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THE DIVISION OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

**A STUDY ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LANGUAGE ANXIETY,
AUTONOMY AND WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE OF 10TH GRADE HIGH
SCHOOL STUDENTS**

MASTER'S THESIS

Merve Tuğba ÖZDEMİR

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YABANCI DİLLER EĞİTİMİ ANABİLİM DALI

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ÖĞRENME ÖZERKLİKLERİ VE YABANCI DİLDE İLETİŞİM KURMA
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Dil öğrenimi çok sayıda davranışsal sonucu olan çok yönlü bir süreçtir. Bu çalışma 10. sınıf lise öğrencilerinin dil kaygısı, öğrenci özerkliği ve hem sınıf içinde hem de sınıf dışında iletişim kurma isteği arasındaki ilişkiyi belirlemeyi amaçlamaktadır.

Bu bağlamda, 10. sınıfta okuyan 243 lise öğrencisine demografik bilgiler, dil kaygısı, öğrenci özerkliği ve iletişim kurma isteği olmak üzere dört aşamalı bir anket uygulanmıştır. Yürütülen anket sonucunda bu değişkenler arasındaki ilişki ortaya konmuş ve somut bulgulara ulaşılmıştır. İlk olarak, dil kaygısı ile iletişim kurma isteği arasında negatif anlamlı ilişki olduğu bulunmuştur. İkinci olarak öğrenci özerkliği ile iletişim kurma isteği arasında pozitif anlamlı ilişki olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Son olarak öğrencilerin sınıf içinde ve sınıf dışında iletişim kurma isteği arasında pozitif ve oldukça anlamlı bir ilişki olduğu bulunmuştur.

Dil eğitimi iletişime dayalı bir süreç olduğundan, öğrenciler kaygılarının üstesinden gelmeleri için teşvik edilmeli ve öğrenme sürecinde özerk bir şekilde davranmaları için yönlendirilmelidirler. Sonuç olarak kendine güvenen ve dil eğitimine karşı bilinçli bir yaklaşıma sahip olan öğrenciler yabancı dilde iletişim kurma konusunda istekli olacaklardır.

Anahtar kelimeler: dil öğrenimi, kaygı, özerklik, iletişim kurma isteği

ABSTRACT

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A STUDY ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LANGUAGE ANXIETY, AUTONOMY AND WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE OF 10TH GRADE HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

Language learning is a multi-dimensional process and it has several behavioural outcomes. The aim of this study is to determine the relationship between language anxiety, learner autonomy and willingness to communicate both inside and outside of the school for high school students in 10th grade.

Within this context, a questionnaire which consists of four parts, namely demographic information, language anxiety, learner autonomy and willingness to communicate was conducted with 243 high school students studying in 10th grade. As a result of the conducted survey, the relationship between these variables has been put forward and concrete findings have been reached. Firstly, it was found that there is a negative significant relationship between language anxiety and willingness to communicate both inside and outside of the school. Secondly, it was found that there is a positive significant relationship between learner autonomy and willingness to communicate both inside and outside of the school. Thirdly, it was found that there is a

positive and strongly significant relationship between students' willingness to communicate both inside and outside of the school.

Since language education is a communicative process, students should be encouraged to overcome their anxiety and they should be oriented to behave in an autonomous way during the learning process. As a result, self-confident students with conscious approach to foreign language will be willing to communicate in foreign language.

Keywords: language learning, anxiety, autonomy, willingness to communicate

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List of Abbreviations

CALL	: Computer Assisted Language Learning
CD-ROM	: Compact Disc, read-only-memory
DVD	: Digital Versatile Disc
EFL	: English as a Foreign Language
FLCAS	: Foreign Language Anxiety Scale
PET	: Preliminary English Test
PLATO	: Programmed Logic/Learning for Automated Teaching Operations
S.D.	: Standard Deviation
WTC	: Willingness to Communicate

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Foreign language learning is a complex process and it stimulates the individual and puts into an alertness state which is called anxiety. Language anxiety is a prevalent feeling that is encountered when learning a foreign language. While this type of anxiety negatively affects the foreign language learning process during the first stages, it has positive effects in the following stages (Aida, 1994, p. 156). Communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation are considered as the components of language anxiety and various studies (Horwitz & Young, 1991; Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley, 1999; MacIntyre P. D., Baker, Cleent, & Conrod, 2001) have been conducted to overcome harmful effects of language anxiety on foreign language learning process.

Within the context of language learning, autonomy is defined as the skill of the learner to take the responsibility of learning (Holec, 1981, p. 20). This autonomy is achieved over time and an autonomous learner is someone who believes in himself/herself and is willing to take responsibility and places himself/herself in the center of learning process. Approaches that are supporting the autonomy of learner are listed as follows: Source based approaches, class based approaches, program based approaches, teacher based approaches, learner based approaches and technology based approaches (Benson, 2001, p. 111). Lastly learner autonomy is affected by several factors including but not limited to belief, academic achievement, age, anxiety, attitude, experience, culture, gender, learned helplessness, learning styles, motivation and multiple intelligence areas (Boyno, 2011, p. 62).

Language learning is a process that requires communication such as speaking and listening. In this direction, willingness to communicate comes to the forefront.

Willingness to communicate can be defined as the tendency of an individual to engage in communicative behaviors regularly. Willingness to communicate in foreign language is a complex process on which proficiency and communicative competence in the target language has a crucial effect. Students who are willing to communicate are observed to be successful in examinations and make friends easily (MacIntyre, Babin, & Clement, 1999, p. 226). And these students generally have communicative personalities in their social, educational and institutional lives. Accordingly, the purpose of this study is to determine the relationship between language anxiety, learner autonomy and willingness to communicate both inside and outside of the school for high school students in 10th grade. Within this scope, in Chapter 2 literature review was performed to examine anxiety, autonomy and willingness to communicate concepts in detail. Afterwards in Chapter 3 methodology of this study was set forth, data collection and data analysis tasks were performed and relationships between the variables mentioned above were analysed. Then in Chapter 4 results of the analyses on relations between variables were presented and interpreted. Finally, the results of the study is discussed and compared with findings of similar research in the discussion section and findings are summarized in conclusion section.

CHAPTER 2

Literature Review

2.1. Concept of Anxiety and Language Anxiety

2.1.1. Definition of anxiety. Throughout a human's life, it is possible to encounter anxiety in any period. Anxiety generally evokes negative concepts such as tension and unhappiness in one's mind. Anxiety, in its broadest sense, can be defined as the feeling of dissatisfaction or the sense of distress and tension resulting from the stimulation from the autonomic nervous system (Spielberger C. D., 1972, s. 241).

Anxiety is a universal experience that human beings generally feel in various periods in their lifetime. Anxiety state in which the individuals feel insecure thinking that they will encounter problems represents apprehension, ambivalence, confusion, fear and pessimism; thus, this state may interrupt individual tasks in most cases. Therefore; anxiety, affecting the individuals during their normal routines and causing troubles, may reduce the harmony in people's lives (Hill & Sarason, 1966, p. 94).

Anxiety demonstrates itself with fear, worry, and burden (Spielberger & Vagg, 1995, p. 2). It usually emerges as a result of a thought that disturbs the individual's mind that a bad thing will happen and it will not be prevented. In general, it is possible to observe both subjective and objective complaints and symptoms with anxious individuals. Those symptoms demonstrate themselves psychologically as disturbance, stress, insecurity, fear, panic, confusion, and restlessness; on the other hand, the physical symptoms are dryness in the mouth, headache, dizziness, nausea, tachycardia, lassitude, loss of appetite, hypertension or hypotension, muscle strain, complaints regarding digestive system, problems in respiratory system, sweating, and insomnia (Köknel, 1985, p. 170).

In studies attempting to determine the effects of anxiety on learning, it is seen that low anxiety will lead to low productivity, moderate anxiety will lead to the highest productivity, and high anxiety will lead to the lowest level of productivity (Cüceloğlu, 1997, p. 236). Therefore, it can be argued that a normal level of anxiety will lead to the improvement of an individual's self and will increase performance.

All in all, various definitions of anxiety can be seen when the literature is reviewed. As it can be understood from these definitions, anxiety emerges when individuals combine the images in their mind with fear (Özdal & Varal, 2005, p. 257). However, it should be noted that anxiety may have both facilitating and debilitating effects in terms of learning.

2.1.2. Types of anxiety

2.1.2.1. State anxiety and trait anxiety. While theories regarding anxiety tend to classify it as positive and negative anxiety, it was Spielberger who categorized anxiety into state and trait anxiety. Spielberger, departing from Freud (1936)'s danger signal theory and Cattell (1966)'s conceptions of state and trait anxiety, developed his understanding of anxiety (Spielberger & Reheiser, 2004, p. 74).

Categorizing anxiety as trait and state anxiety can provide a conceptual development to understand the anxiety phenomenon. In order to functionalize the difference between two types of anxiety, Spielberger, Gorsuch and Lushene (1970) developed State-Trait Anxiety Inventory, which is also known as STAI. With the help of the inventory, the density of anxiety can be measured in a particular period. Individuals with the high score of state anxiety experiences a relatively dense tension and anxiety. Emotions of individuals with a high score of state anxiety are effected by situational factors which are interpreted as indicative of a present or an anticipated danger or influenced by

thoughts of past traumatic events related with the present state (Spielberger & Reheiser, 2004, p. 81).

State anxiety is defined as the anxiety which an individual experiences in a certain condition (Spielberger, Gorsuch, & Lushene, 1970; Tovilovic, Zdenka, Mihic, & Jovanovic, 2009). This type of anxiety emerges from the perception and interpretation of the individual that the situation is dangerous and threatening. Therefore, threatening and dangerous situation is perceived, understood, analysed, interpreted and felt (Spielberger, Gorsuch, & Lushene, 1970; Kantor, Endler, Heslegrave, & Kocovski, 2001).

For state anxiety, both internal and external factors are effective. This type of anxiety is the mood, which is experienced acutely at the present time as a threat as if it is real. Also, it is a subjective fear that the individual feels towards the situation (Işık, 1996, p. 31). Hence, the level of state anxiety is high when an individual perceives the situation as threatening rather than the objective or actual threat. That is, the level of state anxiety is low when an individual is not stressful or the present threat is not perceived or interpreted as a real threat (Barnes, Harp, & Jung, 2002, p. 604).

State anxiety causes physical changes such as sweating, reddening, and trembling as a result of the stimulation happening in the autonomous neural system of an individual. Accordingly, those physical changes may increase the tension and uneasiness for the individual. Also, when the individual is stressed, the level of state anxiety increases. In a similar manner, when the stress disappears, the level of state anxiety decreases (Kaya & Varol, 2004, p. 35).

The level of state anxiety is considered as a variant of the underlying level of trait anxiety. State anxiety emerges when an individual feels excited, nervous, uneasy, and angry as a result of the activation of autonomic nervous system (Spielberger &

Reheiser, 2004, p. 74). Also, it is defined as the individual fear due to a stressful situation (Öner & Le Compte, 1985, s. 14).

It is argued that the conceptual difference between trait and state anxiety is similar to the difference between potential and kinetic energy (Tovilovic, Zdenka, Mihic, & Jovanovic, 2009, s. 492). Trait anxiety level influences individuals' way of perceiving, understanding, analysing and interpreting the conditions which increase the level of state anxiety (Spielberger & Reheiser, 2004, p. 77). Furthermore, another definition of trait anxiety states that the individual is always prone to feel anxiety in any situation (Newbegin & Ows, 1996, p. 522).

As the personality structure of people who are prone to experience trait anxiety tends to create a sense of anxiety, trait anxiety turns into a chronic and continuous experience (Işık, 1996, p. 35). It is possible to observe symptoms such as disability of behaviours, deficits in perception and attention, decrease of school success, avoiding personal interactions, and introversion in people with trait anxiety (Geçtan, 2003; Cüceloğlu, 1997).

People with trait anxiety tend to feel anxious about almost each situation both on the conscious and the unconscious level. Thus, it is plausible for the people with trait anxiety to feel anxious in almost any situation (MacIntyre P. D., 1995, p. 93). Also, arising from an emotional instability, trait anxiety can be regarded as a "personality trait" (Goldberg, 1993; Eysenck, 1979; Spielberger, Gorsuch, & Lushene, 1970). Therefore, as it is a personal trait, individuals with those type of behaviour tends to perceive situations as threatening which are not normally conceived as dangerous by the majority of people (Spielberger C. D., 1966, p. 5).

Despite the conceptual difference between trait and state anxiety, it is stated that there is a positive relationship between the two in terms of empirical practices

(Muschalla, Linden, & Olbrich, 2010, p. 369). That is, Spielberger and Reheiser (2004, p. 81) argues that people with a high level of trait anxiety tends to suffer more from state anxiety in threatening or dangerous situations. Accordingly, people with a high level of trait anxiety are hurt more from stress compared to the people with a low level. Thus, they experience state anxiety more frequently and more severe (Yıldız, Sezen, & Yenen, 2007, p. 229)

2.1.2.2. Facilitative and debilitating anxiety. The anxiety types, facilitative and debilitating anxiety are important especially in terms of foreign language learning. Therefore, it would be beneficial to discuss those types in order to have a better understanding of anxiety in foreign language learning environments.

Although, there had already been various findings that confirm the relationship between success and affective variables (especially anxiety) by the time when Scovel (1978) developed the categorization of facilitative and debilitating anxiety, it was the conflicting outcomes of the studies that led Scovel to conduct a more detailed research. In his research, having reviewed the studies regarding the relationship between anxiety and success, Scovel states that there may be positive, negative and zero correlations. Accordingly, he developed the categorization of “facilitative and debilitating anxiety”, claiming that the contradictions may be resolved.

It is claimed that facilitative anxiety may direct the learner into struggling in new learning environments and “approach behaviour”. On the other hand, debilitating anxiety results in the “avoidance behaviour” causing the learner to flee from the learning environment. Furthermore, both facilitative and debilitating anxiety can be present in a normal individual, which stimulates or motivates towards each and every new concept. Therefore, sufficient level of anxiety is a necessity for a good performance during an activity (Scovel, 1978, p. 138).

On the other hand, it is also claimed that facilitative anxiety may only be beneficial for easy learning situations. That is, it may not be efficient for foreign language learning as it is a rather complex process. Also, as “anxiety” is a term with negative connotations, it is impossible to create a facilitative type of anxiety. Therefore, one can only talk about the debilitating anxiety, which causes the learner to flee from the learning situations (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986, p. 128).

Anxiety, emerging as a debilitating factor during the process of foreign language learning affects the grades from the foreign language exams, proficiency exams, speaking and writing activities. Also, it is possible to argue that anxiety generally affects the self-esteem and self-confidence of the foreign language learners (Oxford R. , 1999, p. 61).

2.1.3. Language anxiety

2.1.3.1. Definition. In recent years, both psychologists and pedagogues have scrutinized and studied the effects of anxiety on learning. A great number of studies have been conducted both regarding the general learning and foreign language learning. As a result of these studies, it is possible to observe findings that show a significant relation between anxiety and learning; however, there are also conflicting findings (MacIntyre P. D., 1999, p. 26).

Anxiety, in its broadest sense, can be defined as the distress and apprehension felt by an individual confronting a threatening situation (Scovel, 1978, p. 134; Işık, 1996, p. 12). The anxiety could also be defined as a state of alertness that manifests itself with physical, emotional, and mental changes that an individual experiences when s/he is stimulated.

MacIntyre and Gardner (1991, p. 530) suggests that the feeling of anxiety developed as a result of negativities during the process of learning while it has not been important

at the first stages of foreign language learning as people generally tend to have a high motivation. Conversely, Scovel (1978, p. 140) argues that anxiety has a negative effect during the first stages of foreign language learning process, while it affects positively in the following stages. Additionally, anxiety affects the individual positively and provides the necessary motivation to do better when s/he feels that success is not guaranteed but it is obtainable when adequate time and effort is spent to reach it. On the other hand, if the individual feels that s/he will never be successful no matter how much time and effort s/he puts into studying, s/he will surrender himself/herself to anxiety and will never be able to show his/her potential.

Foreign language anxiety should be studied independent from the anxiety regarding other classes because the process of learning a foreign language consists of rather complex experiences, which necessitates the association of perceptions, beliefs, emotions, and behaviours to the class (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986, p. 128).

It is known that most people who want to learn a foreign language are mentally prevented to do so. That is, even people who are motivated to learn mathematics, science, and music may lose their motivation to learn a foreign language because people generally feels considerably stressful to learn a foreign language in a classroom environment (Horwitz, 1986, p. 561; Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986, p. 131).

Furthermore, Allwright and Bailey also argue that foreign language anxiety should be studied independently. The main aim of foreign language learning is not to provide different behaviours for the people who want to learn the language. However, people who are learning a new language find themselves in a completely different environment with the language. They would perceive this situation as a threat towards their own identities. Therefore, learning a new language may turn from an exciting experience to a fearful practice (Allwright & Bailey, 1991, p. 188).

2.1.3.2. Sources of language anxiety. Although the sources of anxiety changes from person to person, it can be argued that the factors causing anxiety for foreign language learners are the proficiency levels of the learners and the application of exams. Apart from these factors; behaviours of teachers, the difficulty level of foreign language classes, the skill of the learners on the language, and cultural differences can also be mentioned among the sources of anxiety.

As it is already mentioned, some of the sources of anxiety are the proficiency levels of the language learners, examinations, and teacher behaviours. It is observed that learners who regard their language skills below average usually tend to feel anxiety. Furthermore, it is also found that mistakes in the examinations and teachers' behaviours also cause the learners to develop anxiety (Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley, 1999, p. 233).

As it is seen in both Young (1990, p. 541) and Price (1991, p. 105), the level of foreign language anxiety is closely associated with the difficulty level of foreign language classes. Therefore, it is possible to argue that the difficulty level of the course or the class is one of the sources of anxiety. Furthermore, in Sparks and Ganschow (1991, p. 3) argues that the language learning ability is also related with the foreign language anxiety. Also, Satio and Samimy (1996, p. 245)'s study, focusing on the learners with different levels of language learning ability, shows that the anxiety levels of the learners differ according to their abilities and levels (i.e. beginner, intermediate and advanced).

According to Oxford (1991, p. 36), another element that can be regarded as the source of anxiety is culture. That is, the target culture may cause some affective influences on the foreign language learners, and these affective situations experienced during the process of introducing the new culture may cause emotional decline, panic,

anger, self-pity, and sadness. For Ellis (1994, p. 27), it is a natural result of intercultural differences that the foreign language learners lose themselves within the target culture. Furthermore, in terms of culture, it can also be argued that students with different cultural backgrounds may have different levels of anxiety (Horwitz, 2000, p. 258). For instance, it can be seen that students with a bilingual or a multilingual cultural background will feel less anxious compared to the students who grow up in monolingual cultures. Thus, culture is another source that would lead to anxiety (Levine, 2003, p. 356).

2.1.3.3. Components of foreign language anxiety. Components of foreign language anxiety can be classified as communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986, p. 128).

- **Communication Apprehension:** This component of anxiety results from the fear of communication with people. It is generally experienced by people with an advanced perspective on phenomena outside of language; however, they become anxious as they believe that they are not capable of uttering the right words or sentences while speaking in public (Kılınç, Aytan, & Ünlü, 2016, p. 1515).

- **Test Anxiety:** This component of anxiety emerges out of the fear of evaluation or failure in the examination. Test anxiety can typically be defined as an ill-favoured emotional state when the learner experiences during examinations or other evaluations such as speaking tests or even little quizzes (Rahmatollahi, 2016, p. 115).

- **Fear of Negative Evaluation:** This component of anxiety can be seen in foreign language learners who are not successful in providing a proper social impression due to the evaluations made by other around them (Kılınç, Aytan, & Ünlü, 2016, p. 1516). That is, fear of negative evaluation is generally induced when the teacher or the

classmates are perceived as fluent speakers of the language (Sanaei, Zafarghandi, & Sabet, 2015, p. 1392).

2.1.3.4. Effects of foreign language anxiety. It is a common belief in the literature of language anxiety that foreign language anxiety should be handled independent from the anxiety experienced in other classes (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986, p. 128). That is, foreign language learning process consists of complex experiences, which makes the process different from the other classes such as mathematics, science, literature, and even physical education. As it is already mentioned above, during the process of foreign language learning, individuals should unify their perceptions, beliefs, emotions and behaviours with the classroom environment. On the other hand, as self-perception and control mechanism are not developed in children, foreign language anxiety is not an issue of discussion for them (Brown, 1994, p. 53). As children are not aware of the grammatical rules while speaking a language, they are not afraid of making mistakes; thus, it is easy for children to adapt into the language.

When the literature is reviewed, it can be seen that anxiety may have both advantageous and disadvantageous effects on foreign language learning. In other words, foreign language anxiety may sometimes affect the process of learning positively and sometimes negatively. However, an overall consensus is yet to be provided regarding the conditions when the effects of anxiety are positive and negative.

Various studies on the effects of anxiety on performance revealed different results. Kleinmann (1977, p. 104) argues that learners with a high level of anxiety generally tend to use more difficult grammar structures while speaking or writing. In other words, high level of anxiety has an advantageous effect on the use of grammar for the productive practices. However, Steinberg and Horwitz (1986, p. 133) states that learners with a high level of anxiety are less likely to use interpretive skill compared to the ones

with a low level of anxiety. Conversely, Gregersen (2003, p. 31) argues that anxious learners generally attempt to make perfect interpretations. Furthermore, Young (1986, p. 443) states that anxious learners are generally unsuccessful in speaking. Thus, as it can be seen from these studies, it can be claimed that the effect of anxiety over the productive skills such as speaking and writing may differ and the consensus has not been established yet.

Another issue that the studies in the literature have is the effect of anxiety on success of the foreign language learners. In these studies, a negative correlation between the level of anxiety and the level of success is found. Therefore, it may be argued that anxiety may be regarded as an obstacle that prevents success (Gardner, Moorcrof, & MacIntyre, 1987, p. 13).

2.1.3.5. Gender and anxiety. In the literature, studies attempting to demonstrate the relationship between gender and anxiety can be found. Throughout these studies, gender is taken as a determinative factor that would influence the level of anxiety especially in foreign language classes. Therefore, it is useful to discuss the findings of these studies to reach a better understanding to put forward the effect of gender on foreign language anxiety.

Campbell (1999, p. 193) argues that at the beginning of a language course, significant differences are not present regarding gender. However, in her research, throughout the end of the course, gender is argued to become an important factor on foreign language anxiety. That is, the anxiety level of females is found to have increased less than 1%. On the other hand, anxiety level of males is seen to increase around 13%. Therefore, in all kinds of foreign language activities in a classroom environment (speaking, reading, writing, and listening), males are likely to have a higher level of anxiety.

Another study aimed at determining the effect of gender on language anxiety is carried out by Aida (1994, p. 158). In Aida's study, it is concluded that gender is not a determinative factor on anxiety. That is, gender and anxiety are seen as independent variables that has no correlation between them. However, it is found that gender has an important effect on course grades, in which women have higher grades than men. That is, as an overall conclusion of the research, it is argued that students with a high level of anxiety received lower scores on the tests.

2.1.3.6. *Language anxiety and language skills.* Language anxiety has effects on both productive and receptive language skills. As discussing the effects of language anxiety on each skill would provide a more in-depth understanding, it will be beneficial to follow the trend as it allows the development of a more liable and accurate measurement tools to detect the anxiety problems of foreign language learners (Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999, p. 419). Therefore, studies generally follow the trend of studying the effects of language anxiety on the specific language skills such as reading, writing, listening, and speaking. However, those attempts generally lacks consensus as they provided a great variety of results (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986, p. 128).

2.1.3.6.1 *Language anxiety and productive skills.* Among the productive skills, there are speaking and writing. During the process of communication, listening happens before speaking. Nonetheless, as listening is an interactive skill, problems in the listening skills of a learner would cause ambiguity in the meaning that is attempted to be created (Carter, 2002, p. 30). Therefore, anxiety during the stage of listening would prevent the productive skills to be performed (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986, p. 128; Young, 1990, p. 542; Price, 1991, p. 106).

It is a general expectation that a person should speak the language if s/he claims that s/he knows it. In other words, speaking skill is at the centre of language discussions that

knowing a language is parallel with speaking a language (Bowen, 2004, p. 98). Because theories of teaching generally focuses on productive skills, speaking as a productive one is one of the most important skills that causes foreign language anxiety (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; Price, 1991; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991; Phillips E. M., 1992)

On speaking and language anxiety, Horwitz and associates argue that difficulty in speaking is perhaps the most frequent problem that causes anxiousness in foreign language learning environments. Generally, as speaking is a spontaneous act, it is seen that people feel hesitant to perform the act of speaking. Individuals who feel anxious about speaking state that they panic in their language classes (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986, p. 129). Communication apprehension, social anxiety, and self-esteem are probably the main reasons of this kind of fear (Young, 1990, p. 551).

Another finding related to speaking anxiety in language classes argues that people who have a high level of anxiety provides objective responses to the questions. That is, they tend to choose predetermined answers as it is considered as a relief point in the stressful situations. Thus, avoiding subjective responses is highly associated with the fear of negative evaluation and criticism (Steinberg & Horwitz, 1986, p. 135). Also, the level of speech anxiety increases according to the number of people in the group (Young, 1986, p. 443). Therefore, learners with a high level of speech anxiety prefer not to utter personal perspectives on the debatable issues as they do not regard themselves as capable as the rest of the group.

Writing is another productive skill, in which the person is supposed to produce while writing. As Leki (1999, p. 81) argues, writing anxiety is probably the least observable type of anxiety among foreign language learners. However, Daud and Kassim (2016, p. 15), in their research aimed at demonstrating the relationship between anxiety and writing, conclude that the students whose performance level are low are significantly

experience writing anxiety. They also argue that the reason for writing anxiety is the inadequacy of particular writing skills such as lack of vocabulary knowledge or the problems with grammatical rules.

Another important factor that is related with writing anxiety is self-esteem. Hassan (2001, p. 35), examining the relationship between writing anxiety and self-esteem, concluded that there is a significant relationship between the two. That is, foreign language learners with a high level of writing anxiety may suffer from low self-esteem compared to the ones who do not feel anxious about writing. Therefore, in order to overcome writing anxiety in students, teachers are supposed to assign communicative writing tasks and to change the context by turning the learning environment into a more comfortable one.

Leki (1999, p. 81) argues that one of the most important reasons that would induce writing anxiety is the emphasis on grammar. That is, in order to avoid the emergence of writing anxiety, teachers should not correct the grammatical mistakes while evaluating the writing assignments.

2.1.3.6.2 Language anxiety and receptive skills. Among the receptive skills there are reading and listening. With these skills, individuals are able to receive, understand, comprehend, and perceive the message that is encoded. Also, it is almost impossible to expect that a person can use the productive skills without the receptive skills (Davies, 1976, p. 441). That is, reading and listening skills are fundamental in language as they help people understand what is being told to them. Therefore, in most foreign language learning environments, it is expected that the learners are at least capable of reading a given text or listening to someone speak (preferably a native speaker through a cassette recording or online).

Reading can be defined as the competence in understanding what is attempted to be meant in a printed page or a written text (Grabe & Stoller, 2013, p. 32). Also, it is an interactive process in which the reader and the written text play almost equal roles in creating a meaning (Anderson, 1999, p. 47). Therefore, the act of reading involves various mental actions, requiring complex thinking, and the capability to scrutinize a written text.

As it can be acknowledged that understanding the written texts requires complex skills reading, it could be argued that lack of these skills may result in reading anxiety. Thus, reading anxiety is a great example to demonstrate that not only the productive skills but also the receptive skills may be affected by foreign language anxiety. Thus, various studies have been conducted in order to examine the relationship between anxiety and reading.

Reading anxiety is a type of anxiety that can be experienced by students in foreign language classes. For Zbornik (2001, p. 8), reading anxiety is a specific and situational phobia regarding the act of reading. This type of anxiety can be experienced both in situations in which reading is necessary such as a reading activity or an exam and in situations in which reading is not necessary (Goldston, et al., 2007, p. 29; Torgesen, 2000, p. 55).

When the literature is reviewed, it can be seen that the number of studies on the issue of reading anxiety is considerably low (Sellers, 2000; Wu H. J., 2011). Sellers (2000, p. 515), exploring the relationship between the reading anxiety and the reading comprehension performance of students, concluded that there is a significant relationship between the two.

Furthermore, reading anxiety may be defined independent from the general foreign language anxiety as it is related to the codes with which the learners are not familiar.

Therefore, culture can also play an important role for the learners to develop reading anxiety. Also, during the process of foreign language learning, individuals may become upset when they are confronted with challenges, which would result in reading anxiety. Moreover, it can be said that the higher the level of language anxiety, the higher the level of reading anxiety. However, it is also argued that reading anxiety may develop independently from language anxiety in general (Saito, Horwitz, & Garza, 1999, p. 204).

Listening is another receptive skill, which means understanding the spoken message through hearing. However, the difference between hearing and listening should be noted as the former is passive while the latter is an active process. Also, the concept of active listening should be mentioned as it is a rather important factor for foreign language learning. The process of active listening consists of three stages: hearing, understanding, and judging. Thus, active listening can be regarded as an interactive process, which makes the process of listening to become a part of the two-way communication model with feedback.

Listening anxiety is generally experienced when foreign language learners are confronted with a difficult listening situation which they have not encountered before. Also, the level of listening anxiety increases when the learners have difficulty in hearing the words uttered by the speaker or misunderstand the words or sentences (Maden & Durukan, 2016, p. 1947).

2.1.3.7. Dealing with language anxiety. As the harmful effects of anxiety on the process of foreign language learning is considered, various studies attempted to provide ways to deal with language anxiety. Considering the results of these studies, it can be said that several strategies, methods and techniques have been developed to deal with language anxiety.

In the first study focusing on the methods to deal with language anxiety, Horwitz and associates (1986, p. 129) recommends two methods:

- To teach students the ways to deal with situations that would induce anxiety,
- To make the learning environment less stressful.

Accordingly, Ellis and Sinclair (1989, p. 117) claimed that teachers should be educated according to the principle of how to teach rather than what to teach. Therefore, apart from the idea that the learning environment should be made less stressful and teaching the students the ways to cope with language anxiety, putting the ways to deal with anxiety into the teacher education curriculum is taken into consideration.

Another recommendation to deal with high levels of language anxiety is to encourage students to have a conversation with their teachers and their friends on the issues that they feel anxious about. Furthermore, writing a diary is also recommended (Campbell & Ortiz, 1991, p. 162)

Techniques that can be used to reduce language anxiety include some activities. These activities can be specified as such (Crookall & Oxford, 1991, p. 147):

- Structural practices,
- Group or pair works,
- Games,
- and simulations.

Crookall and Oxford (1991, p. 148) also recommend to create a supportive learning environment, to allow students to understand their mistakes on their own, and to develop realistic expectations.

To sum up, according to the studies attempting to develop ideas to deal with foreign language anxiety, it can be said that both teachers and students should be educated; students should be allowed to express their feelings and freely share them.

2.2. Autonomy

2.2.1. Definition. Reviewing the literature regarding learner autonomy, the definition provided by Holec (1981, p. 3) is the most common one that can be found. Learner autonomy in foreign language learning is defined as the skill of the learner to take the responsibility of learning. This responsibility covers all the stages of learning. These stages are

- Recognition of learning outcomes,
- Identification of the content and advancement,
- Selection of the methods and techniques to be used,
- Observation of the learning process,
- and evaluation of students.

Holec (1981, p. 3) proposes three different definitions regarding learner autonomy. First of all, learner autonomy means that the student can study independently without the supervision of the teacher. Here, the independence is the ability of the student to freely benefit from a predetermined syllabus at his/her own choice. The independent learner can use the provided teaching materials according to his/her own interests and needs without the presence of a teacher. Among the best examples of these kinds of autonomous studies are homework, projects, and computer assisted programs. Furthermore, some activities taking place within the classroom environment can also be considered as parts of independent learning.

Holec (1981, p. 4), in the second definition of learner autonomy, handles the issue in a more comprehensive way. In this definition, the student is considered as an active individual who is able to participate in the decision-making process regarding his/her education and who can make contributions to the instruction program. In other words, autonomous learner is not a passive person who could confine himself/herself to the

materials and syllabus provided by others. Therefore, the student, leaving the passive position of information consumer, becomes a producer of information and solutions by becoming a part of the learning process (Eker, 2010, p. 36).

In the third definition of learner autonomy, it is claimed that the autonomy belongs to the student. Considering this definition, it can be seen that there is a clear connection between autonomous learning and learning capacity. Moreover, autonomous learning is considered to be a unique characteristic of the student rather than a concept that attempts to explain how the learning process takes place.

According to Little (1991, p. 4); detachment, critical reflection, decision making and independence action could be regarded as parts of autonomy. The student should develop a psychological relation to the content and the process of learning. This relation would facilitate connection between the student and the process of learning. Also, the connection between the student and the process would increase the desire and motivation of the student towards the learning process.

For autonomous learning, the teaching process is planned in accordance with the personal characteristic of the students. Dickinson (1987, p. 108) argues that individual education is a learning process utilized by both teachers and the students by paying regard to the characteristic differences of each individual.

Autonomy, in the broadest sense, is defined as the capacity of an individual's capacity to take the responsibility of the task of learning. Therefore, learner autonomy is the competence of the student to take the responsibility in order to easily control the individual learning process (Benson, 2001, p. 27). Furthermore, autonomy can also be regarded as an encouraging factor that would allow the students to have an awareness of their rights during the learning process (Benson, 2007, p. 32).

For Confessore and Park (2004, p. 52), autonomous learning should be presented during the selection of tasks that would require exhaustive efforts both from the individual and from the group. Also, it can be useful in the designation of the learning process as it would allow the individual skills to be employed. In these conditions, the student can play an active role during the process of learning by making individual contributions.

Regarding learner autonomy, the individual's personality is important as s/he demonstrates an independent and target oriented behaviour during the learning activities (Ponton, 1999, p. 40). Therefore, learner autonomy requires the students to make efforts towards the predetermined objective without the guidance of the teacher.

As learner autonomy includes multifaceted and complex structures, several stages of the learning process are in a constant relationship between one another (Reinders & Balçıkanlı, 2011, p. 270). The relations between autonomy and various concepts are shown in Figure 1.

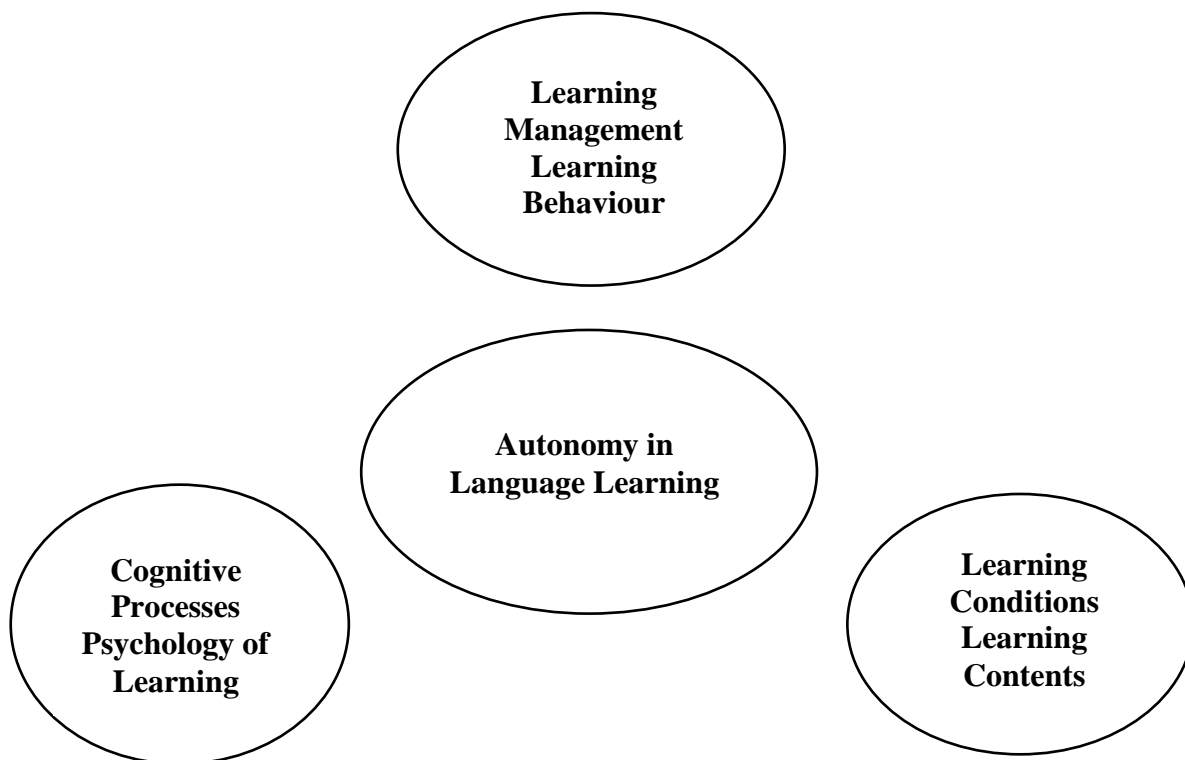


Figure1: Definition of Autonomy (Benson, 2001)

Learner autonomy is not a skill that could be suddenly obtained or learned. A determined process consisting of particular stages is necessary for the development of learner autonomy. It is general behaviour of the students during the process of foreign language learning to attempt to learn by following their teachers without questioning what and how will they learn. The responsibility is transferred from the teacher to the student with learner autonomy. However, learner autonomy does not mean learning without the teacher. That is, it only changes the role of the teachers (Erbil Tursun, 2010, p. 2). The students can manage the learning process with the learning strategies and styles determined by themselves with the teachers' support. Therefore, learning autonomy is a comprehensive and complex process that usually involves the learning styles and learning strategies. During this process, the students should develop their skills of autonomy.

Students generally strive to advance and structure their knowledge by carrying out autonomous activities. Accordingly, they play an active role in the learning process by

taking responsibilities, making their own decisions, and managing their own education. In this process, the act of learning becomes more important than the teacher allowing the students to actively participate (Güneş, 2012, p. 4; Wang, 2011, p. 275). The learning performance of these active students increases as they are aware of their actions.

Learners demonstrate both independent and dependent behaviours in their autonomous actions. That is, autonomy should not be considered as acting without control and to have an indisputable independence to do something. Rather, it is having the skills to do individual manoeuvres to make conscious choices by discovering the self (Zongi & Nezhad, 2012, p. 23).

2.2.2. Autonomous learner. The concept of autonomous learner, having been supported by the learner centred education reform proposed by scholars such as Friere, Illich, and Rogers in the 1970s, became a part of foreign language teaching field with the Modern Languages Project, founded by European Council in 1971. Furthermore, information explosion, boosted by learning networks such as internet, increased and diversified the information that the learners are supposed to learn. Also, the development of distant learning made the notion of autonomous learner to become an inevitable issue of discussion (Benson, 2001, p. 54).

Wenden (1991, p. 25) emphasizes two fundamental characteristics of autonomous learners. First, autonomous learner is eager to take responsibility regarding his/her own education and considers himself/herself as a part of the learning process. Second, s/he is fully confident of himself/herself. Therefore, autonomous learners rely on their own skills to manage their own learning process.

Recently, it is possible to frequently encounter the concept of autonomous learner especially in the field of foreign language learning as well as life-long learning.

Looking at the literature, these definitions of autonomous learner could be seen:

- a skill allowing the learners to take the responsibility of their own education (Holec, 1981, p. 3),
- the psychological relationship between the learner and the learning process (Little, 1991, p. 4),
- responsibilities of the learners decisions on their own educations and the application of these decisions (Dickinson, 1987, p. 8),
- learners' awareness of their rights in the educational system (Benson, 2007, p. 32).

As these definitions suggest, learner autonomy is regarded as a personal characteristic, a political criteria, and an educational action. On the other hand, it is also argued that the teachers, by assigning teamwork tasks to the students, would allow the learners to create new domains in which they would take their own decisions and apply them (Harmer, 2015, p. 16).

In the literature, the characteristics attributed to autonomous learning could be specified as follows (Benson, 2001, p. 20):

- a behaviour that should be learned,
- learner's authority over the learning process,
- keeping control of the learning process,
- the psychological dimension of the learning process,
- a competence that could be advanced with the guidance of a teacher.

Furthermore, regarding the general characteristics of autonomous learners, most pedagogues seem to agree on the following (Holec, 1981; Little, 1991):

- they give importance to the objectives of the instruction program;
- they take full responsibility of their studies;
- they participate in the definition of learning objectives;
- they play an active role in the formation of learning activities and their application;
- they regularly evaluate the learning process and controls the efficiency.

According to Holmberg (2000, pp. 64-71), autonomous learner is the independent individual who:

- is able to plan, apply and evaluate his/her own learning processes;
- is aware of the learning styles that would be suitable for him/her;
- develops strategies to overcome the obstacles during the learning activities.

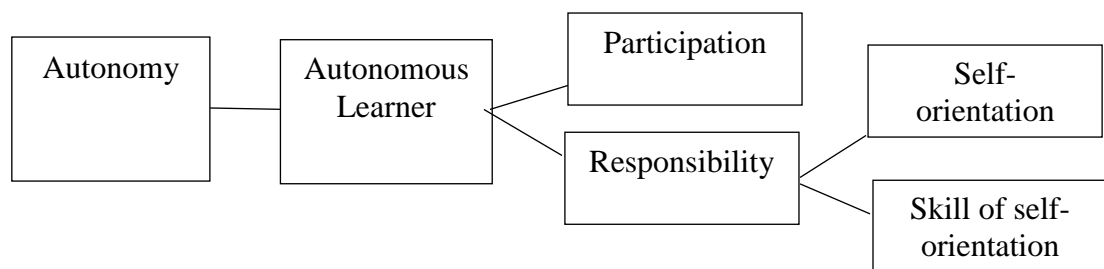


Figure 2: Autonomous Learner

Holec (1981, p. 12) defines several criteria that should be provisioned by autonomous learners, which are shown in Figure 2. He describes each of those criteria as the following:

- *Autonomous Learner*: Individual who can actively and independently carry out the learning process.
- *Participation in the Learning*: The ability of the learner to actively participate in the learning process.

- *Taking Responsibility in the Learning:* The ability of the learner to develop and apply their own schedules with or without the support of another person.
- *Directing Oneself for the Learning:* The learners should be convinced that they are able to learn the particular subject, therefore directing their own learning process with the most convenient strategy for themselves.
- *Ability to Direct Oneself in the Learning:* The learners should be aware of the ways that they can able to learn on their own.

Vanijdee (2003, p. 80) states that autonomous learning consists of behaviours, capacity and skills. Hence, these elements allow the learner to take more responsibility during the learning process.

2.2.3. Concepts in learner autonomy. Concept, in the broadest sense, can be defined as the idea that represents a particular level of concreteness and abstractness, which is used in the activity of thinking about an object (Cevizci, 2010, p. 214). In other words, concept is an information structure representing the common characteristics of various objects and phenomena that is interpreted by the human mind (Ülgen, 2004, p. 62). Concepts are combined in order to formulate expressions, theories, and propositions. Thus, the information stored in the human mind involves the networks consisting of concepts and propositions (Novak, 2002, p. 551).

Error can be defined as “a mistake”, or “the state or situation in which a person is wrong in his/her judgement and conduct” (Oxford Dictionaries, 2017). Errors generally emerge as a result of wrong beliefs and experiences of individuals. To generalize, concept errors usually refer to misinterpretations and wrong conceptions in the student’s expressions that are scientifically not true (Bahar, 2003, p. 56). Reviewing the literature regarding concept errors, a variety of expressions and terms can be seen to explain those errors (McCloskey, Caramazza, & Green, 1980; Klopfer, Champagne, & Gunstone,

1983; Fisher, 1985; Fisher & Lipson, 1986; Halloun & Hestenes, 1985; Hashweh, 1988; Pines & West, 1986; Abimbola, 1988):

- Naive Beliefs,
- Erroneous Ideas,
- Preconceptions,
- Underlying Sources of Error,
- Personal Models of Reality,
- Common Sense Judgements,
- Spontaneous Knowledge,
- and Alternative Concepts.

Concept error may emerge as a result of an apocryphal and a misinterpreted version of a concept based on an expression within the concept itself (Novak & Gowin, 1984, p. 22). It is also explained as the concepts structured by the students aside from the ones which are scientifically acknowledged and determined by the teacher to be the outcome of the course (Nakhleh, 1992, p. 194). In another definition, concept errors are described as important problems in learning which can prevent the students to learn the concepts that they encounter during the learning process, which would lead them to misinterpret the incidents that they would encounter in their daily lives, and which would cause them to come up with invalid solutions (if no solution at all) to solve their daily problems (Akgün, 2005, p. 84). Furthermore, concept error is the condition in which a definition of a concept in one's mind is at odds with the scientific definition of that particular concept. That is, it is possible to argue that a concept error is taking place when individuals argue that they are sure of themselves and try to defend their erroneous ideas as if they were true (Çakmak, 2006, p. 8).

Prior knowledge may cause students to mislearn the new concepts while they are attempting to learn new concepts and structuring them on their already structured knowledge in their mind (Pesen, 2007, p. 80). Concept errors, having been established within the cognitive structure, began to distort the information process. Also, when concept errors contradict with the new condition and information, students generally tend to ignore the contradiction. That is, students are inclined to interpret the new conditions according to the erroneous concepts in their minds. Therefore, as a result of the misinterpretation process, concept error may become powerful and their place within the mind will become a permanent one, which will in the end complicate the restoration of those errors during the learning-teaching process (Taylor & Kowalski, 2004, p. 22). Also, as the teaching process is based on memorization, meanings of new concepts would not be integrated within the mind and the existing cognitive structure would not be restructured as it is not detailed (Novak, 2002, p. 552). At this point,

- practices based on constructivism (Berkant, 2007, p. 42),
- conceptual change texts (Çaycı, 2007, p. 92),
- clarification of content regarding the concept (Kılıç, 2007, p. 148),

would be considered as effective deterrents for the emergence of concept errors.

Little (1999, p. 30) specifies the concept errors which are frequently seen in learner autonomy as follows:

- Autonomy is regarded as equivalent with self-learning without the presence of a teacher. Learners who prefer the way of self-learning may gain autonomy to a certain extent; however, it would be wrong to argue that all self-learners are autonomous learners.

- It is believed that any intervention by the teacher restricts the autonomy of the students, and therefore the teacher is required to renounce all the rights of control within

the classroom. However, it should be noted that it is possible to provide autonomy even in a classroom which is totally controlled by the teacher.

- It is thought that autonomy is a new method that can be scheduled as a series of lesson plans. Nevertheless, the notion of autonomy is a multidimensional concept that could not be reduced to such a simplicity.
- It is believed that autonomy is a behaviour that can be easily explained. On the other hand, autonomy can be observed according to various ways such as the age of the learner, the stages of learning, and the objectives of the instruction course.
- It is misunderstood that autonomy is a level of steady success that can only be attainable by certain learners. Yet, a learner demonstrating a high level of autonomy in a particular field may not be autonomous in another field at all.

Following Little (1999), Aoki and Smith (1999) mention two more concept errors regarding learner autonomy. First one of these errors is the misconception that autonomy requires individualism. However, reviewing the literature, it can be observed that the definitions of learner autonomy not only put emphasis on the independence of the individual but also mention the need for collaboration between the learners within the learning environment. That is, learning is the product of a complex and a mutual interaction of both individual and social processes; therefore, individual-cognitive dimension should not be ignored while putting an emphasis on the social-interactive dimension (Little, 1999, p. 28). The second error regarding the notion of autonomy is the idea that the validity of autonomy totally depends on the cultural and psychological factors. On the contrary, although it is believed that autonomy is intrinsic to Western culture, it should be noted that autonomy is also common in Western cultures (Aoki & Smith, 1999, p. 21).

2.2.4. Historical development of learner autonomy. Learner autonomy has recently become a prominent concept especially in the field of foreign language learning. The concept was first used in 1981 by Henri Holec, who presented a report for the European Council. Holec, in his report regarding adult education for the European Council's Modern Languages Project in 1979 emphasized that learner autonomy should be supported in adult education, mentioning the importance of the acquisition of acting responsibly in social life (Benson, 2001, p. 49).

There are various reasons that cause the emergence of learner autonomy and its frequent use in the field. Among these reasons are the adult education, the necessity to learn foreign languages in a globalized world, and the increasing number of students in educational institutions (Nodari, 2010, p. 1158).

Investigating the concept of learner autonomy according to teaching methods, it can be seen that the concept emerged at a period of a transition from a teacher centred education to a student centred one (Benson, 2001, p. 187). Therefore, learner autonomy puts the student's needs in the centre. During that period, important steps were taken regarding foreign language education as Common European Framework of Reference for Languages conducted studies attempting to explain the linguistic competences and requirements of foreign language learners. Accordingly, students were asked to define their learning objectives and manage their own educations while learning foreign languages. Thus, learner autonomy was regarded as a mandatory skill especially in foreign language education.

2.2.5. Approaches supporting learner autonomy

2.2.5.1. Source based approaches. Regarding practices depending on source based approaches, personal development and self-access centres are the most prominent concepts. Benson (1994, p. 7) describes autonomy as a goal; learning motivated by the

individual as a means to reach the destination; and self-access as an environment which is necessary to realise the objective. Self-access refers to the learning materials and regulated systems designed to be directly used by the users (Sheerin, 1997, p. 55).

There are two premises that constitute the concept of self-access. First one is the individualization because each individual has different necessities that are unique to them. Additionally, each individual has weaknesses on which they would want to work alone. Also, learning styles and preferences of individuals differ. Accordingly, learners may need to apply to self-access centres to study. The second premise refers to the ideological reasons, which is directly related to independent learning. Self-access allows the learners to learn the ways in which they are able to learn (Sheerin, 1997, p. 58).

Gardner and Miller (1999, p. 12) emphasise that self-access is not an approach directed at language teaching; rather, it is totally about language learning. They also argue that self-access should not be restricted to refer to a collection of learning materials or a system designed to provide the sources. For them, self-access refers to a totality consisting of a great number of elements that play role in the establishment of the learning environment.

Self-access centres, which are designed to be directly used by people, aim to allow a space for the learners to develop their autonomous skills on their own as they actively and independently benefit from these centres. However, self-access centres have transcended the idea of “Find, Do, and Control” in recent years (Sturtridge, 1997, p. 75).

According to Gardner and Miller (1999, p. 101), there are three important points for material choice in self-access centres. First, materials should be chosen in accordance with the language learning requirements of the students. Second, materials should be convenient for the learning context. Lastly, those materials should be in accordance

with the scope of budget and time of the institution. Furthermore, as Sheerin (1997, p. 62) indicates, among the important features of those materials are the physical accessibility, appropriate classification (according to level, theme, and activity), the presence of answer keys or other feedback options. Various types of materials can be presented in self-access centres. These types are classified as follows (Gardner & Miller, 1999, p. 96):

- Printed language learning materials,
- Real objects,
- Specially prepared materials,
- Student-contributed materials.

2.2.5.2. Class based approaches. Considering the fact that education is fundamentally carried out in schools, activities in the classroom are important to facilitate the acquisition process of learner autonomy for the students. Recently, student centred classroom environment and the idea that the students should have a voice in their own learning have been emphasized by pedagogues. In order to realise those, various practices are performed. Accordingly, the number of studies regarding those activities is increasing. Students can take place in the decision-making mechanism on the issues of planning, learning process, and evaluation in the classroom.

It is primarily the responsibility of the teachers to allow the students to have control in the classroom. Teachers are supposed to help the students understand that language is a communicative behaviour rather than a system consisting of abstract rules. Language instruction program should not be planned according to the learning outcomes. That is, the formation and the pace of the instruction should be in accordance with the students' needs. Thus, the rightest way is to depart from the students' prior experiences of language learning and communication. Another important parameter is to increase the

student participation and motivation. Probably the most important parameter is to encourage students to make their own decisions on their educations, to detect their own mistakes and correct them on their own (Littlejohn, 1983, p. 605).

For class based approaches, it is essential to recover the students from their dependency of their teachers. So as to achieve that, practices are carried out to encourage the students to be the teacher of their own as well as their group. Cooperative language learning practices are the most effective ones that allow the learners to play the role of the teacher. Cooperative language learning is defined as the strategies that enable each of the students in the cooperative learning groups to use the target language by way of interaction with other members in the group (Kessler, 1992, p. 37). Cooperative language learning practices increase the managerial skills of the students (Baloche, 1998; Good & Brophy, 2000) by creating a student centred classroom environments (Cangelosi, 2000; Sharan, 1994). It is indicated that cooperative learning activities increase the student participation in the classroom and the internal motivation. Furthermore, with those activities, it is possible to hinder the emergence of conflicts between students and to prevent negative student behaviours in the classroom (Cangelosi, 2000, p. 41). Besides, it is seen that teachers implementing the cooperative learning in their plans for the classroom may have less difficulty in classroom management (Gwyn-Paquette & Tochon, 2003, p. 532). Cooperative learning, enabling the teachers to observe the students, would provide them the opportunity to focus on students' needs. Also, apart from students' needs, it becomes possible to determine their weaknesses, styles, and strengths in learning (Nunan, 1992, p. 52; Sharan, 1994, p. 113). Thus, considering all these information, teachers can plan the next lesson.

2.2.5.3. Program based approaches. Program based approaches to autonomy refer to the idea that the student should have control over the instruction program. In other words, the fundamentals of this approach mean that the learner plays an active role in all the dimensions of instruction program such as the objectives, content, learning processes, and evaluation. There are three main reasons that should be noted in terms of the participation of the students to program development (Bloor & Bloor, 1988, p. 70). First of all, this is the only way that would help the definition of students' needs and demands regarding the instruction program. That is, listening to the ideas of the students would increase their motivation towards learning. Furthermore, the motivation is an increasing one as it would bring about the students' participation as well as the continuity of class attendance. Lastly, it may encourage the students to take the responsibility in their own learning processes while enabling them to take steps towards to become autonomous learners.

Participation levels of the learners to the program development may differ. Among these levels are the participation in the development of the entire program, creation of the entire syllabus, definition of the contents, and evaluation processes. What should be primarily done is to prepare the learner to participate in program development. Teachers may facilitate this process by taking the following steps (Nunan, 1998, p. 155):

- Making the learning objectives clear and comprehensible;
- Allowing the students to determine their own objectives;
- Encouraging the students to use the target language outside of the classroom;
- Informing the students about the learning process;
- Assisting the students to determine their learning styles and strategies;
- Encouraging the students to choose the activities and the content;
- Allowing the students to create their own learning activities;

- Encouraging the students to help others by becoming the teachers of their peers;
- Encouraging the students to become explorers in language learning.

Student participation in program development was first carried by secondary school students in Denmark (Dam & Legenhausen, 1996), and by university students in Thailand, Finland and England (Hall & Kenny, 1995; Karlsson, Kjisik, & Nordlund, 1997; Bloor & Bloor, 1988). As a result of these practices consisting of the dimensions such as the determination of objectives and contents, self-evaluation, and collaborative learning, positive developments have been observed in the students' academic performance, self-confidence, language learning motivation, and autonomy. Especially in the context of universities, it is concluded that the students make progress by using the foreign language and opportunities in the university environment, determining learning outcomes, controlling their own learning processes and autonomy by getting rid of the domination of the teacher (Bloor & Bloor, 1988, p. 69). To conclude, it can be argued that all these developments constitute the foundation of autonomous language learning.

2.2.5.4. Teacher based approaches. Teachers have an important and effective role in increasing autonomy. The most important role of the teachers in learning autonomy is that they represent the source and the origin point for the development of autonomy. However, this does not mean that the teachers should be considered as the person who is the only one knowing and explaining everything. On the contrary, the role of the teacher in autonomy is to guide the learners to provide solutions to their problems by teaching them how to access information (Aoki, 1999, p. 149). Considering the inadequacy of facilitative sources such as personal development centres, libraries, and computers especially in Turkey, the teachers should act as the source and guide for the learners to shape their own learning processes. However, the teachers should not be too

strict while they are performing their role as guides for the students. They should know how to lead the students to find their own solutions rather than giving the exact answers to their questions. Also, the flexibility of the teachers is directly related to the level of the students who are trying to become autonomous learners.

Teacher should create awareness on the learning process as well as allowing the students to determine their objectives, choose the content and the materials, identify learning methods, and evaluate their own performances (Tudor, 2001, p. 201). Voller (1997, p. 109) highlights various roles of teachers in the autonomous learning environment such as facilitators, advisors, and guides as they support students in their learning processes by providing expertise in their face-to-face communication with the students.

There are two types of support that the teachers may provide the students: technical support and psychosocial support (Voller, 1997, p. 111).

Providing technical support, the teachers attempt to help the students to obtain information and skills on

- Determining their learning and language needs,
- Determining their both short-term and long-term objectives,
- Planning their studies,
- Choosing the appropriate materials,
- Evaluating their learning processes by way of self-evaluation and peer assessment,

by creating a metacognitive awareness on language learning to realise the practices specified above (Voller, 1997, p. 111).

Providing psychosocial support, the teachers should be

- Patient, tolerant, supportive without prejudices,

- Motivating the learners while helping the students to overcome the obstacles they encounter during the learning process by eliminating ambiguities,
- Allowing the learners to think about the learning process and the role of the learner,
- Helping the students understand the importance and the necessity of autonomous learning (Voller, 1997, p. 110).

2.2.5.5. Learner based approaches. As learner based approaches are directly related to the behavioural and psychological changes in the learners to control their own learning processes, they can be argued to be different from the other approaches that only provide opportunities for the students (Benson, 2001, p. 74). Learner based approaches mainly consist of learner training and strategy teaching. Sheerin (1997, p. 63) argues that these concepts only mean teaching a person how to do something. Considering language teaching, the ways to teach strategies can be said to consist of effective vocabulary usage, correct pronunciation practices, and predicting the meaning of an unfamiliar word. In accordance with this idea, Esch (1997, p. 42) claims that reducing autonomy into providing certain skills to the learner is a misconception about autonomy. Therefore, strategy teaching is not capable of creating autonomous learners. Here, Sheerin (1997, p. 60) emphasises another concept known as learner development. The concept is defined as the cognitive and affective development of the individuals that allow them to manage their own learning processes as well as identifying themselves as learners. As it can be understood from these explanations, learner development is not something that is influenced and triggered by the teacher or another person. That is, learner can only receive help from the others in the process but s/he is always on his/her own. Thus, strategy teaching is merely a way of assisting the learner.

Accordingly, it would be useful to discuss the relationship between learner development and learner autonomy. Wenden (1991, p. 93) asserts that some learners are more successful in language learning because they know how to learn. These people have acquired the necessary behaviours that would allow them to use the learning strategies in an appropriate way in a secure environment and independent from the teacher; thus, they are autonomous. On the other hand, Cohen (1998, p. 136), emphasising the use of strategy, argues that learning strategies are consciously selected by the learners. For him, the conscious selection is the most important factor. Accordingly, strategies used for language learning consists of stages such as memorising, recalling, and implementing the language-related information in real life.

It is appropriate to gather information about the student before strategy teaching. Wenden (1991, p. 27) recommends that observing the student, requiring the learner to record the methods while studying on a certain activity, semi-structured interviews, and scales consisting of questions regarding the learning experiences and processes of the students would be useful in gathering information about the learners.

There are other important points for the strategy teaching to contribute to learner autonomy. For instance, students should be given information about the value and importance of the strategies that they are learning; however, they should also be given the opportunity to experience the value and importance by themselves. Strategy teaching should consist of both cognitive and metacognitive strategies. Apart from the awareness of language learning and the learning process in cognitive strategies, planning, self-observation and self-assessment should all be mentioned in metacognitive strategy teaching. During and after the strategy teaching program, the strategies should be evaluated as to what extent they fulfil the language learning demands of the students as well as to what extent the learners advance their skills to use the information in the

right place. Furthermore, the effects of the strategy teaching should be determined in the behaviours of the students. Accordingly, those evaluations would help the development of a more systematic and beneficial strategy training program (Wenden A. , 1987, p. 109).

2.2.5.6. *Technology based approaches.* Although technology based approaches used to refer to audio recordings and video cassettes, recently, it can be seen that Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) have begun to play a prominent role. CALL, defined as the process that enables learners to develop their language skills by using computers, is important in terms of autonomy as it can be used in both inside and outside of language classrooms (Beatty, 2003, p. 66).

Historically, it can be seen that it was 1950s in which the computers were used with the purpose of language teaching. Programmed Logic/Learning for Automated Teaching Operations (PLATO) was developed by Illinois University in 1959. With PLATO, Russian language was aimed to be taught by way of grammar translation method and especially the scientific documents were translated. As the program, including grammar, vocabulary and translation practices, allowed the students to solve certain questions and tests according to their mistakes, it can be regarded to constitute the basis of today's language learning software. As CD-ROM and DVD were developed in 1970s and 1980s, computer assisted language learning gained a new dimension enabling the students to perform listening practices. Furthermore, software such as Macario, ALLP, and Eliza were developed in accordance with a more constructivist approach for language learning.

After 1990s, customisable and visually rich software were developed in accordance with constructivist approach. Today's CALL applications are classified in eight different categories (Beatty, 2003, pp. 58-81):

1. Word Processing (Spelling and Grammar Control)
2. Games (Hangman and Quizzes)
3. Literature (Texts of theatre plays, and their video recordings)
4. General Linguistics (Keywords in a text)
5. Communication via Computers (E-Mails, Network Friends, Chat Rooms)
6. Internet Resources (Both commercial and non-commercial resources for the learners)
7. Adaptation of other materials into Computer Assisted Language Learning (authentic materials, newspaper articles, advertisements)
8. Personal Digital Assistants (Hand-use computers that creates a broader learning environment allowing the user to connect to Wi-Fi)

2.2.6. Language learning strategies. It is known that learning a foreign language is a tough process for the learners and in this process the learners come across with various difficulties. For this purpose the factors affecting the process of learning a foreign language have been researched beginning in early 1970's and methods, techniques and strategies have been developed to reduce these factors to minimum. Moreover, the personal qualities of the learners have not been overlooked and studies were carried out to find out which qualities efficient foreign language learners have. One of the basic facts that respond how an efficient foreign language learner should be is the fact that the learner's knowledge of the language learning strategies and his/her implementation them in use (Cohen, 1998; Norton & Toohey, 2001; Oxford R. L., 1990; Woodrow, 2005). This fact is verified by various studies carried out to observe the relation between language learning strategies and success in language learning. These studies proved that the usage of language learning strategies by students affected

their language learning in a positive way (El-Dib, 2004; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford R. L., 1990; Gu, Hu, & Zhang, 2005; Wenden & Rubin, 1987).

Language learning strategies were defined in different ways by various researchers. Oxford (1990, p. 41) defined language learning strategies as the techniques that students use in their process of learning a foreign language to enhance their language capabilities while Cook (1996, p. 32) defined those as the decisions affecting learning which are taken by students while learning or using a foreign language. According to Wenden and Rubin (1987, p. 62) language learning strategies are the complete operations realised by foreign language learners to access, accumulate, store and use the information more easily. As for Cohen (1998, p. 12) language learning strategies are the learning processes which are selected intentionally by the learner. Cesur (2008, p. 21), on the other hand, defined those as the behaviours and thoughts of the learners in order to simplify learning. According to these definitions language learning strategies may be defined as various operations profited by foreign language learners to enable them to learn easily and quickly in their learning processes.

2.2.6.1. Cognitive strategies. These strategies are related to direct conduct of a learning material restricted by certain learning missions. These can be listed as (Can, 2011; Griffiths, 2007; Tok, 2007):

- To repeat a language model as an imitation
- To show reference by means of using language tools
- Taking the first language as a basis to understand and translation to form the second language
- Reorganisation of necessary tools of learning for reclassification
- Taking notes of important points or ideas that are presented as written or oral
- Deduction or practice of rules deliberately to understand and use the language

- Recombination, to form meaningful sentences by combining a new method and known elements
- Using visual materials to associate new information with visual concepts
- Ability to form equivalent sounds for a word or sentence that is ability to say what is heard
- To find key words that is to remember words in second language by detecting word in first language that are alike or that have similar sounds with the new world.
- To place a word into a meaningful sentence that is the ability to use a word in a sentence
- To associate a new information with the others in mind
- To transfer that is to use the grammar concepts to simplify the new language learning process
- Inference that is to use the inhabited knowledge to guess the meanings of the new words and concepts.

2.2.6.2. Metacognitive strategies. These are process organisation strategies that are related to knowing how to learn and organise.

These are listed as (Can, 2012; Griffiths, 2007; Tok, 2007):

- Advanced organisation that is to be active in organisation of thoughts and principles expected in learning activities
- Paying attention that is to decide participating in learning activities beforehand
- Selective attention that is the will to join in language activities beforehand
- Understanding the means that will help one to learn and self-management to organise the existing situation

- Planning language elements that are necessary to realise foreign language activities
- Observing oneself to correct one's speech in various aspects
- Deliberate delay of speaking to learn by listening at first
- Evaluating oneself in order to control language learning level.

2.2.6.3. Social and affective strategies. These strategies are related to social aid activities and reconciliation with others. Pair work, group work, surveys, projects, explanations and requests are basic social affective strategies. Social affective strategies are related to the learner's socialization (Can, 2012; Cesur, 2008).

While metacognitive strategies include the contemplation on learning process, scheming to learn and evaluation of how well a student has learnt; the cognitive strategies necessitates interaction with the learning material, using the material and application of a technique appropriate to the learning mission. Social Affective Strategies necessitates interaction with someone to aid learning and using affective method to aid the learning mission.

2.2.7. Factors effecting learner autonomy.

- **Belief:** In the process of autonomous language learning, the beliefs and attitude of the students have an important role. The language learning process may become difficult or easy depending on the belief. The belief in success of learning a language helps the students to overcome the process with ease. The lack of belief; however, makes the process harder. Autonomous learners always try to maintain their belief in success.
- **Academic Achievement:** Many researchers expressed that it supports the learning process activity by heightening the learning motivation of the learner autonomy and increases the success of a student (Sanprasert, 2010, p. 119). A learner

would be involuntary to learn as long as s/he doesn't take up the responsibility of learning by him/herself and hence would be unsuccessful throughout his/her life. In order to achieve an effective and successful learning and teaching environment, it is necessary to incorporate applications that improve learner autonomy (Sanprasert, 2010, p. 120). Related to the importance of learner autonomy in language learning process, education members and linguists should consider the relation between learner autonomy and academic achievement (Çiftçi, 2011, p. 47).

- Age: Students using their autonomous abilities to learn a foreign language are easier in childhood. As the learners get older they develop fears towards learning a language and learning becomes harder. In early years it is easier to adapt to the changes in learning processes.
- Anxiety: The students who have lower anxiety levels learn in a more comfortable and positive atmosphere while learning a foreign language and it is thought to ease learning.
- Attitude: Students who have positive attitude towards the target language in the language learning process are more likely to make use of their autonomous skills while learning. The students having the positive attitude use the elements such as taking responsibility and making plans to overcome the difficulties they encounter.
- Experience: It can be said that experiences of students with the target language in autonomous learning process help them to participate in the learning process more actively. That is, experiences enhance autonomous learning skills.
- Culture: Learner autonomy emerges in various types depending on different individuals and different learning states of the same individual. It shows indications depending on the cultural context at the same time (Benson, 2001, p. 82). The students in the learning process are under the pressure of the society they live in. They reflect

their cultural elements while engaging in learning activities. In some cultures learner autonomy is easy to be practiced while in some others, especially in the conservative ones it may not find a chance to be practiced. Thus, culture has a power to support and to ban the learner autonomy.

- Gender: It is not a factor that affects learner autonomy. However; it has been observed that males are much more voluntary for learner autonomy (Yılmaz, 2007, p. 131). It is not yet known why this is the case but it can be inferred that the reason is males are tend to have a will to plan and execute their learning processes. As for teachers who see learner autonomy as a must, the female teachers are more supportive than their male counterparts (Özkal & Demirkol, 2014, p. 301). It can be observed that there are several thoughts on the effects of sex on learner autonomy.

- Learned Helplessness: Any experience of learned helplessness by a student hinders his/her autonomous skills, hence causes him/her to stay passive. One of the functions of the learner autonomy is to eradicate this state of helplessness of students. Students may easily overcome the problems in language learning after overcoming learned helplessness.

- Learning Styles: The fact that students are able to detect their learning style preferences helps them to understand more of the strategies they use. Students' awareness of learning styles enables them to adapt in different learning environments, thus helps them to develop learner autonomy. It helps them to develop positive attitude towards language learning process. Moreover, it supports teachers to teach relevant to the learning styles of the students and use learning methods relevant to those styles (Cesur, 2008, p. 51). The fact that the learning styles are known and paid attention makes the process of language learning easier for students besides enabling them to perform.

- **Motivation:** Motivation as one of the important factors in foreign language learning influences the roles that are to be taken up by the students in the learning process. As a result, the students who have low motivation fall behind to improve their language skills (Oxford & Shearin, 1994, p. 20).

Student motivation, one of the biggest problems of teachers of all times, is closely related to autonomy. Motivation is viewed as a significant factor affecting the class and the teacher to be successful. For this reason, autonomy can be considered as the perfect tool for improving students' motivation.

In order to carry out the language learning process with success, both inner and outer motivation levels of the students are needed to be high. To strengthen the inner motivation of the students, activities that will increase their interest in target language and their self-confidence should be organised (Gan, Humphreys, & Hamp-Lyons, 2004, p. 238).

A teacher can provide the conditions for language learning; yet, learning happens if the students are willing to participate in the learning process (Scharle & Szabo, 2000, p. 8). Learning doesn't happen before motivating students and persuade them to be involved in the learning process. Therefore, before the activities take place, the motivation factor must be considered.

- **Multiple Intelligence Areas:** According to the multiple intelligence theory, which expresses that the individuals have more than one intelligence area, the students conduct their learning activities in accordance with the intelligence areas they have.

Gardner indicates that as students have different styles of thinking, multiple intelligence increases the quality of education in various disciplines. According to Gardner, multiple intelligences enable the individuals to come up with new solutions to the problems they encounter and to detect complex problems (Özdemir, 2006, p. 62).

The types of intelligence that an individual have shape his/her way of learning. This theory makes them to take responsibility by generating control over class activities of the students, learning methods and approaches (Viens & Kallenbach, 2004, p. 51).

Although teachers think that students learn in the same way in a learning environment, the students differ in their characteristics. Each of them has different interest, talent, environment, culture and biological potentials. This situation necessitates a personalised learning structure for students. Studies have shown that students learn in the ways that are listed below:

- Students learn by play.
- Children learn by trial and error.
- Sense organs are the most powerful tools of learning.
- Conversation strengthens communication.
- Students learn by solving real problems.
- Research and analysis are tools of inner motivation (Özdemir, 2006, pp. 33-34).

Students who have different specialties use different ways in the learning process.

Hence, multiple intelligence areas enable the students to be active in learning processes and learning to happen in various ways. In the same time, it helps the teacher to plan the teaching program in accordance with the learning style of each student.

2.3. Willingness to Communicate

2.3.1. Definition of willingness to communicate. Whether an individual is willing to communicate with the person or not depends on the situational limitations of the encounter. In fact, most individuals tend to demonstrate a steady willingness to communicate in most conditions. When literature reviewed regarding people's willingness to have a conversation with one another, it can be observed that people generally show a frequent tendency to communicate with one another (Goldman-Eisler,

1951, p. 356; Borgatta & Bales, 1953, p. 304). The notion of willingness to communicate can be defined as the regularity of communicative behaviours in interpersonal communication environments. That is, willingness to communicate is the tendency of each person to communicate under the same conditions (McCroskey & Richmond, 1982, p. 460).

The theory of willingness to communicate have been developed in the light of Phillips's (1965) study on reticence, McCroskey's (1970) study on communication-bound anxiety, Burgoon's (1976) study on unwillingness to communicate, Mortensen and associates' (1977) study on tendencies towards verbal behaviour, and McCroskey and Richmond (1982)'s study on the effects of shyness on interpersonal communication. As it can be seen, it is possible to group all these concepts in these studies under a communicational tendency as personal characteristics of individuals.

There are some studies in the literature that attempt to demonstrate why a particular individuals' willingness to communicate is perceived by people as high or low. High willingness to communicate could be related with the increase in the amount and frequency of communication behaviours as a result of positive communication outcomes (Johnston, Pecchioni, & Edwards, 2000, p. 47).

MacIntyre and associates (1998) developed a new model of willingness to communicate, which became popular in the literature. This new model attempts to include linguistic, psychological, and communicative variables. In their model, apart from these variables, social, situational, cognitive, and affective are also used in parallel with the first three variables as they may be influential on an individual's level of willingness to communicate. As this model is acknowledged both theoretically and practically, it would be useful to discuss the model especially in the context of foreign language learning.

Consisting of six layers, the model developed by MacIntyre and associates (1998, p. 547) includes twelve constructs in a pyramid model (see Figure 3.)

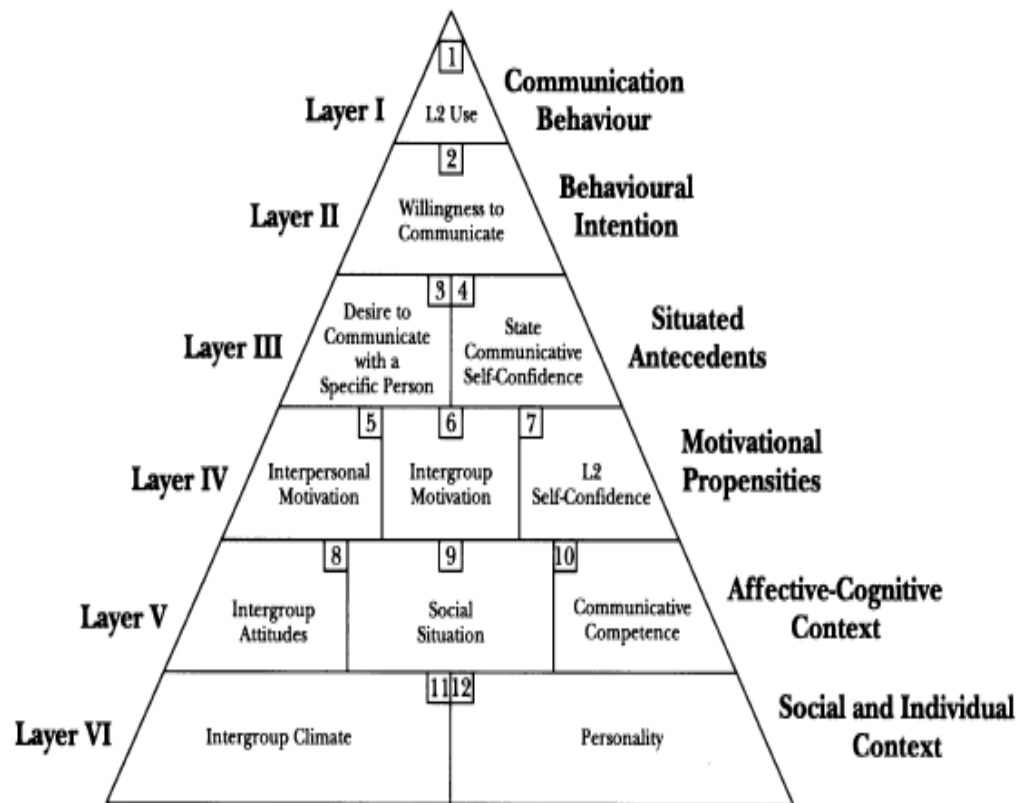


Figure 3: Heuristic Model of Variables Influencing Willingness to Communicate (MacIntyre, Clement, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1998)

- Communication Behaviour:** In this layer, the variable L2 Use resides. L2 use refers to activities which an individual tends to do in the second or the foreign language. These activities may include speaking in the foreign language in the classroom, reading a novel in the foreign language, or watching movies or television series with or without subtitles in the foreign language.

- Behavioural Intention:** This layer includes willingness to communicate. Willingness to communicate can be explained as the foreign language learners' intention to have conversations in the foreign language.

- **Situated Antecedents:** Two variables reside in this layer: desire to communicate with a specific person, and state communicative self-confidence. The variables in this layer are related to individuals' urge to communicate in particular people under specific topics, and their belief in them that they would be able to have efficient conversations.
- **Motivational Propensities:** As it can be expected, the variables in this layer are related to individuals' motivation in certain contexts and environments such as interpersonal motivation, intergroup motivation and second language self-confidence.
- **Affective-Cognitive Context:** The variables that reside in this layer are intergroup attitudes, social situation, and communicative competence. Among these, intergroup attitudes are related to the foreign language learners' inclination to have conversation in particular situations that require communication in the foreign language. On the other hand, social situation refers to the factors such as the setting, the conversation topic, the channel, and the speakers. Lastly, communicative competence is the foreign language learners' level of language such as beginner, intermediate, and advanced that would be influential in the learners' level of willingness to communicate.
- **Social and Individual Context:** This layer consists of intergroup climate and personality. These variables can be described as the personal characteristics of individuals and their tendency to fit into the values and norms of the foreign language group.

2.3.2. Willingness to communicate in first language. Willingness to communicate, as a term, was coined by McCroskey and associated to explain individuals' tendency to communicate in their native languages (McCroskey, 1992; McCroskey & Richmond, 1990; Zakahi & McCroskey, 1989).

Willingness to communicate shows the students intention to communicate in the second language. McCroskey and Richmond (1990, p. 73), attempting to explain

willingness to communicate in the first language conducted research in United States, Australia, Sweden, Puerto Rico, and Micronesia. In their comparative study, attempting to define the relations between communication apprehension, communication competence, introversion and willingness to communicate, McCroskey and Richmond concluded that the relationship among these variables may differ according to the countries. That is, the level of willingness to communicate of American students in their native language is the highest while Micronesian students' levels seem to be the lowest. Also, Swedish students are found to have the highest language competence as Micronesian students' language competence levels are the lowest. Accordingly, it would be possible to argue that culture is a significant determinant on the issue of willingness to communicate in the first language (McCroskey & Richmond, 1990, p. 74).

Another study regarding the notion of willingness to communicate in native language is conducted by MacIntyre (1994). In his study, MacIntyre attempted to provide a structural model to demonstrate the variance for willingness to communicate. He concluded that low communication apprehension and a perception of effective communicative skills are the prerequisites for willingness to communicate in general.

Lastly, in the study of MacIntyre and associates (1999, p. 222), it is seen that willingness to communicate in the first language is highly related to the perceived communication competence of the individuals. On the other hand, there is not a correlation between the communication apprehension and willingness to communicate. Furthermore, this study emphasised that the extraversion may act as an important factor for individuals to situate themselves in environments in which communicative experiences are expected (MacIntyre, Babin, & Clement, 1999, p. 219).

2.3.3. Willingness to communicate in second and foreign language. Learners' tendency towards or avoidance against communication is generally non-contradictory. That is, willingness to communicate is a consistent personality trait, which determines individuals' inclination on having conversations in their first language (MacIntyre P. A., Baker, Clement, & Donovan, 2003). Nevertheless, as other determinative factors such as proficiency and communicative competence in the target language play important roles, willingness to communicate in the second or foreign language becomes a rather complex issue.

The term willingness to communicate was coined in studies related to second/foreign language learning. The study of MacIntyre and associates (1998), which has already been discussed above, can be considered as the first study that conceptualised willingness to communicate in second or foreign language. In their study, willingness to communicate in second language is defined as the readiness of an individual to have a conversation at a certain time with a particular person or people speaking in the foreign language. Thus; social, communicative, and linguistic factors may have an impact on willingness to communicate.

Another study regarding willingness to communicate in second language attempted to examine the effects of language learning tendencies and social support. MacIntyre and associates (2001, p. 384), examining the 9th grade students who take all the classes in French, concluded that their orientations in foreign language learning such as travel, friendship with French speakers, job related orientations, personal knowledge, and success in school have a significant effect on their willingness to communicate in French. Moreover, in their research, it is seen that social support is a significant factor for a high level of willingness to communicate in second language (MacIntyre P. D., Baker, Cleent, & Conrod, 2001, p. 385).

A more recent research regarding willingness to communicate in second language asserts that it is a person's voluntary tendency towards having a conversation in a particular situation, which may change in accordance with the person to have the conversation, the conversation topic, and the context. Furthermore, situational willingness to communicate may burst dynamically and the level may change during the conversation. Therefore, it is arguable to claim that the level of willingness to communicate remains constant during the entire process of communication (Kang, 2005, p. 291)

2.3.4. Effects of willingness to communicate. Studies regarding the effects of willingness to communicate have been carried out based on various elements such as communicative fear, shyness, unwillingness to communicate, tendency towards verbal behaviour, communicativeness, reticence, quietness, and social anxiety. In those studies, it is seen that three fundamental research models have been used (Phillips G. M., 1965; McCroskey, 1970; Burgoon, 1976; McCroskey & Richmond, 1982; MacIntyre, Clement, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1998):

- Direct observation of the amount of communication evaluating and analysing the results,
- Measurement of a tendency or an orientation which is presumed to be relevant for willingness to communicate by allowing the emergence of communication and evaluating the results
- Simulation of changes in communicativeness by assessing the results.

In those studies, it is possible to observe the possible outcomes of willingness to communicate. For instance, in McCroskey and Richmond (1990, p. 75), conducting their research in various countries including United States, Australia, and England, concluded that individuals with a low level of willingness to communicate are less

likely to be effective in their communicative actions. Thus, people in those conversations generally develop negative judgements regarding that particular individual (McCroskey & Richmond, 1990, p. 75).

The notion of communication apprehension is also another element that has been developed in the literature regarding the studies attempting to manifest the effects of willingness to communicate. Communication apprehension can be defined as the level of fear or anxiety experienced by individuals when they are confronted with an actual or an imaginary communicative situation (McCroskey, Richmond, Daly, & Falcione, 1977, p. 274). Studies in the literature indicate that individuals with a high level of communication apprehension are more likely to avoid situations in which they are supposed to have conversation with other people. Furthermore, communication apprehension is significantly related with willingness to communicate (McCroskey & McCroskey, 1986, p. 10).

In studies regarding willingness to communicate, it is generally noted that the perceived competence level in the language should be taken into consideration. If people do not regard themselves competent enough to communicate in a particular language, setting, or a context, they may be anxious about having conversations and may be less willing to communicate. Also, it is believed that the perceived competence is the main determinant for people to initiate communication rather than the actual level of competence (McCroskey & McCroskey, 1986; McCroskey, Fayer, & Richmond, 1985). Thus, there is a two way effect between willingness to communicate and perceived competence in communication.

Various studies have been conducted in order to reveal the effects of willingness to communicate. Chan and McCroskey (1987, p. 49), studying the effects of willingness to communicate in learning environments, found that students who get high grades are

more willing to be active in the classroom verbally; however, students getting low grades are generally hesitant to speak in the class. Richmond and Roach (1992, p. 60) state that willingness to communicate has important effects on each stage of an individual's life. That is, willingness to communicate is a highly influential factor of communicative personalities of individuals that may affect the social, educational and institutional success of a person. McCroskey and Richmond (1990, p. 74) also attempted to define the effects of willingness to communicate within the learning environment. They claim that high level of willingness to communicate may provide substantial advantages for the students. For instance, teachers may have either low or no expectation on the success of students with a low level of willingness to communicate. Therefore, the success of students with a high level of willingness to communicate is consistent with the examinations, tasks and grades. Moreover, it is also seen that the students with a high level of willingness to communicate may easily develop friendships with others as they feel content in their experiences in school environment.

CHAPTER 3

Methodology

3.1. Purpose of the Research

The purpose of this study is to determine the relationship between language anxiety, learner autonomy and willingness to communicate both inside and outside of the school for high school students in 10th grade.

3.2. Participants

The population of this research consists of 130 10th grade students from Private Bursa Sınav College Anatolian and Science High School - Demirci Campus and 113 10th grade students from Private Bursa Sınav College Anatolian and Science High School - Özlüce Campus.

3.3. Research Design

This study was conducted during the fall semester of 2017 - 2018 academic year. The researcher has carried out a number of actions to ensure that her research is completed and authorised in ethical behaviour. First of all, permissions were obtained from Bursa Provincial Directorate of National Education (Appendix 1) and the headmasters of the schools (Appendices 2 and 3). Then, all participants and their parents were informed about the goals and requirements of the study. Because all participants were under 18 years old, also a consent form (Appendix 4) was signed to the parents of the participants before applying questionnaires. Finally, the questionnaires were applied at two-week intervals for preventing frustration.

3.4. Data Collection Instruments

To collect data, survey method was used. The survey consists of four chapters (Appendix 5). First chapter is demographic information form which includes participants' gender, income, marital status and education level of parents, number of

siblings and questions that are related with participants' English education. In second chapter, language anxiety questionnaire was used and in third and fourth chapter, learner autonomy and willingness to communicate questionnaires were used.

3.4.1. Language anxiety questionnaire. Language anxiety questionnaire was developed by Hortwitz et al. (1986) and translated into Turkish by Çermik (2015). This questionnaire has 33 items in 1-5 Likert type scale in which 1 means strong disagreement and 5 means strong agreement. The questionnaire has 4 sub factors which are general feeling of English anxiety, communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation and test anxiety.

3.4.2. Learner autonomy questionnaire. Learner autonomy questionnaire was generated by Pekkanlı-Egel (2003). This questionnaire has 44 items in 1-5 Likert type scale in which 1 means never and 5 means always. Reliability coefficient of this questionnaire was found ,76 in Çiftçi's (2011) thesis.

3.4.3. Willingness to communicate questionnaire. Willingness to Communicate questionnaire was originally developed by McCroskey (1992) and adapted into 16 items inside and outside of the class settings by Şener (2014). The participants were asked to choose a number between 0 (never willing to communicate) and 100 (always willing to communicate) for each item in both settings. The questionnaire determines participants' willingness in terms of 4 different types of receivers (strangers, teachers, friends and acquaintances).

3.5. Data Analysis

IBM SPSS 20 was used for statistical analysis. In the analysis, firstly descriptive statistics of participants' demographic information and measurement tools will be shown. Then relationships between research variables will be investigated with Pearson correlation analysis. Lastly, the effect of English education background on research

variables will be investigated with Pearson correlation analysis and independent samples t-test.

CHAPTER 4

Results

4.1. Demographic Information

The questionnaire began with questions regarding demographic information of participants. Table 1 shows the gender distribution of the research population.

Table 1

Frequency Analysis of Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Female	114	46,9
Male	129	53,1
Total	243	100,0

The frequency analysis shows that participants are 46,9% female and 53,1% male.

Participants are also asked about the income level of their families. Income distribution is presented in Table 2.

Table 2

Frequency Analysis of Income

Income	Frequency	Percent
Low income	6	2,5
Middle income	182	74,9
High income	48	19,8
Missing	7	2,9
Total	243	100,0

The frequency analysis shows that 2,5% of the participants are in low income group while 74,9% of them are in middle income group and 19,8% of them are in high income group. 2,9% of the participants did not answer this question.

Marital status of participants' parents and whether they lost one of their parents are also asked. The results of parental status are shown in Table 3.

Table 3

Frequency Analysis of Parental Status

Parental Status	Frequency	Percent
Parents are married	212	87,2
Parents are divorced	25	10,3
Father passed away	2	0,8
Mother passed away	2	0,8
Missing	2	0,8
Total	243	100,0

The frequency analysis shows that 87,2% of the participants' parents are married, 10,3% of the participants' parents are divorced, 0,8% of the participants have father passed away and 0,8% of the participants have mother passed away. 0,8% of the participants did not answer this question.

Education levels of participants' parents are asked separately. Education level of participants' mothers is presented in Table 4.

Table 4

Frequency Analysis of Mother's Education Level

Mother's education level	Frequency	Percent
Illiterate	1	0,4

Elementary School	32	13,2
Secondary School	104	42,8
University	74	30,5
Post-graduate	26	10,7
Missing	6	2,5
Total	243	100,0

The frequency analysis shows that %0,4 of the participants' mothers are illiterate while, % 13,2 of them are graduated from elementary school, %42,8 of them are graduated from secondary school, %30,5 of them are graduated from university and %10,7 of them are graduated from master or PhD. %2,5 of the participants did not answer this question.

Education level of participants' fathers is shown in Table 5.

Table 5

Frequency Analysis of Father's Education Level

Father's education level	Frequency	Percent
Elementary School	14	5,8
Secondary School	93	38,3
University	100	41,2
Post-graduate	32	13,2
Missing	4	1,6
Total	243	100,0

The frequency analysis shows that 0,4% of the participants' fathers are graduated from elementary school, 38,3% of them are graduated from secondary school, 41,2% of

them are graduated from university and 13,2% of them are graduated from master or PhD, 1,6% of the participants did not answer this question.

Another frequency analysis variable in demographic information is the number of siblings. Number of siblings' distribution is shown in Table 6.

Table 6

Frequency Analysis of Number of Siblings

Number of siblings	Frequency	Percent
1	39	16,0
2	144	59,3
3	38	15,6
4 or more	19	7,8
Missing	3	1,2
Total	243	100,0

The frequency analysis shows that 16% of the participants have 1 sibling while 59,3% of them have 2 siblings, 15,6% of them have 3 siblings and 7,8% of them have 4 or more siblings, 1,2% of the participants did not answer this question.

In order to determine the average age of beginning English education, participants were asked when they started English education. Descriptive analysis results are presented in Table 7.

Table 7

Descriptive Analysis of English Education Starting Age

	N	Min	Max	Mean	S.D.
English education starting age	212	2	15	8,99	2,11

The descriptive analysis shows that the minimum starting age for English education is 2 while maximum starting age is 15 among participants. Participants' English education starting age mean was 8,99 (S.D. = 2,11).

Participants' were asked whether they like English classes or not. Distribution of liking English classes is presented in Table 8.

Table 8

Frequency Analysis of Liking English Classes

Do you like English classes?	Frequency	Percent
Yes	138	56,8
No	31	12,8
Neutral	71	29,2
Missing	3	1,2
Total	243	100,0

The frequency analysis shows that 56,8% of the participants like English classes while 12,8% of them don't like and 29,2% of them are neutral about English classes, 1,2% of the participants did not answer this question.

Participants were asked whether they take or have taken additional English lessons out of school. Table 9 shows the distribution of participants who took or didn't take additional English lessons outside of school.

Table 9

Frequency Analysis of English Education Outside of School

Did you study English outside of school?	Frequency	Percent
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Yes	63	25,9
No	179	73,7
Missing	1	0,4
Total	243	100,0

The frequency analysis shows that 25,9% of the participants studied English classes outside of school while 73,7% of them did not. 0,4% of the participants did not answer this question.

4.2. Descriptive Statistics of Questionnaires

Questionnaire also intended to reveal the communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, test anxiety and general feeling of English anxiety levels of participants. Table 10 shows the descriptive analysis regarding language anxiety.

Table 10

Descriptive Analysis of Language Anxiety Questionnaire

	N	Min	Max	Mean	S.D.
Communication apprehension	243	1,00	4,92	2,58	,90
Fear of negative evaluation	243	1,00	5,00	2,50	,88
Test anxiety	243	1,00	5,00	2,69	1,04
General feeling of English anxiety	243	1,00	4,75	2,57	,77
Language Anxiety Total	243	1,00	4,61	2,58	,79

The descriptive analysis shows that the participants' communication apprehension mean was 2,58 (S.D. = 0,90), fear of negative evaluation mean was 2,50 (S.D. = 0,88), test anxiety mean was 2,69 (S.D. = 1,04), general feeling of English anxiety mean was

2,57 (S.D. = 0,77) and lastly, participants' total language anxiety mean score was 2,58 (S.D. = 0,79). These mean scores indicate that participants' English anxiety levels are low.

Learner autonomy was also a topic to be examined in the descriptive analysis of the questionnaire. Results are shown in Table 11.

Table 11

Descriptive Analysis of Learner Autonomy Questionnaire

	N	Min	Max	Mean	S.D.
Learner autonomy	243	1,00	4,85	2,84	,58

The descriptive analysis shows that the participants' learner autonomy mean was 2,84 (S.D. = 0,58). This mean score indicates that participants' learner autonomy levels are on average.

Willingness to communicate is examined both in-school and out-of-school settings.

Table 12 shows the results of in-school setting.

Table 12

Descriptive Analysis of Willingness to Communicate Questionnaire (Inside School Setting)

Willingness to communicate					
with;	N	Min	Max	Mean	S.D.
Strangers	237	,00	100,0	48,69	29,13
Teachers	237	,00	100,0	51,42	29,87
Friends	238	,00	100,0	52,59	28,28
Acquaintances	237	,00	100,0	49,86	31,06
WTC inside of the school	238	,00	100,0	50,88	27,17

The descriptive analysis shows that the participants' willingness to communicate with strangers in school settings mean was 48,69 (S.D. = 29,13), willingness to communicate with teachers in school settings mean was 51,42 (S.D. = 29,87), willingness to communicate with friends in school settings mean was 52,59 (S.D. = 28,28) and willingness to communicate with acquaintances in school settings mean was 49,86 (S.D. = 31,06). Participants' general willingness to communicate inside of the school mean was 50,88 (S.D. = 27,17).

Table 13 shows the analysis of willingness to communicate for out-of-school setting.

Table 13

Descriptive Analysis of Willingness to Communicate Questionnaire (Outside School Setting)

Willingness to communicate						
with;	N	Min	Max	Mean	S.D.	
Strangers	237	,00	100,0	49,26	27,12	
Teachers	236	,00	100,0	45,40	29,18	
Friends	237	,00	100,0	52,68	26,08	
Acquaintances	237	,00	100,0	47,98	28,76	
Willingness to communicate						
outside of the school	237	,00	100,0	49,62	24,97	

The descriptive analysis shows that the participants' willingness to communicate with strangers out of school settings mean was 49,26 (S.D. = 27,12), willingness to communicate with teachers out of school settings mean was 45,40 (S.D. = 29,18), willingness to communicate with friends out of school settings mean was 52,68 (S.D. = 26,08) and willingness to communicate with acquaintances out of school settings mean

was 47,98 (S.D. = 28,76). Participants' general willingness to communicate outside of the school mean was 49,62 (S.D. = 24,97).

4.3. Relationships between Research Variables

Pearson Correlation Analysis is used for determining the relationship between language anxiety, learner autonomy and willingness to communicate both inside and outside of school.

Table 14

Pearson Correlation Analysis between Research Variables

	1	2	3	4
1- Language Anxiety	1			
2- Learner autonomy	-,102	1		
3- WTC inside of the school	-,408**	,468**	1	
4- WTC outside of the school	-,411**	,434**	,716**	1

** $p < ,01$

The Pearson correlation analysis shows that language anxiety has negative and significant correlations with willingness to communicate inside and outside of the school, $r = -,408, -,411, p < ,05$, respectively. These results mean that language anxiety shows an increase when willingness to communicate inside and outside of the school shows decrease. However, there is no significant correlation between language anxiety and learner autonomy, $r = -,102, p > ,05$.

It is also found that learner autonomy has positive and significant correlations with willingness to communicate inside and outside of the school, $r = ,468, ,434, p < ,05$, respectively. It means that when learner autonomy in students increases, willingness to communicate inside and outside of the school also increases.

Lastly, it is found that there is a positive and strongly significant correlation between willingness to communicate inside and outside of the school, $r = ,716$, $p < ,05$. It shows that these variables both affect each other in a positive manner. In other words, a student's willingness to communicate inside of the school and outside of the school increases simultaneously.

4.4. The Effect of English Education Background on Research Variables

The study also tries to reveal the effects of educational background on the research variables. Pearson Correlation Analysis is used for determining the relationship between English education starting age and research variables.

Table 15

Pearson Correlation Analysis between Research Variables and English Education

Starting Age

	English Education Starting Age
Language Anxiety	,111
Learner autonomy	-,058
WTC inside of the school	-,139*
WTC outside of the school	-,181**

* $p < ,05$; ** $p < ,01$

The Pearson correlation analysis shows that English education starting age has negative and significant correlations with willingness to communicate inside and outside of the school, $r = -,139$, $-,181$, $p < ,05$, respectively. However, English education starting age shows no significant correlation with language anxiety and learner autonomy, $r = ,111$, $-,058$, $p > ,05$, respectively. These results show that as English education starting age is lowered, willingness to communicate inside and outside of the school becomes high.

Independent Samples T-Test is used for revealing the relationship between out-of-school English education and research variables.

Table 16

Independent Samples T-Test Analysis between Research Variables and English Education Outside of School

		Did you study English outside of school?				
		N	Mean	S.D.	t	p
Language Anxiety	Yes	63	2,43	,82	-1,715	,088
	No	179	2,63	,78		
Learner autonomy	Yes	61	52,90	28,45	,732	,465
	No	176	49,95	26,67		
WTC inside of the school	Yes	61	52,81	26,03	1,202	,231
	No	175	48,35	24,56		
WTC outside of the school	Yes	63	3,27	,56	1,926	,055
	No	179	3,11	,59		

Independent samples t-test analysis shows that there are no significant differences between students who studied English outside of school and students who did not study English outside of school in terms of language anxiety, learner autonomy, willingness to communicate inside and outside of the school, $t = -1,715, -,732, 1,202, 1,926, p > ,05$, respectively.

CHAPTER 5

Discussion and Conclusion

5.1. Discussion

The subjects of willingness to communicate, learner autonomy and language anxiety have always been matters of interest of education literature. Naderifar and Esfandiari (2016) conducted research to investigate the possible relationships between willingness to communicate, autonomy, oral proficiency, and ambiguity tolerance of Iranian intermediate learners of English as a second language. The population of the study consists of two hundred students learning English at Khavaran Cultural Centre in Tehran. Data is collected via questionnaires, a placement test and the Preliminary English Test. After analysing the data using SPSS statistical software, it is observed that willingness to communicate and oral proficiency directly influences one another. Furthermore, it is also seen that there is no correlation between willingness to communicate and ambiguity tolerance. Moreover, the findings of the study show that there is a significantly positive relationship between willingness to communicate and learner autonomy. Additionally, it is also found that learner autonomy and oral proficiency influences one another. Lastly, willingness to communicate is also seen as a significant predictor of oral proficiency. Results of this study are also parallel to findings of Naderifar and Esfandiari (2016) in terms of willingness to communicate-learner autonomy relationship.

Parallel results with this study are also found in Khaki (2013)'s study on Iranian students. Khaki (2013) attempted to find out the possible relationships between willingness to communicate and learner autonomy in Iranian foreign language learning context. The participants of the study consist of 77 students learning English as a foreign language, whose level are advanced. These students were given a learner

autonomy questionnaire and a willingness to communicate scale. Observing the students for 6 sessions, data to be analysed have been collected and analysed. The findings of the study show that there is a significantly positive relationship between learner autonomy and trait-like willingness to communicate. However, the correlation between situational willingness to communicate and learner autonomy is seen to be significant but weak.

The concepts of intrinsic motivation and reflective teaching also refer information about learner autonomy. Zohrabi and Yousefi's (2016) study on the relationship between willingness to communicate, intrinsic motivation and reflective teaching can also be mentioned as it has implications in terms of learner autonomy. This study, conducted with the participation of 20 teachers and 240 advanced learners of English in Iranian context, provides several important insights on the issue of willingness to communicate. As a quasi-experimental study, Zohrabi and Yousefi selected a reflective teacher and a non-reflective one for their experiment. Following the selection of teachers, 60 participants were divided randomly to create the experimental group and the control group, which the former is taught by the reflective teacher. As a result, both groups took the PET exam so as to measure the effects of reflective teaching on the proficiency level of the students. The findings of the study demonstrate that there is a significantly positive relationship between reflective teaching, intrinsic motivation, proficiency test scores, and willingness to communicate levels of the participants. As for learner autonomy, it can be expected in the long run that the students will most probably imitate the actions of their reflective teachers, which will make them autonomous learners.

Oral communication skills are important designators of willingness to communicate. Soureshjani (2013) studied the effects of self-regulation and the level of willingness to

communicate of students' oral presentation performance in EFL settings. As oral presentation skill is considered as one of the most important skills for foreign language learners, Soureshjani attempts to highlight the effects of learner autonomy and willingness to communicate on oral presentation performances. In order to conduct the study, 90 students at an advance level learning English as a second language were randomly chosen. Two questionnaires regarding willingness to communicate and self-regulation were provided to the participants. Furthermore, during the course of the study, participants were also asked to give an oral presentation on their favourite topic. The findings of the study indicate that there is a significant positive relationship between the self-regulation levels and willingness to communicate levels of the participants and their oral presentation performances. Although the study did not attempt to put forward the relations between willingness to communicate and learner autonomy, it could be argued that the two is significantly important in order to help students develop oral presentation skills in the learning environment.

Foreign language anxiety is a common occurrence throughout the world. Sirocic (2014) attempted to research the relationship between willingness to communicate and foreign language anxiety in young English learners living in Croatia. Departing from a number of studies focusing on young learners, Sirocic argues that it is worth studying the importance of foreign language anxiety and willingness to communicate in young learners because English learning starts at early years of people's lives. The population of the study consists of two groups of English learners whose age differ between 12 and 14. The findings of the study indicate that young EFL learners in Croatia feel less anxious about their language learning practices. Furthermore, it is also seen that their willingness to communicate levels are significantly high. Therefore, it can be argued

that there is a significantly negative relationship between language anxiety and willingness to communicate.

Foreign language anxiety may block students' willingness to communicate. Liu and Jackson (2008) conducted research to explore the relationship between foreign language anxiety and unwillingness to communicate. The study is conducted with 547 first-year undergraduate students whose major is not English. Data is collected through a 70-item survey. The findings of the study reveal that although most participants were not hesitant to participate in interpersonal communication, most of them did not want to risk using English in foreign language classes. Furthermore, more than one third of the participants had language anxiety in their English language classes; thus, they were apprehensive about speaking activities. Moreover, the foreign language anxiety and unwillingness to communicate levels of the participants has a significant correlation.

Speaking in a foreign language requires some level of emotional intelligence. Birjandi and Tabataba'ian (2012) conducted a study to examine the interrelationships between emotional intelligence, willingness to communicate, and foreign language anxiety. In order to collect the required data, 88 participants whose levels of English range between upper intermediate and advanced were required to complete 3 questionnaires (Bar-On's EQ-I, FLCAS (Foreign Language Anxiety Scale), and WTC (Willingness to Communicate)). The findings of the study demonstrate that there is a significant correlation between all three variables. Moreover, it is also seen that there is a significant relation between foreign language anxiety and willingness to communicate. Also, emotional intelligence is seen as a predictor of willingness to communicate in foreign language learning settings.

It is also important to observe the effects of foreign language anxiety on motivation. Motivation and willingness to communicate have a close relationship. Wu and Lin

(2014) attempted to determine the possible mediator role of foreign language anxiety in the relation between motivation and willingness to communicate. In the study, conducted with 107 Taiwanese students selected from a private university and two public universities, a regression analysis is performed to demonstrate the relation between the variables. The results of the study suggest that there is a significantly negative relationship between foreign language anxiety and students' willingness to communicate. However, it is also seen that foreign language anxiety may relatively have a mediator role between motivation and willingness to communicate. Additionally, in terms of motivation, it is seen that there is a negative relationship between motivation and anxiety while there is a positive relationship between motivation and willingness to communicate. Lastly, it can also be seen that low levels of foreign language anxiety and a high level of motivation can be considered as important predictors for willingness to communicate.

5.2. Conclusion

The purpose of this analysis was finding the relationship between language anxiety, learner autonomy and willingness to communicate inside and outside of the school of 10th grade high school students. The 10th grade can be expressed as a period corresponding to the advanced stages of English education. So research population of this study can be seen as a limitation but it is also measure fit. Teachers take a noteworthy role in fostering willingness to communicate which is one of the most important elements for second/foreign language education. In order to ensure that students do not carelessly fill in the questionnaire and to obtain consistent results, the questionnaire was administered at two-week intervals to the students.

The results show that students' English anxiety levels are low; learner autonomy levels and willingness to communicate scores are on average. When the relationships

between those variables were investigated, it was found that language anxiety has negative and significant correlations with willingness to communicate inside and outside of the school. This result means that when students' language anxiety is high, they are more reluctant to communicate inside and outside of the school. Also, it was found that learner autonomy has positive and significant correlations with willingness to communicate inside and outside of the school. It means that when the autonomy of learning English is increasing, willingness to communicate in both settings is also increasing and vice versa. Lastly, there is a positive and strongly significant correlation between willingness to communicate inside and outside of the school. Students' willingness to communicate with English inside and outside of the school is increasing and decreasing at the same time.

The effects of English education background on research variables were also investigated. The results show that, English education starting age has negative and significant correlations with willingness to communicate inside and outside of the school. This means that when English education begins at a young age, students are more willing to communicate with English both inside and outside of the school.

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Appendices

Appendix 1



T.C.
BURSA VALİLİĞİ
İl Millî Eğitim Müdürlüğü

Sayı : 86896125-605.01-E.7445008
Konu : Merve Tuğba ÖNCÜL'ün
Araştırma İzni

24.05.2017

ULUDAĞ ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜNE
(Genel Sekreterlik)

- İlgi a) M.E.B. Araştırma, Yarışma ve Sosyal Etkinlik İzinleri konulu 07/03/2012 tarihli ve 2012/13 sayılı Genelgesi.
b) 16/05/2017 tarihli ve 20430 sayılı yazımız.

Uludağ Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bilim Dalı yüksek lisans öğrencisi Merve Tuğba ÖNCÜL'ün "10. Sınıf Lise Öğrencilerinin Yabancı Dil Kaygıları, Dil Öğrenme Özerklikleri ve Yabancı Dilde İletişim Kurma İstekleri Arasındaki İlişkinin İncelenmesi" konulu araştırmasını Nilüfer ilçesi Özel Bursa Sınav Anadolu Lisesi ve Özel Bursa Sınav Fen Lisesi'nde uygulama isteği ile ilgili onay ekte gönderilmiştir.

Bilgilerinizi, ilgilinin çalışmasının tamamlanmasından sonra İl Millî Eğitim Müdürlüğümüze çalışmanın sonucu ile ilgili bilgi verilmesini arz ederim.

Ekrem KOZ
Müdür a.

İl Millî Eğitim Müdür Yardımcısı

EK:
Makam Onayı (1 Sayfa)

Recep ÇELİK
VHKİ.
Güvenli Elektronik İmza
Asil ile Aynıdır.
24 Mayıs 2017

Adres : Yeni Hükümet Konağı A Blok
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İl Millî Eğitim Müdür Yardımcısı
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ARGE VHKİ
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Appendix 2

ÖZEL BURSA DEMİRCİ SINAV ANADOLU VE FEN LİSESİ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜNE

Kurumunuzda Şubat 2016'dan bu yana İngilizce Öğretmeni olarak görev yapmaktayım. Uludağ Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bilim Dalında yüksek lisans yapmaktayım. Yürütmekte olduğum "10.Sınıf Lise Öğrencilerinin Yabancı Dil Kaygıları, Dil Öğrenme Özerklikleri ve Yabancı Dilde İletişim Kurma İsteklilikleri Arasındaki İlişkilerinin İncelenmesi (A Study on the Relationship between Language Anxiety, Autonomy, and Willingness to Communicate of 10th. Grade High School Students)" konulu yüksek lisans tezimin veri toplama aşamasında okulunuz 10. sınıf öğrencilerine ekte sunduğum anketlerin uygulanabilmesi için gereğinin yapılmasını arz ederim.

13/04/2017

Merve Tuğba Öncül

M. Öncül

Ek: Öğrenci Anketleri

UYGUNDUR

13.04/2017



Appendix 3

ÖZEL BURSA ÖZLÜCE SINAV ANADOLU VE FEN LİSESİ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜNE

Uludağ Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bilim Dalında yüksek lisans yapmaktayım. Yürütmekte olduğum “10.Sınıf Lise Öğrencilerinin Yabancı Dil Kaygıları, Dil Öğrenme Özerklikleri ve Yabancı Dilde İletişim Kurma İsteklilikleri Arasındaki İlişkilerinin İncelenmesi (A Study on the Relationship between Language Anxiety, Autonomy, and Willingness to Communicate of 10th. Grade High School Students)” konulu yüksek lisans tezimin veri toplama aşamasında okulunuz 10. sınıf öğrencilerine ekte sunduğum anketlerin uygulanabilmesi için gereğinin yapılmasını arz ederim.

21/04/2017

Merve Tuğba Öncül

M. Öncül

Ek: Öğrenci Anketleri

UYGUNDUR

21 / 04 / 2017



Appendix 4

VELİ İZİN FORMU

Merve Tuğba ÖNCÜL tarafından gerçekleştirilen “10. Sınıf Lise Öğrencilerinin Yabancı Dil Kaygıları, Dil Öğrenme Özerklikleri ve Yabancı Dilde İletişim Kurma İstekleri Arasındaki İlişkilerin İncelenmesi” konulu araştırmada, araştırma örneklemini Özel Bursa Sınav Koleji Anadolu ve Fen Lisesi (Demirci ve Özlüce Kampüsleri) 10.sınıf öğrencilerinden oluşmaktadır. Çalışma ile yabancı dil öğrenimi ile ilgili bilimsel sonuçların elde edilmesi amaçlanmaktadır. Değerli velilerimizi çalışma ile ilgili aşağıda belirtilen maddeler ile bilgilendirerek çalışmanın etik kurallar içerisinde gerçekleştirileceğini bilgilerinize sunmak isterim.

- Velisi olduğunuz öğrencinin bu araştırmaya katılımı gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır.
- Bu çalışma için öğrencilere bir dizi anket uygulayarak yarı deneysel verilerin elde edilmesi amaçlanmaktadır.
- Ankete katılım esnasında açık kimlik bilgileri katılımcılardan talep edilmeyecek ve bu bilgiler çalışma dışı amaçlar ile kullanılmayacaktır.
- Elde edilen veriler yalnızca bu araştırma için kullanılacaktır. İhtiyaç halinde tekrar katılımcıların ve velilerinin yazılı iznine başvurmadan herhangi bir veri paylaşımına sunulmayacaktır.
- Anket formlarını inceleyerek, verilmesini mahsurlu gördüğünüz bilgilerin toplanmaması yönünde talepleriniz dikkate alınacaktır.
- Araştırma sonunda bilgilerin gizliliğine riayet edilecek ve bu veriler araştırma tamamlandığında güvenli bir şekilde arşivlenecek ya da imha edilecektir.
- Araştırma için öğrencileri rahatsız etmeyecek sorular seçilmiştir. Ancak öğrenci soruları cevaplamada rahatsızlık hissederse istediği zaman ankete katılımını sonlandırabilecektir ve o ana kadar cevapladığı sorular imha edilerek araştırmaya dahil edilmeyecektir.

Zaman ayırdığınız için teşekkür ederim. Sorularınız varsa aşağıda belirtilen iletişim bilgilerinden ulaşabilirsiniz.

Adres: Özel Bursa Sınav Koleji Anadolu ve Fen Lisesi (Demirci Kampüsü)

Tel: 0224 4941199

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Velisi olduğum, Lisesi sınıfı öğrencisi'nın bu çalışmaya kendi rızasıyla katılmasını ve istediği takdirde çalışmadan ayrılabilceğini bilerek toplanan bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlarla kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum.

VELİ ADI-SOYADI:

İMZA VE TARİH:

Appendix 5

Sevgili Öğrenciler,

Aşağıdaki anketler akademik bir çalışma için hazırlanmış olup elde edilecek veriler bu çalışmada kullanılacaktır. Lütfen sıralanmış ifadeleri dikkatle okuduktan sonra her ifadeye belirtilen değerlere göre bir puan veriniz.

Ankete katılıp zaman ayırdığınız için teşekkür ederim.

*Saygılarımla,
Merve Tuğba Öncül
T.C. Uludağ Üniversitesi
İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bilim Dalı
Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi*

I. DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FORM

1. Cinsiyetiniz?

Kadın Erkek

2. Gelir durumunuz?

Alt Orta Üst

3. Anneniz ve babanız...

Evli
 Boşanmış
 Anne sağ, baba vefat etmiş
 Baba sağ, anne vefat etmiş
 Anne ve baba vefat etmiş

4. Annenizin eğitim durumu?

Okuryazar değil
 İlköğretim
 Ortaöğretim
 Ön Lisans – Lisans
 Yüksek Lisans – Doktora

5. Babanızın eğitim durumu?

Okuryazar değil
 İlköğretim
 Ortaöğretim
 Ön Lisans – Lisans
 Yüksek Lisans - Doktora

6. Kaç kardeşiniz (siz de dahil)?

1 2 3 4 ve üzeri

7. Kaç yaşından beri İngilizce eğitimi alıyorsunuz?

8. İngilizce derslerini seviyor musunuz?

Evet Hayır Kararsızım

9. Okul dışında İngilizce eğitimi aldınız mı, alıyor musunuz?

Evet Hayır

II. LANGUAGE ANXIETY QUESTIONNAIRE

		Katılım Dereceleri				
		Kesinlikle katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum
		5	4	3	2	1
1	İngilizce derslerinde konuşurken hiçbir zaman kendimden tam olarak emin olamıyorum.					
2	İngilizce derslerinde hata yaparım diye endişelenmem.					
3	İngilizce derslerinde konuşma sırasının bana geldiğini anladığımda elim ayağım titriyor.					
4	Öğretmenin İngilizce olarak söylediği şeyleri anlayamamak beni korkutuyor.					
5	İngilizce ders saatlerinin artırılması beni rahatsız etmez.					
6	İngilizce dersleri sırasında, sık sık kendimi dersle ilgisi olmayan şeyler düşünürken buluyorum.					
7	Sürekli olarak diğer öğrencilerin İngilizce seviyelerinin benden daha iyi olduğunu düşünüp duruyorum.					
8	İngilizce sınavlarında kendimi rahat hissediyorum.					
9	İngilizce derslerinde hazırlıksız konuşmak zorunda kaldığım zaman telaşa kapılıyorum.					
10	İngilizce derslerinde başarısız olmam durumunda karşılaşabileceğim sorunlar beni endişelendiriyor.					
11	Bazı insanların İngilizce derslerini neden bu kadar sorun yaptıklarını anlamıyorum.					
12	İngilizce derslerinde bildiğim şeyleri unutacak ölçüde gergin olabiliyorum.					
13	İngilizce derslerinde bir soruya gönüllü olarak cevap vermekten utanıyorum.					
14	Anadili İngilizce olan biriyle konuşmak beni huzursuz etmez.					
15	Öğretmenin konuşmamda ne hata bulduğunu anlamadığım zaman üzülürüm.					
16	İngilizce derslerine iyi hazırlanmış olsam bile, yine kaygı duyuyorum.					

17	Çoğu zaman İngilizce derslerine gitmek içimden gelmiyor.					
18	İngilizce derslerinde konuşurken kendime güveniyorum.					
19	İngilizce öğretmenimin yaptığım her hatayı düzeltmek için hazır beklediği düşüncesi beni korkutuyor.					
20	İngilizce derslerinde bana söz verildiğinde kalbimin hızla çarptığını hissediyorum.					
21	Bir İngilizce sınavına ne kadar çok çalışırsam çalışayım yine de kafam karışır.					
22	İngilizce derslerine iyi hazırlanmak için üzerimde bir baskı hissetmiyorum.					
23	Her zaman diğer öğrencilerin İngilizceyi benden daha iyi konuştukları duygusuna kapılıyorum.					
24	İngilizceyi diğer öğrencilerin önünde konuşmak konusunda çok çekingenim.					
25	İngilizce dersleri o kadar hızlı ilerliyor ki geride kalmaktan korkuyorum.					
26	İngilizce derslerinde kendimi diğer derslerde olduğundan daha gergin ve huzursuz hissediyorum.					
27	İngilizce derslerinde konuşurken heyecanlanıyorum ve kafam karışıyor.					
28	İngilizce derslerine giderken oldukça rahat ve kendimden emin oluyorum.					
29	İngilizce öğretmenin söylediği her sözü anlamazsam endişeleniyorum.					
30	İngilizce konuşmak için öğrenilmesi gereken kuralların çokluğu altında ezildiğimi hissediyorum.					
31	İngilizce konuştuğum zaman diğer öğrencilerin benimle alay edeceklerinden korkuyorum.					
32	Anadili İngilizce olan yabancılar arasında bulunsam kendimi büyük bir olasılıkla rahat hissederim.					
33	İngilizce dersi öğretmeni hazırlıklı olmadığım konularda sorular sorduğunda kendimi huzursuz hissediyorum.					

21	Sadece öğretmenim İngilizce dil bilgisi kurallarını bana öğretebilir. Tek başıma öğrenemem.					
22	Öğreneceğimiz sözcükleri öğretmenin vermesini isterim.					
23	Yabancı dil derslerimle ilgili kaset/video/CD'leri sınıf dışında kullanmak isterim.					
24	İngilizce okumayı ve dinlemeyi aslında sınıf dışında yapmayı tercih ederim.					
25	Yabancı dil derslerim için malzemeleri kendim seçmek isterim.					
26	İngilizce dersinde neler yapılacağı konusunda sorumluluk paylaşmak isterim.					
27	Ben İngilizceyi nasıl en iyi şekilde öğrenebileceğimi bilirim.					
28	İngilizce dersindeki bir konuyu öğrenememişsem, sorumlusu benim.					
29	İngilizce dersinde öğretilcek konuları kendim belirlemek isterim.					
30	Yazılıdan iyi bir not alınca, bir daha o ders konularını çalışmam.					
31	Arkadaşlarımın yabancı dilde benden daha iyi olduklarını düşünürüm. Onların seviyesine ulaşmak isterim.					
32	İngilizce derslerimle ilgili eksiklikleri nasıl telafi edeceğim konusunda endişelenirim.					
33	İngilizcede iyi bir seviyeye geleceğime inanıyorum.					
34	İngilizceyi sınav olacağımız zaman çalışırım.					
35	İngilizceyi kendi kendime çalışınca daha iyi öğrendiğimi düşünüyorum.					
36	İngilizce dersini sadece öğretmenimin verdiği ödev için çalışırım.					
37	İngilizceyi yalnız çalışmaktansa arkadaşlarımla çalışmak bana daha faydalı oluyor.					
38	İngilizce alıştırmaları sadece öğretmenim not vereceği zaman yaparım.					
39	Öğretmenimin yazılı sınavlardan daha farklı sınav türleri yapması hoşuma gider.					
40	Öğretmenimin İngilizce dersi için çok sınav yapması hoşuma gider.					
41	Öğrendiğim yabancı dildeki fıkraları anlamaya çalışırım.					
42	Öğrendiğim yabancı dilin kültürünü de araştırırım.					
43	Öğrendiğim yabancı dilin atasözlerini ve deyimlerini de araştırırım.					
44	Yurtdışında yaşamış olan insanlara, oradaki insanların yaşam biçimleriyle ilgili sorular sorarım.					

ULUDAĞ ÜNİVERSİTESİ

TEZ ÇOĞALTMA VE ELEKTRONİK YAYIMLAMA İZİN FORMU

Yazar Adı Soyadı	Merve Tuğba Özdemir
Tez Adı	A Study on the Relationship between Language Anxiety, Autonomy and Willingness to Communicate of 10th Grade High School Students
Enstitü	Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü
Anabilim Dalı	Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı
Bilim Dalı	İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bilim Dalı
Tez Türü	Yüksek Lisans
Tez Danışman(lar)ı	Doç. Dr. İlknur Savaşkan
Çoğaltma (Fotokopi Çekim) İzni	<input type="checkbox"/> Tezimden fotokopi çekilmesine izin veriyorum <input type="checkbox"/> Tezimin sadece içindekiler, özet, kaynakça ve içeriğinin % 10 bölümünün fotokopi çekilmesine izin veriyorum <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Tezimden fotokopi çekilmesine izin vermiyorum
Yayımlama İzni	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Tezimin elektronik ortamda yayımlanmasına izin veriyorum <input type="checkbox"/> Tezimin elektronik ortamda yayımlanmasının ertelenmesini istiyorum 1 yıl <input type="checkbox"/> 2 yıl <input type="checkbox"/> 3 yıl <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> Tezimin elektronik ortamda yayımlanmasına izin vermiyorum

Hazırlamış olduğum tezimin yukarıda belirttiğim hususlar dikkate alınarak, fikri mülkiyet haklarım saklı kalmak üzere Uludağ Üniversitesi Kütüphane ve Dokümantasyon Daire Başkanlığı tarafından hizmete sunulmasına izin verdiğimi beyan ederim.

Tarih: 25.07.2019

İmza: 