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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SOCIAL INTELLIGENCE, CULTURAL INTELLIGENCE, ANXIETY, ATTITUDE LEVELS AND WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE IN ENGLISH

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ÖZET

Küreselleşmenin sonucunda dünya çok uluslu ve çok dilli bir yer haline gelmiştir. Durum böyleyken, öğrencilerin sadece yabancı bir dilde iletişim kurması yeterli olmamakla birlikte, çok kültürlü bir ortamda diğer insanlarla sosyal etkileşim kurabilmeleri gerekmektedir. İletişim kurma gönüllülüğü son yirmi yıldır önem kazanmış ve konuyla ilgili pek çok araştırma yapılmıştır. Fakat, çoğunlukla Batıda yürütülen bu çalışmalar iletişim kurma gönüllülüğüyle kültürel zeka ya da sosyal zeka arasındaki ilişkiyi yordamaya yönelik olmamıştır. Bu sebeple, bu çalışma öğrencilerin sosyal zeka ve kültürel zekalarının iletişim kurma gönüllülüğünü etkileyip etkilemediğini ve ayrıca kaygı ve İngilizceye karşı tutum gibi bireysel değişkenlerin öğrencilerin konuşma gönüllülüğü üzerinde bir etkisi olup olmadığını araştırmaktadır. Çalışmada öğrencilerin kaygı, tutum, sosyal, kültürel zeka ile iletişim kurma isteklilik seviyelerinin cinsiyet, yaş, okudukları bölüm, ve İngilizce konuşulan bir ülkede bulunma tecrübelerine göre değişip değişmediğinin ortaya çıkarılması hedeflenmektedir. Bu çalışma 2016-2017 akademik yılında Erciyes Üniversitesi İngiliz Dili ve Edebiyatı ile İngilizce Öğretmenliği bölümlerinde yürütülmüştür. Nicel veriler, iki bölümdeki okumakta olan 349 öğrenciden toplanmıştır. Veri toplama aracı olarak İletişim Kurma İstekliliği Ölçeği, Tromso Sosyal Zeka Ölçeği, Kültürel Zeka Ölçeği, İngilizceye karşı tutum ve kaygı ölçekleri kullanılmıştır. Verilerin hesaplanmasında SPSS 16.0 programı kullanılmıştır ve sonuçlar göstermiştir ki katılımcı öğrencilerin konuşma gönülllüğü seviyeleri yüksektir. Ayrıca, daha önce İngilizce konuşulan bir ülkede bulunmanın konuşma gönülllüğü, kültürel zeka, ve İngilizceye karşı tutumları üzerinde olumlu etkisi vardır. Konuşma gönülllüğünün diğer değişkenlerle olan ilişkisi incelendiğinde ise, konuşma gönülllüğünü en iyi açıklayan kavramların sırasıyla tutum, kaygı, ve bilişsel kültürel zeka olduğu ortaya koyulmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: İletişim kurma istekliliği, Sosyal Zeka, Kültürel Zeka, Kaygı, Tutum

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ABSTRACT

As a result of globalization, the world has become a multinational and multilingual place. Under these circumstances, it is not adequate for students only to communicate in a foreign language; they are also expected to build up social interactions in a multicultural setting. The notion of willingness to communicate has gained importance in the last twenty years and a great deal of research has been done about the issue. However, these studies were mainly conducted in Western context and none of them examined the relationship between willingness to communicate and social, cultural intelligences. Hence, this study investigates the relationship between social,cultural intelligence, anxiety and attitude levels and WTC participants' levels and the effect of variables such as age, gender, grade, and English-speaking country experience on these notions. This study was conducted at Erciyes University English Language Teaching and English Language and Literature departments during 2016-2017 academic year. The quantitative data was gathered from 349 students at these departments. Willingness to Communicate, Tromso Social Intelligence, Cultural Intelligence, Anxiety, and Attitudes Towards Learning English Scales were used for data collection.

The data were analyzed by means of SPSS 16.0 program and the finding revealed that the participants of this study had high levels of WTC. Besides, it was shown that the experience of being in an English-speaking country positively affected students' WTC, cultural intelligence, and attitude levels. When WTC was regressed with other variables, it was found out that the best predictors of WTC was attitude, anxiety, and cognitive cultural intelligence, respectively.

Key Words: Willingness to communicate, social intelligence, cultural intelligence, anxiety, attitude

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CLT : Communicative Language Teaching

L1 : Native Language

L2 : Second Language

WTC : Willingness to Communicate

L1 WTC : Willingness to Communicate in Native Language

L2 WTC : Willingness to Communicate in Second Language

ELT : English Language Teaching

EFL : English as a Foreign Language

PRCA : Perceived Communication Apprehension

L2MS1/2 : L2 Motivational System

SPCC : Self-Perceived Communicative Competence

IQ : Intelligence Quotient

SI : Social Intelligence

EI : Emotional Intelligence

CI : Cultural Intelligence

CQ : Cultural Quotient

TOEFL : Test of English as a Foreign Language

IELTS : International English Language Testing System

SPSS : Statistical Package for Social Sciences

TSIS : Tromso Social Intelligence Scale

CIS : Cultural Intelligence Scale

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This chapter of the study presents the background to the study, the statement of the problem, the purpose of the study and research questions.

1.1. Background to the Study

As Broughton et al. (1980) stated, "From babyhood onwards, everybody starts (and never ceases) to learn how to communicate effectively and how to respond to other people's communications" (p. 30). This can be achieved through language and the main motivation for many language learners is to be able to communicate rather than only knowing abstract rules or linguistic systems. As confirmed by MacIntyre and Charos (1996), no matter what the reason of language learning is, such as travelling, using for business, meeting new people or knowing new cultures, the main reason for learning a language is usually to communicate.

During the past years, a lot of language teaching methods were developed and they were either cherished or chastised. Within the 21st century, a humanistic approach, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), has been prevailing the current pedagogy. Developed as a result of dissatisfaction with traditional methods, CLT highlights the importance of interaction, authenticity, focus on learning process, enhancement of learners' personal experiences and linking classroom language learning with language activation outside the classroom (Nunan, 1991). The main aim of CLT is to develop learners' "communicative competence". Coined by Hymes (1972), the term communicative competence refers to the ability of understanding and using language effectively for communication in a social environment.

However, research (Asmalı, Bilki & Duban, 2015; Dörnyei, 2005) showed that possessing a high level of communicative competence does not assure a learner's communication frequency and efficiency. Despite having a good command of English, some foreign language learners may abstain from establishing communication and

others with limited competence may be better at speaking. (Baghaei, Dourakhshan, & Salavati, 2012). From this point of view, it has been shown that students' individual differences such as age, abilities, propensities, learner cognitions on L2 learning and learner actions (Ellis, 2004) affect their linguistic performance (Andreou, Andreou & Vlachos, 2006; Dörnyei, 2006; Dörnyei & Skehan, 2003; Ehrman, Leaver & Oxford, 2003; Skehan, 1989; Skehan, 1991) and 'willingness to communicate' is one of them. Defined as "readiness to enter a discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using a L2" (MacIntyre et al., 1998, p.547), willingness to communicate has been shown to facilitate L2 acquisition. (MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clement & Noels, 1998; MacIntyre, 2007; Yashima, 2002).

Nevertheless, in today's global, multi-national and multi-lingual world, students not only should be able to communicate in a foreign language, but also function effectively in a multi-cultural environment by building social interactions with other people, cooperating with them and understanding their cultures, ideas, and lifestyles. Briefly stated, in addition to willingness to communicate, language learners should have both social and cultural intelligence since "language pervades social life" (Krauss & Chiu, 1998, p. 41) and "there is no such thing as human nature independent of culture" (Geertz, 1983, p. 49).

Language is important for social psychology because it socializes the individual, acquaints people with the discourse and cultural elements (Young, 1930). According to Brooks (1968), nobody is different from one another in terms of physical or mental traits; however, what make them different are their interactions between other people or groups. As a result of these interactions, acceptable behaviour patterns are developed and these behaviour patterns constitute people's culture.

Throughout history, culture was defined in different ways by many scholars (Duranti, 1997; Frake, 1981; Tylor, 1871). For example, Lado (1957) defined culture as "the ways of a people" (p. 110); Harris & Moran (1979) as "unique lifestyle of a particular group of people" (p. 57); Peck (1998) defined as "accepted and patterned ways of behaviour of given people" (p. 1). Despite the variety of these definitions, culture is regarded too complicated to make a clear-cut explanation since it includes several different components and disciplines (Byram & Grundy, 2003; Williams, 1976).

Nonetheless, the importance of culture in language education is agreed by many researchers (Bada, 2000; Byram, 1989, 1997; Byram & Morgan, 1994; Kramsch,

1988, 1993, 2001; Pulverness, 2003). As Hantrais (1989) supports knowing a foreign language enables people to understand the culture and its people. Likewise, Imai and Gelfand (2010) assert that cultural language will be revealed only when people are able to negotiate across cultures effectively.

Apparently, cultural diversity in every part of the world has begun to change societies from mono-cultural to multi-cultural environments. In this case, individuals are required to go beyond the cultural borders while socially interacting with each other. Therefore, language learners should be willing to communicate to be involved in social interactions and be open to new cultures, beliefs and experiences.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

With the advent of Communicative Language Teaching, the main goal of language classes has aimed to enable learners to communicate and even the coursebooks has been shifted to become communicative. Accordingly, the Turkish Ministry of Education adopted a teaching curriculum based on CLT in 2008 which aimed to develop learners' oral and written communication (Özşevik, 2010). When it comes to speaking English, their willingness to communicate is an important construct.

Recently, WTC has attracted researchers' attention and has been stated to be crucial in language learning. Kang (2005) supported that students with high level of WTC are apt to use language autonomously both inside and outside the classroom. Furthermore, MacIntyre et al. (1998) suggested that developing WTC should be "the main goal of language instruction" (p. 545). Additionally, Richmond and Roach (1992) claimed that high levels of WTC are correlated with not only increased frequency but also increased amount of communication. Therefore, the degree of a learner's WTC is an important factor which affects his / her communication ability in foreign language learning.

As claimed by MacIntyre et al. (1998), having a high level of communicative competence does not assure high level of willingness to communicate. Rather, an individual's WTC is affected by different factors such as motivation, self-confidence or personality. Thus, numerous studies sought for the relationship among WTC and different variables such as self-confidence (Clement, Baker, & MacIntyre, 2003; MacIntyre & Charos, 1996; Yashima, 2002), attitudes and motivation (Baker & MacIntyre, 2000), communication apprehension (Burroughs, Marie & McCroskey, 2003; Croucher, Rahmani, Sakkinen & Hample, 2016; Galadja, 2012; Kuparinen,

McCroskey & Richmond, 1991), self-perceived communication and communication apprehension (Barraclough, Christophel & McCroskey, 1988) and pronunciation anxiety (Baran-Lucarz, 2014). Fairly recently, some researchers, mainly from Iran, dealt with the relationship between WTC and emotional intelligence (Alavinia & Alikhani, 2014; Gholami, 2015; Janfeshan & Nazeri, 2014; Ketabdar, Yazdani & Yarahmadi, 2014; Mohammadzadeh & Jafarigohar, 2012; Tabatabaei & Jamshidifar, 2013).

Nevertheless, most of the research on WTC and its variables were conducted in Western (Burroughs, Marie & McCroskey, 2003; Clement, Baker & MacIntyre , 2003; MacIntyre & Baker, 2000; MacIntyre, Baker, Clement & Conrod; 2001; MacIntyre, Baker, Clement & Donovan, 2002; MacIntyre & Charos, 1996; MacIntyre & Doucette; 2010; MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clement & Noels, 1998), Japanese (Hashimoto, 2002; Yashima, 2002; Yashima, Nishide & Shimizu, 2004) and Iranian contexts (Baghaei, Dourakhshan & Salavati, 2012; Mahmoodi & Moazam, 2014; Mehrgan, 2013; Zarrinabadi & Abdi, 2011). However, there is limited research in Turkish settings (Asmalı, Bilkin & Duban, 2015; Bektaş- Çetinkaya, 2009; Öz, Demirezen & Pourfeiz, 2015). What is more, even though McCroskey and Richmond (1990) stated that culture, either dominant or divergent, affects people's WTC, there is no single study which examined the relationship between WTC and social or cultural intelligence, which are known to be important in language education.

1.3. The Significance of the Study

The present study provides significant information in terms of both theory and methodology. To begin with, although widely studied in different contexts, WTC remains to be under-investigated in Turkish context. There are only a few studies on WTC levels of Turkish university students. Hence, this study, which was conducted in a region where students had no chance of communicating in English outside the classroom, enables us gain insight about a particular group of Turkish students' WTC levels. The results of this study enhance our understanding between a popular notion, WTC, and other social-psychogical variables. Next, since this study tries to explore some affective factors influencing students' willingness to communicate, the results may be utilized by the teachers to foster their students' desire to communicate. Finally, this study can be described as a novel one since the researcher could not find a sole research dedicated to the relationship between WTC and social or cultural intelligence. Known to be important concepts in language teaching and learning, these types of

intelligences were not found to be linked to WTC. Thus, this study deals with these concepts from a different framework.

1.4. The Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

Being able to communicate is the main purpose of language teaching in current teaching pedagogy. Besides, today's learners need to negotiate in cross-cultural situations. However, some individual differences affect students' voluntary decision to communicate, one of which is "willingness to communicate". The main focus of this study is the WTC and its relationship with four other variables which are social intelligence, cultural intelligence, attitudes, and anxiety.

It is expected that the data collected from students from different majors will reveal if their WTC levels are affected by their social intelligence, cultural intelligence, attitude, and anxiety levels. The researcher also hopes to learn about if different variables such as students' majors, gender and English-speaking country experience have an effect on their WTC. By this means, this study is intended to add something novel to the ELT literature by finding out any possible relationship between WTC and social, cultural intelligences, attitude, and anxiety.

The following research questions are intended to be answered in the scope of this study.

1. What is the level of participants' willingness to communicate?

2. Do learners' WTC, social intelligence, cultural intelligence, attitude, and anxiety levels significantly differ in accordance with their demographic profile (namely their ages, English-speaking country experiences, and majors)?

3. Is there a statistically significant correlation between WTC and participants' social, cultural intelligences, anxiety and attitude towards learning English?

1.5. Chapter Summary

This chapter presented background of the study. Then, problem statement was also reported, the significance of the study was expressed and the chapter ended with the purpose of the study and research questions.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter presents the definitions, detailed explanations and summary of studies regarding three key terms of this study. The chapter begins with the detailed definition of willingness to communicate (WTC). The WTC construct in the native language and in the foreign language are explained separately. Then, a general definition on intelligence is provided, which is followed by two specific types of intelligences as social and cultural intelligence. Both are explained in depth and their relationship with language education is presented clearly.

2.1. Willingness to Communicate

2.1.1. The definition of Willingness to Communicate

Willingness to communicate is an individual difference that has been recently added to the field of Second Language Acquisition. The concept of willingness to communicate was first used by McCroskey and Baer (1985) in the native language and they conceptualized this term as the probability of an individual to start a conversation when they are free to do so. The WTC construct emerged from studies on reticence by Philip (1965), on communication apprehension by McCroskey (1970), on unwillingness to communicate by Burgoon (1976), on predispositions toward verbal behaviour by Mortensen, Arntson & Lustig (1977) and on shyness by Richmond (1984).

McCroskey & Richmond (1990) defined the willingness to communicate in L1 as "variability in talking behaviour" (p. 72); they assumed that it is "a personality-based, trait-like predisposition which is relatively consistent across a variety of communication contexts and types of receivers" (p. 73). Admitting that situational constraints of an encounter may well affect a person's WTC, they suggested that people present similar WTC inclinations across situations. In reference to this view, WTC as a personality trait is consisted across different communication contexts such as small group interactions or public meetings as well as across different receivers such as friends or strangers. Additionally, they mentioned that introversion, self-esteem,

communication competence, communication apprehension and cultural diversity were the antecedents which cause difference in individuals' WTC levels.

However, when WTC was introduced in second language teaching and learning by MacIntyre and Charos (1996), they took it a step further by stating that WTC displayed both trait and state level characteristics due to "a number of intergroup issues, social and political implications" in second language communication (MacIntyre, Clement, Dörnyei & Noels, 1998, p.546). Hence, MacIntyre et al. (1998) defined L2 WTC as "a readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using a L2" (p. 547).

The definition was not limited to this and similar definitions regarding WTC were provided by several researchers. McCroskey (1997) explained WTC as "an individual's predisposition to initiate communication with others" (p. 77); whereas MacIntyre, Baker, Clément & Conrod (2001) described it as "the intention to initiate communication, given a choice" (p. 369). Additionally, MacIntyre, Baker, Clément, and Donovan (2002) defined WTC as "an underlying continuum representing the predisposition toward or away from communicating given the choice" (p. 538). Besides, they added that although WTC is a stable personality trait, variables related to WTC may show difference in terms of gender and age.

2.1.2. Willingness to Communicate in the Native Language

After WTC construct in native language had been contributed to the language teaching and learning literature by McCroskey and Baer (1985), some researchers examined WTC in terms of cross- cultural implications, its relationship with other variables such as apprehension, anomie, communication orientations as well as its state and trait-level characteristics.

To begin with, McCroskey and Richmond (1990) investigated WTC in native language in a cross-cultural context. They collected data from college students in the USA, Sweden, Australia, Micronesia and Puerto Rico. They examined the relations among WTC, introversion, communication apprehension and self-perceived communication competence in different countries. They found that the American students had the highest WTC, while the Micronesians had the lower. Swedish students were reported to have the highest overall communication competence whereas the Micronesians had the lowest. Besides, communication apprehension was highest in Micronesians whereas it was the lowest in Puerto Ricans. These results showed that

culture have a big impact on people's individual differences because there were large differences in the analysis of the data depending on the countries.

Following them, in 1991, Sallinen-Kuparinen, McCroskey and Richmond (1991) investigated communication orientations of Finnish people. They collected data from 249 Finnish college students and compared their findings with Australian, Micronesian, Swedish and American populations' data from previous research (Barraclough et. al., 1988; Burroughs & Marie, 1990; McCroskey et al., 1990; McCroskey & McCroskey, 1988) respectively. The results pointed that Finns were less willing to communicate from all the other groups included except for Micronesians. On the other hand, Finns and Americans were found to have similar scores in terms of communication apprehension and self-perceived communication competence. Meanwhile, communication apprehension was described as a person's fear of communication with other people (McCroskey, 1977). Reminding the earlier studies suggesting that communication apprehension and self-perceived communication competence were the powerful predictors of WTC, Sallinen-Kuparinen et al. (1991) at this point note that culture affected this relationship. Another noteworthy result indicated that Finns were most unlikely to start a conversation with friends than any other groups. Furthermore, Finns had higher levels of communication apprehension than Americans in meetings and small groups. The researcher based these findings upon socio-affective concerns in Finland.

In 1994, MacIntyre (1994) investigated the relations among communication apprehension, anomie, alienation, introversion, self-esteem and perceived competence by using the data collected by McCroskey and his colleagues. As shown below, he developed a L1 WTC path model presenting personality-based variables as determinants of WTC. According to this model, communication apprehension and perceived communication competence were posited to be the two immediate causes of an individual's WTC. This meant that the less apprehensive people are, the more willing to communicate they will be and perceive themselves competent of communication. Communication apprehension and introversion were shown to cause perceived competence whereas introversion and self-esteem caused communication apprehension. MacIntyre (1994) also mentions that there were not any significant relationship among WTC, anomie and alienation; hence, neither anomie nor alienation were presented as casual factors opposed to Burgoon's work (1976).

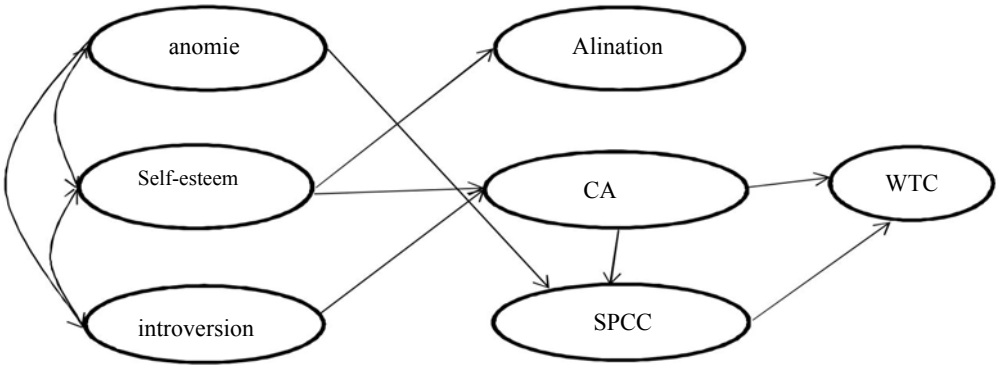

Figure 1. MacIntyre's (1994) Casual Model of Predicting WTC by Using Personality-Based Variables

MacIntyre, Babin and Clement, in 1999, examined WTC at both trait and state levels in a structural equation model. To examine WTC at trait level, 226 participants were given WTC, perceived competence, self-esteem, extraversion, emotional stability and communication anxiety scales, along with additional speaking and writing task questionnaires. As for state level analysis, 70 participants were observed in laboratory setting while they were completing 4 specific tasks that were willingness, anxiety, perceived competence and communication tasks. The results showed similarities with MacIntyre's (1994) work in that the degree of communication apprehension was found to be inversely correlated with perceived competence and willingness to communicate. However, a significant relationship between communication apprehension and WTC was not acquired in this study. Surprisingly though, the path from perceived competence to WTC was quite powerful. Another link found was among extroversion and perceived competence and apprehension. Hence, extroverts were suggested to have more perceived competence and less apprehension. Likewise, the participants who volunteered for laboratory tasks were found to have significantly higher WTC levels. MacIntyre et al. (1999) concluded that trait willingness brought people into certain communication situations, and state willingness affects the probability of communication. If a communication begins, then some other variables like apprehension, anxiety or perceived communication competence gains importance.

In conclusion, the studies above examined L1 WTC construct from different perspectives. Consequently, culture was revealed to affect L1 WTC. Communication apprehension and perceived communication competence were regarded as the predictors of WTC. People with high WTC and perceived competence levels were suggested to

have low levels of apprehension. Personality was also shown to affect WTC and extroverts were believed to have high competence but low apprehension.

2.1.3. Willingness to Communicate in Second/ Foreign Language

MacIntyre and Charos (1996) were the first to adapt WTC construct in second language learning. They aimed to predict the second language frequency in daily communications by combining Gardner's (1985) socio-educational model and MacIntyre's (1994) L1 WTC model. Their model included MacIntyre's perceived communicative competence and language anxiety (in return for communication apprehension), Gardner's integrativeness, attitudes and motivation. They also investigated the role of personality traits in the study. The researchers conducted this study in a bilingual context with 92 English-speaking students by employing self-report measures of global personality traits, frequency of communication, WTC, perceived competence, attitudes, motivation and the amount of French in the work and home environment.

According to their model (see figure 2), there were four significant paths from WTC, motivation, perceived communicative competence and context to frequency of second language communication and this was in harmony with the paths in both Gardner's (1985) and MacIntyre's (1994) models. It was asserted that motivation and perceived communicative competence affected L2 frequency whereas WTC was directly impressed by language anxiety and perceived communicative competence. As for global traits, they were found to indirectly influence attitudes, anxiety, perceived L2 competence, motivation, and WTC.

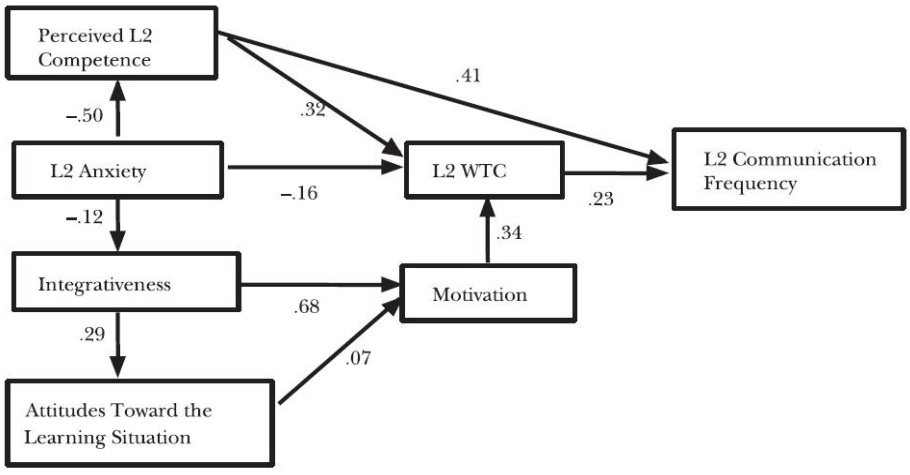

Figure 2. MacIntyre and Charos' (1996) Model of L2 WTC Applied to Monolingual University Student (p. 6)

Integrating linguistic, communicative and social psychological variables affecting WTC, MacIntyre, Clement, Dörnyei and Noels (1998) developed a pyramid-shaped heuristic model to explain L2 WTC. Unlike McCroskey and his colleagues, who regarded WTC as a personality trait, MacIntyre and his associates treated it as a situational variable having both enduring and transient influences. According to them, enduring influences such as intergroup relations or learner personality are long-term effects which can be generalized to every situation. However, situational influences like desire to speak to a specific person or knowledge of the topic are believed to be less generalizable but more reliant on a specific context. Furthermore, they argued that WTC affects listening, writing and reading modes in addition to speaking mode. As can be seen in Figure 3, this heuristic model consisted of six variables or "layers" as the researchers labelled. The first three layers consisted of communication behavior (I), behavioral intention (II), and situated antecedents (III) and these layers represented situation-specific effects on WTC. The next levels included motivational propensities (IV), affective cognitive context (V), and social and individual context (VI), and they represented enduring influences.

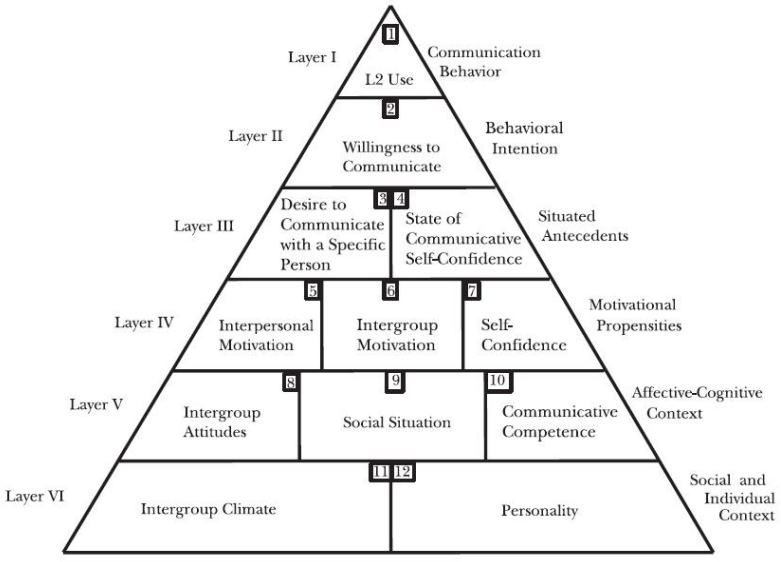

Figure 3. Heuristic Model of Variables Influencing WTC (MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1998; p.547)

In this pyramid shape, the broadest factors appeared at the bottom, and they had somewhat distant influence while the narrower factors on the top showed more immediate influences on using L2. Hereunder, personality and intergroup climate appeared at the bottom of the pyramid and enduring influences were believed to have distant influence on L2 use. On the other hand, situation-specific influences were on the upper layers, which meant that they had stronger influences. WTC was placed just a layer behind the L2 use, which proves to be the most proximal cause.

In the following years, WTC was investigated from different perspectives by many researchers in different contexts. To begin with, MacIntyre and his colleagues researched WTC widely in Canada. In 2000, Baker and MacIntyre investigated the role of gender and immersion by conducting research with 71 immersion and 124 non-immersion students in a Canadian high school. They collected data by distributing questionnaires to the participants whose native language was English and second language was French. They compared immersion and non-immersion high students in Canada in terms of their attitudes toward learning French, orientations for learning, WTC, communication anxiety, perceived communicative competence and self-reported frequency of communication in L1 and L2. The results showed that there were considerable differences in terms of non-linguistic outcomes in L2 between immersion and non-immersion students. Immersion students were found to have higher L2 communication competence, WTC levels, more frequent L2 communication and lower L2 anxiety than non-immersion students. Besides, for immersion students, there was a significant correlation among WTC in French and anxiety in French, communication frequency in French and WTC in English. Perceived competence in French was not significantly correlated to French. Likewise, the same correlations were also obtained for non-immersion students. However, perceived competence was strongly in correlation with WTC in French for non-immersion students, which was not the case for immersion students. As for gender, it had an effect on attitudes and reasons for studying French. The male immersion, female immersion and the female non-immersion students' attitudes toward French were similar, but the male non-immersion students' attitude levels were lower. However, the effect of gender was not consistent when the orientations for learning French was considered.

MacIntyre, Baker, Clement, and Conrod (2001) investigated the role of language learning orientations and social support on L2 WTC in four skills (speaking,

writing, reading and comprehension). The participants were 79 ninth grade L2 French immersion students, and the context was a unilingual English-speaking community in Nova Scotia, Canada. Participating students were given questionnaires. Analysis of the results showed that social support from friends led to higher WTC levels outside the class whereas it was not so effective inside the class. Support of friends was also related to increased orientations for travelling and being friends with Francophones. Additionally, in terms of four skills, students had higher L2 WTC inside the immersion class than in their social surroundings outside the class.

Another study in Canadian context was held by MacIntyre, Baker, Clement and Donovan (2002) who examined the effect of gender and age on WTC, anxiety, perceived competence and L2 motivation among 268 junior late French immersion program students. Participants from grade 7, 8 and 9 were requested to complete a questionnaire including eight scales. The results revealed that WTC, perceived competence and communication frequency in French increased from grades 7 to 8, but it was sustained between 8 and 9. The motivation decreased between 7 and 8, and the anxiety level was constant across all the grades. Further, perceived communication competence was assumed to be the strongest correlate of L2 WTC in three grades. As for gender, it created a difference only in WTC and anxiety. While boys' WTC and anxiety kept stable across three grades, girls' WTC increased in WTC and decreased in anxiety from grade 8 to 9.

Clement, Baker and MacIntyre (2003) investigated the role of individual and contextual differences on L2 use by combining social context and WTC models. Participants included 130 English-speaking and 248 Francophone students in a Canadian bilingual university. It was found that since Francophones were the minority group, they had more opportunities for making contacts in L2; that is why they had higher L2 confidence along with higher WTC, higher frequency of L2 contact, contact, subjective norms and identity in L2 than English-speakings, which was the majority group.

In the same year, MacIntyre, Baker, Clement and Donovan (2003) compared immersion and non-immersion students in terms of their non-linguistic outcomes such as WTC, communication apprehension, perceived competence, and communication frequency. They also examined whether prior immersion experience affect integrativeness, motivation and attitudes toward the learning situation. 59 university

students participated in the study and they were studying in first-year conversational French courses at an undergraduate university in a unilingual, English-speaking context in Canada. According to the results, previous immersion experience was stated to increase WTC and communication frequency in French. WTC was found to correlate with motivation for language learning in immersion students, but not in ESL students. The groups did not show any difference in terms of their L1 WTC. Moreover, the researchers verified that L1 WTC and L2 WTC were not in correlation with each other. This finding was in line with McIntyre and his colleagues' (1998) assertion that WTC does not transfer from one language to the other.

MacIntyre and Doucette (2010) handled with the WTC in a different point of view. They examined the relations among action control variables (hesitation, preoccupation, and volatility), perceived competence, and language anxiety, WTC inside and outside the classroom. The researchers proposed and tested a model to see the relationship between WTC and action control system. The participants were 238 high school students in grades 10, 11 and 12. Their school was in Nova Scotia, Canada, where English is the mother tongue for a major of population. The results showed that there was a correlation between communication variables and action control variables, as well as among communication variables themselves. They explored that high perceived competence and WTC led to lower language anxiety. WTC was positively correlated with competence while perceived competence affected WTC positively inside and outside the classroom. Among the action control variables, hesitation was related to higher language anxiety but lower perception of communication competence. WTC and perceived competence correlated with hesitation and volatility whereas preoccupation was a predictor of higher perceived competence with French.

WTC aroused considerable interest in Japanese EFL context. Yashima (2002) used MacIntyre's WTC model and Gardner's socio-educational model in order to investigate relations among international posture, L2 learning motivation, L2 proficiency, and L2 communication variables including confidence in L2 communication and WTC. She developed an L2 communication model and tested it by using structural equation modelling with 297 Japanese university students. In her model, the communication frequency variable was excluded since learners did not have much contact with native English speakers in the Japanese EFL context. Her findings that attitudes affected motivation were in line with socio-educational model. WTC model

was also replicated in this study since lower anxiety, perceived communication competence and L2 self-confidence were revealed to incline higher levels of WTC. Moreover, she discovered that communication confidence and international posture directly influenced WTC in L2.

Hashimato (2002) also investigated the relationships among L2 learning and L2 communication variables by using the WTC model and socio-educational model similar to Yashima (2002). His study was a replication of MacIntyre and Charos's (1996) research. Hashimato worked with 56 Japanese undergraduate students in an ESL context. The results indicated that high motivation and WTC were the predictors of frequent use of language. Besides, language anxiety and perceived competence were proved to induce WTC parallel to MacIntyre's (1994), MacIntyre and Charos' (1996) and Yashima's (2002) studies. However, although motivation was not linked to L2 WTC in the original study, Hashimato's study showed a relationship between these two variables.

Another example of WTC in Japanese context comes from Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide and Shimizu (2004). They examined the results and underpinnings of L2 WTC by executing two separate investigations with Japanese learners of English studying in a high school. For the first investigation, 160 students were employed to test a model hypothesizing that WTC led to more frequent communication and international posture to WTC. The second investigation with 60 study-abroad-program students verified the results of the first in the meantime. On the one hand, the results of the first investigation indicated that perceived communication competence, self-confidence, higher interest in international affairs, holidays or activities and motivation are positively associated. The structural equation modelling results were totally in line with Yashima (2002) in terms of the role of self-confidence, interest in international affairs, jobs and activities on the L2 WTC. On the other hand, the results of the second investigation showed that exchange program students communicating with their hosts more frequently were reported to have more satisfaction in interpersonal relationships, less trouble in making friends and easier adjustment to the host country.

Another country where WTC construct was researched is China. Following Yashima (2002) and Hashimato (2002), Peng (2007) also utilized a hybrid model of WTC and socio-educational model in order to investigate the relationship between L2 WTC and integrative motivation. The research was carried out with 174 college

students who were enrolled to an intensive English language in China. Peng found out that the strongest predictor of WTC in L2 was motivation, whereas integrative motivation was responsible for only a small portion of variation in L2 WTC. Furthermore, attitudes towards the learning situation were not a predictor of L2 WTC.

Yu (2009) also tried to explore WTC and other variables such as teacher immediacy, communication apprehension, motivation, attitude toward learning situation, integrativeness, instrumental orientation and self-perceived communication competence. According to the results, attitudes toward the learning situation and motivation were found to be the significant predictors of WTC. Self-perceived communication competence and communication apprehension, on the other hand, were found to affect WTC directly.

In 2010, Peng and Woodrow performed a novel study which analyzed the effect of learner beliefs and classroom environment in an L2 WTC model for the first time. They tested their model which integrated WTC in English, communication confidence, motivation, learner beliefs, and classroom environment by utilizing a structural equation modelling. 529 undergraduate freshman and sophomore students from different non-English majors in eight different universities took part in the study. Yashima's (2002) study was partly replicated because motivation was directly influential on communication confidence and indirectly on WTC. Moreover, classroom environment directly affected WTC, communication confidence and learner beliefs. According to Peng and Woodrow (2010), a relaxing classroom atmosphere was apt to increase perceived competence and decrease anxiety which opposed to Clement et al.'s (1994) findings.

In a Korean setting, Kim (2004) investigated whether MacIntyre et al.'s heuristic model was reliable to apply it in Korea and whether it was trait-like or situational inclination. After gathering data from 191 university students and analyzing them, the researcher concluded that WTC was more trait-like. Besides, it was asserted that variables such as WTC, confidence, motivation and attitudes were significantly related to each other. WTC was in direct relation with learners' English communication confidence but in indirect relation with the attitudes. Likewise, Jung (2011) conducted a mixed method study with 226 Korean students exploring WTC, personality, attitude toward English, confidence in communicating in English and motivation. The results

showed that WTC is directly affected by communication confidence and motivation. Besides, there was a correlation between students' attitudes and personalities.

More recently, WTC has attracted considerable enthusiasm from Iranian researchers and they examined WTC widely from different perspectives. Zarrinabadi and Abdi (2011) examined the relationship between Iranian EFL learners' WTC inside and outside the classroom and their language learning orientations. The participants were 76 bilingual intermediate-level students studying at English Literature and Translation. They found that the correlation between language orientations and WTC outside the classroom more than inside the classroom.

Ghonsooly et al. (2012) examined WTC and some variables related to it by employing WTC model and socio-educational model. The results yielded that the best predictors of L2 WTC was attitudes toward international community and L2 self-confidence. Mohammadzadeh and Jafarigohar (2012) considered WTC from a scarcely-researched framework. They investigated the relationship between WTC and multiple intelligences as well as the effect of gender on these issues. 517 English Literature and Translation students participated in the study. The analysis of the data pointed out that multiple intelligence is influential on the degree of WTC. Moreover, the relationship between multiple intelligence and WTC was reported to be affected by the gender.

Modirkhameneh and Firouzmand (2014) were the other researchers from Iranian context who investigated the relationship between WTC and language learning orientations. They worked with 128 university students taking English language and linguistic courses. Opposed to Zarrinabadi and Abdi (2011), they concluded that there was a stronger correlation between language learning orientations and WTC inside the class when compared to WTC outside the class. Besides, language learning orientations such as travelling, job related, friendship, personal knowledge and school achievement were found to have poor correlations with both WTC inside and outside the class.

Although WTC construct has begun to gain impetus in Turkish EFL context, there is still limited research on it. Bektaş Çetinkaya (2005) investigated if college level EFL students were willing to communicate when provided with an opportunity and if the WTC model was able to describe the relations among social-psychological, linguistic and communication variables. She conducted a mixed method research by administering a questionnaire to 356 students and conducting interviews with 15

students. She investigated the interrelations among students' WTC in English, language learning motivation, communication anxiety, perceived communication competence, attitudes towards the international community and personality. The results of the structural equation model showed that students were more or less willing to communicate in English and they were comparatively motivated to learn English. Besides, their attitude towards the international community was positive and their communication anxiety was low. They perceived themselves partly competent to communicate in English and they were inconsiderably extroversive. On the one hand, it was concluded that there was a direct relationship between students' attitude towards the international community and their perceived linguistic self-confidence. On the other hand, students' motivation and personality were reported to be indirectly linked to their WTC through linguistic self-confidence. Their attitude towards the international community was also correlated with their personalities.

Atay and Kurt (2009) also inspected the factors that affect Turkish EFL learners' WTC and they also wanted to find out the learners' opinions on communicating in English inside and outside the classroom. They conducted a mixed method study by employing both qualitative and quantitative research. 159 intermediate level prep school students of a state university in Istanbul took part in the study. Questionnaires and semi-structured interviews were used as data collection tools. The results indicated that students with higher scores on international posture had higher levels of WTC both inside and outside the classroom. Besides, positive correlation between perceived competence and WTC which was shown in previous studies (McCroskey & McCroskey 1988; MacIntyre & Charos 1996) was also maintained in this study.

By using the heuristic model of MacIntyre et al. (1998), Şener (2014) enquired university level Turkish EFL students' perceptions of their WTC in English inside and outside the classroom. Furthermore, she explored individual differences affecting their WTC such as linguistic self-confidence, motivation, attitude towards the international community and personality as Bektaş Çetinkaya (2005) did. She employed mixed methods design including qualitative and quantitative methodology. She collected data from 274 students and 11 instructors by employing a questionnaire, classroom observations and semi-structured interviews as data collection tools. The results showed that students' overall WTC in English was between moderate and high; their desire to learn English was above moderate. Besides, there was a positive correlation between

self-perceived communication competence and WTC. Self confidence, on the other hand, was found to be the most significant predictor of students' in-class WTC. Expectedly, strong negative correlation between anxiety and self-confidence was obtained. In this study, students were more willing to communicate in English with their friends like in Bektaş Çetinkaya's (2005) study. Hereunder, social context was also asserted to play a crucial role in foreign language education, because positive social context was claimed to increase situational WTC.

One of the most recent studies on WTC in Turkish context comes from Asmalı, Bilki and Duban (2015). They conducted a quantitative research in order to investigate differences between Turkish and Romanian students in terms of their WTC, self-perceived communication competence and communication apprehension. 130 English Language and Literature students, in total, participated in the study. The results demonstrated that Romanian students had a high level of L2 WTC whereas Turkish group had a quite low level of L2 WTC. As indicated in the findings of Bektaş Çetinkaya's (2005) and Şener's (2014) studies, Turkish students as well as Romanians reported to communicate more comfortably within a group and with friends. Romanian students' perceived communication competence was also higher than Turkish students'. Interesting though, both Romanian and Turkish participants had low communication apprehension despite their different levels of WTC and self-perceived communication competence.

The other recent study was conducted by Öz, Demirezen and Pourfeiz (2015) in order to investigate Turkish EFL learners' perceived level of L2 WTC, the effect of gender on all variables as well as the relationship among communication, affective factors and L2 WTC. 134 university students volunteered to participate in this study and completed a number of scales for data collection. The results indicated that strong relationships between individual difference variables and WTC that were found in many previous studies were also replicated in this study. Although Gardner's (1985) socioeductional model was chosen as a framework in earlier studies, Öz et al. (2015) preferred to use motivational self-system framework to see whether ideal L2 self can affect a person's WTC in L2. A statistically significant difference between male and female participants was obtained only in terms of Perceived Communication Apprehension. Motivation was found to have an indirect influence on L2 WTC like in other studies (Clement et al. 2003; Ghonsooly et al.,2012; Yashima, 2002). This study

indicated a strong correlation between integrativeness and the ideal L2 self (MS1) and attittudes towards learning and instrumental orientations (MS2). Additionally, Self-perceived Communicative Competence was reported to be the strongest factor that directly affected EFL learners L2 WTC.

2.1.4. WTC in Relation to Other Factors

2.1.4.1. Anxiety

Foreign language researchers have long been in quest of the reason why some students are better language learners while other are not. In order to understand the underlying reasons of this phonemenon, much research has been devoted to explore the relationship between foreign language learning and affective variables such as motivation, attitude or psychological factors about foreign language learning. Foreign language anxiety appears as one of the most important affective factors.

Spielberger (1983) defined general anxiety as a "subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of autonomic nervous system" (p. 15). Research on anxiety generally classifies three types of anxiety as trait anxiety, state anxiety, and situation-specific anxiety (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989). Trait anxiety is considered a feature of personality; state anxiety is an inconstant emotional state in the current correct and situation-specific anxiety is consistently experienced in certain contexts.

However, Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) kept language anxiety separate from general anxiety and identified three components of foreign language anxiety. These components included communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation and test anxiety. Communication apprehension refers to the anxiety emerging during communicating in a foreign language. Fear of negative evaluation results from a learner's need for social approval by other people, whereas test anxiety arises from the fear of academic failure. According to the definition provided by Horwitz et al. (1991), foreign language anxiety is "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. 31).

As apparent from their definition, Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) together with MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) reckon foreign language anxiety to be a situation-specific anxiety because learners experience this type of anxiety specifically in foreign language classrooms.

A large number of studies have been conducted in the past years to reveal the effect of anxiety on learners' foreign language achievement. Many studies disclosed a negative relationship between anxiety and language performance (Aida, 1994; Cheng, Horwitz & Schallert, 1999; Dörnyei, 2005; MacIntyre and Gardner, 1989; Phillips, 1992; Saito and Samimy, 1996). Additionally, a considerable amount of research has been devoted to the causes of foreign language anxiety such as perfectionist behaviours of learners, personalities, attitudes and motivation, fear of negative evaluation (Aida, 1994; Horwitz et al., 1991; Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2014; Subaşı, 2010; Young, 1991).

The research exploring the relationship between WTC and language anxiety yielded high correlation. In MacIntyre and Charos' (1996) study, anxiety was found to directly influence WTC. This finding was also verified in other studies conducted during the following years. Yashima (2002), Hashimato (2002) and MacIntyre and Doucette (2010) also found out that lower anxiety led to higher levels of WTC. The context of learning does not change the situation. By comparing immersion and non-immersion students, Baker and MacIntyre (2000) found a significant correlation between WTC and anxiety levels of immersion students.

In her study done in a Japanese setting, Matsuoka (2008) showed that communication apprehension decreased the WTC levels of learners of English and suggested some implications to lower communication apprehension for higher WTC. Similarly, Peng, and Woodrow (2010) asserted that students with less anxiety but more perceived confidence were more willing to communicate. In Turkish context, Bektaş-Çetinkaya (2005) surprisingly found that participants had low anxiety levels. Besides, she obtained a negative correlation between communication anxiety and WTC levels of students which was different from the findings of previous studies on WTC.

2.1.4.2. Attitude Towards Language Learning

Having its roots in social psychology, the concept of attitude is an important affective factor in foreing language learning. It has been defined as the consistency towards an object (Triandis, 1971) or similarly being ready to behave in a constant manner towards an object (Eveyik, 1999). Gardner, who has conducted the first systematic and comprehensive study with Lambert, defined attitude as “an evaluative reaction to some referent or attitude object, inferred on the basis of the individual’s beliefs or opinions about the referent” (Gardner, 1985, p.9). Gardner and Lambert (1972) introduced two new concepts of attitudes as instrumental attitudes and

integrative attitudes. Instrumental attitudes refer to learning language for practical purposes such as for job opportunities or educational aims. Besides, integrative attitudes refer to the desire of language learners to be a part of another language community.

The fact that having positive attitudes toward language learning positively affect L2 achiement and eases learning have been noted by several researchers (Bachman, 1990; Chamber, 1999; Coleman, Strafield, & Hagan, 2003; Noels et al., 2000). Therefore, attitude factor should be taken into account during course designing (Hall, 2009) and students' negative attitudes should be changed to positive attitudes (Lennartsson, 2008).

The relationship between WTC and attitudes towards language learning was asserted in various studies. Significantly, Yu (2009) proved that attitudes of participants towards the learning situation was the best predictor of WTC in English. Conversely though, in Peng's (2007) study, attitudes towards the learning situation were not a predictor of L2 WTC. Jung (2011) and Kim (2004) similarly presented that attitudes of participants indirectly affected their WTC levels. From the Iranian perspective, Ghonsooly et al. (2012) found that attitudes towards international community was a powerful predictor of L2 WTC along with L2 self-confidence. Finally, the results of Bektaş-Çetinkaya's (2005) study indicated that participants' attitudes towards international community and their L2 WTC was directly related to each other.

2.2. Intelligence

Intelligence is a complex phenomenon which aroused researchers' interest for over a hundred years. A great many of psychologists attempted to define intelligence from different viewpoints. Intelligence was described as “the ability to adapt oneself to circumstance” (Binet & Simon, 1905, p. 197), “the ability of an organism to solve new problems” (Bingham, 1937, p.36), “a global concept that involves an individual's ability to act purposefully, think rationally and to deal effectively with the environment” (Wechsler, 1958, p.7) and in Gardner's words “the capacity to solve problems or to fashion products that are valued in one or more cultural setting” (Gardner & Hatch, 1989, p.5). Besides, in a broader sense, Gottfredson (1994) defined intelligence as following:

> Intelligence is a very general mental capability that, among other things, involves the ability to reason, plan, solve problems, think abstractly, comprehend complex ideas, learn quickly and learn from

> experience. It is not merely book learning, a narrow academic skill, or test-taking smarts. Rather, it reflects a broader and deeper capability for comprehending our surroundings- "cathing on", "making sense" of things, or "figuring out" what to do. (p.13)

Despite the variety of these definitions, there is no clear consensus about what constitues intelligence. While some of intelligence theories consider it as a single, general ability, others regard it as a combination of several abilities. Proposed by Charles Spearman (1927), the G- factor model, for example, assumed that there was a single general intelligence factor underlying all the mental abilities. According to this theory, people who are successful in a task are expected to do well in other tasks.

Contrary to this view, some psychologists such as Thurstone, Sternberg and Gardner supported that intelligence was made up of several components instead of considering it as a single ability. In his theory of intelligence, Thurstone (1938) emphasized seven "primary mental abilities" such as verbal comprehension, reasoning, perceptual speed, numerical ability, word fluency, associative memory and spatial visualization. Likewise, Sternberg (1996) also proposed his "successful intelligence" theory including three factors such as analytic intelligence, creative intelligence and practical intelligence.

Howard Gardner also rejected the idea of a single IQ (Gardner & Hatch,1989); rather, he proposed his "multiple intelligences" theory which comprised of visual-spatial, verbal-linguistic, bodily-kinesthetic, logical-mathematical, musical, interpersonal, intrapersonal and naturalistic intelligence. According to this theory, every person has these eight intellligence types at changing levels of aptitude.

More recently, many other types of intelligences have been added in the literature such as existential intelligence, cognitive intelligence, business intelligence, artificial intelligence, moral intelligence, emotional intelligence, cultural intelligence and social intelligence- the latter two of which are among the variables that will be studied in this study.

2.2.1. Social Intelligence

The history of social intelligence concept dates back to 1920 when psychology professor Edward Thorndike introduced it to the literature. Thorndike (1920) divided intelligence into three categories as abstract intelligence, mechanical intelligence and social intelligence. He described abstract intelligence as the ability to understand and

handle verbal and mathematical symbols. Mechanical intelligence referred to the ability to learn and deal with mechanisms. Social intelligence was defined as “the ability to understand and manage men and woman, boys and girls- to act wisely in human relations.” (p. 228). Thorndike stated that a person shows consistency within any of these intelligences and great disparity between one and another of all three intelligences. Thorndike (1920) underlined the importance of social intelligence by claiming that “the best mechanic in a factory may fail as a foreman for lack of social intelligence.” (p. 229).

Since Thorndike (1920) put forward the social intelligence concept, many other researchers in the field defined this construct separately over the years. Ford and Tisak (1983), for instance, defined social intelligence with regard to behavioral issues as “one's ability to accomplish relevant objectives in specific social settings” (p. 197). Marlowe (1986), on the other hand, regarded social intelligence and social competence as equivalents of each other and defined social intelligence as “the ability to understand the feelings, thoughts, and behaviours of persons, including oneself, in interpersonal situations and to act appropriately upon that understanding” (1986, p. 52). More recently, Goleman (2006) proposed a definition in which social intelligence was organized into two categories as social awareness and social facility. Social intelligence referred to “what we sense about others” and social facility to “what we then do with that awareness” (2006, p. 84).

According to Salovey and Mayer (1990), social intelligence incorporates interpersonal and intrapersonal facets. Understanding other people's feelings or behaviours, reading non-verbal cues and acting appropriately in a situation (Fredakova and Jelenova, 2004; Marlowe, 1986; Salovey and Mayer, 1990; Silvera et al., 2001) can be examples of interpersonal components. On the other hand, a person’s ability to understand his/ her own thoughts and to decipher social information are in the scope of intrapersonal side of social intelligence. (Fredakova and Jelenova, 2004; Marlowe, 1986).

Although social intelligence was thought to be inseperably interwoven with emotional intelligence in the past, it has been shown that social intelligence is a multidimensional construct which is distinguishable from general intelligence domains (Jones & Day, 1997; Marlowe, 1986; Weis & Süb, 2007). Moreover, as Albrecht (2005) pointed out SI was claimed to be beyond intelligence quotient (IQ) and EI and in fact it

was believed to represent "a kind of 'intelligence' in itself, quite apart from the usual 'IQ' kind of intelligence that academics, psychologists, and educators have studied so diligently" (p. XII). Notwitstanding, numerous studies on intelligence domain has specifically focused on emotional intelligence and its relationship to other humanistic issues (Miller, 2011; Song et al., 2010). Social intelligence, on the other hand, has mostly been popular in the field of business and administration and its relationship with leadership, job satisfaction, mental health or emotional intelligence has been extensively investigated. However, only recently researchers have begun to study social intelligence from educational perspectives.

In Turkey, there are quite limited studies handling social intelligence from educational perspectives. Doğan and Çetin (2009) explored the relationship between 520 university students' social intelligence and depression levels. The results showed that students with high levels of depression had low social skills and social awareness levels. Additionally, there was not a significant correlation between depression and social processing subscale of social intelligence.

Doğan, Totan, and Sapmaz (2009) examined the relationship between social intelligence and self-esteem levels of students. The data were collected through scales from 512 university students. According to the analysis of the data, the increase in self-esteem levels of students led to an increase in social skill and social awareness levels of students.

Doğan and Eryılmaz (2014) investigated the role of social intelligence in happiness. The analysis of the data collected from 249 university students presented that among three sub-dimensions of social intelligence scale, social skill most correlates with the happiness of university students.

Distinctly, İlhan and Çetin (2014) investigated the relationship between two intelligence types- social and cultural intelligences- both which are examined in the present study. A total number of 243 participants were given social and cultural intelligence scales. Significant relationship between social and cultural intelligence was gathered as a result of the study.

In 2013, Saxena and Jain (2013) conducted a study in order to compare the social intelligence of male and female undergraduate students of science and Arts subject streams in India. For data collection, Chadda and Ganesan Social Intelligence Scale (1986) was utilized. The data analysis results showed that female students had

more social intelligence than male students while arts students were proven to have greater social intelligence than students of other streams.

Unlike previous examples of social intelligence studies, Khodadady and Namaghi (2013) were the first to investigate the relationship between social intelligence and English language proficiency. They administered The Persian Reading the Mind in the Eyes Test and English Language Proficiency Test to 181 undergraduate students of English Language and Literature and Theology. The results showed that social intelligence was significantly related to language proficiency. Besides, Khodadady and Namaghi (2013) claimed that compared to cultural intelligence, social intelligence had a bigger effect in learning English.

Likewise, Abbasian and Merati (2014a) explored the relationship between social intelligence and language proficiency level. A monolingual group of 30 participants and three English proficiency groups of elemantary and advanced, each with 30 participants were involved in the study. For data collection, Tromso Social Intelligence Scale was administered to all the participants. The results revealed that there was a significant difference between advanced and elemantary groups in terms of their social skills and social intelligence.

In the same year, Abbasian and Merati (2014b) investigated the relationship between bilingualism, social intelligence and language choice. A monolingual group of 30 participants and three Azeri, English and Arab bilingual groups each with 30 people took part in the study. The participants were required to complete the Tromso Social Intelligence Scale. The results indicated that although there was not a statistically significant relationship among the bilingual and monolingual groups in terms of their social-information processing,social skills, social awareness, and social intelligence, Persian and English groups displayed a strong negative correlation in terms of their social-information processing. Besides, language choice was found to significantly predict social skills and social intelligence.

In 2015, Tasleema and Ganai (2015) carried out a study in which they compared rural and urban college students on various dimensions of social intelligence and academic achievement. The participants were 390 third-year college students in India. The participants were required to complete Chadda and Ganesan Social Intelligence Scale (1986) for data collection and their average marks in their first and second year exams were also used as the measure of academic achievement. The results

pointed out that urban college students had higher social intelligence than rural college students. Furthermore, urban college students were proven to have higher academic achievement than rural college students.

Another study on social intelligence and academic achievement in Indian context was conducted by Ganaie and Mudasir (2015). The researchers aimed to examine social intelligence and academic achievement of 275 college students. 150 of participants were studying science whereas the remaining 125 were studying social sciences. Like in other Indian examples, they also utilized Chadda and Ganesan Social Intelligence Scale (1986) for data collection. The results indicated that students of social sciences had higher social intellligence than science students; however, science students were found to have better academic achievement. This finding was in line with Saxena and Jain's (2013) work in which art students, another social stream, had higher social intelligence than science students.

Despite the various studies examining the relationship between social intelligence and academic achievement, no single study has been conducted on the relationship between WTC and social intelligence.

2.2.2. Cultural Intelligence

2.2.2.1. Four-Factor Model of Cultural Intelligence

The term cultural intelligence or cultural quotient (CQ) is a relatively new construct that was first developed by Earley and Ang (2003). Earley and Ang (2003) defined cultural intelligence as “a person's capability to adapt effectively to new cultural contexts” (p. 59). The researchers considered cultural intelligence as another complementary form of intelligence which may be responsible for the variability in dealing with the diversity and new cultural contexts. Earley and Ang (2003) conceptualized cultural intelligence as a multifaceted construct with metacognitive, cognitive, motivational and behavioural dimensions by basing it on Sternberg & Detterman’s (1986) model (Ang et al., 2007; Ng, Van Dyne & Ang, 2009).

The first factor of cultural intelligence is metacognitive cultural intelligence or metacognitive CQ. It represents an individual's consciousness and cultural awareness in intercultural experiences (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008; Ng, Van Dyne & Ang, 2009). Metacognitive CQ includes mental capabilities of understanding and monitoring different cultural contexts, planning appropriate strategies and solving questions in a cross-cultural situation. Metacognitive CQ is important for some reasons. To begin

with, it helps to boost active thinking about people and situations in a different cultural context. Additionally, metacognitive factor of cultural intelligence prevents relying strictly on culturally bounded thinking. Finally, it enables people to alter their strategies in order to make them appropriate and successful in cross-cultural interactions (Earley & Ang, 2003).

Accordingly, people with high metacognitive CQ are claimed to plan, question cultural assumptions; to adjust their mental maps; to be aware of other people's cultural preferences both before and during intercultural interactions (Ang, Van Dyne & Koh, 2006; Brislin et al., 2006; Triandis, 2006). Furthermore, they have the capability of intentionally questioning their own cultures' values and building meaningful interactions with people from different cultures (Ang, Van Dyne & Tan, 2011).

While metacognitive CQ refers to higher level intellectual processes, cognitive aspect of cultural intelligence points out an individual's knowledge about the norms and systems in different cultures (Ang & Dyne, 2008). Cognitive CQ consists of an understanding of social, economic, legal systems as well as religious beliefs, arts, crafts, linguistic and marriage systems in other cultures (Ang, Van Dyne & Koh, 2006; Earley and Peterson, 2004). According to Ang and Van Dyne (2008), cognitive CQ is an important factor since knowing about different cultures has a strong influence upon people's thoughts and beliefs. When people understand cultures better, they become capable of building better cross-cultural interactions as well as comparing and contrasting different cultures (Ang & Van Dyne, 2008; Imai & Gelfand, 2010).

The third component of cultural intelligence is motivational CQ, which reflects an individual's inner desire of showing interest in learning about, understanding and adapting to different cultures (Ang et al., 2007). Motivational CQ is crucial because people with high motivational CQ levels are more willing to engage with other cultures (Livermore, 2009) and they overcome troubling situations that may occur while communicating in different cultures (Lin, Chen & Song, 2012).

Behavioural CQ refers to the action component of cultural intelligence and it reflects an individual's ability to behave appropriately in different intercultural situations (Van Dyne, Ang & Livermore, 2009). Additionally, behavioural CQ requires being flexible in verbal and non-verbal actions as well as choosing appropriate words and phrases during communication (Ang, Van Dyne & Tan, 2011). Behavioural CQ has also great importance and it is the most apparent and visible component of cultural

intelligence. People having high behavioural CQ are good at performing suitable verbal and non-verbal actions in cross-cultural communications (Ang et al., 2007).

2.2.2.2. Cultural Intelligence in Language Education

Similar to social intelligence, cultural intelligence has also been widely studied in terms of leadership and business. Likewise, only recently have researchers begun to associate it to English language education. However, a great many of the studies on cultural intelligence in English language teaching/ learning field have been administered in Iranian context.

Khodadady and Ghahari (2012), for example, searched for the relationship between cultural intelligence and English proficiency. 145 undergraduate university students took part in the study and two instruments, Persian Cultural Intelligence Scale and a disclosed TOEFL test were used. The analysis presented that there were a significant but negative correlation between cultural intelligence, its subscales and EFL proficiency.

Ghonsooly and Golparvar (2013) investigated the relationship between Iranian EFL learners' CQ and their performance on the IELTS Writing Module. They also tried to find out the predictive power of four dimensions of cultural intelligence on learners' writing ability. Besides, the effect of gender on learners' cultural intelligence was probed. The researchers worked with 83 EFL learners and used Cultural Intelligence Scale and IELTS Writing Module for data collection. At the end, a significant relationship between learners' CQ and their writing ability was obtained while there was not a statistically significant effect of gender on their CQ. As for the four subscales of CQ, cognitive CQ was revealed to be the best predictor of writing ability.

In the same year, Ghonsooly and Shalchy (2013) examined the effects of CQ on L2 learners' writing ability especially in terms of fluency, complexity and accuracy. 104 advanced level EFL learners took part in the study. For data collection, participants were asked to complete a writing task as well as the cultural intelligence scale. The analysis of the data revealed that CQ and cognitive CQ were the best predictors of writing ability and fluency and this finding was in line with Ghonsooly and Golparvar's (2013) study. The researchers suggested that people with high cognitive CQ are able to write appropriately for their special audience.

Ghonsooly, Sharififar, Sistani and Ghahari (2015) investigated the correlation between listening comprehension of EFL learners and their cultural intelligence.

Besides, they examined the four subscales of cultural intelligence to find out which of them predict learners' listening comprehension performance. 87 EFL learners in Iran participated in the study. An IELTS listening test and the four-factor model of cultural intelligence were used as research instruments. The results displayed that metacognitive and motivational CQ were correlated with listening comprehension. It was stated that interpersonally and culturally intelligent individuals perform better in listening comprehension tests.

Saffarian, Ghonsooly and Akbari (2015) explored the relationship between cultural intelligence, social intelligence and student translators' ability in translating cultural and social texts. Additionally, the researchers investigated the predictive power of social intelligence and cultural intelligence subscales. The participants, 82 senior students of English Translation Studies, were requested to complete the Cultural Intelligence Scale, Tromso Social Intelligence Scale and a rendering test of translation. The researchers found a positive relationship between cultural, social intelligences and student translators' ability in translating cultural and social texts.

In a very recent research, Rafie, Khosravi and Nasiri (2016) explored the the relationship between Iranian EFL Learners' Cultural intelligence and their performance on the IELTS Listening Module. They used Cultural Intelligence Scale and IELTS Listening Module to determine 60 advanced EFL students' cultural intelligence. The researchers obtained a statistically significant relationship between EFL learners' CQ and their performance on IELTS Listening Module. Besides, motivational dimension of CQ was found to be the best predictor of listening ability, which was also shown in Ghoonsoly, Sharififar, Sistani and Ghahari's (2015) study.

Though cultural intelligence has rarely been approached from an educational perspective worldwide, there is not even an article on the effect of cultural intelligence on L2 WTC.

2.3. Chapter Summary

This chapter aimed to summarize the literature on willingness to communicate, social intelligence and cultural intelligence concepts. In the beginning of the chapter, after a brief information of language teaching methods were mentioned, a recent affective variable, "willingness to communicate" was defined and its importance was emphasized. Despite the prevailing trend of CLT in language classes, research has showed that high communicative competence does not assure a student's volunteering to

speak English. Besides, WTC has been known as a facilitator of second language acquisition. WTC was first developed in relation to communication in the first language and it was later adapted to second language communication. Thus, the chapter described L1 WTC and L2 WTC in seperate subtitles. Under each subtitle, a comprehensive review of empirical studies were presented in order to understand its antecedents, determinants and its relationship between individual difference variables.

In the following part, variables related to WTC such as anxiety and attitude towards language learning were mentioned. Under each title, the definitions of the concepts of anxiety and attitude towards language learning were given. Henceforth, studies investigating the effect of anxiety and attitudes on English language education were summarized.

The chapter continued with the definition of intelligence concept which was branched into two subtitles as social intelligence and cultural intelligence. Since the world is becoming more and more global and multi-national, the necessity of using language for building good social interactions and surviving in a multi-cultural environment was stated. Although relatively little, the research examining both social and cultural intelligences from educational perspectives were also mentioned.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the overall methodology chosen for this study in addition to submitting a rationale for the research design. After a detailed description of context, participants and research instruments are presented, data collection procedure and data analysis tools are described. The chapter ends with the chapter summary.

3.1. Research Design

The main objective of this study is to find out whether social and cultural intelligence affect students' WTC levels. Besides, variables such as gender, age, English-speaking country experience, and major departments are examined in order to determine their relationship with students' WTC, social and cultural intelligences, anxiety and attitude.

For reaching this aim, this study employed a quantitative research method including scales for data collection. Quantitative research methods attempt to explore the relationship between variables by using numerical data and statistical analysis procedures in order to obtain generalizable results from a large sample size (Dörnyei, 2007; Paltridge & Phakiti, 2015; Thomas; 2003). The quantitative research is advantageous because it is systematic, controlled with reliable, replicable and generalizable findings (Dörnyei, 2007).

According to Creswell (2014), there are two types of quantitative research designs: experimental and survey research. On the one hand, experimental research investigates the effect of a specific treatment on an outcome. It includes treatment and non-treatment groups and comparison of both. On the other hand, survey research presents a sample population's trends, attitudes and opinions by using numeric data. Survey research includes data collection instruments such as questionnaires or structured interviews. In this study, survey research was employed in order to obtain generalizable information from a sample population by using three different scales. As

a first step, after the scales were chosen, their validated versions in Turkish were decided to use. The scales were checked by the researcher and her colleagues and some respondents' opinions about the layout and intelligibility of the survey were also elicited. After the survey was applied, the quantitative data were gathered and analyzed.

As for the role of the researcher, she had been working as an instructor at Erciyes University School of Foreign Languages for five years when the study was conducted. She was actively involved in data collection process in both of the departments participated in this study.

3.2. Research Context

This study was administered at Erciyes University English Language Teaching Department (ELT) and English Language and Literature (ELL) Department during 2016-2017 academic year. Erciyes University is located in Kayseri, which is a metropolitan region in the Central Anatolia region of Turkey. The aim of Erciyes University English Language Teaching Department is to train qualified prospective teachers and the aim of English Language and Literature Department is to graduate students with a comprehensive linguistic and literary knowledge of English. As expected, English was the medium of instruction in both departments.

3.3. Selection of Participants

The survey was distributed to nearly 400 university students, but some of them were not received back and some of them were not appropriately completed. Thus, the quantitative data were gathered from 349 ELT and ELL department students. The majority of the participants, 318 students were between 18 to 25 years old and the remaining 31 participants were between 26-31, which shows that they were all adult learners of English. There were 270 female and 79 male participants in total. Only 40 of them had an experience of residing in an English speaking country.

3.4. Data Collection Procedure

For data collection, a survey with six sections was utilized. The first section of the survey seeked demographic information of respondents and the following three parts were made up of WTC scale, social intelligence scale, cultural intelligence scale, attitude and anxiety scales. All the scales were originally written in English; however, their Turkish translated versions were used in order to eliminate the potential translation problems because of the language proficiency levels of students. All the scales were

translated, validated, and investigated for reliability beforehand by some Turkish researchers which are explained in detail below.

Before the main study, a group of students were administered a pilot study in order to correct any possible mistakes or problems. In the pilot study, three students were asked their ideas about the layout, appropriateness and comprehensibleness of the scales. After their approval of the suitability of the survey, a class of students (approximately 20) were administered the data collection instrument and these were excluded from the main study. In order to establish reliability, Cronbach's Alpha through SPSS 16.0 Software Package was run and the reliability coefficient for each variable of the survey is presented in the following table (Table 1).

Table 1. Reliability of the Instruments

Variable	**Cronbach's Alpha**	**Number of Items**
WTC	.923	12
Attitudes Towards Learning English	.725	5
Anxiety	.944	12
Social Intelligence Scale as a Whole	.736	21
Social Information Processing Subscale	.779	7
Social awareness subscale	.726	7
Social skills subscale	.453	7
Cultural Intelligence Scale as a whole	.893	20
Meta-cognition	.814	4
Cognition	.801	6
Motivation	.855	5
Behavioural	.895	5

As clearly shown in the table above, all the variables except social skills subscale are highly reliable as they are over .70 reliability level. Because of the fact that social skills subscale has a low reliability level (α=.453), it has been excluded from the regression analysis.

3.4.1. Data Collection Tools

3.4.1.1. WTC Scale

The original version of the Willingness to Communicate scale used in this study was developed by McCroskey (1992). The scale aimed at assessing WTC in terms of the communication context (public speaking, talking in meetings, group discussions, and interpersonal conversations) and types of receivers (stranger, acquaintance, and

friend). The scale required respondents to choose a percentage between 0% and 100% to show to what extent they volunteer to communicate in each given situation. However, in her comprehensive study, Şener (2014) stated that the original study was deprived of questions about students' willingness to talk to their teachers, so she modified McCroskey's (1992) scale by adding some more inside/ outside items. The same procedure was followed in this study.

This scale assessed respondents' WTC levels in terms of types of receivers (strangers, teachers, friends, acquaintances) and communication context (public speaking in class setting, dyads, meetings, small groups). Items 1,5,10,15 were about strangers; 6,7,9 for teachers; 2,3,4,8,12,13 for friends and 11,14,16 were for acquaintances. As for communication context, items 2,3,12 were for public speaking in class setting; 5,7,8,9,10,13 for dyads; 1,14,16 for meetings and 4,6,11,15 for small groups.

3.4.1.2. Tromso Social Intelligence Scale

In order to measure the participants' social intelligence levels, the Tromso Social Intelligence Scale (TSIS) ($\alpha = .89$) developed by Silvera et al. (2001) was used in this study. The scale is a self-report scale and there are 21 questions in total. The TSIS has three subscales as social information processing, social skills and social awareness.

The TSIS was adapted to Turkish and it was investigated in terms of reliability and validity by Doğan (2006) and Doğan & Çetin (2009). These researchers used the same data gathered from 719 students attending Sakarya University. They measured construct validity, criterion related validity and reliability of this scale. The factor analysis presented three subscales as in the original version. Correlation coefficient of the Social Skills Inventory with the TSIS was shown to be .51. Besides, Cronbach alpha was found to be .83; test-retest coefficient was .80 and split half reliability coefficient was .75 for the overall scale. The results proved that Turkish version of the TSIS was a valid and reliable instrument to measure social intelligence.

3.4.1.3. Cultural Intelligence Scale

The Cultural Intelligence Scale developed by Ang et al. (2007) was administered in order to assess learners' cultural intelligence levels. The CIS is a seven-point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” and “strongly agree” and it includes 20 items in total. Additionally, the questionnaire has four subscales of cultural

intelligence; 4 items for meta-cognitive CQ (α = .76) (items 1, 2, 3, and 4), 6 items for cognitive CQ (α = .84) (items 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10), 5 items for motivational (CQ α = .76) (items 11, 12, 13, 14, and 15), and 5 items for behavioral CQ (α = .83) (items 16, 17, 18, 19, and 20).

The adaptation of CIS to Turkish was conducted by İlhan and Çetin (2014). They managed reliability and validity measurements of the scale with 1104 university students. After translation work was completed, language equivalence results showed that the correlation between Turkish and English form was .98 for total items, .91 for Metacognition, .96 for Cognition, .94 for Motivation and .91 for Behaviour subscales. This meant that the language equivalence between two languages was succeeded. Explanatory and confirmatory factor analysis also showed Turkish version of CIS had four subscales as in the original version.

İlhan and Çetin (2014) measured concurrent validity and they found that correlation between Turkish version of CIS and Intercultural Sensitivity Scale was .61 and the correlation between Turkish version of CIS and Tromso Social Intelligence Scale was .44. They also used internal consistency and test-retest reliability for calculating reliability and corrected item total correlation to calculate item discrimination. The results presented that internal consistency coefficient was .85 and test-retest reliability was .81. As for item analysis, corrected item-total correlations were found to be between .33 and .64. These findings suggested that Turkish version of CIS is a valid and reliable instrument for measuring university students' cultural intelligence.

3.4.1.4. Attitude Scale

In the scope of the survey, five items from Gardner (1985) were utilized in order to find out participants' attitude. The participants were required to rate the sentence that best describes them by marking a number from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The questionnaire was originally in English, but it was applied in respondents' native language Turkish. Turkish version has been verified by Bektaş-Çetinkaya (2005) (Cronbach's alpha= .74).

3.4.1.5. Anxiety Scale

The scale with 12 items that was used by Yashima (2002) was preferred to assess the participants' degree of communication anxiety. They were asked to write a percentage between 0% (do not feel anxiety at all) and 100% (always feel anxiety). Like

in the WTC scale, anxiety scale also included the same communication contexts and types of receivers. As in the attitude scale, Turkish version of anxiety scale modified by Bektaş-Çetinkaya (2005) was adopted (Cronbach's alpha= .93).

3.5. Data Analysis

At the beginning, all the information gathered through the scales were checked, and the surveys that were not fully replied by the respondents were excluded from the analysis. Because of the fact that this study is a quantitative one, the quantitative data were analyzed by using statistical analysis software program SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) version 16.0. In SPSS, descriptive statistics, variances, paired samples t-test, Tukey, and regression analysis were used. Initially, descriptive statistics were used to analyze background information questions. Then, t-tests were used to compare participants and between two types of t-tests, paired-samples t-test was chosen. The reason was that, paired-samples t-test allows the researcher "to compare two sets of scores obtained from the same group" (Dörnyei, 2007; p. 215). With the help of t-tests, students were categorized into two groups in terms of their departments, genders, ages and English-speaking country experiences. Following this, WTC levels for each group of students were provided along with total number of participants (N), the means of the two variables compared (M), the standart deviations (Sd) and the t-values.

In order to compare students' mean scores for each variable with regard to their grades, one-way ANOVA was implemented. As stated by Chalmer (1987), though ANOVA stands for "analysis of variance", it is used to reach conclusions about mean scores, not variances. Besides, one-way ANOVA is employed when one-type of grouping is intended. Following ANOVA, Tukey test was conducted because it allows the researcher "to compare each pair of conditions to see if their difference is significant" (Hinton, 2014; p. 136). As a last step, it was aimed to explore the relationship WTC and social intelligence, cultural intelligence, anxiety and attitude. Hence, multiple regression analysis was utilized in order to show the association between dependent variable (WTC) and independent variables (social intelligence, cultural intelligence, anxiety, and attitude).

3.6. Chapter Summary

This chapter aimed to give detailed information about the methodological approach followed in this study. The chapter began with the justification of research

design and continuned with the explanation of research setting, participants and data collection procedure. In the following part, each research instrument adopted was described in depth. Finally, data analysis procedure and limitations of the study were highlighted.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of statistical analyses of the data gathered from 349 ELT and ELL students through questionnaires. First, the demographic profile of the participants are presented. Then, statistical analysis results showing if participants' WTC, cultural intelligence, social intelligence, anxiety levels and attitudes change depending on their demographic profiles are given under seperate subtitles. Following this, regression analysis results are presented to show the correlation between WTC and other variables.

4.1. Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

The survey utilized in present study was administered to 349 students from English Language Teaching and English Language and Literature departments during 2016-2017 academic year.

Table 2. Demographic Characteristics of the Participants (N=349)

		f	%
Program	ELL	204	58.5
	ELT	145	41.5
Gender	Female	270	77.4
	Male	79	22.6
Age	17-25	318	91.1
	26-31	31	8.9
English-speaking country	Yes	40	11.5
	No	309	88.5
Grade	1. year	122	35.0
	2. year	94	26.9
	3. year	80	22.9
	4. year	53	15.2

As indicated in Table 2, among all the participants, 204 (58.5%) of them were studying at ELL and the remaining 145 (41.5%) were studying at ELT department. Out of 349 participants, 270 (77.4%) students were female and 79 (22.6%) of them were

male. The dominance of female students is a usual situation in language classes in Turkey. A great many students, 318 (91.1%) of them, were between 17-25 while 31 (8.9%) students were between 26-31. Among all the participants, 40 (11.5%) students expressed that they have been to an English-speaking country before, but the majority of them, (N=309; 88.5%) stated that they have never been to foreign country where English is spoken. The survey was applied to students from all grades and the distribution of them is as following; 122 (35.0%) participants were first year, 94 (26.9%) of them were second year, 80 (22.9%) were third year, and the remaining 53 (15.2%) were fourth year students.

4.2. WTC in Relation to Demographic Characteristics

In order to explore whether demographic profiles of participants affect their WTC levels or not, independent samples t-test was conducted.

Table 3. *Independent Samples t-test Results for the Comparison of Groups in terms of their majors, genders, ages and overseas experience*

	Major	**N**	**M**	**Sd.**	**t**
WTC	ELL	204	84.5490	23.29322	1.368
	ELT	145	81.1931	21.53108	
	Gender	**N**	**M**	**Sd.**	**t**
WTC	Female	270	82.3296	21.66093	-1.262
	Male	79	85.9747	25.52725	
	Age	**N**	**M**	**Sd.**	**t**
WTC	17-25	318	81.7956	22.01288	**-3.661***
	26-31	31	97.0968	24.24370	
	Overseas Experience	**N**	**M**	**Sd.**	**t**
WTC	Yes	40	94.6000	17.43677	**3.456***
	No	309	81.6731	22.79767	

As can be understood from the Table 3, mean WTC level of ELL students was 84.55 whereas the mean level of ELT students was 81.20. The average of all the students' WTC level was 83 out of 120. This shows that students had high levels of WTC levels (M=83). However, neither the majors of students nor their genders created a meaningful difference on their WTC levels. However, the students aged between 17-25 had a mean of 81.80 while the others aged between 26-31 have 97.10. The calculated

t value (t=-3.661, p<.05) which aimed at testing the significance of difference between age groups indicates that there is a significant difference. Accordingly, the WTC levels of students aged 18- 25 years are significantly lower than those aged 26 to 31.

Additionally, the t-test results showed that the students that have been to an English-speaking country have a mean score of 94.60 and the ones that have never been to an English- speaking country have a mean of 81.67. The t value obtained (t=3.456, p<.05) showed that the difference between groups is statistically significant. This finding proves that WTC levels of students with an overseas experience are significantly higher than the level of those without an overseas experience.

In order to compare the difference in WTC levels with regard to students' grades, one-way variance analysis (ANOVA) was conducted.

Table 4. Number, Mean and Standard Deviation Values of Participants' WTC Levels According to Their Grades

	Grade	**N**	**M**	**Sd.**
WTC	1. Grade	122	81.4754	21.98430
	2. Grade	94	79.3723	23.11774
	3. Grade	80	84.9250	21.50759
	4. Grade	53	91.0566	23.15451

As presented in Table 4, fourth grade students had the highest mean level (91.06), which is followed by third grades (84.93), first grades 81.48, and second grades (79.37) consecutively. Consequently, fourth-grade students was found to have the highest WTC levels. This can be based on the fact that as they were senior students and had more experience of speaking in the target language, they were more eager to use English in oral communication.

Table 5. Results of Variance Analysis regarding WTC Levels of Students as to Their Grades

	Grade	**KT**	**SD**	**KO**	**F**	**p**
WTC	Between groups	5248.870	3	1749.623	**3.497***	**.016**
	Intragroup	172604.775	345	500.304		
	Total	177853.645	348			

In Table 5, F value which shows whether there is a significant difference among the mean scores of the group was found to be high (F=3.497; p<.05). Thus, it indicates there is a significant difference (p=.016) between groups in terms of their WTC levels. The reason for this significant difference can be linked to the difference between third and fourth graders and those of second and first graders.

Table 6. TUKEY test results regarding WTC mean scores of students across different grade levels

Dependant Variable	(I) Grade	(J) Grade	Difference between means(I-J)	p
WTC	4. grade	1. grade	**9.58119***	**.047**
		2. grade	**11.68426***	**.013**

The results of TUKEY test which was implemented to detect the source of difference between mean scores of each group are also given below in Table 6. When the difference between WTC levels of students across different grade levels was explored, it was found that there is a significant difference between fourth grade students and first, second grade students as seen in the table below. Hereunder, WTC levels of fourth-year students are significantly higher than both first and second-year students.

4.3. Cultural Intelligence in Relation to Demographic Characteristics

With the aim of presenting whether participants' cultural intelligence levels differ by their majors, genders, ages, and overseas experience, an independent samples t-test was conducted. As shown in Table 7, no significant difference between groups in terms of their majors and ages in any subscale of cultural intelligence was observed.

Table 7. Independent Samples t-test Results Regarding Difference Between Students' Cultural Intelligence Levels in terms of Their Majors and Ages

Subscales	**Major**	**N**	**M**	**Ss.**	**t**	**p**
Meta-cognitive	ELL	204	22.4608	4.83149	1.945	.053
	ELT	145	21.4345	4.89304		
Cognitive	ELL	204	23.3922	7.62373	-.918	.359
	ELT	145	24.1448	7.44515		
Motivational	ELL	204	26.1961	7.68665	.221	.825
	ELT	145	26.0207	6.73039		
Behavioral	ELL	204	25.7402	7.34150	.139	.889
	ELT	145	25.6345	6.46552		
Subscales	**Age**	**N**	**M**	**Ss.**	**t**	**p**
Meta-cognitive	17-25	318	22.1887	4.67042	1.447	.157
	26-31	31	20.4516	6.52093		
Cognitive	17-25	318	23.8522	7.35363	.962	.343
	26-31	31	22.1935	9.32530		
Motivational	17-25	318	26.3836	7.04228	1.721	.095
	26-31	31	23.4516	9.22980		
Behavioral	17-25	318	25.9182	6.66406	1.431	.162
	26-31	31	23.4194	9.50008		

In order to see if participants' cultural intelligence (CQ) levels differ basing on their genders, an independent samples t-test was conducted.

Table 8. Independent Samples t-test Results Regarding Difference Between Students' Cultural Intelligence Levels in terms of Their Genders

Subscale	Gender	N	M	Sd.	t	p
Meta-cognitive	Female	270	22.0704	4.80615	.255	.799
	Male	79	21.9114	5.13956		
Cognitive	Female	270	23.1444	7.20939	**-2.585***	**.010**
	Male	79	25.6203	8.37625		
Motivational	Female	270	26.1444	7.08613	.100	.920
	Male	79	26.0506	8.01585		
Behavioral	Female	270	25.7704	6.76140	.366	.715
	Male	79	25.4430	7.72732		

When examining cultural intelligence (CQ) in the sense of gender, it was seen that there was not a significant difference between groups in metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioral cultural intelligence. However, in cognitive CQ subscale, the mean score of female participants was 23.14 and male participants was 25.62. The t-value calculated to test the significance of mean scores between groups, pointed out that the difference between groups was meaningful ($t=-2.585$, $p<.05$). With reference to this finding, cognitive levels of female participants were significantly lower than cognitive levels of male participants as shown in Table 8.

Table 9. Independent Samples t-test Results Regarding Difference Between Students' Cultural Intelligence Levels in terms of Their English-speaking country experience

Subscale	Have you ever been to an English-speaking country before?	N	M	Sd.	t	p
Meta-cognitive	Yes	40	23.9250	4.12241	**3.010***	**.004**
	No	309	21.7896	4.91860		
Cognitive	Yes	40	26.7750	7.99194	**2.760***	**.006**
	No	309	23.3074	7.41002		
Motivational	Yes	40	29.2750	5.93982	**3.462***	**.001**
	No	309	25.7152	7.36236		
Behavioral	Yes	40	28.6500	6.60051	**2.873***	**.004**
	No	309	25.3139	6.94799		

The relationship between cultural intelligence levels of students and their experiences of visiting an English-speaking country deduced satisfactory results. Table 9 reveals that that students with overseas experience have a mean score of 23.93 in metacognitive CQ, whereas other students' score was 21.79. Probing the significance of difference between groups' scores, t-value indicates that groups' scores differed from each other significantly ($t=3.010$, $p<.05$). This result shows that meta-cognitive cultural

intelligence level of students with overseas experience is significantly higher than the students without that experience.

In cognitive CQ subscale, participants having been to an English-speaking country got a mean of 26.78 while the rest had 23.31. The t-value, which expresses the comparison of mean scores for two different groups, expressed a meaningful difference between mean levels of groups ($t=2.760$, $p<.05$). Resultantly, cognitive cultural intelligence level of students with overseas experience is significantly higher than the students without an English-speaking country experience.

Participants with an English-speaking country experience were found to have 29.28 mean scores in motivational CQ, but the rest without that experience had a score of 25.72 motivational CQ level. Obtained t-value hinted that the difference between averages of groups was statistically significant. Thus, it can be asserted that motivational levels of students who had been to an English-speaking country was significantly greater than those who had never been to one.

When it comes to the behavioral CQ subscale, 40 students with an English-speaking country experience had 28.65 mean score, and the remaining 309 students had 25.31 mean score. According to the t-value, there was a significant difference between mean scores of groups. Therefore, it is proved that behavioural CQ levels of students with an English-speaking country experience are significantly larger than without an English-speaking country experience.

So as to reveal how participants' cultural intelligence levels differ by their grades, one-way variance analysis (ANOVA) was implemented, the findings of which are demonstrated in Table 10. As presented in Table 10, the highest mean score in meta-cognitive CQ belongs to third grade students with 23.31 and this was followed by fourth-graders with 22.34, first-graders with 22.07, and second-graders with 20.72, consecutively.

Table 10. Numbers, Mean Scores, and Standard Deviation Values Regarding Cultural Intelligence Levels of Students in terms of Their Grades

Subscale	grade	N	M	Sd.
Meta-cognitive	1. Grade	122	22.0738	4.41105
	2. Grade	94	20.7234	5.32675
	3. Grade	80	23.3125	4.54957
	4. Grade	53	22.3396	5.09503
Cognitive	1. Grade	122	23.2951	6.62788
	2. Grade	94	23.0000	8.01075
	3. Grade	80	24.1625	7.95150
	4. Grade	53	25.2075	8.02246
Motivational	1. Grade	122	26.3934	6.45206
	2. Grade	94	24.6809	8.11372
	3. Grade	80	27.2250	7.22334
	4. Grade	53	26.3962	7.50984
Behavioural	1. Grade	122	26.1639	6.28833
	2. Grade	94	23.8404	7.73110
	3. Grade	80	26.1500	6.76757
	4. Grade	53	27.2264	6.94661

In cognitive subscale, fourth grade students had the highest mean score which was 25.21. Subsequently, third-graders got 24.16, first-graders got 23.30 and second-graders got 23.00 mean scores. Like in metacognitive subscale, third-grade students received the greatest score which was 27.23 for motivational CQ. Following them, fourth-graders had 26.40 mean score, first-graders had 26.39 mean score and second-grade students had 24.68 mean score. Similar to cognitive CQ, fourth- grade students had the highest mean of 27.23 for motivational CQ, which was followed by first-graders with 26.16, third-graders with 26.15, and second-graders with 23.84 mean scores.

Table 11. Variance Analysis Results Regarding Students' Cultural Intelligence Levels in terms of their Grades

Subscale	Grades	SST	SD	SSR	F	p
Meta-cognitive	Intergroups	297.369	3	99.123	**4.286***	**.005**
	Intragroup	7978.219	345	23.125		
	Total	8275.587	348			
Cognitive	Intergroups	203.620	3	67.873	1.193	.312
	Intragroup	19624.982	345	56.884		
	Total	19828.602	348			
Motivational	Intergroups	305.532	3	101.844	1.929	.125
	Intragroup	18214.170	345	52.795		
	Total	18519.702	348			
Behavioural	Intergroups	490.994	3	163.665	**3.428***	**.017**
	Intragroup	16470.811	345	47.741		
	Total	16961.805	348			

As Table 11 suggests, F value obtained in cognitive (F=1.193; p>.05) and motivational sub-dimensions of cultural intelligence (F=1.929; p>.05) does not imply a statistically meaningful difference between groups for these sub-dimensions. Nonetheless, F value calculated for meta-cognitive CQ (F=4.286; p<.05), and behavioural CQ (F=3.428; p<.05) indicates a significant difference between groups.

For the sake of detecting what causes difference between average scores of groups, a TUKEY test was executed and its results are given in Table 12. When the difference between students' average scores for meta-cognitive CQ is searched, a significant difference between third-graders and second-graders were observed. This finding suggests that meta-cognitive cultural intelligence level of third grade students is significantly higher than second grade students.

Table 12. TUKEY Test Results Regarding Students' Cultural Intelligence Levels in terms of their Grades

Dependant Variable	(I) Grade	(J) Grade	Difference between mean scores(I-J)	p
Meta-cognitive	3. Grade	2. Grade	**2.58910***	**.003**
Behavioural	4. Grade	2. Grade	**3.38599***	**.024**

Investigating the mean scores for behavioural cultural intelligence, Table 12 shows a significant difference between fourth and second grade students. Hence, it can be concluded that fourth-graders' behavioural cultural intelligence levels are significantly greater than second-graders'.

4.4. Social Intelligence in Relation to Demographic Characteristics

With a view to revealing how students' social intelligence levels differ depending on their majors, genders, ages and English-speaking country experience, independent samples t-test was utilized.

Table 13. Independent Samples t-test Results Regarding Difference Between Students' Social Intelligence Levels in terms of Their Majors

Subscale	Program	N	M	Sd.	t	p
Social Information Processing	ELL	204	17.7941	4.95465	**-2.114***	**.035**
	ELT	145	18.8621	4.42314		
Social Skills	ELL	204	16.1471	4.15084	-1.156	.248
	ELT	145	16.6483	3.75376		
Social Awareness	ELL	204	17.5686	5.23725	.314	.753
	ELT	145	17.3931	4.99624		

There is not a significant difference between groups in social skills and social awareness subscales based on their majors as seen in Table 13. However, in social information processing subscale, mean score of ELL students was 17.79, and of ELT students was 18.86. The t-value was calculated in order to test the significance of difference between mean scores of groups, and it revealed a significant difference (t=-2.114, p<.05). Hence, it is acceptable to assert that social information processing levels of ELL students are significantly lower than ELT students.

Table 14. Independent Samples t-test Results Regarding Difference Between Students' Social Intelligence Levels in terms of Their Genders and Ages

Subscale	**Gender**	**N**	**M**	**Sd.**	**t**	**p**
Social Information Processing	Female	270	18.2444	4.58455	.048	.962
	Male	79	18.2152	5.36291		
Social Skills	Female	270	16.3519	3.83661	-.030	.976
	Male	79	16.3671	4.51260		
Social Awareness	Female	270	17.3037	4.99036	-1.293	.197
	Male	79	18.1519	5.57257		
Subscale	**Age**	**N**	**M**	**Ss.**	**t**	**p**
Social Information Processing	17-25	318	18.0472	4.56440	-1.871	.070
	26-31	31	20.1935	6.22586		
Social Skills	17-25	318	16.2044	3.82162	-1.747	.090
	26-31	31	17.9032	5.28113		
Social Awareness	17-25	318	17.4717	4.86967	-.199	.844
	26-31	31	17.7419	7.40706		

Demographic variables such as students' genders and ages were found to yield no significant difference between groups in any subscales of social intelligence as seen on Table 14.

Table 15. Independent Samples t-test Results Regarding Difference Between Students' Social Intelligence Levels in terms of English-speaking country experience

Subscale	**Have you ever been to an English-speaking country?**	**N**	**M**	**Sd.**	**t**	**p**
Social Information Processing	Yes	40	19.2000	5.17489	1.359	.175
	No	309	18.1133	4.70253		
Social Skills	Yes	40	16.6250	4.83941	.383	.704
	No	309	16.3204	3.87771		
Social Awareness	Yes	40	19.4250	6.09282	**2.171***	**.035**
	No	309	17.2460	4.95083		

The t-test results showed that the groups with and without an English-speaking country experience did not show significant difference in social information processing and social skills subscales. On the other hand, students having been to an English-speaking country before had a mean score of 19.43 whereas the others not having been

to such a country had 17.25. Measured t-value displayed a significant difference between groups (t=2.171, p<.05) as presented in Table 15. Consequently, students with an English-speaking country experience have significantly higher social awareness levels compared to the students without an English-speaking country experience.

Table 16. Numbers, Mean Scores, and Standard Deviation Values Regarding Social Intelligence Levels of Students in terms of Their Grades

Subscale	Grade	N	M	Sd.
Social Information Processing	1. Grade	122	17.8525	4.49917
	2. Grade	94	18.2447	4.70115
	3. Grade	80	18.2875	4.85797
	4. Grade	53	19.0377	5.32759
Social Skills	1. Grade	122	16.3689	3.89787
	2. Grade	94	16.4362	3.92828
	3. Grade	80	15.7500	3.61257
	4. Grade	53	17.0943	4.77278
Social Awareness	1. Grade	122	17.2705	5.04695
	2. Grade	94	18.0106	5.00858
	3. Grade	80	16.7125	4.88655
	4. Grade	53	18.2830	5.80244

One way variance analysis (ANOVA) was implemented in order to show the difference between groups' social intelligence levels depending on their grades. Viewing Table 16, it is noticed that for social information processing subscale, the fourth grade students owned the highest mean score of 19.04, and this was followed by third-graders with 18.29, second-graders with 18.24, and first-graders with 17.85, consecutively.

As for social skills subscale, the highest mean score belonged to fourth-graders with 17.09. Second-graders had 16.44 mean score, first-graders had 16.37 mean score, and third-graders had 15.75 mean score. Similar to the other two subscales, fourth grade participants held the greatest mean score of 18.28 in social awareness subscale. This was followed by second-graders, first-graders, and third-graders with 18.01, 17.27, and 16.71 mean scores respectively.

Table 17. Variance Analysis Results Regarding Students' Social Intelligence Levels in terms of Their Grades

Subscales	Grade	KT	sd	KO	F	p
Social Information Processing	Intergroups	52.232	3	17.411	.766	.514
	Intragroup	7845.029	345	22.739		
	Total	7897.261	348			
Social Skills	Intergroups	58.896	3	19.632	1.234	.297
	Intragroup	5489.047	345	15.910		
	Total	5547.943	348			
Social Awareness	Intergroups	113.038	3	37.679	1.436	.232
	Intragroup	9052.205	345	26.238		
	Total	9165.244	348			

The variance analysis about the difference between groups' social intelligence levels according to their grades showed that in none of these subscales, there was a significant difference between groups with regard to their grades as shown in Table 17 .

4.5. Anxiety in Relation to Demographic Characteristics

Independent samples t-test that aimed to display the difference between learners' anxiety levels in terms of their majors, ages and an English-speaking country experience.

Table 18. Independent Samples t-test Results Regarding Difference Between Students' Anxiety Levels in terms of Their Majors, Genders, and English-speaking Country Experience

Dimension Anxiety	Program	N	M	Sd.	t	p
	ELL	204	48.6667	32.41049	.452	.652
	ELT	145	47.1103	30.71308		
Anxiety	**Age**	**N**	**M**	**Sd.**	**t**	**p**
	17-25	318	48.9025	30.37733	1.273	.212
	26-31	31	38.9677	42.41421		
Anxiety	**Have you ever been to an English-speaking country?**	**N**	**M**	**Sd.**	**t**	**p**
	Yes	40	39.7250	35.47118	-1.765	.078
	No	309	49.0939	31.05819		

As Table 18 displays, no significant difference between two groups was observed with with regards to their majors, ages and an English-speaking country experience.

Table 19. Independent Samples t-test Results Regarding Difference Between Students' Anxiety Levels in terms of Their Genders

Dimension	Gender	N	M	Sd.	t	p
Anxiety	Female	270	49.8630	30.22456	**2.018***	**.044**
	Male	79	41.7215	35.71430		

On the other hand, t-test results in Table 19 showed that female participants had a mean of 49.86 anxiety level, but male students had 41.72 mean score of anxiety. T-value which tests the significance of the difference between mean scores of the groups ($t=2.018$, $p<.05$) indicated a meaningful difference. Hence, female students are shown to have significantly higher anxiety levels than male students.

Table 20. Numbers, Mean Scores, and Standard Deviation Values Regarding Anxiety Levels of Students in terms of Their Grades

Dimension	Grade	N	M	Sd.
Anxiety	1. Grade	122	47.7869	30.15915
	2. Grade	94	53.4362	30.29268
	3. Grade	80	47.2500	31.95151
	4. Grade	53	40.1132	35.92281

Conducted in an attempt to set forth the difference between students' anxiety levels in reference to their grades, one-way ANOVA analysis in Table 20 proves that second grade students had the highest anxiety mean with 53.44. This is pursued by first-graders with 47.79, third-graders with 47.25, and fourth-graders with 40.11 mean scores.

Table 21. Variance Analysis Results Regarding Students' Social Intelligence Levels in terms of Their Grades

Dimension	Grade	KT	sd	KO	F	p
Anxiety	Intergroups	6124.963	3	2041.654	2.053	.106
	Intragroup	343153.897	345	994.649		
	Total	349278.860	348			

Variance analysis, the results of which are shown in Table 20, manifests that there was not a significant difference between groups' anxiety levels in terms of their grades.

4.6. Attitudes Towards Language in Relation to Demographic Characteristics

So as to demonstrate how students' attitude toward English differ from each other depending on their majors, independent samples t-test was employed.

Table 22. Independent Samples t-test Results Regarding Difference Between Students' Attitude Levels in terms of Their Majors and Genders.

Dimension	Major	N	M	Sd.	t	p
Attitude	ELL	204	28.2990	5.72814	-1.009	.314
	ELT	145	28.8966	5.04387		
Dimension	**Gender**	**N**	**M**	**Ss.**	**t**	**p**
Attitude	Female	270	28.5815	5.01437	.184	.855
	Male	79	28.4304	6.78362		

Consequently, any significant difference between groups in terms of their majors and genders was not observed as shown in Table 22.

Table 23. Independent Samples t-test Results Regarding Difference Between Students' Attitude Levels in terms of Their Ages

Dimension	Age	N	M	Sd.	t	p
Attitude	17-25	318	28.3491	5.48478	**-2.186***	**.029**
	26-31	31	30.5806	4.75236		

Table 23 shows the results of independent samples t-test analysis regarding the attitudes of two age groups revealed that students aged between 17-25 had a mean score of 28.35 whereas 26-31 years old students had 30.58 mean score. T-value ($t=-2.186$, $p<.05$) signalled a statistically significant difference between groups. According to this finding, students aged between 17-25 have significantly lower attitude levels than students who are between 26-31 years.

Table 24. Independent Samples t-test Results Regarding Difference Between Students' Attitude Levels in terms of Their English-speaking Country Experience

Dimension	Have you ever been to an English-speaking country?	N	M	Sd.	t	p
Attitude	Yes	40	30.1500	3.06803	**1.983***	**.048**
	No	309	28.3398	5.66125		

The analysis of t-test also demonstrated how students' experience of going to an English-speaking country affected their attitude levels. Table 24 displays that students with an English-speaking country experience had a higher mean score (M= 30,15) than students without that experience (M=28,34). T-value (t=1.983, p<.05) unfolded a significant difference between groups. As a result, attitude levels of students who have been to an English-speaking country are significantly higher than those who have never experienced it as presented in Table 24.

Table 25. Numbers, Mean Scores, and Standard Deviation Values Regarding Attitude Levels of Students in terms of Their Grades

Dimension	Grade	N	M	Sd.
Attitude	1. Grade	122	28.6311	5.37856
	2. Grade	94	27.8085	5.66688
	3. Grade	80	28.5875	5.45103
	4. Grade	53	29.6038	5.20480

One-way ANOVA analysis was employed to exhibit how participants' attitude levels differ in terms of their grades. As it can be seen in Table 25, fourth-graders have the highest mean score, which is 29.60. The following scores 28.59; 28.63 and 27.81 was obtained by the third, first and second grade students, respectively.

Table 26. Variance Analysis Results Regarding Students' Attitude Levels in terms of Their Grades

Dimension	Grade	KT	sd	KO	F	p
Attitude	Intergroups	111.448	3	37.149	1.251	.291
	Intragroup	10243.022	345	29.690		
	Total	10354.470	348			

According to the variance analysis results, any significant difference between attitude levels of students in terms of their grades was not obtained as in Table 26.

4.7. Results of Multiple Regression Analysis

Multiple regression analysis was performed in order to examine to what extent other variables predict students' WTC levels. When binary and partial correlations between dependant variable (WTC) and predictor variables are examined, the following assumptions are obtained. As shown in Table 27, multiple regression analysis results for WTC scale showed that the coefficient of the model was significant (R=.600, p<.01).

Table 27. Standard Multiple Regression Analysis to Predict Students' WTC Levels

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	26.406	7.717		3.422	.001
	Social information processing	.094	.247	.020	.381	.703
	Social Awareness	.106	.222	.024	.478	.633
	Metacognitive	.165	.280	.036	.591	.555
	Cognitive	.404	.175	.135	2.315	.021
	Motivational	.010	.211	.003	.049	.961
	Behavioural	.042	.219	.013	.194	.846
	Attitude	1.584	.237	.382	6.696	.000
	Anxiety	-.138	.035	-.194	-3.994	.000

There was a positive but weak correlation between WTC and social intelligence subscales as follows: WTC and social information processing (r=.247); WTC and social skills (r=.213); WTC and social awareness (r=.325). Cultural intelligence subscales also displayed a positive but weak correlation between WTC. The correlation between meta-cognitive CQ and WTC was (r=.247). It was (r=.339) between cognitive CQ and WTC, (r=.332) between motivational CQ and WTC, and (r=.322) between behavioural CQ and WTC. However, a positive and moderate correlation between attitudes towards learning English and WTC (r=.543) was obtained considering the regression results. Besides, the correlation between anxiety and WTC (r=.402) was found to be negative and moderate.

Hence, predictive variables such as social information processing, social skills, social awareness, meta-cognitive, cognitive, motivational, behavioural CQ, attitudes, and anxiety bring out a significant and moderate correlation between students' WTC levels ($R=.600$, $R^2=.361$, $p<.01$).

According to standardized regression coefficient **(β)**, order of importance of predictive variables are as below;

1- Attitudes towards learning English (.377)

2- Anxiety (-.194)

3- Cognitive CQ (.131)

4- Social skills (.059)

5- Meta-cognitive CQ (.040)

6- Motivational CQ (.015)

7- Social awareness (.006)

8- Behavioural CQ (.005)

9- Social information processing (.001)

The t-test, which was implemented to test the significance of regression coefficients reveals that only attitudes towards learning English, anxiety and cognitive CQ variables are observed to be significant predictors of WTC. Other variables were not shown to have significant effect on WTC.

4.8. Chapter Summary

This chapter aimed to give the results of quantitative data analysis implemented through SPSS. The results showed that there was a significant relationship among participants' age, their WTC and attitude levels. Students between 26- 31 years old had higher WTC and attitude levels. English-speaking country experince was also found to be a significant variable creating a significant difference in participants' WTC, attitude, cultural intelligence, and social awareness levels. Hence, students with an English-speaking country experience had higher WTC, attitude, meta-cognitive CQ, cognitive CQ, motivational CQ, behavioural CQ, and social awareness levels. Gender caused a significant relationship only in terms of cognitive CQ and anxiety. Whereas male participants had higher cognitive CQ levels, female participants had higher anxiety levels. Grades of students was influential on students' WTC levels, meta-cognitive CQ, and behavioural CQ levels. Thus, fourth-year students was found to have the highest level of WTC, third-graders had signicantly higher meta-cognitive CQ levels than second-graders, and fourth-grade students had higher behavioural CQ levels than second-grade students. Learners' majors created a significant difference only in a subscale of social intelligence and ELL students had lower social information processing level than ELT students.

Finally, multiple regression analysis results, conducted to assess the association between WTC and other variables, presented the existence of some significant relationships. As a result, WTC was seen to be significantly related to attitudes towards learning English, anxiety, and cognitive CQ subscale. However, there was not a statistically significant relationship between WTC and social intelligence or other subscales of cultural intelligence.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the answers to each research question are explained by comparing the results with the studies in the literature. Besides, the importance of the results for pedagogy are stated along with the further research ideas.

5.1. Conclusions

This study aimed to find out English-major university students' WTC levels, the relationship between WTC and some psychosocial variables, and the relationship between demographic profiles and each variable. Within this context, a regression analysis was conducted to find out what predicts WTC best among variables such as social intelligence, cultural intelligence, anxiety, and attitudes towards learning English. To begin with the WTC level of all participants (N=349), it was found to be high (M=83,00). This finding was similar to Şener's (2014) study conducted with university level Turkish EFL students because their WTC level was also between moderate and high. Similarly, participants of Bektaş Çetinkaya's (2005) study were also more or less willing to communicate. However, it was opposed to Asmalı, Bilkin and Duban's (2015) finding which showed that Turkish students' WTC level was quite low.

In order to investigate whether students' WTC levels are affected by the differences in their personal profiles, they were compared in terms of their demographic information. It was found that their majors did not influence WTC levels notably. It is thought to stem from the fact that both group of students were from an English-major department. Additionally, gender also did not have a significant effect on WTC level. This finding was against Taheryan and Ghonsooly's (2014) research which concluded that males were more willing to communicate.

However, comparison of WTC levels of students with and without English-speaking country experience indicated a significant difference. Students who have been to an English speaking country had significantly higher WTC levels than the ones who

have not. Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide, and Shimizu (2004) obtained a partly similar result. They tested their WTC model with 60 students enrolled in a study-abroad-program and they found that the students communicating with their hosts more frequently were more successful in making interpersonal contacts, making friends, and adjusting to the host country. It shows that being in a foreign country clearly positively influences learners' inclinations towards communicating in the target language. Hence, it is possible to conclude that having a target language country experience contributes to learners' both WTC levels and their social life skills. As for the effect of students' grades, senior students had the highest WTC mean scores and their scores were significantly higher than those of first and second graders. It may be because of the fact that senior students spent more years studying and using English. Therefore, they may feel more comfortable in oral communication in English, that is why they seem more eager to communicate in English.

When the relationship between demographic information and cultural intelligence was examined, all the subscales of cultural intelligence differed significantly based on learners' English-speaking country experiences. Therefore, students who had an experience of visiting an English-speaking country had significantly higher meta-cognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioral cultural intelligence levels. Besides, gender created a significant difference between groups only in cognitive CQ subscale. Third grade students had the highest meta-cognitive and motivational CQ levels, and fourth grade students had the highest cognitive and behavioural CQ levels. Male participants were shown to have significantly higher cognitive cultural intelligence. On the other hand, neither learners' majors nor their ages were significantly related learners' cultural intelligence levels.

The examination of the relationship between learners' demographic profiles and their social intelligence levels indicated the following conclusions. Their genders and ages were not a source of difference in their social intelligence levels. In contrast with this finding, Saxena and Jain (2013) found that female students had higher social intelligence levels than males. Besides, they claimed that participants' major was influential on their social intelligence levels and arts students had higher social intelligence than science students. This is because of the fact that arts students deal with social sciences more whereas science students are more into the numbers and formulas. However, in this research learners' major did not significantly affect their social skills

and social awareness sub-skills. However, ELT department students only had higher social information processing levels than ELL department students. This may be due to the fact that their majors are not very different from each other since they are both related to English language.

Having an English-speaking country experience did not affect social information processing and social skills subscales. On the other hand, having an English-speaking country experience led to a difference in participants' social awareness levels. Students who have experienced being in an English-speaking country were shown to have higher social awareness levels than those who have not. Fourth-graders had the greatest social information processing, social skills, and social awareness mean scores. Nevertheless, social intelligence levels of students from all grades did not differ from each other significantly.

When anxiety is the matter of debate, it was pointed out that participants' majors, ages, and an English-speaking country experience did not create a significant difference on their anxiety level. Gender, however, had quite an important relation with anxiety level. Female students were found to be significantly more anxious than male students. This finding was similar to MacIntyre, Baker, Clement and Donovan's (2002) as boys' anxiety was stable across grades, but girls' anxiety changed across grades. Although students from different grades did not vary significantly across their anxiety levels, it may be beneficial to state that second-graders had the highest mean score of anxiety.

Upon participants' attitudes towards English language, their majors and genders had no considerable influence. This finding opposed to Baker and MacIntyre's (2000) study with immersion and non-immersion students in which they found that gender was influential on attitudes. Accordingly, the male and female immersion students along with the female non-immersion students had similar attitude levels towards French, but the male non-immersion students' attitude levels were lower. Nonetheless, their age groups and English-speaking country experiences hinted the existence of significant difference. Students between 26-31 had significantly higher attitude levels than the ones between 17-25 years. It may be concluded that students between 26-31 are possible to have longer educational lives and may be exposed to more lessons of English. In this case, it may be appropriate to state that total years of English education has an impact on learner's attitudes towards learning English.

Additionally, these elder participants may have a business life and when compared to younger students, they may be more conscious of the importance of English for their career. Hence, they may develop more positive attitudes towards learning English. Besides, students with an English-speaking country experience have significantly greater attitude levels than the students without that experience. This result may be based on learners' prejudice against target culture. In Turkey, most students do not have the chance of visiting a foreign country until they graduate or get a job, which means until when they are adults. For this reason, they may not have a comprehensive information about the target culture or may not show an interest towards it. However, students with an English-speaking country experience may well know the pleasure of being there and self-confidence of surviving in a different country. Even though no significant difference between groups in terms of their grades was obtained, fourth-grade students had the highest mean score of attitudes, which may be linked to their age factor again.

With the aim of discovering whether there is a significant correlation between WTC and other variables mentioned above as well as finding the best predictor of WTC, multiple regression analysis was implemented. As a conclusion, it was ascertained that the best predictors of WTC was attitudes towards learning English, anxiety and cognitive CQ, respectively. There was not a significant correlation between WTC and other variables. These findings were also replicated in previous studies. To begin with the attitudes, Kim (2004) asserted the existence of an indirect relationship between WTC and attitudes towards English. Additionally, according to Yu (2009) attitudes towards learning situation and according to Ghonsooly et al. (2012) attitudes towards international community were the significant predictors of WTC. Furthermore, Bektaş Çetinkaya (2005) and Jung (2011) obtained a correlation between learners' attitudes and personalities. Bektaş Çetinkaya (2005) also showed that attitudes towards the international community and learners' perceived linguistic self-confidence were directly related to each other.

In this research, lower language anxiety was shown to lead to higher WTC levels, which was also confirmed in previous studies. For example, in their L2 WTC model, MacIntyre and Charos (1996) proved the direct impression of anxiety on WTC. With a study handled with immersion and non-immersion students, Baker and MacIntyre (2000) found a significant relationship between WTC in French and anxiety

in French. Similarly, Yashima (2002) and Hashimato also acquired the same correlation between lower anxiety and higher WTC in their studies in which MacIntyre's (1994) WTC model was utilized. MacIntyre and Doucette (2010) also stated that their study with high school participants in Canada presented a correlation between higher WTC levels and lower language anxiety. This finding was also verified by Peng and Woodrow (2010) who concluded that less anxiety and a relaxing classroom atmosphere increases WTC levels. Hence, the less anxious students are, the more eager they feel to communicate.

Nevertheless, in this study, apart from cognitive cultural intelligence subscale, no significant correlation between social and cultural intelligences and WTC has been gained. As mentioned in previous parts, WTC was shown to be both a state-level and trait-level variable (MacIntyre et al., 1999). Refraining from an overspeculation, the lack of a correlation between social, cultural intelligences and WTC might be based upon this state-level or trait-level nature of WTC. Since no single publication is available in the literature exploring the relationship between these intelligence types and WTC, prospective research on this subject might disambiguate.

5.2. Implications of the Study

The importance of WTC construct in foreign language learning has been emphasized by various researchers during the recent years as mentioned before. Additionally, the predictors of this construct have also widely been studied. This study also aimed to find out WTC levels of ELT and ELL department students and to explore what affects their WTC levels. With this aim, differently from previous studies, their social intelligence, cultural intelligence levels were regressed with WTC as well as their anxiety and attitude levels.

The results of this study indicated that students had high levels of WTC. This is probably because of the fact that they were all from an English-major department and they will be make a living of their English knowledge in their future. Not only their WTC levels but also their cultural intelligence levels were most affected by learners' English-speaking country experience. Having a knowledge about the target culture clearly enhance their willingness to communicate and cultural intelligence. Additionally, cognitive CQ was found to be a significant predictor of WTC in L2. This means that knowing about the norms of a target culture is effective for WTC levels.

Depending on this, it may be proposed that English-specific departments should encourage their students to study in an English-speaking country and should provide them with sufficient opportunities to help them manage this. Most of the students at state universities are either unaware of the importance of learning about their target culture or they lack necessary financial situation. Hence, universities, especially English language departments should inform their students more about local and international scholarships to allow them study or visit English-speaking countries. In addition to this, bilateral exchange agreements between Turkish and English universities may be done as in the case with European countries.

This study also revealed that students' attitudes toward learning English has a crucial role to predict their WTC levels. However, a majority of language students in Turkey do not have much chance to communicate in English outside their school, and only a limited number of students experience studying their target culture during their school years. Hence, in order to ensure high levels of WTC, students should be encouraged to have positive attitudes for learning English. If their studying of English becomes meaningful, they become more motivated to learn. Furthermore, if learners are enabled to have positive attitudes, their levels of anxiety will be reduced. When their affective filters are eliminated, their learning process will be easier. To achieve this, teachers should create relaxing and enjoyable communication atmosphere in the class. Besides, learners should be introduced to their target culture or they should be given cultural tasks. Moreover, they may be encouraged to find an English-speaking friend online and exchange cultural facts with each other. By this way, their knowledge of English will be more meaningful and they will have positive attitude toward their target language and culture. This is because when they have communication opportunities in their target culture and realize their own potentials in communicating in English, they may feel more comfortable and confident for communication.

Another predictor of WTC found in this study was students' anxiety. As expected, the literature abounds with studies showing the negative correlation between anxiety and performance. Among other skills, speaking is the major source of anxiety in language classes (Palacios, 1998). Thus, teachers should be the facilitators of students to overcome their fears (Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope, 1986) by creating less stressful classroom environment and approach their learners sympathetically (Tercan & Dikilitaş, 2015). While doing this, teachers should not be in favour of punishing or humiliating

their students for their mistakes which make them feel uncomfortable. Instead, they should not emphasize the mistake but appreciate the message that the students try to convey. Error correction may be achieved without being noticed through recasts or repetitions.

5.3. Limitations of the Study

The limitations of this study mainly stems from self-report scales and generalization of the survey results. First of all, the aim of this study is to investigate relationships between variable, that is why self-reported questionnaires were used for data collection. However, self-reported questionnaires has the disadvantage of relying on respondents' understanding, honesty and self-reflection abilities as well as the difficulty of controlling them.

Furthermore, since convenient sampling is employed, the results of this study only provide some general information about English Language and Literature and English Language Teaching students at Erciyes University during 2016-2017 academic year. Hence, the results may be generalized to this context and can give some information about Erciyes University ELL and ELT department students. However, the results of this study cannot be generalized to represent all the English language departments in other Turkish universities.

5.4. Suggestions for Further Research

This study was conducted by comparing two English language department students' WTC levels, that is why both groups' WTC levels were relatively high. This result, for sure, cannot be generalized to any group of EFL learners and it may be a good idea to compare students from English-major and non-English major departments. Moreover, this study may be replicated with prep class students who also study English intensively.

With the aim of adding something novel to the literature, this study aimed to handle WTC from a different point of view. Thus, the effect of two important parameters in language education, social and cultural intelligence on WTC was explored. Although the relationship between WTC and emotinal intelligence has been researched recently, it was not linked to social and cultural intelligence in a single study. However, only one subscale of cultural intelligence, cognitive CQ, was found to be a predictor of WTC. This may result from the low number of students with an English-

speaking country experience, or from the setting itself. Thus, it is strongly recommended to research the relationship between WTC and social, cultural intelligences in a different university setting, even maybe comparing a Turkish and a foreign university students.

In this study, quantitative research methods were employed. Mixed methods research approach may be used in further studies and quantitative results may be supported with qualitative techniques such as interviews or meeting with students.

APPENDIX I
WTC SURVEY IN ENGLISH

WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE SURVEY FOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE AND ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING DEPARTMENT STUDENTS

Dear students,

The data that will be gathered through the following questionnaires is going to be used in my master thesis, so it is very important to answer the questions to express you best. Please read the sentences carefully and choose the alternative that is most appropriate for you. Thanks for your contribution.

English Instructor
Ayşegül Özaslan
aysegulyaman15@gmail.com

SECTION 1- Demographic Profile

Gender : ☐ Female ☐ Male

Nationality : ☐ Turkish ☐ Other (Please indicate) _____

Age : _____

Department : _____

Have you ever been to an English-speaking country before? : ☐ Yes ☐ No

Your grade : ☐ 1th grade ☐ 2nd grade ☐ 3rd grade ☐ 4th grade

SECTION 2- There are 12 situations below in which a person might prefer or not prefer to communicate. Please indicate the percentage of time that you would choose to communicate in each situation. *0 = never communicate , 100 = always communicate.*

0%----------50% ----------100%

I never communicate I always communicate

_____1. Present a talk to a group of strangers in English.

_____2. Talk with an acquaintance while standing in line in English.

_____3. Talk in a large meeting of friends in English.

_____4. Talk in a small group of strangers in English.

_____5. Talk with a friend while standing in line in English.

_____6. Talk in a large meeting of acquaintances in English.

_____7. Talk with a stranger while standing in line in English.

_____8. Present a talk to a group of friends in English.

_____9. Talk in a small group of acquaintances in English.

_____10. Talk in a large meeting of strangers in English.

_____11. Talk in a small group of friends in English.

_____12. Present a talk to a group of acquaintances in English.

SECTION 3: Please indicate how much you agree with the following statements. Rate them strongly agree to strongly disagree.

		Strongly agree	**agree**	**neutral**	**disagree**	**Strongly disagree**
1	I can predict other peoples' behavior.					
2	I often feel that it is difficult to understand others' choices.					
3	I know how my actions will make others feel.					
4	I often feel uncertain around new people who I don't know.					
5	People often surprise me with the things they do.					
6	I understand other peoples' feelings.					
7	I fit in easily in social situations.					
8	Other people become angry with me without me being able to explain why.					
9	I understand others' wishes.					
10	I am good at entering new situations and meeting people for the first time.					
11	It seems as though people are often angry or irritated with me when I say what I think.					
12	I have a hard time getting along with other people.					
13	I find people unpredictable.					
14	I can often understand what others are trying to accomplish without the need for them to say anything.					
15	It takes a long time for me to get to know others well.					
16	I have often hurt others without realizing it.					
17	I can predict how others will react to my behavior.					
18	I am good at getting on good terms with new people.					
19	I can often understand what others really mean through their expression, body language, etc.					
20	I frequently have problems finding good conversation topics.					
21	I am often surprised by others' reactions to what I do.					

SECTION 4:There are some cultural behaviour patterns below. Please choose the best number from 1-7 that describes you best.

Sample evaluation

1 Strongly disagree	2 Disagree	3 Somewhat disagree	4 Neutral	5 Somewhat agree	6 Agree	7 Strongly agree

N	Statements	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with people with different cultural backgrounds.							
2	I adjust my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from a culture that is unfamiliar to me.							
3	I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I apply to cross-cultural interactions.							
4	I check the accuracy of my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from different cultures.							
5	I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures.							
6	I know the rules (e.g., vocabulary, grammar) of other languages.							
7	I know the cultural values and religious beliefs of other cultures.							
8	I know the marriage systems of other cultures.							
9	I know the arts and crafts of other cultures.							
10	I know the rules for expressing non-verbal behaviors in other cultures							
11	I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures.							
12	I am confident that I can socialize with locals in a culture that is unfamiliar to me.							
13	I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me.							
14	I enjoy living in cultures that are unfamiliar to me.							
15	I am confident that I can get accustomed to the shopping conditions in a different culture.							
16	I change my verbal behavior (e.g., accent, tone) when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.							
17	I use pause and silence differently to suit different cross-cultural situations.							
18	I vary the rate of my speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it.							
19	I change my non-verbal behavior when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.							
20	I alter my facial expressions when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.							

SECTION 5: Below are some expressions regarding your attitudes toward learning English. Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with these statements by rating from 1-7.

Sample evaluation

1 Strongly disagree	2 Disagree	3 Somewhat disagree	4 Neutral	5 Somewhat agree	6 Agree	7 Strongly agree

N	Statements	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Learning English is really great.							
2	I would rather spend my time on subjects other than English.							
3	Learning English is a waste of time.							
4	I plan to learn as much English as possible.							
5	I love learning English.							

SECTION 6: There are 12 situations below in which a person might or might not feel anxiety. Please indicate what degree of anxiety you would feel in the given situations by writing a percentage between 0-100%.

0%---------- 50%----------100%

I never feel anxiety I always feel anxiety

_____ 1. Have a small-group conversation in English with acquaintances.

_____ 2. Give a presentation in English to a group of strangers.

_____ 3. Give a presentation in English to a group of friends.

_____ 4. Talk in English a large meeting among strangers.

_____ 5. Have a small-group conversation in English with strangers.

_____ 6. Talk in English in a large meeting among friends.

_____ 7. Talk in English to friends.

_____ 8. Talk in English in a large meeting with acquaintances.

_____ 9. Talk in English to acquaintances.

_____ 10. Give a presentation in English to a group of acquaintances..

_____ 11. Talk in English to a stranger.

_____ 12. Talk in English to a small group of friends.

Thanks for participating.

APPENDIX II

WTC SURVEY IN TURKISH

İNGİLİZ DİLİ VE EDEBİYATI İLE İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLİĞİ BÖLÜMÜNDEKİ ÖĞRENCİLERİN İNGİLİZCE KONUŞMA İSTEKLİLİĞİNE İLİŞKİN ANKET

Sevgili Öğrenciler,

Aşağıdaki anketlerden elde edilecek bilgiler yüksek lisans tezimde kullanılacaktır ve tüm soruların sizi en iyi yansıtacak biçimde cevaplandırılması önemlidir. Lütfen anketlerde yer alan maddeleri dikkatlice okuyup, sizin düşüncenizi en iyi ifade eden kutucuğu işaretleyiniz. Katılımınız için teşekkür ederim.

İngilizce Okutmanı
Ayşegül Özaslan
aysegulyaman15@gmail.com

BÖLÜM 1- Kişisel Bilgiler

Cinsiyet : ☐ Kadın ☐ Erkek

Uyruk : ☐ TC ☐ Diğer (Yazınız) _____

Yaş : _____

Okuduğunuz Bölüm : _____

Daha önce İngilizce konuşulan bir ülkede bulundunuz mu? : ☐ Evet ☐ Hayır

Sınıfınız : ☐ 1. sınıf ☐ 2. sınıf
☐ 3.sınıf ☐ 4.sınıf

BÖLÜM 2- Aşağıda her bireyin İLETİŞİM KURMAYI İSTEYEBİLECEĞİ YA DA İSTEMEYECEĞİ 12 durum verilmiştir. Verilen her bir durumda İngilizce iletişim kurmaya ne derece istekli olduğunuzu 0 ile 100 arasında durumunuza uygun herhangi bir sayı seçerek her ifadenin başındaki boşluğa yazarak belirtiniz.

% 0----------% 50----------%100

İngilizce konuşmam İngilizce konuşurum

(iletişim kurmam) (iletişim kurarım)

_____ 1-Tanıdığım kişilerle küçük bir grup içinde İngilizce konuşmak

_____ 2-Bir grup tanımadığım kişiye İngilizce sunum yapmak

_____ 3-Bir grup arkadaşıma İngilizce sunum yapmak

_____ 4-Kalabalık bir toplulukta tanımadığım kişiler arasında İngilizce konuşmak

_____ 5-Tanımadığım kişilerle küçük bir grup içerisinde İngilizce konuşmak

_____ 6-Kalabalık bir toplulukta arkadaşlarım arasında İngilizce konuşmak

_____ 7- Bir arkadaşımla İngilizce konuşmak

_____ 8-Kalabalık bir toplulukta tanıdığım kişilerle İngilizce konuşmak

_____ 9-Tanıdığım birisiyle İngilizce konuşmak

_____ 10-Bir grup tanıdığım kişiye İngilizce sunum yapmak

_____ 11-Tanımadığım birisiyle İngilizce konuşmak

_____ 12-Bir grup arkadaşımla İngilizce konuşmak

BÖLÜM 3: Aşağıda verilen ifadelerin size uygun oluş derecesine göre belirtilen seçeneklerden birini işaretleyiniz.

		Tamamen uygun	**Uygun**	**Biraz uygun**	**Uygun değil**	**Hiç uygun değil**
1	Diğer insanların davranışlarını önceden tahmin edebilirim.					
2	Çoğunlukla başkalarının seçimlerini anlamanın zor olduğunu hissederim.					
3	Davranışlarımın diğer insanlara ne hissettireceğini bilirim.					
4	Tanımadığım yeni insanların olduğu bir ortamda genellikle tedirginlik hissederim.					
5	İnsanlar yaptıkları şeylerle beni sık sık şaşırtırlar.					
6	Diğer insanların duygularını anlayabilirim.					
7	Sosyal ortamlara kolaylıkla uyum sağlarım.					
8	İnsanlar açıklama yapmama fırsat vermeden bana kızarlar.					
9	Başkalarının isteklerini anlarım.					
10	İnsanlarla ilk tanışmada ve yeni ortamlara girme konusunda iyiyimdir.					
11	Ne düşündüğümü söylediğimde insanlar genellikle benden rahatsız olmuş veya bana kızmış gibi görünürler.					
12	Başka insanlarla geçinebilmekte zorlanırım.					
13	İnsanları tahmin edilemez bulurum.					
14	Bir açıklama yapmalarına gerek duymadan insanların ne yapmaya çalıştıklarını çoğunlukla					

	anlarım.					
15	Başkalarını iyice tanımam uzun zaman alır.					
16	Farkına varmadan çoğu kez başkalarını incitirim.					
17	Diğer insanların davranışlarıma nasıl tepki göstereceklerini tahmin edebilirim.					
18	Yeni tanıştığım insanlarla iyi ilişkiler kurmadan başarılıyımdır.					
19	Diğer insanların yüz ifadelerinden, beden dillerinden vs. gerçekte ne demek istediklerini çoğunlukla anlarım.					
20	Başkalarıyla konuşacak güzel sohbet konuları bulmakta çoğunlukla sıkıntı çekerim.					
21	Diğer insanların yaptıklarıma verdikleri tepkiler beni çoğunlukla şaşırtır.					

BÖLÜM 4: Aşağıda kültür konusunda bir takım davranış özellikleri belirtilmiştir. Bu maddelerin sizi ne kadar yansıtıp yansıtmadığını göstermek için uygun olan seçeneği örnek değerlendirmeye göre işaretleyiniz.

Örnek değerlendirme

1 Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	2 Katılmıyorum	3 Az katılmıyorum	4 Kararsızım	5 Az katılıyorum	6 Katılıyorum	7 Kesinlikle katılıyorum

No	İfadeler	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Farklı kültürel geçmişi olan kişilerle birlikteyken kullandığım kültürel bilginin farkındayım.							
2	Alışkın olmadığım kültürden birileriyle etkileşime geçtiğimde kültürel bilgimi duruma uygun olarak kullanırım.							
3	Kültürlerarası etkileşimlerde kullandığım kültürel bilginin farkındayım.							
4	Farklı kültürlerden birileriyle etkileşim halindeyken kültürel bilgimin doğruluğuna dikkat ederim.							
5	Başka kültürlerin yasal ve ekonomik sistemleri hakkında bilgi sahibiyim.							
6	Başka dillerin kurallarını (kelime, gramer vb.) bilirim.							
7	Başka kültürlerin değerleri ve dini inançları hakkında bilgi sahibiyim.							
8	Başka kültürlerin evlilik sistemleri hakkında bilgi sahibiyim.							
9	Başka kültürlerin el sanatları hakkında bilgi sahibiyim.							
10	Başka kültürlerdeki jest, mimik vb. sözel olmayan davranışların sergileme kurallarını bilirim.							
11	Başka kültürlerden insanlarla bir arada olmaktan hoşlanırım.							
12	Alışkın olmadığım bir kültürde yerel insanlarla kaynaşabileceğime eminim.							
13	Benim için yeni olan bir kültüre uyum sağlamada karşılaşacağım güçlüklerle başa çıkacağıma eminim.							

14	Alışkın olmadığım kültürlerde yaşamaktan hoşlanırım.							
15	Farklı bir kültürdeki alışveriş yapma kurallarına alışabileceğime eminim.							
16	Sözel davranışlarımı (ses tonu, aksan vb.) kültürlerarası iletişimin gereklerine göre ayarlarım.							
17	Konuşurken tonlama ve duraksamayı, kültürlerarası duruma uygun olarak değişik şekillerde kullanırım.							
18	Konuşma biçimimi kültürlerarası iletişimin gereklerine göre ayarlarım.							
19	Kültürlerarası iletişimde ne kadar gerekliyse sözel olmayan davranışlarımı ona göre ayarlarım.							
20	Yüz ifademi kültürlerarası iletişimin gerekline göre değiştiririm.							

BÖLÜM 5: Aşağıda İngilizceye yönelik tutumlarınızla ilgili bazı ifadeler verilmiştir. Bu maddelerin sizi ne kadar yansıtıp yansıtmadığını göstermek için uygun olan seçeneği örnek değerlendirmeye göre işaretleyiniz.

Örnek değerlendirme

1 Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	**2 Katılmıyorum**	**3 Az katılmıyorum**	**4 Kararsızım**	**5 Az katılıyorum**	**6 Katılıyorum**	**7 Kesinlikle katılıyorum**

No	**İfadeler**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
1	İngilizce çalışmak gerçekten önemli.							
2	Zamanımı İngilizce dışındaki konulara çalışarak geçirmeyi tercih ederim.							
3	İngilizce öğrenmek tam bir vakit kaybı.							
4	Mümkün olduğunca iyi seviyede İngilizce öğrenmeyi planlıyorum.							
5	İngilizce öğrenmeyi seviyorum.							

BÖLÜM 6: Aşağıda her bireyin çeşitli derecede KAYGI HİSSEDECEĞİ 12 durum verilmiştir. Her bir durumda yabancılarla İngilizce konuşacağınızı varsayarak İngilizce konuşurken ne derece kaygı duyacağınızı 0 ile 100 arasında durumunuza uygun bir sayı seçerek belirtiniz.

% 0----------% 50----------%100

hiç kaygı duymam aşırı derecede kaygı duyarım

_____ 1-Tanıdığım kişilerle küçük bir grup içinde İngilizce konuşmak

_____ 2-Bir grup tanımadığım kişiye İngilizce sunum yapmak

_____ 3-Bir grup arkadaşıma İngilizce sunum yapmak

_____ 4-Kalabalık bir toplulukta tanımadığım kişiler arasında İngilizce konuşmak

_____ 5-Tanımadığım kişilerle küçük bir grup içerisinde İngilizce konuşmak

_____ 6-Kalabalık bir toplulukta arkadaşlarım arasında İngilizce konuşmak

_____ 7-Bir arkadaşımla İngilizce konuşmak

_____ 8-Kalabalık bir toplulukta tanıdığım kişilerle İngilizce konuşmak

_____ 9-Tanıdığım birisiyle İngilizce konuşmak

_____ 10-Bir grup tanıdığım kişiye İngilizce sunum yapmak

_____ 11-Tanımadığım birisiyle İngilizce konuşmak

_____ 12-Bir grup arkadaşımla İngilizce konuşmak

Anketi cevaplandırdığınız için teşekkür ederim.

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