P-ISSN 2708-6453	Pakistan Languages and Humanities Review	March-April 2026, Vol. 10, No. 2
O-ISSN 2708-6461	https://doi.org/10.47205/plhr.2026(10-II)19	[228-237]

Pakistan Languages and Humanities Review
www.plhr.org.pk

RESEARCH PAPER

Communicative Readiness as Prepared Participation: Evidence from an AI-Assisted TMTBLT Course in Pakistani Higher Education

[1]Rizwan Ullah Ejaz and [2]Dr. Taimur Kayani

1. PhD Scholar, Department of English, GIFT University, Gujranwala, Punjab, Pakistan
2. Professor, Department of English, GIFT University, Gujranwala, Punjab, Pakistan

*Corresponding Author	rizwanullahejaz@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

In Pakistan, students often study English as a subject throughout school and college and pass the required examinations, yet many enter university feeling underprepared for English-mediated academic and professional communication. This article examines that gap through the concept of communicative readiness as prepared participation. Communicative readiness refers to learners' perceived ability to use available linguistic, social, technological, and affective support to enter meaningful communication with purpose and ownership. The study draws on a sequential explanatory mixed-methods design in an AI-assisted Technology-Mediated Task-Based Language Teaching course. It used paired Communicative Readiness in AI-Assisted TMTBLT (CRAIT) survey responses to identify students' self-reported readiness-related patterns, and Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis of student interviews to examine how selected participants made sense of those broad patterns. The findings indicated more favourable post-course perceptions of overall readiness, speaking confidence, AI-supported preparation, collaborative participation, anxiety management, and academic/professional readiness. The interview accounts showed that this movement was gradual, uneven, and dependent on the conditions surrounding participation. AI helped students prepare ideas, rehearse language, and revise responses, but its value depended on whether learners could adapt and personally own the support they received. The article argues that communicative readiness is not demonstrated by polished AI-supported output alone. It develops when learners can convert available support into responsible, purposeful, and personally owned communicative action.

KEYWORDS Communicative Readiness, Prepared Participation, AI-assisted Language Learning, Technology-mediated Task-based Language Teaching, TMTBLT, Learner Agency, Communication Anxiety

Introduction

In Pakistan, many students study English as a subject throughout school and college and pass the required English examinations, yet this does not always prepare them for the kind of English-mediated communication expected at university. Before higher education, communication skills may be valued in principle, but they often remain secondary to theoretical, grammar-based, and examination-oriented learning. The shift to university can therefore be abrupt as students are suddenly expected to speak before peers, give presentations, record responses, participate in discussions, handle interviews, and manage workplace-style communication. In South Asian educational contexts, language education is closely tied to identity, inclusion, technology, and future opportunity, so English-mediated communication carries social and academic weight beyond the classroom. The problem, then, is not that students have had less exposure to English. The problem is that exposure has not

always developed into usable communicative participation. For communication-skills teaching, this gap matters because students are often asked to perform before they have had enough preparation, feedback, affective safety, and opportunities to try again. A readiness perspective is useful here because it shifts the question away from what learners lack and toward the conditions that could make participation possible.

The difficulty for communication-skills teaching is that these issues do not appear separately in the classroom. A student may have some knowledge of English but still feel anxious, unsupported, or unsure when asked to speak in front of others. Communicative competence helps explain why language ability involves socially appropriate, strategic, and meaningful use, rather than grammar alone (Canale, 1983; Canale & Swain, 1980; Hymes, 1972). Work on willingness to communicate and language anxiety also helps explain why learners may enter or avoid interaction under particular social and emotional conditions (Horwitz et al., 1986; MacIntyre et al., 1998; Yashima, 2002). These ideas are important for this article, but the classroom problem is more direct. When do students feel prepared enough to use English for academic or professional communication? This article uses communicative readiness to describe that point. It brings together competence, confidence, anxiety management, willingness, and agency around the movement from knowing English to participating through English. Prepared participation refers to this movement as students prepare ideas, rehearse language, attempt responses, revise after feedback, and gradually take more ownership of communication.

AI-assisted technology-mediated task-based language teaching (TMTBLT) provides a useful setting for examining this movement because tasks give learners a reason to use language for a communicative purpose. In this study, AI was relevant mainly as preparation support because students could use it to search for ideas, explore expressions, organize content, rehearse possible responses, and revise language before or after classroom tasks. Recent work on generative AI and multiliteracies in language education also argues that AI use should be guided by clear pedagogical purposes rather than treated as simple tool use. The same support can become problematic when students treat generated language as finished communication instead of material they still have to understand, adapt, and own. Learners may produce smoother language while depending on expressions they cannot explain, personalize, pronounce, defend, or use appropriately. This is why AI-assisted TMTBLT should not be evaluated by polished output alone. The more important question is whether AI-supported preparation helps learners turn available support into responsible, purposeful, and owned communicative action (Kohnke et al., 2023).

To examine readiness as both a reported movement and an interpreted experience, this article draws on mixed-methods evidence from an AI-assisted TMTBLT communication-skills course in Pakistani higher education. Paired Communicative Readiness in AI-Assisted TMTBLT (CRAIT) survey responses were used to identify students' self-reported patterns across readiness-related constructs. Interview-based Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (IPA) was then used to examine how selected students made sense of confidence, hesitation, AI-supported preparation, collaboration, anxiety, agency, and professional relevance in their own learning experiences. The two strands are brought together through the following research question.

How do paired CRAIT survey patterns and IPA accounts explain communicative readiness as prepared participation among Pakistani undergraduates in an AI-assisted TMTBLT course?

Conceptual Framing

Communicative Readiness as Prepared Participation

The concept of communicative readiness is introduced here to address a problem that communicative competence alone does not fully explain. Competence remains essential, because learners need linguistic, sociolinguistic, strategic, and discourse resources to communicate meaningfully (Canale, 1983; Canale & Swain, 1980; Hymes, 1972). The concern here is what happens when those resources have to be used in a visible communicative situation. A student may know relevant vocabulary, understand grammar, and still hesitate when asked to present, respond, or speak before others. Another student may use imperfect English but still participate meaningfully because the task is clear, the classroom feels safe enough, and support is available. Readiness therefore concerns enactment, a point at which available knowledge, confidence, anxiety management, willingness, and agency become usable in a particular communicative moment. Communicative readiness brings these dimensions together without reducing the construct to any one of them.

Prepared participation gives this argument its practical shape. It holds together two conditions that are often separated in classroom practice. Preparation on its own can remain private as students may draft, rehearse, or depend on external support without actually entering communication. Participation without preparation can expose learners to unnecessary risk, especially when English use is public, assessed, or professionally relevant. In the course examined here, readiness was understood as the supported movement through which learners became more able to prepare, attempt, adapt, revise, and take responsibility for communication. This also makes readiness situated rather than universal. A learner may feel ready for a rehearsed presentation but not for spontaneous questioning, or ready for peer discussion but not for an interview-style task. Silence, hesitation, or dependence should therefore not be read too quickly as individual weakness. They may also indicate that the task conditions, preparation time, peer response, teacher mediation, or affective safety needed for meaningful participation have not yet been sufficiently developed.

AI as Preparation, Not Replacement

In this study, generative AI was treated as a resource within the task cycle. Its main value appeared before and around performance. Students could use AI to begin a task, explore possible expressions, check grammar, organise ideas, rehearse responses, or revise language after feedback. For students who found English communication risky or uncertain, this support could make the first step into a task less difficult.

The problem began when AI-supported language was treated as finished communication. A student may produce smoother sentences and still be unable to explain, adapt, pronounce, defend, or personally own them. This is why the difference between scaffolding and substitution matters. AI worked as a scaffold when students used it to question, personalise, rehearse, and take responsibility for language. It weakened readiness when students depended on outputs they could not make their own. Agency, in this study, means the learner's ability to judge and reshape what AI provides (Ahearn, 2001). The central question is whether AI-supported preparation helps learners become more responsible and agentive participants.

AI-Assisted TMTBLT as a Readiness Ecology

Technology-mediated task-based language teaching is useful for this research because it places learners in situations where English is needed for a communicative purpose. Task-based language teaching organizes learning around meaningful activity, interaction,

purposeful language use, and communicative outcomes rather than isolated practice alone (Ellis et al., 2020; Long, 2015). Technology-mediated TBLT extends this orientation by using digital tools and online environments to support preparation, collaboration, performance, feedback, and participation (González-Lloret & Ziegler, 2022). In the present study, AI-assisted TMTBLT is better understood as a readiness ecology. Tasks gave students a reason to communicate. AI helped some students prepare language and ideas. Peers reduced communicative risk by sharing planning and rehearsal. Teacher mediation helped keep preparation accountable to task purpose, responsible AI use, and communicative performance. Affective safety made repeated attempts possible, while professional relevance helped students see why the task mattered beyond the immediate classroom. All of these conditions worked together to shape whether support became dependence or agency, whether rehearsal led to participation, and whether confidence could grow while vulnerability remained. This view is consistent with the broader sociocultural position that learning is shaped through tools, interaction, and social activity (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). It also keeps AI in a pedagogically bounded role as one mediating condition within a wider task-based ecology.

Material and Methods

Design and Context

The study used a sequential explanatory mixed-methods design (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018) to examine communicative readiness in an AI-assisted TMTBLT communication-skills course in Pakistani higher education. This design was appropriate because the study required both a broad account of students' self-reported movement and a closer interpretation of how selected students made sense of that movement. In the first phase, the Communicative Readiness in AI-Assisted TMTBLT (CRAIT) survey was used to identify students' pre/post self-reported patterns. In the second phase, interview-based Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (IPA) was used to examine how selected students interpreted those patterns in relation to their own learning experiences.

The course was organised around repeated movement from preparation to participation. Students were introduced to communicative goals, used AI and peer support to prepare ideas and language, and then took part in discussions, presentations, voice-note activities, and interview-style tasks. After feedback, they revised, adapted, or re-engaged with the task. The course included meaning-focused tasks, digital participation, peer collaboration, teacher mediation, rehearsal, feedback, and academic/professional communication activities. AI tools were used to support preparation and language development while students remained responsible for authorship, judgement, and communicative performance.

Participants and Evidence Sources

The quantitative strand was based on 150 matched pre/post CRAIT responses drawn from an initial course group of 186 students. Non-completers, incomplete responses, and records that could not be matched reliably were removed before analysis. CRAIT was used to capture students' self-reported perceptions of key readiness-related areas, including perceived communicative competence, speaking confidence, communication anxiety, willingness to communicate and participate, communicative agency, AI- and technology-supported preparation, collaborative task-based participation, academic/professional communicative readiness, and overall communicative readiness. The instrument was aligned with the study's readiness framework and used anonymous matching codes to connect pre- and post-course responses. These data are therefore interpreted as evidence of perceived readiness, not as direct evidence of objective English proficiency.

The qualitative strand was based on semi-structured interviews with 11 purposively selected survey participants. These interviews explored how students understood their experiences of confidence, hesitation, anxiety, AI-supported preparation, peer collaboration, task participation, and future academic or professional communication. Selected post-course evaluation items were used only as background support for interpreting students' views on AI-supported preparation, responsible AI use, professional relevance, and possible dependence on AI. They were not treated as evidence of pre/post change.

Analysis, Integration, and Claim Boundaries

The quantitative data were analysed through paired pre/post comparisons to identify the direction and size of students' self-reported changes across the main CRAIT constructs. The qualitative data were analysed through Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (IPA). Interview transcripts were examined case by case, personal experiential themes were developed for individual participants, and group experiential themes were then identified across cases (Smith et al., 2022). The two strands were integrated through construct-by-construct comparison between CRAIT patterns and IPA accounts. Joint displays and bounded meta-inferences were used to examine where the two strands converged, extended, or complicated one another (Fetters et al., 2013). The purpose of integration was not simply to place survey results and interview findings side by side. The survey data showed the broad direction of students' self-reported movement in readiness-related areas, while the IPA accounts helped explain what that movement meant in students' lived experience, including where it was gradual, uneven, or still limited.

It is important to note that this study only makes bounded claims about perceived and interpreted communicative readiness. It does not make any claims about objective English proficiency gains, experimental causality, or statistical generalisation to all Pakistani undergraduates. CRAIT data are treated as self-reported perceptions, while IPA findings represent the meaning-making of selected participants within one course ecology. Participation was voluntary, informed consent was obtained, and participants' identities were anonymised.

Findings

Readiness as Perceived Movement Toward Participation

The post-course CRAIT patterns indicated a clear positive movement in students' self-reported readiness-related perceptions. The strongest shift appeared in the Overall Communicative Readiness Index (dz = 1.624), while speaking confidence also increased markedly (dz = 0.803). Perceived communicative competence showed a positive but more modest movement (dz = 0.443). This difference is important for the interpretation of the findings. The results suggest that students reported a stronger sense of being able to enter communicative situations instead of simply reporting "better English" in a general sense. These findings indicate a perceptual movement toward readiness.

The IPA accounts gave this movement a more situated meaning. Participants described a gradual movement from hesitation toward more prepared and supported participation. P3's account makes the affective difficulty visible: "The idea of my weird voice and the pronunciation in English, everything kind of combined in my mind to make me worried and awkward in the beginning." This hesitation was not only about vocabulary or grammar. It was also about the vulnerability of becoming visible through English. Across the interviews, students connected participation with repeated preparation, rehearsal, peer collaboration, feedback, and opportunities to perform again. The two strands seem to converge around a bounded interpretation: within this AI-assisted TMTBLT ecology,

students experienced English communication as more attemptable, supported, and meaningful. This movement did not amount to uniform fluency or complete freedom from anxiety.

AI-Supported Preparation and the Agency Tension

AI- and technology-supported preparation showed one of the strongest favourable shifts in the CRAIT results (dz = 1.064). Students appeared to value AI especially when it helped them begin communicative work by generating ideas, finding vocabulary, preparing tasks, organising content, and planning what they wanted to say. The interviews clarified why this mattered. For students who hesitated at the point of task entry, AI could provide a starting point and reduce the pressure of beginning from nothing. In this sense, AI-supported preparation became relevant to readiness because it made communication more approachable before performance.

The same evidence also showed the limits of this support. Use of AI became risky when students accepted generated language without enough judgement or used expressions they could not explain as their own. P1 expressed this tension when noting that AI writing assistants "corrected grammatical errors" but sometimes failed to understand "the overall context of writing." This distinction matters because readiness in this study was not judged by polished language alone. A smoother AI-supported response did not necessarily mean that the learner could understand, personalise, pronounce, defend, or responsibly use that language in communication. Post-course evaluation items supported this interpretation, but they are treated only as contextual evidence and not as evidence of pre/post change.

Overall, AI-supported preparation was readiness-relevant when it strengthened learner agency. It worked as a scaffold when students used it to prepare, rehearse, revise, or collaborate. It became problematic when it encouraged generic wording, uncritical acceptance, or replacement of learner judgement. For this reason, the shift in AI-supported preparation needs to be read carefully. It shows that AI became useful within a wider ecology of teacher guidance, peer collaboration, meaningful tasks, feedback, and learner ownership. It does not indicate that AI alone produced readiness.

Socially and Affectively Mediated Readiness

The CRAIT results also highlighted favourable movement in collaborative task-based participation and academic/professional communicative readiness (dz = 0.746 and dz = 0.628, respectively). Communication anxiety moved downward as well (dz = -0.601). A careful interpretation of this movement is that students began to experience anxiety as more manageable when they had preparation, peer support, teacher guidance, and a clear reason to communicate. Readiness, in this sense, involved participation under more manageable affective pressure.

The interviews helped explain why these conditions mattered. Students described becoming more able to participate when classroom conditions made participation feel possible. P4 connected early hesitation to unfamiliarity with performance-based learning: "Whenever you would tell us that you have to do something, actually do something, we would just go blank." This account suggests that anxiety was linked not only to English itself, but also to students' previous educational experience. Many were more familiar with studying English than using it openly, interactively, and purposefully in front of others. Peer collaboration reduced pressure by distributing preparation and rehearsal. Teacher mediation helped students understand task expectations, use AI responsibly, and treat errors as part of learning. Professional relevance also mattered when tasks resembled presentations, interviews, workplace interaction, digital communication, or future academic needs. Taken

together, these findings reflect communicative readiness as socially, affectively, and pedagogically mediated rather than as a fixed learner trait.

Table 1

Integrated Evidence Display: Communicative Readiness as Prepared Participation

Dimension	Quantitative pattern	IPA explanation	Integrated interpretation
Confidence and competence	Overall readiness and speaking confidence shifted favourably; competence rose modestly.	Students described movement from hesitation toward prepared, supported participation.	Readiness was perceived movement toward participation, not proof of proficiency gain.
Anxiety management	Communication anxiety moved downward.	Nervousness and vulnerability remained but became more manageable.	Readiness meant participation under manageable affective pressure.
AI preparation and agency	AI-supported preparation showed a strong favourable shift.	AI supported ideas, vocabulary, organisation, rehearsal, and revision, but dependence risks remained.	AI helped when used as scaffold, not substitute; readiness required ownership and judgement.
Peer collaboration	Collaborative participation moved favourably.	Peer work distributed communicative risk and supported rehearsal.	Readiness was socially mediated.
Professional relevance	Academic/professional readiness moved favourably.	Tasks felt meaningful when linked to future communication.	Readiness was purpose-driven and future-facing.

Note. CRAIT patterns are self-reported perceptions; IPA interpretations are bounded to this course context.

Discussion

Communicative Readiness Extends Communicative Competence

The findings support the value of treating communicative readiness as a distinct but connected extension of communicative competence. Competence helps explain the linguistic, sociolinguistic, strategic, and discourse resources learners may have available. The problem examined in this study begins when those resources have to be used in public, pressured, and socially meaningful situations. Students did not describe themselves as having no English at all. Their accounts pointed to a more specific difficulty as they felt exposed, awkward, or underprepared when they had to speak, present, discuss, record, or respond in front of others. This difference matters because the strongest movement in the CRAIT results appeared in overall communicative readiness, whereas perceived communicative competence moved in a more modest direction. The pattern indicates that students were reporting a stronger sense that they could enter communicative situations with more preparation, support, and confidence. The IPA accounts further explain this movement. Students became more able to attempt communication because participation began to feel more possible. In this sense, readiness is best understood as a problem of enactment. It concerns whether learners can bring their available resources into use when communication carries social and academic risk.

Prepared participation brings this contribution into a sharper focus. A learner may have competence but still hesitate, may be willing but unsupported, may be confident in a rehearsed task but uncertain in spontaneous questioning, or may prepare through AI but remain dependent on language that has not been personally owned. The usefulness of communicative readiness lies in bringing these conditions together around a practical teaching question. When does English become usable for meaningful academic and professional participation? This article organises participation, agency, confidence, and willingness around the movement from studying English to using it with preparation, purpose, emotional manageability, and ownership. This is the kind of movement that communication teachers often try to support as well.

AI Support Must Become Owned Participation

The findings also clarify the role of AI support in language learning. In this study, AI was most useful when it helped students begin communicative work that felt difficult. It helped them generate ideas, search for vocabulary, organise content, rehearse explanations, revise drafts, and reduce some of the uncertainty around task performance. These uses made AI relevant to readiness because they supported preparation before participation.

The key issue was ownership. When students used AI-supported language as material to question, adapt, rehearse, and revise, it helped them prepare. When they accepted generated language without enough judgement, it weakened their ownership of communication. A polished sentence did not necessarily show that the learner could understand it, pronounce it, personalise it, defend it, or use it responsibly in interaction. This distinction matters because communicative readiness cannot be judged from surface-level accuracy alone. It depends on whether learners can turn prepared language into accountable communicative action. Teacher mediation also remains important in this process. Responsible AI use was not only an ethical concern in this study. It was also part of the pedagogy of readiness. Students needed guidance on how to use AI for preparation, how to check whether the language fitted the task, and how to keep their own communicative intention visible. The value of AI in language teaching lies in whether it helps learners become more prepared, reflective, and agentive communicators.

AI-Assisted TMTBLT as a Readiness Ecology

The findings highlight that AI-assisted TMTBLT is best understood as a readiness ecology. Students' movement toward readiness developed through the interaction of meaningful tasks, AI-supported preparation, peer collaboration, teacher guidance, affective safety, professional relevance, and learner agency. Each condition played a different role. Tasks gave students a reason to communicate. AI helped some students prepare ideas and language. Peers distributed communicative risk. Teacher mediation helped keep preparation accountable. Affective safety made repeated attempts possible. Professional relevance gave participation a future-facing purpose. The shift did not come from using AI alone or from task completion by itself. This ecological view is important because the productive tensions in the findings were not peripheral. They were part of how readiness developed. Support could become dependence. Scaffolding could become substitution. Confidence could grow while vulnerability remained. These tensions show that readiness should perhaps not be treated as a fixed achievement or a simple outcome of completing AI-supported tasks. It seems conditional and developmental. It depends on whether learners are able to move through cycles of preparation, participation, feedback, revision, and renewed attempt with increasing responsibility for meaning.

For course design, this means that AI-assisted language tasks should require more than the use of AI-generated language. Students need opportunities to explain, adapt, rehearse, question, perform, and revise the language they prepare. The aim is not to remove difficulty from communication entirely, as some difficulty is necessary because students need to learn how to participate when communication is visible, imperfect, and socially consequential. The pedagogical task is to make that difficulty manageable enough for learners to attempt communication, learn from the attempt, and gradually take more ownership. Figure 1 summarises this process by presenting communicative readiness as prepared participation shaped by mediating conditions and productive tensions, and not as a direct result of AI use or task completion.

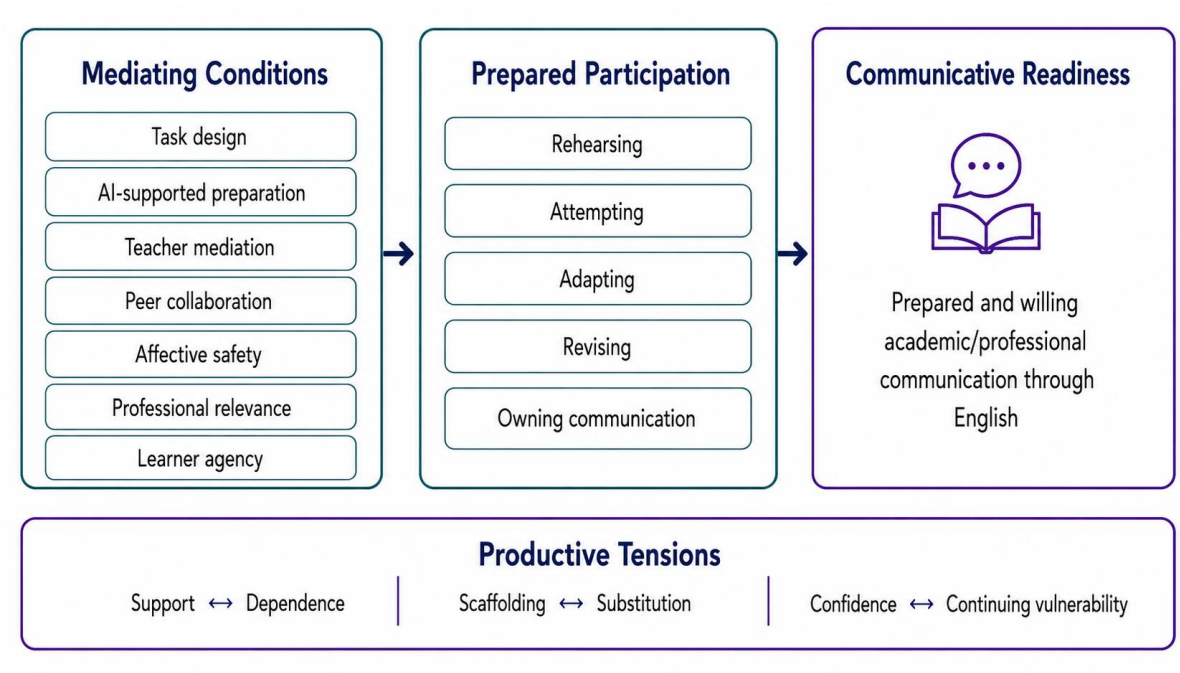

Figure 1 Communicative Readiness as Prepared Participation

Note. AI-supported preparation is one mediating condition, not an independent cause of readiness.

Conclusion

This article has argued that communicative readiness is best understood as prepared participation. The movement toward academic and professional communication in English cannot be explained fully by competence, confidence, reduced anxiety, or AI-supported language output alone. Readiness developed when learners became more able to enter communication with preparation, support, purpose, and ownership.

The mixed-methods findings showed this process from two connected angles. The CRAIT results indicated more favourable readiness-related perceptions after the course. The IPA accounts explained that the students experienced this movement gradually, unevenly, and in relation to the conditions surrounding participation. AI-supported preparation helped students begin communicative work with less uncertainty, but its value depended on whether learners could check, adapt, rehearse, and personally own the support they received. Peer collaboration, affective safety, teacher guidance, task relevance, and professional purpose also shaped whether preparation could become actual participation.

The study therefore offers a bounded conceptual-empirical account of communicative readiness as prepared participation. Its contribution lies in keeping attention on the learner's movement from support to action. In AI-assisted language classrooms, readiness should not be judged by polished output alone. It should be judged by whether learners can use available support to speak, respond, adapt, and take responsibility for meaning in academic and professional communication.

References

Ahearn, L. M. (2001). Language and agency. *Annual Review of Anthropology, 30*, 109–137. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.anthro.30.1.109

Canale, M. (1983). From communicative competence to communicative language pedagogy. In J. C. Richards & R. W. Schmidt (Eds.), *Language and communication* (pp. 2–27). Longman.

Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics, 1*(1), 1–47. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/I.1.1

Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2018). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research* (3rd ed.). SAGE.

Ellis, R., Skehan, P., Li, S., Shintani, N., & Lambert, C. (2020). *Task-based language teaching: Theory and practice.* Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/9781108643689

Fetters, M. D., Curry, L. A., & Creswell, J. W. (2013). Achieving integration in mixed methods designs—principles and practices. *Health Services Research, 48*(6 Pt 2), 2134–2156. https://doi.org/10.1111/1475-6773.12117

González-Lloret, M., & Ziegler, N. (2022). Technology-mediated task-based language teaching. In M. J. Ahmadian & M. H. Long (Eds.), *The Cambridge handbook of task-based language teaching* (pp. 326–345). Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/9781108868327.019

Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B., & Cope, J. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal, 70*(2), 125–132. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1986.tb05256.x

Hymes, D. (1972). On communicative competence. In J. B. Pride & J. Holmes (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics: Selected readings* (pp. 269–293). Penguin.

Kohnke, L., Moorhouse, B. L., & Zou, D. (2023). ChatGPT for language teaching and learning. *RELC Journal, 54*(2), 537–550. https://doi.org/10.1177/00336882231162868

Lantolf, J. P., & Thorne, S. L. (2006). *Sociocultural theory and the genesis of second language development*. Oxford University Press.

Long, M. H. (2015). *Second language acquisition and task-based language teaching*. Wiley Blackwell.

MacIntyre, P. D., Clément, R., Dörnyei, Z., & Noels, K. A. (1998). Conceptualizing willingness to communicate in a L2: A situational model of L2 confidence and affiliation. The Modern Language Journal, 82(4), 545–562. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1998.tb05543.x

Smith, J. A., Flowers, P., & Larkin, M. (2022*). Interpretative phenomenological analysis: Theory, method and research* (2nd ed.). SAGE.

Yashima, T. (2002). Willingness to communicate in a second language: The Japanese EFL context. *The Modern Language Journal, 86*(1), 54–66.