TURKISH REPUBLIC
TRAKYA UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
FOREIGN LANGUAGES TEACHING DEPARTMENT
DIVISION OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING
A MASTER'S THESIS

THE AGE FACTOR IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE ACQUISITION: A COMPARISON OF THE ANXIETY LEVELS OF HIGH SCHOOL AND UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

KUTAY UZUN

ADVISOR

ASSOC. PROF. DR. MUHLİSE COŞGUN ÖGEYİK

EDİRNE 2014

T.C.

TRAKYA ÜNİVERSİTESİ

SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ

İNGİLİZ DİLİ EĞİTİMİ ANABİLİM DALI

YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ

KUTAY UZUN tarafından hazırlanan **YABANCI DİL EDİNİMİNDE YAŞ FAKTÖRÜ: LİSE VE ÜNİVERSİTE ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN KAYGI DÜZEYLERİNİN KARŞILAŞTIRILMASI** konulu **YÜKSEK LİSANS** tezinin sınavı, Trakya Üniversitesi Lisansüstü Eğitim-Öğretim Yönetmeliği'nin 15.-16. Maddeleri uyarınca **10.06.2014 Salı** günü saat **10.00'da** yapılmış olup, tezin *...Kabul edilmesine..... **OYBİRLİĞİ/OYÇOKLUĞU** ile karar verilmiştir.

JÜRİ ÜYELERİ	KANAAT	İMZA
Doç. Dr. Muhlise COŞGUN ÖGEYİK (Danışman)	Kabul edilmesine	
Doç. Dr. Yeşim FAZLIOĞLU	Kabul edilmesine	
Yrd. Doç. Dr. Hüsnü CEYLAN	Kabul edilmesine	

*Jüri üyelerinin, tezle ilgili kanaat açıklaması kısmında "Kabul Edilmesine/Reddine" seçeneklerinden birini tercih etmeleri gerekir.

T.C
YÜKSEKÖĞRETİM KURULU
ULUSAL TEZ MERKEZİ

TEZ VERİ GİRİŞİ VE YAYIMLAMA İZİN FORMU

Referans No	10039565
Yazar Adı / Soyadı	KUTAY UZUN
Uyruğu / T.C.Kimlik No	TÜRKİYE / 17606222286
Telefon	5055609321
E-Posta	kutayuzun@trakya.edu.tr
Tezin Dili	İngilizce
Tezin Özgün Adı	The Age Factor In Foreign Language Acquisition: A Comparison Of The Anxiety Levels Of High School And University Students
Tezin Tercümesi	Yabancı Dil Ediniminde Yaş Faktörü: Lise Ve Üniversite Öğrencilerinin Kaygı Düzeylerinin Karşılaştırılması
Konu	Eğitim ve Öğretim = Education and Training ; Psikoloji = Psychology
Üniversite	Trakya Üniversitesi
Enstitü / Hastane	Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü
Bölüm	
Anabilim Dalı	Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı
Bilim Dalı	İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bilim Dalı
Tez Türü	Yüksek Lisans
Yılı	2014
Sayfa	122
Tez Danışmanları	DOÇ. DR. MUHLİSE COŞGUN ÖGEYİK 27541602760
Dizin Terimleri	İkinci dil öğrenimi=Second language learning ; Eğitim psikolojisi=Education psychology ; İkinci dil öğretimi=Second language instruction
Önerilen Dizin Terimleri	Yabancı dil kaygısı = Foreign Language Anxiety
Kısıtlama	12 ay süre ile kısıtlı

Tezimin,Yükseköğretim Kurulu Ulusal Tez Merkezi Veri Tabanında arşivlenmesine izin veriyorum. Ancak internet üzerinden tam metin açık erişime sunulmasının 12.06.2015 tarihine kadar ertelenmesini talep ediyorum. Bu tarihten sonra tezimin, bilimsel araştırma hizmetine sunulması amacı ile Yükseköğretim Kurulu Ulusal Tez Merkezi tarafından internet üzerinden tam metin erişime açılmasına izin veriyorum.
NOT: Erteleme süresi formun imzalandığı tarihten itibaren en fazla 3 (üç) yıldır.

12.06.2014

İmza:.....

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This thesis would not have been possible without the valuable support and assistance of several individuals, thanks to whom I was able to hurdle all the obstacles throughout the process.

First and foremost, I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my advisor, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Muhlise C. ÖGEYİK for her guidance and encouragement through my studies. Without her support, this thesis would not have been possible.

I would also like to thank to my family members who have insistently supported me throughout the preparation of this thesis and my whole life. Especially my mother and father, Ümmühan and İbrahim UZUN have done so much to assist and encourage me throughout my studies and my career.

I am also indebted to my friends, colleagues and instructors who have shared their knowledge and experience with me whenever I needed.

Last but not the least, I cannot find words to express my gratitude to my dear wife, Özge UZUN, who has never doubted that I would successfully complete this thesis.

Başlık: Yabancı Dil Ediniminde Yaş Faktörü: Lise Ve Üniversite Öğrencilerinin Kaygı Düzeylerinin Karşılaştırılması

Yazar: Kutay UZUN

Özet

Bu tezin amacı Edirne ilinde öğrenim görmekte olan lise ve üniversite öğrencilerinin yabancı dil kaygı düzeylerini ortaya çıkarmaktır. Betimleyici araştırma modeli ile tasarlanmış olan bu çalışma, katılımcıların yabancı dil kaygı düzeylerini ve yabancı dil kaygısının alt boyutları olan iletişim korkusu, olumsuz değerlendirilme korkusu ve sınav kaygısı seviyelerini karşılaştırmaktadır.

Çalışmaya 569 öğrenci katılmıştır. Araştırma 2012-2013 akademik yılının Bahar döneminde gerçekleştirilmiştir. Veri toplama aracı olarak Horwitz, Horwitz ve Cope (1986) tarafından geliştirilen Yabancı Dil Sınıf İçi Kaygı Ölçeği kullanılmıştır. Verilerin detaylı incelenebilmesi için Huang (2008) tarafından geliştirilen 3 alt boyutlu analiz modelinden yararlanılmıştır.

Elde edilen sonuçlara göre yaşça daha büyük olan öğrenci grubunun, yabancı dil kaygısı, iletişim korkusu, sınav kaygısı ve olumsuz değerlendirilme korkusunu yaşça küçük olan gruba göre daha yoğun bir şekilde yaşadığı saptanmıştır. Bunun yanında, araştırmaya katılan kız öğrencilerin ölçeğin tümünde ve alt boyutlarında belirtilen kaygıları erkeklere göre daha yoğun bir şekilde yaşadığı tespit edilmiştir. Sonuçlara göre üniversite öğrencilerinin kaygı düzeyleri, ölçeğin tamamında ve tüm alt boyutlarında lise öğrencilerinden daha yüksektir. Elde edilen sonuçlar göstermiştir ki ebeveynleri herhangi bir akademik dereceye sahip olan katılımcıların yabancı dil kaygı düzeyleri daha düşüktür. İncelenen son değişken olan öğrencinin algıladığı yabancı dil seviyesinde de, öğrenci tarafından algılanan dil seviyesi arttıkça kaygı düzeyinin düştüğü saptanmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Yabancı dil kaygısı, iletişim korkusu, sınav kaygısı, olumsuz değerlendirilme korkusu

Title: The Age Factor In Foreign Language Acquisition: A Comparison Of The Anxiety Levels Of High School And University Students

Author: Kutay UZUN

ABSTRACT

The aim of the present study is to find out the foreign language anxiety levels of high school and university students in Edirne. A descriptive study in nature, this thesis compares the foreign language anxiety levels of the participants, including the comparisons of their communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation and test anxiety levels.

The participants of the study consisted of 569 students. 385 students who participated in the study were high school students and 184 were university students. The study was conducted in the spring term of 2012-2013. The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), developed by Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope (1986) was used for data collection. In order to conduct in-depth analysis on the collected data, the 3-factor model of the FLCAS developed by Huang (2008) was used.

The analysis results revealed that the older age group experienced foreign language anxiety as well as communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation stronger than the younger group. Moreover, female participants of the study were found out to have a higher level of foreign language anxiety, communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation than their male counterparts. The results also suggested that university students experienced foreign language anxiety at a higher level than high school students, including the three subdomains. It was observed in the results that the participants whose parents had an academic degree at any level experienced a lower level of foreign language anxiety, including the subdomains except for test anxiety. Lastly, according to the results, the participants with a higher perceived English level experienced foreign language anxiety at a lower level than those with a lower perceived English level.

Keywords: Foreign language anxiety, communication apprehension, test anxiety, fear of negative evaluation

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF APPENDICES

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Language anxiety is a unique type of anxiety that is related to foreign language acquisition. This means that there are different forms of anxiety and foreign language anxiety is a separate and unexampled form of it (MacIntyre&Gardner, 1989).

According to Horwitz et al. (1986) there are three processes causing foreign language anxiety and all three processes function interconnectedly. These processes are communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation. Communication apprehension occurs during interaction in a foreign language and it is caused by the concern of the speaker that total comprehension of the message in a foreign language is impossible. For that reason, the speaker is in a feeling of hindrance or obstruction. Text anxiety refers to the feeling of worry caused by a number of exams in classroom environment. The last process that causes anxiety, as mentioned above, is fear of negative evaluation. The term evaluation here may define either the evaluation made by teachers or one's own evaluation. The speaker feels anxious due to the existence of an evaluative environment.

Many factors have been proposed in different studies, which influence foreign language anxiety. The most frequently proposed ones, though, is learning motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2002), student attitudes towards language learning (Gregersen, 2003), individual factors (Dewaele & Furnham, 2000), the quality of student-teacher interaction (Vygotsky, 1986), language background of students (Frantzen & Magnan, 2005), and cooperative learning environments (Oxford, 1997).

In brief, foreign language anxiety is a significant psycholinguistic phenomenon that has been studied up to now. Communication apprehension, text anxiety and fear of negative evaluation are the causes and motivation, attitude, interactional quality, background knowledge, learning environment and individual factors are the elements

that influence foreign language anxiety, which affects students' performance to a great extent.

In the light of the literature about foreign language anxiety, the review of literature part of this thesis provides detailed information about second language acquisition theories including behaviourism, cognitivism and constructivism. Moreover, more formal and specific approaches to the acquisition of second language and the related theories in the literature are discussed in depth. Following those approaches, other factors affecting second language acquisition are examined and anxiety as a psychological factor is explained in-depth. Finally, age as a factor in second language acquisition and its relation with foreign language anxiety are studied in the review of literature section.

In research methodology section, the research is thoroughly described as for its participants, data collection instruments and data analysis procedures. The number of the participants of this study is 569, 385 of which are high school students and 184 of which are university students in Edirne, Turkey. A 5-point Likert Scale, Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) by Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope (1986) was used as the data collection instrument of the study, which consists of 33 items depicting potentially anxiety provoking situations. The data collected was first used for percentile and frequency analysis followed by t-tests and analyses of variance in order to compare the anxiety scores of the participants according to their ages, genders, proficiency levels and the education levels of their family members. The same analysis pattern was also applied to the subdomains of the scale that are communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation respectively.

In the findings section of the study, the results of the analyses are presented in detail and the results are discussed in terms of the causal relationships in the light of the relevant literature as well as the potential effects.

Lastly, conclusion part summarizes the whole study followed by suggestions for further research and teaching implications while indicating the limitations of the study.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Psychological factors such as anxiety in a foreign language setting play a crucial role in second language acquisition. In order to detect to what extent anxiety affects this acquisition process, it is obligatory to find out to what extent learners suffer from it. Discovering the anxiety levels of foreign language learners is the first step of finding out the causes of foreign language anxiety and reducing the undesired effects.

1.3 Research Questions

a) Is there any statistically significant difference between the anxiety levels of high school and university students?

1.3.1 Research Sub-questions

b) Does age play any role in the anxiety levels of students?

c) Does gender status play any role in the anxiety levels of students?

d) Do the institutions where the students study play any role in the anxiety levels of students?

e) Does the education level of the students' parents play any role in the anxiety levels of students?

f) Does perceived English level play any role in the anxiety levels of students?

1.4 Aim

This thesis, upon reviewing the relevant literature, aims to reveal the anxiety levels of high school and university students and compare the acquired results in order to find out any statistically significant difference on the basis of age differences, genders, institutions where the participants study and the education level of their parents.

1.5 Significance

This study bears significance as to the detection and evaluation of the psycholinguistic factors that may hinder learners from speaking English. Moreover, since the relationship between age and psycholinguistic factors is not a topic that has yet been studied in-depth, this study serves as an important resource as for its theoretical and statistical content. According to Spielberger (1983), anxiety is the feeling of strain, uneasiness, perturbation and irritation related to the stimulation of the nervous system. While speaking a foreign language, this feeling of anxiety occurs inevitably, which may result in a higher affective barrier that would slow down or obstruct the spoken production process. In that respect, the present study also bears importance as to if age, gender, education level and socioeconomic status play any role on the level of anxiety.

1.6 Assumptions

In this study, it is assumed that;

a) Expert opinions on the data collection instruments are sufficient.

b) The participants will provide the researcher with real information.

c) The researcher will comply with the research ethics.

d) Uncontrollable variables will affect each participant equally.

e) The qualitative and quantitative techniques used by the researcher are sufficient in terms of providing answers for the research questions.

f) The participants will respond to the data collection instrument in line with their knowledge, opinions and tendencies.

1.7 Limitations

This research is limited to:

a) 2012-2013 Academic Year,

b) High school and University students living in Edirne,

c) The responses given by the participants to FLCAS.

1.8 Concepts/Definition of Terms

Foreign language: A language that is not a native language in a country. (Richards, Platt, and Platt, 1992).

Anxiety: The feeling of strain, uneasiness, perturbation and irritation related to the stimulation of the nervous system (Spielberger, 1983).

Foreign Language Anxiety: A distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process (Horwitz et al., 1986:128).

1.9 Abbreviations

FLCAS: Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale

ELT: English Language Teaching

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Theoretical Aspects of Language Learning

Before 1950's, it was difficult to talk about the existence of a thorough theory of language learning, be it first or second language. The psychological factors that may affect language learning, on the other hand, were disregarded to a serious extent and anxiety being one of those factors was only considered to be a psychological disorder to be treated. However, as the number of the studies in psychology and applied linguistics increased, there emerged a growing interest in how human beings 'learned', which unavoidably came to the point of how human beings learned 'languages'. These improvements in the academia inevitably led to the study of the psychological factors affecting language learning.

The first paradigm, which is related to language learning, this section deals with is behaviourism (Skinner, 1937, 1959). Although the idea was not specifically intended to shed a light upon second language learning, the stimulus-response theory that came out of the operant conditioning model bore inferences to language learning as well. The developments in the behaviouristic stance of learning theories led to the development of Contrastive Analysis (Lado, 1957) and Error Analysis (Corder, 1967) within the context of second language acquisition.

Later on, the drawbacks of the behaviouristic stance in second language acquisition led to the emergence of another paradigm, namely cognitivism. By nature, cognitivism, unlike behaviourism, took into account the variables related to individual capacities and cognitive strategies and certain learning theories like the Cognitive Development Theory (Piaget, 1985) and the Schema Theory (Rumelhart, 1980; Norman, 1983) were developed.

However, both paradigms put the learner in quite a passive state and the criticism related to this fact paved the way for constructivism, which defended that knowledge is constructed by the learner himself, based on prior knowledge and

environment, therefore, the learner was taken to be in an active position (Cunningham, 1988; Harel & Papert, 1991; Johnson-Laird, 1980), unlike the previous paradigms of human learning.

Also mentioned above, the history of learning theories are predominantly within the framework of psychology, however, they bear quite comprehensive insights to second language acquisition, too. In order to provide a clear grasp of the history and development of these theories in relation to implications of second language acquisition, this section provides a review of the relevant literature in learning theories.

2.1.1 Behaviourism

Although it was not particularly intended to shed a light on the phenomenon of second language learning, the behaviourist theory was extensively applied in the field of second language acquisition in the beginning. To get to the core of behaviourism, it is necessary to understand Thorndike's *law of effect* (Thorndike in Moore, 2004). In his experimental study with constrained cats, Thorndike concluded that the behaviours which produced pleasant outcomes (*strengthened behaviour*) tended to be repeated and those which produced unwanted outcomes (*weakened behaviour*) were avoided by the subjects.

Skinner in Morris, Smith and Altus (2005), employing the law of effect as the basis of his theory, put forward the term *operant conditioning* to define behaviourism. He defined operant behaviour as the process of functioning within the environment, disregarding the stimulus factor. He basically thought that the initial stimulus was a spontaneous one and thus it could be ignored. However, the stimulus to follow the response to the initial spontaneous stimulus was a point of concern for Skinner due to the fact that the latter stimulus may produce repetitions of behaviour, thus make the subject of the behaviour operate on the environment. The suggested tools for operant conditioning by Skinner were *reinforcement* and *punishment*, the former defined as the strengthening of a particular behaviour and provided upon a desired response, the latter defined as the attempt to reduce the rate of the recurrence of a particular response.

The theory was elaborated by Skinner in Palmer (2008), holding that it was through stimulus-response reinforcement, which resulted in habit formation, that language learning took place. Behaviouristic language learning theory mainly focused on spoken language and written production was of secondary importance regarding the fact that the natural order of the use of language is writing after speaking and there are even languages without any written form whatsoever. Moreover, learning a language meant forming habits that would lead to the correct use of language, which was a mechanical process through the conditioning of responses or reflexes. In that respect, conditioning, a stimulus-response chain in other words, was necessary to form these habits because through this stimulus-response relationship, responses could be reinforced either positively or negatively and result in conditioning, and habit formation, consequently. Skinner also argued in his theory that human learning functioned in the same way for each individual, provided the same learning environment.

However psychological an approach Skinner's behaviourism may appear, it did not deal with anxiety or the other psychological factors affecting language learning as a part of the learning process. As a consequence of these theories which supported the view that learning a language was habit formation in a target language, Lado in Yang (1992) concluded that acquiring the habits necessary to speak a second language was difficult predominantly because of the differences between two languages and developed the *'Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis'*.

2.1.1.1 Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

In line with the behaviouristic theory of language learning, Lado in Yang (1992) developed a hypothesis called *'contrastive analysis'*. In his hypothesis Lado argued that the differences between L1 and L2 were the main points causing obstruction, therefore, through identifying those linguistic and cultural points that would and would not cause problems in terms of errors, negative transfer would be largely constrained, which would cause fewer or no errors and a stronger formation of habits. However, certain questionable matters concerning the contrastive analysis hypothesis such as the strength of error prediction, practicability issues and

applicability on behalf of the language teacher (Ellis, 1985) led to search for an alternative eventually, which Corder in Hariri (2012) made use of as the basis of his '*Error Analysis Hypothesis'*, which is also related to the concept of '*interlanguage',* a term coined by Selinker (1972) in the following years.

2.1.1.2 Interlanguage & Error Analysis Hypothesis

According to Corder in Hariri (2012), second language acquisition is not initiated through the native language, but a universal structure which allows a learner to develop a self linguistic system, forming a type of competence which he named 'transitional competence' and this particular type of competence allows the learner to develop both dependently and independently from the learning material provided in a formal learning environment (Corder, 1981:9). This structure, later called *interlanguage* by Selinker in Han (2004), is constructed by the learner during the language learning process personally, thus, it is not accurate to typify language learners even if they come from similar linguistic backgrounds (Corder in Hariri, 2012). On that matter Kohn (1986) suggests that, in determining the interlanguage behaviour of a learner, one should look for his knowledge that is both autonomous and functional as well as his determination, not the typical characteristics of the group to which the learner belongs.

In his *Error Analysis* hypothesis, Corder in Heydari&Bagheri (2012) states that errors serve as evidences of learner's organizing the language at a particular spot (interlanguage) and that they are natural constituents of the process of second language acquisition. He continues by suggesting that they may actually be utilized by the learner to foster the learning process. Therefore, the purposes of error analysis are to comprehend the processes that the learner undergoes while learning a second or foreign language and to increase learning efficiency through the findings (Corder, 1974:123). In that respect, Richards and Schmidt (2002:184) summarized the use of error analysis as diagnosing learner strategies and causes of errors as well as the hot spots of language learning as supportive information for language teachers.

Nevertheless, the facts that this hypothesis focuses solely on errors and skips the correctly produced output, it is difficult to distinguish between errors and

mistakes and that the causes of errors are numerous so findings may be unreliable gave way to more cognitivist stances among the researchers within the field of second language acquisition.

Behaviourism in general, including the aforementioned instructional approaches, was not free from criticism. The fact that the behaviouristic paradigm did not take individual differences into account and studies on the cognitive structure of the human mind were being furthered, it became subject to heavy criticism, therefore, the need for an approach that recognized the uniqueness, capacity and needs of the individual, which also includes *cognitive styles* and strategies, emerged (Cooper, 1993).

2.1.2 Cognitivism

Cognitivism, which comes after behaviourism as a response to heavy criticism, defends that knowledge and meaning are produced through the development of one's cognitive abilities such as recognition, recall, reflection, analysis, application and evaluation. From a cognitivist perspective, in order for learning to occur, an internal cognitive structure should invigorate the synapses that carry electrical signals in the brain structure. Through this internal cognitive structure, the learner develops prior knowledge and integrates new knowledge into his system and thus learning occurs.

2.1.2.1 Cognitive Development Theory

Certain learning theories related to cognitivism exist. In a cognitivist manner, Piaget in Ojose (2008) puts forward the *'Cognitive Development Theory'*, which suggests that children's cognitive states go through four stages: sensorimotor, pre-operational, concrete operational and formal operational. The main idea behind this theory is that different cognitive structures are controlled in different stages and a child's learning capability is limited within those stages.

In a later study, Piaget in Velez et al. (2011) argues that the process of learning is repetitive and through the process, prior knowledge of the learner is used extensively to utilize the new information. This occurs in three different processes, assimilation, which is the utilization of a prior mental structure to perceive new

information, accommodation, the modification of already existing schemes or processes with the effect of new information, and equilibration, which covers both assimilation and accommodation to master the new and modified mental structures.

2.1.2.2 Schema Theory

Another cognitivist type of theory, the concept of *schema* was first put forward by Barlett in Brewer and Nakamura (1984), suggesting that people resorted to reconstruction of stories as they were trying to remember them because those stories were assimilated to pre-stored schemata which were based on prior experience. Later, Rumelhart (1980) defined a schema as structure of data used for the representation of concepts that are kept in memory." In a later study, Rumelhart and Norman (1983) described the characteristics of schema as knowledge representation, capability to be connected to related systems, having space that can be filled with solid or changeable values, including both facts and generalizations and getting involved in restructuring and explicating input.

As seen above, cognitivism appears to be quite an intricate paradigm which takes individualistic features into consideration. Nevertheless, the initial occurrences of these features and their relation to or functioning process in second language acquisition are best explained in its *nativist/innatist* stance.

2.1.2.3 Nativism / Innateness

Nativist approaches support the idea that human mind possesses certain learning skills and abilities by birth genetically. Modern nativists also defend that human beings have a number of cognitive modules, which are genetically received psychological abilities, that makes it possible for them to learn and acquire certain skills. Certain theories such as the *Language Acquisition Device* (LAD) and *Universal Grammar* by Chomsky (1965) are related to the innate ability to learn languages and formed through the adoption of a nativist/innatist approach.

LAD is first proposed by Chomsky (1965) as an internal feature of the cognitive structure of the human mind, which serves as an innate basis for first language acquisition as the initial linguistic data that a child has. Given that first

language acquisition does not take place in an instructional environment where negative evidence is present and spoken language may not always occur systematically and grammatically correct in natural environments, he concludes that LAD exists.

Later on, Chomsky modifies his theory of LAD, under the name *Universal Grammar,* and defined it as "the system of principles, conditions, and rules that are elements or properties of all human languages" (Chomsky, 1975:29). Putting forward his theory in-depth, Chomsky (1965) writes a fierce critique of Skinner (1957), arguing that children have an innate faculty guiding them in their acquisition of language, as they do not merely imitate the language around them, but routinely generate novel sentences and rules. This innate language faculty will subsequently become known as *Universal Grammar* (UG) (Chomsky, 1966). The claim is, children cannot deal with the abstract concepts related to language learning with language input alone and thus, there has to be something else, something innate, which makes this possible, because Chomsky (1981,1986) argues that a native language environment does not provide a child with information about the correctness of the grammar of a sentence or reformulation possibilities concerning a hypothesis. Furthermore, if there is a common innate faculty that makes it possible for everyone to acquire a native language, there has to be a commonality among languages, too.

The mentioned commonalities, valid for every language are called the '*principles'* of Universal Grammar. Brown (2007:41) defines principles as "invariable characteristics of human language that appear to apply all languages universally". Cook (1997) draws a parallel between driving and these principles by stating that in every country, one has to drive on only one side of the road and this is a global *principle* of driving. Parallel to this analogy, every language has certain typical characteristics, *principles,* which limit learners' grammars (Otsu&Naoi, 1986).

If all languages known to mankind have the same characteristics, how should we define the differences among them? Referring back to the same analogy by Cook

(1997), some countries drive on the right side and some drive on the left under the *principle* of driving on one side and this type of differences are called *'parameters'*. Gass and Selinker (2008) suggest that the linguistic data a child obtains while learning his first language regulates which group of parameters he will use, therefore, the existence of parameters makes it easier for a child to acquire a language owing to the fact that parameters are language specific and thus limited.

In his theory, Chomsky does not essentially deal with L2 acquisition, but his ideas have had a major impact on the field and its subsequent abandonment of behaviourism as an explanation of the SLA process. The idea is that, if all people innately have a representation of languages in their minds, it is not possible to say they cease to exist in the case of learning a new language, which takes us to the *initial state* of second language acquisition.

The term '*Initial State'* refers to the unconscious knowledge that exists before a learner actually acquires a second language. Leung (2005:40) claims that "it is often tied to the investigation of the functional domain of interlanguage grammar (i.e. the emergence of functional categories, the operation of features and feature strength)." Initial state research basically deals with what kind of a linguistic system a learner has when he first starts the process of second language acquisition.

In order to get a good hang of the initial state of acquiring a second language, one should be familiar with the *'Fundamental Difference Hypothesis'* and *'Access to Universal Grammar Hypothesis'. Fundamental difference hypothesis,* attempting to explain the initial state phenomena, suggests that child language acquisition and adult second language acquisition are fundamentally different from each other (Bley-Vroman, 1989, 1990).

Briefly, children's internal reference mechanism to external input resources is nothing but Universal Grammar. This input coming from an external resource interacts with Universal Grammar and a meaningful and systematic first language model is constructed (Galasso, 2002). However, this process does not have anything to do with the adult way of learning a second language, which requires cognitive awareness and problem-solving skills (Piatelli-Palmarini, 1989).

As Stewart (2003) summarizes, *Fundamental Difference Hypothesis* suggests that Universal Grammar parameters and principles, to which adults do not have direct access, handles child language acquisition and the main difference between child and adult language acquisition is that while children's acquisition is based on the recognition of the parameters of the native language and the internalization of these parameters as a result of direct Universal Grammar access, adults' acquisition is an act of cognizant problem-solving with the aim of explicating second language grammar. Therefore, it is not possible to mention a similar way of acquiring a language for a child and an adult, according to the theory.

As seen above, Universal Grammar theory by Chomsky (1966) has left such a huge impact within the field of Second Language Acquisition and thus several different hypotheses as to how this structure works have been put forth.

Although Fundamental Difference Hypothesis attempts to provide an explanation to the processing differences between adults and children, the question of how to access universal grammar is left unanswered.

Through the course of second language acquisition research history, different stances have been put forward as for the way humans access universal grammar, but White (2003) sketches out five main stances, Full transfer/Full access, Minimal Trees, Valueless Features, Initial hypothesis of Syntax and Full access/no transfer, to explain the phenomenon, which could be considered as '*Access to Universal Grammar Hypothesis'.*

The *Full Transfer / Full Access Hypothesis* stands for the view that the initial state of second language acquisition is comprised of the first language grammar, that is, first language grammar is totally transferred to second language acquisition process and the learner has direct access to universal grammar without any problem whatsoever (Schwartz & Sprouse 1994, 1996; White 1989).

The *Minimal Trees Hypothesis*, on the other hand, is based on the assumption that the initial state of second language learning is indeed in connection with the first language of the learner, but with a primary difference from the Full Transfer / Full

Access Hypothesis. Vainikka&Young-Scholten (1994) put forward that this initial stage incorporates only lexical categories such as nouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, but not functional categories like articles, plurals, tense markers. Therefore, transfer does not occur as suggested by the former hypothesis. Instead, second language input is what develops the final second language grammar.

Valueless features hypothesis by Eubank (1996) defends that the initial state of second language acquisition contains all the first language grammar including functional categories as in Full Transfer / Full Access Hypothesis, but with a major difference. According to this hypothesis, there is a matter of strength in that functional and lexical categories have different rates of strength in different languages. Therefore, the learner has to acquire the appropriate strength values of the second language being learnt.

However, Valueless Features Hypothesis is objected to by the *Initial Hypothesis of Syntax*, suggested by Platzack (1996), who claims that the initial state of language acquisition is syntax or SVO order. In his hypothesis, Platzack (1996) defends that within the initial state of language acquisition, there are no marked values. In other words, all values are weak in the beginning of the acquisition process. Therefore, the hypothesis can be summarized as having Universal Grammar as the initial state of language acquisition.

The last hypothesis indicated by White (2003) to explain the phenomenon of accessing universal grammar is *Full Access / No Transfer Hypothesis,* which asserts that Universal Grammar is the initial state of language acquisition, just like the Initial Hypothesis of Syntax. However, Full Access / No transfer Hypothesis is differentiated from the Initial Hypothesis of Syntax in that second language and first language grammars are not connected. Thus, second language acquisition should always be finalized at the level of native-like competence and the problems that may arise are performance-based, not competence based (Epstein, Flynn, and Martohardjono, 1996, 1998).

2.1.2.3.1 Theoretization of Second Language Acquisition

Certain theories were put forward from the early days of second language acquisition research but many of them were inferences from first language acquisition studies and lacked a solid conclusion regarding the acquisition of a second language. However, with the introduction of constructivism, which suggests a more individualized notion of language learning, second language research has gained pace with satisfactory outcomes and direct conclusions. Studying the individual differences through the course of active learning procedures, unlike former approaches, certain physiological, psychological and environmental factors showing a direct impact on second language acquisition have been described, along with second language acquisition concepts such as *input*, *intake*, *interaction* and *output*, which are terms one should have a clear grasp of, in order to comprehend the formal approaches to second language acquisition.

Sharwood Smith (1993) defines *input* as language data, come across with either consciously or unconsciously, that has the potential of being processed. Gass (1988, 1997) proposes two types of input, *apperceived input*, which is recognized but not comprehended and *comprehended input*, which carries the potential of being analyzed, matched with prior knowledge, hypothetically tested and integrated. Krashen (1985) also puts forward the '*Input Hypothesis*' which suggests that input should be comprehensible, that is, slightly above the learner's level. This hypothesis will be discussed in a later chapter in detail.

How much of the provided data is processed and utilized? In this sense, the question was raised by many linguists and it is concluded that second language learners process and utilize only a limited part of the input provided, the part that is actually used by the learner and defined as *intake* (Corder in Heydari&Bagheri, 2012; Hatch, 1983; Yule, 2006).

Having taken a look at the difference between input and intake, it is also necessary to describe if an actual conversation in the second language helps acquiring it. Richards and Schmidt (2010) describe *interaction* as "the way in which a language is used by interlocutors" (219). Obviously, interaction serves as a purpose

to language learning, but does it provide a means for the same purpose? Long (1983a, 1983b, 1985, 1996) sheds a light on the matter by putting forward the '*Interaction Hypothesis'.* The hypothesis suggests that the modifications made by the learner in a conversation facilitate acquisition through supplying him with the needed input. Through *negotiation*, speakers indicate it when there is something they do not understand and the resulting exchange serves the purpose of providing them with receiving different input and having more possibilities to produce output (Long, 1983a, 1983b, 1996; Swain, 1985, 1995).

Although the Interaction Hypothesis suggests that interacting in the second language fosters second language acquisition, the proposed interaction cannot take place until the learner produces utterances in the second language, in other words, until he provides output. *Output* is defined by Richards and Schmidt (2010:416) as "language produced by a language learner, either in speech or writing". On the importance of that matter, Swain (1995) claims that the concurrence of linguistic knowledge gaps makes it possible for a learner to actually learn by noticing, thus raising self-awareness and modifying output. Within the same study, Swain (1995) functionalizes output as providing awareness through letting the learner realize what he is not able to produce in the foreign language, test grammatical hypotheses through receiving feedback and reformulate it if necessary and reflect about the language he knows, enabling the learner to check and internalize the knowledge.

The terms provided and defined above function in the centre of second language acquisition today. However, in order to understand how each of these concepts work within the framework of second language acquisition, *Krashen's theory of second language acquisition* should be carefully studied.

Krashen's theory of second language acquisition covers a series of studies by Krashen (1981, 1982, 1985, 1989, 2003) and within the framework of this theory, it is possible to talk about five hypotheses, namely '*Acquisition/Learning Hypothesis', 'The Natural Order Hypothesis', 'The Monitor Hypothesis', 'The Input Hypothesis'* and *'The Affective Filter Hypothesis'*.

According to Krashen (1989), there are two ways of learning a second language, one can either acquire or learn it. Krashen (1981,1982,1985) states that *acquisition* is a subconscious process and the learner is not naturally aware of the process, so he cannot clearly tell when the learning takes place. Krashen (2003) also defends that adults, like children acquiring their native language, can acquire either written or spoken language subconsciously. In order for acquisition to occur, meaningful interaction in the foreign language is required, therefore, it would not be wrong to say that the focus is on meaning instead of form (Ellis, 1985:261) and there is no error correction or formal instruction, which means the process takes place implicitly.

On the contrary, *learning* a language, according to Krashen (2003), refers to the conscious knowledge of a second language, being aware of the grammar and the rules related to a second language, to be more precise. So basically, learning is the result of formal instruction and explicit learning, also benefitting from error correction.

Ellis (1985:261) states that acquired knowledge is stored in the language areas of the left brain hemisphere and automatic processing is possible for this type of knowledge, however, learnt knowledge, although also located in the left hemisphere, can be processed only consciously. Therefore, Krashen (1982) concludes that learning does not result in acquisition and his resemblance of second language acquisition with the native-language acquisition of a child is also supported by Karni&Ferman (2010), who presented artificial morphological rules of verb transformations to adults and children without any explicit instruction or formal teaching and observed age-dependent maturation in learning, in that adults outranked their children counterparts in learning implicitly and the long-term retention of the learnt material.

Related to the *'Acquisition/Learning Hypothesis', 'Monitor Hypothesis'* explains how acquired and learnt knowledge are used in producing speech utterances. According to this hypothesis, speech utterances are set in motion through the acquired knowledge thanks to its automaticity, and learnt knowledge serves the

purpose of monitoring what has been uttered, allowing the output resulting from the acquired language to be monitored and edited (Krashen, 1982).

As a matter of fact, certain conditions must be met in order to use the learned language for monitoring purposes. First of all, the producer of the utterance must be aware of the rule, because without knowing the necessary rule, the speaker cannot know if he is correct or not. Secondly, the speaker must actually be caring about the correctness of his utterance. This means that he has to be judging his use of a particular structure as he is trying to get a certain piece of meaning across and lastly, the speaker must have enough time to convey his meaning and monitor at the same time, which are all quite challenging tasks. When all these conditions are met, learnt language serves as a monitor (Krashen 2003:3) and the optimal use of monitor should be just enough to fill communication gaps instead of posing a communication obstacle (Krashen, 1982).

The Natural Order Hypothesis, as another part of Krashen's theory of second language acquisition, states that there is a predictable acquisition pattern of grammatical structures. The supposition of this hypothesis is that some grammatical structures are acquired earlier than others, although there may not be a total agreement among acquirers as to which structure is learnt earlier than another (Krashen 1982: 12). Moreover, Krashen & Terrell (1983:28) also state that structures can be acquired at the same time in groups. Although there are certain hypotheses about the sequence of the natural order or acquisition, Krashen (2003) claims that this order is neither related to the simplicity or complexity of structures and nor can the order be changed by the formal teaching of certain structures, therefore, the natural order of acquisition is to be discovered and comprehensive input should be provided accordingly for acquisition to occur.

Based on the assumption that there is a natural order of second language acquisition, the concept of input is also emphasized by Krashen. *Input Hypothesis* implies that the learner will simply pick up the second language by being exposed to it, that is, without formal instruction. Thus, taking a further step in the natural order occurs "by understanding messages, or by receiving '*comprehensible input*'

(Krashen, 1985:2). At this point, it may be necessary to define what comprehensible input is.

Comprehensible input is defined by Krashen (1985) as input that is either heard or read and that is slightly above the learner's current knowledge of the foreign language grammar. Neither input that is consisted totally of what the learner already knows nor structures that are too far ahead of learner's knowledge contributes to language acquisition. If we take "i" as the current knowledge status of a learner, acquisition will take place when the learner has to face and understand input that is "i+1" and when acquisition occurs, speaking comes out as a result of competence through comprehensible input. Furthermore, when a sufficient amount of this type of comprehensible input is understood, grammar is also acquired. Thus teacher's role, according to this hypothesis, is to provide learners with a sufficient amount of comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985), for which one needs to have a clear grasp of the level of the learners and their development process. However, Krashen also argues that comprehensible input alone is not enough for a learner to acquire a second language since there are psychological factors that may hinder or facilitate second language acquisition.

The effects of mental or emotional states of learners have been described in the *Affective Filter Hypothesis* by Krashen (1982), claiming that affective factors such as motivation, attitude, self-confidence and anxiety may have a major impact on second language acquisition, directly affecting the amount of comprehensible input reaching the '*Language Acquisition Device',* which is assumed by Krashen as a mental structure that is responsible for the acquisition of both native and foreign languages, like that of Chomsky's. Therefore, a healthier affective state will reduce or lower what Krashen calls '*the affective filter',* allowing a larger amount of comprehensible input into the language acquisition device, which is of vital importance for second language acquisition to occur.

This hypothesis provides an answer as to why some students, although they receive a sufficient amount of input, cannot reach a high-level of proficiency because it suggests that a high affective filter does not let comprehensible input reach the

language acquisition device, so it is not possible for the learner to acquire the language, for the input to become intake, in other words.

In a way, this theory of Krashen's prove that second language acquisition is not only what is given to a learner in a learning environment but also how the learner feels and why he feels that way.

To sum up, the nativist stance of second language learning left a huge impact on second language acquisition theories, but in general, cognitivist psychology and learning theories received criticism since they regarded learning as quite a passive process, in which learners simply acquired the knowledge and there was practically no room for learner autonomy. Moreover, cognitivism within the context of second language acquisition focused on generic ways of acquiring a foreign language, which meant the potential characteristic differences among learners were not considered to be affective in second language acquisition. As a result, a more active type of learning theory which also takes into account the past experiences of a learner as well as environmental factors was formed and called '*constructivism*'.

2.1.3 Constructivism

Constructivism as a learning theory describes the process of knowledge construction and defines meaning-making, or the construction of mental models as bases of perception, in quite an individualistic manner. Constructivism regards knowledge as an active instead of a passive process and the process of knowledge construction may have both cognitive and physical aspects of meaning through the development of schemas (Cunningham, 1988; Harel & Papert, 1991; Johnson-Laird, 1980). With relation to this, constructivists believe that the process of meaning-making can be fostered through different activities as well as environmental factors such as learning actively, creating dialogue opportunities, creative activities and a student-centred learning environment (Brooks & Brooks, 1996).

Vygotsky (1978), on the other hand, attributes a highly social aspect to learning in his theory of *social constructivism*. According to his theory, knowledge is collaboratively created by the members of a certain social group, and the member

who is willing to integrate himself into that group continuously learns about how to be a part of it. Therefore, he emphasizes that culture and language are the essentials of cognitive development, so that the individual can interact with the group to learn more. Also in line with Vygotsky's ideas on cognitive development, Nystrand (1996) argues that teachers who appreciate the independent expression of thoughts and classroom discussion in the target language create better learners owing to the fact that they are able to use language as a means of communicating their opinions and interacting with others. Through social constructivism, the interactive nature of human learning is reiterated.

In general, all three learning theories are responses to one another. While behaviourism does not explicitly explain how learning occurs, it predominantly focuses on observable behaviours through stimulus-response. From a behaviouristic stance, learning is highly influenced by rewards and punishments and these help human memory hardwire knowledge.

In cognitivism, however, learning takes place through the formation of schemas with prior knowledge and strategies applied by the learner. Therefore, the already existing schemas and the previous experiences of the learner have an impact on learning, which limits the function of memory to the storage and retrieval of information.

Constructivism, on the other hand, individualizes learning by stating that meaning is created by each learner individually, while also emphasizing the social notion of learning through the collaborative creation of knowledge. For that reason, learning is profoundly influenced by the engagement and interaction of the learner with the new learning environment. Thus, the memory serves as a medium which integrates prior knowledge into the new context (Ireland, 2007).

In the light of the learner roles having undergone a radical shift from passive to active, *approaches to second language acquisition* were also to be revised. Moreover, constructivism's individualistic approach and the fact that different learners without any cognitive disorders perform differently under the same learning conditions takes one to the same point, too. At this point, studying the learner

psychology within the context of second language acquisition may provide answers as to what the aforementioned differences are caused by.

2.1.4 Psychology of Second Language Acquisition

From the beginning of the second chapter, theories regarding the acquisition of a second or foreign language have been discussed. However, humans are not composed solely of their cognitive or physiological construct, therefore, the psychological factors, that is, the factors beyond language will be discussed in this section of the study. Anxiety, however, will be discussed in-depth in relation to learning theories since it is the main point of research in this thesis.

A frequently used term in the psychological aspect of second language acquisition research is '*affect*'. As a simple definition, affect is "aspects of emotion, feeling, mood or attitude which condition behaviour" (Arnold&Brown 1999: 1). As the definition suggests, affect is a psychology related term and within the context of language acquisition, it refers to the psychological factors that affect language acquisition.

One of the factors that is responsible for raising the affective barrier of a learner is '*Language Shock'*. The phenomenon is defined by Hile (2001) as "the frustration and mental anguish that results in being reduced to the level of a two-year-old in one's ability to communicate". As the definition suggests, a second language learner, especially during the initial stages of second language acquisition, is under a great deal of stress because of the fact that his communication ability is limited and he cannot convey the exact message that he wants to. Language shock and *Culture Shock* are related concepts and the term culture shock was first uttered by Oberg (1961) as the process of adjusting oneself to another culture. However, culture shock in recent years is classified as a single stage of acculturation which can be basically defined as learning a new culture (Acton and Felix, 1986:20). These two states, resulting in a huge amount of stress, are caused by a significant level of anxiety due to the fact that the 'visitor' cannot actually feel the motives behind certain 'foreign' patterns of behaviour (Oberg, 1961; Barna, 1976; Hofstede, 1991).

Research reveals that language shock and culture shock may hinder second language acquisition, but even under circumstances they do not exist, it is observable that some people are simply more successful than other when it comes to learning a foreign language (Grigorenko, Sternberg & Ehrman, 2000). Dörnyei&Skehan (2003:590) brings an explanation to the phenomenon, by defining this fact as *'language aptitude'*, which is "a specific talent for learning foreign languages which exhibits considerable variation between individual learners".

Carroll (1965) theorizes language aptitude, suggesting that four factors, phonemic coding ability, associative memory, grammatical sensitivity and inductive language learning ability, have a significant impact on language learning. In addition, language aptitude is stable, independent of prior learning experience and unconnected to other cognitive factors such as intelligence (Skehan, 1991).

Whether foreign language aptitude is related to first language acquisition is quite a debatable issue. However, Sparks and Ganschow (2001) defend that '*Linguistic Coding Differences Hypothesis*', which mainly asserts that foreign language aptitude should be based on the analysis of first language skills, should be used as a basis of predicting foreign language aptitude. As a matter of fact, there exist studies relating first language development to foreign language aptitude long before Skarks and Ganschow. For instance, Skehan (1986, 1988 in Skehan, 1991) concludes that foreign language aptitude tests and first language development rates have a significant correlation. As Carroll (1973) confirms, foreign language aptitude may be a remnant of the ability to learn a first language.

McLaughlin (1995) conceptualizes foreign language aptitude within the framework of working memory. Taking into account the significance of working memory in first language acquisition (Gathercole&Baddeley, 1993) and second language acquisition both (Juffs&Harrington, 2011), working memory serves as quite a useful addition to the concept of foreign language aptitude (Sawyer&Ranta, 2001).

As can be seen, the concept of foreign language aptitude has developed to a serious extent the last twenty years and it can be utilized in order to enable learners

to be more successful (Erlam, 2005). Also, it may serve as a basis for language acquisition related problem-solving, on behalf of teachers. (Ehrman, 1996). Yet again, foreign language aptitude may prove insufficient since two learners who have similar levels of foreign language aptitude may perform differently under similar circumstances. In such a case, exploring the impact of motivation on second language acquisition becomes necessary.

Among the most frequent factors used to explain the different rates of language learning success among learners is motivation. Ryan and Deci (2000:54) define motivation as "to be moved to do something", which suggests that a person should be incited to achieve something. In terms of language learning, Gardner (1978:9) defines motivation as "a desire to learn the second language, attitudes toward learning it, and a correspondingly high level of effort expended toward this end". Related to this definition, Gardner (1985) argues that motivation is the most prominent factor, and Cohen and Dörnyei (2002) suggest that a learner cannot really achieve much without motivation. On the same topic, Wigfield&Wentzel (2007) hold that motivation affects second language acquisition regardless of the level of language aptitude.

Upon reviewing the literature on the impact of motivation on second language acquisition, it is necessary to have a look at different types of motivation and the factors that affect motivation.

The *socio-educational model of motivation* by Gardner&Lambert (1972) suggests that *integrative motivation* and *instrumental motivation* are the two types of motivation. While integrative motivation can be taken as an intrinsically driven type of motivation, instrumental motivation poses an extrinsic basis, as in the desire to increase job finding opportunities. In another study, Gardner (2001) states that there are two factors affecting motivation, *integrativeness* and *attitude*. He defines integrativeness as having interest in having closer connections with the foreign language community. Naturally, a person who wants to get involved in communication with a foreign language community or have in-depth knowledge about a foreign culture/community will be motivated to learn the language of that particular community. The other factor, attitude, refers to general attitudes towards

the language learning situation, such as teacher, activities, methods of teaching etc. A positive attitude, of course, motivates the student, enabling an easier process of achievement due to willing participation in the learning environment.

Dörnyei and Otto (1998) suggest a different theory of motivation, also known as the *process model of second language motivation*, which consists of three stages, *preactional stage*, *actional stage* and *postactional stage*. The preactional stage, which may also be referred to as 'choice motivation', implies that the subject undergoes processes of setting his goal, accumulating his intention and the commencement of this particular intention during the initial stage of motivation generation. The actional stage, or executive motivation, means that the subject in this stage forms and operates them, evaluates the process and controls his actions regardless of the distractions. Lastly, there occurs the postactional stage, also known as motivational retrospection, during which the subject evaluates the outcomes of the action for future reference.

The classifications of motivation presented above have a great deal to relate to second language acquisition in that a high level of motivation will provide the learner with a strong driving force to learn the second language at hand. However, motivation cannot be regarded as an isolated factor in second language acquisition and it interacts with all the previously mentioned psychological factors, as well as *self-esteem, self-confidence* and *self-efficacy,* which are yet to be described in this thesis.

If one were to provide a brief description of s*elf-esteem, self-confidence* and *self-efficacy* from a second language acquisition standpoint, it would be appropriate to say the three terms relate to a learner's own feelings and attitudes towards his own competence and capacity of achievement in a foreign language task. While self-esteem is better related to the characteristic traits of the learner, self-confidence and self-efficacy may alter according to the task at hand and when the learner has more control over the task assigned, the latter two increase, resulting in a higher level of motivation (Graham and Macaro, 2008). Therefore, higher levels of self-esteem, self-

confidence and self-efficacy are thought to be leading to higher levels of willingness to show effort, therefore achievement (Mills, Pajares, & Herron, 2006).

The impact of motivation on foreign language learning and how it interacts with some other psychological factors have been explained so far. However, according to MacIntyre (2002), motivation and all the other previously mentioned psychological factors interact with another psychological phenomenon, anxiety, which is the main point of research in this thesis (MacIntyre, 2002). Therefore, it is necessary at this point to have a closer look at anxiety as a phenomenon having an impact on second language acquisition.

2.1.4.1 Anxiety

Another factor which affects second language acquisition is '*anxiety'.* Scholarly definitions of anxiety vary greatly in number and content. According to Spielberger (1983), anxiety is the feeling of strain, uneasiness, perturbation and irritation related to the stimulation of the nervous system. Davison (2008) defines anxiety as a dissatisfying sensation of apprehension and distress. When an individual is in a state of anxiety, coping skills and social skills become lower and this usually leads the sufferer of anxiety to avoid interaction or challenge, in addition, anxiety may precipitate alienation, lower self-confidence and a feeling of social exclusion (Weeks at al., 2009). Moreover, among students, anxiety has been reported to result in avoiding classes and a decrease in academic achievement (McLoone et al., 2006).

An important aspect that helps understand the coping skills when encountered with situations causing anxiety is the self-perception of the anxious individual over those particular situations. This perceived control reveals a lot in terms of the outcomes of anxious behaviour (Weems et al., 2003). Weems et al. (2007) claim that one's awareness of his own capability to handle external or internal threats such as anxiety-causing objects, actions or one's own reactions is directly affected by his perceived control over the anxiety-related event. According to Chorpita (2001), when an anxious individual perceives his control over the anxiety-causing event low, the state of anxiousness is intensified since the particular individual evaluates his dexterity to deal with the event that is responsible for the increasing anxiety to be

inadequate. Therefore, it can be concluded that the response of the anxious individual is affected both by one's self-perception of coping skill and the state of fear or anxiety caused by a minatory event (Weems et al., 2003).

However, from a pedagogical point of view, anxiety may not always serve as a feeling that has negative outcomes.

The term anxiety is divided into two types by Horwitz and Young (1991), *facilitative anxiety* and *debilitative anxiety*. They claim that facilitative anxiety, as its name suggests, facilitates the reduction of emotional barriers when a new learning task is at hand motivates the student to overcome the obstacles to encountered during the task.

2.1.4.1.1 Facilitative Anxiety

Motivation, either positive or negative, has the capacity to intensify the learning a new subject, thus in performance arts, music, learning a language or speaking, one needs a type of anxiety 'to arouse the neuromuscular system to optimal levels performance, but not so much arousal that the complex neuromuscular systems underlying those skills are disrupted' (Scovel in Horwitz and Young, 1991:22) that would facilitate the learning process. This particular type of anxiety that actually improves the learning process is called *facilitative anxiety*.

2.1.4.1.2 Debilitative Anxiety

In opposition with this, *debilitative anxiety* makes the student get away from the learning task through developing avoidance behaviours. In that respect, MacIntypre, Noels, and Clement (1997) claims that learners with high levels of anxiety experience what is defined as debilitative anxiety, and even worse, it leads the learner to participate less frequently, which makes the anxiety level even higher. Therefore, the learner goes round in the circle of less frequent participation and higher anxiety without an end.

Another approach that deals with different types of anxiety divides the phenomenon into three types mainly, trait anxiety, state anxiety and situation-specific anxiety.

2.1.4.1.3 State Anxiety

State Anxiety, according to Spielberger (1966:12) is a "transitory state of condition of the organism that varies in intensity and fluctuates over time". McIntyre in Young (1999:28) state that state anxiety is the actual feeling of anxiety and the observable effects of anxiety on emotion, cognition and behaviour. While the sufferer over-evaluates himself, his automatic nervous system is way more sensitive than usual and he also feels under stress due to imaginary failure scenarios, thus attempting to avoid the situation along with an increased rate of heart (Spielberger, 1966; McIntyre in Young, 1999:28).

2.1.4.1.4 Trait Anxiety

Trait Anxiety, as the name suggests, is "a constant condition without a time limitation" (Levitt, 1980:11). This state of anxiety should be taken as a characteristic feature of an individual due to its stability (McIntyre in Young, 1999:28) because a sufferer of trait anxiety has the potential to be anxious in practically any situation (Spielberger, 1983).

2.1.4.1.5 Situation-specific Anxiety

Unlike trait anxiety that may be experienced in any situation, *Situation-specific Anxiety* is experienced only in particular types of situations, which can be classified as maths anxiety, test anxiety, writing anxiety or language anxiety. On this type of anxiety, MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) claim that situation-specific anxiety densifies owing to suffering from state anxiety in particular occasions.

However, in the centre of this thesis is another, more specific type of anxiety, named by Horwitz et al. (1986) as '*Foreign Language Anxiety'*.

2.1.4.1.6 Foreign Language Anxiety

Foreign language anxiety is defined by Scovel (1978: 134) as ‘a state of apprehension, a vague fear’. In a later study, Horwitz et al. (1986) defined foreign language anxiety as a “distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviours related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process” (p.128). Furthermore, Friedman (1980) claims that there are significant similarities between foreign language anxiety and communication anxiety such as a feeling of constraint, overly trying to avoid even the simplest mistakes and the fear coming related to this meticulous act of avoidance.

Oxford (1999) claims that foreign language anxiety is one of the most important factors affecting language learning regardless of the time and place of the learning process. According to Arnold and Brown (1999), foreign language anxiety has the potential to be the most effective factor that may slow down, even hinder, language learning. On that matter, Dörnyei (2005) adds that foreign language anxiety, just as the other psycholinguistic factors that are not entirely distinct from it, is a factor that has a direct effect on foreign language achievement. The reason why foreign language anxiety poses a threat against learning a foreign language is that language acquisition, recollection and language use may be distracted due to anxiety (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991). What is more, language anxiety may also affect the self-confidence, risk-taking skills and self-esteem of learners, which inevitably interferes with proficiency (Crookall&Oxford, 1991). Even worse, language learning experience may become even fearsome, damaging one’s self-confidence due to anxiety (Zheng, 2008).

Foreign language learners go through different experiences during the state of anxiety. Oh (1990) states that language learners experience a state of self-centred thoughts, incompetence feelings, reluctance to make mistakes and reacting emotionally to situations and he classifies foreign language anxiety as a form of situational anxiety (p.56). Also, when a foreign language learner is in a state of anxiety, he is not quite likely to perform classroom duties such as doing homework, participating in oral activities or providing questions with answers (MacIntyre and

Gardner, 1991). Gregersen (2003) observes that non-anxious learners' self-response efficiency levels upon making errors are significantly higher than those of anxious learners. Moreover, Onwuegbuzie et al. (1999) claim that the avoidance of relatively challenging linguistic structures emerge as a result of anxiety. Therefore, it would not be wrong to say that the correlation between student performance and anxiety is negative (Foss and Reitzel, 1991).

The factors that have an impact on foreign language anxiety may be numerous. It is suggested in many studies that oral activities that take place in classroom environment raise a greater amount of foreign language anxiety in comparison to other type of activities. (Steinberg and Horwitz, 1986, Price, 1991, MacIntyre and Gardner, 1994). Similarly, Young (1990) found out that speaking activities which necessitate that the learners be in front of their classmates reveals the highest levels of anxiety.

As for the causes of language anxiety, Bailey (1983) puts forward the suggestion that competitiveness is quite influential. His study suggests that a learner's comparison of himself with other learners, his intrinsic need to outrank them and his absorption with exams (yet again through comparisons with classmates) may serve as the embodiment of competitiveness. Thus, in times when the competitive learner feels less competent than others, anxiety occurs, Bailey claims. According to Liu & Jackson (2008), this particular type of anxiety is the result of the self-perceptions of learners that their proficiency level is low. However, Brown (2008) refuses this claim and puts forward that low self-esteem, shame and inferiority feelings are the main causes of foreign language anxiety. Moreover, Gregersen & Horwitz (2002) suggests that learners who can be defined as perfectionists are more likely to experience the hindering effects of anxiety. According to Brown, Robson & Rosenkjar (2001) introvert students have a higher tendency to experience foreign language anxiety in comparison to extrovert students. Kim (2009) suggests that errors may be causing anxiety because the person who is responsible for the error may regard it as a barrier that prevents him/her from getting involved in a positive social environment where the target language is spoken. Also, it can be inferred from the study of Worde (2003) that lack of group consciousness

may lead to anxiety since it provokes the student to be more self-conscious and to analyze his own actions as well as any possible group reaction to his action. Such learners normally avoid getting involved in activities such as starting a conversation or interacting in any way and they may even not come to the class at all because they want to escape any negative evaluation whatsoever (Gregersen, 2007). As a result, they grow even more anxious, which puts them in a vicious cycle (Jackson, 2002).

However, Horwitz et al. (1986) say that there are three processes causing foreign language anxiety and all three processes function interconnected. These three processes are communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation. Communication apprehension occurs during interaction in a foreign language and it is caused by the concern of the speaker that total comprehension of the message in a foreign language is impossible. For that reason, the speaker is in a feeling of hindrance or obstruction. Test anxiety refers to the feeling of worry caused by a number of exams in classroom environment. The last process that causes anxiety, as mentioned above, is fear of negative evaluation. The term evaluation here may define either the evaluation made by teachers or one's own evaluation. The speaker feels anxious due to the existence of an evaluative environment.

2.1.4.2 Research on Foreign Language Anxiety

As for the empirical studies on foreign language anxiety, various results have been acquired. Foreign language anxiety was found to be negatively correlated with written and oral SAT and GRE scores (Gardner et al., 1987; Young, 1990). Campbell and Ortiz (1991) suggested that half of all language students may be experiencing debilitative anxiety. Phillips (1992) observes that a low level of anxiety meant a high level of oral performance and vice versa. Gardner, Tremblay and Masgoret (1997) demonstrated that self-confidence and anxiety had a negative correlation. Kitano (2001) substantiated that if students had a self-perception of low ability in the foreign language, they tended to have a high level of foreign language anxiety. Liu (2006) conveyed that anxiety levels decreased as the proficiency levels of learners increased. Woodrow (2006) investigated the correlation between anxiety and oral achievement, and he concluded that speaking performance was predictable through

anxiety level. Marcos-Llinás & Juan-Garau (2009) suggested that learner anxiety increases correlated positively with the language level. Ay (2010), in her study on Turkish adolescents, found out that anxiety was present in the receptive skills at beginner level, however, as the students improved their foreign language skills, anxiety also appeared in productive skills.

The given research findings shed a light on how foreign language anxiety affects foreign language achievement, but the reason why foreign language anxiety affects the performances of foreign language learners can be revealed through the study of how it interacts with other psychological variables that have an impact on second language acquisition.

Upon his research on 150 Taiwanese students to find out if there is any relation among anxiety, motivation, proficiency and learner autonomy, Liu (2012) concludes that foreign language anxiety may decrease motivation and thus damage learner autonomy and proficiency levels, which all together result in a poor performance. Furthermore, in their study, Sparks and Patton (2013) reveal that Foreign Language Anxiety levels of students are predictive in both L1 and L2 reading skills as well as language aptitude, in their longitudinal study with 128 American students. As for the relationship between self-esteem and anxiety, Weiten (1989:495) concludes that there is a negative correlation between the two, which means when one of the variables increases, the other one decreases.

Research data provides insights as to the causes and effects of foreign language anxiety within the second language acquisition context. However, the effects of physiological differences on the same phenomenon cannot be explained by a psychological standpoint. When cognitive impairments are out of question, it is necessary to take a look at the impact of learning differences on foreign language anxiety.

2.1.5 Learner Differences and Foreign Language Anxiety

Given the causes and effects of foreign language anxiety, it should also be pointed out that not every student experiences it in similar ways. At this point, it is

thought that learner differences play a role in how a learner experiences foreign language anxiety.

Proficiency level of the learner appears to have an impact on the foreign language anxiety experienced. Indeed, a number of studies support the conclusion that as the level of proficiency increases, foreign language anxiety decreases (Gardner, Smythe, & Brunet, 1977; Gardner, Lalonde, & Pierson, 1983; MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991, 1993).

Frantzen and Magnan's (2005) findings are also supportive of these studies. In order to determine if there is any difference in the anxiety levels of among true beginners and false beginners in first-semester university French and Spanish classes, they conduct a research using the FLCAS and additional open ended questions. Their results corroborate the other findings in that true beginners experience a higher level of anxiety, resulting in lower grades. All these studies signify that as the proficiency level of a learner goes higher, the foreign anxiety level is expected to decrease.

Another learner difference that is thought to interact with foreign language anxiety is gender. Campbell and Shaw (1994), in their study for determining the role of gender in foreign language anxiety among learners of Spanish, German, Russian and Korean, conclude that female learners are less anxious than their male counterparts in a foreign language learning setting. Moreover, Zhang (2000), studying the reading anxiety levels of Chinese ESL students, confirm these findings.

On the other hand, Kout et al. (2009), discovers in his study with English learners in Taiwan that male students are significantly less anxious than females. In a similar study, Park and French (2013) study the foreign language anxiety levels of 948 students enrolled in English classes in a Korean university, in order to detect the impact of gender differences on the phenomenon. Their results reveal that female students are significantly more anxious than the males. As seen, the results related to the interaction between learner gender and the level of foreign language are conflicting.

The last learner difference that is going to be dealt with in this chapter, which is also the main focus of the present study, is age.

2.1.6 Age and Language Learning Process

When it comes to second language acquisition research, age is an important and frequently investigated variable as for its contribution to/inhibition of second language acquisition. It is a common belief that younger learners outrank their older counterparts, however, the literature on the matter is too contradictory to reach such a pretentious conclusion. Krashen, Long, and Scarcella (1979) and Singleton (1995) point out the "consensus view" in which they conclude that older learners are more successful at the early stages of second language acquisition, but as the proficiency level of the learners increase, younger learners receive the advantage on their behalf.

As mentioned above, the literature covering the effect of age on second language learning varies in content to a serious extent. Asher&Price in Snow&Hoefnagel-Höhle (1978) claim that adults' performance significantly surpasses that of children in formal classroom environment, under instructed teaching in other words. In a similar fashion, Asher&Garcia (1969) states that children are more able when it comes to picking up the language in comparison with adults, in natural settings such as a foreign country in which they live.

However, at that point of the literature review, it would be more precise to review the language acquisition hypotheses related to the age of the learner.

One important hypothesis dealing with the effect of age on second language acquisition is the '*Brain Plasticity Hypothesis*' put forward by Penfield and Roberts in Mayberry and Lock (2003). In their study, Penfield and Roberts claim that the most favourable period to acquire a second language is until the age of ten because the brain keeps its plasticity during this period with enables it to keep its flexibility and adaptability. The main point of their argument in the Brain Plasticity Hypothesis is that the flexibility of brain functions makes it possible for different variables to be dealt with by the brain in both parts under necessary circumstances such as any type of cognitive impairment caused by accidents.

Like the other hypotheses, '*The Critical Period Hypothesis'*, developed by Lenneberg in Mayberry and Lock (2003), a biologist, is also among the significant hypotheses related to the age factor in language acquisition. Lenneberg hypothesizes that the learning ability of humans' does not last until the end of their lives with the same strength. He holds that Language Acquisition Device, like other biological functions belonging to humans, can be used in full capacity by the brain only until puberty, 12-13 years of age in other words, because the brain gradually loses its ability to change constructively after this period, a process also called lateralization, therefore, although it is possible to acquire a language after this period, native-like proficiency is limited only to the critical period, according to Lenneberg. Besides this foundation of the hypothesis, Birdsong (2006) asserts that an immense shortcoming as for the receptive and productive skills of learners who acquire a foreign language after the critical period is to be observed, when their performance is compared to those whose acquisition process started before the period, which seems to come to an end in the beginning or the end of puberty.

The Critical Period Hypothesis is supported by a great many studies. Oyama (1976), in a study on 60 immigrants in the USA, reached the conclusion that the younger the immigration age of the learner was, the closer to native-like pronunciation they reached. Fathman (1979) found out that younger students were more successful in terms of native-like pronunciation in comparison to their older counterparts, although they were past the puberty period only by a few years. Williams (1979) also reached the same conclusion that younger learners of foreign languages were more successful in terms of pronunciation without an accent. In a similar manner, Harley (1986) believes that the relatively higher success rate of younger learners over older learners is due to the 'maturational turning point', a change that comes off during puberty period, making it more difficult for adults to acquire a second language. Likewise, Munoz (2006) concludes that younger learners are more advantageous than older ones in tests of oral comprehension and pronunciation. Due to the fact that the basis of pronunciation is neuromuscular (Scovel, 1988), it is thought to be totally lateralized before adulthood. (Molfese, 1977:206).

A number of studies support the existence of neurological processing differences in early and late learners of a second language. For instance, Hernandez, Hofmann, & Kotz (2007) made a comparison between native and non-native speakers of Spanish through an fMRI scan and they found out that left inferior frontal gyrus was used more extensively by non-native speakers who learnt Spanish at a later age. Likewise, Jeong et al. (2007) suggested that the areas of human brain that are responsible for the processing of phonology and syntax were more active in late bilinguals with the implication that they needed extra neural resources to reach a native-like performance.

All these studies can be taken as evidences as for the existence of a critical period for language learning since it is clearly observed that learning languages at a later age result in a more extensive use of the prefrontal cortex.

Another phenomenon related to and supporting the existence of a critical period in second language acquisition is called '*fossilization*', which is distinct from first language acquisition and results in severe obstacles and a relatively lower rate of success among individual who undergo the L2 acquisition process after the critical period (Selinker in Han, 2004).

Ellis (1994), putting forward age as a factor having an impact on fossilization, holds that young learners are better able to conceive and classify sounds belonging to the second language, which results in a higher level of success in terms of native-like pronunciation. Moreover, the neurological state of the learner, as in lateralization and cerebral maturation periods that occur in a certain age, has a significant impact on the acquisition of a second language. In addition, according to Ellis, due to the fact that children have a lower degree of communicative consciousness and anxiety, they have a higher degree of motivation to get in contact with the speakers of a foreign language and to integrate. Also cognitively speaking, children are more advantageous than adults. In his study, Ellis suggests that children are able to make use of their inputting skills more capably than adults, and the fact that children's first and second language information are stored in different parts of the brain which

make them use both languages separately in an automatic way, unlike adults whose first and second language information are stored by the brain together.

This suggestion of Ellis's is also supported by a neurophysiological study by Wartenburger et al. (2003), who claim that in the case of bilinguals who has two languages by birth, functional and electrical responses in first and second language processing, especially for the processing of grammar, bear no significant difference. This claim of Ellis's is also confirmed by Kim et al. (1997) through the utilization of fMRI, who observed that only late bilinguals' brain scans revealed different activation areas for first and second languages in the left inferior frontal cortex.

Along with the Critical Period Hypothesis, another opinion concerning the impact of age on second language acquisition is the '*Sensitive Period Hypothesis'*. Sensitive periods in general are different than the critical period and the term refers to a lengthier period during which one has a few or no problems in terms of the difficulty or speed of his learning owing to the fact that he is more frequently stimulated by his environment (Lee&Schachter, 1997). Studies conducted by Scott in Colombo (1982) and Oyama (1979) assert that such sensitive periods are fairly lengthy, not discernibly characterized, vary in terms of their duration and stimulus-dependent.

Early experimental studies related to the sensitive period in language acquisition date back to 70's. Curtiss (1977, 1988), studying two people who were not exposed to any language until the ages of 13 and 30 respectively, finds out that both people could acquire a first language, but with the deficit of syntax and phonology. Mayberry (1993) concludes that deaf children who acquire American Sign Language between the ages 9-13 are less successful than those who acquired it between the ages 8-15, but as a second language. More importantly, Mayberry observes that both groups are less successful than American Sign Language natives. Bates et al. (2001) investigates the linguistic abilities of children who had injuries resulting in focal brain lesions before six months of age. Their study reveals that by the age of 5-8, there is no relation between those brain lesions and language abilities. However, significant relations exist in their adult counterparts with similar lesions.

Furthermore, patients suffering from perinatal brain injuries do not demonstrate an abnormal language development but a delay in age-related controls (Wulfeck, Bates, Krupa-Kwiatkowski, & Saltzman, 2004).

Under the light of the studies presented, it is not inaccurate to say that a sensitive period for first language acquisition during which a person is more responsive to linguistic stimulus exists. But is the same case for acquiring a second language?

Sensitive period studies related to second language acquisition are regarded quite differently. However, there is evidence supporting the phenomenon. After two tests related to the age of arrival and length of residence of sixty immigrants coming from Italy, Oyama (1976,1978) finds out that arrivals between the ages 6-10 perform better than those who arrived after the age of 10, concluding that it is the age that matters more than the length of residence in second language acquisition.

In a similar fashion, Johnson and Newport (1989) conduct a study supporting a sensitive period for second language acquisition, documenting that the as the age of arrival grows older, linguistic performance declines, especially after the age of fifteen.

Skill specific studies also support the existence of a sensitive period in second language acquisition. Werker & Tees (2005) argue that the ability to learn both receptive and productive skills deteriorate in late childhood. Related to this argument, Kuhl et al. (1997) reveal that native speakers of Japanese lose their ability to distinguish between /r/ and /l/ around the age of 10 months.

To conclude, it is possible to say that immersion into a second language environment does not always produce near-native language skills (Mochizuki, 1981) due to the fact that age, or sensitive periods within the human life span have a major impact on second language acquisition.

2.1.6.1 Research on Age and Foreign Language Anxiety

Although the number of the studies concerned with the relation between age and foreign language anxiety remain to be a few, several studies have been conducted to detect if the level of foreign language anxiety is somehow related to the age of the subject.

On that matter, Onwuegbuzie et al. (1999) suggest that there is a positive correlation between age and foreign language anxiety, that is, as the age grows higher, so does foreign language anxiety, based on their findings upon the study of 210 individuals, aged between 18-71. In a similar fashion, Bailey, Daley and Onwuegbuzie (2000), as a result of their study on 184 students taking French, Spanish, German and Japanese classes in various levels in USA assert that younger students experience a lower level of foreign language anxiety compared to the older ones who partook in the study.

In addition, Donovan and MacIntyre (2005), taking into account the results of their study on 741 students of junior high school, high school and university, whose ages ranged from 11 to 47, conclude that university students tend to experience a higher level of foreign language anxiety in comparison to the younger subjects.

Likewise, Dewaele (2007) report that younger subjects go through a lower level of foreign language anxiety unlike the older subjects, in his study on 106 students whose ages varied between 18-75.

Although the literature on the relation between age and foreign language seems to be consisting mainly of studies that are supportive of its existence, there are also a few studies in the literature which have not found similar results.

For instance, MacIntyre et al., (2002:550), in their study which they compare the anxiety levels of 268 French immersion programme students whose ages ranged between 11-16, demonstrate that older students undergo a lower level of foreign language anxiety than the younger students.

In like manner, Dewaele et al. (2008) notes that negative correlations have been found between age and communication apprehension / foreign language anxiety scores, based on their study on 464 multilingual students, which means that a higher age would mean a lower level of anxiety.

As mentioned above, the literature on the relation between age and foreign language anxiety is relatively small in content and the findings of the existing studies are conflicting, which makes it necessary to conduct further analytical studies on the matter.

CHAPTER THREE

THE RESEARCH

3.1 Research Method

The aim of the present study is to reveal the anxiety levels of high school and university students. Therefore, qualitative research method was employed by the researcher in order to obtain numerical data through statistical analysis in order to test the interaction of independent variables with foreign language anxiety and the domains related to it.

The collected data was analyzed to find out the possible factors that had an impact on foreign language anxiety. The results were compared with respect to the ages, genders, institutions and perceived English levels of the participants as well as their families' levels of education.

3.1.1 Participants

The participants of the study are high school and university students who all took at least one English course in 2012-2013 academic year and the participation was on volunteer base. The distribution of the participants is shown below in Table (1).

Table 1. The Distribution of Participants

	Frequency	Percent
High School	385	67,7
University	184	32,3
Total	569	100,0

385 high school students and 184 university students studying in various departments, which means a total of 569 students, voluntarily participated in the study. The participants consisted of 318 female and 251 male students. The ages of

the participants varied between 14 and 27 and 169 of them were above 18 while 400 participants were 18 and below. When asked, 271 of the students ranked their English levels A1 – A2 and 270 ranked it B1 – B2. Only 28 participants claimed their level of English was C1 – C2 according to the Common European Framework. The highest level of education within the family was primary school or below for 84 participants, secondary or high school for 272 participants and university at any level for 213 participants. The schools or departments at which the participants studied were chosen randomly for the study.

3.1.2 Data Collection

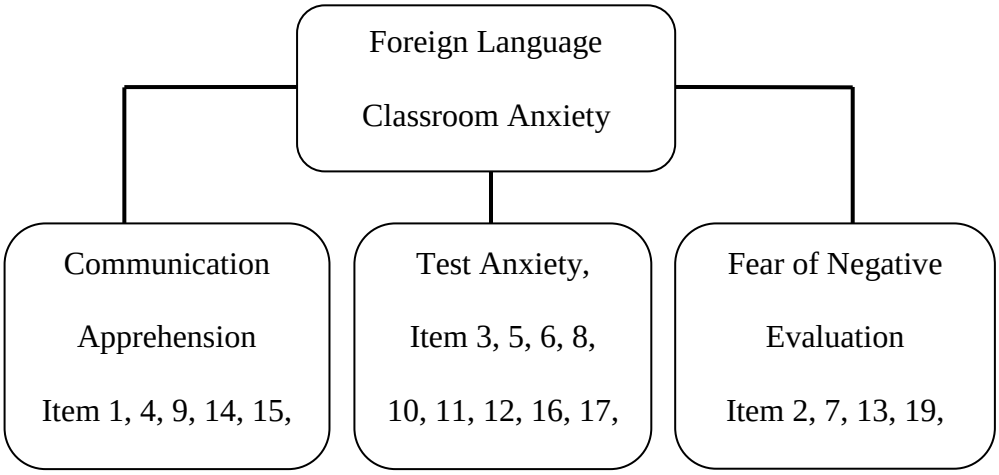
Quantitative data was collected through a questionnaire in the study. The questionnaire, called Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) by Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope (1986) was used. The FLCAS is a 33-item Likert scale that is proposed to measure foreign language anxiety as well as communication apprehension, text anxiety and fear of negative evaluation. The items range from "Strongly Disagree" (1) to "Strongly Agree" (5). However, there are 9 negatively worded items that would be reversely coded. The minimum possible score is 33 and the maximum possible score is 165. Higher scores indicate higher levels of anxiety. Horwitz (1986, 1991) examined the internal reliability of the FLCAS and achieved a Croanbach's Alpha Coefficient of .98 and an r value of .83 ($p<0,01$) in the test-retest reliability check over 8 weeks.

Moreover, the scale was found out to be in significant correlation with communication apprehension ($r=.28$, $p<0,05$) when McCroskey's Personal Report of Communication Apprehension was taken as a basis, with text anxiety ($r=.53$, $p<0,01$) when Sarason's Test Anxiety Scale was taken as a basis and with fear of negative evaluation ($r=.36$, $p<0,01$) when Watson and Friend's Fear of Negative Evaluation Scale was taken as a basis (Horwitz, 1991). All these correlation analyses are confirmatory of the validity of the FLCAS.

In order to determine which statements in the scale could be attributed to which type of anxiety, the 3-factor model of Huang (2008), which was found to be better fit

the scale by Cao (2011) than the 4-factor model of Zhao (2007), was used. The distribution of the statements according to factors is presented below in Figure 1.

Figure 1. 3-factor model of the FLCAS by Huang (2008)



All the analyses regarding the FLCAS were administered by the researcher in the light of the model above.

However, in order to eliminate the potential linguistic barriers which could affect the results of the study, a translation of the scale by Zhanibek (2001) was given to the participants.

Following the administration of the questionnaire by the researcher on 569 participants, the reliability of the results were checked and the Croanbach's Alpha Coefficient was found out to be 0,92. Moreover, the Croanbach's Alpha Coefficient within the factors were 0,81, 0,78 and 0,79 for communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation respectively, which were all acceptable values in terms of reliability.

3.1.3 Data Analysis and Interpretation

The quantitative data collected were analyzed and interpreted statistically. Firstly, the response frequencies and percentages were calculated for the whole scale and for each factor afterwards. Following this, mean values and standard deviations were calculated in order to figure out the average anxiety level of the participants.

After that, gender, age and institution groups were compared using t-tests to detect if there were statistically significant differences. The other independent variables, the education levels of the parents of the participant as well as the perceived English level were analyzed using analysis of variances (ANOVA) for potential differences that are statistically significant, since they included more than three groups. The same analysis pattern was used for each one of the three factors.

The same criteria that was used by Horwitz (1986) to measure the levels of anxiety was used. For each factor and the whole scale, the mean score and standard deviation values were calculated and 'high' scores were considered to be those above the sum of the mean score and the standard deviation value. In that respect, "low" scores were considered to be the ones below the value obtained by subtracting the standard deviation value from the mean score. "Moderate" scores were taken as the scores between the lowest high score and the highest low score.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 Findings of the Whole Scale

As previously mentioned, the lowest possible score is 33 and the highest is 165 in FLCAS which has 33 items. In order to have an overview of student responses to the scale, sums and mean score were calculated and displayed in Table 1.

Table 2. Mean Anxiety Score, Minimum and Maximum Scores

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Total Anxiety Score	569,00	38,00	156,00	89,21	22,13
Valid N (listwise)	569,00				

As shown in Table 2, the mean anxiety score of the participants is 89,21 (sd=22,13) with a minimum score of 38 and a maximum score of 156. Within the responses of the sample of the present study, a score of 67 or below indicates low anxiety, scores between 68 and 111 indicate a moderate level of anxiety and the scores above 111 reveal a high level of anxiety. Frequencies and percentages of the low, moderate and high anxiety scores are presented in Table 2 below.

Table 3. Distribution of the Participants According to Their Anxiety Levels

	Frequency	Percent
Low Anxiety	99	17,4
Moderate Anxiety	378	66,4
High Anxiety	92	16,2
Total	569	100,0

Frequency analysis results reveal that 17,4% of the participants (n=99) experience foreign language anxiety in a low level, 66,4% (n=378) have a moderate level of anxiety and 16,2% of the participants (n=92) experience a high level of anxiety.

In order to see if there is a statistically significant difference between age groups (14-18 and 18+), group means were calculated and a t-test was administered. The results are shown below in table 3.

Table 4. Means and T-Test Results According to Age Groups

	Age Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Total Anxiety Score	14-18	400	86,98	20,88	-3,7424	567	,000
	18+	169	94,49	24,07			

Table 4 presents that the mean score of the 400 participants aged 18 and below is 86,98 (sd=20,88) and the mean score of the 169 participants over 18 is 94,49 (sd=24,07). Computed through these scores, the statistically significant difference ($p<0,01$) computed through these scores reveal that the anxiety score of the older group is higher than that of the younger one.

Another t-test was administered in order to demonstrate if there is a statistically significant difference between the mean scores according the genders of the participants. Table 5 exhibits the results of the analysis.

Table 5. Means and T-Test Results According to Genders

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Total Anxiety Score	Male	251	84,24	20,60	-4,856	567	,000
	Female	318	93,14	22,53			

As displayed in Table 5, 251 male participants have a mean anxiety score of 84,24 (sd=20,60) and the 318 female participants of the study have a mean anxiety

score of 93,14 (sd=22,53). The t-test results reveal that there is a statistically significant difference (p<0,01) between the mean scores, which suggest that female participants of the study are more anxious than their male counterparts.

In order to check if there is any difference between the mean scores according to the institutions where the participants study, a t-test was administered. The results are shown in Table 6.

Table 6. Means and T-Test Results According to Institutions

	Institution	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Total Anxiety Score	High School	385	86,82	21,18	-3,775	567	,000
	University	184	94,22	23,25			

Table 6 demonstrates that 385 High School students who participated in the study have a mean anxiety score of 86,82 (sd=21,18) and the 184 University students have a mean anxiety score of 94,22 (sd=23,25). The statistically significant difference (p<0,01) resulting from the t-test reveals that university students are more anxious than high school students in foreign language classes.

The means and standard deviation values according to the education levels of the participants' fathers are shown below in Table 7.

Table 7. Mean Anxiety Scores According to the Education Levels of the Participants' Fathers

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Primary School or Below	100	93,79	22,64
Secondary or High School	287	89,20	21,32
University	182	86,72	22,80
Total	569	89,21	22,13

As seen in Table 7, the participants whose fathers had an education level of primary school or below have a mean anxiety score of 93,79 (sd=22,64), the participants whose fathers have an education level of secondary or high school have a mean anxiety score of 89,20 (sd=21,32) and those whose fathers attended university in any level have a mean score of 86,72 (sd=22,80).

In order to see if the differences among these mean scores are statistically significant, a one-way ANOVA was administered. The results are displayed in Table 8.

Table 8. ANOVA Results According to the Education Levels of the Participants' Fathers

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	3226,32	2	1613,160	3,322	,037
Within Groups	274828,37	566	485,562		
Total	278054,69	568			

Following the analysis of variances suggesting a significant difference related to the mean anxiety scores and the education levels of the participants' fathers, an LSD test was administered in order to see which groups had a statistically significant difference. The LSD results are shown below in Table 9.

Table 9. LSD Results According to the Education Levels of the Participants' Fathers

(I) Education (Father)	(J) Education (Father)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Primary School or Below	Secondary or High School	4,59488	2,56	,073
	University	7,07022*	2,74	,010

According to the LSD results demonstrated in Table 9, the mean anxiety scores of the participants whose fathers have attended a university are significantly lower ($p<0,05$) than those whose fathers have an education level of primary school or have received no formal education at all. No other statistically significant difference among mean anxiety scores was found in the analysis of variances according to the education levels of the participants' fathers.

The means and standard deviation values according to the education levels of the participants' mothers are shown below in Table 10.

Table 10. Mean Anxiety Scores According to the Education Levels of the Participants' Mothers

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Primary School or Below	151	93,42	21,98
Secondary or High School	296	88,83	21,47
University	122	84,92	23,12
Total	569	89,21	22,13

As shown in Table 10, the participants whose mothers have an education level of primary school or below have a mean anxiety score of 93,42 (sd=21,98), the participants whose mothers have an education level of secondary or high school have a mean anxiety score of 88,83 (sd=21,47) and the participants whose mothers attended a university have a mean score of 84,92 (sd=23,12).

To reveal if the differences among the mean scores are statistically significant, an ANOVA, whose results can be seen in Table 11, was administered.

Table 11. ANOVA Results According to the Education Levels of the Participants' Mothers

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	4961,908	2	2480,954	5,142	,006
Within Groups	273092,784	566	482,496		
Total	278054,692	568			

The results of the analysis of variances in Table 11 suggest that there is a statistically significant difference ($p<0,01$) among the mean anxiety scores of the participants according to their mothers' education levels. To see which groups differentiated from each other on the basis of statistically significant difference, an LSD test was administered by the researcher. The results of the LSD test can be seen in Table 12 below.

Table 12. LSD Results According to the Education Levels of the Participants' Mothers

(I) Education (Mother)	(J) Education (Mother)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Primary School or Below	Secondary or High School	4,58276*	2,20	,037
	University	8,49919*	2,68	,002
Secondary or High School	Primary School or Below	-4,58276*	2,20	,037
	University	3,91643	2,36	,098

The results of the LSD test in Table 12 demonstrate that the difference between the participants whose mothers have an education level of primary school or below and those whose mothers have an education level of secondary school, high school ($p<0,05$) or university ($p<0,01$) is statistically significant. On the contrary, there is no statistically significant difference between the mean anxiety scores of the participants whose mothers have an education level of secondary or high school and those whose mothers have attended a university in any level.

The last piece of nonnumerical data obtained within this study is the perceived English levels of the participants. The means and standard deviation values according the perceived English levels of the participants are displayed in Table 13 below.

Table 13. Mean Anxiety Scores According to the Perceived English Levels of the Participants

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
A1 - A2	271	97,29	20,99
B1 - B2	270	83,41	20,13
C1 - C2	28	67,00	18,75
Total	569	89,21	22,13

Table 13 shows that the mean anxiety score of the participants with a perceived English level of A1 – A2 is 97,29 (sd=20,99), the mean anxiety scores of the participants with a perceived English level of B1 – B2 is 83,41 (sd=20,13) and the scores of those with a perceived level of C1 – C2 is 67,00 (sd=18,75).

Following the calculation of the mean anxiety scores according to the perceived English levels of the participants, an analysis of variances was administered by the researcher to detect if there was any statistically significant difference within the level groups. The results can be seen in Table 14 below.

Table 14. ANOVA Results According to the Perceived English Levels of the Participants

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	40585,957	2	20292,979	48,368	,000
Within Groups	237468,735	566	419,556		
Total	278054,692	568			

The ANOVA results demonstrate that there is a statistically significant difference among the perceived English level groups (p<0,01). In order to figure out which groups significantly differed from each other, an LSD test was administered by the researcher. The results are displayed in Table 15 below.

Table 15. LSD Results According to the Perceived English Level of the Participants

(I) Perceived English Level	(J) Perceived English Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
A1 - A2	B1 - B2	13,88042*	1,76	,000
	C1 - C2	30,28782*	4,07	,000
B1 - B2	A1 - A2	-13,88042*	1,76	,000
	C1 - C2	16,40741*	4,07	,000
C1 - C2	A1 - A2	-30,28782*	4,07	,000
	B1 - B2	-16,40741*	4,07	,000

The LSD test results disclose that the mean anxiety scores of all perceived English level groups significantly differ from each other (p<0,01). The mean anxiety score of the A1 – A2 group is significantly higher (p<0,01) than those of B1 – B2 and C1 – C2 groups and the mean anxiety score of the B1 – B2 group is significantly higher than that of C1 – C2 group (p<0,01).

4.2 Findings of Communication Apprehension

Within the communication apprehension domain of the FLCAS, the lowest possible score is 11 and the highest one is 55. An overview of student responses to the aforementioned domain is presented below in Table 16.

Table 16. Mean Communication Apprehension Score, Minimum and Maximum Scores

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Communication Apprehension	569	11,00	53,00	29,76	8,13
Valid N (listwise)	569				

Table 16 shows that the mean score for the communication apprehension domain of the FLCAS is 29,76 (sd=8,13) with a minimum score of 11 and a maximum score of 53. 38 points and above indicate a high level of communication while 21 points and below indicate a low level of communication apprehension. The scores above 21 and below 38 signify a moderate level of communication apprehension. The frequencies and percentages according to the level of communication apprehension are given below in Table 17.

Table 17. The Distribution of the Participants According to Their Levels of Communication Apprehension (CA)

	Frequency	Percent
Low CA	98	17,2
Moderate CA	376	66,1
High CA	95	16,7
Total	569	100,0

Table 17 illustrates that 17,2% (n=98) of the participants experience a low level of communication apprehension while 66,1% (n=376) experience it in a moderate level. The remaining 16,7% (n=95) have a high level of communication apprehension.

To reveal if there is a statistically significant difference between age groups (14-18 and 18+), group means were calculated and a t-test was administered. The results are tabulated below in table 18.

Table 18. Means and T-Test Results According to Age Groups

	Age Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Communication Apprehension	14-18	400	28,84	7,74	-4,218	567	,000
	18+	169	31,93	8,61			

It is demonstrated in Table 18 that the mean communication apprehension score of the participants who are 18 and below is 28,84 (sd=7,74) and that of the participants over 18 is 31,93 (sd=8,61). The 2-tailed significant value, 0,00, obtained through a t-test, indicates that the mean difference between the two age groups is statistically significant ($p<0,01$).

Following the t-test within the age groups of the participants, mean communication apprehension scores according to genders were calculated and another t-test was administered to reveal if the difference of mean communication apprehension scores within genders is statistically significant. The mean scores and t-test results are displayed below in Table 19.

Table 19. Means and T-Test Results According to Genders

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Communication Apprehension	Male	251	27,98	7,39	-4,726	567	,000
	Female	318	31,16	8,41			

As seen in Table 19, the mean scores of the male participants within the domain of communication apprehension is 27,98 (sd=7,39) and that of the female participants is 31,16 (sd=8,41). The t-test results imply that the difference between those mean scores is statistically significant ($p<0,01$) and female participants are more apprehensive in communication in English classes.

The next analysis is related to the mean communication apprehension scores of the participants and their relation to the institution where they study. To figure that out, the mean scores according to institutions are calculated and a t-test is administered to find out statistically significant differences between two values, the mean communication apprehension score of high school students and that of university students.

Table 20. Means and T-Test Results According to Institutions

	Institution	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Communication Apprehension	High School	385	28,79	7,84	-4,160	567	,000
	University	184	31,78	8,36			

The mean communication apprehension scores of high school and university students as seen in Table 20 are 28,79 (sd=7,84) and 31,78 (8,36) respectively and the difference between these mean scores is statistically significant ($p<0,01$) according to the t-test results, which indicate that university students experience communication apprehension stronger than high school students.

The next analysis takes into account the education level of the participant's father and its relation to communication apprehension. The mean communication apprehension scores and standard deviation values are presented below in Table 21.

Table 21. Mean Communication Apprehension Scores According to the Education Levels of the Participants' Fathers

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Primary School or Below	100	31,52	8,12
Secondary or High School	287	29,80	8,08
University	182	28,72	8,08
Total	569	29,76	8,13

Table 21 demonstrates that the mean communication apprehension score of the participants whose fathers have an education level of primary school or below is 31,52 (sd=8,12). On the other hand, the participants whose fathers have an education level of secondary or high school have a mean score of 29,80 (sd=8,08) and those whose fathers have an education level of university have a mean score of 28,72 (sd=8,08).

In order to reveal if the differences among the aforementioned mean scores are statistically significant, ANOVA results, shown in Table 22, should be investigated.

Table 22. ANOVA Results According to the Education Levels of the Participants' Fathers

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	507,096	2	253,548	3,877	,021
Within Groups	37015,948	566	65,399		
Total	37523,044	568			

ANOVA results in Table 22 suggest that there is a statistically significant difference ($p<0,05$) among the groups divided by the education levels of the participants' fathers. In order to detect which groups have the statistically significant different, an LSD test was administered by the researcher. The results of the LSD test are shown below in Table 23.

Table 23. LSD Results According to the Education Levels of the Participants' Fathers

(I) Education (Father)	(J) Education (Father)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Primary School or Below	Secondary or High School	1,72209	0,94	,067
	University	2,80022*	1,01	,006

The LSD results reveal that there is a statistically significant difference between the participants whose fathers have an education level of primary school or below and those whose fathers have an education level of university. The results indicate that the former group experience communication apprehension stronger than the latter. No other statistically significant difference was found in the LSD test among the groups according to the education level of the participant's father.

In order to see how the communication apprehension tendencies of the participants differ according to the education level of their mothers, means and standard deviation values were calculated and displayed in Table 24.

Table 24. Mean Communication Apprehension Scores According to the Education Levels of the Participants' Mothers

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Primary School or Below	151	31,64	8,06
Secondary or High School	296	29,46	8,07
University	122	28,14	7,97
Total	569	29,76	8,13

As demonstrated in Table 24, the mean communication apprehension scores of the participants according to their mothers' education levels vary. The participants whose mothers have an education level of primary school or below have a mean score of 31,64 (sd=8,06), those whose mothers have an education level of secondary or high school have a mean score of 29,46 (sd=8,07) and the participants whose mothers have had academic education in any level have a mean score of 29, 76 (sd=8,13). However, in order to see if the differences among these numbers are statistically significant, ANOVA results in Table 25 should be interpreted.

Table 25. ANOVA Results According to the Education Levels of the Participants' Mothers

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	882,211	2	441,105	6,814	,001
Within Groups	36640,833	566	64,736		
Total	37523,044	568			

The results of the analysis of variances indicate that there is a statistically significant difference ($p<0,01$) when the groups according to the education levels of the participants' mothers are compared. Following the ANOVA, an LSD test to compare the aforementioned groups was administered. Table 26 below demonstrates the results of the LSD test.

Table 26. LSD Results According to the Education Levels of the Participants' Mothers

(I) Education (Mother)	(J) Education (Mother)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Primary School or Below	Secondary or High School	2,18292*	0,80	,007
	University	3,50304*	0,98	,000

According to the LSD results presented in Table 26, the differences between the mean scores of the participants whose mothers have an education level of primary school or below and the other two groups are statistically significant ($p<0,01$). These results denote that the participants of the first group experience communication apprehension stronger than the second and the third groups. Other comparisons within the groups according to the education levels of the participants' mothers revealed no difference.

The last analysis that deals with the mean communication apprehension scores of the participants takes their perceived English levels as its basis. In order to find

out how the scores differ from each other, the mean scores and standard deviation values are calculated and tabulated for further analysis (Table 27).

Table 27. Mean Communication Apprehension Scores According to the Perceived English Levels of the Participants

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
A1 - A2	271	32,59	7,77
B1 - B2	270	27,75	7,42
C1 - C2	28	21,64	6,94
Total	569	29,76	8,13

The mean communication apprehension scores of the participants according to their perceived English levels are displayed in Table 27. The A1 – A2 group has a mean score of 32,59 (sd=7,77), the B1 – B2 group has a mean score of 27,75 (sd=7,42) and the last group, C1 – C2, has a mean score of 29,76 (sd=8,13).

As seen in the table, the numbers reduce as the level rises but an analysis of variances is necessary to detect if these differences are statistically significant or not (Table 28).

Table 28. ANOVA Results According to the Perceived English Levels of the Participants

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	5104,706	2	2552,353	44,562	,000
Within Groups	32418,338	566	57,276		
Total	37523,044	568			

When the ANOVA results according the perceived English levels of the participants are investigated, it is seen that there is a statistically significant difference ($p<0,01$) among level groups. To see which groups differ from each other significantly, LSD results should be interpreted. The results are displayed below in Table 29.

Table 29. LSD Results According to the Perceived English Levels of the Participants

(I) Perceived English Level	(J) Perceived English Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
A1 - A2	B1 - B2	4,83855*	0,65	,000
	C1 - C2	10,94755*	1,50	,000
B1 - B2	A1 - A2	-4,83855*	0,65	,000
	C1 - C2	6,10899*	1,50	,000
C1 - C2	A1 - A2	-10,94755*	1,50	,000
	B1 - B2	-6,10899*	1,50	,000

The LSD results indicate that all the differences within the groups divided by the perceived English levels of the participants are significant ($p<0,01$). This shows that the mean communication apprehension score of the B1 – B2 group is significantly higher than that of the C1 – C2 group, while the mean score of the A1 – A2 group is the highest.

4.3 Findings of Test Anxiety

The second domain within the FLCAS that is to be scrutinized is the domain of Test Anxiety. The minimum score within this domain is 15 and the maximum score is 75. The mean text anxiety scores, standard deviation values and minimum/maximum scores are presented in Table 30.

Table 30. Mean Text Anxiety Score, Minimum and Maximum Scores

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Test Anxiety	569	17,00	70,00	40,84	9,67
Valid N (listwise)	569				

As seen in the table, the minimum score within the Text Anxiety domain of the FLCAS is 17 and the maximum score is 70. The mean score of 569 participants within this domain is 40,84 (sd=9,67). Within this domain, a high score is 51 and above while a low score is 31 and below. The scores between 32-50 are considered moderate. Frequencies and percentages of the responses within the domain of test anxiety according to the levels are presented below in Table 31.

Table 31. The Distribution of the Test Anxiety Scores According to Their Levels

	Frequency	Percent
Low Test Anxiety	96	16,9
Moderate Test Anxiety	386	67,8
High Test Anxiety	87	15,3
Total	569	100,0

Table 31 shows that 16,9% (n=96) of the students experience a low level of test anxiety while 67,8% (n=386) experience the same type of anxiety in a moderate level. The percentage of the participants who experience a high level of test anxiety is 15,3 (n=87).

In order to check if the text anxiety scores differ according to the ages of the participants, the mean text anxiety scores of the two age groups (14-18 and 18+) were calculated and a t-test was administered to compare the two groups. T-test results are shown below in Table 32.

Table 32. Means and T-Test Results According to Age Groups

	Age Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Test Anxiety	14-18	400	40,08	9,10	-2,910	567	,004
	18+	169	42,64	10,71			

Table 32 presents the mean text anxiety scores and standard deviation values according to age groups. The first and the younger age group has a mean text anxiety score of 40,08 (sd=9,10) and the second and the older age group has a mean score of 42,64 (sd=10,71). The t-test results signify that the difference is statistically significant (p<0,01) and the older group has a higher level of text anxiety.

The next analysis reveals if there is a statistically significant difference between the mean text anxiety scores of two genders. The mean values according to genders and t-test results are displayed in Table 33 below.

Table 33. Means and T-Test Results According to Genders

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Test Anxiety	Male	251	39,19	9,61	-3,655	567	,000
	Female	318	42,14	9,53			

As seen in Table 33, the mean text anxiety score of the male participants is 39,19 (sd=9,61) while that of the female participants is 42,14 (9,53). The t-test results indicate that the difference in the mean text anxiety scores of males and females is statistically significant (p<0,01) and female participants are more anxious in tests than their male counterparts.

Following the analyses according to genders, the mean text anxiety scores and standard deviation values were computed by the researcher according to the institutions where the participants studied. In addition, a t-test was administered to detect if the difference between the mean scores of the two institutions, high school and university, were significantly different. The results are demonstrated below in Table 34.

Table 34. Means and T-Test Results According to Institutions

	Institution	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Test Anxiety	High School	385	40,00	9,24	-2,998	567	,003
	University	184	42,58	10,31			

As shown in Table 34, the mean text anxiety score of the participants who study at a high school is 40,00 (sd=9,24) and that of the participants who study at a university is 42,58 (sd=10,31). The t-test result denote that the difference is statistically significant ($p<0,01$) and university students are more anxious in tests than high school students.

After the analyses according to institutions where the participants study, it is necessary to calculate the mean text anxiety scores of the participants according to their fathers' education levels to detect the potential effects of the variable on text anxiety.

Table 35. Mean Test Anxiety Scores According to the Education Levels of the Participants' Fathers

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Primary School or Below	100	42,74	10,03
Secondary or High School	287	40,61	9,19
University	182	40,14	10,10
Total	569	40,84	9,67

The calculation of the mean text anxiety scores according to the education levels of the participants' fathers revealed quite close results. The mean text anxiety score of the participants whose fathers have an education level of primary school or below is 42,74 (sd=10,03), while those whose fathers have an education level of secondary or high school have a mean score of 40,61 (sd=9,19). The lowest mean

score within the domain of text anxiety belongs to the participants whose fathers have an education level of university, which is 40,14 (sd=10,10).

In order to see if the differences among the mean test anxiety scores according to the education levels of the participants' fathers were statistically significant, an analysis of variances was administered. The results are shown below in Table 36.

Table 36. ANOVA Results According to the Education Levels of the Participants' Fathers

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	464,204	2	232,102	2,498	,083
Within Groups	52597,595	566	92,929		
Total	53061,800	568			

It is displayed in Table 36 that the ANOVA results denote no statistically significant difference (p>0,05) among the mean text anxiety scores of the participants according to their fathers' education level, thus it would not be wrong to say that the differences in the mean text anxiety scores are arbitrary.

The purpose of the next set of analyses related to the domain of text anxiety within the FLCAS is to figure out the mean text anxiety scores of the participants according to their mothers' education level. The results of the mean score calculations are shown below in Table 37.

Table 37. Mean Test Anxiety Scores According to the Education Levels of the Participants' Mothers

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Primary School or Below	151	42,07	9,92
Secondary or High School	296	40,77	9,14
University	122	39,47	10,44
Total	569	40,84	9,67

The mean text anxiety score of the participants whose mothers have an education level of primary school or below, secondary or high school and university are 42,07 (sd=9,92), 40,77 (sd=9,14) and 39,47 (sd=10,44) respectively. However, an analysis of variances is necessary to find out if there is a statistically significant difference among these numbers. The results of the ANOVA are tabulated below in Table 38.

Table 38. ANOVA Results According to the Education Levels of the Participants' Mothers

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	458,259	2	229,129	2,465	,086
Within Groups	52603,541	566	92,939		
Total	53061,800	568			

As shown in Table 38, there is no statistically significant difference ($p>0,05$) according to the education levels of the participants' mothers within the domain of text anxiety in FLCAS. The numerical differences among the mean text scores of the participants within this variable are considered arbitrary.

In order to understand the interaction of text anxiety with the perceived English levels of the participants, a last set of analyses is administered through the mean text anxiety scores, that are shown in Table 39, within the perceived English level groups.

Table 39. Mean Test Anxiety Scores According to the Perceived English Levels of the Participants

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
A1 - A2	271	44,11	9,30
B1 - B2	270	38,39	8,90
C1 - C2	28	32,82	8,81
Total	569	40,84	9,67

As illustrated in Table 39, the mean test anxiety score of the perceived English level groups differ in numbers. The A1 – A2 group has a mean text anxiety score of 44,11 (sd=9,30), the B1 – B2 group has a mean score of 38,39 (sd=8,90) and the C1 – C2 group has a mean score of 32,82 (sd=8,81). In order to find out if these numerical differences are statistically significant, an analysis of variances is necessary to be administered (Table 40).

Table 40. ANOVA Results According to the Perceived English Levels of the Participants

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	6319,855	2	3159,928	38,264	,000
Within Groups	46741,945	566	82,583		
Total	53061,800	568			

The ANOVA results according to the perceived English levels of the participants indicate that there is a statistically significant difference ($p<0,01$) among the mentioned groups. Following the ANOVA, the results of the LSD test should be interpreted in order to see which groups significantly differ from each other (Table 41).

Table 41. LSD Results According to the Perceived English Levels of the Participants

(I) Perceived English Level	(J) Perceived English Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
A1 - A2	B1 - B2	5,72183*	,78141	,000
	C1 - C2	11,28558*	1,80392	,000
B1 - B2	A1 - A2	-5,72183*	,78141	,000
	C1 - C2	5,56376*	1,80423	,002
C1 - C2	A1 - A2	-11,28558*	1,80392	,000
	B1 - B2	-5,56376*	1,80423	,002

According to the LSD results, all the differences within the groups divided by the perceived English levels of the participants are significant ($p<0,01$). This shows that the mean test anxiety score of the B1 – B2 group is significantly higher than that of the C1 – C2 group, while the mean score of the A1 – A2 group is the highest and that text anxiety decreases as the perceived English level increases.

4.4 Findings of Fear of Negative Evaluation

The next domain within the FLCAS to be analyzed is the domain of Fear of Negative Evaluation. In order to conduct detailed analysis within the mentioned domain, mean fear of negative evaluation score, standard deviation value, minimum and maximum scores are calculated (Table 42).

Table 42. Mean Fear of Negative Evaluation Score, Minimum and Maximum Scores

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Fear of Negative Evaluation	569	7,00	35,00	18,62	6,02
Valid N (listwise)	569				

Table 42 shows that the mean fear of negative evaluation score of the participants is 18,62 with a standard deviation value of 6,02. The minimum score obtained within this domain is 7 while the maximum is 35. Within this domain, a high score is 25 and above while a low score is 12 and below. The scores in between are considered moderate. The distribution of the participants according to their levels of fear of negative evaluation is presented below in Table 43.

Table 43. The Distribution of the Participants According to Their Levels of Fear of Negative Evaluation

	Frequency	Percent
Low Fear of Negative Evaluation	92	16,2
Moderate Fear of Negative Evaluation	373	65,6
High Fear of Negative Evaluation	104	18,3
Total	569	100,0

As seen in Table 43, 16,2% (n=92) of the participants experience a low fear of negative evaluation while 65,6% (n=373) experience a moderate fear. A high fear of negative evaluation is felt by the remaining 18,3% (n=104).

To see if the fear of negative evaluation differed according to the ages of the participants, the groups that were used in other domains were used (14-18 and 18+) and a t-test was administered by the researcher. The results are displayed below in Table 44.

Table 44. Means and T-Test Results According to Age Groups

	Age Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Fear of Negative Evaluation	14-18	400	18,07	5,77	-3,374	567	,001
	18+	169	19,92	6,41			

Table 44. reveals that the mean fear of negative evaluation score of the 14-18 age group is 18,07 (sd=5,77) and the mean score of the 18+ age group is 19,92 (sd=6,41). Moreover, the t-test results indicate that the difference between the mean fear of negative evaluation scores of the two groups is statistically significant (p<0,01).

The next analysis is to find out the mean fear of negative evaluation scores and the standard deviation values according to genders and to detect if there's any statistically significant difference between the mean values obtained. The results are shown below in Table 45.

Table 45. Means and T-Test Results According to Genders

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Fear of Negative Evaluation	Male	251	17,08	5,34	-5,571	567	,000
	Female	318	19,84	6,26			

As shown in Table 45, the mean fear of negative evaluation score of the male participants is 17,08 (sd=5,34) and that of the female participants is 19,84 (sd=6,26). According to the t-test results, the difference between the mean scores is statistically significant (p<0,01) and female students experience the fear of negative evaluation stronger than their male counterparts.

The institution at which the participant studies is another variable in the present study. In order to see if this variable had any effect on the fear of negative evaluation, mean values and standard deviations were calculated and a t-test was administered by the researcher. The results of the calculations and the t-test are presented below in Table 46.

Table 46. Means and T-Test Results According to Institutions

	Institution	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Fear of Negative Evaluation	High School	385	18,03	5,83	-3,428	567	,001
	University	184	19,86	6,23			

Table 46 shows that the mean fear of negative evaluation score of the participants who study at a high school is 18,03 (sd=5,83) and that of the participants who study at a university is 19,86 (sd=6,23). According to the t-test results, the difference between the mean scores according to institutions is statistically significant ($p<0,01$), which indicates that university students experience the fear of negative evaluation stronger than high school students.

The next variable to be analyzed is the education level of the participant's father. In order to conduct analysis on the mentioned variable, mean fear of negative evaluation values according to the education levels of the participants' fathers and standard deviation values were calculated. The results are displayed below in Table 47.

Table 47. Mean Fear of Negative Evaluation Scores According to the Education Levels of the Participants' Fathers

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Primary School or Below	100	19,53	6,22
Secondary or High School	287	18,78	5,87
University	182	17,86	6,09
Total	569	18,62	6,02

Table 47 shows that the mean score of the fear of negative evaluation domain according to the education levels of the participants' fathers. The participants whose fathers have an education level of primary school or below have a mean score of 19,52 (sd=6,22), those whose fathers have an education level of primary school or below have a mean score of 18,78 (sd=5,87) and the participants whose fathers have studied at a university at any level has a mean score of 17,86 (sd=6,02).

In order to see if the differences among the mean scores are statistically significant, an analysis of variances was administered by the researcher. The results are displayed below in Table 48.

Table 48. ANOVA Results According to the Education Levels of the Participants' Fathers

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	196,441	2	98,22	2,725	0,066
Within Groups	20403,802	566	36,049		
Total	20600,243	568			

As seen in Table 48, there is no statistically significant difference among the groups according to the education levels of the participants' fathers within the domain of Fear of Negative Evaluation (p>0,05).

The next variable to be investigated within this domain is the education level of the participant's mother and its effect on the fear of negative evaluation domain. In order to conduct analyses, mean and standard deviation values were calculated and illustrated in Table 49.

Table 49. Mean Fear of Negative Evaluation Scores According to the Education Levels of the Participants' Mothers

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Primary School or Below	151	19,71	5,99
Secondary or High School	296	18,60	5,96
University	122	17,31	6,00
Total	569	18,62	6,02

According to Table (), the mean fear of negative evaluation score of the participants whose mothers have an education level of primary school or below is 19,71 (sd=5,99), the mean score of the participants whose mothers have an education level of secondary or high school is 18,60 (sd=5,96) and those whose mothers have attended a university have a mean score of 17,31 (sd=6,00).

In order to test if the aforementioned mean scores have statistically significant differences among one another, an analysis of variances was administered and the results are displayed below in Table 50.

Table 50. ANOVA Results According to the Education Levels of the Participants' Mothers

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	387,940	2	193,970	5,432	,005
Within Groups	20212,302	566	35,711		
Total	20600,243	568			

The ANOVA table above signifies that the mean fear of negative evaluation scores according to the education levels of the participants' mothers are statistically significant ($p<0,01$). In order to see which groups differed from each other, an LSD

test was administered by the researcher. The results of the LSD test are shown in Table 51.

Table 51. LSD Results According to the Education Levels of the Participants' Mothers

(I) Education Level of the Mother	(J) Education Level of the Mother	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
University	Primary School or Below	-2,39713*	,72747	,001
	Secondary or High School	-1,28988*	,64293	,045

LSD results reveal that the mean fear of negative evaluation score of the participants who have had university education is significantly lower than those whose mothers have an education level of high school, secondary school, primary school or below ($p<0,05$). The interpretation of the results is that those whose mothers have had university education experience the fear of negative evaluation weaker than the other groups.

The last set of analyses regarding the domain of fear of negative evaluation is related to the perceived English levels of the participants. To conduct statistical analyses, the mean fear of negative evaluation scores of the participants according to their perceived English levels and standard deviation values were calculated by the researcher (Table 52).

Table 52. Mean Fear of Negative Evaluation Scores According to the Perceived English Levels of the Participants

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
A1 - A2	271	20,59	5,75
B1 - B2	270	17,27	5,61
C1 - C2	28	12,54	4,72
Total	569	18,62	6,02

The mean fear of negative evaluation scores and standard deviation values according to the perceived English levels of the students are displayed above. According to Table 52, the participants who consider their level of English as A1 – A2 have a mean fear of negative evaluation score of 20,59 (sd=5,75), those whose perceived English level are B1 – B2 have a mean score of 17,27 (sd=5,61) and the mean score of the participants with a perceived English level of C1 – C2 is 12,54 (sd=4,72).

In order to detect if the differences in the mean scores in Table () had statistically significant differences, an ANOVA was administered by the researcher. The results are displayed below in Table 53.

Table 53. Mean Fear of Negative Evaluation Scores According to the Perceived English Levels of the Participants

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2580,480	2	1290,240	40,526	,000
Within Groups	18019,762	566	31,837		
Total	20600,243	568			

The ANOVA results suggest that the differences among the mean fear of negative evaluation scores according to the perceived English levels of the

participants are statistically significant (p<0,01). However, ANOVA results alone cannot explain which groups have statistically significant differences, therefore, an LSD test was administered. The results are displayed below in Table 54.

Table 54. LSD Results According to the Perceived English Levels of the Participants

(I) Perceived Linguistic Level	(J) Perceived Linguistic Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
A1 – A2	B1 – B2	3,32004*	,48518	,000
	C1 – C2	8,05469*	1,12005	,000
B1 – B2	A1 – A2	-3,32004*	,48518	,000
	C1 – C2	4,73466*	1,12025	,000
C1 – C2	A1 – A2	-8,05469*	1,12005	,000
	B1 – B2	-4,73466*	1,12025	,000

The results of the LSD test reveal that all the differences among the groups according to the perceived English levels of the participants are statistically significant (p<0,01). The results suggest that the mean fear of negative evaluation score of the B1 – B2 group is higher than that of the C1 – C2 group and the mean score of the A1 – A2 group is the highest and that the fear of negative evaluation increases as the perceived English level of the participant decreases.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

5.1 Discussion

The present study investigates the foreign language anxiety of 569 high school and university students. The findings indicate that the majority of the students have a moderate level of anxiety while a relatively small number of students experience foreign language anxiety in low or high levels.

The results revealed that the older age group experienced foreign language anxiety as well as communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation stronger than the younger group. The results related to age are in line with Onwuegbuzie et al. (1999) and Bailey, Daley and Onwuegbuzie (2000), who also suggested that anxiety increases with age. The reason for the fact that older student group reported a higher level of anxiety may be that the capability of speaking a foreign language without a salient accent has a negative correlation with age (Newport, 1986). Moreover, the age-related factors affecting the cognitive processing capacity of individuals, processing speed, working memory function, inhibitory function and sensory function as proposed by Park (2000) may be responsible for the occurrence of the unwillingness to make mistakes among older participants.

Horwitz (1984, 1988) suggests that older students believe that accuracy should be a criterion of speaking a foreign language and guessing technique should not be used when it comes to unknown words, which supports the results of the present study. Finally, students may have the tendency to be more inclined to avoid situations have the potential of humiliating them as they grow older (Johnstone, 2009), which may cause foreign language anxiety.

The results of the present study, suggesting that anxiety increases with age, are in conflict with the studies of MacIntyre et al., (2002:550) and Dewaele et al. (2008)

who found negative correlations between age and anxiety, that is, their results revealed that anxiety decreases with age. However, the former study included that participants of an immersion program and the latter was conducted on multilingual students, which could be considered a major difference with the participants of the present study, in which only 4,9% percent claimed to be advanced speakers of English. This means that a considerable majority of the participants of the present study have never been exposed to English as a foreign language as an immersion student would be, which may be the main cause of the conflicting results acquired.

Gender also seems to play an important role according to the results of the present study. The findings called forth that females experience foreign language anxiety, communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation more firmly than their male counterparts. The findings of the present study regarding the relationship between gender and foreign language anxiety are consistent with those of Stephenson (2007), Abu-Rabia (2004) and Machida (2001), whose results also suggest that females are inclined to report a significantly higher level of foreign language anxiety in comparison with their male counterparts.

In order to explain the reason why females reportedly have a higher level of anxiety, it is inevitable to take a look at the gender roles within societies. Clark & Trafford (1996) assert that female students are more open in their responses and male students pay less importance to learning a foreign language, which may serve as a reason of higher foreign language anxiety among females. Underneath girls' being more open to report anxiety, it could be the fact that males are restricted by their society when it comes to express their feelings, especially of fear and stress while females are driven into asking for social support, talk about their fears and avoid fearsome situations (Chambless & Mason, 1986). These suggestions may explain as to why male participants reported a lower level of anxiety than their female counterparts.

Moreover, according to Zalta & Chambless (2008), females seem to have a lower level of mastery of their environment in comparison to men, which is the result

of the society expecting more power and mastery of males in comparison to females (Lips, 2002). In parallel with this, females are more danger-conscious and cautious, thus more alert than males, which causes a higher level of anxiety among them (Krohne et al., 2001), as supported by the findings of this study.

However, the results of the present study within the gender variable are in conflict with those of Campbell and Shaw (1994) and Zhang (2000), who conclude that female students, being more open to and willing for learning a foreign language, experience a lower level of anxiety than male students. The explanation to the reason why there exists such a difference may be within the cultural features of the participants, that is, the causal relations provided in this study as to why females tend to report a high level of anxiety may not be valid for every foreign language learning setting, highly depending on the particular culture, be it the national culture or the culture of foreign language learning in the participants' country.

The institution where the participants study, that is, if a student studies at a high school or university, also revealed statistically significant differences. University students were found to have a higher level of foreign language anxiety, communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation than high school students. Obviously, there is an age difference between university and high school students and the higher level of anxiety among university students may be because of higher age as mentioned above in the present study. However, one should also take into account the structural and methodological differences between high schools and universities, which may have an impact on foreign language anxiety.

The education level of the participants' family members was also found to be a statistically significant factor affecting foreign language anxiety, communication apprehension and fear of negative evaluation. The findings suggest that the participants whose parents have an academic level of education at any level experience a weaker level of the abovementioned domains related to anxiety. These findings are in line with those of Mji and Mbinda (2005), who conclude that parental involvement may have a significant effect on a student's academic work if their level of education is relatively high. Also, McCarthey (2005) assert that the values of

parents have an impact on their children's writing practice and attitudes. Therefore, it would not be wrong to say that the present study support the findings of those studies.

Moreover, again in line with the results acquired in this study, Sclafani (2004) states that parents who have an education level below university are less involved in their children's education since they are less educated and have more stress in their lives, which disturbs their interaction with their children. Given that the education level of a student's family members actually affect the academic personality of his, the same variable may also mean that the higher the education level of a student is, the lower his foreign language anxiety level will be because a higher education means a higher level of educational experience so this may positively affect their educational interactions with their children. In addition, having had a larger number of foreign language classes, such parents may be more linguistically aware and direct their children for their foreign language classes accordingly, which may have a reductive effect on foreign language anxiety.

It was only in the domain of Test Anxiety that the ANOVA results revealed no statistically significant difference according to the education level of the participants' parents. This result is notable in terms of the fact that nearly all the students in Turkey have to undergo a number of examinations from very early ages on and having encountered it in their childhood, it seems that all the students who partook in the present study experience test anxiety in similar strengths when the family effect on test anxiety is taken into account.

The last independent variable that was thought to interact with foreign language anxiety was the perceived English level of the participants. Indeed, the results of the analyses revealed that the perceived English level of the participants had an effect on foreign language anxiety, communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation. The findings are consistent with those of Gardner, Tremblay, and Masgoret (1997) who concluded that foreign language anxiety has a downhill correlation with proficiency, and with the results Liu (2006) obtained,

which led him to confirm that students with a lower level of proficiency demonstrate a higher level of anxiety.

On that matter, Brown (2001) suggests that language learners with a high level of proficiency are more emotionally stable and less anxious while being more balanced in their behaviors in a language learning setting. All these findings, including the findings of the present study, may be caused by the fact that students with a higher level of English proficiency are more willing to take risks and learn from their mistakes (Brown, 1994), which means they may be averting from avoidance when the matter is a linguistic challenge. Moreover, a higher level of proficiency naturally means a stronger self-confidence since the student would not take an English examination as a difficult one. All these factors may be reducing the level of foreign language anxiety among proficient students.

Finally, according to the results of the study, it can be said that age, gender, the institution where a student studies, the education level of the students' family and proficiency level all have an effect on foreign language anxiety and the domains within. Future research related to the phenomenon of foreign language anxiety should focus on the reasons why that specific type of anxiety occurs and how it could be eliminated.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

6.1 Conclusion

The aim of this study was to explore the foreign language anxiety levels of high school and university students and to detect the differences of anxiety levels according to their ages, genders, the institutions they study at and the education levels of their parents. 569 students, who had English classes at their schools, were the subjects of the study and they were given the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale to measure their levels of anxiety.

In the first chapter of the study, the problem and the rationale for the study was stated in detail in that psychological factors had a significant impact in the course of second language acquisition and exploratory research was necessary to be able to come forth with facilitative applications. Following these, the aim and the significance of the study was presented, showing that foreign language anxiety could serve as an obstructive factor in second language acquisition, thus needs to be studied. The last points mentioned in the first chapter were key concepts, definitions and abbreviations.

In chapter two, the relevant literature was reviewed in relation to foreign language anxiety. Learning theories such as behaviourism, cognitivism and constructivism were presented in the light of the studies by notable scholars like Skinner, Chomsky, Piaget, Cunningham and Brooks. After the learning theories, other factors that have an impact on second language acquisition were reviewed. In those sections, factors affecting language acquisition such as input, interaction and output were studied along with psychological factors like affect, motivation or anxiety. Being the major problem of the present study, the phenomenon of anxiety was presented in detail with its different types and effects on second language acquisition. Age, being another point of importance of this study, was also studied in detail with different theories such as the Brain Plasticity Hypothesis, Critical Period

Hypothesis and Sensitive Period Hypothesis. The last section of this chapter was related to the relation between age and anxiety.

In the third chapter, the research structure was the focal point. The research method was presented as quantitative with a 33-item, 5-point Likert scale since the aim of the study was to measure anxiety levels. After that, the features of the participants of the study were detailed to have a clear grasp of the sample. Then, statistical data regarding the reliability and validity of the data collection instrument were given. The types of tests and different statistical analyses to find out and interpret the results were the last part of this chapter. Frequencies, percentages, mean and standard deviation values were calculated to be tested by t-tests and ANOVA in order to reveal the statistically significant differences between and within groups.

Chapter four dealt with the results of the statistical analyses. Firstly, the whole scale results, that is, the anxiety score of the participants were subject to comparisons. The results revealed that age, gender, the institution of studies, the education level of parents and the perceived proficiency levels of the participants all had an impact on foreign language anxiety, since they were all found statistically significant.

To be more specific, the findings revealed that the foreign language anxiety levels of female students were higher than males and that of less proficient students were lower than those with a higher level of proficiency. Moreover, lower level of parent education and a lower age are indicative of a higher level of foreign anxiety, according to the findings, which confirm the findings acquired by Frantzen and Magnan (2005), Campbell and Shaw (1994), Donovan and MacIntyre (2005).

However, there were 3 subdomains within the scale and it was necessary to analyze all 3 of them in order to have a better grasp of the foreign language anxiety phenomenon. The same method that the researcher adopted to find out what actually affects foreign language anxiety was used in order to analyze the subdomains.

The results revealed that all variables, age, gender, proficiency levels, the institution of studies and the education level of participants' parents had an impact on the subdomains of communication apprehension and fear of negative evaluation. That is, an older age and higher levels of proficiency and parent education indicated higher levels of communication apprehension and fear of negative evaluation corroborating the findings of Gardner, Lalonde, & Pierson (1983), Zhang (2000), Dewaele (2007) and MacIntyre et al. (2002:550).

Test Anxiety, on the other was found to be interacting with all variables but the level of parent education, since the testing system in Turkey are common for all schools and all students have to take similar types of tests.

The fifth chapter was the discussion of the acquired results. The results of the study were summarized and their possible causes were discussed. In brief, the fact that anxiety increased in the older age groups was explained with the increase of the fear of making mistakes with age, as suggested also by Johnstone (2009).

The gender related findings were associated from a sociological perspective, that is, from the perspective of gender roles within societies. The reason why female participants tend to report a higher level of anxiety was shed a light on, thanks to the study of Chambless & Mason (1996) suggesting that the predominant culture and society claim females more vulnerable, thus making them more subject to asking for help by expressing fear.

Parent education level was also found to be an effective factor in foreign language anxiety and this was interpreted as the family effect on a student's education awareness as well as language awareness, as put forward by Mji and Mbinda (2005) on the parental involvement in education.

The findings which confirmed that the level of English proficiency negatively correlated with foreign language anxiety was explained with the increasing self-esteem and decreasing fear of making mistakes among proficient students, since

Brown (2001) suggests that a better emotional stability comes through a higher level of proficiency in language classes.

To conclude, age, gender, institution, parent education level and proficiency level were found to be significant factors affecting foreign language anxiety, communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation, making them phenomena to be researched individually in application environments.

6.2 Suggestions

Today, it is a well-known fact that biological and psychological factors such as age, motivation, aptitude, affect and anxiety have serious impacts on second language acquisition. Therefore, teachers are expected to provide psychological support as to increase motivation or decrease anxiety, instead of merely teaching the rules of the foreign language or providing the class with a pool of activities. This section provides teaching implications and future research ideas to aid future applications and research.

In the study, it was seen that the higher anxiety groups were the older age group, females, university students, students whose parents have a relatively low level of education and those with a relatively low English proficiency. At this point, teachers of English should keep in mind that anxious groups should be approached carefully as this factor may have a destructive effect on the course of second language acquisition. With such groups, the correct teaching methodology should be carefully chosen and teachers should make sure that their class has enough pair and group work due to the fact that such activities promote learner autonomy while diminishing the effect of being monitored or evaluated by the teacher. This way, there will be more opportunities for the more anxious students to be involved in the foreign language class.

Obviously, a teacher cannot alter the education level of a student's parents. However, bringing in activities that promote language awareness which will

undoubtedly reduce foreign language anxiety is what he should do in a foreign language class. This way, the lack of the family effect on education could be compensated.

To sum up, the teacher effect on foreign language anxiety should not be underestimated. In other words, foreign language teachers must be aware of the fact that reducing anxiety in a classroom may have positive effects on the course of the lesson as well as second language acquisition. Reducing anxiety should be regarded as an important task for the language teacher. Further research could be made in order to explain a larger part of the phenomenon of anxiety and to develop practical applications that could reduce anxiety.

Naturally, there are limitations to this study. First of all, the present study is limited to its own sample, high school and university students studying in Edirne. Secondly, the results are valid only for the 2012-2013 Academic Year. Lastly, the responses of the study are limited to the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale and the domains within. Different aspects of foreign language anxiety could be discovered through interviews with open ended questions.

6.3 Limitations

The present study is limited to the 569 high school and university students living in Edirne. Therefore, applying the same methodology in a different city or country may yield different results due to the changes in learning environments and more importantly, a change in cultures, especially in a location where genders roles and methods of language teaching are different than those of Edirne, Turkey.

In addition, the data was collected in 2012-2013 Academic Year and the testing system may be affecting especially the test anxiety findings of the present study. Therefore, conflicting results could be achieved with a group of students subject to a different testing system.

Lastly, the data collected throughout this research is limited only to the FLCAS by Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope (1986). Using different data collection instruments may result in conflicting results.

6.4 Suggestions for Further Study

The present study is descriptive in nature, therefore, further research needs to be made as to develop a method that would reduce the level of foreign language anxiety in order to foster foreign language learning. Moreover, since this study is limited to the students in Edirne, Turkey, who take English classes, it should be replicated in different locations so as to come to a more generalized conclusion, also including the learners of different foreign languages. Lastly, the present study deals only with anxiety as a factor affecting foreign language acquisition, other factors that might have an impact should also be investigated in order to have a full grasp of the psychological factors that have an impact on foreign language acquisition.

REFERENCES

Abu-Rabia, S. (2004). Teachers' role, learners' gender differences, and FL anxiety among seventh-grade students studying English as a FL. *Educational Psychology*, 24(5), 711-721.

Acton, W., Felix, J. W. (1986) "Acculturation and the mind." In Joyce Merrill Valdes (ed.) *Culture Bound*. New York: Cambridge Press.

Arnold, J., Brown, H.D., (1999). A map of the terrain. In: Arnold, J. (Ed.), *Affect in Language Learning*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge. 1-24.

Ay, S. (2010). Young adolescent students' foreign language anxiety in relation to language skills at different levels. *The Journal of International Social Research,* 3 (11), 83-91.

Bailey, K. M. (1983). Competitiveness and anxiety in adult second language learning: Looking at and through the diary studies. In H. W. Seliger & M. H. Long (Eds.), *Classroom-oriented research in second language acquisition*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House. 67-102.

Barna, L., M. (1976) "How culture shock affects communication." Paper presented in Communication Association of the Pacific Annual Conference. Kobe, Japan. June. ED 184909.

Bartlett, F.C. (1932). *Remembering: A Study in Experimental and Social Psychology.* Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Birdsong, D. (2006). Age and second language acquisition and processing: Aselective overview. *Language Learning*, 56(1). 9–49.

Bley-Vroman, R. (1989). What is the logical problem of foreign language learning? In S. M. Gass & J. Schachter (Eds.), *Linguistic perspectives on second language acquisition.* New York : Cambridge University Press. 42-68.

Bley-Vroman, R. (1990). The logical problem of foreign language learning. *Linguistic Analysis*, 20 , 3–49 .

Brewer, W. F., & Nakamura, G. V. (1984). The nature and functions of schemas. In R. S. Wyer & T. K. Srull (Eds.), Handbook of social cognition, (1), Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum, 119-160.

Brooks, M.G., Brooks, J.G. (1996). Creating the Constructivist Classroom. *Course materials from an ASCD workshop by the same title*, New Orleans, LA.

Brown, H. D. (1994). *Principles of language learning and teaching*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Brown, H. D. (2007). *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching, 5th edition.* White Plains, NY: Pearson Education Inc. 41.

Brown, J. D., Robson, G., & Rosenkjar, P. R. (2001). Personality, motivation, anxiety, strategies, and language proficiency of Japanese students. In Z. Dornyei & R. W. Schmidt (Eds.), *Motivation and second language acquisition*. Honolulu: University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center. 361-398.

Brown, J. D., Robson, G., & Rosenkjar, P. R. (2001). Personality, motivation, anxiety, strategies, and language proficiency of Japanese students. In Z. Dornyei & R. W. Schmidt (Eds.), *Motivation and second language acquisition*. Honolulu: University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center. 361-398.

Brown, L. (2008). Language and Anxiety: An Ethnographic Study of International Postgraduate Students, *Evaluation and Research in Education*, 21(2), 75-95

Campless, C. M., Ortiz, J. (1991). Helping students overcome foreign language anxiety: A foreign language anxiety workshop in E.K. Horwitz and D.J. Young (eds.).

Cao, Y. (2011). Comparison of Two Models of Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale.

Carroll, J. B. (1965). The prediction of success in foreign language learning. In R. Glaser (Ed.), *Training, Research, and Education*. New York: Wiley. 87-136.

Carroll, J. B. (1973). Implications of aptitude test research and psycholinguistic theory for

Chambless, D. L., & Mason, J. (1986). Sex, sex-role stereotyping and agoraphobia. *Behaviour Research and Therapy*, 24, 231–235. doi:10.1016/0005-7967(86)90098-7

Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of the theory of syntax.* Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press

Chomsky, N. (1966). *Cartesian Linguistics*. New York: Harper and Row.

Chomsky, N. (1975). *Reflections on language*. London: Temple Smith.

Chomsky, N. (1981). *Lectures on Government and Binding.* Dordrcht, The Netherlands:Foris.

Chomsky, N. (1986). *Barriers.* Cambridge, MA:MIT Press.

Chorpita, B. F. (2001). Control and the development of negative emotions. In M. W. Vasey & M. R. Dadds (Eds.), *The developmental psychopathology of anxiety*. New York: Oxford University Press. 112-142.

Clark, A., & Trafford, J. (1996). Return to gender: boys' and girls' attitudes and achievements. *Language Learning Journal*, 14, 40 – 49.

Cohen, M., Dörnyei, Z. (2002). Focus on the language learner: Motivation, styles and strategies. In N. Schmitt (ed.), *An introduction to applied linguistics*. London: Arnold. 170–190.

Colombo, J. (1982) The critical period concept: Research, methodology and theoretical issues. *Psychological Bulletin,* 91(2), 260-275.

Communication, 22, 36-75.

Cook, V. (1997) *Inside Language.* London:Edward Arnold. 250-251.

Cooper, P. A. (1993). Paradigm shifts in designed instruction: from behaviorism to cognitivism to constructivism. *Educational Technology*, 33(5), 12-19.

Corder, S. P. (1967). The significance of learners' errors. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 5, 161-9.

Corder, S. P. (1967). The significance of learners' errors. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 5, 161–170.

Corder, S. P. (1974). Error Analysis. In J. P. B. Allen and S. P. Corder (eds.) *Techniques in Applied Linguistics (The Edinburgh Course in Applied Linguistics: 3)*. London: Oxford University Press (Language and Language Learning), 122-154.

Corder, S. P. (1981). *Interlanguage and error analysis*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Crookall, D., & Oxford, R. (1991). Dealing with anxiety: Some practical activities for language learners and teacher trainees. In E. K. Horwitz & D. J. Young (Eds.), *Language anxiety: From theory and research to classroom implications* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall. 141-150.

Curtiss, S. (1977) *Genie: A Psycholinguistic Study of a Modem Day "Wild Child*. Academic Press: New York.

Curtiss, S. (1988). Abnormal Language Acquisition and the Modularity of Language. In F. J. Newmeyer, ed., *Linguistics: The Cambridge Survey, Vol. II, Linguistic Theory: Extensions and Implications*. Cambridge University Press: New York.

Davison, G. C. (2008). *Abnormal Psychology*. Toronto: Veronica Visentin. 154.

Dewaele, J. M. (2007). The effect of multilingualism, sociobiographical, and situational factors on communicative anxiety and foreign language anxiety of mature language learners. *International Journal of Bilingualism*, 11(4), 391-409.

Dewaele, J.-M., Petrides, K. V., & Furnham, A. (2008). The effects of trait emotional intelligence and sociobiographical variables on communicative anxiety and foreign language anxiety among adult multilinguals: A review and empirical investigation. *Language Learning*, 58 (4), 911-960.

Donovan, L. A., Macintyre, P. D. (2005). Age and sex differences in willingness to communicate, communication apprehension and self-perceived competence. *Communication Research Reports*, 21, 420-427.

Dörnyei Z. & P. Skehan, (2003). Individual differences in second language learning. In Doughty and M. Long (eds.), *The handbook of second language acquisition*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Dörnyei, Z. (2005). *The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Dörnyei, Z., Otto, I (1998). Motivation in action: A process model of L2 motivation. In Working Papers in *Applied Linguistics*, 4. London: Thames Valley University. 43-69.

Ehrman, M. E. (1996). *Understanding Second Language Learning Difficulties*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Ellis, R. (1985). *Understanding second language acquisition* . Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R. (1985). *Understanding Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R. (1994). *The study of second language acquisition*. Oxford, New York: Oxford University Press, 494.

Epstein, S., Flynn, S., and Martohardjono, G. (1996). Second language acquisition: theoretical and experimental issues in contemporary research. *Brain and Behavioral Sciences*, 19, 677-714.

Epstein, S., Flynn, S., and Martohardjono, G. (1998). The strong continuity hypothesis in adult L2 acquisition of functional categories. In S. Flynn, G. Martohardjono, and W. O'Neil (Eds.), *The Generative Study of Second Language Acquisition.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. 61-77.

Erlam, R. (2005). Language aptitude and its relationship to instructional effectiveness in second language acquisition. *Language Teaching Research,* 9(2). 147–71.

Eubank, L. (1996). Negation in early German-English interlanguage: More valueless features in the L2-initial state. *Second Language Research*, 12. 73–106.

Ferman, S., Karni, A. (2010) No Childhood Advantage in the Acquisition of Skill in Using an Artificial Language Rule. *PLoS One*, 5(10). doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0013648

foreign language teaching. *International Journal of Psycholinguistics*, 2. 5-14.

Foss, K.A., Reitzel, A.C., 1991. A relational model for managing second language anxiety. In: Horwitz, E.K., Young, D.J. (Eds.), *Language Anxiety from Theory and Research to Classroom Implications*. Prentice Hall, New Jersey, 15–23.

Frantzen, D., Magnan, S., S. (2005) Anxiety and the true beginner-false beginner dynamic in beginning French and Spanish classes. *Foreign Language Annals*, 28(2), 171-190.

Friedman, P. G. (1980). *Shyness and reticence in students*. Washington, DC: National Education Association.

Galasso, J (2002), *Interference in Second Language Learning: A Review of the Fundamental Difference Hypthosis*. California State University, Northridge.

Gardner, J. (2001). Integrative Motivation and Second-Language Acquisition. In Dörnyei, Z. and Schmidt, R. (Eds.), *Motivation and Second Language Acquisition*. Honolulu, HI: University of Hawai'i Press. 1-20.

Gardner, R. (1985). *Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation*. London: Edward Arnold.

Gardner, R. C., & MacIntyre, P. D. (1993). A student's contributions to second-language learning. Part II: Affective variables. Language Teaching, 26, 1-11.

Gardner, R. C., Lalonde, N., & Pierson, R. (1983). The socio-educational model of second language acquisition: An investigation using LISREL causal modelling. Journal of Language and Social Psychology, 2, 1-15.

Gardner, R. C., Lalonde, R. N., Moorcroft, R., & Evers, F. T. (1987). Second Language attrition: The role of motivation and use. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 6, 29-47

Gardner, R. C., Smythe, P. C., & Brunet, G. R. (1977). Intensive second language study: Effects on attitudes, motivation and French achievement. Language Learning, 27, 243-261.

Gardner, R. C., Tremblay, P. F. & Masgoret, A. (1997). Towards a full model of second language learning: an empirical investigation. *Modern Language Journal*, 81, 344-362.

Gardner, R. C., Tremblay, P.F., & Masgoret, A. (1997). Towards a full model of second language learning: An empirical investigation. *Modern Language Journal*, 81, 344-362.

Gardner, R., Lambert, W. (1972) *Attitudes and Motivation in Second-Language Learning*. Rowley, Ma.: Newbury House.

Gass, S. M. (1988). Integrating research areas: A framework for second language studies. *Applied Linguistics*, 9, 198–217.

Gass, S. M. (1997). *Input, interaction, and the second language learner*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Gass, S. M., Selinker, L. (2008). *Second language acquisition: an introductory course*. Oxon:Routledge.

Gathercole, S. E., Baddeley, A. D. (1993). *Working Memory and Language*. Hove: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Graham, S., Macaro, E. (2008). Strategy instruction in listening for lower-intermediate learners of French. Language Learning, 58, 747,783.

Gregersen, T. (2003). To err is human: A reminder to teachers of language-anxious students. *Foreign Language Annals*, 36(l), 25-32.

Gregersen, T. G. (2007). Breaking the code of silence: A study of teachers' nonverbal decoding accuracy of foreign language anxiety. *Language Teaching Research*, 11(2), 209-221.

Gregersen, T., & Horwitz, E. K. (2002). Language learning and perfectionism: Anxious and nonanxious. *The Modern Language Journal*, 86, 562-570.

Grigorenko, E.L., Sternberg, R.J., Ehrman, M. (2000). A theory-based approach to the measurement of foreign language aptitude: the CANAL-F theory and test. *Modern Language Journal*, 84. 390-405.

Han, Z. (2004) Fossilization: five central issues. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 14(2), 212-242.

Han, Z-H. (2004). Fossilization in Adult Second Language Acquisition. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 27(4), 627-629.

Harel, I., & Papert, S. (1991). Software design as a learning enviornment. *Interactive Learning Environments*, 1(1), 1-30.

Hariri, M. (2012). Taxonomy of morpho-syntactic errors and error analysis. *Research Journal of Applied Sciences, Engineering and Technology*, 4(22), 4856-4860.

Harley, B. (1986). *Age in second language acquisition*, Toronto: Multilingual Matters Lt.

Hatch, E. (1983). Simplified input and second language acquisition. In R.W. Andersen, *Pidiginisation and creolisation as language acquisition*. Rowley, Ma: Newbury House. 64-88.

Hernandez, A. E., Hofmann, J., & Kotz, S. A. (2007). Age of acquisition modulates neural activity for both regular and irregular syntactic functions. *NeuroImage*, 36. 912–923.

Heydari, P., Bagheri, M. (2012). Error analysis: Sources of L2 learners' errors. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 2(8), 1583-1589.

Hile, P. (2001). Language Shock, Culture Shock and How to Cope. Mission Strategy Bulletin, New Series, 7(2). Retrieved 09.01.2013 from http://bible.ovu.edu/missions/msb/culshock.htm.

Hofstede, G. (1991). *Cultures and organizations software of the mind*. New York: McGraw Hill.

Horwitz, E. K. & Young, D. (Eds.). (1991). *Language anxiety: From theory and research to classroom implications*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Horwitz, E. K. (1984). *What ESL students believe about language learning*. Paper presented at the TESOL annual meeting, Houston, TX.

Horwitz, E. K. (1988). The beliefs about language learning of beginning university foreign language students. *Modern Language Journal*, 72, 283–294.

Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B., & Cope, J. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal*, 70(2), 125-13

Huang, H. (2008). *University EFL students' and their teachers' preferences for in-class activities and their relationships to the students' foreign language anxiety*. Unpublished mater thesis. Taiwan: Providence University.

involvement in their education. *Psychological Reports*, 97, 325-336.

Ireland, T. (2007) *Situating Connectivism.* Retrieved on 12 April 2014 from http://etec.ctlt.ubc.ca/510wiki/index.php?title=Special:Cite&page=Situating_Connectivism&id=5681.

Jackson, J. (2002). Reticence in second language case discussions: Anxiety and aspirations. *System*, 30, 65-84.

Jeong, H., Sugiura, M., Sassa, Y., Haji, T., Usui, N., Taira M. (2007). Effect of syntactic similarity on cortical activation during second language processing: A comparison of English and Japanese among native Korean trilinguals. *Human Brain Mapping*, 28, (3), 194–204

Johnson, J. S., & Newport, E. L. (1989). Critical period effects in second language learning: The influence of maturational state on the acquisition of English as a second language. *Cognitive Psychology*, 21. 60–99.

Johnson-Laird, Philip N. (1980), Mental Models in Cognitive Science, *Cognitive Science*, 4, 71-115.

Juffs, A., Harrington, M. (2011). Aspects of working memory in L2 learning. *Language Teaching*, 44(2). 137–66.

Kim, K.H.S., Relkin, N.R., Lee, K.M., Hirsch J. (1997). Distinct cortical areas associated with native and second languages Nature, 388, 171–174.

Kim, S. Y. (2009). Questioning the stability of foreign language classroom anxiety and motivation across different classroom contexts. *Foreign Language Annals*, 42(1), 138-157.

Kitano, K. (2001). Anxiety in the college Japanese language classroom. *Modern Language Journal*, 85, 549-566.

Krashen, S. (1981). *Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Krashen, S. (1985). *The Input Hypothesis: Issues and Implications*, New York: Longman

Krashen, S. (1989). *Language Acquisition and Language Education: Extensions and Applications*. New York/London: Prentice Hall International.

Krashen, S. (2003). *Explorations in Language Acquisition and Use: The Taipei Lectures*. Portsmouth: Heinemann.

Krashen, S., Long, M. & Scarcella, R. (1979). Age, rate and eventual attainment in second language acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly*, 13, 573-582.

Krashen, S., Terrell, T. D., (1983). *The Natural Approach: Language Acquisition in the Classroom*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Krohne, H., Schmukle, S. Burns, L. Egloff, B., & Spielberger, C. (2001). The measurement of coping in achievement situations: an international comparison. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 30, 1225- 1243.

Kuhl, P. K., Kiritani, S., Deguchi, T., Hayashi, A., Stevens, E. B., Dugger, C. D., & Iverson, P. (1997). Effects of language experience on speech perception: American and Japanese infants' perception of /ra/ and /la/. *Journal of the Acoustic Society of America*, 102. 3135.

Lado, R. (1957). *Linguistics across cultures: Applied Linguistics for language teachers*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.

Language Acquisition, 13. 275-298.

Lee, D., Schachter, J. (1997) Sensitive Period Effects in Binding Theory. *Language Acquisition*, 6(4). 333-362.

Lenneberg, E. (1967). *The biological foundations of language.* New York: John Wiley.

Leung, Y., I. (2005). L2 vs. L3 initial state: A comparative study of the acquisition of French DPs by Vietnamese monolinguals and Cantonese–English bilinguals. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition*, 8(01). 39-61. doi:10.1017/ S1366728904002044

Levitt, E. E. (1980). *The psychology of anxiety.* Hillside: New Jersey. Lawrence Erlbum Associates.

Lips, H. M. (2002). Female powerlessness: Still a case of 'cultural preparedness'? In A. E. Hunter & C. Forden (Eds.), *Readings in the psychology of gender: Exploring our differences and commonalities.* Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon. 19-37.

Liu, H. (2012). Understanding EFL Undergraduate Anxiety in Relation to Motivation, Autonomy, and Language Proficiency. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 9(1), 123-139.

Liu, M. & Jackson, J. (2008). An Exploration of Chinese EFL Learners' Unwillingness to Communicate and Foreign Language Anxiety, *The Modern Language Journal*, 92, 71-86

Liu, M. (2006). Anxiety in Chinese EFL students at different proficiency levels. *System*, 34, 301-316.

Long, M. H. (1983a). Linguistic and conversational adjustments to nonnative speakers. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 5, 177–194.

Long, M. H. (1983b). Native speaker/non-native speaker conversation and the negotiation of comprehensible input. *Applied Linguistics*, 4, 126–141.

Long, M. H. (1985). Input and second language acquisition theory. In S. M. Gass & C. G. Madden (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House. 377-393.

Long, M. H. (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W. C. Ritchie & T. K. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition*. New York: Academic Press. 413-468.

Machida, S. (2001). Anxiety in Japanese-language class oral examinations. *Sekai no Nihongo Kyokiu,* 11, 115-138.

MacIntyre, P. D. (1999). Language anxiety: A review for the research for language teachers. In D. J. Young (Ed.), *Affect in foreign language and second language learning: A practical guide to creating a low-anxiety classroom atmosphere*. NY: McGraw-Hill. 24-45.

MacIntyre, P. D. (2002). Motivation, anxiety, emotion in second language acquisition. In B. Tomlinson (Ed.), *Individual differences and instructed language learning.* Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing.

MacIntyre, P. D., Baker, S. C., Clément, R., & Donovan, L. A. (2002). Sex and age effects on willingness to communicate, anxiety, perceived competence, and L2 motivation among junior high school French immersion students. *Language Learning*, 52, 537 – 564.

MacIntyre, P. D., Noels, K., & Clement, R. (1997). Biases in self-ratings of second language proficiency: The role of language anxiety. *Language Learning*, *47*(2), 265-287.

MacIntyre, P.D., Gardner, R., (1989). Anxiety and second language learning: Toward a theoretical clarification. *Language Learning*, 39(2). 251-275.

MacIntyre, P.D., Gardner, R., (1991). Methods and results in the study of anxiety and language learning: a review of literature. *Language Learning*, 41, 85–117.

MacIntyre, P.D., Gardner, R.C., (1994). The effects of induced anxiety on three stages of cognitive processing in computerized vocabulary learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 16, 1–17.

Marcos-Llinás, M., Juan-Garau, M. (2009). Effects of language anxiety on three proficiency-level courses of Spanish as a foreign language. *Foreign Language Annals*, 42(1), 94-111.

Mayberry, R. I. (1993) 'First-Language Acquisition After Childhood Differs From Second Language Acquisition: The: Case of American Sign Language." *Journal of Speech and Hearing Research*, 36. 1258-1270.

Mayberry, R., I., Lock, E. (2003) Age constraints on first versus second language acquisition: Evidence for linguistic plasticity and epigenesis. *Brain and Language*, 87, 369-384.

McCarthey, S. J. (2005). English language learners' writing practices and attidudes. *Written*

McLaughlin, B. (1995). Aptitude from an information processing perspective. *Language Testing*, 11. 364-381.

McLoone J., Hudson J.L. and Rapee R. (2006). Treating anxiety disorders in a school setting, *Education and Treatment of Children* 29; 219–242.

Mills, N., Pajares, F., Herron, C. (2006) A reevaluation of the role of anxiety: self-efficacy, anxiety, and their relation to reading and listening proficiency. *Foreign Language Annals*, 39, 276–295.

Mji, A., & Mbinda, Z. (2005). Exploring high school science students' perceptions of parental

Mochizuki, M. (1981). The identification of /r/ and /l/ in natural and synthesized speech. *Journal of Phonetics*, 9. 283–303.

Molfese, D. (1977). Theonogeny of cerebral asymmetry in man : Auditory evoked potentials to linguistic and non-linguistic stimuli.' In J .Desmedt (Ed.). *Progress in Clinical Neurophysiology 3*, Basel: Karger.

Moore, B. R. (2004). The evolution of learning. *Biological Reviews*, 79, 301-335. DOI: 10.1017/S1464793103006225.

Morris, E.K., Smith, N.G., and Altus, D.E. (2005). B. F. Skinner's contributions to applied behavior analysis. *The Behavior Analyst*, 28(2), 99-131.

Muñoz, C. (2006). *Age and the rate of foreign language learning*. Clevedon, Buffalo, Toronto: Multilingual Matters Lt.

Newport, E. L. (1986). *The effect of maturational state on the acquisition of language*. Paper presented at the Eleventh Annual Boston University Conference on Language Development, Boston, MA.

Nystrand, M. (1996). *Opening dialogue: Understanding the dynamics of language and learning in the English classroom*. New York: Teachers College Press.

Oberg, K. (1961). "Culture shock: adjustment to new cultural environments. *Practical Anthropology*, 7. 177-182.

Oh, J. (1990). *On the relationship between anxiety and reading in English as a foreign language among Korean university students in Korea.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Texas at Austin.

Ojose, B. (2008). "Applying Piaget's theory of cognitive development to mathematics instruction." *The Mathematics Educator*, 18(1), 26-30.

Onwuegbuzie, A., Bailey, P., y Daley, C. (2000). Cognitive, affective, personality and demographic predictors of foreign language achievement. *Journal of Educational Research*. 94(1), 3-13.

Onwuegbuzie, A.J., Bailey, P., Daley, C.E. (1999). Factors associated with foreign language anxiety. *Applied Linguistics*, 20, 217–239.

Otsu, Y., Naoi, K. (1986) *Structure dependence in L2 acquisition.* Paper presented at the meeting of the Japan Association of College English Teachers (JACET), Keio University, Tokyo, September.

Oxford, R. (1999). "Anxiety and The Language Learner: New Insights". In A. Jane (Ed.), *Affect in Language Learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 58 – 67.

Oyama, S. (1976). A sensitive period for the acquisition of a nonnative phonological system. *Journal of Psycholinguistics Research*, 5, 261-283.

Oyama, S. (1978) The sensitive period and comprehension of speech. Working papers in *Bilingualism*, 16. 1-16.

Oyama. S. (1979). *The Concept af the Sensitive Period in Developmental Studies*. *Merrill Palmer Quarterly*, 25. 83-103.

Palmer, D. C. (2008). On Skinner's definition of verbal behavior. International. *Journal of Psychology and Psychological Therapy*, 8, 295–307.

Park, D.C. (2000). The basic mechanisms accounting for age-related decline in cognitive function. In Park, D.C. & Schwartz, N. (Eds.), *Cognitive Aging: A Primer*. Philadelphia, PA: Psychology Press, 3-21.

Penfield, W., Roberts, L. (1959). *Speech and brain mechanisms.* New York: Atheneum Press.

Philippine ESL Journal, 7, 73-93.

Phillips, E.M., (1992). The effects of language anxiety on students' oral test performance and attitudes. *Modern Language Journal*, 76, 14–26.

Piaget, J. (1970). *Genetic epistemology*. (E. Duckworth, Trans.). New York: Columbia University Press.

Piaget, J. (1985). *The equilibration of cognitive structures*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Piatteli-Palmarini, M. (1989) Evolution, selection and cognition: from "learning" to parameter setting in biology and in the study of language. *Cognition*, 31. 1-44.

Price, M.L., (1991). The subjective experience of foreign language anxiety: Interviews with highly anxious students. In: Horwitz, E.K., Young, D.J. (Eds.), *Language anxiety: From Theory and Research to Classroom Implications*. Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ, 101–108.

Richards, J. C., Schmidt, R. (2002). *Dictionary of Language Teaching & Applied Linguistics*. Pearson Education Limited. London: Longman.

Richards, J. C., Schmidt, R. (2010). *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching&Applied Linguistics* (4th ed). Great Britain: Pearson Education Limited. 219.

Richards, J. C., Schmidt, R. (2010). *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching&Applied Linguistics* (4th ed). Great Britain: Pearson Education Limited. 416.

Rumelhart,D.E.(1980) Schemata: the building blocks of cognition. In: R.J. Spiro et al.(Eds) *Theoretical Issues in Reading Comprehension*, Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: Classic definitions and new directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25, 54-67.

Sawyer, M., Ranta, L. (2001). 'Aptitude, individual differences and L2 instruction' in P. Robinson (ed.). *Cognition and Second Language Instruction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Schwartz, B. D. & Sprouse, R. (1994). Word order and nominative case in nonnative language acquisition: a longitudinal study of (L1 Turkish) German interlanguage. In T. Hoekstra and B. D. Schwartz (eds.), *Language acquisition studies in generative grammar*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. 317-368.

Schwartz, B. D. & Sprouse, R. (1996). L2 cognitive states and the full transfer/full access model. *Second Language Research*, 12. 40-72.

Sclafani, J. D. (2004). *The Educated Parent : Recent Trends in Raising Children.* Connecticut: Praeger Publishers.

Scott J. P. (1962). *Critical Periods in Development*. Science, 138. 349-358.

Scovel, T. (1978). The effect of affect on foreign language learning: a review of the anxiety research. *Language Learning,* 28 (1), 129-142.

Scovel, T. (1988). *A time to speak: A psycholinguistic inquiry into the critical period for human language*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Selinker, L. (1972). 'Interlanguage'. *IRAL,* 10(3), 209-231.

Sharwood Smith, M. (1993). Input enhancement in instructed SLA: Theoretical bases. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 15, 165–179.

Singleton, D. (1995). Introduction: A critical look at the critical period hypothesis in second language acquisition research. In Singleton, D. and Lengyel, Z.(eds). *The Age Factor in Second Language Acquisition*, 1-29.

Skehan, P. (1991). Individual differences in second language learning. *Studies in Second*

Skinner, B. F. (1937). Two types of conditioned reflex: A reply to Konorski and Miller. *Journal of General Psychology*, 16, 272-279.

Skinner, B. F. (1957). *Verbal behavior*. New York: Appleton-Century-Croft.

Snow, C., E., Hoefnagel-Höhle, M. (1978) The critical period for language acquisition: Evidence from second langage learning. *Child Development*, 49(4), 1114-1128.

Sparks, R. and L. Ganschow. 2001. 'Aptitude for learning a foreign language'. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics,* 21. 90–111.

Sparks, R. L., Patton, J. (2013). Relationship of L1 Skills and L2 Aptitude to L2 Anxiety on the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale. *Language Learning,* 63(4), 870-895.

Spielberger, C. D. (1983). *Manual for the State Trait Anxiety Inventory*. CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Spielberger, C. D. (1966). Theory and research in anxiety. In C. D. Spielberger (Ed.) *Anxiety and behavior.* New York: Academic Press. 3-20.

Steinberg, F.S., Horwitz, E.K., (1986). The effect of induced anxiety on the denotative and interpretive content of second language speech. *TESOL Quarterly,* 20, 131–136.

Stephenson, J. (2007). Gender as a predictor of anxiety in foreign language learning. *International Journal of Interdisciplinary Social Sciences,* 2(4), 495-501.

Stewart, J., M. (2003). Is There a Fundamental Difference? The Availability of Universal Grammar in Child versus Adult Second Language Acquisition. Proceedings of the 6th Generative Approaches to Second Language Acquisition Conference (GASLA 2002), ed. Juana M. Liceras et al. Somerville, MA: Cascadilla Proceedings Project. 308-314.

Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In S. Gass & C. Madden (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House. 235-253.

Swain, M. (1995). Three functions of output in second language learning. In G. Cook & B. Seidlhofer (Eds.), *Principle and practice in applied linguistics: Studies in honour of H. G. Widdowson*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. 125-144.

Swain, M. and Lapkin, S. (1995). Problems in output and the cognitive processes they generate. step towards second language learning. *Applied Linguistics,* 16, 371-391.

Testing, 11. 364–81.

Thorndike, E.L. (1901). Animal intelligence: An experimental study of the associative processes in animals. *Psychological Review Monograph Supplement*, 2, 1–109.

Vainikka A & Young-Scholten M (1994). Direct access to X'-theory: evidence from Korean and Turkish adults learning German. In Hoekstra T & Schwartz BD (eds). *Language Acquisition Studies in Generative Grammar: Papers in Honor of Kenneth Wexler from the 1991 GLOW Workshops*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Velez J.J., Cano J., Whittington M.S., Wolf K.J. (2011). Cultivating Change Through Peer Teaching. *Journal of Agricultural Education*, 52(1), 40-49.

Vygotsky, L. (1978). *Mind in Society*. London: Harvard University Press.

Wartenburger I, Heekeren HR, Abutalebi J, Cappa SF, Villringer A, and Perani D. (2003). Early setting of grammatical processing in the bilingual brain. *Neuron,* 37(1): 159-170.

Weeks, M., Coplan, R. J. & Kingsbury, A. (2009). The correlates and consequences of early appearing social anxiety in young children. *Journal of Anxiety Disorders*, 23(7), 965-972.

Weems, C. F. Silverman, W. K., Rapee, R. M., & Pina, A. A. (2003). The role of control in childhood anxiety disorders. *Cognitive Therapy and Research*, 27, 557–568.

Weems, C. F., Costa, N. M., Watts, S. E., Taylor, L. K., & Cannon, M. F. (2007). Cognitive errors, anxiety sensitivity, and anxiety control beliefs: their unique and specific association with childhood anxiety symptoms. *Behavior Modification*, 31, 174–201.

Weiten, W. (1989) *Psychology: Themes and variations.* California: Brooks/Cole Publishing. 495.

Werker, J. F., & Tees, R. C. (2005). Speech perception as a window for understanding plasticity and commitment in language systems of the brain. *Developmental Psychobiology*, 46. 233–251.

White, L. (1989). *Universal grammar and second language acquisition*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Wigfield, A., Wentzel, K. R. (2007). Introduction to Motivation at School: Interventions that Work. *Educational Psychologist*, 42(4). 191-196.

Williams, L. (1979). The modification of speech perception and production in second language learning. *Perception and Psychophysics*, 26(2), 95-104.

Woodrow, L. (2006). Anxiety and speaking English as a second language. *RELC Journal,* 37 (3), 308–328.

Worde, R. (2003). Students' perspectives on foreign language anxiety. Retrieved in 2012 on November 2 from http://www.vccaedu.org/inquiry/inquiry-spring2003/i-81-worde.html.

Wulfeck, B., Bates, E., Krupa-Kwiatkowski, M., & Saltzman, D. (2004). Grammaticality sensitivity in children with early focal brain injury and children with specific language impairment. *Brain and Language*, 88. 215–228.

Yang, B. (1992). A review of contrastive analysis hypothesis. *The East University Journal*, 19, 133-149.

Young, D. J. (1990). An investigation of students' perspectives on anxiety and speaking. *Foreign Language Annals*, 23(6), 539−553.

Young, D. J. (1999). *Affect in foreign language and second language learning*. New York: Mc Graw Hill Companies.

Yule, G. (2006). *The Study of Language*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Zalta, A. K., & Chambless, D. L. (2008). Exploring gender differences in worry with a cognitive vulnerability model. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 32, 469–482. doi:10.1111/j.1471-6402.2008.00459.x

Zhao, N. (2007). A study of high school students' English learning anxiety. *Asian EFL Journal*, 9(3), 22−34.

Zheng, Y. (2008). Anxiety and Second/Foreign Language Learning Revisited. *Canadian Journal for New Scholars in Education*, 1(1), 1-12.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1

Sınıf İçi Yabancı Dil Kaygısı Anketi

Sevgili Öğrenciler;

Sınıf ortamında yabancı dil eğitimi sırasında yaşanılan kaygının dil edinimine etki ettiği düşünülmektedir. Sizlerin görüşleriyle problemi tanılamak ve etkisini ölçmek adına bu bilimsel çalışmayı tasarlamış bulunmaktayım. Katılımınız ve verdiğiniz samimi cevaplardan dolayı şimdiden teşekkür ederiz.

Kutay UZUN

1. Sınıfınız: .....
2. Yaşınız :.....
3. Cinsiyetiniz: ☐Kadın ☐Erkek
4. Öğrenim gördüğünüz eğitim kurumu (Lütfen okul/bölüm adı belirtiniz):
5. Babanızın Eğitim Durumu:
   a. Okur – Yazar Değil
   b. Okur – Yazar
   c. İlkokul
   d. Ortaokul
   e. Lise
   f. Önlisans
   g. Lisans
   h. Yüksek Lisans / Doktora
6. Annenizin Eğitim Durumu
   a. Okur – Yazar Değil
   b. Okur – Yazar
   c. İlkokul
   d. Ortaokul
   e. Lise
   f. Önlisans
   g. Lisans
   h. Yüksek Lisans / Doktora
7. Yabancı Dil Seviyeniz
   ☐ Başlangıç (A1) ☐ Orta Öncesi (A2) ☐ Orta (B1)
   ☐Orta Üstü (B2) ☐İleri (C1) ☐Akademik (C2)

Gökçen GÖNAL
Şef

Ömer Doğan ÇİMENLİ

Lütfen Arka Sayfaya Geçiniz.

Appendix 1.1

	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1. Derste konuşurken asla kendimden emin olmam.					
2. Derste hata yapmaktan endişelenmem.					
3. Derste kaldırılacağımı bildiğim zaman heyecanlanırım.					
4. Derste öğretmenimin ne söylediğini anlamamak beni korkutur.					
5. Daha fazla dil dersi almak beni rahatsız etmezdi.					
6. Derste kendimi dersle ilgisiz şeyler düşünürken bulurum.					
7. Diğer öğrencilerin dil konusunda benden daha iyi olduğunu düşünmeden edemiyorum.					
8. Dersteki sınavlar esnasında genellikle rahatımdır.					
9. Derste hazırlık yapmadan konuşmak zorunda olduğumda paniğe kapılırım.					
10. Dersten kalmanın sonuçları beni endişelendirir.					
11. Dil derslerinin insanları neden bu kadar çok ürküttüğünü anlamıyorum.					
12. Derste o kadar heyecanlanırım ki, bildiklerimi de unuturum.					
13. Derste gönüllü cevap vermekten çekinirim.					
14. Yabancılarla (anadili İngilizce olanlarla) İngilizce konuşurken rahatsız olmam.					
15. Öğretmenin düzelttiği hataların ne olduğunu anlamak beni sinirlendirir.					
16. Derse iyi hazırlandığım zaman bile tedirgin olurum.					
17. Çoğu zaman derse gitmek içimden gelmez.					
18. Derste konuşurken kendime güvenirim.					
19. Öğretmenin yaptığım her hatayı düzeltecek olmasından korkarım.					
20. Derse kaldırıldığımda kalbimin çok hızlı attığını hissedebilirim.					
21. Sınavlara ne kadar çok çalışırsam, kafam o kadar çok karışır.					
22. Derslere iyi hazırlanmak için baskı hissetmiyorum.					
23. Her zaman diğer öğrencilerin İngilizceyi benden iyi konuştuklarını hissederim.					
24. Diğer öğrencilerin önünde İngilizce konuşurken rahat olamam.					
25. Ders çok çabuk ilerliyor, geride kalmaktan endişe ediyorum.					
26. Diğer derslere göre kendimi dil dersinde daha gergin ve heyecanlı hissederim.					
27. Derste konuşurken heyecanlanırım ve aklım karışır.					
28. Derse giderken kendimden çok emin ve rahatım.					
29. Öğretmenin söylediği her kelimeyi anlamazsam heyecanlanırım.					
30. Bir dili konuşmak için öğrenilmesi gerekli olan kuralların sayısı beni sıkar.					
31. İngilizce konuşursam diğer öğrencilerin bana güleceğinden korkarım.					
32. İngilizceyi anadili olanlarla konuşurken kendimi rahat hissederim.					
33. Öğretmen daha önce hazırlanmadığım sorular sorduğunda heyecanlanırım.					

Ökçen GÜNAL
Şef

Ömer Doğan ŞİMŞİK
Şube Müdürü

Appendix 2

T.C
EDİRNE VALİLİĞİ
İl Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü

05 Mart 2013

Sayı : 56569733.044-(270) 4937
Konu : Anket Çalışması.

VALİLİK MAKAMINA

İlgi : a) Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı'na Bağlı Okul ve Kurumlarda Yapılacak Araştırma ve Araştırma Desteğine Yönelik İzin ve Uygulama Yönergesi.
b) Trakya Üniversitesi Rektörlüğü Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Müdürlüğü'nün 13/02/2013 tarih ve 194 sayılı yazısı.

Trakya Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı 1108210107 no'lu tezli yüksek lisans öğrencisi Kutay UZUN'un, 2012-2013 eğitim öğretim yılında, İlimiz Merkez Özel Edirne Beykent Anadolu Lisesi, Özel Edirne Beykent Fen Lisesi, Özel Edirne Bahçeşehir Fen Lisesi, Edirne Otelcilik ve Turizm Meslek Lisesi, Edirne Anadolu Öğretmen Lisesi, Edirne Süleyman Demirel Fen Lisesi, Edirne İlhami Ertem Anadolu Lisesi ve Edirne Yıldırım Beyazıt Anadolu Liselerinde "Yabancı Dil Eğitiminde Yaş Faktörü: Lise ve Üniversite Öğrencilerinin Kaygı Düzeylerinin Karşılaştırılması " konulu tez çalışmasını uygulama isteğine ilişkin ilgi (b) yazı ve ekleri ile "Anket Değerlendirme Komisyon Tutanağı" ilişikte sunulmuştur.

Makamlarınızca uygun görüldüğü takdirde Kutay UZUN'a ait tez çalışmasının; İlimiz Merkez Özel Edirne Beykent Anadolu Lisesi, Özel Edirne Beykent Fen Lisesi, Özel Edirne Bahçeşehir Fen Lisesi, Edirne Otelcilik ve Turizm Meslek Lisesi, Edirne Anadolu Öğretmen Lisesi, Edirne Süleyman Demirel Fen Lisesi, Edirne İlhami Ertem Anadolu Lisesi ve Edirne Yıldırım Beyazıt Anadolu Liselerinde, eğitim ve öğretim faaliyetlerini aksatmayacak şekilde, okul müdürlüklerinin gözetim ve sorumluluğunda yapılabilmesini Olur'larınıza arz ederim.

Hüseyin ÖZCAN
İl Milli Eğitim Müdürü

OLUR
04./03/2012

Dr. Ayhan ÖZKAN
Vali a.
Vali Yardımcısı

EK : Dosya (1 Ad.)

04/03/2013 V.H.K.İ. : S.GÖKKAYA
04/03/2013 ŞEF : G.GÜNAL
04/03/2013 ŞB.MD. : F.İNCE

Edirne İl Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü
Vilayet Binası Kat:3 22020 EDİRNE.
Bilgi için: Sınav Hizmetleri Şubesi (142)
Telefon: (0 284) 225 16 32
Faks : (0 284) 225 49 08
E-posta: sinav22@meb.gov.tr
Elektronik Ağ: http://edirne.meb.gov.tr

Appendix 3

T.C.
EDİRNE VALİLİĞİ
İl Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü

Sayı : 56569733.199-(298) 5287
Konu : Anket Çalışması

08 Mart 2013

TRAKYA ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜNE
(Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Müdürlüğü)
EDİRNE

İlgi : 13/02/2013 tarih ve 194 sayılı yazınız

Üniversiteniz Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı 1108210107 no'lu tezli yüksek lisans öğrencisi Kutay UZUN'un, 2012-2013 eğitim öğretim yılında, İlimiz Merkez Liselerinde uygulamak istediği "Yabancı Dil Eğitiminde Yaş Faktörü: Lise ve Üniversite Öğrencilerinin Kaygı Düzeylerinin Karşılaştırılması" konulu tez çalışmasının uygun görüldüğüne ilişkin 05/03/2013 tarih ve 4937 sayılı Valilik Oluru ilişikte gönderilmiştir

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini rica ederim.

Abdullah ASLANER
Vali a.
Vali Yardımcısı

EKLER :
Ek-1 Valilik Onayı (1 Ad.)
Ek-2 Araştırma Değerlendirme Formu (1 Ad.)
Ek-3 Sınıf İçi Yabancı Dil Kaygısı Anketi (1 Ad.)
Ek-4 Anket Formu (1 Adet)

Edirne İl Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü
Vilayet Binası Kat:3 22020 EDİRNE.
Bilgi için: Telefon: (0 284) 225 16 32
Faks : (0 284) 225 49 08
E-posta: edirnemem@meb.gov.tr
E-Ağ: http://edirne.meb.gov.tr

Appendix 4

FORM: 2

T.C.
MİLLÎ EĞİTİM BAKANLIĞI
Eğitimi Araştırma ve Geliştirme Dairesi Başkanlığı
ARAŞTIRMA DEĞERLENDİRME FORMU

ARAŞTIRMA SAHİBİNİN	
Adı Soyadı	Kutay UZUN
Kurumu / Üniversitesi	T.Ü. Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Ana Bilim Dalı
Araştırma Yapılacak İl	Edirne Merkez
Araştırma Yapılacak Eğitim Kurumu ve Kademesi	1-Özel Edirne Beykent And.Lisesi 2- Özel Edirne Beykent Fen Lisesi 3-Özel Edirne Bahçeşehir Fen Lisesi 4-Edirne And.Otelcilik ve Turizm Mes.Lis. 5-Edirne And.Öğretmen Lis. 6-Edirne Süleyman Demirel Fen Lisesi 7-Edirne İlhami Ertem Anadolu Lisesi 8-Edirne Yıldırım Beyazıt Anadolu Lisesi
Araştırmanın Konusu	Yabancı Dil Eğitiminde Yaş Faktörü : Lise ve Üniversite Öğrencilerinin Kaygı Düzeylerinin Karşılaştırılması
Üniversite / Kurum Onayı	Var (X) / Yok ( )
Araştırma/Proje/Ödev /Tez önerisi	Tez Önerisi
Veri Toplama Araçları	7 + 33 Sorudan Oluşan Sınıf İçi Yabancı Dil Kaygısı Anket Formu
Görüş İstenilecek Birim/Birimler	T.Ü. Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Ana Bilim Dalı

KOMİSYON GÖRÜŞÜ

1- Anketin uygulanması sırasında gönüllülük ilkesine uyulması esastır.
2- Araştırma okullarda 2012-2013 eğitim öğretim yılı .../..../2013 tarihinde başlayacak şekilde uygulanacaktır. Araştırmacının öngördüğü raporun hazırlanma ve M.E.M. teslim tarihi ...../...../2013 olarak belirlenmiştir.

Komisyon kararı	Oybirliği / Oyçokluğu ile alınmıştır.
Muhalif Üyenin Adı ve Soyadı:	Gerekçesi; .....

KOMİSYON

28/02/2013
Komisyon Başkanı
Ömer Doğan ÇİMENLİK
MEM Şube Müdürü

28/02/2013
Üye
Dr. Nesrin ONAR
Güzel Sanatlar ve Spor Lis. Müd.Yard.

28/02/2013
Üye
Burhan SELVİ
Cumhuriyet İ.Ö.Müdürü