The Relationship between Speaking Strategies and Willingness to Communicate in English and Hungarian as Foreign Languages

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Study Programme: Double Major MA Study Programme in English Language and Literature - Teaching English as a Foreign Language and Hungarian Language and Literature

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Filozofski fakultet Osijek

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Znanstveno polje: filologija

Znanstvena grana: anglistika

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Ime i prezime studenta, JMBAG

Summary

This master's thesis explored the relationship between speaking strategies and willingness to communicate in English and Hungarian as foreign languages and the differences between the two languages. There were differences present in the use of speaking strategies: students of English use self-evaluating as well as synonyms and circumlocutions often, whereas students of Hungarian opt for the use of L1 (first language - Croatian), they are open to receiving help while speaking, and often adjust or approximate their speech. A stronger willingness to communicate is visible with the students of English. There was also a connection between the use of speaking strategies use and willingness to communicate as well as willingness to communicate and the self-perceived importance of being proficient noticed. Students of English also tend to self initiate speech and conversation in English.

Keywords: speaking strategies, willingness to communicate, English, Hungarian

Sažetak

Rad opisuje istraživanje povezanosti između strategija govorenja i spremnosti na komunikaciju na engleskom i mađarskom kao stranim jezicima te razlike između dvaju jezika. Uočene su razlike u primjeni strategija govorenja: studenti engleskog jezika češće se koriste strategijama samoprocjene i uporabe sinonima ili sličnih izraza, dok se studenti mađarskog koriste prebacivanjem na materinski jezik (hrvatski), otvoreni su za traženje i primanje pomoći pri govorenju te često prilagode ono što žele reći. Jača spremnost na komunikaciju vidljiva je kod studenata engleskog. Također je primijećena i povezanost između uporabe strategija govorenja i spremnosti na komunikaciju te između spremnosti na komunikaciju i samo procijenjene važnosti jezične vještine. Studenti engleskog jezika također češće samostalno govore i razgovaraju na engleskom jeziku.

Ključne riječi: strategije govorenja, spremnost na govorenje, engleski jezik, mađarski jezik

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1. Introduction

Speaking is the "active use of language to express meanings so that other people can make sense of them" (Cameron, 2001: 40). Thornbury (2005: 2) defines speaking as linear: it is produced utterance-by-utterance. Furthermore, he describes speaking as spontaneous, with limited planning time, and as contiguous, i.e., with utterances that run on without pause despite any interruptions and utterances that depend on one another. When it comes to the types of spoken language, Brown (2000: 251) distinguishes two major groups – **monologues** and **dialogues** – which branch into other categories, as can be seen in Figure 1 below.

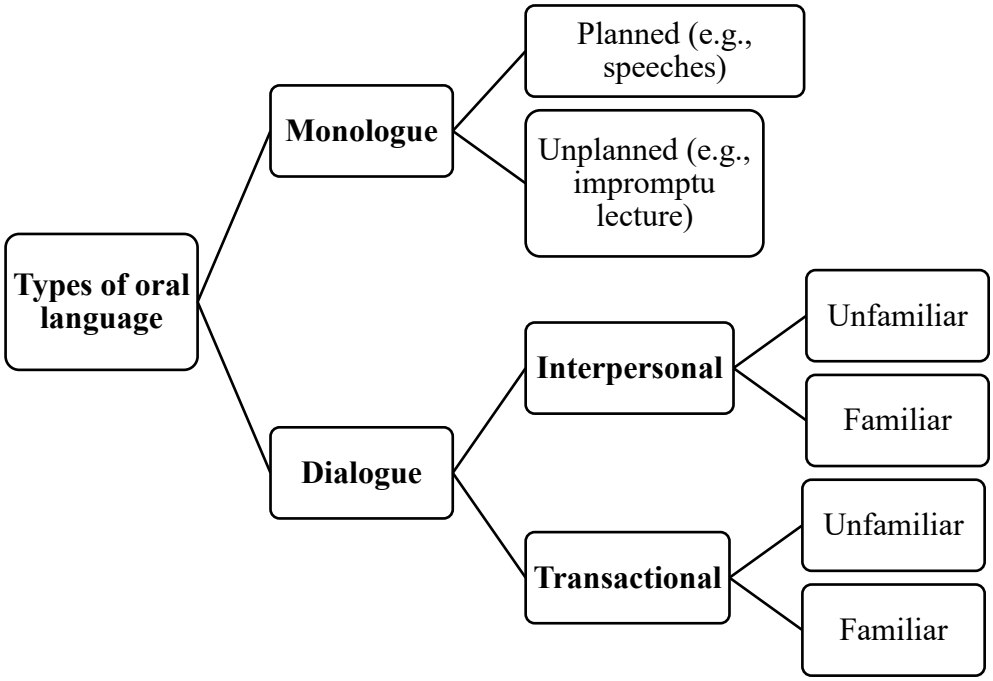

Figure 1. Types of spoken language (Brown, 2000: 251).

Monologues are instances when one speaker speaks, such as lectures, speeches, etc, and they can be **planned** or **unplanned**. In a **dialogue,** there are two or more speakers, and they are divided into **interpersonal and transactional** which can be **unfamiliar** and **familiar**. **Interpersonal** dialogues promote social relationship, and **transactional** have the conveying of propositional or factual information as their main goal. The subtypes of **dialogue** can be either **unfamiliar** or **familiar** which deals primarily with the familiarity of the interlocutors, or the persons participating in the conversation. Familiarity plays a big role in a conversation, namely, if the participants are **familiar** with each other, it is highly likely that they will produce a conversation with more meanings hidden

between the lines. However, if the participants are **unfamiliar** with each other, certain meanings need to be more explicit to achieve comprehension (Brown, 2000: 251). Richards (2015: 408-425) defines five genres of spoken interaction – **small talk**, casual **conversation**, **transaction**, **discussion**, and **presentation**. The definitions of each of the types of spoken interaction can be seen below, in Figure 2.

Small talk

- Communication that has the main goal of social interaction.

Conversation

- A more meaningful type of interaction that results from small talk.

Transaction

- Communication that focuses on a specific goal, such as an order or suggestion.

Discussion

- A specific conversation about a more serious topic with the goal of exchanging ideas and presenting opinions for an extended period of time.

Presentation

- Public talk which is carried out in front of an audience.

Figure 2. Genres of spoken interaction (Richards, 2015: 408-425).

For a language learner, each of the types of spoken interaction comes with some possible issues. **Small talk**, for example, can sometimes be awkward when a learner is not skilled enough, or when they are not pleased with the interaction they were part of. The latter is concerned with the learners' self-reflection, namely, their fear of not making a good enough impression. These issues result in the learners' avoidance of this type of interaction. Potential issues with **conversations** deal with the learner's underdeveloped topic fluency and ability to manage the interaction. If the learner is not skilled enough in managing the conversation and dealing with various topics, they tend to stick to familiar ones and are not willing to take risks. An issue with **transactions** may be a result of fluency being developed at the expense of accuracy. As for **discussions,** the problems may emanate from an underdeveloped interactional dimension, defined as ways according to which speakers notice and act upon their partner's discourse, which leads to less successful discussions. Finally, possible issues with **presentations** may be that the speaker has underdeveloped presentation skills, such as using

the appropriate register when speaking, presenting accurately, maintaining the interest of the audience, etc. (Richards, 2015: 408-425). To the list of issues with spoken interactions Brown (2000: 252-254; 270-271) added **clustering, redundancy,** the use of **reduced forms, performance variables, colloquial language, rate of delivery, stress, rhythm, intonation,** and **interaction**. **Clustering** can be thought of as a characteristic of a skilled speaker of a second or foreign language because it requires fluent and organised speech. It can therefore be assumed that if a learner is not skilled enough in the language, they might not be able to cluster and organise their speech for it to have a better flow. **Redundancy** is characterised by rephrasing, repetition, or elaboration in speech. Issues can come about if a speaker is not skilled enough which then results in them becoming confused. Some problems can occur with the use of **reduced forms** which allows for a better flow of speech, but they tend to manifest themselves as difficulties for learners, especially if their language skills are not up to a certain level where they can easily understand or use these forms. **Performance variables** such as hesitations, false starts, corrections, or pauses in speech are quite common, but they also bring about some issues in understanding. **Colloquial language** presents a problem for learners who have only been exposed to standard English which results in them having difficulty in using certain phrases and words. Prosodic features of the English language, or **stress, rhythm, and intonation,** are also very important for comprehension, especially in some languages, such as English, which is, as Brown (2000) explains, a stress-timed language. These features are important not just for emphasis, but for differentiating between sentence types such as questions and statements and understanding subtle nuances, for example, solicitation, praise, or sarcasm. One of the most important parts of **interaction** is negotiation of meaning, i.e., giving feedback, asking for clarification, and maintaining a topic. Brown (2000) argues that a good speaker can negotiate meaning during an interaction and that good listeners are also good responders; learning to listen is also learning to speak in the sense that when a learner knows how to listen effectively, they respond and interact effectively. All the issues mentioned can be dealt with using speaking strategies which are a subset of language learning strategies. Language learning strategies, defined by Oxford as "steps taken by students to enhance their learning" (1990: 1) are used as a helpful tool during learning, but also to enhance and better the learning process. Language learning strategies have been defined in different ways, but a consensus has not yet been reached. According to Macaro (2001), some researchers take the psycholinguistic route when defining language learning strategies by taking into consideration the link between the function of the brain and the language as well as the

pedagogical domain (2001: 18). Speaking strategies will be discussed in Chapter 2. One of the best-known and widely applied classifications of language learning strategies is the one proposed by Oxford (1990). It classifies language learning strategies into two major groups, direct and indirect. Direct language learning strategies are the ones learners apply to learn and retrieve the language, and to use the language despite any gaps in knowledge that they might have. The indirect strategies are used for the general management of learning (Oxford, 1990: 15).

Another important factor that has an impact on learners' speaking is willingness to communicate. According to Mihaljević Djigunović and Letica (2009), willingness to communicate is one of the main individual characteristics of a foreign language learner. It can be defined as the probability of initiating communication when the opportunity for the same arises; in general, it refers to the readiness of a person to initiate communication. Dörnyei (2005: 207) states that willingness to communicate is the factor between "having the competence to communicate and putting this competence into practice" (2005: 207). The concept of willingness to communicate will be dealt with in more detail in Chapter 3. This master's thesis investigates the speaking strategies used by Croatian students of English and Hungarian as foreign languages, as well as their willingness to communicate. It explores the possible differences between the use of speaking strategies, the level of willingness to communicate, and their relationship in the two languages.

2. Speaking strategies

Speaking strategies are specific actions taken by learners with the purpose of completing a speaking task (Larenas, 2011). Since speaking strategies belong to language learning strategies in general, it is necessary to first define and describe language learning strategies.

2.1 Language learning strategies: definition and classification

There has not yet been a consensus as to the definition of language learning strategies. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) claim that language learning strategies can influence the simplest facets of language learning, such as vocabulary learning, but also the complex ones, such as language comprehension or production. They define them as "the special thoughts or behaviours that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information" (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990: 1). In his extensive analysis, Dörnyei compared many language learning strategy definitions and concluded "that learning strategies constitute a useful tool kit for active and conscious learning" (Dörnyei, 2005: 195). Cohen (2014) defines language learning strategies as "thoughts and actions, consciously chosen and operationalized by language learners, to assist them in carrying out a multiplicity of tasks from the very onset of learning to the most advanced levels of target-language performance" (2014: 7). What connects these views is that they all see language learning strategies as tools that are used to improve an individual's knowledge and facilitate learning. When observing earlier definitions of language learning strategies, it can be concluded that they focused on the outcome of their use, but recent definitions focus more on their processes and characteristics (Pavičić Takač, 2008: 50). Even though there are many definitions, what has always remained the same is that language learning strategies have been characterised as helpful for developing communicative competence and improving skills in a second or foreign language in different sociocultural contexts. One of the earliest classifications of language learning strategies was created by Rubin (1981). In this classification, strategies are divided into two major groups with both groups containing subgroups (see Table 1).

Table 1. Rubin's (1981: 124-126) classification of language learning strategies.

Strategy group	Strategy subgroup
Direct strategies	1 clarification/verification 2 monitoring 3 memorisation 4 guessing/inductive inferencing 5 deductive reasoning 6 practice
Indirect strategies	1 creating opportunities for practice 2 production tricks

Oxford's (1990) classification of language learning strategies may be understood as an updated version of Rubin's. She also divided language learning strategies into two major groups – direct and indirect. To further explain these two groups, Oxford used a metaphor of a play. She likened the direct strategies to the performer in a play, and the indirect ones to the director (1990: 14-15). Direct strategies branch out into memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies, whereas indirect strategies consist of social, affective, and metacognitive strategies (see Figure 3 below).

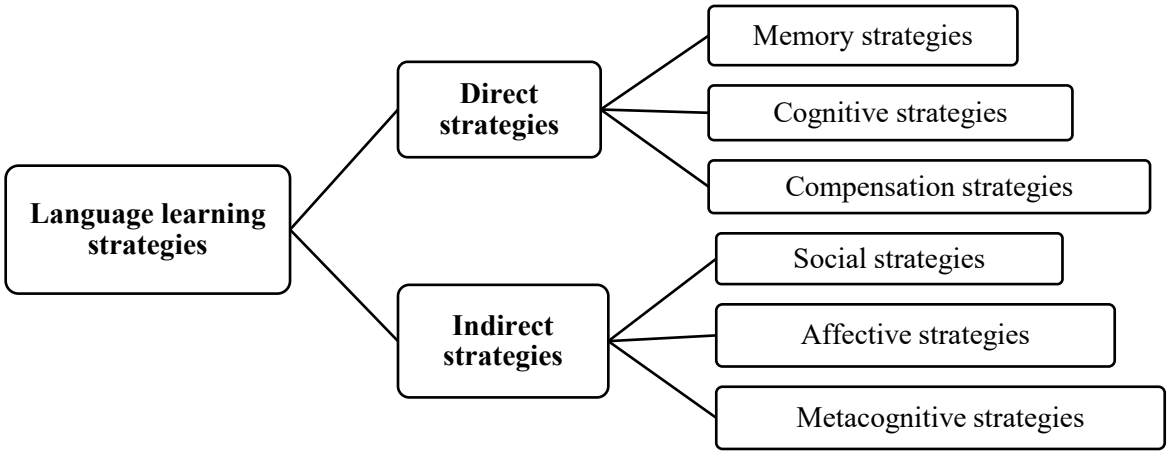

Figure 3. Classification of language learning strategies (Oxford 1990: 15).

Each of the categories of strategies was matched with activities one might do to facilitate their learning process (see Figure 4). For example, creating mental linkages is considered a memory strategy, practicing is a cognitive strategy, and guessing intelligently is a compensation strategy. When it comes to indirect strategies, centring one's learning is a metacognitive strategy, lowering anxiety is an affective strategy, and cooperating with others is a social strategy.

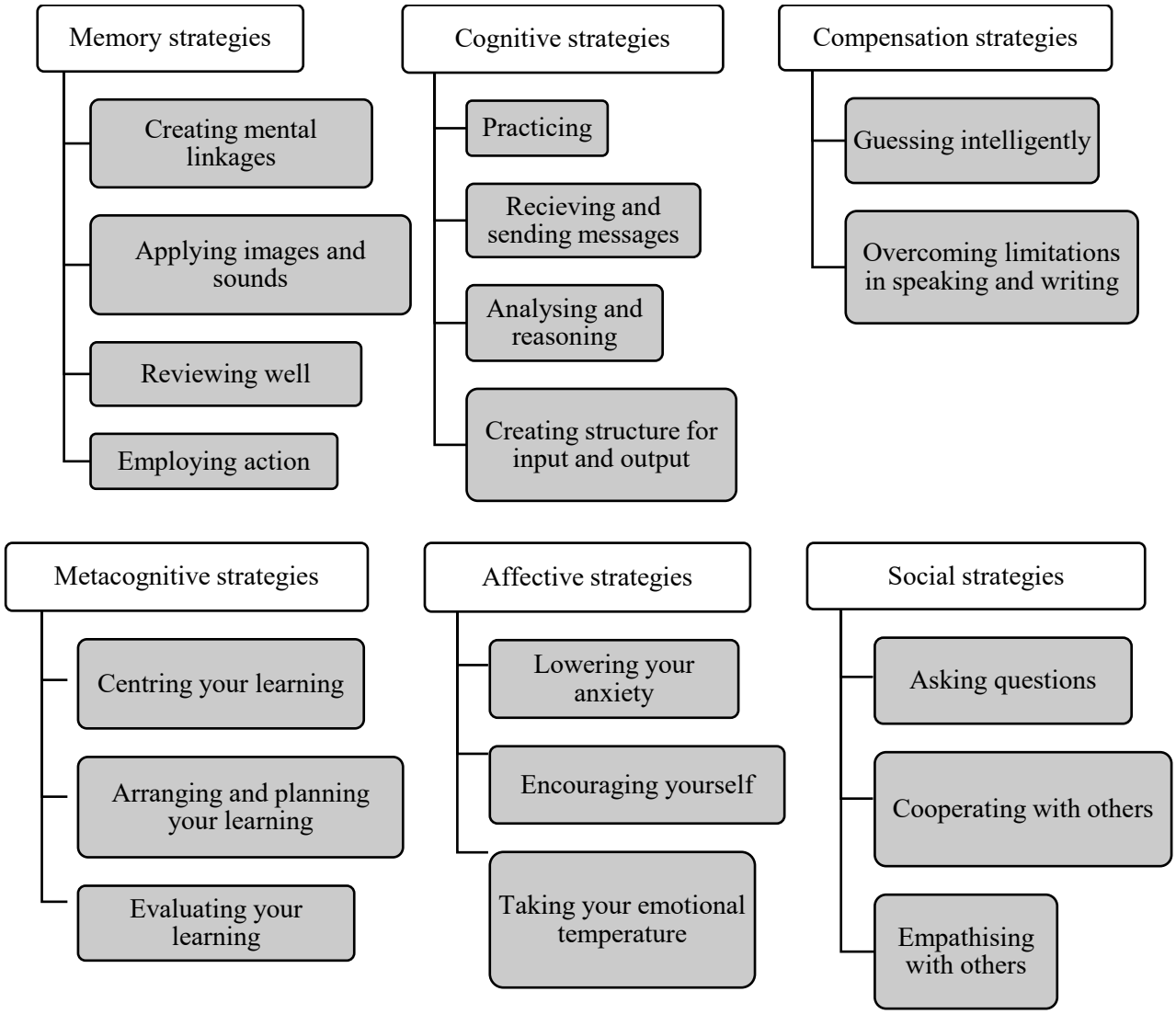

Figure 4. Diagram of the language learning strategy system (Oxford, 1990: 17).

Adding on to Oxford's classification, Carson and Longhini (2002) include conversation strategies as a fourth direct strategy type (in addition to memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies). They define this category as strategies that help learners to initiate repairs or requests for assistance and categorise it as a compensation strategy (2002: 413-414). O'Malley and Chamot's classification (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990) consists of three categories – cognitive, metacognitive, and social/affective strategies, which roughly correspond to Oxford's strategy groups. Strategies, according to Cohen, can also be divided according to skill area, function, and other ways such as age, or proficiency level. For example, Cohen and Oxford (1990) divide language learning strategies according to the four major language skills – listening, speaking, reading, and writing

(https://carla.umn.edu/about/profiles/CohenPapers/Young_Lg_Strat_Srvy.html). Another important distinction is between language use and language learning strategies (Cohen, 2014). Cohen defines language learning strategies as "strategies for the learning of language material for the first time", and language use strategies as "strategies for using the material that has already been learned" (2014: 12). Thus, language learning strategies include strategies for identifying the material to be learned, distinguishing the material from other types of material, if necessary, grouping for easier learning, having repeated contact with the material, and committing to memory any material that was not acquired through exposure (Cohen, 2014: 12). Language use strategies, on the other hand, include using the material at whatever level which includes four sets of strategies: **retrieval** strategies, **rehearsal** strategies, **coping** strategies, and **communication** strategies (Cohen, 2014: 13-14). **Retrieval** strategies are used to retrieve language material from storage, for example, remembering when or how to use a certain target language structure (e.g., strategies used to help remember when to use a certain verb form or how to form it), and **rehearsal** strategies, for rehearsing target language structures, such as practicing the Present Perfect in the English language by using form-focused practice or even trying to use it in conversation (Cohen, 2014: 13-14). **Coping** strategies could be defined as those used to compensate for a lack of knowledge or to allow the learner to seem as if they are skilled in an area of the language. There are two subsets of coping strategies – **compensatory** and **cover** strategies. **Compensatory** strategies are those that learners use to compensate for a lack of specific necessary knowledge, and they include, for example, lexical avoidance (avoiding a certain word or phrase for lack of knowledge) or approximation (trying to use similar words or phrases to convey meaning). **Cover** strategies are used to convey the appearance of language ability when there is none or not enough present with the learner – using a memorised drill or partially understood phrase in an utterance (Cohen, 2014: 14). **Communication** strategies focus on conveying a meaningful and informative message to the listener or reader. They consist of two subsets of strategies: **intralingual** and **interlingual**. **Intralingual** strategies can be, for example, overgeneralising a grammar rule or vocabulary meaning and using it where it does not apply. **Interlingual** strategies consist of negative transfer, topic avoidance or abandonment, message reduction, code switching, and paraphrasing. These strategies can be used when learners are faced with breakdowns or issues in communication to avoid problematic areas and still be able to express themselves (Cohen, 2014: 15). Oxford (2011, as cited in Cohen, 2014: 16) does not agree with the distinction between language use and language learning strategies. She believes that it is

unnecessary because learning can only be accomplished through use. Cohen, however, states that for many language learners most of what they learn never ends up being used in communication, which he supports with an example of an adult learner of Japanese. The learner explains how, while attending an accelerated Japanese class, they needed to learn various vocabulary items necessary for purchasing a tie in a department store. Because they had never discussed buying a tie or even gone to a store in Tokyo for this specific reason, they believe that the information stayed in their memory only long enough to take a quiz, meaning that it was never fully internalised. An even further support of his reasoning behind dividing language use strategies from language learning strategies is that certain strategies are specific to either learning or using the language. For example, memorisation strategies are used for learning vocabulary, or organisational strategies for learning grammar, but asking for verification of what was conveyed or checking to see if an appropriate form or structure was used has as its main goal the use of the language (Cohen, 2014: 16-17).

2.2 Speaking strategies: definition and classification

Zhang and Goh (2006), following Cohen's (1996) conceptualisation of listening and speaking strategies, define language learning speaking strategies as those that encompass what speakers "do to learn to improve their ability to speak" (Zhang and Goh, 2006: 201) and language using speaking strategies as those that speakers use to "manage real-time/online interactions with an interlocutor, and what they do when they do not know how to express something" (Zhang and Goh, 2006: 201). According to Larenas (2011), speaking strategies are "actions and/or procedures that students apply in order to complete an oral communicative task successfully" (Zhang and Goh, 2006: 89). Zhou and Feng (2021) take a simple approach and define speaking strategies as those related to language learning strategies in general and used by language learners to help with speaking and realisation of their speech acts in a foreign language. Finally, speaking strategies are also defined as being used as compensation for a lack of lexical and content knowledge of the target language as a means of maintaining fluency and improvement of the negotiation of meaning (Cohen, 2010; Nakatani and Goh, 2007, as cited in Chou, 2018: 615). To summarise, speaking strategies could be defined as strategies learners use to improve their speech in all its aspects. In Oxford's (1990) classification of learning strategies, there are 46 strategies that are possibly useful for speaking. Wahyuni (2013: 47-48) summarised these as shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Speaking strategies (Wahyuni, 2013: 47-48).

Class	Group	Strategy
Direct	**Memory**	Placing new words into a context
		Representing sounds in memory
		Structured reviewing
	Cognitive	Repeating
		Formally practising with sounds
		Recognising and using formulas and patterns
		Recombining
		Practising naturalistically
		Using resources for receiving and sending messages
		Reasoning deductively
		Translating
		Transferring
	Compensation	Switching to the mother tongue
		Getting help
		Using mime or gesture
		Avoiding communication partially or totally
		Selecting the topic
		Adjusting or approximating the message
		Coining words
		Using a circumlocution or synonym
Indirect	**Metacognitive**	Overviewing and linking with already known material
		Paying attention
		Delaying speech production to focus on listening
		Finding out about language learning
		Organising
		Setting goals and objectives
		Identifying the purpose of a language task
		Planning for a language task
		Seeking practise opportunities
		Self-monitoring
		Self-evaluating
	Affective	Using progressive relaxation, deep breathing, or meditation
		Using music
		Using laughter
		Making positive statements
		Taking risks wisely
		Rewarding yourself
		Listening to your body
		Using a checklist
		Writing a language learning diary
		Discussing your feelings with someone else
	Social	Asking for correction
		Cooperating with peers
		Cooperating with proficient users of the new language
		Developing cultural understanding
		Becoming aware of others' thoughts and feelings

Speaking strategies are divided into two classes – **direct** and **indirect**, and six groups – **memory**, **cognitive**, **compensation**, **metacognitive**, **affective**, and **social**. **Memory** strategies help learners to store and retrieve new information. The **cognitive** strategies used for speaking enable learners to produce and understand new language. **Compensation** strategies allow learners to use the language even if they have certain gaps in their knowledge. **Metacognitive** strategies allow learners to control their own learning and can be divided into three subgroups. **Affective** strategies help learners deal with motivation, emotions, and attitudes. The final group of speaking strategies, **social** strategies, help learners to learn through interacting with others (Wahyuni, 2013: 41-47).

Cohen and Sykes (2006) developed an inventory of strategies used for learning and performing communicative acts in the Spanish language (see Table 3). Communicative acts are utterances or sets of utterances that are used to perform linguistic action or function in communication. They can be, for example, requests, compliments, or complaints. Another important fact to note that even the authors make sure to mention is that the technical term for communicative acts is speech acts, but they believe that the term they decided to choose is more inclusive and comprehensive of verbal and non-verbal pragmatic features (Cohen and Sykes, 2006).

Table 3. Communicative act learning and use strategies (Cohen and Sykes, 2006, https://carla.umn.edu/speechacts/sp_pragmatics/Introduction_to_pragmatics/strategies.html).

Communicative Act Learning Strategies	Communicative Act Use Strategies
1. Identify the second language communicative acts.	1. Devise and utilise a memory aid for retrieving the communicative act that has already been learned.
2. Gather information on how the communicative acts are performed.	2. Practice.
3. Conduct cross-cultural analysis.	3. Ask native speakers for feedback.
4. Observe what native speakers do by noting what they say, how they say it, and their non-verbal behaviour.	4. Determine your learning style preferences and try approaches that are consistent with your individual style.
5. Ask native speakers to model performance of the communicative act.	5. Use communication strategies to get the message across.
6. Access published material dealing with communicative acts.	6. Remain true to your own identity and subjectivity while still being aware of appropriate performance of the communicative act.

Even though this specific inventory was developed for the Spanish language, it could also be used for any target language. The strategies are compiled almost as a set of tips one might use when

speaking. Speaking strategies can also be classified based on Cohen's classification of language use strategies into the following: **retrieval strategies:** used to call up language material from storage, e.g., remembering the correct verb form, **rehearsal strategies:** used for practising target language structures, e.g., rehearsing a certain phrase or conjugation, **communication strategies:** used to convey a message that is both meaningful and informative, e.g., when one wants to explain something they do not have the appropriate vocabulary for, and **cover strategies:** used for creating an appearance of language ability, e.g., using a memorised phrase (Cohen, 2010: 164). Cohen (2010) also classified speaking strategies into three major groups, that is those used in order to **practise** for speaking, those used in order to **engage** in conversations, and those used when **not able to think of** a word or expression (see Table 4).

Table 4. Speaking strategy use (Cohen, 2010: 168).

In order to practise for speaking	**In order to engage in conversation**	**When not able to think of a word or expression**
1. Practising new grammatical structures in different situations to check one's confidence level with the structures.	1. Initiating conversations in the new language as often as possible.	1. Looking for a different way to express the idea.
2. Asking oneself how a native speaker might say something and then attempting to practise saying it that way.	2. Asking questions as a way to be sure to be involved in the conversation.	2. Using words or forms from one's native language.

According to Cohen (2010: 168), practise for speaking can be done by practising different grammatical structures in different situations to try to understand how familiar and confident the learner is with the structures. Next, a learner should try to imagine how a native speaker would speak and then attempt to imitate them. To participate actively in a conversation, a learner should initiate conversations in the target language as much as possible as well as ask questions while in conversation. Finally, when learners are faced with a situation where they cannot think of a certain expression or word, they should use a synonym or circumlocution, or rely on their native language. Another inventory developed by Cohen and Ishihara (2005) deals with strategies for learning speech acts in Japanese. Even though Japanese is a language that has its specificities, this inventory can be helpful for the further understanding of speaking strategies in any target language. Table 5 showcases the strategies for learning speech acts developed by Cohen and Ishihara (2005).

Table 5. Strategies for learning speech acts (Cohen and Ishihara, 2005, https://carla.umn.edu/speechacts/japanese/introtospeechacts/forresearchers.htm).

Speech act	Strategy
Apologising	1. Making an apologising statement
	2. Providing a reason
	3. Acknowledging responsibility
	4. Offering a repair
	5. Showing consideration for the hearer
	6. Using an expression of dismay
	7. Promising non-recurrence
	8. Communicating a lack of intention to cause the infraction
Giving compliments	1. Making the complimenting statement
	2. Using an appropriate level of politeness
	3. Abiding by the cultural norms for complimenting
	4. Using an appropriate tone of voice
Responding to compliments	1. Making the response statement
	2. Disagreeing with a compliment
	3. Thanking
	4. Providing no answer or shifting topics
	5. Providing positive comments
	6. Questioning
	7. Returning a compliment
	8. Offering background information
	9. Shifting credit to others
	10. Expressing surprise
	11. Downgrading
	12. Making a joke
	13. Disagreeing
	14. Doubting the sincerity of compliments
Refusing	1. Making the refusing statement
	2. Providing a reason for the refusal
	3. Offering an alternative
	4. Apologising/Stating regret
	5. Promising future acceptance
	6. Making an unspecific reply
	7. Postponing a response
	8. Stating positive feelings
Requesting	1. Making the request statement
	2. Offering a reason for the request
	3. Getting a precommitment
	4. Identifying the topic
	5. Checking availability
	6. Reinforcing the request
	7. Promising to repay/pay back
	8. Showing consideration for the hearer
	9. Getting attention
	10. Offering reward or compensation

	11. Expressing apologies and/or gratitude
Thanking	1. Making the thanking statement
	2. Complimenting
	3. Apologising
	4. Expressing surprise and delight
	5. Promising to repay
	6. Expressing a lack of necessity or obligation
	7. Emphasising the depth of gratitude

Besides the strategies specific to speech acts, Cohen and Ishihara (2005) listed those that are universal for all speech acts:

1. using appropriate expressions according to the interlocutor and the situation,
2. abiding by the cultural norms,
3. using an appropriate level of politeness,
4. using an appropriate intensifier,
5. using an appropriate tone of voice,
6. finding a native speaker or expert of the culture who can help with the understanding of sociolinguistic or sociocultural norms,
7. listening to other speakers,
8. finding resources that inform of the target language and culture,
9. clarifying communicative intention,
10. repairing a potential miscommunication by explaining first language (L1) norms,
11. warning the interlocutor of possible gaps in knowledge,
12. avoiding imitating native speakers too much,
13. and finding similar expressions in the second language (L2) that feel more comfortable when speaking.

Finally, Razmjoo and Ardekani (2011: 126) classify speaking strategies into **on-line** and **off-line** speaking strategies. The main difference between the two categories is the time of speaking. Namely, **on-line** strategies are those being used at the time of speaking and they are usually unconscious,

whereas **off-line** strategies are those being used by learners to improve their speaking abilities, but not at the time of speaking. **On-line strategies** include interference of the mother tongue, e.g., thinking in L1 and then translating into L2, error correction, e.g., being aware of one's mistakes and correcting them, accuracy, e.g., paying attention to using the correct grammar, body language and substitution, e.g., using gestures when speaking. **Off-line strategies include** educational aid methods and instruments, e.g., watching TV or listening to material in the L2, memorisation and summary, e.g., memorising certain chunks of speech and then using them later in speaking, sensitivity toward chances, e.g., looking for opportunities to use the L2.

A subset of language use strategies (Cohen, 2010), communication strategies, need to be differentiated from speaking strategies. A full consensus among researchers and scholars on the exact and universal definition of communication strategies has not yet been reached. The following section explores the possible definitions and further explains this strategy type.

2.3 Communication strategies: definition and classification

In 1972, Selinker introduced the term "strategies of second language communication" (Selinker, 1972: 229) which he thought of as one of the five possible processes central to second language learning. Even though Selinker did not exactly define or name these strategies, it was enough to kickstart a flood of research in this field (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997). Namely, not long after Selinker's article, Savignon (1972, as cited in Dörnyei and Scott, 1997) discussed coping strategies in communicative language testing and teaching which she considered to be communication strategies. The first definition and taxonomy of communication strategies were proposed by Tarone (1977). Tarone defined communication strategies as conscious attempts by learners to overcome difficulties in speaking when their knowledge is not adequate enough (1977: 195).

Research in the field of communication strategies fully began in the early 1980s (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997: 176). As part of their description of strategic competence, Canale and Swain (1980: 30) define "verbal and non-verbal communication strategies" as strategies that "may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence". To better understand Færch and Kasper's (1984) interactional definition of communication strategies, it is important to mention Tarone (1980) and her updated definition. Tarone defined communication strategies as "a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared" (1980: 419).

Tarone further identified the following communication strategies:

1. the desire of the speaker to communicate to a listener,
2. the speaker's belief that the linguistic or sociolinguistic structure necessary to communicate is unavailable or not shared with the listener,
3. the speaker's choice to either avoid communication or attempt alternative means to communicate (Tarone, 1980).

Communication strategies can be viewed from the **psycholinguistic** or **interactional** view. According to the **psycholinguistic** definition, communication strategies are "a subclass of verbal plans, potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal" (Færch and Kasper, 1984: 47). The **interactional** approach is based on the above-mentioned Tarone's definition. Willems (1987: 352) speaks about communication strategies in the realm of strategic competence, as suggested by Canale and Swain (1980), and characterises them as used when a speaker is unfamiliar with certain expressions or structures of a language. Bialystok (as cited in Purpura, 1992) criticises different definitions of communication strategies for their focus on consciousness, intentionality, and features of problematicity. Finally, Cohen (2010), defined communication strategies as those that are used to convey a message that is both meaningful and informative. These strategies allow speakers to stay active during communication even when they are not capable enough to participate, they extend learners' communicative abilities beyond the issues that they might have with their target language proficiency, as well as help increase learners' linguistic confidence (Cohen, 2010: 164-165). Communication strategies are some sort of solution to a problem one might be faced with during communication. They are used to compensate for lack of knowledge or insufficient capability of communication as well as to restore meaning that could have been misunderstood during a communicative situation.

There is also a number of communication strategy taxonomies. Tarone (1977: 197) differentiates between five basic conscious communication strategies: **avoidance, paraphrase, conscious transfer, appeal for assistance**, and **mime**. **Avoidance**, i.e., the avoiding of certain topics or speaking in general consists of **topic avoidance** and **message abandonment**. **Topic avoidance** happens when a learner completely avoids talking about certain concepts for which they do not have

the vocabulary. For example, if someone does not know or is unsure of how to say ‘house’ in English, they will try not to steer the conversation in the direction where they would have to use that word. With **message abandonment**, on the other hand, the learner starts to talk about a certain concept, but they cannot continue or begin a new sentence because of the lack of knowledge, e.g., the learner is looking at a picture and commenting on it, they begin by saying “The sky is blue and the sun-”, but their voice trails off because they either mumble something or completely go quiet. The types of **paraphrase**, or the re-wording of a message being sent during communication, include **approximation**, **word coinage**, and **circumlocution**. When a learner uses **approximation**, they use a lexical item or structure that they know is incorrect, but which is similar enough to the one that they need to be said. For example, when using the word ‘table’ instead of ‘desk’ the meaning conveyed is close enough for the listener to understand what the speaker wants to say. Another type of paraphrase is **word coinage**, or the making up of a new word in order to communicate what needs to be said, e.g., saying ‘airball’ instead of ‘balloon’. Finally, **circumlocution**, in which a learner describes the lexical item, for example, describing a corkscrew as “a small tool, something we use often when we have parties or during dinner…we use it to open wine bottles, but... not the twist-off kind.” **Conscious transfer**, the transferring or switching between languages can be of two types, i.e., **literal translation** or **language switch**. **Literal translation** occurs when a speaker literally translates what they were going to say into English, for example, ‘I love eating new onion.’, where the learner literally translates the Hungarian ‘újhagyma’ into English instead of using ‘spring onion’ or ‘scallion’. In **language switch**, the learner simply uses the exact native language item in place of the foreign language, or when they use it to approximate the necessary item, e.g., ‘I talked to my *orvos* yesterday.’ (the English equivalent to the Hungarian ‘orvos’ is ‘doctor’). The two final possible communication strategies, according to Tarone, are **appeal for assistance** and **mime**. **Appeal for assistance** occurs when the learner asks for the correct term by, for example, asking the instructor, looking it up in a dictionary, or asking a native speaker. **Mime** is used when a learner is not capable of using a lexical item in the target language, so they choose to use non-verbal communication such as pointing or even clapping (Tarone, 1977: 197-199). Canale and Swain (1980: 30-31) divide communication strategies into two categories: those that **relate to grammatical competence** and those that relate to **sociolinguistic competence**. Under the communication strategies that **relate to grammatical competence**, they give the example of paraphrasing grammatical forms that a learner does not know yet or cannot recall in the moment,

and under those that **relate to sociolinguistic competence** such as role-playing strategies or how to address strangers when learners are unsure of their social status. Færch and Kasper (1984: 48-51) categorise communication strategies into productive and receptive and focus on the productive ones. They differentiate between two main types of behaviour possible when a speaker is faced with a communication problem: **avoidance behaviour** and **achievement behaviour**. When a speaker adopts **avoidance behaviour**, they give up their communication goal, and when they adopt **achievement behaviour**, they keep their original communication plan in mind, but they develop an alternative plan. **Avoidance behaviour** manifests itself through **reduction strategies**, which can then be classified into **formal** and **functional reduction**. **Formal reduction** occurs when the learner decides to communicate by using readily available rules and items. It stems from the learners' want to use the language correctly by avoiding errors or to use it fluently by avoiding items and rules that are not familiar enough or cannot be recalled from memory. This type of reduction can be morphological, grammatical, phonological, etc. **Functional reduction** can affect any component of the communicative goal and it can be **actional, propositional,** and **modal**. **Actional functional reduction** is used when the learner avoids using specific speech acts or discourse functions. **Propositional functional reduction** is an umbrella term for strategies such as topic avoidance, message abandonment, and meaning replacement meaning that, when using this type of reduction, the learner is not aware of the referential meaning of the communicative intention. **Modal functional reduction** refers to the learner's decision not to mark a speech act for relational and expressive functions. **Achievement behaviour** is manifested through **achievement strategies,** which are used to preserve the learner's original communicative goal. These types of strategies can be divided into **noncooperative and cooperative strategies**. The former is achieved by coming up with a plan to express the communicative goal alternatively, and the latter by reaching a solution to the communicative problem with the help of the interlocutor. **Noncooperative strategies** can be further divided into **L1/L3-based strategies, IL-based strategies,** and **non-linguistic strategies**. **L1/L3-based strategies** are based on a different code – the learner's L1 or another second or foreign language. These can be code switching, foreignizing, and literal translation. **IL-based strategies** are strategies that are based on the learner's interlanguage and they are comprised of substitution, generalisation, description, word coinage, and restructuring. Finally, **non-linguistic strategies** can be manifested as mime, gesture, and sound imitation. **Cooperative strategies**, however, rely on the joint problem-solving by both of the interlocutors. These types of strategies can be initiated either

directly or indirectly by one of the interlocutors. Willems (1987) classified communication strategies into two large categories – **reduction** and **achievement strategies**. The two main categories are then divided into subcategories, as shown in Table 6).

Table 6. Classification of communication strategies (Willems, 1987: 352-355).

<table>
<tr><th colspan="3">REDUCTION STRATEGIES</th></tr>
<tr><th colspan="2">Formal</th><th>Functional</th></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">1. Phonological: avoidance of words which contain difficult segments.
2. Morphological: e.g., avoidance of the use of the past tense.
3. Syntactic: e.g., avoidance of the use of the conditional forms.
4. Lexical: avoidance of topics which require specific vocabulary which is not developed enough.</td><td>1. Message abandonment: steering the conversation away from a certain topic.
2. Meaning replacement: when a learner almost says what they want to say.
3. Topic avoidance: saying nothing at all.</td></tr>
<tr><th colspan="3">ACHIEVEMENT STRATEGIES</th></tr>
<tr><th>Paralinguistic</th><th>Interlingual</th><th>Intralingual</th></tr>
<tr><td>1. The use of mime, gestures, or facial expressions in place of speech.</td><td>1. Borrowing or code switching: a learner’s native language word is used with the native language pronunciation.
2. Literal translation: translating literally from L1 to L2.
3. Foreignizing: using a word from L1 with L2 pronunciation.</td><td>1. Approximation: using an L2 word which shares semantic features with the target word, e.g., ‘birds’ instead of ‘ducks’.
2. Word coinage: an L2 word is made up.
3. Paraphrase: description, circumlocution, or exemplification.
4. Smurfing: the use of empty or meaningless words to fill in gaps in vocabulary, e.g., whatsit, thing.
5. Self-repair: also called restructuring, is setting up a new plan for speaking when the original one fails.
6. Appeals for assistance: explicit, implicit, or checking questions.
7. Initiating repair: initiating repairs in conversation by excusing oneself for creating a misunderstanding.</td></tr>
</table>

Dörnyei's (1995: 57) classification of communication strategies was based on a list of important communication strategies derived from the works by Váradi (1973), Tarone (1977), Færch and Kasper (1983), and Bialystok (1990). The second classification presented was made by the group of researchers at the Nijmegen University in the Netherlands. The two classifications are presented in Table 7.

Table 7. Classifications of communication strategies (Dörnyei, 1995: 58).

Classification of communication strategies according to traditional concepts		
Avoidance (Reduction)	**Achievement (Compensatory)**	**Stalling (Time-gaining)**
1. Message abandonment 2. Topic avoidance	1. Circumlocution 2. Approximation 3. Use of all-purpose words 4. Word-coinage 5. Use of non-linguistic means 6. Literal translation 7. Foreignizing 8. Code switching 9. Appeal for help	1. Use of fillers or hesitation devices
Classification of communication strategies by the Nijmegen University Group		
Conceptual strategies	**Linguistic/code strategies**	
1. Analytic strategies 2. Holistic strategies	1. Morphological creativity 2. Transfer	

In addition to the strategies included in Dörnyei's classification, the Nijmegen University Group classification also contains **a stalling, or time-gaining strategy,** which consists of the **use of fillers/hesitation devices**. This strategy is used by the learner when they use filler words or phrases such as, 'as a matter of fact,' 'well,' and 'I mean…' to fill pauses between speaking or to gain more time. The Nijmegen University Group classification divides communication strategies into **conceptual** and **linguistic/code strategies**. **Conceptual strategies** are characterised by the manipulation of the target concept in order to be able to express it through linguistic resources available at the time. They can be **analytic strategies**, or specifying characteristic features of the concept, for example, circumlocution, **and holistic strategies**, using a different item that has similar or the same characteristics as the target item, e.g., approximation. **Linguistic/code strategies** are used to manipulate the speaker's linguistic knowledge. They include **morphological creativity**, or the creation of new words by applying L2 morphological rules to L2 words, for example, word coinage and **transfer** from another language (Dörnyei, 1995:58).

Finally, two more recent classification, created by Thornbury (2005) and Cohen (2010), will be considered. Firstly, Thornbury (2005) situates communication strategies in the realm of strategic competence and states that strategic competence is achieved by the use of communication strategies. He does not go into a detailed classification but rather shares some examples of the strategies.

According to Thornbury (2005: 30-31), some commonly used strategies are: **circumlocution, word coinage, foreignizing a word, approximation, using an all-purpose word, language switch, paralinguistics,** and **appealing for help**. He also mentions **avoidance strategies**, such as abandoning the message completely or replacing it with a simpler one, and **discourse strategies**, which are characterised by the speaker borrowing segments of other speakers' utterances. Finally, Cohen (2010) listed commonly used communication strategies and categorised them into four groups: **avoidance (reduction)**, **achievement (compensatory)**, **stalling (time-gaining)**, and **interactional strategies**. The strategies are listed below in Table 9.

Table 8. Classification of communication strategies (Cohen, 2010: 165-166).

Avoidance (reduction) strategies	**Achievement (compensatory) strategies**	**Stalling (time-gaining) strategies**	**Interactional strategies**
1. Message abandonment 2. Topic avoidance 3. Message replacement	1. Circumlocution 2. Approximation 3. Use of all-purpose words 4. Word-coinage 5. Use of non-linguistic means 6. Literal translation 7. Foreignizing 8. Code switching	1. Use of fillers and other hesitation devices 2. Repetition	1. Appeal for help 2. Asking for repetition 3. Asking for clarification 4. Asking for confirmation 5. Expressing non-understanding 6. Interpretive summary

Most of the strategies Cohen (2010: 166) listed were already explained earlier in the paper, but there are some that warrant elaboration. For example, a speaker might be **asking for repetition** if something was not heard or understood, **expressing non-understanding** either verbally or nonverbally, i.e., openly admitting not understanding something that was said, and use **interpretive summary**, which is an extended paraphrase of what was said by the interlocutor to check whether the speaker understood the message correctly.

More recent studies on speaking strategies include those conducted by Zhou and Feng (2021), and Alfarisy (2022). The former focused on exploring speaking strategies of Chinese high school students. The results revealed that participants most commonly used memory and compensation speaking strategies, and that there were differences in strategy use between higher and lower achievers. The use of speaking strategies was correlated with the participants' English proficiency (Zhou and Feng, 2021). Alfarisy's study focused on probing the relationship between the perceived

strategy use as measured by the SILL and the actual use of speaking strategies. The conclusions of the study were that students mostly used metacognitive strategies, and that the affective group of strategies was used the least. The results of the interview corresponded with the results of the SILL (Alfarisy, 2022).

Two studies done in the same year, 2006, by Zhang and Goh and Nakatani, explored speaking strategies in different ways. The former, conducted by Zhang and Goh, explored the use of listening and speaking strategies of 278 Singaporean students, as well as the relationship between the strategies. To conduct the research, Zhang and Goh developed and administered the Metacognitive Awareness Inventory in Listening and Speaking Strategies, MAILSS (2006). The results of their study showed that the students believe the in usefulness of the strategies, with them finding 32 of the possible 40 strategies useful, and only 13 were reported as being used frequently. Even though the students reported being generally aware of the usefulness of the strategies, it was concluded that they were not yet conscious of them and that they were not confident strategy users. The study by Nakatani (2006) focused on how information about learner perception of strategy use during communicative tasks can be collected from English as a foreign language (EFL) learners. The result of this study was the development of a questionnaire called the Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OCSI). The applicability of this survey was tested by a simulated communicative test for EFL learners, and it was administered to 62 participants. It was concluded that learners with high oral proficiency tended to use specific strategies such as social affective and fluency-oriented strategies, as well as negotiation of meaning. Larenas (2011) conducted a study by exploring 8th and 12th graders' knowledge of speaking strategies for communication in English. The research was done by administering the OCSI to 108 students of public, semi-public, and private schools. The results of the study showed that 8th graders claimed to have a broader knowledge of speaking strategies than 12th-year secondary school students and that their knowledge does not vary based on the type of school they attend. In the same year, Razmjoo and Ardekani (2011) conducted a study with the main goal of developing a model describing speaking strategies for EFL learners by including the effects of learners' gender and proficiency on the application of the strategies. The study was conducted by administering a 21-item speaking strategy questionnaire to 210 EFL learners. The results revealed that EFL learners' gender and level of proficiency did not affect their speaking strategy use. Barkaoui et al.'s study (2013) explored the strategic behaviours that test-takers reported using when they needed to respond to integrated and independent speaking tasks while taking the Speaking

Section of the Internet-based Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL iBT) as well as the relationship between the test-takers' use of strategies and their test scores. The participants were 30 Chinese-speaking engineering students and the results showed no relationship present between the total number of reported strategy use and test scores. It was concluded that the more skills were necessary in a task, the greater the strategy use. A more recent study on speaking strategies conducted by Zhou and Feng (2021) investigated the speaking strategies used by Chinese high school students who attend the International Department. The results showed that the students use speaking strategies at a medium level, that there are differences between higher and lower proficiency students in the use of speaking strategies, and that the students' use of strategies is highly correlated to their English language proficiency. Finally, Alfarisy's study (2022) explored the use of speaking strategies of 183 Indonesian students by using a mixed-method approach. The SILL developed by Oxford (1990) was adapted and administered together with interviews being conducted. The reason behind the use of the SILL was to discover which speaking strategies were used by the students, and the interviews were conducted to confirm the SILL as well as to gain knowledge of why the students used specific strategies. The results of the study showed that 72.7 % of students employed metacognitive strategies and 56.8 % the affective strategies category. Most of the students used strategies of paying attention, using resources for receiving and sending messages, and self-monitoring strategies, and the interviews confirmed the results of the SILL.

3. Willingness to communicate

Willingness to communicate is defined as "a readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using an L2" (MacIntyre et al., 1998: 547). An example of expressing willingness to communicate given by MacIntyre et al. is when a student raises their hand to answer a question a teacher posed. Students showing a willingness to communicate feel self-confident in their answers and have a wish to say something. They should also have enough self-confidence in the language they are intending to speak. Another motivator for the students speaking could also be of an interpersonal nature, to either please the teacher or get a good grade (MacIntyre et al., 1998: 547-548). As a personality construct, willingness to communicate, according to McCroskey and Baer, is influenced by the situation itself, but also by different situational variables such as a person's emotion, the person's impression of a recent interaction, etc (1985: 1). This leads to the conclusion that willingness to communicate is dependent on the situation and the way someone's personality is oriented explains why they will communicate or not (McCroskey and Baer, 1985: 1). Willingness to communicate stems from unwillingness to communicate, or the tendency to avoid verbal communication, predispositions towards verbal behaviour, i.e., the predisposition of an individual to talk for a given amount of time, and shyness, labelled as social anxiety, or reduced communication behaviours (McCroskey and Baer, 1985: 1-3). Willingness to communicate directly implies that there is intended behaviour present. As a means of explaining this behavioural intention, the authors chose The Theory of Planned Behaviour (see Figure 5 below). This theory adapts another theory, that of Reasoned Action in which behaviour is not under complete volition; this is important to note because it suits willingness to communicate best because communication involves two or more people. According to The Theory of Planned Behaviour, the most immediate cause of one's behaviour is their intention to engage as well as the control over their own actions. The authors simplify it by stating that to produce a behaviour, the intention must be combined with opportunity. The theory relates to the authors' definition and understanding of willingness to communicate by the fact that they both believe that behaviour is strongly predicted by intention, or in this case, willingness (MacIntyre et al., 1998: 548). MacIntyre et al. (1998), as part of their extensive research on willingness to communicate, created a model of variables that influence it. The model consists of six layers, each of the layers comprising a certain variable, and that are to be viewed from top to bottom. The first three layers – Communication Behaviour, Behavioural Intention, and Situated Antecedents represent situation-specific influences at a certain moment in time, and the final three –

Motivational Propensities, Affective-Cognitive Context, and Social and Individual Context represent the enduring influences on the process (1998: 547).

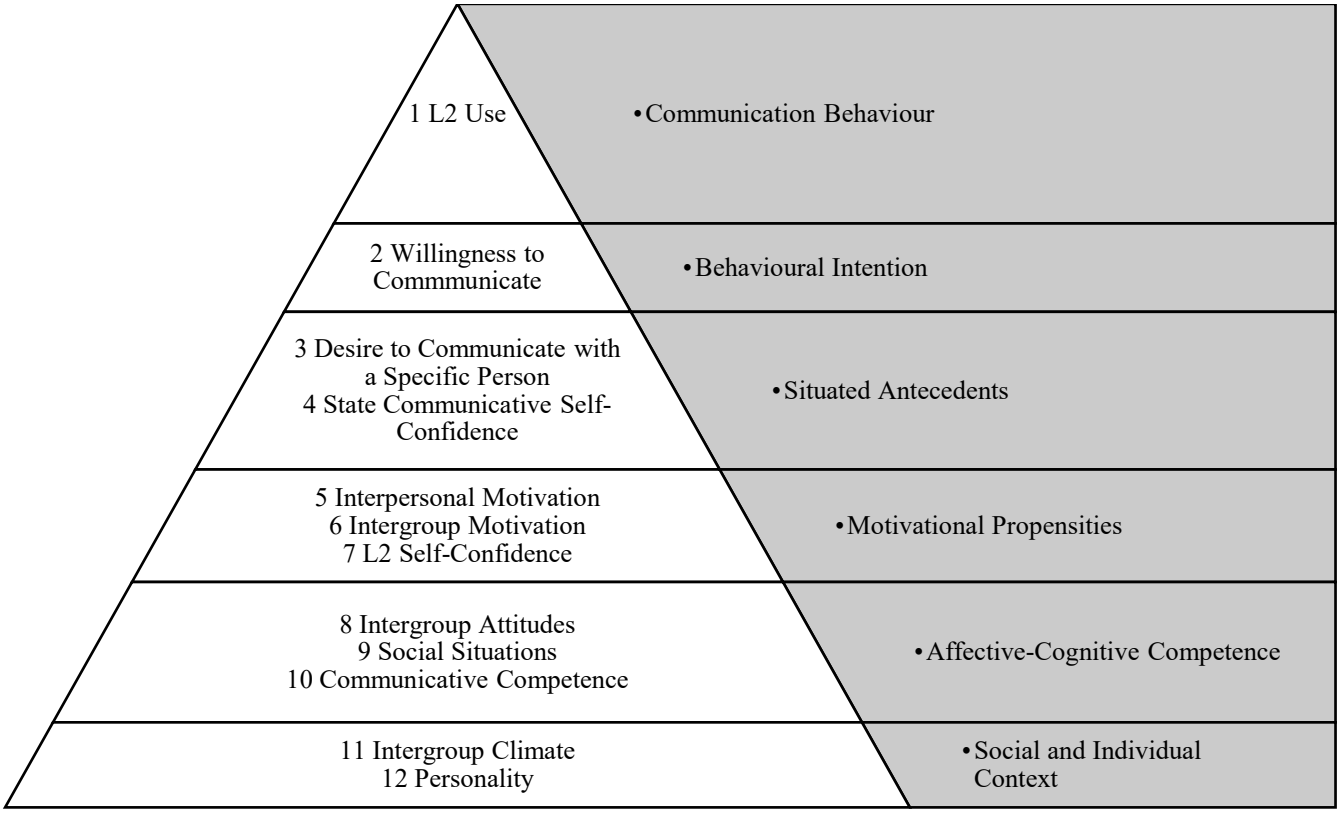

Figure 5. The Theory of Planned Behaviour (MacIntyre et al. 1998: 547).

According to Figure 5 above, the first layer of the Theory of Planned Behaviour, Communication Behaviour, deals with L2 use in general. MacIntyre et al. (1998) understand it in a broader sense, including, for example, speaking up during class, reading material written in an L2, or watching television, as well as using the language during work. L2 communication is one of the most important facets of L2 learning and willingness to communicate goes hand in hand with it since it is thought that students should try to seek out communication opportunities and use the L2. Namely, according to the authors, "a proper objective for L2 education is to create willingness to communicate" (MacIntyre et al., 1998: 547). Willingness to communicate, which was discussed in the previous section, falls under the second layer called Behavioural Intention. The final layer of the first half of the model, Situated Antecedents, consists of the desire to communicate with a specific person and state communicative self-confidence. It is mentioned that both of these are not expressed equally at all times. According to Clément (Clément, 1980, 1986, as cited in MacIntyre et al., 1998),

self-confidence consists of two key constructs – perceived competence and a lack of anxiety which represent enduring personal characteristics (1998: 549). Motivational Propensities encompass interpersonal and intergroup motivation as well as L2 self-confidence. Interpersonal motivation encompasses individual characteristics of the communicators, whereas intergroup is derived exactly from their belonging to a particular group. L2 self-confidence is related to the relationship between the individual and the L2. It is different from the previously mentioned confidence because it only relates to the ability to communicate efficiently in an L2. The penultimate layer, Affective-Cognitive Context, consists of intergroup attitudes (integrativeness, fear of assimilation, and motivation to learn the L2), social situation, and communicative competence. Social situation describes a social encounter in a particular setting and communicative competence is described as L2 proficiency consisting of five main constituents: linguistic, discourse, actional, sociocultural, and strategic competence. The final layer, Social and Individual Context, is made up of intergroup climate and personality. Intergroup climate is defined by the structural characteristics of the community and their perceptual and affective correlates, whereas personality can be defined through certain patterns which can predict how an individual might react to someone (MacIntyre et al., 1998: 550-557). What is important to note when observing the pyramid, is that it is supposed to be viewed from the bottom, or layer six, to the top, or layer one since it shows the entire process of the conceptualisation of speech and communication as well as the ultimate decision of whether to speak (MacIntyre, 2007: 565-576).

When it comes to the antecedents of willingness to communicate, communication apprehension and self-perceived competence are two unstable factors, meaning that they change over time, which can influence a learner's willingness to communicate. Communication apprehension is defined as anxiety which is associated with communication events that are either real or anticipated, and self-perceived competence is a learner's own perception and evaluation of their communicative abilities (Donovan and MacIntyre, 2004: 421). Other antecedents of willingness to communicate are motivation, personality, content and context, and gender and age (Riasati and Noordin, 2011: 77-78). Motivation is defined by Dörnyei as the "effort, desire, and attitude towards learning" (2005: 68). According to Pavičić Takač and Požega (2012), willingness to communicate is a stable personality trait when observing it in the context of L1, but when it comes to the L2, one's L2 proficiency and communicative competence are observed as unstable variables which can influence one's degree of their willingness to communicate. Therefore, it is important to understand that willingness to

communicate includes state and trait characteristics (Pavičić Takač and Požega, 2012: 69). When it comes to content and context, learners are more comfortable when speaking to someone they are familiar with, as well as that they are far more likely to engage in conversation when the topic at hand is familiar to them (Kang, 2005). Gender and age are the two final variables that affect willingness to communicate. Generally, female learners display a higher level of WTC than male learners, and as male learners age, their WTC increases, while female learners become less willing to communicate (Riasati and Noordin, 2011).

Relevant research connected to willingness to communicate includes Öz et al.'s from 2015, as well as an earlier study done by Yashima in 2002. The first study mentioned explored Turkish students' perceptions of willingness to communicate. One of the main findings of this study was that 21.6 % of 134 participants measured a high willingness to communicate as well as that communication competence and apprehension were its strong predictors, whereas motivational factors indirectly influenced it (Öz et al., 2015). The second study examined the relationship between L2 learning and L2 communication variables. This study concluded that motivation affects self-confidence in L2 communication which then leads to willingness to communicate in the L2 (Yashima, 2002). Research on willingness to communicate was also done by Lu (2007) by investigating Chinese and American students' willingness to communicate. The overall findings were that with both groups of students, communication apprehension correlated negatively with their willingness to communicate which showed that it is true that if a student has anxiety when it comes to communicating, they will be apprehensive of speaking. Weaver (2010) explored self-perceived communicative competence by administering a questionnaire to Japanese university students, which investigated their willingness to communicate in English with Japanese and international students and a Japanese and foreign English teacher in the EFL classroom. It was concluded that the students with the highest self-perceived communicative competence were willing to speak to an international student or foreign English teacher in English and that the students with a lower self-perceived communicative competence were more willing to speak to a Japanese student or Japanese English teacher in English. This proved that self-perceived communicative competence can be thought of as an influencing factor and an antecedent of an individual's willingness to communicate.

More recent research in the field of willingness to communicate was conducted by Rihardini et al. (2021). Rihardini et al. (2021) investigated Indonesian tenth and eleventh-grade students' willingness to communicate while speaking English in the classroom. The research yielded positive

results regarding the students' opinion towards their willingness to communicate; they stated that they believe learning and communicating in English is important and beneficial to them; however, they still exhibit a low level of willingness to communicate (Rihardini et al., 2021). Mihaljević Djigunović and Letica (2008) explored willingness to communicate and second language learning of Croatian students of English and other foreign languages. The results showed that the degree of the student's willingness to communicate was average and that there was no correlation between the student's willingness to communicate and academic achievement in the language. There was also no correlation between willingness to communicate, length of language learning, frequency of communication with a native speaker, or with self-perceptive communicative competence. Another part of the research was the investigation of willingness to communicate in the classroom. It was concluded that willingness to communicate in the classroom depends on the language learned and that there was a significant correlation between willingness to communicate and the student's academic achievement in the language. The relationship between willingness to communicate in the classroom and length of language learning, frequency of communication with a native speaker, and self-perceptive communicative competence was also explored. There was a negative correlation found between willingness to communicate in the classroom and the length of language learning; communication with a native speaker was not a significant factor, and self-perceived communicative competence was also a very significant variable. Finally, this research investigated the relationship between willingness to communicate in general and willingness to communicate in the classroom, and the results showed that there was no statistical significance between the two (Mihaljević Djigunović and Letica, 2008: 4-8).

4. The relationship between willingness to communicate and speaking strategies

Research on the relationship between willingness to communicate and speaking strategies is still scarce. One of the reasons may be the conceptual and definitional issues connected with the key notions of language learning vs. language use strategies and speaking vs. communication strategies discussed above. However, there have been a few studies worth mentioning that factored in these concepts. Munchen et al. (2021) investigated the influence of language learning strategies in general on the willingness to communicate in Chinese among students with high and low anxiety and concluded that language learning strategies have a varied influence on willingness to communicate. Indirect strategies (see Table 2 above) were shown to have a significant influence on predicting the willingness to communicate of students with low anxiety, and both the direct and indirect groups of strategies influenced the willingness to communicate of students with high anxiety (Munchen et al., 2021: 164-165). Yaraghi and Shafiee (2018) explored the role of willingness to communicate in students' use of communication strategies. The importance of the use of language learning strategies and communication strategies was highlighted as a way of improving the speaking skills of an individual. Communication strategies were classified according to Nakatani's (2006) inventory following a factor matrix that consists of eight groups: social affective strategies, fluency-oriented strategies, strategies for negotiation for meaning while speaking, accuracy-oriented strategies, message reduction and alteration strategies, nonverbal strategies while speaking, message abandonment strategies, and strategies for attempting to think in English. The results showed that there was a moderate positive, statistically significant relationship between willingness to communicate and communication strategies. Willingness to communicate was a strong predictor of the use of fluency-oriented strategies, as well as of the strategies for attempting to think in English. It was concluded that willingness to communicate is a significant predictor of communication strategies (Yaraghi and Shafiee, 2018: 60-68).

Mesgarshahr and Abdollahzadeh's (2014) study focused on the impact of teaching communication strategies on EFL learners' willingness to communicate. The main finding was that communication strategies enhance learners' willingness to communicate because they: lessen communication apprehension, help learners achieve a higher level of the perception of their communicative competence, improve learners' state communicative self-confidence, can provide comfort to learners which in turn results in them wanting to initiate communication more often, and finally, because

they motivate learners. It is possible to conclude that willingness to communicate and speaking and communication strategies have a mutual relationship since they affect each other in several ways. Therefore, it is a topic in need of further exploration.

5. Hungarian as a foreign language

5.1 On the Hungarian language and learning Hungarian

In order to better understand the topic and results of this research, it is necessary to define and present the Hungarian language and its characteristics. According to Hajdú (1972), even though Hungarian is traditionally classified as a Finno-Ugric language, a genetic relationship between the Siberian Samoyed languages and Finno-Ugric languages exists and is usually agreed upon. Therefore, it is more accurate to define Hungarian as a Uralic language, belonging to the language family that contains both the Samoyed and Finno-Ugric languages (Hajdú, 1972: 15). This fact is further repeated and confirmed by other linguists and researchers such as Megyesi (2001), who states that Hungarian belongs to Ob-Ugric languages with languages such as Khanty and Mansi of the Finno-Ugric branch of Uralic languages (Megyesi, 2001: 1). Figure 6 below shows the Finno-Ugric branch and its languages.

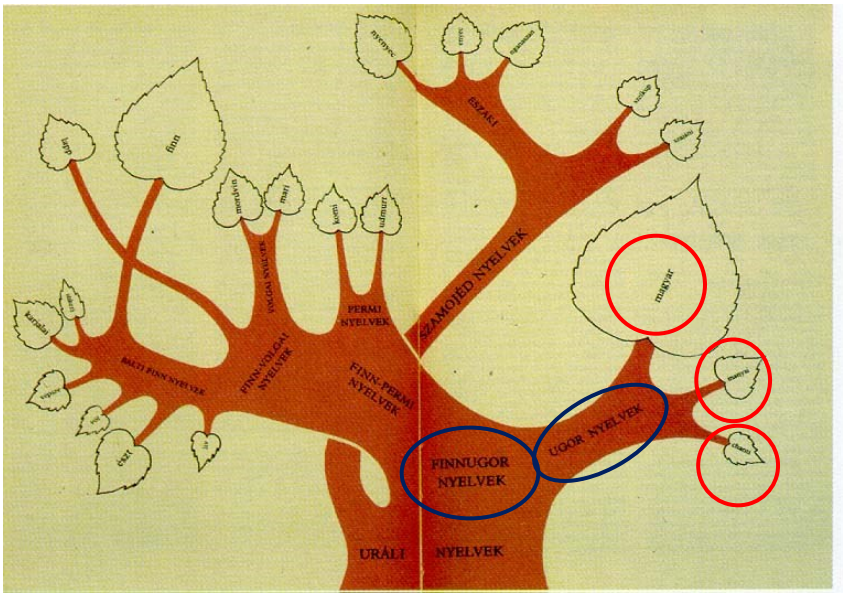

Figure 6. Language family tree - (*Nyelv, Gondolkodás, Beszéd* | *Pannon Enciklopédia* | *Kézikönyvtár*, 1993), https://www.arcanum.com/hu/online-kiadvanyok/pannon-pannon-enciklopedia-1/a-magyarsag-kezikonyve-2/nyelv-es-irodalom-1919/a-nyelv-1C89/nyelv-gondolkodas-beszed-1C8C/).

The illustration presents the language family tree; the blue circles indicate the Finno-Ugric and Ugric languages, and the red circles show the three leaves – Khanty, Mansi, and Hungarian (Hu: magyar). Hungarian has been spoken in and around the area of Hungary since the ninth century, currently by around 13 to 14 million people. It is the official language of Hungary, with a population

of around 9.9 million people, and is spoken by about 9 to 9.5 million native speakers. Minority speakers of Hungarian can be found in the Transylvanian region, in the Moldavian region in Romania, along the south borders of Slovakia, in northern Vojvodina, in the Transcarpathian region of Ukraine, in Croatia, in Slovenia, and in the eastern province of Burgenland in Austria. Additionally, there are also Hungarian-speaking immigrant communities in various countries such as the United States, Canada, and Australia (Kenesei and Szécsényi, 2022: 636).

Some of the most important and distinctive characteristics of the Hungarian language are its rich system of vowels and consonants, the fact that it is an agglutinative language with no grammatical gender (e.g., the third person singular personal pronoun *ö* means both *h*e and *she*), its case system, and word order. When it comes to vowels and consonants, the Hungarian language has 14 vowels and 25 consonants. The vowels have their short and long counterparts, for example, the vowel O: O, Ó, Ö, and Ő. Only O and U can be seen in these variants, and A, E, and I only come in two possible variants – A and Á, E and É, and I and Í. Short vowels, if marked take an umlaut **(¨)**, and long vowels come with an acute **(´)** or double acute accent **(´´)**. The double acute accent is unique only to the Hungarian language. Vowel harmony is one of the most important aspects of the language because the short and long vowels are interconnected through it. That means that suffixes need to correspond to the last vowel of the word stem; for example, fa (tree in the nominative case), when transformed into the accusative case, becomes fát (f **á** t). By the law of vowel harmony, in order to receive the accusative -t ending, the vowel must adjust and receive an acute accent **(´)**. Hungarian also has certain specific consonants – dentals such as sz, and dz, and palatals such as ty, cs, s, gy, dzs, zs, ny, and ly (Megyesi, 2001: 1-2). The Hungarian language is agglutinative which means that grammatical relationships are expressed by using affixes, for example, in order to express possession in the first person singular, the suffix -m must be added to the noun according to vowel harmony – my lamp = lámpám (lámpa + -m, the short a transforms into the long á with the addition of the acute accent) (Megyesi, 2001: 2-4). Another distinctive aspect of the language is its case system. Namely, the number of cases in Hungarian ranges from 17 to 27, and the source of disagreement in a definite number of cases is the fact that some of them have restricted uses (Kenesei and Szécsényi, 2022: 640-641). Finally, the word order in Hungarian is usually described as free, but only on the sentence level and with respect to the grammatical functions of the words and their cases. Focused or emphasised constituents of the sentence have a special position before the finite verb. Because Hungarian shares some typological characteristics of SOV (subject-object-verb) languages since it is

postpositional, i.e., the attribute precedes the noun, it can oftentimes be described as an SOV language. Even though some researchers state that it is partly SOV and partly SVO (subject-verb-object), it is important to highlight that the order of the constituents of the sentence changes depending on the information structure, i.e. what information is in the focus of the sentence (Megyesi, 2001: 11).

As mentioned before, Hungarian is not spoken only in Hungary, therefore, Hungarian as a minority, heritage, or foreign language (HFL) is available to learn in many countries as part of secondary school or university education, as well as in several language schools offering Hungarian language courses. Before, Hungarian had been classified as a minority language in Transcarpathia, but with recent political and economic events, an increasing number of Ukrainians have been learning the language. This need was met with the inclusion of HFL in secondary schools and language courses (Hnatyk, 2018: 53). Even though learning HFL in Hungary goes back all the way to the 14th and 15th centuries, in the modern sense it has been around since about the middle of the 20th century (Hnatyk, 2018: 53). The Debrecen Summer University, founded by János Hankiss, a professor at the Debrecen University, in 1927, allowed students from all over the world to learn HFL. In 1941, 1942, and 1943, the Royal Hungarian Peter Pázmány University of Budapest had a Hungarian language training course intended for beginners and advanced speakers. However, methods of teaching the language started developing in 1964 with the teachers themselves creating the curriculum. Students were classified into 4 groups from beginners to native-level speakers. In more recent years, the teaching of HFL has adapted to the communicative approach in certain coursebooks such as a popular HFL textbook, *MagyarOk*. The Balassi Institute for Hungarian Studies, together with the University of Pécs and its Department of Foreign Languages works to provide opportunities for learning HFL (Hnatyk, 2018: 53-54).

As for the situation in Croatia, Hungarian can not only be learned as a foreign language in several language schools but it can be studied at a university level. At the Department of Hungarian Language and Literature in Osijek, at the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Josip Juraj Strossmayer University of Osijek, Hungarian can be studied at the undergraduate level according to two modules: HFL and Hungarian as a second language (cf. https://www.ffos.unios.hr/). HFL can be also studied at a university level at the Department of Hungarology of the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, University of Zagreb (cf. https://web2020.ffzg.unizg.hr/).

As previously mentioned, Hungarian can be learned from an early age in Croatia, more specifically in Osijek, at the Educational and Cultural Centre of Hungarians in Croatia where Hungarian is taught as a foreign and as a second language to students from the elementary to high school level (Horvátországi Magyar Oktatási és Művelődési Központ, http://www.centar-prosvjetnokulturni-madjara-os.skole.hr/). HFL in Croatian is taught according to three possible models – model A, B, and C. Model A encompasses teaching HFL in Hungarian, model B bilingually (in both Hungarian and Croatian), and model C teaching Hungarian as a heritage language (Ministarstvo znanosti i obrazovanja RH, https://mzo.gov.hr/istaknute-teme/odgoj-i-obrazovanje/obrazovanje-nacionalnih-manjina/571). The following is a comprehensive list of all the schools where Hungarian can be learned in the aforementioned ways.

Table 9. List of schools (Education and Teacher Training Agency, 2023/24).

Model of teaching	Learning level	School	Location
A	Elementary school	Osnovna škola (OŠ) Zmajevac	Zmajevac, PŠ Kotlina, PŠ Novi Bezdan, PŠ Suza
A	Elementary and secondary school	Prosvjetno-kulturni centar Mađara u Republici Hrvatskoj	Osijek
A	Elementary school	OŠ Korog	Korog
B	Elementary school	OŠ Ivana Gundulića	Zagreb
B	Elementary school	OŠ Lug	Lug, PŠ Kopačevo, PŠ Vardarac
C	Elementary school	IV. OŠ Bjelovar	Bjelovar
C	Elementary school	OŠ Antunovac	Antunovac
C	Elementary school	OŠ Čakovci	Čakovci
C	Elementary school	OŠ Stari Jankovci	Stari Jankovci
C	Elementary school	OŠ Dr. Franjo Tuđman	Beli Manastir
C	Elementary school	OŠ Bilje	Bilje
C	Elementary school	OŠ Darda	Darda
C	Elementary school	OŠ Draž	Draž
C	Elementary school	OŠ Kneževi Vinogradi	Kneževi Vinogradi
C	Elementary school	OŠ Jagodnjak	Jagodnjak
C	Elementary school	OŠ Laslovo	Laslovo
C	Elementary school	OŠ Mate Lovrak	Vladislavci
C	Elementary school	OŠ F.K. Frankopana	Osijek
C	Elementary school	OŠ F. Krežme	Osijek
C	Elementary school	OŠ Gradina	Gradina
C	Elementary school	OŠ Vladimira Nazora	Đakovo
C	Elementary school	OŠ Grubišno Polje	Grubišno Polje
C	Elementary school	OŠ Jana Amosa Komenskog	Daruvar
C	Elementary school	OŠ Dežanovac	Dežanovac
C	Elementary school	OŠ Lokva gripe	Split
C	Elementary school	OŠ I.B. Mažuranić	Virovitica
C	Secondary school	Druga srednja škola	Beli Manastir

Besides Hungarian being taught in school, the Centre also provides Hungarian language courses for anyone who might wish to learn Hungarian (cf. https://tecajmadjarskog.com/index-hr.html). The Liszt Institute of the Hungarian Cultural Centre Zagreb also provides Hungarian language courses as do several language schools in Croatia (Liszt Intézet, Magyar Kulturális Központ Zágráb, https://culture.hu/hr/zagreb). What is most important to note is that neither of the mentioned possible Hungarian as foreign language education opportunities offer teacher training, i.e., none of these allow the graduates to become certified teachers of HFL.

5.2 Research on learning Hungarian as a second or foreign language

In comparison to English as a foreign language, research on HFL is remarkably scarce. Stamenkovska et al. (2022) conducted a study which explored international students' motivation for learning Hungarian. The research showed that participants were motivated to learn HFL because they wished to communicate with native speakers by using Hungarian in specific environments, such as the grocery store, the bank, etc. They mainly focused on social interaction with the Hungarian people. The participants mentioned that speaking the language provides opportunities to meet local people and make new friends because it allows them to assimilate and become part of the local community. A better cultural understanding was also one of the reasons for learning Hungarian. Working or studying in Hungary, finding a job, renting a flat, or attending many Hungarian events were also among the more important reasons mentioned. Finally, the students also mentioned that they were motivated to learn Hungarian by the fact that some people in Hungary do not speak English (Stamenkovska et al., 2022: 219-222). Since communication with native speakers is the main motivation for learning Hungarian, immersing oneself in the Hungarian culture while learning the language is one of the best ways to master it. According to Van Ek (1986, as cited in Levente et al., 2020: 92-93), sociocultural and social competence are two important facets of the ability to process one's own cultural background while interacting with others. Sociocultural competence is the ability to function in a different culture, whereas social competence is the knowledge of different social customs (Van Ek, 1986, as cited in Levente et al., 2020: 92-93). These two competencies are a part of intercultural key competencies which are made up of attitudes, knowledge, and skills. All those aspects together are necessary for successful foreign language learning and teaching. Attitudes include curiosity and openness to get to know other cultures and one's own culture without prejudice, knowledge includes the speaker's knowledge of social and communication practices typical of the foreign language culture and country, and finally, skills are necessary to interpret the

interaction between representatives of different cultures. When there is a suitable cultural context during the learning and teaching of a foreign language, knowledge and language culture develop together (Levente et al., 2022: 92-93). In the case of Fajt's (2023) research which provided an overview of courses available at the Faculty of Finance and Accountancy at the Budapest Business school, as well as offered a brief insight into their students' second language learning motivation, learners of HFL exhibited an interest in meeting Hungarian people, but they seemed to be less interested in the language itself. Furthermore, their willingness to communicate in and out of class was low which showed their dislike towards speaking Hungarian even though their speaking anxiety level was not high enough to inhibit speaking (Fajt, 2023: 158).

6. Exploring the relationship between speaking strategies and willingness to communicate in English and Hungarian as foreign languages

6.1 Methodology

The fact that HFL is a highly under-researched area merits more attention. Given the differences in the status of Hungarian and English in the Croatian context, it would be interesting to have a deeper insight into how students of the two languages cope with speaking. Therefore, the present study sets out to explore the relationship between strategies students employ to develop or enhance their speaking skill on the one hand, and the level of their willingness to communicate in their respective foreign languages on the other.

The research questions of this thesis are:

1. Is there a difference in the use of speaking strategies between the students of the two languages?
2. Is there a stronger willingness to communicate in one of the languages?
3. Is there more self-initiated conversing and speaking in one of the languages?
4. Is there a correlation between speaking strategies use, willingness to communicate, and the self-perceived importance of becoming proficient in the two languages?

6.1.1. Sample

The participants of this study were 84 students of English Language and Literature (n = 51) and Hungarian Language and Literature (n = 33) at the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Josip Juraj Strossmayer University of Osijek. The majority of the participants were female (68 participants, 81%), and 16 (19%) were male.

6.1.2. Instruments

The use of speaking strategies was measured using a questionnaire (see Appendix A and B) that was compiled on the basis of the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL; (Oxford, 1990) and Zhang and Goh's (2006) listening and speaking strategy questionnaire. It contained 20 items followed by a 5-point Likert scale (1 – never or almost never true for me, 5 – always or almost always true for me).

The questionnaire measuring willingness to communicate was created following Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Pawlak's (2016) WTC scale. The present scale is a selection of original items that were adapted to correspond to the specificities of using English and Hungarian as foreign languages in the Croatian context by tertiary-level students. The final version consisted of 16 items followed by a 6-point Likert scale (1 – not at all true for me, 6 – extremely true for me) To measure the internal consistency of scale items, the Cronbach alpha coefficient was calculated for the two scales. The Cronbach's alpha was .815 for the Speaking Strategy Scale, and .926 for the Willingness to Communicate Scale, both indicating good internal consistency.

6.1.3. Procedure

The data was collected by administering the questionnaire to students of English Language and Literature and Hungarian Language and Literature at all levels. The English students received the questionnaire in English, whereas the Hungarian students received a translated Croatian version. The data was analysed using the SPSS software for statistical analysis.

7. Results

The results of the statistical analysis are systematically presented based on the specific research questions they address.

7.1 RQ1: Is there a difference in the use of speaking strategies between the students of the two languages?

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the use of speaking strategies by English and Hungarian students. As the results in Table 10 indicate, there was a statistically significant difference in scores for the two groups of students.

Table 10. Comparison of the use of speaking strategies of students of English and Hungarian.

Group Statistics							
Speaking Strategies	**Language**	**N**	**Mean**	**SD**	**t**	**df**	**p**
	English	51	3.3324	.51748	6.52	82	<.001
	Hungarian	33	2.6424	.39570			

Results showed that avoidance was more frequently used; however, it was not statistically significant. Also, when it comes to the more frequent use of compensation, the only evidence is that students of Hungarian showed more use of their first language (L1), Croatian. The detailed results of the Independent Sample Test can be seen in Appendix C, Table C1.

7.2 RQ2: Is there a stronger willingness to communicate (WTC) in one of the languages?

Statistical analysis of the data confirmed that there was a stronger willingness to communicate in English (see Table 11 below).

Table 11. Comparison of the WTC of English and Hungarian.

Group Statistics							
WTC	**Language**	**N**	**Mean**	**SD**	**t**	**df**	**p**
	English	51	4.2953	.90313	6.60	82	<.001
	Hungarian	33	2.9867	.86303			

7.3 RQ3: Is there more self-initiated conversing and speaking in one of the languages?

According to the data analysed, there was more self-initiated conversing and speaking in English. Results yielded by the Independent Sample Test can be seen below in Table 12.

Table 12. Results of the Independent Samples Test.

QUESTIONNAIRE ITEM	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Presenting arguments	5.277	82	.000*
Giving a presentation	1.787	82	.078
Role-play	1.198	82	.234
Discussion	5.780	53.517	.000*
Ask professor to repeat themselves	2.611	82	.011
Ask professor about structures	1.217	82	.227
Ask peers about forms	5.803	82	.000
Ask peers about ideas	8.228	82	.000
Correct others	4.803	82	.000
Correct myself	7.148	82	.000
Initiate communication	3.474	82	.001
Speak to a group of Eng/Hun people	6.181	46.738	.000*
Speak to professor out of class	1.160	82	.249
Contribute to debate	2.849	82	.006
Respond to professor	7.259	42.399	.000*
Speak without preparation	3.945	82	.000

*Statistically significant differences are marked with an asterisk.

7.4 RQ4: Is there a correlation between speaking strategies use, WTC, and the self-perceived importance of becoming proficient?

The relationship between speaking strategy use, WTC, and self-perceived importance of becoming proficient was investigated using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. The results are presented in Table 13. There was a large, positive correlation between speaking strategies and WTC (r = 1, n = 84, p < .001), and a medium, positive correlation between WTC and self-perceived importance of becoming proficient (r = 1, n = 84, p < .001). There was no significant correlation between speaking strategies and self-perceived importance of becoming proficient (r = 1 n = 84, p < .001).

Table 13. Pearson Correlation – SS use, WTC, and the self-perceived importance of becoming proficient

	SS USE	WTC
WTC	.695**	
PROFICIENCY IMPORTANCE	.199	.291**
N	= 84	

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

When observing only the subsample containing data collected from students of English, there was a correlation between SS use and WTC (see Table 14 below). There was a strong, positive correlation between the use of SS and WTC ($r = 1$, $n = 51$, $p < .001$).

Table 14. Correlation between SS use and WTC in the English subsample

	SS USE	WTC
WTC	.615**	
PROFICIENCY IMPORTANCE	-.021	.106
n	= 51	

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

In the subsample of students of Hungarian, there was a large, positive correlation between the use of SS and WTC ($r = 1$, $n = 51$, $p < .001$), (see also Table 15 below)

Table 15. Correlation between SS use and WTC in the Hungarian subsample

	SS USE	WTC
WTC	.375*	
PROFICIENCY IMPORTANCE	.189	.271
n	= 33	

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

8. Discussion

8.1 Difference in the use of speaking strategies

The first research question dealt with whether the use of speaking strategies (SS) differed between the students of English and Hungarian. The results presented in Chapter 7 showed that there was a difference. Namely, it was concluded that students of English have a higher frequency of SS use in general (see Table 10). However, both groups of students used speaking strategies. When observing the results on SS use (see Appendix C, Table C2, it is visible that students of English use the following speaking strategies the most: self-monitoring (learning from your mistakes), using synonyms, and using progressive relaxation techniques (relaxing). Self-monitoring, an indirect metacognitive strategy, is used when a learner wants to identify their errors in understanding or producing the new language. This allows them to define which errors are important, what their source is, and how they can work to eliminate them and improve their language knowledge (Oxford, 1990: 140). That strategy had the highest Mean value of all (4.37). The second most used strategy, using synonyms or circumlocutions (M = 4.17), helps speakers when they do not know or cannot recall a certain word they would like to use. This strategy belongs to the category of compensation strategies (Oxford, 1990: 51). The final most frequently used speaking strategy was using progressive relaxation techniques (M = 4.01). When it comes to students of Hungarian, the strategies they use the most (see Table 19 above) were adjusting or approximating the message (simplification) (M = 3.45), switching to the mother tongue (using their first language (L1)) (M = 3.39), and getting help (M = 3.30). Adjusting or approximating the message is used when a speaker alters the message by omitting some information or simplifying the idea (Oxford, 1990: 50). Speakers switch to the mother tongue as a means of compensating for an expression or word they may not know (Oxford, 1990: 50). Finally, the third most used strategy was getting help, which encompasses hesitating while speaking or explicitly asking someone to provide the missing expression in the target language (Oxford, 1990: 50). Several reasons underlying these results might be discussed. The use of speaking strategies by students of English shows that they use them more frequently than students of Hungarian. It can be assumed that English students' proficiency in the foreign language they study is higher than that of Hungarian students. This is in line with Griffiths (2008: 89), who claims that higher-level students use strategies more frequently. Furthermore, previous research has shown that successful proficient learners use strategies more often and are aware of it, i.e., they are able to

control their strategy use (Božinović and Perić, 2012: 122). Since students of Hungarian in the present sample have never been directly familiarised with learning strategies in general and thus are not familiar with the possibility of the use of speaking strategies, they might not be aware of the ones they might be using and how their use might benefit them. It is interesting to observe the results considering which categories of strategies the two groups of students used the most. As was explained above (see also Table 19), students of English use mostly metacognitive speaking strategies, whereas students of Hungarian use compensatory speaking strategies. According to Anderson (2008: 101), the metacognitive ability to decide about using certain strategies is an indication that the learner can think and make conscious decisions about their learning process. This study showed that students of English use the metacognitive strategy of learning from one's own mistakes the most frequently. It may be taken as another indication that they are more proficient users of the foreign language than students of Hungarian are. The use of this strategy namely shows that English students can monitor their learning by recognising where and when they made a mistake and that they can correct it.

Compensation strategies are used to help speakers of a foreign language use it despite any gaps in knowledge or issues in comprehension or production (Oxford, 1990: 47). Interestingly, students of Hungarian use compensation strategies the most frequently. Among them, the most frequent speaking strategy was adjusting or approximating the message. This might point to the fact that they cannot formulate the message to correspond to their conceptualisations. But, they used this strategy more often than the strategy of falling back on their L1, which shows that they are competent enough in the language to use synonyms and simplify what they would like to say to get the message across. It did not come as a surprise that students of Hungarian used their L1, Croatian, and avoidance more often than students of English. However, the difference in the use of avoidance was not statistically significant. As has already been speculated, a more frequent use of compensation strategies could be attributed to a lower foreign language proficiency level of Hungarian students, which might be related to other difficulties, such as an increased level of speaking anxiety. According to MacIntyre (1999: 27 as cited in Dörnyei 2005), second language anxiety is defined as "the worry and negative emotional reaction aroused when learning or using a second language" (Dörnyei, 2005: 199). Dörnyei argues that this type of anxiety is not a transfer of general anxiety but is its own variable (2005: 199). Moreover, an insight into the classroom might reveal potential differences in the teaching approaches: it is the experience of the author that Hungarian students are

not required to speak in Hungarian in classes as much as they are in English classes. Since the majority of Hungarian students in the present sample had little or no prior knowledge of the language at the time of enrolment, it is natural that they occasionally use their L1 or avoid messages. Avoidance in speaking a second or foreign language is a strategy that learners might decide to use to overcome a communicative difficulty (Laufer and Eliasson, 1993: 36), a situation easily conceivable in a class of beginners learning a difficult language such as Hungarian. When this type of strategy is used, a target language word or structure perceived as difficult by the learner is avoided and replaced by a simpler expression. Nevertheless, it is important to note that avoidance should not be viewed as a sign of ignorance or incompetence since it presumes that a learner is aware of the target language structure or word and is showing the intent of replacing it with something familiar (Laufer and Eliasson, 1993: 36). It should also be noted that avoidance does not normally result in error (Laufer and Eliasson, 1993: 36; Kleinmann, 1977: 106). It is the underlying factors, such as the learner's individual characteristics or speaking anxiety, that could give the opposite effect. Therefore, the possible influence of participants' personality type cannot be excluded as a potential cause of differences. Extroverted students are usually more talkative than introverts, both in their L1 and L2. Since introverts sometimes suffer from anxiety, they go back to controlled serial processing rather than automatic parallel processing which then overloads their working memory and as a result, their speech tends to slow down making them hesitate more and make more errors without being able to produce utterances of significant length (Dewaele and Furnham, 2000 as cited in Dörnyei, 2005: 26-27). Unfortunately, this variable was not taken into account in the present study.

8.2 Stronger willingness to communicate

According to MacIntyre et al. (1998: 547-548), WTC can be defined as being ready to enter into a discourse at a certain time with specific people using a second or foreign language. As mentioned above (see Chapter 3, Figure 5), WTC is affected by six different variables – communication behaviour, behavioural intention, situated antecedents, motivational propensities, affective-cognitive context, and social and individual context (MacIntyre et al., 1998: 547). The results of this study showed that English students had a stronger willingness to communicate (see Appendix C, Table C.2.). A closer look at the results showed that students of English were most likely to respond to their professors in English (M = 5.56), that they were prone to correct themselves while speaking (M = 5.26), and that they usually decided to participate in classroom discussions (M = 4.98). As for students of Hungarian, they reported giving presentations in front of their peers and professor (M =

4.06), being prone to responding to their professors in Hungarian (M = 3.81), as well as correcting themselves while speaking (M = 3.78). In order to better understand and interpret the results, they are viewed in the context of The Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) (see Chapter 3, Figure 5) where they are paired with their corresponding layer (see Table 16 below and Appendix C, Table C.3.).

Table 16. Results of the WTC part of the questionnaire paired with layers of TPB.

QUESTIONNAIRE ITEM	THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOUR	MEAN (SD) (Eng)	MEAN (SD) (Hun)
Give a presentation in front of the class.	Situated Antecedents; Motivational Propensities	4.60 (1.41)	4.06 (1.29)
Take part in a discussion in a small group/pair.	Communication Behaviour; Motivational Propensities	4.98 (1.15)	3.12 (1.59)
Correct myself while speaking.	Affective-Cognitive Competence	5.25 (0.86)	3.78 (0.99)
Respond when the professor asks me a question in English/Hungarian.	Situated Antecedents	5.56 (0.64)	3.81 (1.28)

According to the results, it is visible that students of English showed the highest score for responding to their professor when they were asked a question in the target language. This questionnaire item correlates to the TPB's layer labelled Situated Antecedents. Namely, Situated Antecedents consist of the desire to communicate with a specific person, which deals with either control or affiliation, which are concepts closely connected to interindividual and intergroup motivation and state self-confidence, which includes perceived competence and lack of anxiety (MacIntyre et al., 1998: 548-552). Perceived competence, or state perceived competence, refers to the feeling that one has the capacity to communicate effectively at a particular moment. It arises when one is in a situation that has been encountered previously, provided that they have developed language knowledge and skills. State perceived competence is reduced if the learner has a lower level of competence which is necessary, and with that, WTC is automatically drastically lowered (MacIntyre et al., 1998: 549). When it comes to state anxiety, it varies in intensity and fluctuates over time, and it is important to note that anything that increases it will decrease self-confidence and with that, WTC (MacIntyre et al., 1998: 549). Therefore, it can be concluded, from the results and theoretical interpretation, that students of English show a higher level of linguistic competence as well as a lower level of state anxiety, whereas students of Hungarian have a lower level of linguistic competence and a higher level of state anxiety. The questionnaire item with the highest score among

students of Hungarian was giving a presentation in front of the class. This item corresponds to two layers: Motivational Propensities and Affective-Cognitive Competence. Motivational Propensities consist of interpersonal and intergroup motivation and L2 self-confidence. Interpersonal motivation is specific to the individual and describes their relationship to the people who speak the L2, and intergroup motivation is derived directly from the individual's belonging to a group, as opposed to playing a social role within a group. Furthermore, interpersonal motivation takes into consideration two different purposes of communication – control and affiliation. Control instigates communication behaviour that aims at limiting the cognitive, affective, and behavioural freedom of the communicators. An example of such communication is between a doctor and a patient. Affiliation, on the other hand, is governed by the amount of interest in establishing a relationship with the interlocutor, for example, communication between two friends (MacIntyre et al., 1998: 550). L2 self-confidence concerns the relationship between the individual and the L2. This specific questionnaire item corresponds to the L2 self-confidence concept. Namely, since students of Hungarian gave the highest score to this item, it shows that they are confident enough in their relationship with Hungarian, their L2. The second concept that the questionnaire item is paired with is the Affective-Cognitive Context. The Affective-Cognitive Competence consists of the following: intergroup attitudes, social situation, and communicative competence (MacIntyre et al., 1998: 554). Communicative competence is the most important aspect in question and it helps to conclude that, according to the results, students of Hungarian show a high level of discourse competence, one of the five dimensions of communicative competence. The following two questionnaire items were among the ones with highest scores: firstly, correcting oneself in speech was the second highest with the students of English (M = 5.25), and the third with students of Hungarian (M = 3.78). This questionnaire item corresponds to the Affective-Cognitive Competence layer, communicative linguistic competence. This communicative competence dimension refers to an existing knowledge of basic elements of communication, syntactic and morphological rules, lexical resources, and phonological and orthographic systems, which are necessary to realise spoken or written communication (MacIntyre et al., 1998: 554). The development and level of linguistic competence are viewed as a precondition of WTC (MacIntyre et al., 1998: 554). This helps to conclude that both English and Hungarian students have a linguistic competence at the level that allows them to correct themselves while speaking. However, it could also be a sign of insecurity when speaking. Namely, it could be assumed that a person who very often corrects themselves while speaking could, at times,

be viewed as someone who is not confident enough in their speaking abilities, or simply not aware enough, i.e., not concentrated enough when speaking.

8.3. Higher level of self-initiated conversing and speaking

When it comes to self-initiated conversing and speaking, students of English show an overall higher level (see Appendix C, Table C.2. – highlighted items). Table 17 shows the mean values of all questionnaire items regarding self-initiated conversing and speaking.

Table 17. WTC questionnaire items regarding self-initiated conversing and speaking.

QUESTIONNAIRE ITEM	MEAN (SD)	
	English	**Hungarian**
1 Present my arguments to the rest of my class.	4.11 (1.35)	2.51 (1.37)
2 Take part in a discussion in a small group/pair.	4.98 (1.15)	3.12 (1.59)
3 In English/Hungarian, ask the professor to repeat what they said.	4.19 (1.56)	3.33 (1.33)
4 In English/Hungarian, ask the professor about words or structures they just used.	3.11 (1.64)	2.69 (1.38)
5 In English/Hungarian, ask my peers about words/forms related to the topic.	4.15 (1.52)	2.24 (1.39)
6 In English/Hungarian, ask my peers about ideas/arguments related to the topic.	4.43 (1.38)	2.06 (1.11)
7 Initiate communication with a group of English/Hungarian people I meet.	4.07 (1.57)	2.84 (1.60)
8 Speak to my English/Hungarian professors in an out of class situation, in English/Hungarian.	3.35 (1.75)	2.90 (1.64)
9 Speak without preparation in class.	4.43 (1.52)	3.06 (1.59)

The results of the specific items of the questionnaire can be grouped and observed according to the kind of communicating they are representative of. For example, items number 1 and 9 are concerned with the speaker speaking on their own in front of the class, items number 3, 4, and 8 with speaking to a professor, items 2, 5, and 6 with communicating with peers, and item 7 concerns communicating with a native speaker. There are several factors present which can help explain why this is the case. Riasati (2018) proposed a model of WTC which consists of two groups of factors: environmental and individual. Environmental factors include those present in the classroom environment, i.e., task type, topic, interlocutor, teacher, classroom atmosphere, and seating arrangement. Individual factors refer to the individual's personal characteristics such as personality, self-confidence, the degree of opportunity in a language class, fear of evaluation, and fear of the correctness of their speech (Riasati, 2018: 14). As the scores on items 1 and 9 in the present study show, students of English

have a higher tendency to communicate in front of their peers and have less trouble speaking up during class. These items can be considered individual factors since they consider the individual's self-confidence. The factors described by Riasati (2018: 14) influence the individual's WTC and, with that, help to further their L2 skills, as mentioned by McCroskey and Richmond (1987: 129-152). Namely, they believe that WTC plays a central role in determining an individual's impact on others and their communication in general. According to McCroskey and Richmond (1987: 145-147), high WTC is associated with an increased frequency and amount of communication which in turn are associated with a variety of positive communication outcomes. Low WTC, on the other hand, is associated with a variety of negative communication outcomes and decreased frequency and amount of communication. In summary, low skills lead to lowered WTC, which may lead to a decreased experience in communication and reduced skills (McCroskey and Richmond, 1987: 141-147). The present results imply that students of English have less fear of negative evaluation and correctness of their speech. Items 3, 4, and 8, which concern the student's interaction with their professors, did not show too much of a difference between the two groups of students. Some possible reasons might be that both students of English and Hungarian feel comfortable enough with their professors and within the classroom to speak up if they need something to be repeated or if they have more questions about certain linguistic items being taught or practised. Similarly, there was not a great difference between the two groups when it came to using L2 in speaking to their professors outside of a classroom situation. Since students of Hungarian are mostly taught by native speakers of Hungarian, this did not come as a surprise.

The third possible group of questionnaire items regarding self-initiated conversing and speaking refers to speaking with peers. Taking part in a discussion in a small group or pair is the one item that had the smallest difference between the mean values of the two groups of students. The reason for this might be that the students, in fact, have the possibility to use L1 if needed. This could also be influenced by the environmental factors explained above, for example, there could not be enough time to finish the task, the topic might not be familiar enough, the professor might not check on the students as much, etc., which could result in the students' occasional use of their L1. English students are more likely to communicate with their peers about linguistic items and ideas or arguments about the topic at hand than students of Hungarian. A possible reason for this could be an inefficient amount of L2 knowledge as well as a lower L2 self-confidence. The final questionnaire item refers to initiating communication with L2 speakers, and the results show that students of

English are more likely to do so. This was expected since, when viewing English as a foreign language in general, it is more present in day-to-day life than Hungarian is.

8.4 Correlation between SS use, WTC, and self-perceived importance of being proficient

The final research question of this thesis dealt with the relationship between the use of speaking strategies, willingness to communicate, and the self-perceived importance of being proficient. The correlation was significant only between SS use and WTC and between WTC and the self-perceived importance of being proficient (see Table 12): there was a large positive correlation between the use of SS and WTC overall, i.e., the more frequently participants used SS, the higher their WTC. This result was expected since the use of SS is supposed to further one's linguistic capabilities and, with that, increase the level of WTC. This goes in line with what was previously discussed regarding the way that WTC, according to McCroskey and Richmond (1987: 141-147), influences the frequency of communication and its outcome. Namely, in this case, high WTC results in a higher frequency of communication which then results in positive communication outcomes. Also, higher language skills lead to higher WTC, which results, again, in positive communication experiences. What could be the case here is that language skills are being furthered by the use of speaking strategies. As mentioned earlier, speaking strategies are those actions that allow the speaker to complete a speaking task successfully. What this could potentially mean is that the use of speaking strategies can be added to the list of the antecedents of WTC.

There was also a significant correlation between WTC and the self-perceived importance of becoming proficient. The self-perceived importance of becoming proficient was investigated in the first part of the questionnaire (see Appendices A and B). This was also expected since it is highly unlikely that a student who perceives the importance of proficiency as high would have a low level of WTC. Finally, there was a positive correlation between the use of SS and WTC amongst the two subgroups of students (students of English and students of Hungarian), respectively. These results show the importance of WTC and SS in speaking, but also that they are interconnected and as such might contribute to the development of language proficiency and communicative competence.

9. Implications

Since this study dealt with the relationship between the use of speaking strategies and willingness to communicate in English and Hungarian as foreign languages, a number of implications for second language students, teachers, and institutions can be drawn from the results. Firstly, the use of L1, with both groups of students, but primarily with students of Hungarian, should be as limited as possible. Namely, this compensation strategy allows students to take the easier route and try to express themselves without using the required L2. Even though this strategy might have a positive side in that it lowers speaking anxiety, it does not fare well for the long-term development of linguistic ability and communicative competence. But, in order to understand the impact of this strategy, the environment in which language learning is taking place must be considered. Namely, both students of English and students of Hungarian in the present sample use the target language in an L1 environment, so it is rather expected that they most frequently use their L1 as a speaking strategy since it is efficient in their environment. It is also important to note that students of Hungarian are mostly beginners and have little to no prior knowledge of the language. Not using the L1 is, therefore, quite difficult to do, but there are certain ways that this could be overcome. For example, the most obvious way of teaching that facilitates the use of L2 would be by using the direct method, i.e., the case where L2 mirrors L1 acquisition which consists of lots of speaking interactions, less focus on grammar, and no translating (Miles, 2004: 7). L2 should be used in any and every interaction as much as possible, and L1 should be avoided because it might hinder L2 learning and, with that, decrease WTC and increase the possibility of negative communicative experiences, which in turn might allow for the development of communication apprehension, i.e., unwillingness to communicate. Secondly, both groups of students, especially students of Hungarian, should be made more aware of the existence and use of SS. The integration of SS and LLS teaching should result in students who are more self-aware of their language learning experience. This would not only help with being more in tune with language learning and use, but it would also help students become more confident in their language use. Another important facet of SS awareness is that it helps students to understand their strengths and weaknesses in L2 use; for example, students might be great at making speeches or giving presentations, but they might not be as ready or capable to take part in an organic conversation or discussion. When focusing only on students of Hungarian, this should be one of the most important parts of their L2 learning experience since they are beginners, which means that they usually do not have any prior knowledge to fall back on. Finally,

focus should be put on raising awareness of lowering speaking anxiety in order to further positive communication experiences. This is very important since it leads to more self-initiated conversing and speaking, as well as speaking overall. Raising awareness of lowering the speaking anxiety of L2 students could be done in several ways, but the most obvious and easiest way would be via the introduction to affective speaking strategies. This could be furthered by allowing students to keep a language learning diary in which they would take note of their anxiety levels while speaking in and out of a classroom setting using the L2, or by encouraging students to speak up about the way that they feel when they are supposed to use the L2 they are learning and giving them ideas on how to inhibit anxious behaviours.

10. Conclusion

This master's thesis investigated the relationship between speaking strategies and willingness to communicate in English and Hungarian as foreign languages. The results of the research showed that both groups of students used SS, but students of English use them more often than students of Hungarian. According to the results, students of English use self-monitoring (M = 4.37), synonyms (M = 4.17), and progressive relaxation techniques (M = 4.01) most frequently. When it comes to students of Hungarian, results showed that they use simplification (M = 3.45), switching to the mother tongue (M = 3.39), and getting help (M = 3.30). Several conclusions can be drawn from the results. First, students of English may be operating at a higher level of language use and have higher linguistic knowledge. They use mostly metacognitive strategies, which leads to the conclusion that they are more proficient language users. Lastly, since students of Hungarian use mostly compensatory strategies, one might assume that they have less linguistic capability. However, this could also be taken as an indication of the existence of speaking anxiety. Students of English showed a higher level of WTC, which, according to The Theory of Planned Behaviour, correlates with a higher level of linguistic competence and a lower level of state anxiety. When it comes to students of Hungarian in this case, the results showed that they were confident enough with their relationship with the language, but their low level of WTC might indicate insecurity when speaking. It was not expected that students of Hungarian would have a lower level of self-initiated speaking and conversing since they are mostly taught by native speakers of the language. It was concluded, however, that this could be the result of the influence of environmental factors. Namely, students of Hungarian might not have to use the L2 exclusively during class, so they are aware of the fact that they can fall back on their L1, thus lowering the anxiety they could have when speaking Hungarian. Finally, the correlation between SS use and WTC, as well as between WTC and the self-perceived importance of being proficient, was expected since the use of SS furthers the development of WTC level, as postulated by underlying theories. The correlation between WTC and the self-perceived importance of being proficient showed that it is not likely that an L2 speaker with a low level of WTC would show a high level of proficiency importance. Both subgroups of students also have a higher level of WTC with a higher frequency of use of SS, which underscores the claim that WTC and SS use are, indeed, positively connected.

There were certain limitations and challenges that this research faced. The limitations included the uneven distribution of students in the two groups, as well as the lack of a deeper insight into the way classes at both Departments are managed. The number of students could not be controlled, as the number of students at the Department of English Language and Literature is significantly larger than in the Department of Hungarian. A follow-up study could include observation of classes at both Departments in order to better understand the environmental factors and to get a better sense of the classroom atmosphere. In addition, interviews with students and professors could be conducted to complement the results of the questionnaire.

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Appendix A

The Relationship between Speaking Strategies and Willingness to Communicate in English as a Foreign Language

Questionnaire

This questionnaire will be used only for the purposes of writing a Master's thesis on the topic of the relationship between speaking strategies and willingness to communicate. The questionnaire is anonymous.

Before the actual questionnaire on the topic mentioned, You will find a background questionnaire. Information from this questionnaire will be used solely for general information and statistical purposes.

BACKGROUND QUESTIONNAIRE

Please circle/fill in the answer that best suits You.

1. Gender (circle):

M / F

2. Year of studying (circle):

1st year undergraduate 1st year graduate

2nd year undergraduate 2nd year graduate

3rd year undergraduate

3. Study programme (smjer):

_____

5. How important is it for You to become proficient in the language You are studying (circle)?

very important important not so important

The next part is the main questionnaire.

Please answer the questions according to what is true for You when speaking **in English**.

Please pay attention to the instructions You will find at the bottom of this page.

→ INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE MAIN QUESTIONNAIRE

- **the main questionnaire will consist of two parts**
- **please make sure to ANSWER WHAT IS CORRECT FOR YOU**
- **only CIRCLE the answers, do not write anything on the questionnaire**

PART ONE

This part of the questionnaire will explore Your preferences in using certain speaking strategies.

Circle numbers 1-5 as it corresponds to You:

1 – never or almost never true

2 – generally not true

3 – somewhat true

4 – generally true

5 – always or almost always true

1. I imitate the way native speakers talk.

1	2	3	4	5

2. I practice the sounds of the alphabet of English.

1	2	3	4	5

3. I initiate conversations in English.

1	2	3	4	5

4. I attend and participate in out-of-class events where English is spoken.

1	2	3	4	5

5. I actively look for people with whom I can speak English.

1	2	3	4	5

6. I learn from the mistakes I make when I speak English.

1	2	3	4	5

7. I try to relax whenever I feel anxious about speaking English.

1	2	3	4	5

8. I actively encourage myself to take wise risks in speaking, even though I might make some mistakes.

1	2	3	4	5

9. I talk to someone I trust about my attitudes and feelings concerning speaking in English.

1	2	3	4	5

Circle numbers 1-5 as it corresponds to You:

1 – never or almost never true

2 – generally not true

3 – somewhat true

4 – generally true

5 – always or almost always true

10. I ask other people to verify that I have understood or said something correctly.

1	2	3	4	5

11. I ask other people to correct my pronunciation.

1	2	3	4	5

12. I work with other language learners to practice speaking English.

1	2	3	4	5

13. When I am talking to a native speaker, I try to let them know when I need help.

1	2	3	4	5

14. In conversation with others in English, I ask questions in order to be as involved as possible and to show I am interested.

1	2	3	4	5

15. I use a word or phrase that means the same when I cannot think of an English word.

1	2	3	4	5

16. I use a Croatian expression when I cannot think of an English word during a conversation.

1	2	3	4	5

17. I ask for help from the person I am addressing when I cannot think of an English word during a conversation.

1	2	3	4	5

18. I avoid certain topics or situations during a conversation in English because they are too difficult.

1	2	3	4	5

19. If I cannot think of English words to say a message, I make the idea simpler.

1	2	3	4	5

20. I think of what I want to say in Croatian, and I say it out loud in English.

1	2	3	4	5

PART TWO

This part of the questionnaire will explore Your willingness to communicate in specific settings.

Circle numbers 1-5 as it corresponds to You:

1 – not at all true

2 – very slightly true

3 – slightly true

4 – moderately true

5 – very much true

6 – extremely true

I am willing to…

1. Present my arguments to the rest of my class.

1	2	3	4	5	6

2. Give a presentation in front of the class.

1	2	3	4	5	6

3. Do a role-play in a small group/pair.

1	2	3	4	5	6

4. Take part in a discussion in a small group/pair.

1	2	3	4	5	6

5. In English, ask the professor to repeat what they said.

1	2	3	4	5	6

6. In English, ask the professor about words or structures they just used.

1	2	3	4	5	6

7. In English, ask my peers about forms/words related to the topic.

1	2	3	4	5	6

8. In English, ask my peers about ideas/arguments related to the topic.

1	2	3	4	5	6

Circle numbers 1-5 as it corresponds to You:

1 – not at all true

2 – very slightly true

3 – slightly true

4 – moderately true

5 – very much true

6 – extremely true

9. Correct a mistake that I notice in what others are saying.

1	2	3	4	5	6

10. Correct myself when speaking.

1	2	3	4	5	6

11. Initiate communication with a group of English people I meet.

1	2	3	4	5	6

12. Speak to a group of English people who need assistance.

1	2	3	4	5	6

13. Speak to my English professors in an out of class situation, in English.

1	2	3	4	5	6

14. Contribute to a class debate.

1	2	3	4	5	6

15. Respond when the professor asks me a question in English.

1	2	3	4	5	6

16. Speak without preparation in class.

1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix B

Odnos strategija govorenja i spremnosti na komunikaciju na mađarskom kao stranom jeziku

Upitnik

Ovaj upitnik koristit će se isključivo u svrhu pripremanja diplomskog rada na temu odnosa strategija govorenja i spremnosti na komunikaciju na mađarskom kao stranom jeziku. Ovaj upitnik je anoniman.

Prije samog upitnika vezanog uz već spomenutu temu, nalazi se kratki upitnik o općenitim podatcima o ispitaniku. Ovi podatci koristit će se isključivo u svrhu statističke obrade.

Molim zaokružite onaj odgovor koji se odnosi na Vas:

1. Spol (zaokružite):

M / Ž

2. Godina studiranja (zaokružite):

1. godina preddiplomskog studija
2. godina preddiplomskog studija
3. godina preddiplomskog studija
1. godina diplomskog studija
2. godina diplomskog studija

3. Studijski program, smjer:

_____

4. Koliko Vam je bitno postati vješt/a u korištenju jezika kojega učite (zaokružite)?

vrlo važno važno nije toliko važno

Ono što slijedi je glavni upitnik.

Molim Vas, odgovarajte na pitanja prema onome što je točno za Vas prilikom **korištenja mađarskog jezika.**

Molim Vas, obratite pažnju na upute za rješavanje upitnika koje se nalaze na dnu ove stranice.

→ UPUTE ZA RJEŠAVANJE GLAVNOG UPITNIKA:

- **glavni upitnik sastoji se od dva dijela**
- **molim Vas, pripazite na to da odgovarate točno onako kako smatrate da je istinito za Vas**
- **zaokružujte odgovore, nije potrebno ništa pisati po marginama ili po upitniku**

PRVI DIO

Upitnik o korištenju strategija govorenja

Ovaj dio upitnika se odnosi na Vaše izbore pri korištenju određenih strategija govorenja.

Zaokružite brojeve od 1 do 5, kako se oni odnose na Vas:

1 – uopće se ne odnosi na mene

2 – rijetko se odnosi na mene

3 – povremeno se odnosi na mene

4 – često se odnosi na mene

5 – uvijek ili gotovo uvijek se odnosi na mene

1. Oponašam govor izvornih govornika mađarskog jezika.

1 2 3 4 5

2. Vježbam izgovor glasova mađarskog jezika.

1 2 3 4 5

3. Samostalno započinjem razgovor na mađarskom jeziku.

1 2 3 4 5

4. Prisustvujem i sudjelujem u izvannastavnim događajima u kojima se govori na mađarskom.

1 2 3 4 5

5. Aktivno tražim osobe s kojima mogu razgovarati na mađarskom.

1 2 3 4 5

6. Učim na vlastitim greškama koje činim kada govorim mađarski.

1 2 3 4 5

7. Pokušam se opustiti kada osjećam tjeskobu prilikom govorenja na mađarskom.

1 2 3 4 5

8. Aktivno se ohrabrujem govoriti na mađarskom iako pravim greške.

1 2 3 4 5

9. Razgovaram s drugima o mojim stavovima i osjećajima koji se tiču govorenja na mađarskom jeziku.

1 2 3 4 5

Zaokružite brojeve od 1 do 5, kako se oni odnose na Vas:

1 – uopće se ne odnosi na mene

2 – rijetko se odnosi na mene

3 – povremeno se odnosi na mene

4 – često se odnosi na mene

5 – uvijek ili gotovo uvijek se odnosi na mene

10. Pitam druge da mi potvrde jesam li razumio/razumjela ili rekao/rekla nešto točno.

1	2	3	4	5

11. Pitam druge da mi isprave izgovor.

1	2	3	4	5

12. Učim i vježbam jezik s drugim studentima mađarskog jezika.

1	2	3	4	5

13. Pitam izvornog govornika za pomoć kada razgovaram s njima.

1	2	3	4	5

14. Aktivno sudjelujem u razgovoru s drugima na mađarskom jeziku kako bih pokazao/pokazala da sam uključen/a.

1	2	3	4	5

15. Kada se ne mogu sjetiti riječi na mađarskom jeziku, koristim neku drugu riječ ili frazu koja ima isto značenje.

1	2	3	4	5

16. Kada se ne mogu sjetiti riječi na mađarskom jeziku, koristim riječ na hrvatskom.

1	2	3	4	5

17. Kada se ne mogu sjetiti riječi na mađarskom jeziku, pitam osobu s kojom razgovaram za pomoć.

1	2	3	4	5

18. Izbjegavam određene teme ili situacije tijekom razgovora na mađarskom jer mi se čine prezahtjevne.

1	2	3	4	5

19. Ako se ne mogu sjetiti riječi na mađarskom jeziku prilikom razgovora, pokušam pojednostaviti ono što želim reći.

1	2	3	4	5

20. Prvo razmislim o onome što želim reći na hrvatskom, zatim to kažem na mađarskom.

1	2	3	4	5

DRUGI DIO

Upitnik o spremnosti na komunikaciju

Ovaj dio upitnika se odnosi na Vašu spremnost na komunikaciju **na mađarskom jeziku.**

Zaokružite brojeve od 1 do 5, kako se oni odnose na Vas:

1 – nikad nije istinito

2 – vrlo rijetko je istinito

3 – rijetko je istinito

4 – povremeno je istinito

5 – dosta često je istinito

6 – uvijek je istinito

Vrlo rado...

1. Predstavljam svoja mišljenja na mađarskom jeziku ostalim studentima iz grupe.

1 2 3 4 5 6

2. Održim prezentaciju na mađarskom jeziku pred ostatkom studenata iz grupe.

1 2 3 4 5 6

3. Sudjelujem u igranju uloga na mađarskom jeziku u maloj grupi ili u paru.

1 2 3 4 5 6

4. Sudjelujem u raspravi na mađarskom jeziku u maloj grupi ili u paru.

1 2 3 4 5 6

5. Na mađarskom jeziku, pitam profesora/profesoricu da ponove ono što su rekli.

1 2 3 4 5 6

6. Na mađarskom jeziku, pitam profesora/profesoricu o riječima ili jezičnim strukturama koje su koristili.

1 2 3 4 5 6

7. Na mađarskom jeziku, pitam ostatak studenata iz grupe o jezičnim oblicima ili riječima koji se tiču teme koju obrađujemo.

1 2 3 4 5 6

8. Na mađarskom jeziku, pitam ostatak studenata iz grupe o idejama ili konceptima koji se tiču teme koju obrađujemo.

1 2 3 4 5 6

9. Ispravim druge studente kad primijetim da su napravili grešku prilikom govorenja na mađarskom jeziku.

1 2 3 4 5 6

10. Ispravim samoga/samu sebe kada govorim na mađarskom jeziku.

1 2 3 4 5 6

11. Započinjem komunikaciju s grupom izvornih mađarskih govornika koje upoznam.

1 2 3 4 5 6

12. Govorim na mađarskom jeziku s grupom Mađara kojima je potrebna nekakva pomoć.

1	2	3	4	5	6

13. Razgovaram sa svojim profesorima mađarskog jezika u izvannastavnim situacijama na mađarskom jeziku.

1	2	3	4	5	6

14. Pridonosim razgovoru na mađarskom jeziku na nastavi.

1	2	3	4	5	6

15. Odgovorim profesoru/profesorici na postavljeno pitanje na mađarskom jeziku.

1	2	3	4	5	6

16. Na mađarskom jeziku govorim bez pripreme na nastavi.

1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix C

Table C.1. Results of the Independent Samples Test (Speaking strategies).

SPEAKING STRATEGY	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Imitating native speakers	3.918	82	.000
Practice sounds of alphabet	1.279	82	.205
Conversation initiation	7.091	82	.000
Out of class events	1.554	82	.124
Actively looking for co-speakers	5.383	82	.000
Learn from mistakes	6.841	82	.000
Relaxing	5.536	82	.000
Encouraging	5.385	82	.000
Attitudes and feelings	1.136	82	.259
Ask others to verify	1.801	82	.075
Ask others to correct pronunciation	2.228	82	.029
Work with others	2.672	82	.009
Asking native speaker for help	1.206	82	.231
Asking questions	6.351	82	.000
Using synonyms	7.304	82	.000
Using L1	-2.545	80.123	.013
Help from others	2.445	82	.017
Avoiding	-1.185	82	.239
Simplification	2.143	82	.035
Thinking in L1	-1.742	82	.085

Table C.2. SS use of students of English and students of Hungarian (categorised).

Speaking strategy category	Speaking strategy	Language	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Cognitive	**Imitating native speakers**	English	51	3.6471	1.09222	.15294
		Hungarian	33	2.6970	1.07485	.18711
Cognitive	**Practice sounds of alphabet**	English	51	2.6863	1.14000	.15963
		Hungarian	33	2.3636	1.11294	.19374
Cognitive	**Conversation initiation**	English	51	3.7843	1.15436	.16164
		Hungarian	33	1.9697	1.13150	.19697
Metacognitive	**Out of class events**	English	51	2.9412	1.48878	.20874
		Hungarian	33	2.4545	1.25227	.21799
Metacognitive	**Actively looking for co-speakers**	English	51	3.0784	1.29373	.18116
		Hungarian	33	1.6667	.95743	.16667
Metacognitive	**Learn from mistakes**	English	51	4.3725	.59869	.08383
		Hungarian	33	3.2727	.87581	.15246
Affective	**Relaxing**	English	51	4.0196	1.00976	.14139
		Hungarian	33	2.7273	1.09752	.19105
Affective	**Encouraging**	English	51	3.9412	1.06605	.14928
		Hungarian	33	2.6364	1.11294	.19374
Social	**Attitudes and feelings**	English	51	2.9804	1.43513	.20096
		Hungarian	33	2.6364	1.22010	.21239
Social	**Ask others to verify**	English	51	3.2353	1.06936	.14974
		Hungarian	33	2.8182	.98281	.17108
Social	**Ask others to correct pronunciation**	English	51	2.8235	1.29160	.18086
		Hungarian	33	2.1818	1.28585	.22384
Social	**Work with others**	English	51	3.0000	1.32665	.18577
		Hungarian	33	2.2424	1.17341	.20426
Social	**Asking native speaker for help**	English	51	3.1569	1.34718	.18864
		Hungarian	33	2.8182	1.10268	.19195
Social	**Asking questions**	English	51	3.7255	1.09688	.15359
		Hungarian	33	2.1818	1.07397	.18695
Compensation	**Using synonyms**	English	51	4.1765	.91007	.12744
		Hungarian	33	2.6364	.99430	.17309
Compensation	**Using L1**	English	51	2.7255	1.37227	.19216
		Hungarian	33	3.3939	1.02894	.17912
Compensation	**Help from others**	English	51	3.8824	1.14275	.16002
		Hungarian	33	3.3030	.91804	.15981
Compensation	**Avoiding**	English	51	2.0980	1.13587	.15905
		Hungarian	33	2.3939	1.08799	.18939
Compensation	**Simplification**	English	51	3.8824	.99292	.13904
		Hungarian	33	3.4545	.71111	.12379
Compensation	**Thinking in L1**	English	51	2.4902	1.39101	.19478
		Hungarian	33	3.0000	1.17260	.20412

Table C.3. WTC questionnaire items according to The Theory of Planned Behaviour.

QUESTIONNAIRE ITEM	THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOUR	MEAN (SD) (Eng)	MEAN (SD) (Hun)
Present my arguments to the rest of my class.	Situated Antecedents; Motivational Propensities	4.11 (1.35)	2.51 (1.37)
Give a presentation in front of the class.	Situated Antecedents; Motivational Propensities	4.60 (1.41)	4.06 (1.29)
Do a role-play in a small group/pair.	Motivational Propensities	3.82 (1.53)	3.39 (1.71)
Take part in a discussion in a small group/pair.	Communication Behaviour; Motivational Propensities	4.98 (1.15)	3.12 (1.59)
In English/Hungarian, ask the professor to repeat what they said.	Situated Antecedents	4.19 (1.56)	3.33 (1.33)
In English/Hungarian, ask the professor about words or structures they just used.	Situated Antecedents	3.11 (1.64)	2.69 (1.38)
In English, ask my peers about forms/words related to the topic.	Situated Antecedents	4.15 (1.52)	2.24 (1.39)
In English, ask my peers about ideas/arguments related to the topic.	Situated Antecedents	4.43 (1.38)	2.06 (1.11)
Correct a mistake that I notice in what others are saying.	Affective-Cognitive Competence	3.58 (1.51)	2.06 (1.27)
Correct myself while speaking.	Affective-Cognitive Competence	5.25 (0.86)	3.78 (0.99)
Initiate communication with a group of English/Hungarian people I meet.	Communication Behaviour	4.07 (1.57)	2.84 (1.60)
Speak to a group of English/Hungarian people who need assistance.	Motivational Propensities	4.82 (1.09)	2.63 (1.83)
Speak to my English/Hungarian professors in an out of class situation, in English/Hungarian.	Situated Antecedents; Motivational Propensities	3.35 (1.75)	2.90 (1.64)
Contribute to a class debate.	Motivational Propensities	4.19 (1.48)	3.24 (1.52)
Respond when the professor asks me a question in English/Hungarian.	Situated Antecedents	5.56 (0.64)	3.81 (1.28)
Speak without preparation in class.	Communication Behaviour; Behavioural Intention; Motivational Propensities; Affective-Cognitive Competence	4.43 (1.52)	3.06 (1.59)