance; S = Social Extraversion.

Among the relationships between the extraverted personality traits and the WTC, talk to Group/Meeting, there were a mix of positive and negative non-significant correlations.

Table 44

Correlations Between Stranger and Introvert/Extravert

Item	Group, stranger	Interpersonal, stranger
AG	-.05	-.00
G	.14	.02
R	.18	.21
T	.00	-.01
A	.16	.06
S	.13	.03

Note. * = *p* < .05. AG = Disagreeableness; G = General Activity; R = Easy-goingness; T = Thinking Extraversion; A = Dominance/Controlling/Ascendance; S = Social Extraversion.

There were no significant results regarding the relationships between the WTC as measured by Group/Stranger, and Interpersonal/Stranger and the extraverted personality traits.

Table 45

Correlations Between Friend, Acquaintance and Introvert/Extravert

Item	Interpersonal, acquaintance	Meeting, friend	Interpersonal, friend	Public, friend	Group, acquaintance	Group, friend
AG	-.03	-.13	.01	-.17	.15	.09
G	-.04	-.10	-.04	-.02	-.02	.02
R	-.04	-.22	-.14	-.19	.11	-.02
T	-.22	-.02	-.05	-.13	.08	.01
A	-.01	-.16	.03	-.11	.27*	.23
S	.03	.03	-.04	.02	.25	.18

Note. * = *p* < .05. AG = Disagreeableness; G = General Activity; R = Easy-goingness; T = Thinking Extraversion; A = Dominance/Controlling/Ascendance; S = Social Extraversion.

The result of the correlations between the WTC as measured by Friend/ Acquaintance and personality as measured by extraversion were both positive and negative. Among them, there was a significant positive relationship between

Group/Acquaintance and Dominance/Controlling/Ascendance (.27).

Table 46

Correlations Between Amotivation and Neurotic/Stable

Item	Amotivation 1	Amotivation 2	Amotivation 3
D	.08	-.10	-.02
C	-.08	-.22	-.27*
I	.14	-.11	-.11
N	-.03	-.20	-.26
O	.18	-.01	.00
CO	.11	.02	-.00

Note. $* = p < .05$. D = Depression; C = Cyclic Tendencies; I = Inferiority Feelings; N = Nervousness; O = Lack of Objectivity; CO = Lack of Cooperativeness.

The correlations between the Neurotic/Stable traits and Amotivation showed the following results. Some relationships were negative and others are positive. Among them, the only significant correlation was a negative relationship between Amotivation 3 and Inferiority (-.27).

Table 47

Correlations Between External Regulation and Neurotic/Stable

Item	External Regulation 1	External Regulation 2	External Regulation 3
D	.15	.09	.05
C	.12	.12	.03
I	.04	.11	.01
N	.09	.08	.03
O	.36**	.22	.19
CO	.12	.09	.06

Note. $* = p < .05$. D = Depression; C = Cyclic Tendencies; I = Inferiority Feelings; N = Nervousness; O = Lack of Objectivity; CO = Lack of Cooperativeness.

As for the results of the correlations between motivation as measured by External

Regulation 1, 2, and 3, and neurotic personality, all were positive. Among these, there was one significant relationship between Lack of Objectiveness and External Regulation 1 (.36).

Table 48

Correlations Between Identified Regulation and Neurotic/Stable

Item	Identified Regulation 1	Identified Regulation 2	Identified Regulation 3
D	.00	.16	-.04
C	-.03	.22	-.03
I	.02	.07	-.09
N	-.00	.16	-.00
O	-.04	.07	-.13
CO	-.23	-.05	-.12

Note. $* = p < .05$. D = Depression; C = Cyclic Tendencies; I = Inferiority Feelings; N = Nervousness; O = Lack of Objectivity; CO = Lack of Cooperativeness.

The results of the correlations between the neurotic personality traits and Identified Regulation showed no significant relationships.

Table 49

Correlations Between Intrinsic Motivation, Knowledge, and Neurotic/Stable

Item	Intrinsic knowledge 1	Intrinsic knowledge 2	Intrinsic knowledge 3
D	-.05	.03	-.15
C	.03	.21	.01
I	.03	.21	-.02
N	-.05	.14	-.04
O	-.18	.10	-.02
CO	-.09	-.04	-.14

Note. $* = p < .05$. D = Depression; C = Cyclic Tendencies; I = Inferiority Feelings; N = Nervousness; O = Lack of Objectivity; CO = Lack of Cooperativeness.

There were no significant relationships between Intrinsic Motivation/Knowledge, and the neurotic personality traits.

Table 50

Correlations Between Introjected Regulation, Intrinsic Accomplishment and Stimulation, and Neurotic/Stable

Item	Intro. Reg. 1	Intro. Reg. 2	Intro. Reg. 3	Intri. Accomp. 1	Intri. Accomp. 2	Intri. Accomp. 3	Intri Stim. 1	Intri Stim. 2	Intri Stim. 3
D	-.21	-.08	.04	-.02	-.05	-.09	-.21	-.19	-.16
C	-.19	-.01	.04	.09	-.06	-.10	-.12	-.12	-.10
I	-.28*	-.09	-.07	-.06	-.06	-.10	-.07	-.11	-.11
N	-.17	-.06	-.01	.00	.00	-.03	-.04	-.13	-.07
O	-.35*	-.14	.08	-.10	-.23	-.26	-.29*	-.33*	-.26
CO	-.11	-.14	-.07	-.13	-.21	-.23	-.27*	-.18	-.13

Note. * = *p* < .05. D = Depression; C means Cyclic Tendencies; I = Inferiority Feelings; N = Nervousness; O = Lack of Objectivity; CO = Lack of Cooperativeness, Intro. Reg. = Introjected Regulation; Intri. Accomp. = Intrinsic Accomplishment; Intri. Stim. = Intrinsic Stimulation.

Most of the correlations between the neurotic traits and motivation as measured by Introjected Regulation, Intrinsic Accomplishment/Stimulation were negative. Among these, there were several significant negative relationships. The first one was Inferiority Feelings and Introjected Regulation 1 (-.28). The second one was Lack of Objectivity and Introjected Regulation 1 (-.35). Similarly, there were significant correlations between the same trait, Lack of Objectivity, and Intrinsic Motivation/Stimulation 1 (-.29) and between Intrinsic Motivation/Stimulation 2 (-.33). Lastly, there was a negative relationship between Lack of Cooperativeness and Intrinsic Motivation/Stimulation 1 (-.27).

Table 51

Correlations Between Amotivation and Introvert/Extravert

Item	Amotivation 1	Amotivation 2	Amotivation 3
AG	.11	.19	.10
G	.01	.15	.13
R	-.03	.02	.05
T	-.01	.08	-.15
A	.07	.21	-.01
S	-.92	.10	.12

Note. * = *p* < .05. AG = Disagreeableness; G = General Activity; R = Easy-goingness; T = Thinking Extraversion; A = Dominance/Controlling/Ascendance; S = Social Extraversion.

The results of the correlations between the extravert traits and Amotivation had no significant relationships. Most of them were positive.

Table 52

Correlations Between Identified Regulation and Introvert/Extravert

Item	Identified regulation 1	Identified regulation 2	Identified regulation 3
AG	-.08	-.03	-.20
G	.21	.14	.19
R	.14	.19	.07
T	.07	.01	.17
A	.03	.02	.07
S	.10	-.03	.05

Note. * = *p* < .05. AG = Disagreeableness; G = General Activity; R = Easy-goingness; = Thinking Extraversion; A = Dominance/Controlling/Ascendance; S = Social Extraversion.

There were no significant relationships between Identified Regulation 1, 2, and 3 and the extravert personality traits.

Table 53

Correlations Between Intrinsic Motivation, Knowledge and Introvert/Extravert

Item	Intrinsic knowledge 1	Intrinsic knowledge 2	Intrinsic knowledge 3
AG	-.04	.16	.09
G	.15	.06	.24
R	.09	.14	.12
T	.12	.30*	.28*
A	.03	.09	.10
S	.41	-.05	.15

Note. * = *p* < .05. AG = Disagreeableness; G = General Activity; R = Easy-goingness; T = Thinking Extraversion; A = Dominance/Controlling/Ascendance; S = Social Extraversion.

Some significant and positive relationships between motivation and the extraverted traits were found. First, there was a significant correlation between Intrinsic Knowledge 2 and Thinking Extraversion (T) at .30. Secondly, there was a positive correlation between Intrinsic Knowledge 3 and T at .28.

Table 54

Correlations Between External Regulation and Introvert/Extravert

Item	External Regulation 1	External Regulation 2	External Regulation 3
AG	.04	-.11	-.09
G	.07	-.08	.08
R	.02	-.24	-.21
T	-.11	-.16	-.02
A	.03	-.18	-.09
S	.00	-.09	-.00

Note. * = *p* < .05. AG = Disagreeableness; G = General Activity; R = Easy-goingness; T = Thinking Extraversion; A = Dominance/Controlling/Ascendance; S = Social Extraversion.

Among the relationships between motivation as measured by External Regulation 1, 2, and 3, and personality as measured by the extraverted traits, there were no

significant correlations.

Table 55

Correlations Between Introjected Regulation, Intrinsic Motivation, Accomplishment and Stimulation, and Introvert/Extravert

Item	Intro. Reg. 1	Intro. Reg. 2	Intro. Reg. 3	Intri. Accomp. 1	Intri. Accomp. 2	Intri. Accomp. 3	Intri Stim. 1	Intri Stim. 2	Intri Stim. 3
AG	-.10	.01	.18	.15	-.06	.04	-.00	-.06	-.06
G	-.06	.02	.07	.02	-.12	-.16	.16	.07	-.08
R	-.17	.07	.09	.14	-.07	-.07	-.01	.04	.04
T	.15	.22	.13	.15	.04	.09	.19	.06	.11
A	-.10	.05	.03	.09	-.15	-.07	.04	-.10	-.11
S	-.10	.01	.09	.06	-.09	-.07	.14	.06	-.05

Note. * = *p* < .05. AG = Disagreeableness; G = General Activity; R = Easy-goingness; T = Thinking Extraversion; A = Dominance/Controlling/Ascendance; S = Social Extraversion, Intro. Reg. = Introjected Regulation; Intri. Accomp. = Intrinsic Accomplishment; Intri. Stim. = Intrinsic Stimulation.

The results of the correlations between the extravert personality traits and motivation as measured by Introjected Regulation, Intrinsic Accomplishment/Stimulation were weak and non-significant.

Table 56

Correlations Between Talk to Group or Meeting and Intrinsic Knowledge

Item	Intrinsic motivation, knowledge 1	Intrinsic motivation, knowledge 2	Intrinsic motivation, knowledge 3
Public, stranger	-.12	-.04	-.09
Meeting, acquaintance	-.23	-.17	-.30*
Meeting, stranger	.03	.15	.11
Public, acquaintance	-.17	-.01	-.12

Note. * = *p* < .05

Most of the correlations between the WTC and Intrinsic Motivation as measured by Knowledge 1, 2, and 3 were negative, though not significant. However, there was one

significant negative correlation between the WTC, Meeting/Acquaintance and Intrinsic

Motivation 3 (-.30).

Table 57

Correlations Between Talk to Group or Meeting and Identified Regulation

Item	Identified Regulation 1	Identified Regulation 2	Identified Regulation 3
Public, stranger	.04	-.11	.03
Meeting, acquaintance	-.19	-.17	-.12
Meeting, stranger	.10	-.02	.01
Public, acquaintance	.07	-.02	-.04

Note. * = *p* < .05

The results of the correlations between the WTC as measured by talk to

Group/Meeting, and motivation as measured by Introjected Regulations 1, 2, and 3,

were rather weak. There were some positive relationships, however, most of the

findings were negative.

Table 58

Correlations Between Talk to Group or Meeting and External Regulation

Item	External Regulation 1	External Regulation 2	External Regulation 3
Public, stranger	-.08	-.19	-.19
Meeting, acquaintance	.17	.02	-.13
Meeting, stranger	-.01	-.14	-.12
Public, acquaintance	.15	-.12	-.14

Note. * = *p* < .05

There were no significant relationships between motivation as measured by

External Regulations 1, 2, and 3, and the WTC as measured by talk to Group/Meeting.

Table 59

Correlations Between Talk to Group or Meeting and Amotivation

Item	Amotivation 1	Amotivation 2	Amotivation 3
Public, stranger	.13	.07	.02
Meeting, acquaintance	.12	-.08	-.02
Meeting, stranger	.37*	.17	-.02
Public, acquaintance	.24	-.09	-.13

Note. * = *p* < .05

There was one significant relationship between motivation as measured by Amotivation 1 and the WTC as measured by Meeting/Stranger (.37).

Table 60

Correlations Between Friend or Acquaintance and External Regulation

Item	External Regulation 1	External Regulation 2	External Regulation 3
Interpersonal, acquaintance	.32*	.32*	.22
Meeting, friend	.18	.19	.17
Interpersonal, friend	.20	.24	.25
Public, friend	.35*	.28*	.23
Group, acquaintance	.17	-.01	.00
Group, friend	.28*	.24	.26*

Note. * = *p* < .05

There were positive relationship between the Friend/Acquaintance and External Regulation 1, 2, and 3. These were relationships between External Regulation 1 and the WTC measures of Interpersonal/Acquaintance (.32), Public/Friend (.35), and Group/Friend (.28). Similar results were also found in the relationships between External Regulation 2 and the WTC measures of Interpersonal/Acquaintance (.32) and Public/Friend (.28), as well as External Regulation 3 and the WTC measures of Group/Friend (.26).

Table 61

Correlations Between Friend or Acquaintance and Identified Regulation

Item	Identified Regulation 1	Identified Regulation 2	Identified Regulation 3
Interpersonal, acquaintance	-.33*	-.17	-.21
Meeting, friend	-.18	-.05	.03
Interpersonal, friend	-.24	.04	-.11
Public, friend	-.33*	-.26*	-.34*
Group, acquaintance	-.14	.00	-.13
Group, friend	-.17	-.08	-.18

Note. * = *p* < .05

Among the relationship between the WTC and motivation, most of them were negative. There were significant relationships between Identified Regulation 1 and Interpersonal/Acquaintance (-.33) and Public/Friend (-.33). Also, negative relationships between Identified Regulation 2 and Public/Friend (-.26) and Identified Regulation 3 and Public/Friend (-.34) were found.

Table 62

Correlations Between Friend or Acquaintance and Amotivation

Item	Amotivation 1	Amotivation 2	Amotivation 3
Interpersonal, acquaintance	-.24	-.33*	-.14
Meeting, friend	.04	-.16	-.22
Interpersonal, friend	-.18	-.14	-.17
Public, friend	.13	.00	.01
Group, acquaintance	.11	-.11	-.08
Group, friend	-.13	-.23	-.04

Note. * = *p* < .05

There were a mix of positive and negative correlations between the WTC as measured by Friend/Acquaintance and motivation as measured by Amotivation 1, 2, and 3. The results showed that there was a significant negative relationship between

Amotivation 2 and Interpersonal/Acquaintance (-.33).

Table 63

Correlations Between Friend or Acquaintance and External Regulation

Item	External Regulation 1	External Regulation 2	External Regulation 3
Interpersonal, acquaintance	.32*	.32*	.22
Meeting, friend	.18	.19	.17
Interpersonal, friend	.20	.24	.25
Public, friend	.35*	.28*	.23
Group, acquaintance	.17	-.01	.00
Group, friend	.28*	.24	.26*

Note. * = $p < .05$

Most of the correlations between motivation as measured by External Regulations 1, 2, and 3 and the WTC as measured by Friend/Acquaintance were positive. There were significant relationships between External Regulation 1 and Interpersonal/Acquaintance (.32), Public/Friend (.35), and Group/Friend (.28). In addition, two positive relationships between External Regulation 2 and Interpersonal/Acquaintance (.32), and Public/Friend (.28) were found. Lastly, there was one positive correlation between External Regulation 3 and Group/Friend (.26).

Table 64

Correlations Between Friend or Acquaintance and Intrinsic Motivation, Knowledge

Item	Intrinsic Motivation, knowledge 1	Intrinsic Motivation, knowledge 2	Intrinsic Motivation, knowledge 3
Interpersonal, acquaintance	-.17	-.16	-.10
Meeting, friend	-.07	-.13	-.21
Interpersonal, friend	-.09	-.12	-.02
Public, friend	-.31*	-.25	-.18
Group, acquaintance	-.23	-.09	-.19
Group, friend	-.19	-.03	.00

Note. * = $p < .05$

The results of the correlations between the Friend/Acquaintance, and Intrinsic Motivation/Knowledge were mostly negative. One significant relationship found was a negative correlation between Intrinsic Motivation/Knowledge 1 and Public/Friend (-.31).

Table 65

Correlations Between Stranger and Intrinsic Motivation, Accomplishment and Stimulation

Item	Intro. Reg. 1	Intro. Reg. 2	Intro. Reg. 3	Intri. Accomp. 1	Intri. Accomp. 2	Intri. Accomp. 3	Intri Stim. 1	Intri Stim. 2	Intri Stim. 3
Stranger 1	-.10	-.09	-.22	-.21	-.20	-.26	-.13	-.05	-.02
Stranger 2	-.05	-.20	-.20	-.15	-.16	-.22	-.24	-.25	-.05

Note. * = *p* < .05. Intro. Reg. = Introjected Regulation; Intri. Accomp. = Intrinsic Accomplishment; Intri. Stim. = Intrinsic Stimulation.

In terms of the correlations between motivation as measured by Introjected Regulation, Intrinsic/Accomplishment and Intrinsic/Stimulation and the WTC as measured by Stranger, there were no significant relationships. All the correlations were negative.

Table 66

Correlations Between Talk to Group or Meeting and Introjected Regulation, Intrinsic Motivation, Accomplishment and Stimulation

Item	Intro. Reg. 1	Intro. Reg. 2	Intro. Reg. 3	Intri. Accomp. 1	Intri. Accomp. 2	Intri. Accomp. 3	Intri Stim. 1	Intri Stim. 2	Intri Stim. 3
Public, stranger	-.03	.08	-.29*	-.15	-.17	-.21	-.11	-.01	-.03
Meeting, acquaintance	-.14	.00	-.26	-.32*	-.20	-.23	-.29	-.15	-.16
Meeting, stranger	.02	.03	-.27*	.23	-.08	-.12	-.09	-.05	-.06
Public, acquaintance	.00	.06	-.10	-.10	-.09	-.13	-.14	-.06	-.00

Note. * = *p* < .05. Intro. Reg. = Introjected Regulation; Intri. Accomp. = Intrinsic Accomplishment; Intri. Stim. = Intrinsic

Stimulation.

Most of the relationships between motivation as measured by Introjected Regulation, Intrinsic/Accomplishment and Intrinsic/Stimulation and the WTC were negative. There were significant relationships between Introjected Regulation 3 and Public/Stranger (-.29) as well as Meeting/Stranger (-.27). There was also a negative relationship between Intrinsic Motivation/Accomplishment 1 and Meeting/Acquaintance (-.32).

Table 67

Correlations Between Friend or Acquaintance and Introjected Regulation, Intrinsic Motivation, Accomplishment and Stimulation

Item	Interpersonal, acquaintance	Meeting, friends	Interpersonal, friends	Public, friend	Group, acquaintance	Group, friend
Introjected Regulation 1	.03	.08	.00	.06	-.04	.06
Introjected Regulation 2	-.20	-.18	-.10	-.00	.00	-.02
Introjected Regulation 3	-.20	-.06	.07	-.10	.06	.06
Intrinsic accomplishment 1	-.10	.01	.07	-.10	.03	.04
Intrinsic accomplishment 2	.01	-.00	.03	-.10	-.11	-.07
Intrinsic accomplishment 3	-.10	-.06	-.00	-.20	-.18	-.21
Intrinsic Stimulation 1	-.20	-.04	-.00	-.00	-.05	-.14
Intrinsic Stimulation 2	-.20	-.27*	-.20	-.20	-.20	-.25
Intrinsic Stimulation 3	-.10	-.11	-.10	-.10	-.12	-.14

Note. * = $p < .05$

The results of the correlations between motivation as measured by Introjected Regulation, Intrinsic/Accomplishment and Intrinsic/Stimulation and the WTC showed that there were both negative and positive relationships; however, most were not significant. There was one significant negative relation between Intrinsic/Stimulation 2 and Meeting/Friend (-.27).

Table 68

Correlations Between Stranger and Intrinsic Motivation, Knowledge

Item	Group, stranger	Interpersonal, stranger
Intrinsic motivation, knowledge 1	-.17	-.22
Intrinsic motivation, knowledge 2	-.06	-.04
Intrinsic motivation, knowledge 3	-.19	-.15

Note. $* = p < .05$

Among the relationships between the Stranger, and Intrinsic Motivation/Knowledge, 1, 2, and 3, there were all negative and non-significant correlations.

Table 69

Correlations Between Stranger and Identified Regulation

Item	Group, stranger	Interpersonal, stranger
Identified Regulation 1	-.08	-.25
Identified Regulation 2	-.01	-.11
Identified Regulation 3	-.03	-.18

Note. $* = p < .05$

No significant results were found in the relationships between the WTC as measured by Stranger and motivation as measured by Identified Regulation, 1, 2, and 3.

Table 70

Correlations Between Stranger and External Regulation

Item	Group, stranger	Interpersonal, stranger
External Regulation 1	-.07	.19
External Regulation 2	-.28*	-.04
External Regulation 3	-.27*	-.01

*Note. * = p < .05*

Most of the correlations between the WTC and motivation were negative, and there were some significant relationships among them. They were between Group/Stranger and External Regulation 2 (-.28) as well as Group/Stranger and External Regulation 3 (-.27).

Table 71

Correlations Between Stranger and Amotivation

Item	Group, stranger	Interpersonal, stranger
Amotivation 1	.23	.27*
Amotivation 2	.01	-.07
Amotivation 3	.01	-.01

*Note. * = p < .05*

There was one significant positive correlation between the Stranger, and Amotivation, which was Interpersonal/Stranger and Amotivation 1 (.27).

Individual High and Low Scoring Students

In this section, the more detailed student results regarding the relationships between three ID variables and proficiency will be discussed. Specifically, students with the high and low scorer on the (a) Neurotic/Stable, Introvert/Extravert, (b) WTC and (c) Language Learning Orientation scales will be profiled in terms of their proficiency. The names used in results are pseudonyms.

Table 72

Individual High and Low Scoring Student for Personality and Proficiency

Names	Descriptions	Results
Masao	highest score on Neurotic/Stable (i.e., Neurotic)	poor on CALP and BICS
Makiko	lowest score on Neurotic/Stable (i.e., Stable)	poor on CALP and strong on BICS
Yukiko	highest score on Extravert/Introverted (i.e., Extravert)	strong on CALP and BICS
Masuhiro	lowest score on Extravert/Introverted (i.e., Introverted)	mediocre on CALP and poor on BICS

To begin with, regarding the relationships between (a) Neurotic/Stable, Introvert/Extravert and proficiency, Masao, who got a high Neurotic/Stable score, was not good at the paper-pencil test. In terms of his TOEIC score, the reading section was extremely low. In addition to this, he did not produce many utterances. Also, even though his AR was high, he paused for a long time in terms of SR as well as MLP. Next, Makiko, who got a low Neurotic/Stable score, was a poor paper and pencil test-taker compared to the average students whose TOEIC score was M=346 in this study. In contrast, it seems that she had confidence in her speaking skills. The results showed that she produced many utterances especially in terms of words as well as C-units and had very few pauses.

Regarding the relationships between Introvert/Extravert and proficiency, Yukiko who got a high Introvert/Extravert score was good at TOEIC, especially on the reading test. Also, in spite of her C-units count, she produced many utterances in terms of syllables as well as words. However, she paused for a long time in terms of MLP. Finally, Masuhiro, who got a low Introvert/Extravert score, was mediocre on the TOEIC, and was similarly poor in his speaking skills.

The profiles of the high and low personality and proficiency participants differed substantially in terms of their personality traits. In short, with these particular participants, the neurotic were overall poor; the stable were TOEIC poor, but high in C-units; the extravert were overall good on both the TOEIC and syllables and the introvert were overall poor.

Table 73

Individual High and Low Scoring Students for WTC and Proficiency

Names	Descriptions	Results
Keiichi	highest score on Friend/Acquaintance	strong on CALP and BICS
Kunihiko	lowest score on Friend/Acquaintance	poor on CALP and strong on BICS
Masami	highest score on Group/Stranger	strong on CALP and BICS
Tomomi	lowest score on Group/Stranger	strong on CALP and poor on BICS
Shoko	highest score on Stranger	strong on CALP and poor on BICS
Sayoko	lowest score on Stranger	mediocre on CALP and BICS

Next, regarding the relationships between (b) WTC and proficiency, Keiichi, who got a high Friend/Acquaintance score, was good at the paper-pencil test (TOEIC) and the reading section was extremely high at 200 compared to the average score of 140. In addition to his test-taking skills, he produced many utterances, especially in terms of words. It seems that he had confidence in his speaking skills judging from the SR count even though he paused for a long time. Next, Kunihiko, who got a low score on Friend/Acquaintance was poor on the TOEIC, but was relatively strong on oral proficiency. Regarding Group/Stranger, Masami who got a high score of this factor was

relatively good at the TOEIC and oral proficiency, especially for syllables. Tomomi who got a lower Group/Stranger score was good on the TOEIC, but had very few utterances in terms of syllables as well as words. As for the last factor, Stranger, Shoko, who got a higher score, was good at the TOEIC, but did not produce many utterances in terms of syllables. However, her MLR was extremely high. Finally, Sayoko, who scored low on Stranger, was mediocre on both the TOEIC and oral proficiency.

Table 74

Individual High and Low Scoring Students for Motivation and Proficiency

Names	Descriptions	Results
Kazuya	highest score on Intrinsic/Accomplishment	mediocre on CALP and BICS
Takuya	lowest score on Intrinsic/Accomplishment (i.e., unmotivated)	mediocre on CALP and strong on BICS
Kaori	highest score on Amotivation	poor on CALP and BICS
Tomomi	lowest score on Amotivation (i.e., motivated)	mediocre on CALP and BICS
Maki	highest score on Identified Regulation	strong on CALP and BICS
Sanae	lowest score on Identified Regulation (i.e., unmotivated)	strong on CALP and BICS
Kazu	highest score on External Regulation	poor on CALP and BICS
Fuyuhiko	lowest score on External Regulation (i.e., unmotivated)	poor on CALP and strong on BICS
Sanae	highest score on Intrinsic/Knowledge	mediocre on CALP and BICS
Yoriko	lowest score on Intrinsic/Knowledge (i.e., unmotivated)	mediocre on CALP and strong on BICS

As for a final individual analysis, the relationships between (c) Language Learning Orientation and proficiency, first of all, Kazuya who got a high Intrinsic/Accomplishment, Stimulation was mediocre on both the TOEIC and oral

proficiency. It should be noted, however, that his MLR was very high. Takuya, who was low on this factor, produced many utterances. Even though his MLP was long, he was fluent in terms of SR and AR. Regarding the next factor, Amotivation, Kaori, who scored high on this, was not good on the paper-pencil test (TOEIC) and was a poor speaker in terms of oral production, especially with C-units. Moritoshi, who got a low score on Amotivation, was okay on his TOEIC score and oral production, but he was not a fluent speaker. In addition to low scores on SR and AR, he paused for a long time. With the third factor, Identified Regulation, Maki who got a high score of this and was good on the TOEIC. She produced many utterances in terms of syllables, but was not a fluent speaker as she especially had long pauses. Sanae scored low on Identified Regulation, but was good on the paper-pencil test and relatively good at speaking. Even though her MLP was high, she produced many syllables. Next, regarding External Regulation, Kazu, who got a high score on this factor, was poor on both the TOEIC and oral proficiency. Similarly, Fuyuhiko, who scored low on External Regulation, was not good on the TOEIC. However, he was a relatively good speaker in terms of syllables, SR, and AR. Finally, as for the last factor, Intrinsic/Knowledge, Sanae got a high score on this, but was mediocre on both the TOEIC and oral proficiency. Yoriko, who got a low score on Intrinsic/Knowledge, was okay on her TOEIC scores, and was a competent speaker. She produced many utterances in terms of all variables and had few pauses.

CHAPTER 5
DISCUSSION

Personality and Proficiency

The answer to the first research question – How is personality related to proficiency, amount of oral output, and fluency -- is that there were relationships between the measures of proficiency and personality in that an extravert trait, Dominance/Controlling, was negatively related to proficiency as measured by listening. Also, it would appear that all the neurotic traits were negatively related to oral output.

To recapitulate, in the following, the statistical results will be discussed. According to the factor analysis findings of this study, the six Neurotic/Stable traits neatly loaded on the first factor and five of the Introvert/Extravert traits loaded on the second factor. The sixth sub-trait, Thinking Extraversion had very low loadings on both factors, and thus, did not load on any factor. As a result, the theory that the YG Personality Inventory is a measure of Neuroticism and Extraversion was only partially upheld. The YG inventory followed the "big two" concept regarding personality. According to researchers (Ellis, 2001; Brown et al., 2002; Brown, 2008; Dewaele et al., 1999), personality is mainly categorized into two dimensions; Neurotic/Stable and Introvert/Extravert. However, the results of this study only partially supported this pattern of two YG categories.

The correlation tables between the Neurotic/Stable traits as well as the Introvert/Extravert traits and proficiency as measured by TOEIC showed the following results: the correlations between the Neurotic/Stable traits and TOEIC were not significant. On the other hand, as for the results of the correlations between the Introvert/Extravert traits and TOEIC, there was one negative relationship, one

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personality trait named Dominance/Controlling/Ascendance and Listening (-.3). This is difficult to interpret because this trait is about cooperation in social activities and not wanting to be alone. One would expect that such individuals would be good listeners. However, if I just consider this as one measure of extraversion, then it goes along with the idea that extraverts are not particularly good at paper and pencil measures of proficiency. Nonetheless, as this is a lone and unusual correlation, it is more than likely a spurious result.

Next, this study further supported the claim extraverted people produce more utterances where almost all of the correlations, except for MLR, were positive, but not significant. It showed that these participants, in general, tended to produce more utterances if their personalities were extraverted. However, given the rather neurotic tendencies of this group, the lack of significant correlations with the extravert traits was not surprising. For instance, the following results were shown between the Neurotic/Stable and proficiency. Almost all the relationships with syllables, words, and C-units were negative. Among these, there were a few significant relationships, especially between the amount of C-units and the Neurotic/Stable. These traits were Depression (-.27) and Nervousness (-.31), which had weak but significant, negative correlations with C-units. It is understandable that a person who scores highly on depression and nervousness is more likely not to produce many utterances. Also, there was another weak negative correlation between Lack of Objectivity and C-units (-.26); however, it was not strong enough to reach significance. It would appear that all the neurotic traits were negatively correlated to oral output, and these findings were both reasonable and actually expected. It would be safe to say that a depressed and nervous participant were more likely not to produce very long utterances, which is

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understandable. These neurotic traits had negative effects on oral production. Such previous research as Robson (1994) and Midorikawa et al. (2008), show similar findings.

In terms of the high and low scoring students, this study found that neurotic traits had negative effects on oral proficiency. On the other hand, stable traits contributed to better speaking performance. Introverted traits were related to overall proficiency in a negative way, and extraverted ones had positive effects on overall proficiency.

Comparing the quantitative and individual student results, this study found commonalities between neurotic participants and poor oral production. Also, extraverted traits were related to overall proficiency in a positive way. It is more than likely that the neurotic were nervous and careful so they needed more time to speak. They probably constructed their utterances after careful consideration which affected on oral production negatively. On the other hand, the extraverted participants were more likely to be easy-going, so they probably considered the TOEIC as well as the speaking task something that was not so important. This supports the findings of MacIntyre and Charos (1996) saying the extraverted feel less anxious. As the result, not being nervous, the participants could do their best on the speaking task.

The results further supported the notion that personality traits are uniquely related to proficiency in various ways. Needless to say, with correlations I am not able to say that an extraverted personality would result in higher levels of proficiency. Each personality traits has advantages and disadvantages either in terms of paper and pencil proficiency or fluency. The important thing for educators is to be aware of learners' personality differences and to make efforts to modify their teaching practices accordingly.

WTC and Proficiency

As for the second research question, how is the WTC related to proficiency, amount of oral output, and fluency, the participants were more likely to produce more utterances in terms of syllables with those close to them. In addition, the participants were less likely to produce more utterances in terms of C-units in large groups. Finally, regarding fluency, the participants were more fluent with strangers and less fluent with friends.

The results of the factor analysis did not provide support for the categories proposed for the WTC questionnaire. According to MacIntyre (2007), there are three receiver sub-scales: Strangers, Acquaintances, and Friends. Also, based on the types of communication contexts, there are four sub-scales: Public, Meeting, Group, and Dyad. Thus, MacIntyre has claimed that the WTC questionnaire has seven sub-scales. However, the results of this study found here did not support these proposed sub-scales due to the fact that in this study, the factoring of the WTC questionnaire resulted in three factors: Friend/Acquaintance, Talk to Group/Meeting with Strangers, and Strangers. These initial findings for this scale might be the result of the small sample size. Nevertheless, translating the questionnaire into Japanese created a new instrument that requires validation. As a result, it is difficult, based on these results, to validate its proposed organization.

First, the correlations between the WTC as measured by Talk to Group/Meeting and proficiency as measured by the TOEIC were negative, but not significant. In addition, there were no significant relationships between English proficiency as measured by the TOEIC and the WTC as measured by Friend and Acquaintance. Most of the correlations between the WTC, Stranger, and TOEIC were negative; however, no significant

relationships were found. Such results might be caused by the low TOEIC scores. In addition, the concept of the WTC is relatively new. Thus, this current study provides a first attempt to try to understand the relationships between the WTC and proficiency.

Secondly, the correlations among the amount of oral output and the WTC, there were both negative and positive relationships. To begin with, there was a significant positive correlation between the number of syllables and Interpersonal/Friends (.34). This showed that these participants produced more language in terms of syllables with those they claimed to be closest to them. Also, there was, on the other hand, one negative relationship between Meeting/Acquaintance and C-units (-.28). This finding supported the idea that, generally speaking, these participants were unwilling to produce language in terms of amount of C-units in contexts with large numbers of people.

The WTC was positively related to several measures of oral fluency. The positive correlations were between Public/Stranger and MLR (mean length of run) (.28) and between Meeting/Stranger and MLR (.36). Also, there were negative correlations between SR (speech rate) and Interpersonal/Friends (-.34), AR (articulation rate) and Interpersonal/Friends (-.31), and AR and Group/Friends (-.30). These several significant correlations with the temporal variables and contextual settings would seem to indicate that those participants who were not willing to communicate with strangers at meetings or in public were not fluent. Also, those who were willing to converse with those closest to them either in dyads or groups were similarly not fluent.

Therefore, based on the discussion of the results above, there were no significant relationships between the WTC and proficiency as measured by the TOEIC. As previously discussed, a measure such as the WTC questionnaire that is investigating interpersonal relationships and contexts, and a paper test of proficiency such as the

TOEIC is unlikely to have much of a relationship. Although previous studies using the WTC questionnaire have not investigated relationships with proficiency measured in this way, the personality results found in this study can be seen as similar.

On the other hand, there were relationships between the WTC and oral proficiency as measured by the speaking test, which was a far more sensitive measure of second language proficiency. First, a positive relationship was found between the number of syllables and Interpersonal/Friends. In other words, these participants were more likely to produce more utterances, in terms of syllables, with those close to them. Second, as for the negative relationship between Meeting/Acquaintance and C-units, these participants were unwilling to produce language in terms of C-units with a huge crowd. Both findings support McCroskey's (1992) contentions about the influences of the conversational settings. Comfortable contexts can enhance language production. Based on his claims, the results in this study are understandable.

In terms of fluency, there were positive correlation between Public/Stranger and MLR (.28) as well as Meeting/Strangers and MLR (. 36). However, there were also negative correlation between Interpersonal/Friends and SR (-.34), between Interpersonal/Friends and AR (-.31), and lastly, between Group/Friends and AR (-.30). Although these are difficult to interpret, the means for public or meetings with strangers and MLR were similarly low. Thus, these participants were not very fluent overall, but claimed not to be interested in communicating with strangers. However, they were very willing to communicate with friends, but again, lacked fluency.

Regarding the high and low scoring students, this study found that, among the particular six participants examined, I can summarize that the willingness to communicate with friends and acquaintances had positive effects on both CALP and

BICS. Also, the WTC with strangers and in a large group setting had positive effects on both CALP and BICS.

Comparing the quantitative and individual student results, this study found two commonalties. First, the participants were more likely to produce more utterances with friends and acquaintances. Theoretically, it has been claimed that neurotic students feel more comfortable conversing with those they are familiar with as opposed to strangers, which would make them nervous (Yashima, 2002). Second, for these participants, one of the important aspects regarding the relationships between the WTC and proficiency was the influence of the different conversational contexts. Some particular conversational settings saw higher levels of proficiency and other settings did not. For instance, a certain student may be able to produce more and speak more fluently when talking in a large group. Such a student would probably feel more comfortable in a large setting than in an interpersonal setting. Using their L2 is always challenging and involves their personality (Ellis, 2008). These findings further supported the contention that the WTC is dynamic and related to complex processes (Yashima, 2002; Dörnyei, 2010).

Motivation and Proficiency

Regarding the third research question, how is motivation related to proficiency, amount of oral output, and fluency, there were no significant relationships between the various motivational orientations and the TOEIC. On the other hand, there were clear positive and significant relationships between motivation and oral proficiency, especially with fluency. In other words, the participants who had low amotivation (i.e., they were motivated) orientation were not fluent and this study found that motivation

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was related to fluency in a negative way.

The results of the factor analysis in this study did not support the organizational theory of the LLOS-IEA. The results of the factor analysis did not support the original labels given to the questionnaire items. However, this was the first known use of this instrument in a Japanese setting with a Japanese translation, which has required an attempt to provide some measure of validity.

In terms of the relationships between motivation and proficiency, first, as for the relationships between extrinsic motivation and overall proficiency, there were no significant relationships. Next, regarding the relationships between Amotivation and oral proficiency, especially for fluency, there were several positive relationships. The first significant correlation was between Amotivation 1 and MLR (.34). In addition, there were two positive relationships between Amotivation 2 and AR (.31), and Amotivation 2 and MLR (.38). Those participants in this study, who were weakly unmotivated, were not fluent in terms of MLR.

The answer to the third research question in terms of the individual results for the relationships between motivation and proficiency, this study found the following for the particular ten participants examined. First, Intrinsic Motivation/Accomplishment and Stimulation, did not have any effects on BICS or CALP. Amotivation was related to overall proficiency in a negative way. Identified Regulation had positive effects on overall proficiency. External Regulation had negative effects on overall proficiency. Finally, Intrinsic Motivation/Knowledge had positive effects on overall proficiency.

Comparing the quantitative and individual student results, this study found the following commonalities: except for Identified Regulation, the majority of motivational orientations were related to fluency in a negative way. Some results were difficult to

interpret and this reminds us that motivational orientations are indeed dynamic and have diverse aspects (Dörnyei, 2010). Nonetheless, despite some participants being positively motivated, the reality was that they were just not very proficient either in terms of the TOEIC, in the amount of language they could produce or in their level of fluency.

Personality and WTC

With regards to the fourth research question, how is personality related to the WTC, there were important relationships, not only negatively, but also positively, between personality and the WTC. More specifically, the neurotic participants were not interested in the contexts of meeting and strangers, but were interested in talking in interpersonal settings. Also, the extraverted participants were more interested in talking with friends and acquaintances. Generally speaking, extraverted people are more likely to talk and be more fluent than neurotic people (MacIntyre et al., 1998). The results of this current study were thus similar to their claims. More specifically, the neurotic traits were negatively related to the WTC for these participants, especially for the contexts of meetings and strangers. On the other hand, the neurotic participants did claim to talk more in interpersonal settings such as with friends. Finally, the extraverted participants were related to the WTC in a positive way.

Specifically, there were significant correlations between the WTC, Talk to Meeting/Group, and various neurotic personality traits, which were all negative. There were significant negative correlations between Public/Stranger and the neurotic measures of Depression (-.29), Cyclic Tendencies (-.37), Nervousness (-.33), and Lack of Cooperativeness (-.29). In addition, significant negative correlations were found between Meeting/Strangers and Cyclic Tendencies (-.27) and Meeting/Strangers and

Lack of Cooperativeness (-.27). These results indicated that these neurotic participants seemed to hesitate to communicate with strangers, with crowds of people, and in public settings such as meetings.

On the other hand, it seems that these neurotic participants were more willing to communicate with friends in private settings and conversational contexts were crucial factors for them. More specifically, the correlations between Neurotic/Stable and the WTC in particular settings were mostly positive. Among these, the relationships between Meeting/Friends and the two traits, Depression (.32) as well as Nervousness (.26), were significant. In addition, those participants with Cyclic Tendencies tended to talk interpersonally with friends (.31). Thus, the neurotic participants in this study were willing to communicate with friends.

This study also confirmed that the extraverted participants were more willing to communicate with friends and acquaintances than those who were neurotic. There was a significant positive relationship between Group/Acquaintance and a Dominance/ Controlling/Ascendance (.27). Such results are similar to the claims made by MacIntyre and his colleagues (1998). In addition, recalling the descriptions of these traits, Dominance/Controlling/Ascendance, such participants have a tendency to enjoy social contact while talking to others (Robson, 1994).

Personality and Motivation

As for the fifth research question, how is personality related to motivation, there were clear positive relationships between intrinsic motivation and the extraverted traits. On the other hand, the neurotic traits were negatively related to Intrinsic Motivation as well as Introjected Regulation. More specifically, the neurotic participants had low

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levels of motivation and were more likely to be worried, moody, feel envy and lack motivation. These results would seem to support the contention put forth in MacIntyre et al. (1998) that personality traits play an important role in second language learning.

To recapitulate, first, there was a significant negative correlation between Amotivation and Inferiority Feelings (-.27). Thus, those participants who lacked amotivation (i.e., they were motivated) had stronger feelings of inferiority. It should be recalled that the amotivation orientations describe people who are more likely not to value the activity and not feel competent (Noels, 2002). Also, regarding the personality trait of Inferiority Feelings, such people are afflicted with a sense of inferiority and lacking self-confidence (Robson, 1994).

Next, most of the correlations between motivation as measured by Introjected Regulation, Intrinsic Motivation, Accomplishment/Stimulation and the neurotic traits were negative. More specifically, the first one was Introjected Regulation 1 and Inferiority Feelings (-.28). The second one was Introjected Regulation 1 and Lack of Objectivity (-.35). Similarly, there were significant correlations between Intrinsic Motivation/Stimulation 1 and the same trait, Lack of Objectivity (-.29) and between Intrinsic Motivation/Stimulation 2 and Lack of Objectivity (-.33). Lastly, there was a negative relationship between Intrinsic Motivation/Stimulation 1 and Lack of Cooperativeness (-.27). These personality traits are subsumed under the category of neuroticism and such people are more likely to be worried, moody, and feel envy (Dörnyei, 2010; MacIntyre et al., 1998). These specific participants who scored high on these neurotic traits had low levels of motivation. Thus, supporting the contention that highly neurotic participants had difficulties with motivation.

Second, there was a positive significant correlation between Intrinsic Knowledge 2

and Thinking Extraversion (T) at (.30). Additionally, there was a positive correlation between Intrinsic Knowledge 3 and T at (.28). This trait, Thinking Extraversion, was previously defined as an individual who has a tendency for thinking about everything deeply with a propensity for frequently being lost in thought (Robson, 1994). Considering these characteristics, the positive results in this study, which value the moments of satisfaction and enjoyment, seem reasonable.

WTC and Motivation

Regarding the sixth research question, how is the WTC related to motivation ,there were mixed relationships. The unmotivated participants were willing to communicate with friends and acquaintances, and the motivated participants were unwilling to communicate with strangers. This action research, thus, confirmed the important role of learners' social milieu (Noels at el., 2001), and the complex concepts of both the WTC and motivation (McCroskey, 1992; Ellis, 2008).

There was, firstly, a negative correlation between the WTC, Meeting/Acquaintance and Intrinsic Motivation/Knowledge 3 (e.g., Because I enjoy the feeling of acquiring knowledge about the second language community and their way of life.) (-.30). Also, there were significant relationships between Interpersonal/Acquaintance (-.33) and Identified Regulation 1 as well as Public/Friend (-.33) and Identified Regulation 1. There were negative relationships between Public/Friend and Identified Regulation 2 (-.34) and Public/Friend and Identified Regulation 3 (-.26). Another negative significant relationship was found between Public/Friend and Intrinsic Motivation/Knowledge 1 (-.31).

Also, there were significant relationships between Public/Stranger and Introjected

Regulation 3 (-.29) as well as Meeting/Stranger and Introjected Regulation 3 (-.27). There was also a negative relationship between Meeting/Acquaintance and Intrinsic Motivation/Accomplishment 1 (-.32). In addition, there was one negative significant relation between Meeting/Friend and Intrinsic Stimulation 2 (-.27). Based on these negative results above, the participants in this current study, who lacked motivation (i.e., they were unmotivated), seemed to be more interested in communicating with friends as well as acquaintances in various conversational settings such as meetings or in public.

In terms of External Regulation, there were negative correlations between the WTC and the motivation. They were between Group/Stranger and External Regulation 2 (-.28) as well as Group/Stranger and External Regulation 3 (-.27). These participants, who lacked motivation as measured by External Regulation, were interested in communicating with strangers in a group setting. Thus, despite their high levels of WTC, they were not motivated to learn English.

In terms of Amotivation, there was a significant negative relationship between Interpersonal/Acquaintance and Amotivation 2 (-.33). Those participants who lacked Amotivation (i.e., they were motivated) had more interest in having an interpersonal conversation and in communicating with acquaintances. This is similar to Yashima (2002), where she claims that, generally speaking, people with higher motivation are more likely to be willing to communicate.

As for the positive relationships, there were relationships between the WTC measures of Interpersonal/Acquaintance (.32), Public/Friend (.35), and Group/Friend (.28) and External Regulation 1, respectively. Similar results were also found in the relationships between the WTC measures of Interpersonal/Acquaintance (.32) and Public/Friend (.28) and External Regulation 2 and the WTC measures of Group/Friend

and External Regulation 3 (.26). Other significant relationships were found between Interpersonal/Acquaintance and External Regulation 1 (.32), Public/Friend and External Regulation 1 (.35), and Group/Friend (.28) and External Regulation 1. In addition, two relationships between Interpersonal/Acquaintance and External Regulation 2 (.32), and Public/Friend (.28) and External Regulation 2 were found. Next, there was another correlation between Group/Friend and External Regulation 3 (.26). The means of External Regulations were high, and these motivated participants in terms of these orientations 1, 2, and 3, were willing to communicate with friends and acquaintances in various settings including group and public. Similar results were also found in other studies (Dörnyei & Kormos, 2000; Gliksman, 1976; Yashima, 2002), and these researchers found that students with higher motivation were more likely to participate in conversations and willing to communicate.

Finally, in terms of Amotivation 1, there was one significant correlation between the WTC, Interpersonal/Stranger and Amotivation 1 (.27). Also, another positive relationship was found between the WTC as measured by Meeting/Stranger and Amotivation 1 (.37). In terms of the means of Interpersonal/Stranger as well as Meeting/Stranger were very low and so was Amotivation 1. Thus, it would be safe to say that these participants who did not agree with the sentiments expressed in the amotivation items were not interested in communicating with strangers interpersonally or at meetings.

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CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS

Summary of the Findings

In this study, the relationships between multiple variables and proficiency were investigated. In the analysis, six research questions were investigated. This current study revealed that (a) the neurotic participants produced fewer utterances, (b) the participants were more likely to produce more utterances with those close to them, but were not interested in communicating with strangers, (c) the motivated participants were not more likely to be fluent in terms of MLR and AR, (d) the neurotic participants claimed not to be interested in talking in the contexts of meetings and strangers, but claimed to talk more in interpersonal settings and the extraverted participants claimed to be more interested in talking with friends and acquaintances, (e) the participants who scored high on neurotic traits had low levels of motivation in terms of intrinsic motivation and introjected regulation, and (f) the motivated participants claimed to be willing to communicate with friends and acquaintances in various settings and claimed not to be interested in talking with strangers.

Theoretical Implications

This study has several theoretical implications in terms of the relationships between multiple variables and proficiency. First, the data demonstrated that neurotic participants, especially the traits of Depression and Nervousness, produced less utterances. The neurotic personality traits were negatively related to oral production

and is consistent with the literature on personality (Robson, 1994; Midorikawa et al., 2008).

Second, there were relationships between the WTC and oral language proficiency as measured by the speaking test. These participants produced more language in contexts related to those closest to them. However, when the context was large numbers of acquaintances, they did not produce as much. However, not being fluent overall, these participants were not interested in communicating with strangers, but were willing to communicate with friends despite their lack of fluency. This result supported McCroskey's (1992) claims regarding the importance of the conversational settings.

Also, the data demonstrated that there were relationships between personality and the WTC. More specifically, the neurotic participants were not willing to communicate with those they were not familiar with or with others in public settings. In contrast, the participants were more willing to talk with friends in private settings. I can interpret this as the neurotic participants tended to communicate with friends. In terms of the extraverted traits, the extraverted participants were more likely to communicate with friends and acquaintances. Such results are similar to the findings (MacIntyre et al., 1998; Noels et al., 2001) and this study confirmed that conversational settings were indeed important factors in terms of personality.

Next, the data indicated that the participants who scored high on these neurotic traits had low levels of motivation. In other words, the neurotic personality tendencies were negatively related to Intrinsic Motivation and Introjected Regulation. Such results supported the theories put forth by MacIntyre and other researchers (1998), claiming that personality traits play an important role in second language learning motivation.

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Pedagogical Implications

The results suggest the following pedagogical implications. First, it is important for teachers to be aware of students' personality differences and their relations to their L2 proficiency. MacIntyre and others (1998) emphasize that personality plays an important role in second language learning. In this particular study, the extraverted participants seemed not to be good at paper-pencil tests, especially regarding the listening test. On the other hand, according to both quantitative and the individual high and low scoring students, it appeared that neurotic participants were not good at communicative tasks as they were not particularly fluent. Having considerations for students' natural inclinations, it is important to provide variety and alternatives in classroom activities to suit students' different personalities (Brown, 2002; 2007).

For instance, educators may be able to provide communicative tasks for the extraverted students. On the other hand, educators may be able to offer individual paper work or textbook based lessons for the neurotically inclined students instead of having them participate in oral production tasks. Taking advantage of their strengths, neurotic participants in this case, would be able to enhance their language learning abilities through those tasks they feel comfortable with and can be relieved of the pressure to participate in tasks to which they are not suited. Thus, it would be beneficial for educators to acknowledge students' personality traits, learning strengths as well as weaknesses and, then, said educators should modify their classroom activities depending on the individual student.

Second, the results of this study confirm the importance of conversational contexts. Based on the findings in this study, in terms of extraversion, the extraverted participants tended to communicate with friends and acquaintances. The neurotic participants were

willing to communicate interpersonally with friends. The quantitative and individual high and low scoring students had two commonalities; these participants would like to communicate with friends and were sensitive to conversational settings. Thus, for instance, regarding interlocutors, educators should make sure that students can be paired with friends with whom they feel comfortable. Then, when it comes to cooperative group activities, it is perhaps appropriate that each group member is assigned roles as these particular participants would probably neither voluntarily participate in activities nor be active verbally. So being assigned, no one, especially for the neurotic, would be left behind, and all would have an opportunity to complete the tasks with the full benefits.

Next, motivation is also an important factor. This study found that motivated participants had a tendency to talk to friends and acquaintances in various settings including group and public. In contrast, less motivated participants had a tendency not to communicate with strangers. Finally, those participants who got lower scores in amotivation (i.e., they were motivated.) were not interested in talking with strangers. Based on these results, for instance, creating a good rapport and a comfortable atmosphere in classrooms is one of educators' responsibilities. Teachers can be facilitators to guide, monitor, and evaluate students' progress. In a student-centered classroom, students are not afraid of making mistakes and are not afraid of expressing their difficulties. There is no doubt that teachers should provide a comfortable classroom environment for students so that they feel less nervous.

Fourth, teachers need to make sure that students will have ample opportunities to enhance both their CALP and BICS. As Cummins' model (1981) is a continuum, it would be great for L2 learners to use the L2 in both context-reduced (i.e., CALP) and

the context-embedded (i.e., BICS) tasks. In terms of language proficiency, this specific study confirmed the following significant results. First, the extraverted participants produced more utterances. On the other hand, neurotic participants produced fewer utterances. Also, participants who had low levels of amotivation were not fluent in terms of MLR and AR. For instance, pattern practice may be a good task for a context-embedded, BICS. On the other hand, an argumentative discussion may be suitable for a context-reduced, CALP. More specifically, for these particular students, face-to-face conversational activities with friends in a small setting for BICS would be appropriate. Group discussions and debates with students whom they are familiar with could be effective for CALP. Various activities and different approaches are required to enhance this theoretical framework.

The pedagogical applications discussed here are intertwined with the theoretical implications discussed above. I hope the findings of this study provide the insight which how important students' IDs are. Among IDs, the personality, the WTC, and motivation are fundamental aspects and related to each other in the various ways (Ellis, 2002; 2008). L2 users often encounter difficulty managing the target language and become nervous because of their limited knowledge of the L2 (Goffman, 1969). Thus, teachers need to carefully pay attention to students' individual differences in order to provide better learning environments for individual students.

Limitations

In spite of these interesting findings, this study had a number of limitations. The first limitation was the small sample size. Having a bigger sample size might have resulted in a greater number of significant relationships between the multiple variables

and proficiency. The second limitation is in regards to the validation of the instruments. The measure for the WTC had acceptable reliability; however, it is not clear that the Japanese version was rigorously validated. The results of the factor analysis did not support the theorized sub-measures. Moreover, regardless of the high level of reliability (.84), the motivation scale also had validation problems. It was originally validated for Anglo-Canadian students, which means it may not be suitable for a Japanese context. A more careful translation process from English into Japanese may be needed in order to enhance the reliability of the instrument. In addition, similar to the WTC measure, the theorized subcategories were not upheld by the factor analysis. Thirdly, the lower TOEIC scores may also have been an issue along with the poor oral task performances. Results could have been enhanced by having a group of participants with a higher proficiency level. Another potential limitation was that only the amount of oral production and fluency were examined; however, the accuracy of their oral production is another potential area for investigation. Nonetheless, the participants' oral proficiency level was so low that it is unlikely that they could produce an error-free utterance. Finally, as action research, this study is of limited generalizability. As the purpose was to determine participants profiles for a particularly class in order to better match their personalities, the degree of WTC and their types and levels of motivation to classroom activities, this makes it difficult to relate these results to other environments.

Future Studies

This study provided new directions for future research in the field of individual differences. There are three suggestions for future studies. To begin with, as previously discussed, oral proficiency should be examined with regard to complexity as well as accuracy. In order to do so, a certain level of oral proficiency is needed which

allows the data to become analyzable and the results to have significance. As such, it is possible that there will be differences among the participants' abilities to produce an advance level of language due to personality, the WTC, or motivation. Also, it should be possible that specific types of features or errors could be affected by personality, the WTC, or motivation.

Second, the participants' backgrounds, including past study abroad experiences or learning history should be explored. Even though the focus of this action study was on three different variables, personality, the WTC, and motivation, societal as well as contextual variables could have an effect on proficiency or intertwine with each of these variables. For example, it might or might not be likely for returnees to have a high score on the WTC compared to participants who have never been abroad. There is also the possibility that different kinds of specific events/aspects of L2 learning could result in participants changing in terms of the WTC and motivation. Also, the experiences of living abroad could possibly result in participants' reacting to different situations in a more extraverted or introverted way despite their personalities.

Lastly, the WTC and motivation are sensitive and subject to change over time and, thus, longitudinal studies on these variables should be conducted. I need to consider when participants feel more comfortable communicating with people in public and how long motivated participants can maintain their overall proficiency for the long term or only temporarily. Through investigating these questions, researchers would benefit by understanding these complex aspects of individual differences more thoroughly.

Final Conclusion

Despite these limitations, this study demonstrated significant relationships between

multiple variables and proficiency. Although I am not able to generalize, the findings of this study indicated significant relationships among the students' personality traits, the WTC, motivation and proficiency. Having provided important insights, it hopefully encourages other researchers to continue (a) being aware of students' personality differences, (b) providing comfortable rapport in the classroom, (c) motivating students, and finally (d) enhancing students two aspects of proficiency, CALP and BICS. Keeping these mentioned above in mind, teachers will have a better understanding of their students, will explore various tasks, and will modify teaching practices. These efforts will help students actively participate in class and may be one of key issues to contribute to the students' L2 language learning.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
YATABE-GUILFORD PERSONALITY INVENTORY
(ENGLISH VERSION)

Sample questions

		Yes,	Not sure,	No
イ	I am quiet in a crowd (A: Dominance/Controlling/Ascendance).	○	△	×
ロ	I like detailed and complicated tasks (N: Nervousness).	○	△	×
ハ	I am moody (D: Depression).	○	△	×
ニ	I am energetic (G: General Activity).	○	△	×
ホ	I like to take care of people (S: Social Extraversion).	○	△	×
ヘ	I am easy-going (R: Easy-goingness/Rhathymia).	○	△	×
ト	I feel shy being in front of people (Ag: Disagreeableness).	○	△	×
チ	I get things done right away (Co: Lack of Cooperativeness).	○	△	×
リ	I am not interested in gossip/rumor (I: Inferiority Feelings).	○	△	×

APPENDIX B
YATABE-GUILFORD PERSONALITY INVENTORY
(JAPANESE VERSION)

Sample questions

	はい	？	いいえ
イ 人中ではだまっている (A: Dominance/Controlling/Ascendance)	○	△	×
ロ こまかいめんどうな仕事が好きである (N: Nervousness)	○	△	×
ハ いんきである (D: Depression)	○	△	×
ニ 元気である (G: General Activity)	○	△	×
ホ 人の世話が好きである (S: Social Extraversion)	○	△	×
へ いつもほがらかである (R: Easy-goingness/Rhathymia)	○	△	×
ト 人前に出るのが恥ずかしい (Ag: Disagreeableness)	○	△	×
チ 頼まれたことはすぐ行う (Co: Lack of Cooperativeness)	○	△	×
リ 人のうわさはあまり気にしない (I: Inferiority Feelings)	○	△	×

APPENDIX C
WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE SCALE
(ENGLISH VERSION)

DIRECTIONS: Below are twenty situations in which a person might choose to communicate or not to communicate. Presume you have completely free choice. Indicate the percentage of times you would choose to communicate in each type of situations. Indicate in the space at the right what percent of the time you would choose to communicate.

0 = never, 100 = always

1. Talk with a service station attendant.   (   ) %
2. Talk with a physician.   (   ) %
3. Present a talk to a group of strangers.   (   ) %
4. Talk with an acquaintance while standing in line.   (   ) %
5. Talk with a salesperson in a store.   (   ) %
6. Talk in a large meeting of friends.   (   ) %
7. Talk with a police officer.   (   ) %
8. Talk in a small group of strangers.   (   ) %
9. Talk with a friend while standing in line.   (   ) %
10. Talk with a waiter/waitress in a restaurant.   (   ) %
11. Talk in a large meeting of acquaintances.   (   ) %
12. Talk with a stranger while standing in line.   (   ) %
13. Talk with a secretary.   (   ) %
14. Present a talk to a group of friends.   (   ) %
15. Talk in a small group of acquaintances.   (   ) %
16. Talk with a garbage collector.   (   ) %
17. Talk in a large meeting of strangers.   (   ) %
18. Talk with a spouse (or girl/boyfriend).   (   ) %
19. Talk in a small group of friends.   (   ) %
20. Present a talk to a group of acquaintances.   (   ) %

APPENDIX D
WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE SCALE
(JAPANESE VERSION)

　以下は、人が他者とコミュニケーションを取り得る20個の設定です。それぞれに、あなたがその設定の状況下で相手とコミュニケーションを取る意思があるか否かを0～100のパーセンテージで表してください。
（0＝相手とコミュニケーションを取りたくない、100＝相手と必ずコミュニケーションを取る。）

　英語でコミュニケーションを取る意思を測定することが目的であり、みなさんの成績に関係するものではありません。また、このアンケートの提出をもって、結果の研究使用に同意していただいたものとみなせていただきます。ご協力をおねがいいたします。

1.　ガソリンスタンドの店員と会話をする　（　　　　　　　　）％

2.　医者と会話をする　（　　　　　　　　）％

3.　知らない人の前で発表する　（　　　　　　　　）％

4.　列に並んでいる間の知り合いと会話をする　（　　　　　　　　）％

5.　お店の店員と会話をする　（　　　　　　　　）％

6.　友人との集まりの中で会話をする　（　　　　　　　　）％

7.　警察官と会話をする　（　　　　　　　　）％

8.　少人数の知らない人の前で話をする　（　　　　　　　　）％

9.　列に並んでいるときに一人の友人と話をする　（　　　　　　　　）％

10.　飲食店で店員と話しをする　（　　　　　　　　）％

11.　大勢の知り合いのグループ内で会話をする　（　　　　　　　　）％

12.　列に並んでいるときに一人の知らない人と話をする　（　　　　　　　　）％

13.　助手と会話をする　（　　　　　　　　）％

14.　友人のグループの前で発表をする　（　　　　　　　　）％

15.　少人数の知り合いと話をする　（　　　　　　　　）％

16.　ゴミ収集係りの人と話をする　（　　　　　　　　）％

17.　大勢の知らない人の中に交わって話をする　（　　　　　　　　）％

18.　配偶者（彼氏、彼女）と会話をする　（　　　　　　　　）％

19.　少人数の友人たちの中で話しをする　（　　　　　　　　）％

20.　知り合いのグループの前で発表する　（　　　　　　　　）％

APPENDIX E
LANGUAGE LEARNING ORIENTATIONS SCALE
INTRINSIC MOTIVATION, EXTRINSIC MOTIVATION,
AND AMOTIVATION SUBSCALES
(ENGLISH VERSION)

1 = Not at all true of me   2 = Not true of me   3 = Not very true of me
4 = Not sure   5 = Slightly true of me   6 = True of me
7 = Very true of me

1. I cannot come to see why I study a second language, and frankly, I don't give a damn. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. Honestly, I don't know, I truly have the impression of wasting my time in studying a second language. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. I don't know; I can't come to understand what I am doing studying a second language. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. Because I have the impression that it is expected of me. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5. In order to get a more prestigious job later on. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6. In order to have a better salary later on. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7. To show myself that I am a good citizen because I can speak a second language. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8. Because I would feel ashamed if I couldn't speak to my friends from the second language community in their native tongue. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

9. Because I would feel guilty if I didn't know a second language. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

10. Because I choose to be the kind of person who can speak more than one language. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

11. Because I think it is good for my personal development. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

12. Because I choose to be the kind of person who can speak a second language. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
  1 2 3 4 5 6 7

13. For the pleasure that I experience in knowing more about the literature of the second language. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

14. For the satisfied feeling I get in finding out new things. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

15. Because I enjoy the feeling of acquiring knowledge about the second language community and their way of life. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

16. For the pleasure I experience when surpassing myself in my second language studies.

17. For the enjoyment I experience when I grasp a difficult construct in the second language.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

18. For the satisfaction I feel when I am in the process of accomplishing difficult exercises in the second language.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

19. For the "high" I feel when hearing foreign languages spoken.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

20. For the "high" feeling that I experience while speaking in the second language.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

21. For the pleasure I get from hearing the second language spoken by native second language speakers.   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

APPENDIX F
LANGUAGE LEARNING ORIENTATIONS SCALE
INTRINSIC MOTIVATION, EXTRINSIC MOTIVATION,
AND AMOTIVATION SUBSCALES
(JAPANESE VERSION)

あなたが英語を勉強する理由・英語に対する気持ちに最も近いものを1（全く当てはまらない）～7（全くその通り）から選び、○をつけてください。

1	なぜ外国語を学ばなければいけないか理解できない	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2	外国語を学んでいる時間を無駄と感じる	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3	外国語を学んでいること自体、理解できない	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4	学ばなければいけないという印象がある	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5	将来、有名な会社で仕事を得るため	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6	将来、より良い給料を得るため	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7	外国語を話せる立派な市民であると誇りに思いたい	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8	英語圏からの友人と話せないと恥ずかしいと感じる	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9	外国語を知らないと罪の意識を感じる	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10	1ヶ国語以上話せる人になりたい	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
11	人生の向上に役に立つと思う	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
12	外国語を話せる人になりたい	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
13	外国の文学を知ることに喜びを感じる	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
14	新しいことを発見できると満足に感じる	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
15	外国人や外国の文化に関しての知識を得ることに喜びを感じるため	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
16	外国語をマスターしたときの喜びのため	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
17	外国語の難しい単元をマスターしたときの喜びのため	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
18	外国語の難しい単元をマスターしようと努力している過程に満足を感じる	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
19	外国語を聴いているとき、心が躍動する	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
20	外国語を話しているとき、心が躍動する	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
21	ネイティブが話してる言語を聴くと嬉しく感じる	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

APPENDIX G
THE ILLUSTRATIONS OF SPEAKING TEST

Directions:

You will see a series of pictures and be asked to tell the story. First, please study each of the following pictures silently and begin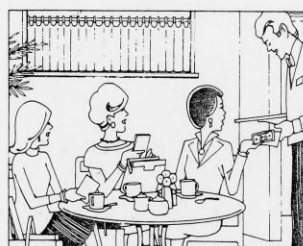 with picture number one and through six.