

**GAZI UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING**

**AN ANALYSIS OF PREPARATORY SCHOOL STUDENTS' NEEDS FROM A
CONSTRUCTIVIST PERSPECTIVE WITH A FOCUS ON BOTTOM-UP
LEARNING**

PHD DISSERTATION

**By:
TÜMER ALTAŞ**

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Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Müdürlüğü'ne

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates the possible effects of a quasi-negotiated syllabus on learners' needs and on fostering a constructivist venue for learning with a focus on bottom up learning. It tries to answer several questions related to the role of negotiation process on classroom instruction and on constructivist learning.

A pre-test post-test experimental design with a control group was applied in this study. The control and study group of the research included 4 classes with 88 students in total. The research was carried out at Ankara University Foreign Languages Department during the 1st semester of the 2010-2011 academic year. Two types of quantitative data were gathered using an attitude questionnaire and the end-of-term academic achievement scores of the learners.

The analysis of the pre-test and post-test results for the questionnaire, as well as the academic achievement scores, revealed that the quasi-negotiated syllabus had a positive effect on the learners' attitudes towards learning English, the instructor, anxiety levels, autonomous learning, collaboration, and on the negotiation process. Moreover, the overall academic achievement scores of study group learners turned out to have improved when compared to the control group learners. Therefore, a quasi-negotiated syllabus can be suggested as an effective way of changing learners' perception of their language learning experience, promote a constructivist learning environment, and improve learners' academic success. In light of the findings, suggestions are made for further studies to be carried out with different groups of learners in different settings.

Key terms: quasi-negotiated syllabus, negotiated syllabus, process syllabus, constructivism, syllabus design

ÖZET

Bu çalışmanın amacı, öğrenci ihtiyaçları doğrultusunda oluşturulmuş “yarı uzlaşmalı” bir “izlence”nin yapılandırmacı bir eğitim ortamı oluşturma ve öğrenci merkezli bir öğrenme sağlama üzerine muhtemel etkilerini araştırmaktır. Yarı uzlaşmalı izlencenin, öğrencilerin İngilizce öğrenme deneyimlerine karşı tutumları ve yapılandırmacı eğitim ile ilgili bazı sorulara cevap aramaktadır.

Bu çalışmada ön-test son-test kontrol gruplu deneysel araştırma deseni kullanılmıştır. Çalışmada yer alan kontrol ve deney grubu 4 sınıfta yer alan toplam 88 öğrenciden oluşmuştur. Araştırma Ankara Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulunda 2010–2011 eğitim öğretim yılının ilk yarısında yapılmıştır. Tutum anketi ve yarıyıl sonu akademik başarı ortalamalarından oluşan iki tür nicel veri kullanılmıştır.

Anketten elde edilen ön-test son-test sonuçlarının ve akademik başarı notlarının analizi göstermiştir ki “yarı uzlaşmalı izlence” öğrencilerin İngilizce öğrenmeye, öğretmene, kaygı düzeylerine, bağımsız öğrenmeye, işbirliğine ve pazarlık sürecine karşı olan tutumları üzerine olumlu etkileri olmuştur. Buna ek olarak, çalışma grubu öğrencilerinin dönem sonu akademik başarı ortalamaları da kontrol grubu öğrencilerine kıyasla gelişme göstermiştir. Dolayısıyla, “yarı uzlaşmalı izlence” öğrencilerin dil öğrenme deneyimlerine karşı tutumlarını değiştirmede, yapılandırmacı bir öğrenme ortamı hazırlamada ve öğrencilerin akademik başarılarını artırmada etkili bir yöntem olduğu önerilebilir. Bu bulgular ışığında, ileride farklı öğrenci gruplarıyla, farklı ortamlarda aynı çalışmanın tekrarlanması önerilmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: yarı uzlaşmalı izlence, uzlaşmalı izlence, süreç izlencesi, yapılandırmacılık, izlence deseni

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1.Problem of the Study

In many preparatory schools, the widespread application of the syllabus has a top-down trend. It is a specialist approach (Johnson, 1989) where the syllabus is designed by a specialist, given to the teacher, and taught to students. In this top-down process (Johnson, 1989), learners mostly have little or no say but to follow the preset procedures governing the learning environment. Not only do they have to adapt to such inflexible syllabuses, they are also not granted the opportunity to actualize their “built-in syllabuses” (Ellis, 1993: p.85). In the constructivist perspective, however, which puts the learner at the very center and focuses on the construction of their own understanding of the language and the world accordingly, learners are considered active participants constructing their own knowledge rather than passive recipients of declarative knowledge (Ellis, 1993). However, it is a challenging task to be actualized in practice.

There are many limiting factors to the application of constructivist learning such as top-down instructional materials, institutional restrictions imposed by policy makers, teacher attitudes and beliefs, and learner motivation. There is no intention in this study to blame or criticize the instructors or the policy makers since they appear to be doing their best to utilize the best possible and most contemporary practice they could, concerning the classroom sizes, available supplementary materials, the difficulty of handling each and every individual learner’s needs—thus the need for a standard and one-for-all type syllabus—, and some other limiting factors. Instead, this study aims at finding a possible betterment of the current pedagogy as to how more effectively we can meet individual needs of language learners in light of the basic principles of constructivism in our teaching practice.

Among the numerous limiting factors, top-down syllabuses could be said to be one of the most important ones that fail to meet learners' needs and obstruct the realization of a constructivist venue in our teaching environment. That is, learners have little or no

control in the design of a syllabus (Johnson 1989). Current syllabuses are more of a prescription for teachers and learners (Candlin, 1984). They are designed by the researcher, delivered to the teacher and imposed on the learners by the teachers (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). Thus, the intended outcomes by the researcher often turn out to be different from what is learned in actual practice (Allwright 1994, Nunan 1988).

1.2.Purpose of the Study

It is the aim of this study to conduct a needs analysis in order to improve the target program in light of current methodology that could further supplement the implementation of constructivism in practice. The objective is to explore if a “ quasi-negotiated process” based on learner needs could foster a constructivist learning environment for language learners with an emphasis on bottom-up learning.

Such betterment could be achieved by creating a partition in the local hard drive, being the top-down syllabus, to the extent it allows. That is, depending on the load of the top-down syllabus each week, a certain amount of the weekly program, say 2 to 4 hours, could be allocated for “free roaming”. This partition may be used to address the learner needs which they can freely construct with guidance from the teacher whenever needed. While doing so, the traditional syllabus will be kept intact. That is, while allocating the learners an extra space for free roaming, the institutional expectations will have been met at the same time.

This study therefore aims at finding answers to the questions below:

- Can a quasi-negotiated approach based on constructivism lead to an improvement in overall academic performance of learners?
- What will be the learner attitudes to such a negotiated module as a supplement to the traditional syllabus?
- Will such an approach
 - reduce class anxiety?
 - positively affect learners' attitudes towards learning English?
 - positively affect learners' attitudes towards the English Course?
 - reduce learners' English use anxiety?

- promote autonomous learning?
- positively affect learners' attitudes towards negotiation of some part of the syllabus?
- promote collaboration?
- make learners more sociable?
- promote motivation on the side of learners?
- and cause any detrimental effect at the institutional level?

1.3. Significance of the Study

This study attempts to analyze learner's needs on a constructivist basis for the betterment of the ELT program with an emphasis on bottom-up learning. What we mean by bottom-up learning is that the syllabus could be negotiated with students to some extent, which we call a 'quasi-negotiated process', and serve as a bottom-up process instead of the current top-down nature of syllabuses which are designed by researchers and imposed on teachers and thus on learners.

This process may serve to help narrow the gap between the point the profession has reached and the ideal it intends to arrive at. That is, the field has come a long way from the so-called structural syllabuses, where there was little or no consideration of the learner needs, to a point where more humanistic and constructivist approaches prevail the profession. However, there still are missing pieces between the constructivist approach and its practical application to address individual needs of language learners. Therefore, the present study may reveal meaningful results that may combine the efforts made so far with one that can generate a new insight into how more constructivist we can make our language teaching practice.

1.4. Hypothesis

It is assumed in this study that a quasi-negotiated syllabus in light of the basic principles of constructivism may

- reduce class anxiety,

- positively affect learners' perception of learning English,
- positively affect learners' perception of the English Course,
- reduce learners' English use anxiety,
- promote autonomous learning,
- positively affect learners' attitudes towards negotiation of some part of the syllabus,
- promote collaboration,
- make learners more sociable,
- promote motivation on the side of learners,
- and cause no detrimental effect at the institutional level.

1.5. Assumptions and Limitations

This study is limited to a prep school and in particular to 4 classes of 22 language learners each. There will be 44 students as the study group and 44 students as the control group. Thus, the study will be limited to the aforementioned school and therefore may not be generalized to all prep schools. Although the results may turn out to be as intended, it might be otherwise in different settings and with different learner groups. Therefore, future studies with similar intents might be necessary.

In addition, the motivation of learners and prolonged sick-leaves of the teachers and students likewise may have a detrimental effect on the collection and interpretation of the data.

The normal weekly class hour of each week is 26 hours. Only 2 to 4 hours of this time will be allocated for this study. Less or more of this time might reveal different results in different circumstances.

The instructor's role in motivating the students and the way he handles classroom interaction might be a subjective factor that might affect the control and experimental group students' attitudes. Therefore, future studies with different agents might be necessary.

1.6. Definitions of Terms

- **negotiated syllabus:** It is a type of syllabus which involves the teacher and the learners working together to make decisions at many stages of the syllabus design process.
- **process syllabus:** Negotiated syllabuses are also called process syllabuses.
- **quasi-negotiated syllabus:** It is a term generated by the researcher and refer to a partially negotiated syllabus. That is to say, the whole syllabus is not negotiated with students, but only a small portion of it.
- **quasi-negotiated process:** The process that refers to the application of a quasi-negotiated syllabus.
- **bottom-up learning:** Unlike other definitions in the literature, in this paper, the term refers to the negotiation of classroom instruction and materials with students. In simple terms, learners decide on the learning process and negotiate it with the instructor.
- **top-down syllabus:** The term refers to the traditional syllabus types that are designed by researchers and delivered to teachers regardless of the education setting. In other words, it is a one-type-for-all kind of syllabus.
- **local hard drive:** The term holds a metaphoric meaning. Like the hard drive of a computer, and partitions on it, say C:/ or D:/, the weekly instruction hours were allocated into two partitions which are 22 hours for the traditional syllabus, and 4 hours for the quasi-negotiated syllabus.
- **partition:** The term refers to the allocated class hours for the traditional syllabus and the quasi-negotiated syllabus.
- **free roaming:** The term again has a metaphoric meaning. It refers to the hours allocated for the quasi-negotiated syllabus where students will decide on the nature of instruction . In other words, these hours will belong to students and it will give them the opportunity to do whatever they wish to do; either academically oriented or not.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1.Introduction

Despite changes in the status of approaches and methods, we can therefore expect the field of second or foreign language teaching in the twenty-first century to be no less a ferment of theories, ideas, and practices than it has been in the past. (Richards&Rodgers, 2001, p.254)

The field of second or foreign language teaching has witnessed a “changing tracks and challenging trends” (Kumaravadivelu, 2006) throughout the last century, and this change is still in progress as new insights and views are continuously added to the profession. Therefore, the literature is expanding day by day in order to discover new resolutions to the ever-lasting problems each and every method or approach brought, or are still bringing with them.

However, the imposition of “packaged solutions” of the methods over the teachers and learners, and the “lack of specific set of prescriptions and techniques to be used” (Richards&Rodgers, 2001, p.244) of approaches still leaves practitioners confused as to how they could better shape their own teaching.

At this point, it will be helpful to look briefly at the last one hundred years where the most influential methods and approaches blossomed. The century has been shaped by the search for more effective ways of a second or foreign language teaching (Richards&Rodgers, 2001). The common trend in this era was the search for new approaches and methods which led to the creation of Direct Method, Audio-lingual Method, Silent Way, Total Physical Response, and Suggestopedia on the methods plane, and Communicative Language Teaching, Content-Based Instruction, Cooperative Learning, Task Based Learning and some others on the approach plane.

Each method or approach contributed to the field with their distinctive features and theories. However, each had flaws in one way or another and failed to provide a

complete success in language teaching and to completely eradicate the problems encountered in actual practice. One of the leading factors, which forms the basis to this study, could be the top-down nature of the methods (Candlin, 1984) which regarded learners as passive recipients of the prescription they were to absorb, and the lack of a procedural prescription of approaches which were mainly open to the interpretation of the practitioners themselves (Richards&Rodgers, 2001). Even one of the most commonly recommended approaches around the world today, the Communicative Language Teaching, is no more than “a set of very general principles that can be interpreted in a variety of ways” (Richards&Rodgers, 2001, p.244).

Task Based Language Teaching arrived at this point to fill the gap. Though it promoted activities resembling the language used in real world (Ellis, 2003), it was criticized as not being linked to any particular method and being a curricular content rather than a methodological construct (Kumaravadivelu, 1993b).

Thus, the last quarter of the century witnessed a move away from the search for new methods since “the mainstream language teaching no longer regarded methods as the key factor in accounting for success or failure in language teaching” (Richards&Rodgers, 2001, p. 247). Some scholars even went further to claim that the method is dead (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). However, the profession didn’t cease to create new approaches to foster better learning situations for learners.

The profession turned its attention to more "holistic approaches" that respect individual "variety and equality". The focus of instruction changed from a "transmission curriculum" to a "transactional curriculum" where learners are actively involved in the learning process (Abbasoglu, 2005, p.1). The constructivist teaching, thus, has gained more acceptance and it still prevails the profession today. However, it has remained only as an approach without any set procedures to be included in a syllabus.

Although contemporary pedagogy today support and promote a constructivist learning that addresses the individual needs of language learners, it often falls short of practical implementation in many learning contexts. There may be numerous limiting factors, but syllabus could be said to be one of the most important ones.

It will be helpful to make a definition of the syllabus first. For Pienemann, syllabus is “the selection and grading of linguistic teaching objectives” (1985: 23). For Breen, it ‘is a plan of what is to be achieved through our teaching and our students’ learning” (1984: 47). However, Candlin’s definition of syllabus is of crucial importance to this study since he clarifies the key missing piece of the whole puzzle.

Syllabuses are concerned with the specification and planning of what is to be learned, frequently set down in some written form as prescriptions for action by teachers and learners. They have, traditionally, the mark of authority. They are concerned with the achievement of ends, often, though not always, associated with the pursuance of particular means. (Candlin, 1984:30).

The syllabus design of methods and approaches tend to follow a prescriptive fashion. That is, they are written by specialists, delivered to teachers, and imposed on learners (Candlin, 1984). It is more of a “package deal-take it or leave it” (Candlin, 1984: p.31). It is a top-down “specialist” approach where teachers and learners have little or no control (Johnson, 1989). The classroom is considered universal by syllabus writers and the same syllabus is thought to match each local setting. Doing so, the individual needs of learners are generalized by a specialist who may have no participation in the actual classroom practice, and is unaware of the individual needs learners bring to the classroom (Larsen,1974; Pienemann,1985). Experts simply fit the syllabus to learners (Brumfit, 1984). Thus, the outcome of a top-down syllabus generally turns out to be ‘what is taught is different from what is learned’ (Allwright, 1994; Nunan 1988). However, each individual learner has his or her own built-in syllabus (Ellis, 1993) and thus has a different intake from the same input. So, the result is varied outcomes different from the intentions of the syllabus writer.

One solution to the issue could be the design of a "negotiated syllabus", also known as the "process syllabus", where the goals and objectives of language learning are designed through negotiation with learners. Though it sounds a plausible and effective solution to the issue, it bears limitations on many levels as well. It definitely seems to be a contemporary humanistic approach to individual learner needs and thus promotes a constructivist fashion in language learning. It promotes, in Hall's terms,

“learnability” and “social ownership” which can only be achieved by the learners (Hall, 1997, p.14). The goals of learning are negotiated according to learners' needs (Nunan, 1988) thus resulting in a shift in whose interests are served. Learners take control of their own learning and become autonomous (Prahbu, 1982).

However, there are also limitations impeding the application of a negotiated syllabus in traditional classrooms. First of all, institutions, teachers and learners tend to be in favor of such traditional top-down syllabuses which help them to be relieved of the responsibility that they might not be prepared for or want to. A ready-made procedure supplements a hassle-free teaching experience. Even though some teachers may be well-equipped and motivated enough to design their own syllabus, teachers new to the profession generally need a guide to lead them along the way. On the learners' side, they may not be ready to make decisions at the start of the course (Nunan, 1988) and come to the class with the expectation that they will passively absorb the information given to them under the teacher's guidance. Moreover, teachers may need to guide and train them (Nunan, 1988) throughout this process which many teachers may find a challenging task. On the institutional side, there are generally strict regulations as to the design of a fixed syllabus and time constraints. Syllabi are designed to include a particular sequencing of learning objectives within a certain allocated period of time, and they bear little flexibility to make any adjustment on the side of the teacher and the institution. There are also other concerns even when such a negotiated syllabus is made possible. “Is everything negotiable? Who leads negotiations? Is the teacher really a peer? Do all learners participate or is there a dominating group? So, whose needs will be served? Do the learners respect and want to participate?” (Hall, 1997, p. 16). All these questions need careful attention before making such a decision that requires careful planning and implementation.

In a nutshell, the history of language teaching has seen many shifts in order to provide learners an ideal language learning experience. The current point the field has reached is the realization of individual needs of learners and their most powerful learning tool for learning: construction of one's own knowledge.

Therefore, we based our study on constructivism; and in this chapter, review of literature, we first provided information about what constructivism is along with its

major types and components. In the second section, we presented a definition of the syllabus and its common types, teacher's role in syllabus design, the need for a syllabus, the practical as well as theoretical problems associated with the top-down syllabuses, and the need for negotiation. Following section two, negotiated syllabus is described in detail in section three to provide a background to the aim of our study. That is, we founded our research on the application of a novel syllabus type, quasi-negotiated syllabus, which has its roots in the negotiated syllabus. Finally, the fourth section presents some common prerequisites, we find necessary, to have a more fruitful constructivist learning venue which promotes, on the side of learners, more willingness to speak, reduced anxiety levels and cultural bias, and a stress free social environment.

2.2. Constructivism

This study is aimed at creating opportunities for learners to go through a constructivist learning experience. Therefore, it is necessary to first look at what constructivism is and understand the basic principles underlying this learning philosophy. Moreover, it is also needed to look at how different types of constructivism are similar to or different from each other and how they fit into this study. Most importantly, we need to investigate the major components of constructivism that serve as the cornerstones of this study. That is, in this study, we are trying to first consider each learner unique, and then provide them with a learning venue where they could enjoy the benefits of collaborating and cooperating with others to engage in more meaningful and fruitful learning, become more autonomous learners, and get better motivated throughout the study.

2.2.1. Definition of Constructivism

Constructivism is a philosophy of learning that arose in developmental and cognitive psychology. Its central figures include Bruner, Kelly, Piaget, von Glasersfeld, and Vygotsky.

According to Hein, knowledge is a personal and social construction (Hein, 1991). Knowledge is constructed by the learners and each learner constructs their own

meaning as they learn. To put it in another way, "students construct their own language based on their existing schemata and beliefs" (Airasian & Walsh, 1997:1).

According to constructivists, learners' current knowledge, previous experience, and the social environment are what determine constructivism (Perlmutter, Bloom, Burrell, 1999). Therefore, knowledge has to be built on existing knowledge and one's background and experience contributes to this process.

In constructivism, a learner should be an active participant in the learning process. According to Richardson (1997), learning activities in a constructivist setting are characterized by active engagement, inquiry, problem solving, and collaboration with others. The learning, thus, rests upon the learner and his active participation in the learning process. It is not a one-way flow of information from the teacher.

For McKay, constructivism intends to refine students' knowledge, develop inquiry skills through critical thinking, and lead to students developing opinions about the world around them (McKay, 1995). So, in a constructivist learning environment, the teacher needs to offer multiple perspectives and a variety of formats in which the information can be presented (Nuthall, 2000).

Therefore, we can say that an effective classroom, where teachers and students are communicating optimally, is dependent on using constructivist strategies, tools and practices (Powell, 2006). While doing so, the teacher should consider each learner as a unique individual since

"Humans are perceivers and interpreters who construct their own reality through engaging in those mental activities... We all conceive of the external reality somewhat differently, based on our unique set of experiences with the world and our beliefs about them." (Jonassen, 1991:10)

Moreover, it should also be noted that learning is an ongoing process where the learner constantly builds upon his or her current knowledge.

"The learner is building an internal representation of knowledge, a personal interpretation of experience. This representation is constantly open to change, its structure and linkages forming the foundation to which other knowledge structures are appended. Learning is an active process in which meaning is developed on the basis of experience."
(Bednarz et al., 1991:92)

Though it has aroused much interest among the scholars and practitioners as well, constructivism is also a vague concept regarding its application into the classroom. It is considered a very effective means of teaching while there is no particular method associated with procedures to follow. For Tobias and Duffy, "constructivism remains more of a philosophical framework than a theory that either allows us to precisely describe instruction or prescribe design strategies" (Tobias & Duffy, 2009, p.4).

However, it is still considered an effective means of instruction if used properly. Teachers have the potential to teach constructively in the classroom if they understand constructivism. In order for teachers to use it effectively, teachers have to know where the student is at a given learning point or the current stage in their knowledge of a subject so that students can create personal meaning when new information is given to them (Holt and Willard-Holt 2000). It has a great effect in the classroom both cognitively and socially for the student.

2.2.2. Major Types of Constructivism

There are three major types of constructivism in the classroom (Powell & Kalina, 2009).

- Cognitive or individual constructivism depending on Piaget's theory,
- Radical Constructivism by Von Glasersfeld,
- Social constructivism depending on Vygotsky's theory.

2.2.2.1. Cognitive Constructivism

Cognitive constructivism was construed by the well-known developmental psychologist, Piaget. Piaget's main focus of constructivism has to do with the individual and how the individual constructs knowledge (Powell & Kalina, 2009). According to Piaget's theory of cognitive development, humans cannot be given information; instead, humans must construct their own knowledge (Piaget, 1953).

In cognitive constructivism, learning and knowing is regarded as an actively constructed individual thought process (Kitchener and King, 1994). This process is an ongoing one (Perry, 1990) and individuals construct their knowledge based upon their current knowledge (Bruner, 1986).

Piaget built the theory observing his own children as they learned and played together. He thought students as "little scientists" (Levine & Munsch, 2010: p.48) who learn by building conceptual structures in memory to store information (Powell & Kalina, 2009).

According to Piaget, learning is a process of accommodation, assimilation and equilibrium (Piaget, 1977). For Piaget, children's schemas are constructed through the process of assimilation and accommodation, and this happens when going through four different stages of development (Wadsworth, 2004).

Piaget's (1953) four stages of development are:

- Sensorimotor stage : zero to two years of age
- Preoperational stage : two to seven years of age
- Concrete operational stage : seven to eleven years of age
- Formal operational stage : eleven years of age to adulthood

Piaget's stages are well-known and are accepted as the basis for depicting the growth of logical thinking in children. His theory includes assimilation and accommodation, which are the processes children go through as a search for balance or "equilibration" (Wadsworth, 2004).

"Equilibration occurs when children shift from one stage to another and is manifested with a cognitive conflict, a state of mental unbalance or disequilibrium in trying to make sense of the data or information they are receiving. Disequilibrium is a state of being uncomfortable when one has to adjust his or her thinking (schema) to resolve conflict and become more comfortable" (Powell, 2006, pp. 26, 27).

According to Piaget (1953), assimilation is when children bring in new knowledge to their own schemas and accommodation is when children have to change their schemas to "accommodate" the new information or knowledge. This adjustment process occurs when processing new information to fit into what is already in one's memory.

His theory on equilibration, assimilation and accommodation all have to do with the children's ability to construct cognitively or individually their new knowledge within their stages and resolve conflicts (Piaget, 1953).

In order for teachers to facilitate a constructivist learning, it will be helpful to recognize that this process occurs within each individual student at a different rate (Powell & Kalina, 2009, p.243). This is paramount to understand that each individual constructs his or her knowledge at his or her own pace. While some students in a classroom grasp the information quickly, some others may remain struggling. Inquiring the areas learners are having difficulty and clarifying the misconceptions should be one of the main goals in a constructivist teaching practice.

2.2.2.2. Radical Constructivism

One other version of constructivism is radical constructivism. The most well-known advocate of radical constructivism is Von Glasersfeld. According to him,

"Knowledge is in the heads of persons, and the thinking subject has no alternative but to construct what he or she knows on the basis of his or her own experience." (Glasersfeld, 1984:1).

Glaserfeld advocates that all kinds of experience are subjective and one person's experience may not be like other's (Glaserfeld, 1984). We construct knowledge based on our environment and experiences (Winograd & Flores, 1986). Since individuals never have the same environment and experiences, they will never have the same understanding of reality (Jonassen, 1991). Therefore, each learners should be considered unique on the basis of their understanding of reality.

Von Glaserfeld also puts emphasis on active participation of learners. According to him, best teaching practices are those that encourage the learner to be an active participant in the learning process (Glaserfeld, 2008). He advocates that learning requires action by the learner, including reflection, verbalizing, and conversation. Therefore, learners should be motivated enough to actively engage in classroom activities.

Another important claim Glaserfeld puts forth is that knowledge cannot be transferred from teacher to student simply by teachers putting it into words and students receiving those words. Instead, knowledge develops internally, by means of learners' cognitive self-organization, where they transcend particular conceptual structures through reorganization (Glaserfeld, 1989). In doing so, the teacher does not transfer knowledge to the students, but creates opportunities for them to reconceptualize their experiences, thereby constructing their own knowledge.

In one of his essays, von Glaserfeld has summarized his approach to pedagogy in five points:

- teaching involves creating opportunities for students to trigger their own thinking;
- teachers not only need to be familiar with the curricular content, but they also must have available a repertoire of didactic situations in which such conceptual content can be naturally built up in a way that sparks the students' natural interests;
- teachers need to realize that students' mistakes are not wrong as such, but are predictable solutions on the way to more adequate conceptualization;

- teachers need to understand that specialized words in academic disciplines do not have the same meaning for a student as they do for the expert, and teachers must have an idea of the students' present concepts, ideas, and theories; and
- teachers must realize that the formation of concepts requires reflection, something accomplished by conversations among students and with the teacher. (Clarence, 2011: p.277)

Von Glasersfeld's approach to teaching is a contemporary one fits well into this study since he gives a central place to the student in the learning process. In addition, his approach "helps educators transform their teaching practices from a content-driven instruction to the one that models the student as an active learner." (Clarence, 2011: p.277). He further advocates that students should be given opportunities to understand that it is they themselves who need to discover how things do or do not work. His innovative ideas create an approach that makes student learning central.

2.2.2.3. Social Constructivism

Social constructivism is the most common form of constructivism, and our study, though based on all three types of constructivism, rests highly upon this third type of constructivism.

Lev Vygotsky is considered the founding father of social constructivism. The basic principle of social constructivism is that the knowledge is constructed through social interaction, and is the result of social processes (Vygotsky, 1962). It is regarded as a highly effective approach to teaching since collaboration and social interaction are incorporated (Powell & Kalina, 2009).

According to Vygotsky, knowledge is constructed through a social and collaborative process using language (Vygotsky, 1962). He believed in social interaction and that it was an integral part of learning. One of his main theories is the zone of proximal development, or ZPD. The most explicit definition of ZPD is

...the distance between the actual development level as determined by

independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers. (1978, p. 86)

Vygotsky defines ZPD as a zone where learning occurs when a child is helped in learning a concept in the classroom (Vygotsky, 1962). According to him, children often learn easiest within this zone when others are involved. Students act first on what they can do on their own and then with assistance from the teacher, they learn the new concept based on what they were doing individually.

In his cooperative learning, Vygotsky (1962) uses "scaffolding" for his theory. According to him, children learn more effectively when there are others to support them. Scaffolding is an assisted learning process where students get assistance from teachers, peers or other adults. According to his theory, a child's external language becomes internalized and is transformed into self-directed mental activity through social interaction, and in this process, the instructor's role to scaffold students' learning is critical (Duff, 2007; Wells, 1999). Scaffolding entails providing assistance and support, usually through collaboration, to help learners develop competence (Mercer, 1995; Ohta, 2000; Wells, 1999). This happens when a student is asked to perform a task that has some meaning to him or her, and with assistance, will complete it. Though this task may be difficult to perform, there is the support system available from the teacher. Using this support system, the student will be able to solve the problem.

Vygotsky's great emphasis on cooperative learning is of great importance to this study since it promotes the creation of a deeper understanding of knowledge. He advocates that cooperative learning leads to a social constructivist classroom. Therefore, in a constructivist learning practice, students should not only work with teachers one-on-one, but with other students as well since they have a lot to offer to each other. Each individual brings to the classroom his or her own distinctive experiences and knowledge that could benefit others to have varied experiences and understanding (Woolfolk, 2004). When students work on tasks in a group, the ZPD and scaffolding activates and the internalization of knowledge occurs for each individual at a different rate according to their own experience. This internalization occurs more effectively when there is social interaction (Vygotsky, 1962).

2.2.3. Major Components of Constructivism

There are four major components of constructivism; namely, collaboration and cooperative learning, learner as a unique individual, learner autonomy, and the motivation for learning. These components are crucial to the nature of this study since our aim is to see how these components could be achieved in practice and what their outcomes will be at the end of the study. That is to say, if we want to have a constructivist classroom, we should provide our learners the opportunity to collaborate with each other and enjoy the building of their knowledge with the help of others as suggested by Vygotsky's zone of proximal development and scaffolding. We should also consider each individual learner as unique and shouldn't expect every individual learner to get the same understanding from the same input since their built-in syllabuses might be different from one another. Moreover, we should also embrace the fact that each learner learns at his or her own pace at different rates. Another goal should be to help learners become more autonomous learners responsible for their own learning. Finally, and most importantly, we should be well aware that, all of the above objectives could only be achieved if our learners are motivated enough. This is because, as constructivism suggests, learning takes place in the learner himself it requires effort on the side of the learner.

2.2.3.1. Collaboration and Cooperative Learning

Collaboration is defined as any activity in which two or more people work together to create meaning, explore a topic, or improve skills (Harasim et al., 1995). It is also defined as a process in which two or more learners work together to achieve a common goal (Benson, 2001).

Cooperative learning is a "learner-centered" process in which small groups of students work interdependently on a task. Individual students are held accountable for their own learning and the teacher acts as a facilitator throughout this process (Cuseo, 1997). Cooperative learning creates the opportunity to form communities of inquiry and thus fosters critical dialogue and understanding (Vygotsky, 1978).

The essential component of cooperative learning, the group work, enhances opportunities to develop trust and positive peer relationships among learners and facilitates the construction of knowledge through the process of discussion, interaction and negotiation (Roger & Johnson, 1994).

The social relationship among participants in the learning process is regarded highly important in language learning. Thus, to have a better understanding of L2 students' learning experiences, we need to incorporate "sociocultural theory" (Kozulin, 1998; Lantolf & Pavlenko, 1995; Moll, 1990; Rogoff, 1990; Wertsch, 1985, 1991.) and the notion of "community of practice" (Lave & Wenger, 1991) into this study.

In both of these elements, the purpose of learning is to become a competent member of a community, and doing so requires changing participation roles as the individual moves from one learning activity to another. The concept of communities of practice derives from the notion of "situated learning" (Lave & Wenger, 1991), which considers learning to be a social practice. Situated learning has its roots in Vygotsky's work (1978; 1986) as well as that of other socioculturalists, and they all regard human mental functioning as inherently situated in social, institutional, and cultural contexts (Davydov & Radzikhovski, 1985; Roebuck, 2000).

Community, within sociocultural theory, is a context in which 'participants share understandings concerning what they are doing and what that means in their lives' (Lave & Wenger, p. 98). According to Wenger (1998), a community is maintained by the mutual engagement and joint enterprise of the members who share communal resources such as tools, documents, routines, and vocabulary.

Thus, becoming a competent member of a community requires learning the conventions of the community, communicating in its language, and acting in accordance with its particular norms (Flowerdew, 2000; Mohan, 2001; Sfard, 1998).

Therefore, L2 learners' successful participation in academic discourse is closely connected to language socialization. That is because it involves a negotiation process and, mastering of the sociocultural rules, disciplinary subcultures, and discourse conventions of the language (Duff, 2002; Morita, 2000; Schieffelin & Ochs, 1986;

Schneider & Fujishima, 1995). Language socialization may therefore mean increasing participation, playing various social roles, and gaining full membership in learning events (Gutierrez & Stone, 1997; Morita & Kobayashi, 2008).

If we go back to Vygotsky's (1978, 1986) concept of ZPD, it establishes two developmental levels in the learner: the actual developmental level, which is determined by what the learner can do alone, and the potential level of development, which can be established by observing what the learner can do when assisted by an adult or more capable peer. Based on this view, collaboration among learners could be said to be one of the prerequisites to have a constructivist learning environment. It not only gives the learners the opportunity to learn from each other and the instructor, but it may also create a community where learners share and explore together.

2.2.3.2. Learner as a Unique Individual

The basic idea behind constructivism is that knowledge must be constructed by the learner. It cannot be supplied by the teacher (Bringuier, 1980).

The construction of knowledge is a dynamic process that requires the active engagement of the learner. In active learning, knowledge is directly experienced, constructed, acted upon, tested, or revised by the learner (Thompson & Jorgenson; 1989). Building knowledge structures happens effectively only when the learner is consciously engaged in meaningful activities that can be shared with others (Papert, 1991). Therefore, a constructivist learning environment should provide opportunities for learners to inquire, explore, experiment and collaborate.

Learning styles and strategies also play a major role in how learners control their intake of knowledge. These styles are "the overall patterns that give general direction to learning behavior" (Cornett, 1983, p. 9). According to Dunn & Griggs,

Learning style is the biologically and developmentally imposed set of characteristics that make the same teaching method wonderful for some and terrible for others (Dunn & Griggs, 1988, p. 3).

Learning strategies are defined as “specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques - such as seeking out conversation partners, or giving oneself encouragement to tackle a difficult language task - used by students to enhance their own learning” (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992, p. 63). When the learner consciously chooses strategies that fit his or her learning style and the L2 task at hand, these strategies become a useful toolkit for active, conscious, and purposeful learning.

Oxford (2003) classifies learning strategies into six groups: cognitive, metacognitive, memory-related, compensatory, affective, and social (p.2).

If there is harmony between (a) the student (in terms of style and strategy preferences) and (b) the combination of instructional methodology and materials, then the student is likely to perform well, feel confident, and experience low anxiety. If clashes occur between (a) and (b), the student often performs poorly, feels unconfident, and experiences significant anxiety. Sometimes such clashes lead to serious breakdowns in teacher-student interaction. These conflicts may also lead to the dispirited student's outright rejection of the teaching methodology, the teacher, and the subject matter (Oxford, 2003: pp. 2-3).

2.2.3.3. Learner Autonomy

Learner autonomy has attracted more and more attention in education especially in the western world since 1970s (Ma & Gao, 2010). Nowadays, it is widely accepted “as a desirable goal in education, and few teachers will disagree with the importance of helping learners become more autonomous as learners” (Wenden, 1991, P.11).

Holec (1981, p.3) defined autonomy as “the ability to take charge of one's own learning”. He also gives a more detailed definition as follows:

To take charge of one's own learning is to have and to hold the responsibility for all decisions concerning all aspects of this learning; i.e.:

- determining the objectives;

- defining the contents and progressions;
- selecting methods and techniques to be used;
- monitoring the procedure of acquisition properly speaking (rhythm, time, place, etc.);
- evaluating what has been acquired. (Holec, 1981:3)

For Dickinson(1987,) autonomy is “the situation in which the learner is totally responsible for the decisions concerned with his/her learning and the implementation of these decisions” (p.11).

Little (1990) suggests that "learner autonomy is essentially a matter of the learner's psychological relation to the process and content of learning" (p.7).

In Pennycook's (1997) political-critical viewpoint, development of autonomy and agency must involve becoming “an author of one's own world” (p.45).

However, unlike the definitions so far, autonomy can't be defined as total isolation and independence. Instead, it can be defined as a "constantly changing but at any time optimal state of equilibrium between maximal self-development and human interdependence" (Alwright in Little 1995: 178). For Dickinson,

“Independence does not entail autonomy or isolation or exclusion from the classroom; however, it does entail that learners engage actively in the learning process” (Dickinson 1992: 1).

Though definitions of autonomy vary, it can be summarized as the capacity and willingness on the part of the learner to act independently and in cooperation with others in order to be a socially responsible person. Therefore, contemporary education places great value on the development of the learners' humanistic qualities and “humanistic education is based on the belief that learners should have a say in what they should be learning and how they should learn it, and reflects the notion that education should be concerned with the development of autonomy in the learner” (Nunan, 1988, p.20). Brookes and Grundy also adds that “One corollary of learner-centeredness is that

individualization will assume greater importance, as will the recognition that the autonomy of the learner is our ultimate goal” (Brookes & Grundy, 1988, p.1).

People can be said to learn best from utterances in which they have a strong personal stake or investment. Therefore, it is important for teachers to provide the circumstances and contexts for learners to help them rather than prevent them from exercising their autonomy so that they can take charge of the whole or part of their language learning (Ma & Gao, 2010: p. 902).

Here in this paper we are arguing for the provision of circumstances and contexts for language learners through developing a quasi-negotiated syllabus in the language classroom to help them make decisions for their own learning through negotiations because we are on the same grounds with Breen and Littlejohn that “a classroom based upon negotiated knowledge and procedures allows the learner autonomy on an equal footing with others in the group and as a contribution to the good of the learning community” (Breen and Littlejohn, 2000, p.22).

Cotterall’s emphasis on life –long learning is also closely related to one of the aims of this study. He tries to draw attention to the importance of autonomy for ‘life long learning’ by stating that autonomy is the extent to which learners demonstrate the ability to use a set of tactics for taking control of their learning (Cotterall, 1995: 195). Hence, the aim of autonomy should promote to create autonomous learners that could take responsibility of their learning not just in the classroom, but throughout their whole lives outside.

2.2.3.4. Motivation for Learning

There are many studies on motivation, and it has been found to be highly important in learning a second or foreign language (Adegbija, 1992; Baker, 1992; Clement, 1980; Cooper, 1974; De Klerk & Bosch, 1993; Gardner, 1985; Krashen, 1981; Shuy & Fasold, 1973; Sure, 1991; Webb, 1992).

Motivation has been defined as an “internal state that activates, guides, and maintains behavior” (Green, 2002, p. 989). From the educational point of view, the term

“motivation” can apply to any process that activates and maintains learning behavior (Palmer, 2005: p.1857).

Much of the research in this area has been carried out from either a behaviorist perspective or a social cognitive perspective (Palmer, 2005). The former emphasizes the influence of environmental factors such as rewards, whereas the latter emphasizes the importance of students’ beliefs about themselves and their learning environment (Palmer, 2005).

Most of the recent research has adopted the "social cognitive view" (Palmer, 2005, p. 1857). In contrast to older models in which motivation was assumed to be a stable personality trait, the social cognitive view is that motivational beliefs can be significantly influenced by aspects of the classroom context (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). This is an important point since it indicates that classroom strategies can be used to increase student motivation.

However, we need to be aware of two types of motivation first. These are “extrinsic” and “intrinsic” motivation. Ryan and Deci (2000) defines them as:

“Intrinsic motivation ... refers to doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable, and extrinsic motivation ... refers to doing something because it has a separable outcome” (p. 55).

Extrinsic motivation therefore focuses on factors external to the individual and the task, such as rewards, praise, privileges, or attention. On the other hand, intrinsic motivation is directly related to the task being performed. According to intrinsic motivation theory (White, 1959), a person feels instinctive pleasure when he or she learns something new or succeeds in a challenging task. This creates feelings of confidence and mastery that are self-reinforcing, so the student will be more inclined to engage in future learning activities, simply for the enjoyment of succeeding. Therefore, intrinsic motivation is generally considered to be more effective in promoting learning and achievement (Deci et al., 2001).

Motivation is also described as "integrative" and "instrumental" motivation

(Gardner, 1985;). Integrative motivation is when ‘the aim of the language study is to learn more about the language group, or to meet more and different people’, and instrumental motivation is ‘when the reasons reflect the more utilitarian value of linguistic achievement’ (Gardner & Lambert, 1959, p. 267).

Keeping these definitions of motivation in mind, teachers in a constructivist classroom should aim to utilize appropriate strategies to arouse and maintain learners' motivation at optimum levels throughout the learning process. Motivation is necessary since the constructivist theory requires effort on the side of the learner; and motivation is the one that would facilitate this process.

In order to enhance student motivation, Palmer (2005) proposes several ways that teachers should:

- challenge students by setting tasks at a moderate level of difficulty so they can regularly experience success;
- use novel or discrepant experiences to arouse curiosity;
- use fantasy;
- increase the meaningfulness of content and tasks by relating them to the students' lives;
- use a variety of different types of activities and tasks;
- allow students to be active participants in the lesson;
- allow students a realistic level of choice in work partners, activities and task formats;
- allow students to work individually or collaboratively in situations that do not encourage competition;
- provide assessment feedback, and use praise that rewards effort and improvement;
- model enthusiasm, thinking, dealing with errors, and dealing with challenge; and
- be supportive, reassuring, and attentive to the students. (Palmer, 2005, p. 1863)

Motivation has also been found to be influenced by the content of instructional materials. According to Ndura (2004, p. 143) The content of instructional materials significantly affects students' attitudes and dispositions towards themselves, other people and the society. This is particularly so with students of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) whose success in a new learning environment is conditioned not only by their mastery of the new language, but also by their ability to negotiate the new culture. The cultural content of the textbooks may sometimes cause discomfort on learners.

It should also be kept in mind that while historically prevalent views assume that motivation is an integral component of all learning (Harlen and Deacon Crick 2002; Torrance and Coultas 2004), there is a growing body of literature to suggest that what motivates some students may alienate others (Harlen and Deacon Crick 2003). Therefore, it would be a challenging task to balance differing individual learning strategies and styles.

2.2.4. Conclusion

This section presented constructivism with its definition, major types of it and its major components. Since this study investigates the effect of a quasi-negotiated syllabus on fostering a constructivist learning environment, it is crucial to understand the basics of constructivism, and specifically its fundamental components. The basic tenet of constructivism, being the learner as a unique individual, is key to the nature of this study. In addition, collaboration among learners, learner autonomy and motivation for learning are also essential prerequisites to achieve a constructivist teaching.

2.3.Syllabus Design

The main objective in this research is to create a novel type of syllabus, the quasi-negotiated syllabus, designed specifically to improve first the attitudes of learners towards several aspects of the learning process, and secondly their success levels regarding their overall grades. Therefore, this section is reserved to provide a background to the definition of syllabus, current types of syllabuses, teacher's role in

syllabus design, the theoretical as well as practical problems associated with top-down syllabuses yet the need for them, and finally the need for negotiation. Though we assert that top-down syllabuses fail to some extent to meet the learner's needs and fail to create fruitful learning, the necessity to have them will be explained in detail. In the final part of the section, it will be discussed as to why negotiation is needed.

2.3.1. Definition of Syllabus

There are various definitions of syllabus. Pienemann sees the syllabus as "the selection and grading of linguistic teaching objectives" (Pienemann, 1985:23). For Breen, it "is a plan of what is to be achieved through our teaching objectives" (Breen, 1984:47).

According to Candlin,

Syllabuses are concerned with the specification and planning of what is to be learned, frequently set down in some written form as prescriptions for action by teachers and learners. They have, traditionally, the mark of authority. They are concerned with the achievement of ends, often, though not always, associated with the pursuance of particular means" (Candlin, 1984:30).

Johnson (1989) identifies two philosophies of curriculum and syllabus design - a "specialist approach" and a "learner-centered approach" (in Hall, 1997). Hall indicates that

...many participants contribute to the top-down process, namely the policy-makers, needs analysts, methodologists, materials writers, teacher trainers, teachers, and finally the learners themselves, producing a syllabus which seems simply designed by a 'specialist', given to the teacher, and 'taught' to the students (Hall, 1997: p.5).

For Reilly,

A language teaching syllabus involves the integration of subject matter (what to talk about) and linguistic matter (how to talk about it); that is, the actual matter that makes up teaching. Choices of syllabi can range from the more or less purely linguistic, where the content of instruction is the grammatical and lexical forms of the language, to the purely semantic or informational, where the content of instruction is some skill or information and only incidentally the form of the language (Reilly, 1988: p.1).

Therefore, we can say that while designing a syllabus, the theory of language and theory of learning plays a major role. To design a syllabus is to decide what gets taught and in what order. For this reason, the theory of language underlying the language teaching method, whether it is explicit or implicit, will play a major role in determining what syllabus is adopted. Moreover, the theory of learning also plays an important part in determining the kind of syllabus used (Reilly, 1988: p.1).

2.3.2. Types of Syllabuses

The choice of a syllabus is a major decision in language teaching, and it should be made as consciously and with as much information as possible (Reilly, 1988).

There are several distinct types of language teaching syllabi that have been proposed, and these different types may be implemented in diverse teaching situations.

Reilly has proposed six types of syllabi as follows:

- "A structural (formal) syllabus." The content of language teaching is a collection of the forms and structures, usually grammatical, of the language being taught. Examples include nouns, verbs, adjectives, statements, questions, subordinate clauses, and so on.
- "A notional/functional syllabus." The content of the language teaching is a collection of the functions that are performed when language is used, or of the notions that language is used to express. Examples of functions include: informing, agreeing, apologizing, requesting; examples of notions include size, age, color, comparison, time, and so on.

- "A situational syllabus." The content of language teaching is a collection of real or imaginary situations in which language occurs or is used. A situation usually involves several participants who are engaged in some activity in a specific setting. The language occurring in the situation involves a number of functions, combined into a plausible segment of discourse. The primary purpose of a situational language teaching syllabus is to teach the language that occurs in the situations. Examples of situations include: seeing the dentist, complaining to the landlord, buying a book at the book store, meeting a new student, and so on.
- "A skill-based syllabus." The content of the language teaching is a collection of specific abilities that may play a part in using language. Skills are things that people must be able to do to be competent in a language, relatively independently of the situation or setting in which the language use can occur. While situational syllabi group functions together into specific settings of language use, skill-based syllabi group linguistic competencies (pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, and discourse) together into generalized types of behavior, such as listening to spoken language for the main idea, writing well-formed paragraphs, giving effective oral presentations, and so on. The primary purpose of skill-based instruction is to learn the specific language skill. A possible secondary purpose is to develop more general competence in the language, learning only incidentally any information that may be available while applying the language skills.
- "A task-based syllabus." The content of the teaching is a series of complex and purposeful tasks that the students want or need to perform with the language they are learning. The tasks are defined as activities with a purpose other than language learning, but, as in a content-based syllabus, the performance of the tasks is approached in a way that is intended to develop second language ability. Language learning is subordinate to task performance, and language teaching occurs only as the need arises during the performance of a given task. Tasks integrate language (and other) skills in specific settings of language use. Task-based teaching differs from situation-based teaching in that while situational teaching has the goal of teaching the specific language content

that occurs in the situation (a predefined product), task-based teaching has the goal of teaching students to draw on resources to complete some piece of work (a process). The students draw on a variety of language forms, functions, and skills, often in an individual and unpredictable way, in completing the tasks. Tasks that can be used for language learning are, generally, tasks that the learners actually have to perform in any case. Examples include: applying for a job, talking with a social worker, getting housing information over the telephone, and so on.

- "A content-based-syllabus." The primary purpose of instruction is to teach some content or information using the language that the students are also learning. The students are simultaneously language students and students of whatever content is being taught. The subject matter is primary, and language learning occurs incidentally to the content learning. The content teaching is not organized around the language teaching, but vice-versa. Content-based language teaching is concerned with information, while task-based language teaching is concerned with communicative and cognitive processes. An example of content-based language teaching is a science class taught in the language the students need or want to learn, possibly with linguistic adjustment to make the science more comprehensible. (Reilly, 1988: pp. 2-3)

Among the above types of syllabus design, recently, task-based approaches to second language teaching, which focus on the ability to perform a task or activity, and not on the explicit teaching of grammatical rules, have been the focus of concern among language researchers and syllabus designers. (Prabhu, 1987; Robinson, 1995, 2001; Skehan, 2003; Ellis, 2003 in Rahimpour, 2007: p.47)

Task-based approaches to language teaching began in the early seventies and developed throughout seventies (Wilkins, 1974, 1976). Rahimpour (2007) lists three kinds of proposals for task-based teaching syllabuses (p.48):

- The procedural syllabus (Prabhu, 1987: 46);
- The process syllabus (Breen, 1984: 76; Breen & Candlin, 1980: 90);
- Task-based language teaching (Long & Crookes, 1992).

All three differ from one another in important ways, yet they all reject linguistic elements like words, structures, notions, functions and situations as the unit of analysis, and instead they all adopt task as the unit of analysis (Rahimpour, 2007).

These approaches are asserted to create more constructive conditions for the development of second or foreign language ability than does any approach that focuses on the explicit teaching and learning the rules of the language alone (Rahimpour, 2007: p.47)

Rahimpour (2007) keeps on explaining the task as central to all of instructional design process, from the identification of learner needs to the measurement of student achievement (p.47). A distinction is made between target tasks, which are tasks as they occur in everyday life, and pedagogic tasks, which are derived from the target task sequenced to form the task-based syllabus (p.47).

According to Long, what teachers and students actually work on in the classroom are the pedagogic task (Long, 1989). "Pedagogic tasks are graded and sequenced by the degree of difficulty from simple to complex. Task complexity is not the reflection of traditional linguistic grading criteria; rather, it results from task factors themselves" (Long & Crookes, 1992: 45, 1993: 12).

Task based syllabus differs from the syntactic syllabus in the same way as the procedural and process syllabi. It assumes that the learner learns best when using language to communicate about something. TBLT also differs from the two other analytic syllabi in several ways. It differs from the procedural syllabus in that it stresses the importance of carrying out a needs analysis prior to instruction. Identifying possible sources of task complexity indeed is a necessary prerequisite for making principled decisions concerning the grading and sequencing of tasks, upon which much of the value of the TBLT will rest. Grading and sequencing of pedagogic tasks is indeed a major challenge for the task-based syllabus designers. (Rahimpour, 2010: p.1662)

There is also the negotiated syllabus, which is also called the "process syllabus". It differs from all other syllabus in one major aspect. Clarke briefly explains it as

... the negotiated syllabus does not in fact exist before the learners meet with the teacher. Design is therefore no longer external to, or prior to, the implementation of the syllabus and in fact becomes its most essential pedagogical component, being itself part of the learning process (ibid, p.14). Learners thus involve themselves in fundamental decisions concerning content, materials, methodology, testing, and evaluation so that design becomes a process concept, a dynamic and flexible dimension of the learning experience (Clarke, 1991: p.14).

Breen (1987) points out that this kind of syllabus is quite distinctive from the other types of syllabus in that it 'is something of a deviant in relation to the conventions of syllabus design' (p. 166); 'is obviously unconventional' (p. 168), and 'might be perceived as a fairly radical departure from the norms of syllabus design' (p. 170).

Negotiated syllabus would have to be created spontaneously as new decisions are made. Furthermore, it might be that the materials generated by and for one particular group would rarely if ever find future appropriacy to another group (Clarke, 1991: p.21).

Moreover, the process syllabus, or negotiated syllabus, "represents an extension of the Task-Based syllabus. The distinction, however, is that activities and tasks are not sequenced" (ibid, p.21).

2.3.3. Teachers' Role in Syllabus Design

According to Nunan and Bell, teachers are consumers of other people's syllabuses and their role is to implement the plans of applied linguists and government agencies (Nunan, 1993; Bell, 1983). While there are some teachers who have a free hand in designing their own syllabuses to base their own teaching programs, most are, as Bell (1983) suggests, consumers of other syllabus designers. In accordance with this, Nunan (1993:8) agrees with Bell and argues that few teachers are able to design their own syllabuses. Nunan (1987) also reports that some teachers believe that syllabus development should reside on people with specific expertise.

However, Brindley suggests that teachers can also create open and negotiable syllabuses of their own. Indeed, he believes that an effective syllabus should be negotiated by teachers and their students on the basis of their learners' needs analysis (Brindley, 1984).

2.3.4. Need for a Syllabus

Littlefield (1999a) suggested that a syllabus serves seven purposes:

- It sets the tone for a course,
 - motivates students to set lofty but achievable goals,
 - serves as a planning tool for faculty,
 - structures students' work
 - helps faculty plan and meet course goals in a timely manner,
 - serves as a contract between faculty and students about what students can expect from faculty and vice versa,
 - and is a portfolio artifact for tenure, promotion, or job applications.
- (in Slattery & Carlson, 2005, p. 159)

These seven objectives can be put into 3 broad categories, being motivational, structural, and evidentiary (Slattery & Carlson, 2005, p. 159).

Regarding the motivational aspects, since "students usually receive the course syllabus at the first class meeting, it sets the tone for the class" (Appleby 1999; Littlefield 1999a in Slattery & Carlson, 2005, p. 159). When introducing the syllabus, we must counteract "fixed beliefs that students are powerless to affect what happens to them; that hard work will not pay off; that success is due to luck, and failure is due to circumstances beyond their control" (Walvoord & Anderson 1998, p. 16 in Slattery & Carlson, 2005, p. 159).

On the basis of structure, "a good syllabus creates somewhat a route map for both faculty and students, allowing all parties to recognize where they need to go and what they need to do to get there. Dates for papers, examinations, readings, and other assignments, as well as weights for these assignments, help faculty stay on schedule

throughout the semester, while also helping students identify what they need to do to earn a particular grade" (Slattery & Carlson, 2005, p. 160).

Evidentiary function regards the "contract function of a syllabus" between faculty and students (Slattery & Carlson, 2005, p. 160).

Brosman (1998) dates the contractual aspect of the syllabus to the 1970s, when students first began to challenge expectations that were not described in their course syllabi. Policies that are clearly outlined in a syllabus, thus, can help avert lawsuits. Hence, when disputes arose, administrators can consult the syllabus to see if the faculty followed the rules that both the professor and the students agreed to in the course (Slattery & Carlson, 2005, p. 160).

In addition, "a well-done syllabus effectively communicates the nature and quality of a faculty member's teaching philosophy and abilities to tenure and promotion committees or search committees at other universities" (Slattery & Carlson, 2005, p. 160) "Syllabi also serve a vital function in accreditation efforts, where accrediting bodies look to syllabi to ascertain what happens in specific courses and then look across syllabi to gauge learning more broadly. This function is an important one, as external bodies often must assess teaching indirectly" (p.160).

2.3.5. Practical Problems of Top-Down Syllabus Implementation

Johnson (1989) argues that the specialist, top-down approach has several strengths. These include 'expert' input, clear formulation of objectives and perhaps most importantly, they are also transferable (i.e. they can "be used by teachers and learners other than those involved in their initial development" (in Hall, 1997: p.7).

However, Johnson (1989) also notes "the one-way flow of information inherent in a top-down syllabus, and the lack of interaction and consultation with the learner" (in Hall, 1997: p.9). Moreover, "it also seems to regard teachers as unproblematic deliverers of the syllabus" (p.9).

"Top-down syllabuses also seem to consider learners as passive acceptors of

language, whose motivation remains unquestioned" (Johnson in Hall, 1997: p.9). According to the ideas of Freire (1970), learners are seen as "blank pages" and receptacles of "knowledge", not as individuals who can help construct the syllabus and the lesson" (in Hall, 1997: p.9).

Hall also point out to the dishonesty of the ELT industry by referring to Rogers' critique of 'dishonest' ELT (Hall, 1997: pp. 9-10). "Top-down syllabuses may lead to conditions of cultural imposition, teacher-learner dichotomy, and not enough learning" (p.10).

Another problem Hall points out is the comparative *difficulty* around which syllabus is generally organized. He further asserts that "behind this common-sense concept lies the very real problem of discovering what material is difficult for learners" (Hall, 1997: p.6).

Larsen (1974) also notes that learners may need to use 'difficult' structures earlier than a difficulty-oriented syllabus introduces them, and Hauptmann (1971) is unable to find regular structural and situational patterns of difficulty amongst learners. "Larsen thus offers *utility* as a possible principle of syllabus sequencing, although again there seem to be substantial problems in discovering what is more/less useful for learners" (in Hall, 1997: p.6).

It seems, therefore, that 'external' syllabuses cannot satisfactorily establish what is 'easy', 'difficult' or 'useful' for learners, and that the arguments of 'experts' are essentially irresolvable (Hall, 1997: p.7).

2.3.6. Theoretical Problems of Top-Down Syllabus Design

In their discussions about the organization of syllabus content, Larsen (1974) and Pienemann (1985) seem to implicitly accept that syllabus writers are rather detached from the actual learners in the classroom, at times having to 'guess' what learners can understand (in Hall, 1997: p.8).

According to Hall, "This questions the whole notion that an 'expert' can in fact successfully design syllabuses for the learner" (Hall, 1997: p.8). He keeps on referring to Brumfit who proposes that experts 'fit' the syllabus to learners" (Brumfit, 1984: 79).

It seems clear that what Ellis (1993) calls "the built-in syllabus" is thus impossible to ignore. Therefore, syllabus writers need to recognize how a language is learnt and adapt syllabuses accordingly (Brumfit, 1981). Otherwise, the top-down syllabuses they design fails to meet learners' needs (Hall, 1997).

Though we agree to the assertions mentioned above, we don't believe designing syllabuses for each and every different group of learners seems possible. Therefore, top-down syllabuses appear to be the best exercise in syllabus design unless each individual teacher designs his or her own program and materials. This, of course, wouldn't be welcomed by many teachers as well as the institutions who seek a standardized syllabus for every teacher to teach and each learner to follow.

2.3.7. The Need for Negotiation

Based on Freire's (1972) ideas, Candlin takes a critical view of the syllabus and refers to syllabus as "a window on a particular set of social, educational, moral, and subject-matter values" (Candlin, 1984: p. 30). He therefore argues that the top-down syllabuses are detached from learners.

Based on the work of Breen (1984), Candlin also suggests that the issues of "learnability" and "social ownership" of the syllabus can only be approached through the learners themselves (in Hall, 1997: p.14). According to this view, the "whole process of teacher-learner negotiation and renegotiation of the syllabus takes throughout the course of lessons" (p.14). The syllabus thus becomes more than a 'route map' of a course, given to teachers and delivered to learners (p.14). It turns into a social interaction where cultural imposition by the teacher is far less likely and the learners are actively contributing to and forming the syllabus for themselves. Through this process of negotiation, the teacher is established as a peer (Hall, 1997).

Candlin points out that anything could be negotiable such as the method,

content, and evaluation. In his own terms, it is "a radically redefined syllabus" (Candlin; 1984: 33). However, he also attracts attention to the fact that negotiation and re-negotiation "cannot be defined and written at the start of a course" (in Hall, 1997: p.14). He goes on to suggest that "the syllabus should be written as retrospective record of the social outcomes within the classroom." (in Hall, 1997: p.14)

Allwright (1984) also values the negotiation process since it provides "encounter opportunities" for the learners (in Hall, 1997: p.14). He asserts that the outcomes of these opportunities might differ for different learners. However, "what matters is that uptake occurs on the learners' own terms, and that their internal syllabuses are followed". (in Hall, 1997: p.15)

2.3.8. Conclusion

This section presented the syllabus design with a focus on the definition and types of syllabuses, teachers' role in syllabus design, the need for a syllabus, the practical as well as theoretical problems associated with top-down syllabuses, and the need for negotiation. Since this study is built on the notion of a quasi-negotiated syllabus, it is necessary to have a background on the history of syllabus design and its types, and the practical and theoretical problems associated with such top-down syllabuses. Moreover, the teachers' role in syllabus design gains importance in the study since, in traditional top down syllabuses, teachers are considered as the deliverers of top-down syllabuses. However, this study offers a different perspective and makes the syllabus a negotiable one both on the teachers' side and on the students'.

2.4.Negotiated (Process) Syllabus

This study suggests the implementation of a new type of syllabus which has its roots in negotiated syllabus. For this reason, this section is reserved for the definition as well as origins of negotiated syllabus at the first place. Following this background information, it will be discussed as to what aspects could be negotiated in this type of syllabus. Finally, we will present the advantages as well as disadvantages of a negotiated syllabus, and why it is difficult to implement such a syllabus, especially in

the context where this study takes place. In a word, we will try to present the foundation of quasi-negotiated syllabus, and why it should be modified and simplified to fit into this research.

2.4.1. Definition of Negotiated Syllabus

“Fundamental to the nature of classroom work is the type and content of the syllabus which frames the work teachers and students do together” (Breen & Littlejohn, 2000).

Unlike the other syllabuses, a negotiated syllabus involves the teacher and the learners working together to make decisions at many stages of the syllabus design process. “The Negotiated model is totally different from other syllabuses in that it allows full learner participation in selection of content, mode of working, route of working, assessment, and so on. It should by this means embody the central principle that the learner's needs are of paramount importance.” (Clarke, 1991, p.13)

Negotiated syllabuses are also called “process syllabuses” (Breen, 1987). The word process in the term process syllabus indicates that the important feature of this type of syllabus is that it focuses on how the syllabus is made rather than what should be in it.

It is a way of giving high priority to the recognition of learner needs within a course and to the need to continually adjust courses while they are running to suit changing needs and circumstances. Learners thus involve themselves in fundamental decisions concerning content, materials, methodology, testing, and evaluation so that design becomes a process concept, a dynamic and flexible dimension of the learning experience. In other words, it can be described as process-based rather than objectives or content-based.

Clarke (1991) sees the interest in negotiated syllabuses arising from humanistic methodologies like community language learning which are very learner-centered, from needs analysis which focuses on learners' needs, from work in individualization and learner autonomy, and from learner strategy research which sees the learner playing a

central role in determining how the language is learned. These are clearly strong reasons for having a negotiated syllabus.

According to Clarke, a central feature of the negotiation process is that learners focus on the content of the already existing external syllabus and work towards an appropriate modification of this syllabus according to their perception of its appropriacy. The learners in such a case are not only generating a new syllabus but are allowed the possibility of evaluating and restructuring the syllabus placed before them. In this sense, learner intervention would be to some extent made overt and utilized in a pedagogically effective manner. Learners could be engaged in the evaluation of particular materials and tasks and be encouraged to suggest ways of modifying them and contributing to them (Clarke, 1989). Learners could engage in negotiation about the ways in which they prefer to work and even the methods by which they would prefer to be tested. They could even be involved in the construction of test material. There are indeed many ways in which learners could be encouraged to become actively involved in decision-making processes within the framework of an external syllabus (Clarke, 1989).

2.4.2. Origins of the Negotiated Syllabus

Clarke (1991) lists four important streams of applied linguistics and educational thinking from which the Negotiated Syllabus derives from. These are:

- North American experimentation with a variety of 'humanistic' methodologies for an ESL environment (Curan, 1972; Stevick, 1976);
- the British EFL emphasis upon needs analysis as the basis for a Notional or Communicative syllabus (Richterich, 1972; Richterich & Hancerel, 1977, 1980; Munby, 1978);
- the general increase in research into learner individualization and autonomy (Altman, 1972; Disick, 1975), and
- investigations into the nature of learner strategies in the language learning process (for example, Naiman, Frohlich, Stern, and Todesco 1978; Candlin & Murphy, 1987; Wenden & Rubin, 1987). (in Clarke, 1991: p.16)

What these four streams have in common is “the recognition that the learner, rather than the teacher, is central to the language-learning process and that the learner's affective, cognitive, and linguistic needs should all play a part in determining the content and implementation of whatever syllabus type is decided upon” (Clarke, 1991: p.16). For Breen also,

...a syllabus can only have, at best, an indirect influence upon language learning. It is mediated by teaching and the encircling classroom context within which instruction is only one element. And it is further mediated by learners' participation in classroom work and by their own interpretation of the appropriate objectives and content for language learning (Breen 1987: 159).

2.4.3. What aspects could be negotiated?

There is some debate over what aspects of the syllabus could be negotiated. Breen and Littlejohn (2000a: 30—31) see the range of decisions open to negotiation as including all the parts of the central circle of the curriculum design, namely goals, content and sequencing, format and presentation, and monitoring and assessment.

Breen and Littlejohn (2000a: 34—38) also point out that negotiation of the goals, content, presentation or assessment of the syllabus can occur at any level of detail or generality from negotiating a particular task in the course, to a sequence of tasks, a series of lessons, the whole course, or the wider curriculum.

2.4.4. Advantages and Disadvantages of a Negotiated Syllabus

“No one would doubt that learners can, and do, bring a creative element into the classroom, an element which could well divert the path of a carefully planned and externally imposed syllabus. However, this creative potential (or disruptive force, depending on one's view of the phenomenon) must surely vary considerably according to the level of cognitive development of the learners and also according to the kind of culture within which it is being implemented.”(Clarke, 1991: p.18)

Clarke argues that "learners bring with them to the learning environment a great deal of experience and knowledge, a whole set of ideational, interpersonal, and textual schemata" which can "enrich the classroom experience and indeed determine the nature of that experience" (Clarke, 1991: p. 18). He further asserts that "a good teacher will exploit to the fullest extent all knowledge already available in the classroom and, to that degree at least, most syllabuses will require a certain amount of content adjustment to match the existing schemata of the learners so that their requirements can be more effectively met" (p.18).

Breen (1987) also argues strongly that "all courses have to adjust in some way to the reality of the teaching situation and the negotiated syllabus gives clear recognition to this" (in Nation & Macalister, 2010). When learners are involved in shaping the syllabus, it

... has a strong effect on motivation, satisfaction and commitment to the course. It changes from being the teacher's course to the learners' course. The actual negotiation process has its benefits. The negotiation also develops learners' awareness of the goals of language—learning activities and how these goals can be achieved. This understanding may then make them better learners... We can therefore claim that the advantages of a negotiated syllabus derive mainly from its responsiveness to the "wants" of the learners and the involvement of the learners (Nation & Macalister, 2010: p.156).

However, Natin and Macalister (2010) also list several disadvantages to the negotiated syllabuses that may reside both on the learners and on the teachers:

- Learner factors
 - The learners have limited awareness of the possible activities.
 - The learners are perfectly happy to let the teacher teach.
 - The learners need training in negotiation.
 - With no course book learners do not feel a sense of progress.
 - Learners' wants are only a small part of learners' needs.
 - The needs of the learners are too diverse to reach agreement.

- Cultural expectations make learners reluctant to negotiate with the teacher.
 - The learners lack confidence in negotiating with the teacher.
 - Negotiation will have a negative effect on students' attitudes to the course because the teacher is not taking control of the course.
 - Teacher factors
 - Negotiation uses valuable class time.
 - The teacher's workload is less if the teacher teaches exactly the same lessons to several different classes.
 - The school expects all learners in different classes to follow the same course.
 - What is done in your class needs to be similar to what is done in the rest of the school.
 - There are not a lot of teaching resources to draw on.
 - The teacher is not skilful enough to cope with short-term planning.
- (Nation & Macalister, 2010: p.156)

2.4.5. Problems in implementing a negotiated syllabus

There are advantages yet also some challenges to integrating the negotiation process into a language programme. There might arise significant differences between what learners and teachers might perceive as useful language learning activities (Nunan 1989). However, "learners of a certain type might benefit from the opportunity to contribute to the design process and this might be particularly appropriate within an ESP environment where common goals can easily be identified" (Clarke, 1991: p.23). Furthermore, "a growing climate of awareness concerning learner needs and wants, both cognitive and affective, the negotiation process could well produce more motivated and efficient learning" (p:23). This, nevertheless, requires learner training according to Clarke (1991).

Even in the case of an ESP group of learners, there still remains the important consideration of training them to operate within a quite different and unfamiliar working environment. Indeed an important component of a

Negotiated syllabus would have to be a module focusing upon the training of learners to handle the ongoing process of negotiation ... It is likely that learners involved with negotiating a learning programme for the first time would have no clear notion of negotiation as syllabus content. Unless learners recognize that negotiation itself constitutes an important dimension of the content, then an impression of time not being used efficiently might well be generated. (Clarke, 1991: p.24).

Littlejohn (1983) also puts emphasis on the importance of learner preparation prior to the implementation of a negotiated process, and Allwright (1981) too has discussed the issue of training learners to assume more responsibility.

According to Clarke (1991), the negotiation process depends on the learners' cultural norms and their state of cognitive development (p.19). These will affect their decisions concerning the content of syllabus, the materials to be used, the methodology to be employed, and the testing and assessment devices.

He also draws attention to the maturity of the learners:

Younger learners and those towards the 'beginner' end of the proficiency scale will inevitably be less able and/or willing to exert any influence over the content and implementation of the syllabus. Furthermore, learners in many cultures would never dream that any such thing might be possible or desirable, while learners from any culture working within examination-driven syllabuses will not wish for or tolerate any substantial digression from the predetermined framework. Even in the case of adult learners working in a situation unconstrained by examinations, it is likely that they will wish to trust the teacher, as expert, to most effectively determine the route from unknowing to knowing. And, in a large number of cases, this trust can be expected to be justified. Few learners, indeed, would have any clear awareness of what they need or want to learn, let alone how they would wish to go about it (Clarke, 1991: p.19)

He further refers to a case study by Littlejohn where reservations and

uncertainties revealed when learners offered more control over their language programme (Littlejohn 1983: 599-600 in Clarke, 1991).

Therefore, he claims that it is the ESP environment, a group with homogenous goals, that seems the most fertile for the application of the "strong version" of a Negotiated syllabus (Clarke, 1991: p.19). That is, the learners have "full learner participation in the selection of content, mode of working, route of working, assessment, and so on" (p.13).

Another challenge to the application of a negotiated syllabus is the diversity of learner strategies to be found within any group. Different learner strategies would produce different decisions regarding the materials and the method of instruction (Clarke, 1991).

According to Breen, "different learners are very likely to exploit different internal syllabuses, and it may be quite inappropriate to assume that a "good strategy" for one learner is likely to be "good" for all learners" (Breen, 1983:63).

Instructional resources are another challenging factor according to White (1988). When the textbook is abandoned and learners have a say on the choice of instructional materials, this may put a heavy load on the teacher, especially the unskilled ones. In other words, the teacher may need a "considerable and a large number of 'ideas books' containing ready-made but flexible modules necessary to provide the basis for classroom activity" (Clarke, 1991: p.22)

The result turns out to be an emphasis on virtuoso teaching, with all of the wisdom lying in a single teacher's head—the person who was instructed in the same method or who was brought into the fold. Often, there is little recorded on paper—no developed curriculum, syllabus, or materials for others to use who will next have the same teaching assignment. An obvious result is that rugged individualism can prevail over cooperation and team effort. (Dubin and Olshtain 1986:65)

In sum, we could say that "the major weakness of the process model of curriculum design is that it rests upon the quality of the teacher' (Stenhouse 1975: 96).

2.4.6. Conclusion

This section presented the negotiated syllabus with its definition and its origins, its advantages and disadvantages, the problems in implementing a negotiated syllabus, and what aspects to be negotiated. This chapter could be said to be central to this study since it provides the background information on negotiated syllabuses which considers the learner as a unique individual and thus promotes a constructivist learning environment. However, it also seemed to us that negotiate syllabuses are not much suitable to the nature of this study with their strong version. Moreover, they appear to pose practical problems in particular cultures and with different learners. Therefore, we had to modify it and came up with the idea of a 'quasi-negotiated syllabus' in which only a portion of the syllabus is negotiated.

2.5. Learning Environment

As mentioned earlier in this paper, constructivism asserts that the learning starts within the individual himself. Based on this assumption, we can confidently say that any affective filter, namely classroom anxiety, cultural bias, reticence and socialization, all may impede the healthy implementation of a truly constructivist learning. If learners are feeling tense in class due to their anxiety levels, they will probably be reluctant to engage in activities and prefer to stay silent. If they develop cultural bias towards the target language stemming from factors such as the instructional materials, they may become more reserved and less motivated towards learning. If they have socialization problems with other students, they may fail to effectively collaborate with other learners. All these factors should be considered and tried to be lowered to an extent that would turn the learning environment to a safer place for learners to actively engage in the classroom interaction. For this reason, we reserved this section to these affective filters in order to illustrate how important they are in order to achieve a better constructivist learning environment.

2.5.1. Willingness to Speak

How to reduce reticence in ESL/EFL classrooms to increase students' target language use is a pedagogical issue that interests not only language researchers but also teachers. In the past decades, a growing number of studies in ESL/EFL have been conducted to explore the reasons for student reticence in classrooms. The findings have shown that the reasons are very complex and involve multiple learner variables such as motivation, confidence, anxiety, etc. (MacIntyre, Clement, Dörnyei, & Noels 1998; Hashimoto 2002; Yashima 2002; Liu 2005). (Lee & Ng 2009: p.302)

Willingness to communicate (WTC) model provides 'a useful interface between these disparate lines of enquiry' (Lee & Ng 2009: p.302). WTC was originally introduced with reference to L1 communication and was considered to be a fixed personality trait that was stable across situations.

MacIntyre et al. (in Lee & Ng 2009: p.302) adapted this model for investigating learners' WTC in a L2, arguing that WTC is a "situation-based variable" rather than a "trait-like variable", and students' communicative behavior in L2 situations is influenced by "both immediate situational factors as well as more enduring influences". WTC is then conceptualized as a "pyramid" model in which "social and individual context, affective cognitive context, motivational propensities, situated antecedents, and behavioral intention are interrelated in influencing WTC in L2 use" (Hashimoto 2002: 38 in Lee and Ng 2009: p.303)

"The suggestions of MacIntyre et al. are insightful and shed light on the importance of situational variables such as participants, physical setting, and the formality of the situation in student reticence investigation" (Lee and Ng 2009: p.303). These variables are assumed to produce immediate effects on WTC and are able to explain why some learners are more willing to participate in one particular classroom situation than another.

Since the teacher is always the one who determines what and when students are going to speak in classrooms (Garton 2002; Walsh 2002), we can say that the teacher is one of these situational variables. In such an institutional setting, the teacher is the

person institutionally invested with not only the most talking rights but also the power to control both the content and procedure, discussion topic, and who may participate (Gil, 2002; Walsh, 2002).

2.5.2. Anxiety

Problems associated with anxiety in language learning is a known challenge in language learning. For instance, Horwitz, (2000, 2001), and Horwitz & Cope (1986) observed that anxious learners had difficulty in speaking and even in discriminating the sounds and structures of a target language message.

Advances in foreign language anxiety theory and instruments emerged in the mid-1980s (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991a). Horwitz defined foreign language anxiety as a separate and distinct phenomenon particular to language learning (Young, 1991), and research that has focused specifically on the construct of language anxiety (Aida, 1994; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989, 1991b, 1991c; Liu, 1989; Philips, 1992; Saito & Samimy, 1996) has found a consistent inverse relationship between anxiety and second language (L2) achievement (Horwitz, 2001). Although a negative correlation between foreign language classroom anxiety and achievement seems to have been established, it is also clear that anxiety does not work in isolation.

A number of studies have sought to identify factors associated with language anxiety (Cheng, 2002; Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997; Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley, 2000). Young (1992) suggested a number of factors associated with anxiety in foreign language settings. Specifically, the experts felt that motivation, cultural factors, the students' own coping skills, attention, self-concept, beliefs about language learning, and the specific teaching methodology the student experiences all play a role in learner anxiety.

2.5.3. Cultural Bias

There is much research on the role of cultural bias in language learning (Al-Issa, 2005; Dlasaka, 2000; Henry, 1970; Hirschfelder, 1982; Ndura, 2004).

It has been found that cultural bias affects learning and the way one perceives oneself and others, especially when it appears in instructional materials.

Ndura (2004) asserts that instructional materials that exclude students' diverse life experiences in the teaching and learning process disempower them and stifle their voices. Even sometimes, when the case is a negative reaction towards the discovery of some particular aspect of the target culture, the learner may end up even turning off the language completely.

Ndura (2004, p. 150) claims that 'textbooks do not reflect the growing diversity of students' life experiences and perspectives'.

For Sonaiya,

'No language-teaching . . . can truly claim universality or neutrality with respect to promoting specific cultural values, regardless of what its proponents might claim' (Sonaiya, 2002, p. 115).

According to Hirschfelder (1982), instructional materials affect students' development of knowledge. It also affects the way they perceive themselves and others. Sonaiya (2002) suggests that 'it is crucial that language practitioners be aware of cultural diversity and that their decisions, in particular about which teaching methods to employ, are made on a consciously informed basis' (p. 115).

As Otlowski (2003) notes, textbooks are the most important mediators between the student's culture and that of the language he or she is learning. Therefore, it is important to make them, as well as the English instruction, culturally diverse.

2.5.4. Socialization

According to Wenger (1998), a community is maintained by the mutual engagement and joint enterprise of the members who share communal resources such as tools, documents, routines, and vocabulary. Thus, becoming a competent member of a community requires learning the conventions of the community, communicating in its language, and acting in accordance with its particular norms (Flowerdew, 2000; Mohan, 2001; Sfard, 1998).

Language socialization may therefore mean increasing participation, playing various social roles, and gaining full membership in learning events (Gutierrez & Stone, 1997; Morita & Kobayashi, 2008).

Duff (2007a) puts it into classroom situation and in his terms, "academic discourse socialization", he explains it as 'developing the capability to participate in new discourse communities as a result of social interaction and cognitive experience' (p. 14). Therefore, we can say that L2 learners' successful participation in academic discourse is closely connected to the notion of language socialization in that it involves a negotiation process and, ideally, mastering the sociocultural rules, disciplinary subcultures, and discourse conventions that are embedded in and transmitted through language (Duff, 2002; Morita, 2000; Schieffelin & Ochs, 1986; Schneider & Fujishima, 1995).

Lave and Wegner name this as communities of practice. The concept of communities of practice derives from the notion of situated learning (Lave & Wenger, 1991), which in turn considers learning to be a social practice. Community, within sociocultural theory, is a context in which 'participants share understandings concerning what they are doing and what that means in their lives' (Lave & Wenger, 1991: p. 98).

Situated learning has its roots in Vygotsky's work (1978; 1986) as well as that of other socioculturalists, and they all consider human mental functioning as inherently situated in social, institutional, and cultural contexts (Davydov & Radzikhovski, 1985; Roebuck, 2000). Vygotsky (1978) emphasizes that language is a mediator between mental and social activity, an idea that is tied to his zone of proximal development.

The ZPD is ‘the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers’ (1978, p. 86). One key aspect of his theory is that a child’s external language becomes internalized and is transformed into self-directed mental activity through social interaction. In this process, the instructor’s role to scaffold students’ learning is critical (Duff, 2007a; Wells, 1999). That is to say, scaffolding aids in providing assistance and support, usually through collaboration, to help learners develop competence (Mercer, 1995; Ohta, 2000; Wells, 1999).

2.5.5. Conclusion

This section tried to illustrate the importance of four factors that might obstruct the application of a constructivist learning process which we believe should take place in a safer venue for learners where they interact without anxiety and cultural bias, and are more willing to speak and socialize. Only then can we provide our learners with a constructivist learning experience, we believe.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1.Introduction

This chapter is devoted to the methodology used in this study. The first section will include the research design and provide details about the types of data used and the reliability analysis applied to the first data source, questionnaire. The second section will present the universe and the sample that was chosen for the application of the study. It will give detailed information about the control and study groups. The third section will deal with the data collection procedure and again the data sources that were used in the study. The final section will present a detailed description of the treatment phase week by week and provide a comprehensive overview of the application of the study.

3.2.Research Design

The method of this study is a pre-test post-test experimental one which includes two quantitative data sources. Questionnaire is the first of them. It was given to students both at the study and control group.

The questionnaire was developed by the researcher. Some items were adapted from Gardner's (2004) Attitude/Motivation Test Battery and they were modified to fit into the study. The items in Gardner's test battery were chosen to fit best to this study since they were particularly designed to test the "non-linguistic goals" like "improved understanding of the other community, desire to continue studying the language, an interest in learning other languages, etc." (Gardner, 1985: p.1).

In order to assess the reliability of the data gathered through the questionnaire, a pilot study was conducted on 79 students prior to the study and the results were tested using Cronbach Alpha reliability test.

Cronbach Alfa (Cronbach, 1951) is used since it is the most frequently preferred measure of internal consistency. It can be used for three, four, or five point Likert scale items. In this study, the questionnaire is designed as a four point Likert scale. These are “strongly agree”, “agree”, “disagree”, and “strongly disagree”.

Cronbach's Alpha usually increases as the intercorrelations among test items increase, and it is therefore known as an internal consistency estimate of reliability of test scores. Many researchers consider an alpha coefficient at least 0.70 or more to be adequate for the scale (Nunnally, 1978; Cronbach & Shavelson, 2004). Therefore, in this study, the minimum acceptable scale value for the reliability was determined to be 0.70.

When the data from the questionnaire were analyzed, the Cronbach Alpha came out as 0,877.

Table 1: Results of the Reliability Analysis

		N	%
Status	Valid	79	100,0
	Ignored	0	0,0
	Total	79	100,0

Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Arguments
0,877	48

This figure proved the scale highly reliable, and since it was close to “excellent”, the test wasn’t repeated and the scale was kept intact with all the items, none of them being removed.

Following the reliability analysis, the students to participate in the study were grouped into two as the control and study group. Both groups received questionnaires, one prior to the study and one after the study.

The questionnaire has 8 subscales aimed at addressing the hypothesis set forth in this study. The subscales are:

- Class Anxiety
- Attitudes Towards Learning English
- English Course Evaluation
- English Use Anxiety
- Autonomy
- Negotiation
- Collaboration
- Socialization

Each subscale has 6 statements, 3 of which are negatively worded, and the 3 others positively. There are a total of 48 items in the questionnaire.

The questionnaire items were handed out to learners in their mother tongue, Turkish. This was thought necessary in order to receive consistent results. The learners, as mentioned before, were at the beginner level and had little or no English knowledge prior to the study. Even at the end of the study, namely the end of the first semester, the learners had reached the pre-intermediate level. This level might be said to be enough to understand the meaning of the questionnaire items; however, still, the researcher didn't want to risk receiving inconsistent results stemming from possible misunderstandings.

In addition to the questionnaire, the second data source includes the average mean of all academic achievement tests and grades the experimental and the control groups received throughout the period of the study. That is, the overall academic performance scores of both groups were taken from the student affairs department with

the permission of the institution, and then analyzed, again using SPSS 15.0 software program, to see if there was a meaningful difference between them at the end of the semester and see if there was a peripheral effect of the quasi-negotiated process on learners' academic achievement.

3.3.Universe and Sample

The study was conducted at Ankara University Foreign Languages Department in Ankara, Turkey. The subjects of the study group include 2 classes of 22 students each.

They are prep school students and had little or no instruction in English language before. Both classes are homogenous with the same level of proficiency in English being the 'beginner level'. They were placed at this level after an academic assessment test they took prior to the beginning of the semester.

These were students who would study 1 year at the preparatory school to learn English, and then go on to study in their chosen fields such as engineering, political science, medicine, and international affairs. Their academic needs thus differ from each other. The ages of the learners range from 17 to 25. Most of them have to take the prep class as a compulsory requirement, while for some it is optional. Thus, the motivation factors differ within the group.

Subjects of the control group are 44 other students in 2 classes at the same level; namely the 'beginner level'. The control group is identical to the study group on the basis of homogeneity of language level, majors, academic needs, ages, prep class being optional or compulsory, and their motivational factors.

3.4.Data Collection Procedure

There are two types of data sources for this study which are both quantitative. These are the "attitude questionnaire", and the "overall academic performance scores" based on the official exams or oral and written progress assessment tests conducted by

the institution throughout the academic year.

The attitude questionnaire was handed out to students both at the study group and the control group at the end of the first semester. They were not informed that the questionnaire was for a study that was conducted in their class in the first semester. This way, consistent results were assumed to be achieved.

The overall academic performance scores were obtained from the student affairs department at the end of the first semester with permission of the administration.

Both the questionnaire and the results of academic achievement scores were analyzed using the SPSS v.15 software package program.

3.5.Application of the Study

The study was conducted throughout one semester. Two classes of 22 students each were set as the study group and 2 other classes of the same size and equal criteria as the control group. In order to have reliable results, none of the groups were informed about the study.

One of the study group classes was the researcher's main class which he instructed for a 28 class hour per week, and the other was his integrated class where he taught for 6 class hours a week. The remaining 22 class hours belonged to the main course teacher. Since the study is based on a quasi-negotiated syllabus and thus requires the use of 2 to 4 class hours a week, the integrated class also received the intended instruction as well.

The study spanned over the first semester of 2010-2011 academic year, being 17 weeks. The steps of the study could be outlined as follows:

Week 1:

The study group students were instructed about the course, the requirements, and the importance of language learning for their academic and professional lives. This was just the usual instruction of the first week given to each group of students every year.

While informing them about the course, the researcher tried to help them become as motivated for learning as possible. No information was given regarding the study.

In addition, the researcher set a classroom atmosphere to minimize any possible affective factors that may impede the achievement of a friendly classroom environment. The learners were encouraged to get to know each other, do pair and group work activities to break the ice among each other.

Both aims proved to be successful based on the observation of the researcher. The learners quickly engaged in social interaction through group and pair work, and started studying in a highly motivated way doing the in-class activities and their homework willingly.

Week 2 and 3:

Throughout the second and the third week, no activity was conducted related to the study. Since the learners were at the beginner level and had little or no academic knowledge in English language, these weeks were reserved for the normal syllabus to help them improve their understanding of the basic concepts of English language.

Moreover, due to the nature of the study, the learners were expected to reach an affective level where they could feel free of any classroom anxiety, feel a sense of collaboration with other students, and have all the ice melted in the class among close group members and the other students in class. Only then could the study be founded on a firm basis where future aims could be achieved.

In order to achieve collaboration, the researcher thought reading of books could be a good starting point. Thus, he encouraged learners to bring in Level 1(beginner level) story books and read them in 1 class hour per week. Learners began to like this activity much since they realized they could decode the meaning with the help of a dictionary at first, then with the help of a friend sitting close by or another friend in class, and finally consulting to the teacher when they couldn't get the result from either the dictionary or from others in class.

This activity aroused much acceptance from the learners since it promoted their discovery skills, social skills for asking for help and negotiation with others, and consulting to the guidance and help of the teacher, being the more knowledgeable peer.

Week 4:

This was the first week of the study when learners were asked for their desired learning objectives based on their needs as individuals and as the classroom in whole. This could be said to be an interview with the whole class without informing them about the study they were in fact going through. It was a friendly talk between the teacher and the learners as to what other activities they may wish to do in class.

The teacher would allocate 2 to 4 hours each week, whenever possible, and the learners would do whatever they wish during those hours. The nature of these activities was encouraged to be academically oriented but some might be out of the scope like a discussion of a recent news in the mother tongue, or likewise.

The needs analyses yielded the following wish list:

- Keeping reading story books in class
- Inviting foreign speakers to the classroom and practice speaking
- Making presentations on mutually agreed topics for improving world knowledge
- Watching movies and serials in English with subtitles and speaking about them immediately after watching
- Playing the guitar or listening to music in some class hours (non-academic but granted)
- Throwing parties in class for special occasions like birthdays (non-academic but granted)

Week 5 through 17:

All the items in the wish list were met starting from the 5th week till the end of the semester. While in some weeks up to 4 hours were allocated for the activities, in some weeks just 1 or 2 hours could be spared due to the heavy load of that week's syllabus requirements. The items and their application are as follows:

1. Keeping reading story books in class:

Learners kept reading their story books each and every week for at least an hour and sometimes two starting from level 1 books to level 4 books. Each student finished at least 3 books and made a short PowerPoint presentation of the books they had read.

The researcher walked around the class during the reading hours in order to give the learners the feeling that help is nearby whenever they need it. He helped them with vocabulary, phrases or even sentences they couldn't find in their dictionaries or with the help of others. Sometimes, some learners tried the easier way to get the translation of words or sentences from the researcher. In a friendly and joking manner, the researcher encouraged them to first consult their dictionaries or to other students, and use the researcher's knowledge as the final option. This way, the learners were covertly forced to first discover by themselves, then collaborate with peers, and finally consult to the more capable peer, the teacher himself.

2. Inviting foreign speakers to the classroom and practice speaking

There were native speakers of English receiving Turkish language instruction at TÖMER (Turkish Language Teaching Center) building next to the Foreign Languages Department where the study was conducted. The researcher organized three informal meetings with 5 native speakers and asked them to join the class for 1 or 2 hours just to speak with the learners in class. They accepted and visited the class for 3 times in different weeks.

The researcher bought some snacks for the students and arranged the classroom in a way that looked like a cafe. The learners were grouped around each native speaker forming 5 groups. This was intentional to give them the feeling as if they were having a casual conversation with friends.

These meetings revealed fruitful results even in the first meeting since the learners gained confidence over the level they had reached saying "We can speak English. We could communicate with them."

These meetings took place in the 8th week, 10th week and 14th week respectively.

3. Making presentations on mutually agreed topics for improving world knowledge

The learners were encouraged to make presentations on topics of their choice which they felt might teach others something they didn't know. The researcher didn't set this as a requirement but a voluntary work. The friendly atmosphere and the motivation of students helped almost all the class members be eager to do this. Some students made more than 1 presentation while few of them skipped it. The researcher didn't force those unwilling learners and didn't make it a requirement.

Most of the presentations were related to the academic pursuits of learners like a medicine student presenting how brain works, and a social studies student presenting the devastating results of Hiroshima. Of course, there were others presenting a material of their individual choice which might not be related to their departments.

Since these presentations were not a requirement of the course, they were made in different weeks and not in all weeks.

4. Watching movies and serials in English with subtitles and speaking about them immediately after watching

In almost all weeks, 1 to 2 hours were allocated for serials or movies. The aim was twofold.

First, after each movie or serial, learners were encouraged to speak about the movie and thus practice their speaking skills. Moreover, it was thought to lessen their anxiety about using the language. To achieve this, they were not forced, nor were they expected to create well formed long sentences. Whatever they wanted to say, even a single word, was welcomed. This approach revealed successful results and more students became eager to speak. Moreover, they liked speaking about something they enjoyed, being a movie they watched.

Second aim was to give learners an opportunity to relax and relieve from the heavy load of some weeks' programs. In such days, some learners asked to watch the movie with the Turkish subtitle since they said they didn't understand and couldn't follow. When the case was nearly half of the students asking for so, the researcher turned on the Turkish subtitle to find a middle ground among students and to not lose the other half. That is, one of the aims of this study was to make the normal syllabus more acceptable for the whole class and not lose any individual student and keep the motivation and willingness high. Thus, it would be more appropriate to give them times when they could just do an activity for its own sake, for relaxing and enjoying only.

5. Playing the guitar or listening to music in some class hours

As per learners' request, non-academic activities like playing the guitar or listening to music were also granted and included in this study. Though not academically oriented, these activities would foster in-class relationships of learners and might help them develop interpersonal skills along with having a sense of attachment with the community they live in. Moreover, as a relaxation hour, it would be an escape from the heavy load of some weeks. Thus, it was thought to help learners not develop negative feelings for the heavy load of the program the actual syllabus brought with it.

These activities took place in only 2 weeks as a separate hour dedicated totally to them. They were in the 11th and 17th weeks.

6. Throwing parties in class for special occasions like birthdays

As in the case of playing the guitar and listening to music, parties were also not academically aimed. They were granted to strengthen the positive and motivating atmosphere gained so far. Besides, they were thought to increase student motivation on their academic progress as well as providing them many extra gains. These could be engaging in social activities and thus developing self esteem and sociability, valuing others as well as being valued, and realizing that classroom is not just a place for learning subjects but a community where they can share the social life with others just like it is outside. A learning environment would be more fruitful when there are no borders and anxieties, but a friendly atmosphere where each individual feels comfortable.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1.Introduction

This chapter is devoted to the findings of the study as well as the discussion and interpretation of these findings. There is one section with 69 parts. The first two parts, namely 4.2.1 and 4.2.3, will present the comparison of the attitude and success differences between the control and study group before and after the study, and thus present if there is a meaningful difference between the groups before and after the study. The following parts, 4.2.3 to 4.2.66, will deal in detail with the comparison of control and study group's attitudes towards the items in the 8 subscales of the questionnaire. A detailed comparison of each subscale will be presented in 8 parts for each subscale which include 2 parts for the detailed answers each group gave to the items in the questionnaire, 2 parts for comparison of these answers statistically using t-test, 1 part for the interpretation of results, and finally 3 parts illustrating the results in graphs. Therefore, there are a total of 64 parts dedicated to the analysis of the 8 subscales in the questionnaire. Parts 4.2.67 to 4.2.69 will present the comparison of the final grades of control and study group after the study, interpret on the findings and illustrate the results in a graph, respectively.

4.2.COMPARISON OF THE CONTROL AND STUDY GROUPS

This section will present the results of the analysis of data between the control and study group. As mentioned above, the first two parts will present the attitude and success differences between the control and study group before and after the study. The next 64 parts will provide a detailed analysis, interpretation and illustration of the data gathered. The final 3 parts will present the comparison of the results of the overall academic scores of control and study a group, interpret the findings and illustrate the results in detail in a graph.

4.2.1. Comparison of the Attitude and Success differences between the two groups Prior To the study

Table 2: Comparison of the Attitude and Success differences between the two groups Prior To the study

Success and Attitude	N	(Mean)	Standard Deviation	LEVENE TEST		t	p
PRE-TEST (CONTROL)	44	2,5955	0,207	<u>F</u> 1,548	<u>p</u> 0,250	0,745	0,302
POST-TEST (STUDY)	44	2,6387	0,103				

In order to achieve homogeneity of the groups prior to the study, the groups had to have no difference in their success and attitudes before the study. For this purpose, an independent T-Test was conducted and the results were illustrated in Table 2. Before the study, the variance equation of both groups was analyzed using a Levene Test. The hypotheses are as follows;

H_0 : There is no difference between the groups' success and attitude prior to the study.

H_1 : There is difference between the groups' success and attitude prior to the study.

As a result of the T-Test, since $p > 0,05$, it can be concluded that there is no meaningful difference between the groups' success and attitude prior to the study ($t=0.745$ $p=0.302$). This is the intended result for this study. Since there is no difference between two groups, the pre-requisite for the study could be said to have been met.

4.2.2. Comparison of the Attitude and Success differences between the two groups After the study

Table 3: Comparison of the Attitude and Success differences between the two groups After the study

Success and Attitude	N	(Mean)	Standard Deviation	LEVENE TEST		t	p
PRE-TEST (CONTROL)	44	2,6695	0,476	<u>F</u> 1,487	<u>p</u> 0,263	2,310	0,026
POST-TEST (STUDY)	44	2,8939	0,305				

We need to see if there is a meaningful difference between the groups' success and attitude following the study. For this purpose, an independent T-Test was conducted and the results were illustrated in Table 3. Before the study, the variance equation of both groups was analyzed using a Levene Test. The hypotheses are as follows;

H_0 : There is no difference between the groups' success and attitude after the study.

H_1 : There is difference between the groups' success and attitude after the study.

As a result of the T-Test, since $p < 0,05$, it can be concluded that there is meaningful difference between the groups' success and attitude after the study. ($t=2,310$ $p=0,026$)

4.2.3. The distribution of Groups' Differences on "Class Anxiety" Prior to the Study

Table 4: The distribution of Groups' Differences on "Class Anxiety" Prior to the Study

PRE TEST	Attitudes towards "Class Anxiety"	Group	Definitel y Agree	Agree	Disagree	Definitel y Disagree	TOTAL
Class Anxiety	I get nervous while speaking in English in the classroom.	Study	6 (%13,6)	36 (%68,2)	1 (%4,5)	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	12 (%27,3)	30 (%68,2)	2 (%4,5)	-	44 (%100,0)
	I feel tense while speaking in English in the classroom.	Study	4 (%9,1)	24 (%54,5)	16 (%36,4)	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	12 (%27,3)	16 (%36,4)	16 (%36,4)	-	44 (%100,0)
	I have the feeling that my friends will laugh at me while speaking in English in the classroom.	Study	4 (%9,1)	26 (%59,1)	8 (%18,2)	6 (%13,6)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	4 (%9,1)	26 (%59,1)	8 (%18,2)	6 (%13,6)	44 (%100,0)
	I don't feel anxious when I need to answer a question in English in the classroom.	Study	4 (%9,1)	12 (%27,3)	22 (%50,0)	6 (%13,6)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	4 (%9,1)	12 (%27,3)	24 (%54,5)	4 (%9,1)	44 (%100,0)
	I don't feel nervous when speaking in English in the classroom.	Study	-	2 (%4,5)	22 (%50,0)	20 (%45,5)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	-	2 (%4,5)	34 (%77,3)	8 (%18,2)	44 (%100,0)
	I don't feel anxiety when speaking in English in the classroom.	Study	-	6 (%13,6)	30 (%68,2)	8 (%18,2)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	-	6 (%13,6)	38 (%86,4)	-	44 (%100,0)

4.2.4. The distribution of Groups' Differences on "Class Anxiety" After the Study

Table 5: The distribution of Groups' Differences on "Class Anxiety" After the Study

POST TEST	Attitudes towards "Class Anxiety"	Group	Definitel y Agree	Agree	Disagree	Definitel y Disagree	TOTAL
Class Anxiety	I get nervous while speaking in English in the classroom.	Study	8 (%18,2)	18 (%40,9)	12 (%27,3)	6 (%13,6)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	12 (%27,3)	24 (%54,5)	6 (%13,6)	2 (%4,5)	44 (%100,0)
	I feel tense while speaking in English in the classroom.	Study	6 (%13,6)	14 (%31,8)	16 (%36,4)	8 (%18,2)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	12 (%27,3)	20 (%45,5)	10 (%22,7)	2 (%4,5)	44 (%100,0)
	I have the feeling that my friends will laugh at me while speaking in English in the classroom.	Study	2 (%4,5)	12 (%27,3)	8 (%18,2)	22 (%50,0)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	4 (%9,1)	12 (%27,3)	14 (%31,8)	14 (%31,8)	44 (%100,0)
	I don't feel anxious when I need to answer a question in English in the classroom.	Study	2 (%4,5)	18 (%40,9)	22 (%50,0)	2 (%4,5)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	-	14 (%31,8)	28 (%63,6)	2 (%4,5)	44 (%100,0)
	I don't feel nervous when speaking in English in the classroom.	Study	-	12 (%27,3)	24 (%54,5)	8 (%18,2)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	-	8 (%18,2)	28 (%63,6)	8 (%18,2)	44 (%100,0)
	I don't feel anxiety when speaking in English in the classroom.	Study	2 (%4,5)	16 (%36,4)	22 (%50,0)	4 (%9,1)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	-	18 (%40,9)	20 (%45,5)	6 (%13,6)	44 (%100,0)

4.2.5. Comparison of the Control Group Students' Pre-Test and Post-Test Results

Table 6: Comparison of the Control Group Students' Pre-Test and Post-Test Results

Class Anxiety	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	t	p
PRE TEST (CONTROL)	44	2,1023	0,194	-1,221	0,229
POST TEST (CONTROL)	44	2,2159	0,567		

Based on the pre-test and post-test results, A T-Test was applied in order to see if there were a meaningful difference between the attitudes of 44 students in the control group towards “class anxiety”. The results were illustrated in the above table. The hypotheses set forth are as follows:

H_0 : There is no difference in the scores of control group students between the pre-test and post tests.

H_1 : There is difference in the scores of control group students between the pre-test and post tests.

As a result of the T-Test, since $p > 0,05$, it can be concluded that there is no meaningful difference between the groups' success and attitude after the study. ($t = -1,221$, $p = 0,229$)

4.2.6. Comparison of the Study Group Students' Pre-Test and Post-Test Results

Table 7: Comparison of the Study Group Students' Pre-Test and Post-Test Results

Class Anxiety	N	(Mean)	Standard. Deviation	t	p
PRE-TEST (STUDY)	44	2,0833	0,397	-3,668	0,001
POST-TEST (STUDY)	44	2,4697	0,620		

Based on the pre-test and post-test results, A T-Test was applied in order to see if there were a meaningful difference between the attitudes of 44 students in the study group towards "class anxiety". The results were illustrated in the above table. The hypotheses set forth are as follows:

H_0 : There is no difference in the scores of study group students between the pre-test and post tests.

H_1 : There is difference in the scores of study group students between the pre-test and post tests.

As a result of the T-Test, since $p < 0,05$, it can be concluded that there is meaningful difference between the groups' success and attitude after the study. ($t = -3,668$, $p = 0,001$).

This 2 to 4 hour program based on student needs showed a meaningful effect on the "class anxiety" of the students.

4.2.7. INTERPRETATION OF THE FINDINGS: CLASS ANXIETY

Based on the results of the subscale "class anxiety", we can conclude that the study had a positive effect on the anxiety factor of learners. That is, the experimental group students showed a meaningful difference in their attitudes towards class anxiety at the end of the study. In other words, their class anxiety lowered.

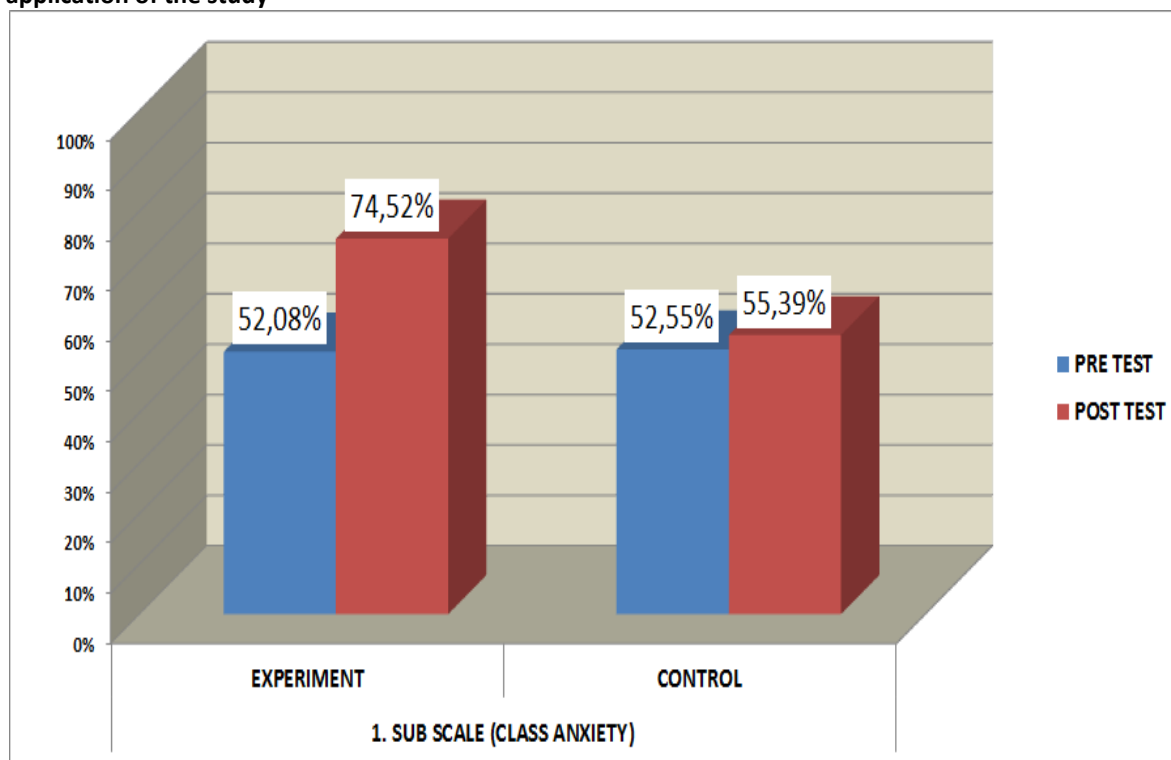
This change could be tied to the stress-free environment the nature of the study

created in the classroom. It is important since it is a vital part of the classroom which would provide learners with a venue where they can freely and without fear engage in learning, express their opinions, integrate with others and learn without barriers. Unless this is achieved, the study would fail to achieve the desired goals.

Moreover, a classroom where learners feel uncomfortable would prevent learners to truly uncover their real strengths and skills which would be an inhibiting factor to realize a constructivist learning venue. Besides, it would somewhat be no more than a dream to ask learners to negotiate their needs with the instructor without first achieving such a stress-free environment.

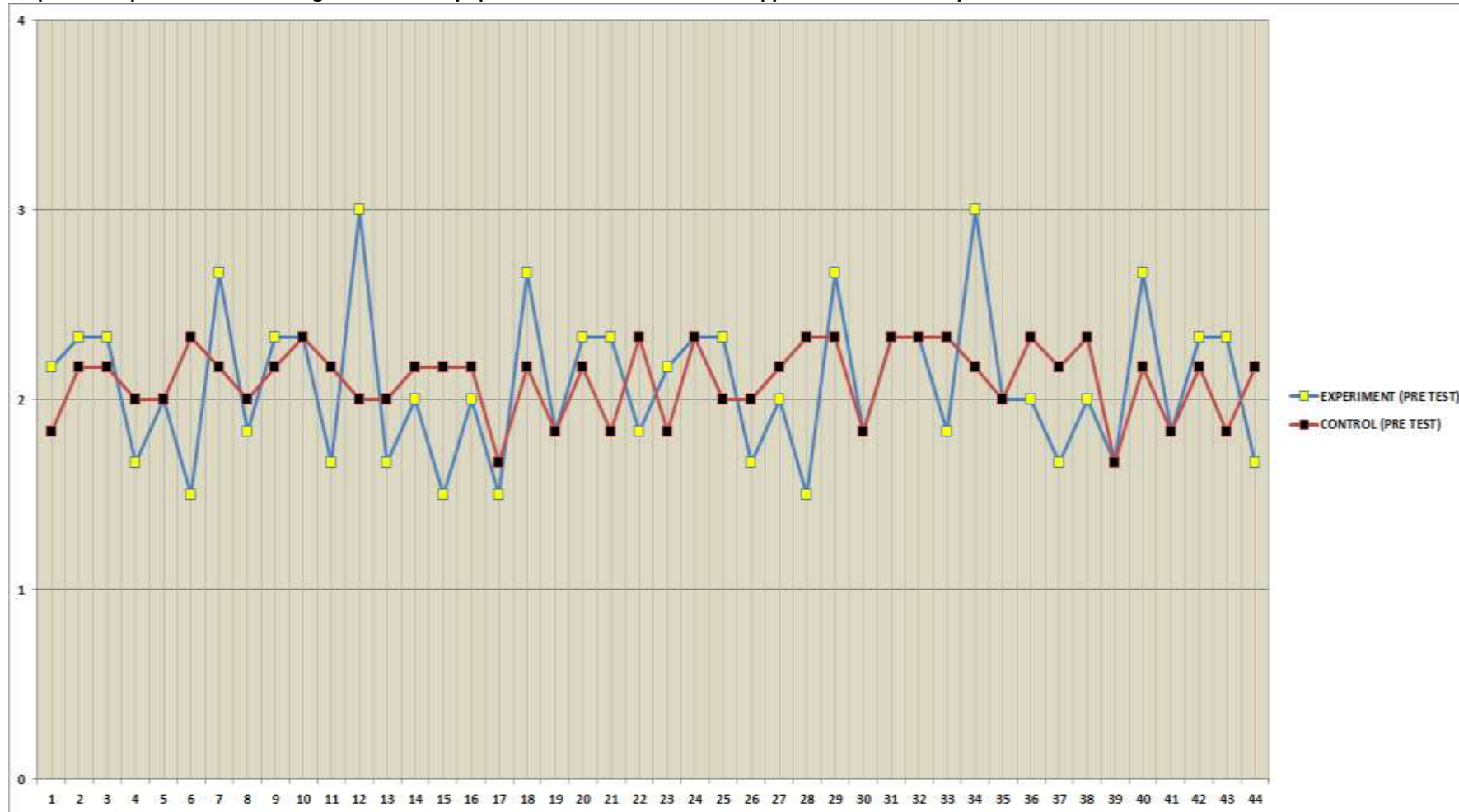
4.2.8. Comparison of the difference in “class anxiety” levels of students before and after the application of the study

Graph 1: Comparison of the difference in “class anxiety” levels of students before and after the application of the study



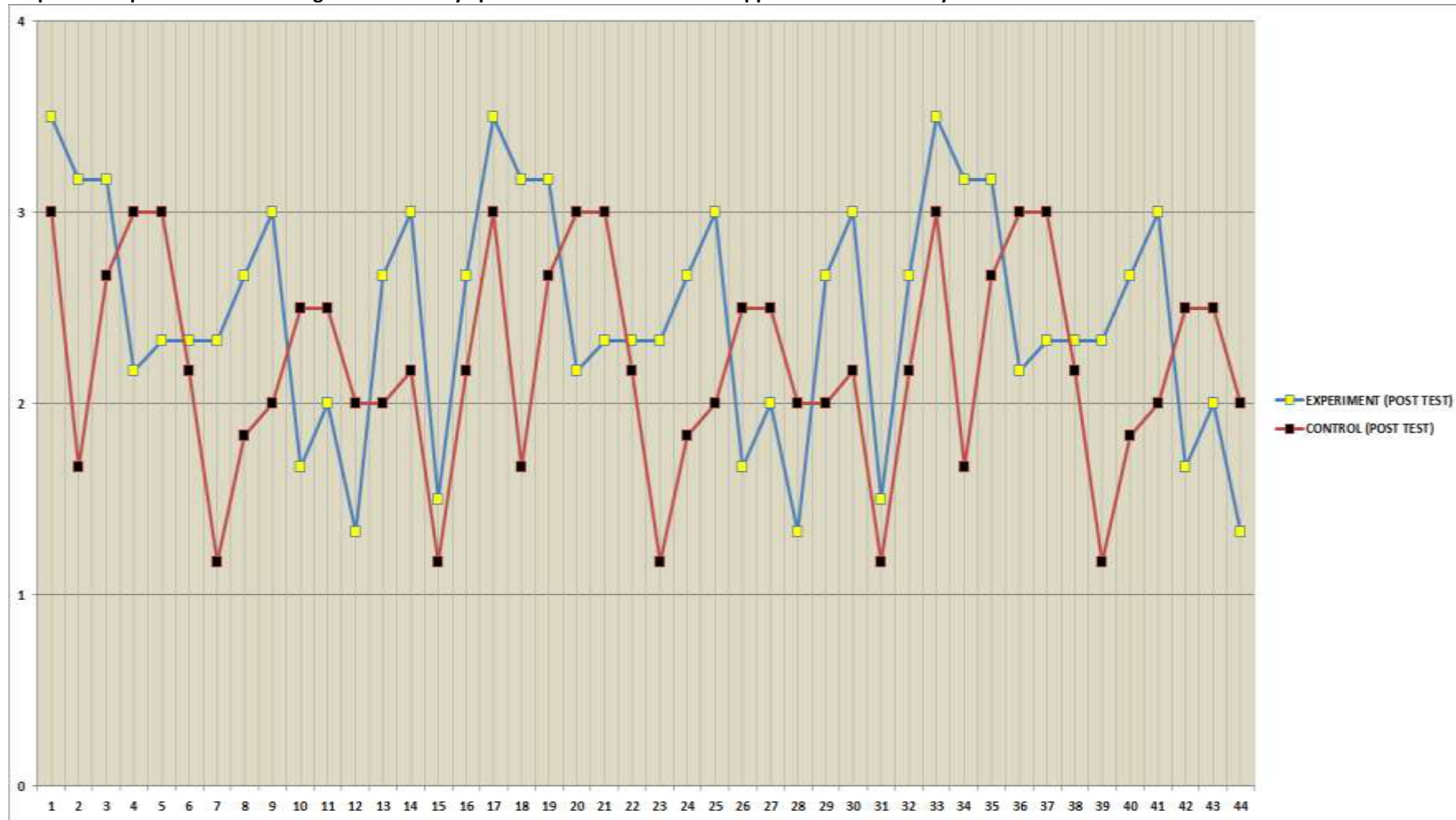
4.2.9. Comparison of the average “class anxiety” points of students before the application of the study

Graph 2: Comparison of the average “class anxiety” points of students before the application of the study



4.2.10. Comparison of the average “class anxiety” points of students after the application of the study

Graph 3: Comparison of the average “class anxiety” points of students after the application of the study



4.2.11. The distribution of Groups' Differences on "Attitudes Towards Learning English" Prior to the Study

Table 8: The distribution of Groups' Differences on "Attitudes Towards Learning English" Prior to the Study

PRE TEST	Attitudes towards "Learning English"	Group	Definitely Agree	Agree	Disagree	Definitely Disagree	TOTAL
Attitudes towards Learning English	I like learning English.	Study	3 (%6,8)	39 (%88,6)	2 (%4,5)	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	1 (%2,3)	29 (%65,9)	14 (%31,8)	-	44 (%100,0)
	I want to learn English inside out.	Study	18 (%40,9)	24 (%54,5)	2 (%4,5)	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	-	20 (%45,5)	24 (%54,5)	-	44 (%100,0)
	It is fun to learn English.	Study	6 (%13,6)	27 (%61,4)	11 (%25,0)	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	-	21 (%47,7)	23 (%52,3)	-	44 (%100,0)
	I don't like learning English.	Study	-	2 (%4,5)	33 (%75,0)	9 (%20,5)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	-	31 (%70,5)	13 (%29,5)	-	44 (%100,0)
	English is an unnecessary course.	Study	-	3 (%6,8)	29 (%65,9)	12 (%27,3)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	-	14 (%31,8)	30 (%68,2)	-	44 (%100,0)
	It is boring to learn English.	Study	-	13 (%29,5)	24 (%54,5)	7 (%15,9)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	-	16 (%36,4)	28 (%63,6)	-	44 (%100,0)

4.2.12. The distribution of Groups' Differences on "Attitudes Towards Learning English" After the Study

Table 9: The distribution of Groups' Differences on "Attitudes Towards Learning English" After the Study

POST TEST	Attitudes towards "Learning English"	Group	Definitely Agree	Agree	Disagree	Definitely Disagree	TOTAL
Attitudes towards Learning English	I like learning English.	Study	18 (%40,9)	22 (%50,0)	4 (%9,1)	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	16 (%36,4)	12 (%27,3)	6 (%13,6)	10 (%22,7)	44 (%100,0)
	I want to learn English inside out.	Study	32 (%72,7)	10 (%22,7)	2 (%4,5)	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	26 (%59,1)	6 (%13,6)	4 (%9,1)	8 (%18,2)	44 (%100,0)
	It is fun to learn English.	Study	16 (%36,4)	18 (%40,9)	10 (%22,7)	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	14 (%31,8)	10 (%22,7)	10 (%22,7)	10 (%22,7)	44 (%100,0)
	I don't like learning English.	Study	-	2 (%4,5)	26 (%59,1)	16 (%36,4)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	8 (%18,2)	8 (%18,2)	14 (%31,8)	14 (%31,8)	44 (%100,0)
	English is an unnecessary course.	Study	-	2 (%4,5)	20 (%45,5)	22 (%50,0)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	8 (%18,2)	2 (%4,5)	14 (%31,8)	20 (%45,5)	44 (%100,0)
	It is boring to learn English.	Study	-	8 (%18,2)	24 (%54,5)	12 (%27,3)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	10 (%22,7)	8 (%18,2)	14 (%31,8)	12 (%27,3)	44 (%100,0)

4.2.13. Comparison of the Control Group Students' Pre-Test and Post-Test Results

Table 10: Comparison of the Control Group Students' Pre-Test and Post-Test Results

Attitudes towards Learning English	N	(Mean)	Standard Deviation	t	p
PRE TEST (CONTROL)	44	2,5417	0,193	-1,268	0,212
POST TEST (CONTROL)	44	2,3712	0,841		

Based on the pre-test and post-test results, A T-Test was applied in order to see if there were a meaningful difference between the attitudes of 44 students in the control group towards “attitudes towards learning English”. The results were illustrated in the above table. The hypotheses set forth are as follows:

H_0 : There is no difference in the scores of control group students between the pre-test and post tests.

H_1 : There is difference in the scores of control group students between the pre-test and post tests.

As a result of the T-Test, since $p > 0,05$, it can be concluded that there is no meaningful difference between the groups' success and attitude after the study. ($t = -1,268$, $p = 0,212$)

4.2.14. Comparison of the Study Group Students' Pre-Test and Post-Test Results

Table 11: Comparison of the Study Group Students' Pre-Test and Post-Test Results

Attitudes towards Learning English	N	(Mean)	Standard Deviation	t	p
PRE TEST (STUDY)	44	3,0833	0,362	3,340	0,002
POST TEST (STUDY)	44	3,4697	0,590		

Based on the pre-test and post-test results, A T-Test was applied in order to see if there were a meaningful difference between the attitudes of 44 students in the study group towards “attitudes towards learning English”. The results were illustrated in the above table. The hypotheses set forth are as follows:

H_0 : There is no difference in the scores of study group students between the pre-test and post tests.

H_1 : There is difference in the scores of study group students between the pre-test and post tests.

As a result of the T-Test, since $p < 0,05$, it can be concluded that there is meaningful difference between the groups' success and attitude after the study. ($t=3,340$, $p=0,002$).

This 2 to 4 hour program based on student needs showed a meaningful effect on the “attitudes towards learning English” of the students.

4.2.15. INTERPRETATION OF THE FINDINGS: ATTITUDES TOWARDS LEARNING ENGLISH

Based on the results of the subscale "Attitudes towards learning English", we can conclude that the study had a positive effect on the attitudes of learners towards learning English. That is, the experimental group students showed a meaningful

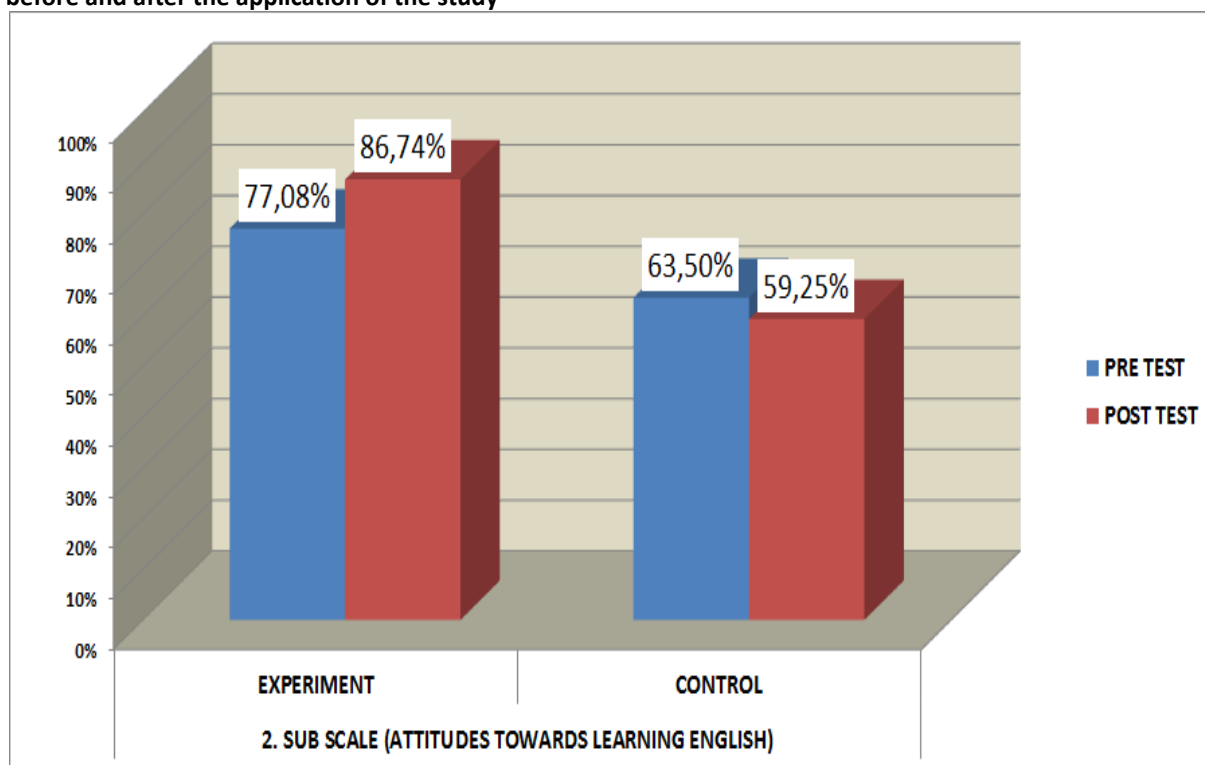
difference in their attitudes towards learning English at the end of the study. In other words, they felt more positive towards the learning of English.

This change could be tied to two factors regarding this study. First of all, at the beginning of the study, the researcher instructed learners on the importance of learning English by providing logical reasons like career opportunities, citizenship of the world, internet, off-shore career opportunities and so on. This step was necessary to show learners beforehand why they were taking this course and what they could do with it in the future. It was necessary since it was the first motivation seeking step to grasp the attention of learners and attach them firmly to the learning process that would follow. The researcher observed that this goal succeeded and the learners in whole started the semester with high motivation doing their homework, engaging in classroom activities, and being eager to whatever the researcher asks them to do.

Secondly, and most importantly, the negotiation of 2 to 4 hours of each week based on learner needs had the most impact on this subscale. By granting learners the opportunity to freely construct a certain part of the weekly instruction based on their own needs, the learners felt a sense of freedom and being-valued. They chose whatever they wanted to do in the mentioned hours ranging from reading books to throwing parties. This process allowed an easier absorption of the course and made the entire syllabus more acceptable to them. While the control group learners had to follow only the syllabus requirements, the experimental group students had a 2 to 4 hour escape from the routine and enjoyed the freedom of their choice. Still, most of their choices were academically oriented like reading books, making presentations and meeting native speakers to practice oral communication. Unlike the control group, the experimental group students developed a better sense of eagerness towards learning English. This reflected itself not only in the 2 to 4 hour period, but especially in the rest of the class hours that belonged to the normal syllabus. Experimental group students were observed to remain highly motivated and eager to learn English even in the normal syllabus hours.

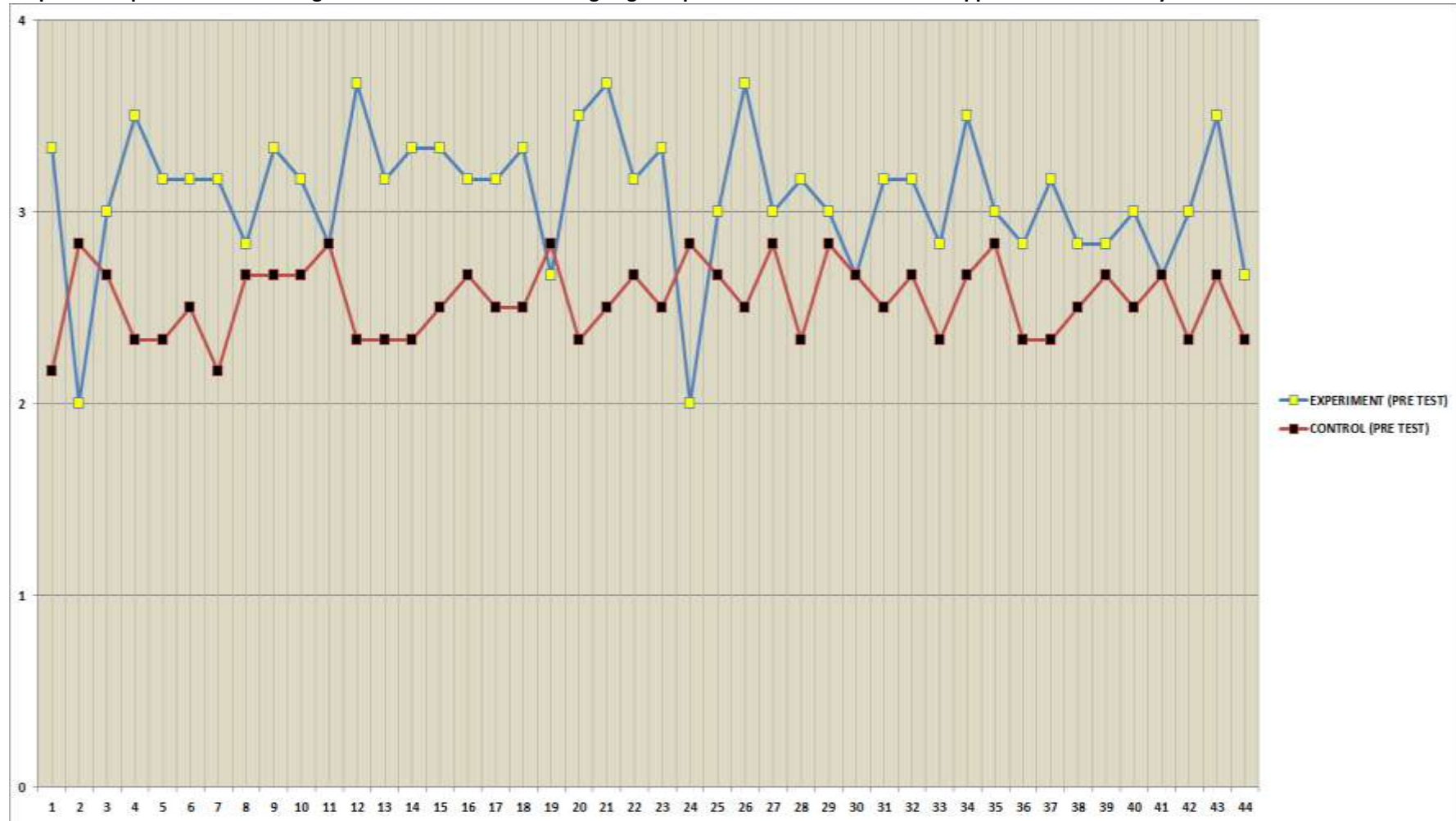
4.2.16. Comparison of the difference in “Attitudes towards Learning English” levels of students before and after the application of the study

Graph 4: Comparison of the difference in “Attitudes towards Learning English” levels of students before and after the application of the study



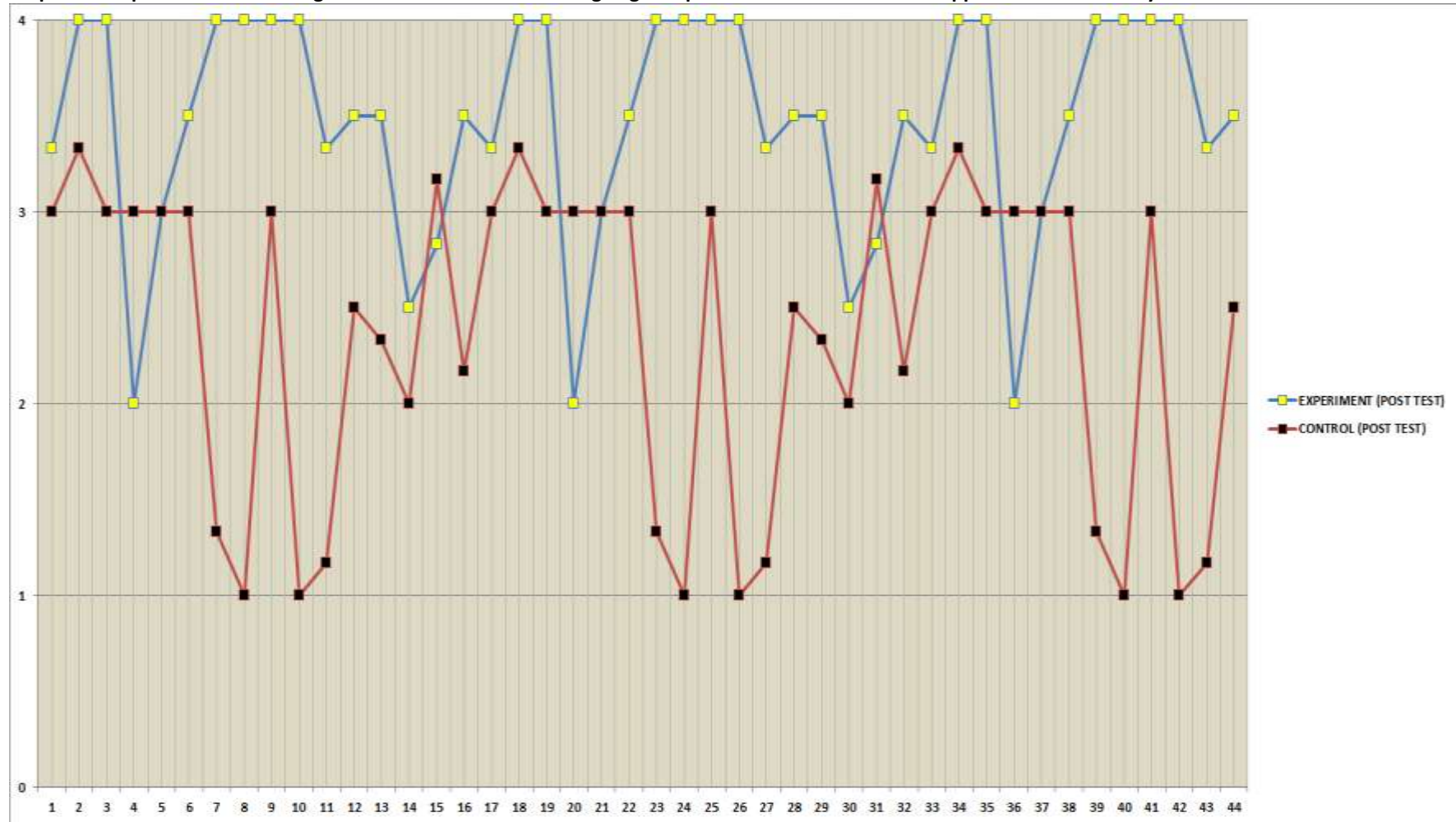
4.2.17. Comparison of the average “Attitudes towards Learning English” points of students before the application of the study

Graph 5: Comparison of the average “Attitudes towards Learning English” points of students before the application of the study



4.2.18. Comparison of the average “Attitudes towards Learning English” points of students after the application of the study

Graph 6: Comparison of the average “Attitudes towards Learning English” points of students after the application of the study



4.2.19. The distribution of Groups' Differences on "English Course Evaluation" Prior to the Study

Table 12: The distribution of Groups' Differences on "English Course Evaluation" Prior to the Study

PRE TEST	Attitudes towards "English Course"	Group	Definitely Agree	Agree	Disagree	Definitely Disagree	TOTAL
English Course Evaluation	I find English course entertaining.	Study	8 (%18,2)	18 (%40,9)	18 (%40,9)	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	-	25 (%56,8)	19 (%43,2)	-	44 (%100,0)
	I look forward to the English course.	Study	2 (%4,5)	14 (%31,8)	24 (%54,5)	4 (%9,1)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	-	2 (%4,5)	34 (%77,3)	8 (%18,2)	44 (%100,0)
	English is one of my favorite courses.	Study	2 (%4,5)	16 (%36,4)	22 (%50,0)	4 (%9,1)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	-	12 (%27,3)	32 (%72,7)	-	44 (%100,0)
	English course is a waste of time.	Study	-	8 (%18,2)	28 (%63,6)	8 (%18,2)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	-	27 (%61,4)	17 (%38,6)	-	44 (%100,0)
	I have no interest in English.	Study	-	8 (%18,2)	27 (%61,4)	9 (%20,5)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	-	29 (%65,9)	15 (%34,1)	-	44 (%100,0)
	I don't like English course.	Study	-	8 (%18,2)	24 (%54,5)	12 (%27,3)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	-	22 (%50,0)	22 (%50,0)	-	44 (%100,0)

4.2.20. The distribution of Groups' Differences on "English Course Evaluation" After the Study

Table 13: The distribution of Groups' Differences on "English Course Evaluation" After the Study

POST TEST	Attitudes towards "English Course"	Group	Definitely Agree	Agree	Disagree	Definitely Disagree	TOTAL
English Course Evaluation	I find English course entertaining.	Study	8 (%18,2)	26 (%59,1)	10 (%22,7)	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	8 (%18,2)	16 (%36,4)	8 (%18,2)	12 (%27,3)	44 (%100,0)
	I look forward to the English course.	Study	4 (%9,1)	12 (%27,3)	26 (%59,1)	2 (%4,5)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	4 (%9,1)	8 (%18,2)	18 (%40,9)	14 (%31,8)	44 (%100,0)
	English is one of my favorite courses.	Study	4 (%9,1)	12 (%27,3)	26 (%59,1)	2 (%4,5)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	4 (%9,1)	8 (%18,2)	20 (%45,5)	12 (%27,3)	44 (%100,0)
	English course is a waste of time.	Study	-	8 (%18,2)	16 (%36,4)	20 (%45,5)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	2 (%4,5)	6 (%13,6)	16 (%36,4)	20 (%45,5)	44 (%100,0)
	I have no interest in English.	Study	-	6 (%13,6)	22 (%50,0)	16 (%36,4)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	6 (%13,6)	8 (%18,2)	16 (%36,4)	14 (%31,8)	44 (%100,0)
	I don't like English course.	Study	-	4 (%9,1)	26 (%59,1)	14 (%31,8)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	6 (%13,6)	10 (%22,7)	14 (%31,8)	14 (%31,8)	44 (%100,0)

4.2.21. Comparison of the Control Group Students' Pre-Test and Post-Test Results

Table 14: Comparison of the Control Group Students' Pre-Test and Post-Test Results

English Course Evaluation	N	(Mean)	Standard Deviation	t	p
PRE TEST (CONTROL)	44	2,3220	0,204	-1,081	0,286
POST TEST (CONTROL)	44	2,2045	0,650		

Based on the pre-test and post-test results, A T-Test was applied in order to see if there were a meaningful difference between the attitudes of 44 students in the control group towards “English Course Evaluation”. The results were illustrated in the above table. The hypotheses set forth are as follows:

H_0 : There is no difference in the scores of control group students between the pre-test and post tests.

H_1 : There is difference in the scores of control group students between the pre-test and post tests.

As a result of the T-Test, since $p > 0,05$, it can be concluded that there is no meaningful difference between the groups' success and attitude after the study. ($t = -1,081$, $p = 0,286$)

4.2.22. Comparison of the Study Group Students' Pre-Test and Post-Test Results

Table 15: Comparison of the Study Group Students' Pre-Test and Post-Test Results

English Course Evaluation	N	(Mean)	Standard Deviation	t	p
PRE TEST (STUDY)	44	2,7614	0,552	2,312	0,026
POST TEST (STUDY)	44	3,0379	0,595		

Based on the pre-test and post-test results, A T-Test was applied in order to see if there were a meaningful difference between the attitudes of 44 students in the study group towards “English Course Evaluation”. The results were illustrated in the above table. The hypotheses set forth are as follows:

H_0 : There is no difference in the scores of study group students between the pre-test and post tests.

H_1 : There is difference in the scores of study group students between the pre-test and post tests.

As a result of the T-Test, since $p < 0,05$, it can be concluded that there is meaningful difference between the groups' success and attitude after the study. ($t=2,312$, $p=0,026$).

This 2 to 4 hour program based on student needs showed a meaningful effect on the “English Course Evaluation” of the students.

4.2.23. INTERPRETATION OF THE FINDINGS: ENGLISH COURSE EVALUATION

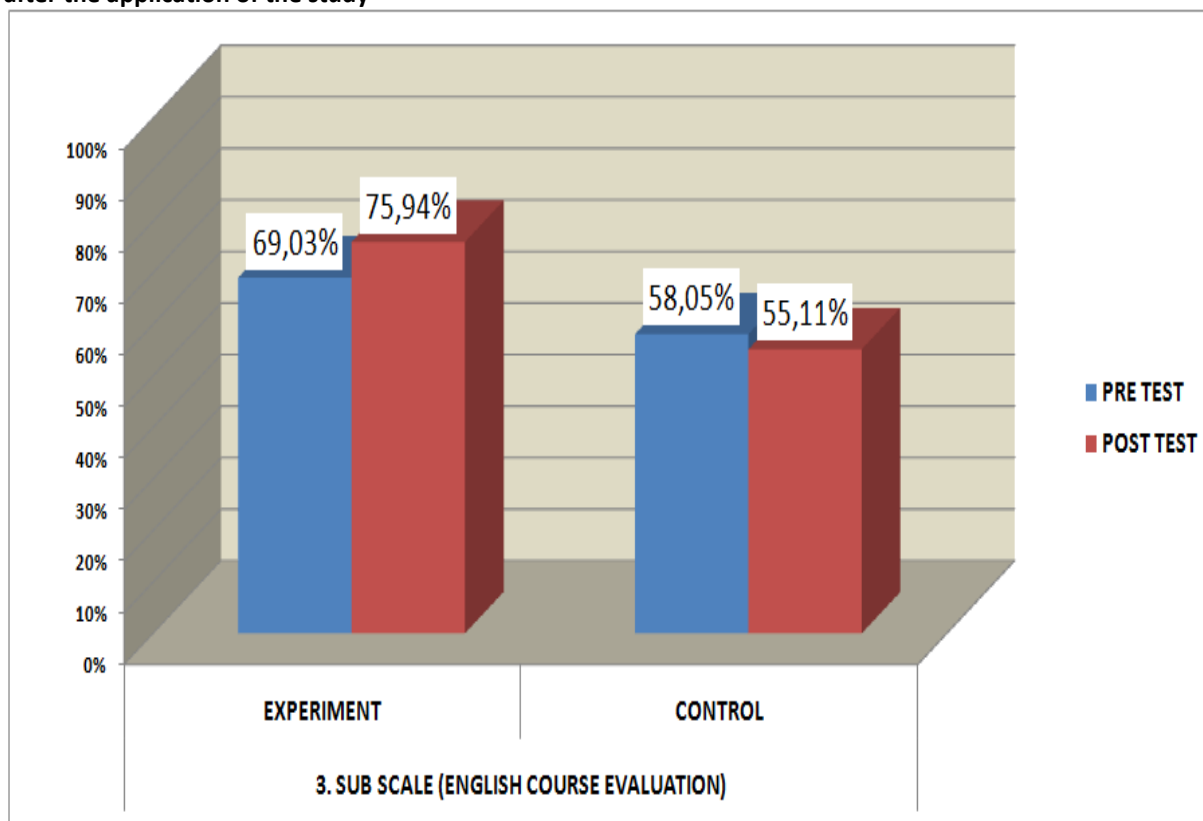
Based on the results of the subscale "English Course Evaluation", we can conclude that the study had a positive effect on the attitudes of learners towards English Course. That is, the experimental group students showed a meaningful difference in their attitudes towards English Course at the end of the study. In other words, they felt

more positive towards the English Course.

The typical English course in the aforementioned school starts with the basic of English with easy topics to be covered like alphabet, greeting and countries and nationalities. However, after couple weeks, the instruction per week gets overloaded. There are more pages of the course book to cover, more demanding grammar, vocabulary, listening, reading, writing activities, portfolios every 1 or 2 weeks, oral presentations as well as group projects. Throughout this highly paced process, while some learners catch up with the speed of the syllabus, others may fall behind. This situation has been observed to cause a detrimental effect on motivation over individual students or the class in whole. Therefore, learners' attitudes towards the English course and to the instructor may get adversely affected and learners may develop hard feelings ultimately. Many learners may feel that the program is highly demanding without any freedom to relax. At this point, such a 2 to 4 hour quasi negotiated partition in the current syllabus could be of help to relieve this situation and provide students a free roaming space that would change their perception of the current syllabus from a negative one to a positive one. That is, such an application might make the current highly loaded syllabus appear less demanding and more acceptable. In this study, the results prove that this works. The experimental group learners' attitudes towards the English course changed positively at the end of the study while the control group students' negatively. This change suggests that, the 2 to 4 hour quasi negotiated syllabus had a positive effect on the perception of English course and made it more acceptable to learners.

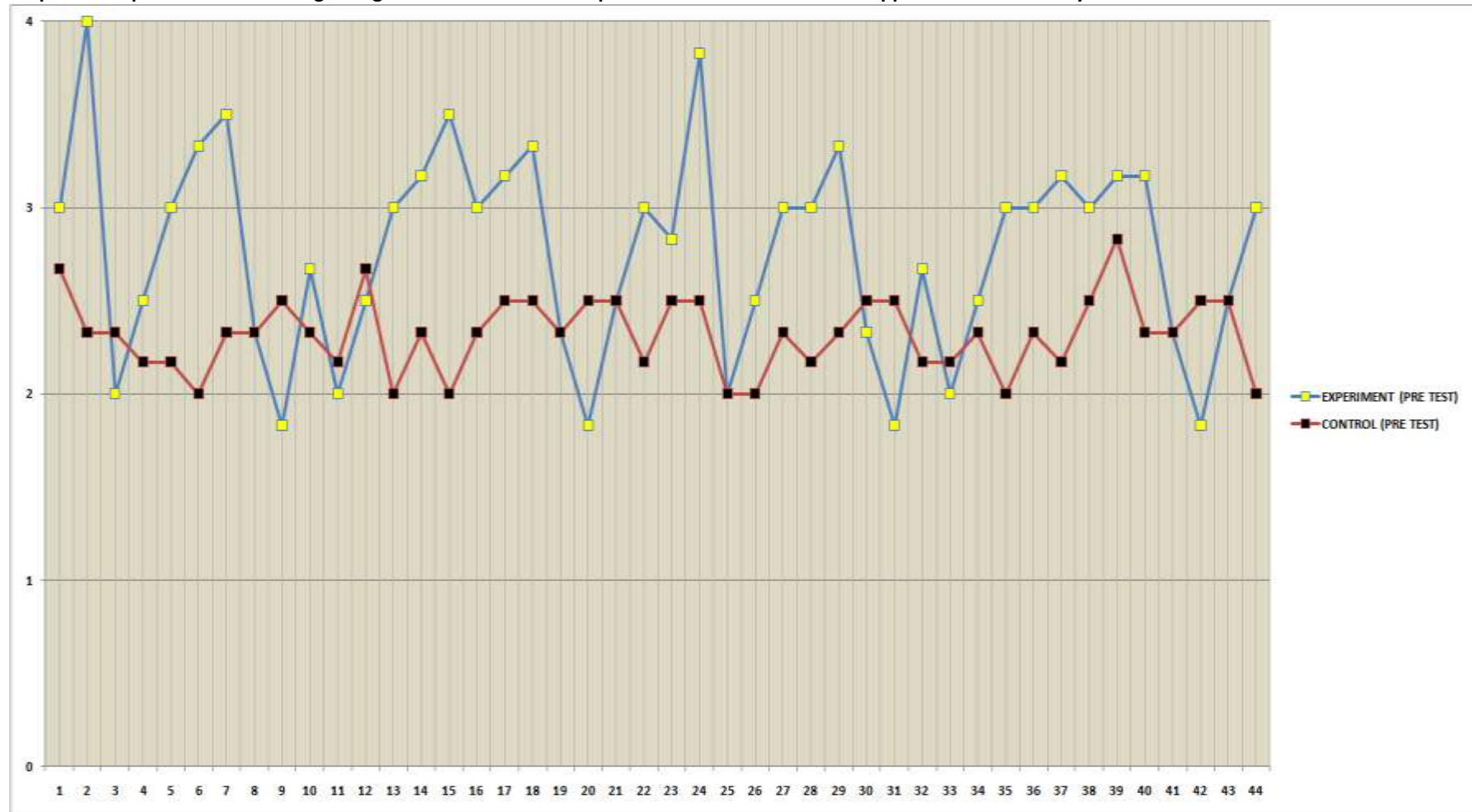
4.2.24. Comparison of the difference in “English Course Evaluation” levels of students before and after the application of the study

Graph 7: Comparison of the difference in “English Course Evaluation” levels of students before and after the application of the study



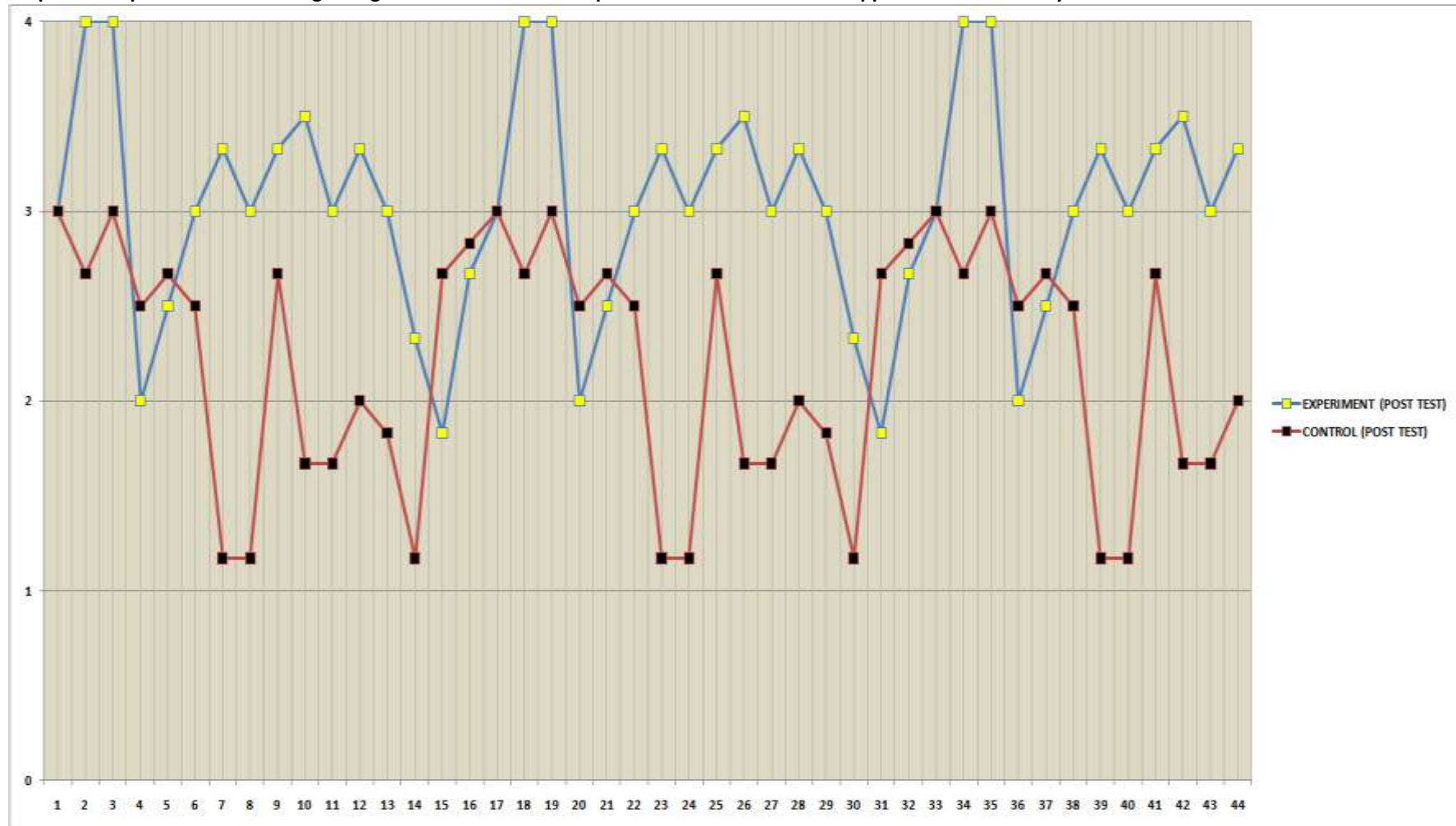
4.2.25. Comparison of the average “English Course Evaluation” points of students before the application of the study

Graph 8: Comparison of the average “English Course Evaluation” points of students before the application of the study



4.2.26. Comparison of the average “English Course Evaluation” points of students after the application of the study

Graph 9: Comparison of the average “English Course Evaluation” points of students after the application of the study



4.2.27. The distribution of Groups' Differences on "English Use Anxiety" Prior to the Study

Table 16: The distribution of Groups' Differences on "English Use Anxiety" Prior to the Study

PRE TEST	Attitudes towards "Language use anxiety"	Group	Definitely Agree	Agree	Disagree	Definitely Disagree	TOTAL
English Use Anxiety	If I were to speak in English with a tourist, I feel tense.	Study	6 (%13,6)	12 (%27,3)	18 (%40,9)	8 (%18,2)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	6 (%13,6)	12 (%27,3)	20 (%45,5)	6 (%13,6)	44 (%100,0)
	I feel anxious in places where I have to speak in English.	Study	-	27 (%61,4)	17 (%38,6)	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	-	21 (%47,7)	21 (%47,7)	2 (%4,5)	44 (%100,0)
	I get nervous when someone asks me a question in English.	Study	2 (%4,5)	21 (%47,7)	21 (%47,7)	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	-	34 (%77,3)	10 (%22,7)	-	44 (%100,0)
	I feel relaxed while speaking to a foreigner in English.	Study	-	11 (%25,0)	33 (%75,0)	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	6 (%13,6)	20 (%45,5)	18 (%40,9)	-	44 (%100,0)
	I like speaking to tourists in English.	Study	3 (%6,8)	29 (%65,9)	12 (%27,3)	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	3 (%6,8)	28 (%63,6)	13 (%29,5)	-	44 (%100,0)
	I can easily communicate with foreigners.	Study	2 (%4,5)	22 (%50,0)	20 (%45,5)	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	2 (%4,5)	5 (%11,4)	31 (%70,5)	6 (%13,6)	44 (%100,0)

4.2.28. The distribution of Groups' Differences on "English Use Anxiety" After the Study

Table 17: The distribution of Groups' Differences on "English Use Anxiety" After the Study

POST TEST	Attitudes towards "Language use anxiety"	Group	Definitely Agree	Agree	Disagree	Definitely Disagree	TOTAL
English Use Anxiety	If I were to speak in English with a tourist, I feel tense.	Study	4 (%9,1)	14 (%31,8)	18 (%40,9)	8 (%18,2)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	6 (%13,6)	18 (%40,9)	8 (%18,2)	12 (%27,3)	44 (%100,0)
	I feel anxious in places where I have to speak in English.	Study	4 (%9,1)	16 (%36,4)	20 (%45,5)	4 (%9,1)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	4 (%9,1)	20 (%45,5)	12 (%27,3)	8 (%18,2)	44 (%100,0)
	I get nervous when someone asks me a question in English.	Study	4 (%9,1)	10 (%22,7)	26 (%59,1)	4 (%9,1)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	6 (%13,6)	18 (%40,9)	16 (%36,4)	4 (%9,1)	44 (%100,0)
	I feel relaxed while speaking to a foreigner in English.	Study	10 (%22,7)	16 (%36,4)	18 (%40,9)	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	10 (%22,7)	12 (%27,3)	18 (%40,9)	4 (%9,1)	44 (%100,0)
	I like speaking to tourists in English.	Study	12 (%27,3)	24 (%54,5)	6 (%13,6)	2 (%4,5)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	12 (%27,3)	20 (%45,5)	8 (%18,2)	4 (%9,1)	44 (%100,0)
	I can easily communicate with foreigners in English.	Study	6 (%13,6)	16 (%36,4)	18 (%40,9)	4 (%9,1)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	8 (%18,2)	8 (%18,2)	18 (%40,9)	10 (%22,7)	44 (%100,0)

4.2.29. Comparison of the Control Group Students' Pre-Test and Post-Test Results

Table 18: Comparison of the Control Group Students' Pre-Test and Post-Test Results

English Use Anxiety	N	(Mean)	Standard Deviation	t	p
PRE TEST (CONTROL)	44	2,4924	0,296	-0,878	0,385
POST TEST (CONTROL)	44	2,4167	0,533		

Based on the pre-test and post-test results, A T-Test was applied in order to see if there were a meaningful difference between the attitudes of 44 students in the control group towards “English Use Anxiety”. The results were illustrated in the above table. The hypotheses set forth are as follows:

H_0 : There is no difference in the scores of control group students between the pre-test and post tests.

H_1 : There is difference in the scores of control group students between the pre-test and post tests.

As a result of the T-Test, since $p > 0,05$, it can be concluded that there is no meaningful difference between the groups' success and attitude after the study. ($t = -0,878$, $p = 0,385$)

4.2.30. Comparison of the Study Group Students' Pre-Test and Post-Test Results

Table 19: Comparison of the Study Group Students' Pre-Test and Post-Test Results

English Use Anxiety	N	(Mean)	Standard Deviation	t	p
PRE TEST (STUDY)	44	2,5152	0,280	2,342	0,024
POST TEST (STUDY)	44	2,7917	0,684		

Based on the pre-test and post-test results, A T-Test was applied in order to see if there were a meaningful difference between the attitudes of 44 students in the study group towards “English Use Anxiety”. The results were illustrated in the above table. The hypotheses set forth are as follows:

H_0 : There is no difference in the scores of study group students between the pre-test and post tests.

H_1 : There is difference in the scores of study group students between the pre-test and post tests.

As a result of the T-Test, since $p < 0,05$, it can be concluded that there is meaningful difference between the groups’ success and attitude after the study. ($t=2,342$, $p=0,024$).

This 2 to 4 hour program based on student needs showed a meaningful effect on the “English Use Anxiety” of the students.

4.2.31. INTERPRETATION OF THE FINDINGS: ENGLISH USE ANXIETY

Based on the results of the subscale "English Use Anxiety", we can conclude that the study had a positive effect on the anxiety levels of learners towards using English. That is, the experimental group students showed a meaningful difference in their anxiety levels towards using English at the end of the study. In other words, they felt more positive towards using English.

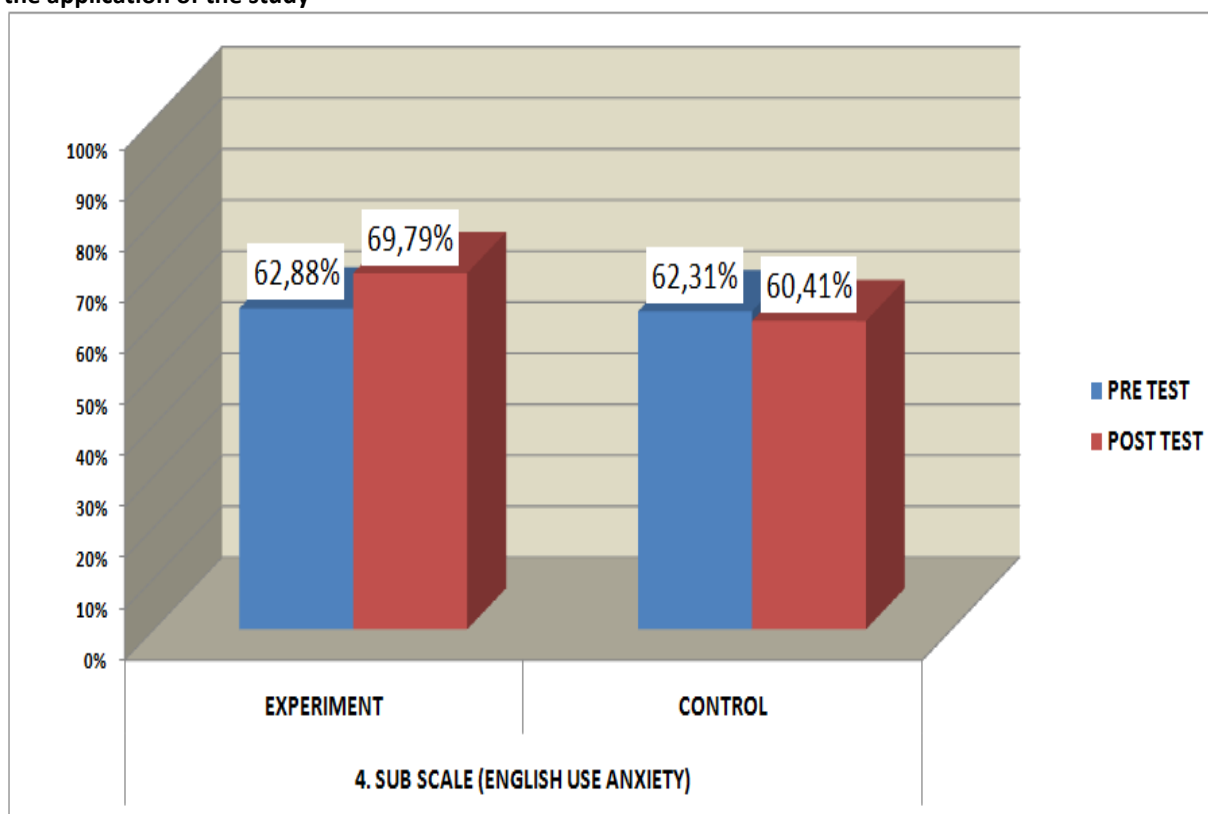
Many language learners may feel they are not good enough to speak English in public. The results of this subscale are thus important proving that the study succeeded to help learners realize their real levels and become more self-confident after the application of the 2 to 4 hour quasi negotiated syllabus. While there was a negative trend in the anxiety levels of control group students towards using English, the experimental group students showed an improvement.

Especially the week when native speakers were invited to the classroom is believed to have the most effect on this change. That is, after the mentioned visitors left

the class following a 1 hour talk in groups, the researcher orally received from the experimental group learners the comment "We can speak English. We communicated with them. We thought our English was terrible." This clearly indicates that, these language learners had the feeling that their English was not enough to communicate with others and thus felt reluctant to speak to other people, and especially to native speakers or foreigners. However, when they were given the chance to encounter such a conversation in a totally risk free environment, being the classroom, where the teacher is seen as the help-desk whenever they need, the learners acted freely to jump on the opportunity and see by themselves that their prejudice over their real capacity was inaccurate.

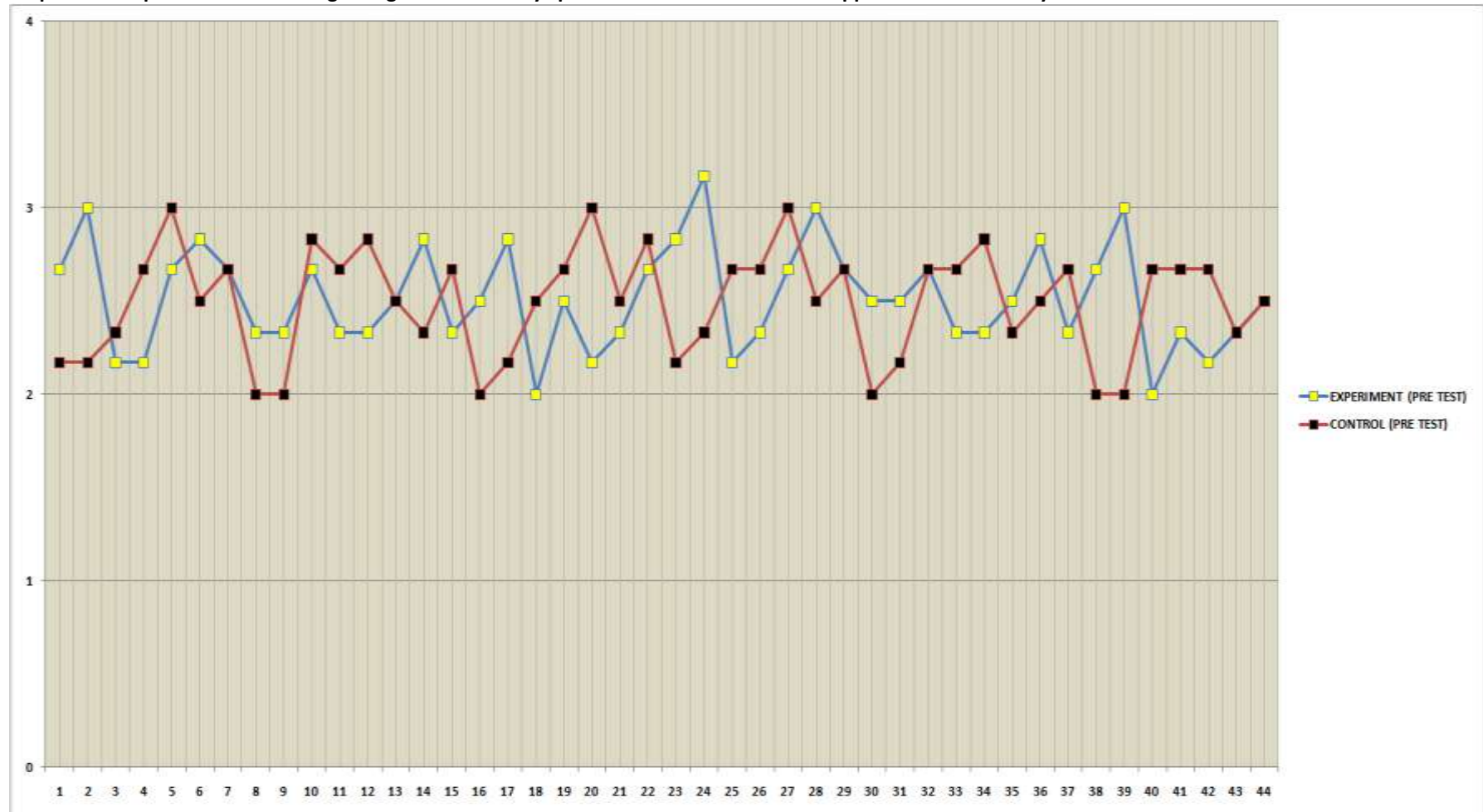
4.2.32. Comparison of the difference in “English Use Anxiety” levels of students before and after the application of the study

Graph 10: Comparison of the difference in “English Use Anxiety” levels of students before and after the application of the study



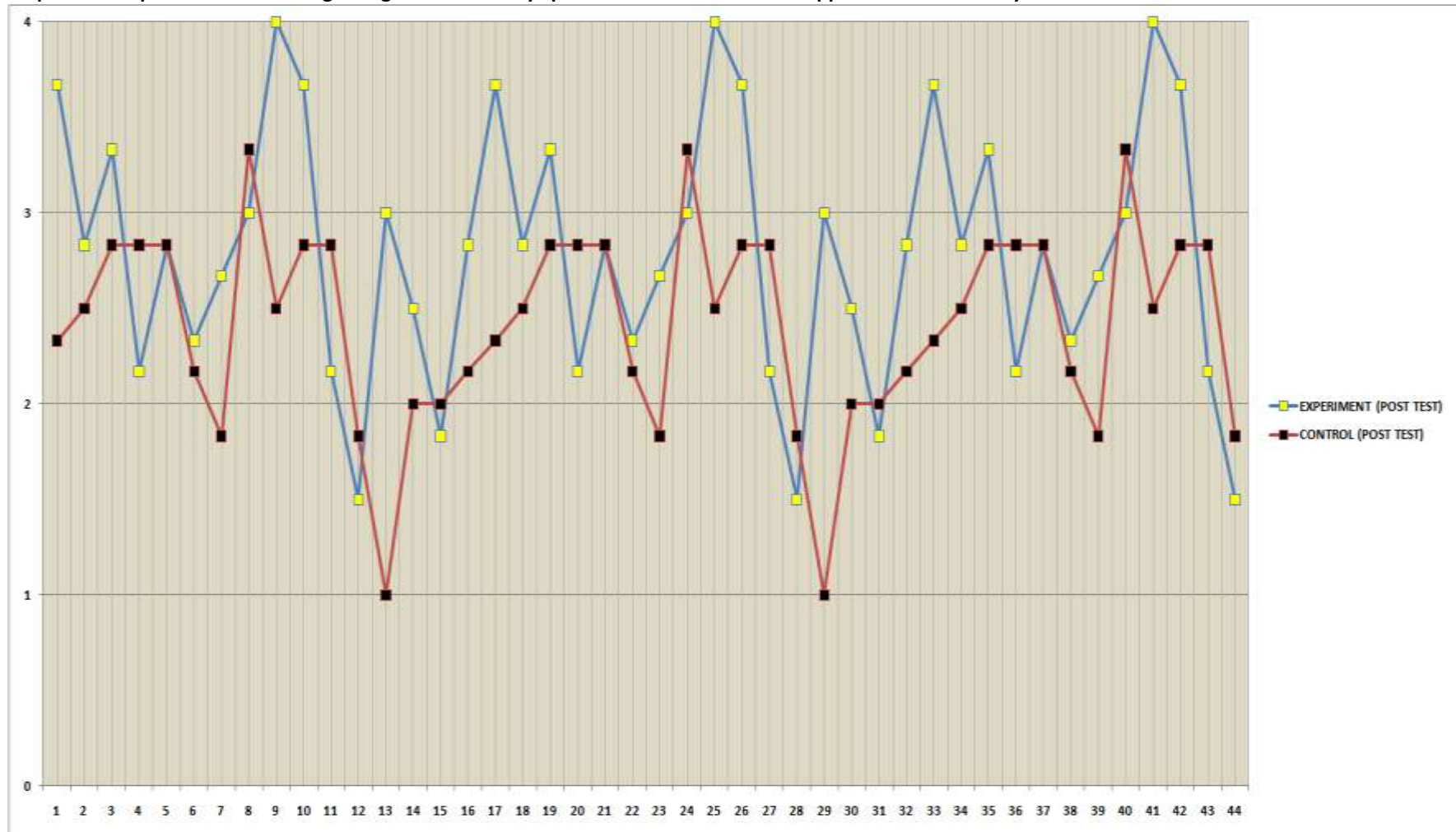
4.2.33. Comparison of the average “English Use Anxiety” points of students before the application of the study

Graph 11: Comparison of the average “English Use Anxiety” points of students before the application of the study



4.2.34. Comparison of the average “English Use Anxiety” points of students after the application of the study

Graph 12: Comparison of the average “English Use Anxiety” points of students after the application of the study



4.2.35. The distribution of Groups' Differences on "Autonomy" Prior to the Study

Table 20: The distribution of Groups' Differences on "Autonomy" Prior to the Study

PRE TEST	Attitudes towards "Autonomy"	Group	Definitely Agree	Agree	Disagree	Definitely Disagree	TOTAL
Autonomy	I can investigate and find out anything I want to learn.	Study	16 (%36,4)	27 (%61,4)	1 (%2,3)	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	3 (%6,8)	29 (%65,9)	12 (%27,3)	-	44 (%100,0)
	I can study and learn many things by myself.	Study	2 (%4,5)	24 (%54,5)	18 (%40,9)	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	-	13 (%29,5)	31 (%70,5)	-	44 (%100,0)
	I like investigating and learning by myself.	Study	-	13 (%29,5)	31 (%70,5)	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	-	13 (%29,5)	31 (%70,5)	-	44 (%100,0)
	I don't do English related activities in my free times.	Study	-	25 (%56,8)	19 (%43,2)	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	-	39 (%88,6)	5 (%11,4)	-	44 (%100,0)
	I don't study English outside the class.	Study	4 (%9,1)	12 (%27,3)	28 (%63,6)	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	-	32 (%72,7)	12 (%27,3)	-	44 (%100,0)
	I don't read English books outside the class.	Study	-	20 (%45,5)	24 (%54,5)	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	-	26 (%59,1)	17 (%38,6)	1 (%2,3)	44 (%100,0)

4.2.36. The distribution of Groups' Differences on "Autonomy" After the Study

Table 21: The distribution of Groups' Differences on "Autonomy" After the Study

POST TEST	Attitudes towards "Autonomy"	Group	Definitely Agree	Agree	Disagree	Definitely Disagree	TOTAL
Autonomy	I can investigate and find out anything I want to learn.	Study	20 (%45,5)	24 (%54,5)	-	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	16 (%36,4)	18 (%40,9)	6 (%13,6)	4 (%9,1)	44 (%100,0)
	I can study and learn many things by myself.	Study	12 (%27,3)	24 (%54,5)	8 (%18,2)	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	10 (%22,7)	16 (%36,4)	14 (%31,8)	4 (%9,1)	44 (%100,0)
	I like investigating and learning by myself.	Study	12 (%27,3)	26 (%59,1)	6 (%13,6)	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	12 (%27,3)	18 (%40,9)	6 (%13,6)	8 (%18,2)	44 (%100,0)
	I don't do English related activities in my free times.	Study	-	20 (%45,5)	18 (%40,9)	6 (%13,6)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	10 (%22,7)	18 (%40,9)	10 (%22,7)	6 (%13,6)	44 (%100,0)
	I don't study English outside the class.	Study	2 (%4,5)	14 (%31,8)	22 (%50,0)	6 (%13,6)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	8 (%18,2)	10 (%22,7)	16 (%36,4)	10 (%22,7)	44 (%100,0)
	I don't read English books outside the class.	Study	-	16 (%36,4)	22 (%50,0)	6 (%13,6)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	8 (%18,2)	12 (%27,3)	16 (%36,4)	8 (%18,2)	44 (%100,0)

4.2.37. Comparison of the Control Group Students' Pre-Test and Post-Test Results

Table 22: Comparison of the Control Group Students' Pre-Test and Post-Test Results

Autonomy	N	(Mean)	Standard Deviation	t	p
PRE TEST (CONTROL)	44	2,3674	0,242	-0,717	0,477
POST TEST (CONTROL)	44	2,2841	0,747		

Based on the pre-test and post-test results, A T-Test was applied in order to see if there were a meaningful difference between the attitudes of 44 students in the control group towards “Autonomy”. The results were illustrated in the above table. The hypotheses set forth are as follows:

H_0 : There is no difference in the scores of control group students between the pre-test and post tests.

H_1 : There is difference in the scores of control group students between the pre-test and post tests.

As a result of the T-Test, since $p > 0,05$, it can be concluded that there is no meaningful difference between the groups' success and attitude after the study. ($t = -0,717$, $p = 0,477$)

4.2.38. Comparison of the Study Group Students' Pre-Test and Post-Test Results

Table 23: Comparison of the Study Group Students' Pre-Test and Post-Test Results

Autonomy	N	(Mean)	Standard Deviation	t	p
PRE TEST (STUDY)	44	2,6326	0,208	5,737	0,000
POST TEST (STUDY)	44	3,0985	0,511		

Based on the pre-test and post-test results, A T-Test was applied in order to see

if there were a meaningful difference between the attitudes of 44 students in the study group towards “Autonomy”. The results were illustrated in the above table. The hypotheses set forth are as follows:

H_0 : There is no difference in the scores of study group students between the pre-test and post tests.

H_1 : There is difference in the scores of study group students between the pre-test and post tests.

As a result of the T-Test, since $p < 0,05$, it can be concluded that there is meaningful difference between the groups’ success and attitude after the study. ($t=5,737$, $p=0,000$)..

This 2 to 4 hour program based on student needs showed a meaningful effect on the “Autonomy” of the students.

4.2.39. INTERPRETATION OF THE FINDINGS: AUTONOMY

Based on the results of the subscale "Autonomy", we can conclude that the study had a positive effect on helping students gain autonomy in learning English. That is, the experimental group students showed a meaningful difference in autonomy at the end of the study. In other words, they became more autonomous learners of English.

The items in this subscale are designed for one of the basic pillars of constructivism, being "autonomy". The results are important since they shed light on how such a 2 to 4 hour quasi negotiated syllabus could foster autonomy in English language learning. As seen in the results, the experimental group students showed a positive change on the basis of autonomy while the control group students had a falling trend. Thus, it can be concluded that the study succeeded to help learners achieve autonomy at the end of the program.

The reasons leading to such result could be several. However, one of these, we believe, could be the reading of short stories. As mentioned earlier in the section ‘Application of the Study’, learners kept reading short stories till the end of the semester. While reading their books, the rule was as such: they had to first find out the

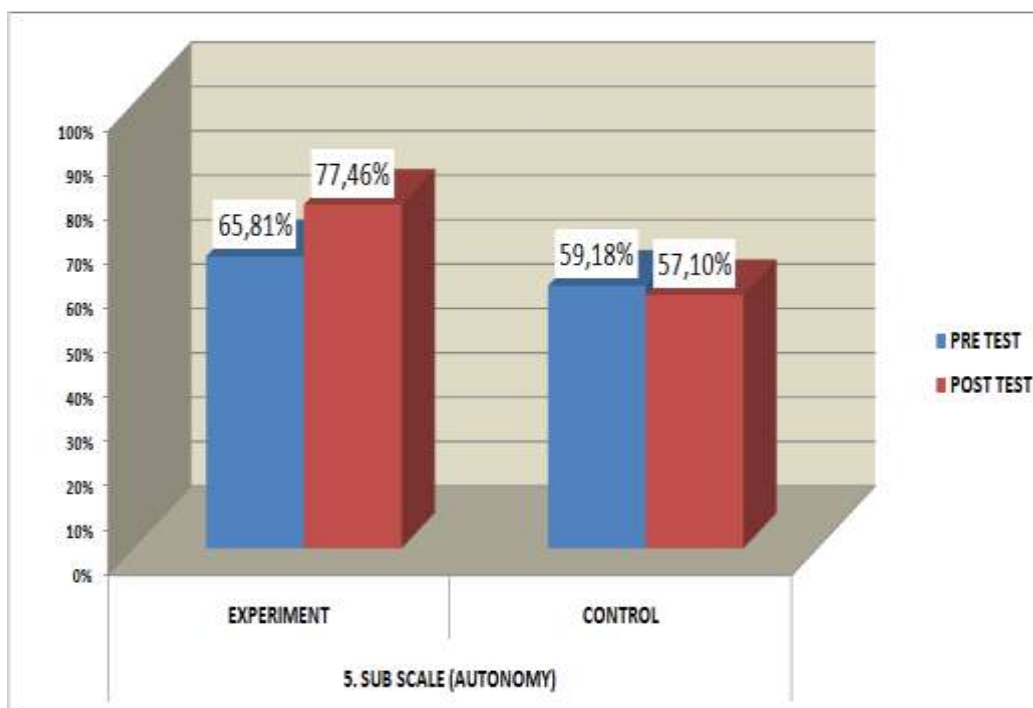
meaning of words or phrases and sentences using their dictionaries, and if they cannot succeed, they could ask a friend. If they still had trouble, this time, they could get the necessary information from the instructor. We believe that this process made the learners more responsible of their learning process starting from their own sources at first, and consult to external help when needed. It was also observed that the learners asked fewer questions to peers or to the instructor as the program reached its end. This clearly illustrates that, throughout the application of the study, experimental group learners proceeded to become more autonomous discovering the information themselves and became self sufficient.

In addition to the 2 to 4 hour class period, within the rest of the program, the experimental group learners were encouraged to make out the meaning of the instructions of activities themselves instead of the instructor telling them what to do. Moreover, almost all activities in their course books or other written materials were not explained to the learners; instead, they were asked to make them out themselves first. The learners welcomed this approach and acted accordingly.

Both approaches are believed to have the most effect on helping experimental group students more autonomous and responsible learners of English.

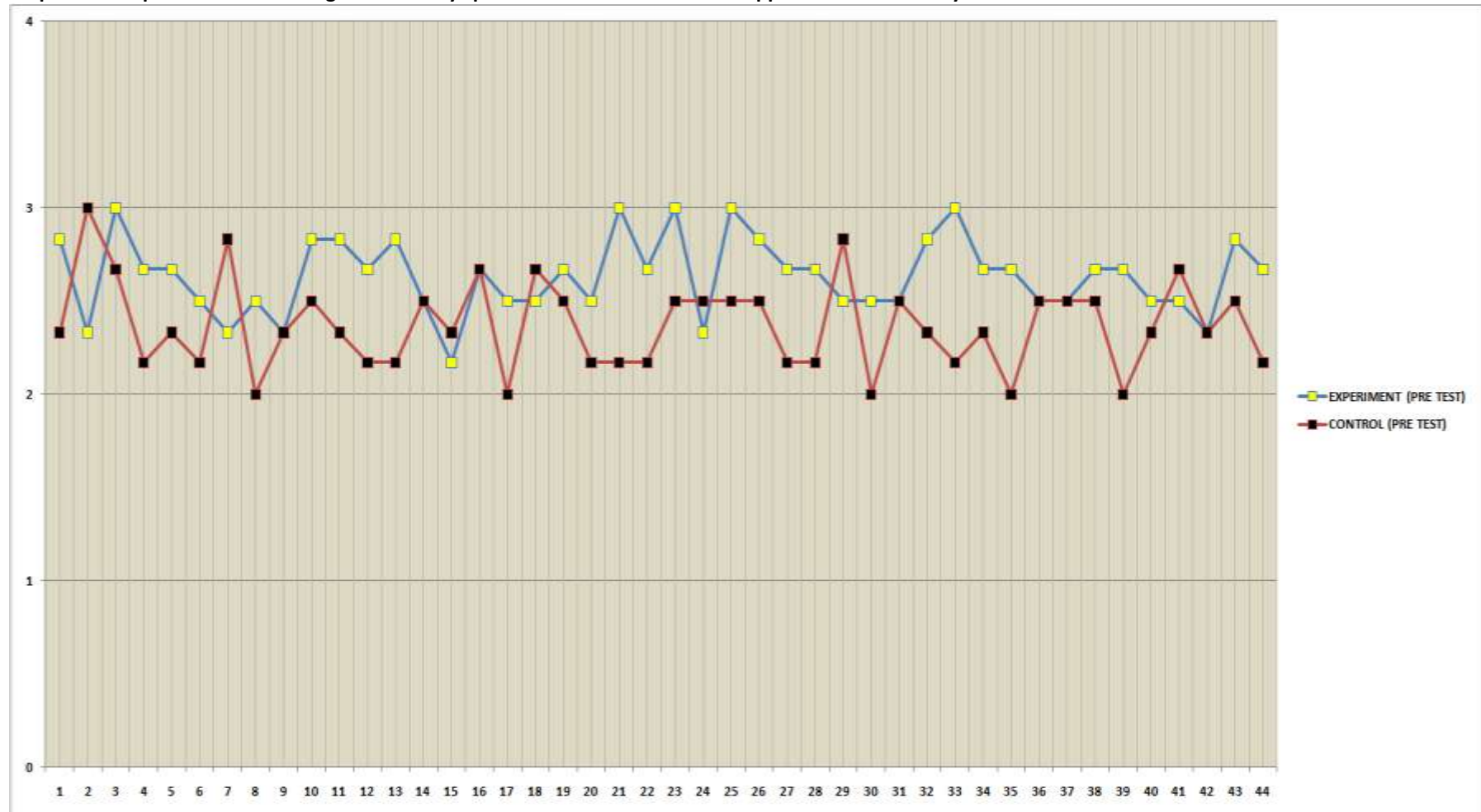
4.2.40. Comparison of the difference in “Autonomy” levels of students before and after the application of the study

Graph 13: Comparison of the difference in “Autonomy” levels of students before and after the application of the study



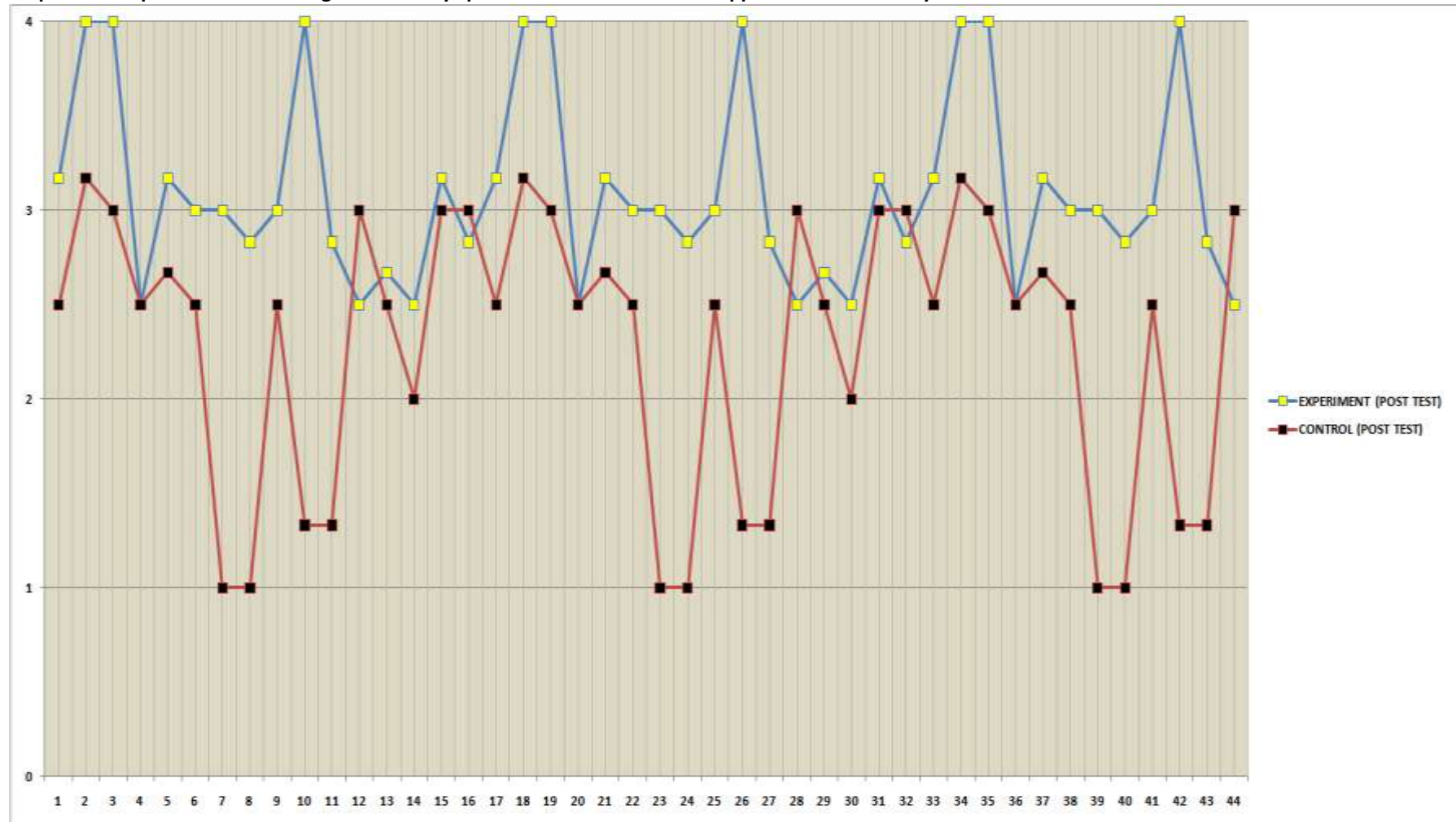
4.2.41. Comparison of the average “Autonomy” points of students before the application of the study

Graph 14: Comparison of the average “Autonomy” points of students before the application of the study



4.2.42. Comparison of the average “Autonomy” points of students after the application of the study

Graph 15: Comparison of the average “Autonomy” points of students after the application of the study



4.2.43. The distribution of Groups' Differences on "Negotiation" Prior to the Study

Table 24: The distribution of Groups' Differences on "Negotiation" Prior to the Study

PRE TEST	Attitudes towards "Negotiation"	Group	Definitely Agree	Agree	Disagree	Definitely Disagree	TOTAL
Negotiation	I think, teacher should be the one to decide on the classroom activities.	Study	6 (%13,6)	24 (%54,5)	12 (%27,3)	2 (%4,5)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	2 (%4,5)	4 (%9,1)	24 (%54,5)	14 (%31,8)	44 (%100,0)
	I think, teacher should be the one to choose the topics to be covered in class.	Study	5 (%11,4)	21 (%47,7)	18 (%40,9)	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	-	24 (%54,5)	8 (%18,2)	12 (%27,3)	44 (%100,0)
	I think, teacher should be the one to control the flow of the lesson.	Study	7 (%15,9)	21 (%47,7)	16 (%36,4)	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	4 (%9,1)	22 (%50,0)	6 (%13,6)	12 (%27,3)	44 (%100,0)
	I think, learners as well as the teacher should have a say on the progress of the lesson.	Study	5 (%11,4)	31 (%70,5)	8 (%18,2)	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	12 (%27,3)	32 (%72,7)	-	-	44 (%100,0)
	I think, learners should participate in the selection of topics to be covered in class.	Study	-	17 (%38,6)	27 (%61,4)	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	12 (%27,3)	18 (%40,9)	14 (%31,8)	-	44 (%100,0)
	I think, learners as well as the teacher should decide on the activities to be covered in class.	Study	4 (%9,1)	30 (%68,2)	10 (%22,7)	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	12 (%27,3)	24 (%54,5)	8 (%18,2)	-	44 (%100,0)

4.2.44. The distribution of Groups' Differences on "Negotiation" After the Study

Table 25: The distribution of Groups' Differences on "Negotiation" After the Study

POST TEST	Attitudes towards "Negotiation"	Group	Definitely Agree	Agree	Disagree	Definitely Disagree	TOTAL
Negotiation	I think, teacher should be the one to decide on the classroom activities.	Study	8 (%18,2)	12 (%27,3)	20 (%45,5)	4 (%9,1)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	2 (%4,5)	8 (%18,2)	24 (%54,5)	10 (%22,7)	44 (%100,0)
	I think, teacher should be the one to choose the topics to be covered in class.	Study	8 (%18,2)	22 (%50,0)	14 (%31,8)	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	4 (%9,1)	16 (%36,4)	16 (%36,4)	8 (%18,2)	44 (%100,0)
	I think, teacher should be the one to control the flow of the lesson.	Study	14 (%31,8)	20 (%45,5)	10 (%22,7)	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	8 (%18,2)	16 (%36,4)	10 (%22,7)	10 (%22,7)	44 (%100,0)
	I think, learners as well as the teacher should have a say on the progress of the lesson.	Study	20 (%45,5)	24 (%54,5)	-	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	22 (%50,0)	22 (%50,0)	-	-	44 (%100,0)
	I think, learners should participate in the selection of topics to be covered in class.	Study	8 (%18,2)	24 (%54,5)	12 (%27,3)	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	14 (%31,8)	18 (%40,9)	12 (%27,3)	-	44 (%100,0)
	I think, learners as well as the teacher should decide on the activities to be covered in class.	Study	14 (%31,8)	28 (%63,6)	2 (%4,5)	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	18 (%40,9)	24 (%54,5)	2 (%4,5)	-	44 (%100,0)

4.2.45. Comparison of the Control Group Students' Pre-Test and Post-Test Results

Table 26: Comparison of the Control Group Students' Pre-Test and Post-Test Results

Negotiation	N	(Mean)	Standard Deviation	t	p
PRE TEST (CONTROL)	44	2,8561	0,297	1,883	0,067
POST TEST (CONTROL)	44	2,9621	0,261		

Based on the pre-test and post-test results, A T-Test was applied in order to see if there were a meaningful difference between the attitudes of 44 students in the control group towards "Negotiation". The results were illustrated in the above table. The hypotheses set forth are as follows:

H_0 : There is no difference in the scores of control group students between the pre-test and post tests.

H_1 : There is difference in the scores of control group students between the pre-test and post tests.

As a result of the T-Test, since $p > 0,05$, it can be concluded that there is no meaningful difference between the groups' success and attitude after the study. ($t=1,883$, $p=0,067$)

4.2.46. Comparison of the Study Group Students' Pre-Test and Post-Test Results

Table 27: Comparison of the Study Group Students' Pre-Test and Post-Test Results

Negotiation	N	(Mean)	Standard Deviation	t	p
PRE TEST (STUDY)	44	2,6515	0,189	7,326	0,000
POST TEST (STUDY)	44	2,9962	0,252		

Based on the pre-test and post-test results, A T-Test was applied in order to see if there were a meaningful difference between the attitudes of 44 students in the study group towards “Negotiation”. The results were illustrated in the above table. The hypotheses set forth are as follows:

H_0 : There is no difference in the scores of study group students between the pre-test and post tests.

H_1 : There is difference in the scores of study group students between the pre-test and post tests.

As a result of the T-Test, since $p < 0,05$, it can be concluded that there is meaningful difference between the groups’ success and attitude after the study. ($t=7,326$, $p=0,000$).

This 2 to 4 hour program based on student needs showed a meaningful effect on the “Negotiation” of the students.

4.2.47. INTERPRETATION OF THE FINDINGS: NEGOTIATION

Based on the results of the subscale "Negotiation", we can conclude that the study had a positive effect on helping students realize the need for negotiation. That is, the experimental group students showed a meaningful difference in value for negotiation at the end of the study. In other words, they became more aware of the benefits of negotiation of their needs.

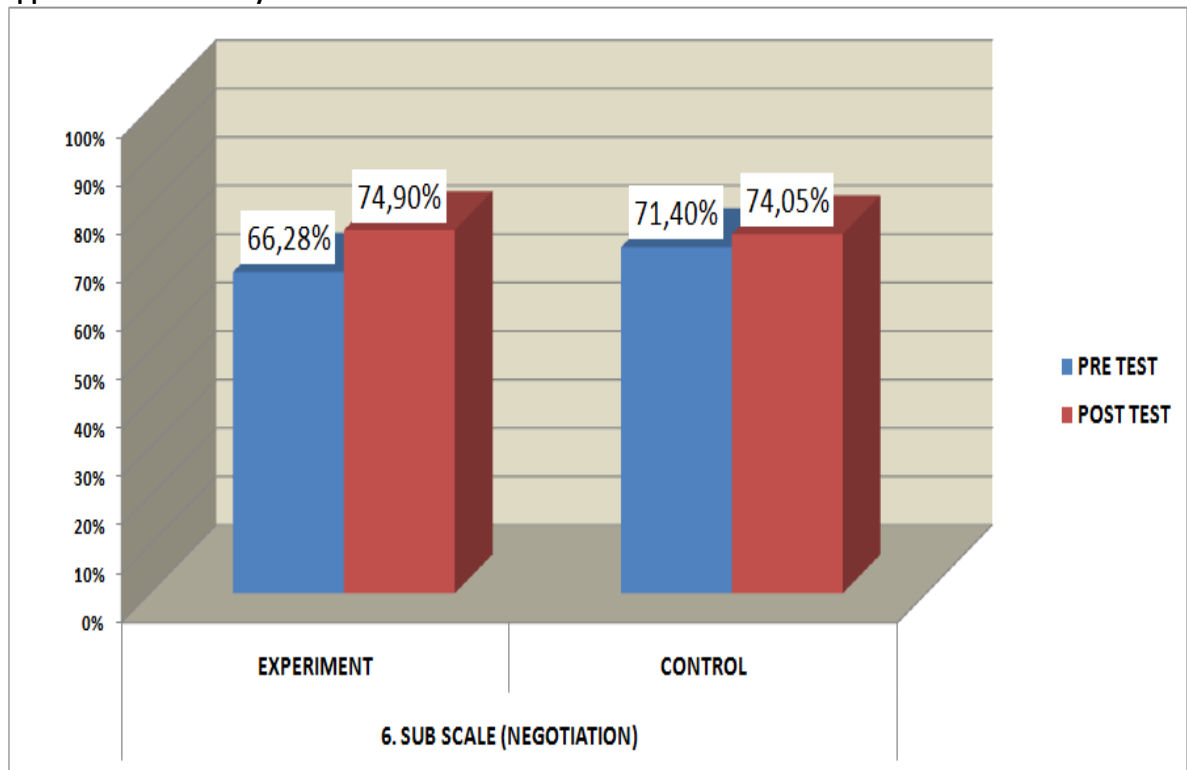
This subscale is designed to assess the learners' perception of negotiation of their needs. As we stated earlier in the literature review, most learners may not be eager to participate in the decision making process, or may not be well equipped to decide on their needs. Instead, learners are usually more willing to be guided and ready to follow the syllabus that is designed for them.

However, following the study, the experimental group learners turned out to be more aware of the necessity of negotiation than the control group students. This is probably because of the overall satisfaction of the process that they went through during

the study. It can thus be said that unless learners are given a chance to set their own goals and have a say on their own learning needs, they will probably keep following what is designed for them. This will make them passive recipients of knowledge as they have always been. However, when they are guided and encouraged, they may come up with ideas, which may or may not be academically oriented, to help them experience a better learning experience and improvement in many areas. These could be both the academic success and non academic fulfillments like lessened anxiety, collaborating with others, become more social and autonomous, and so on.

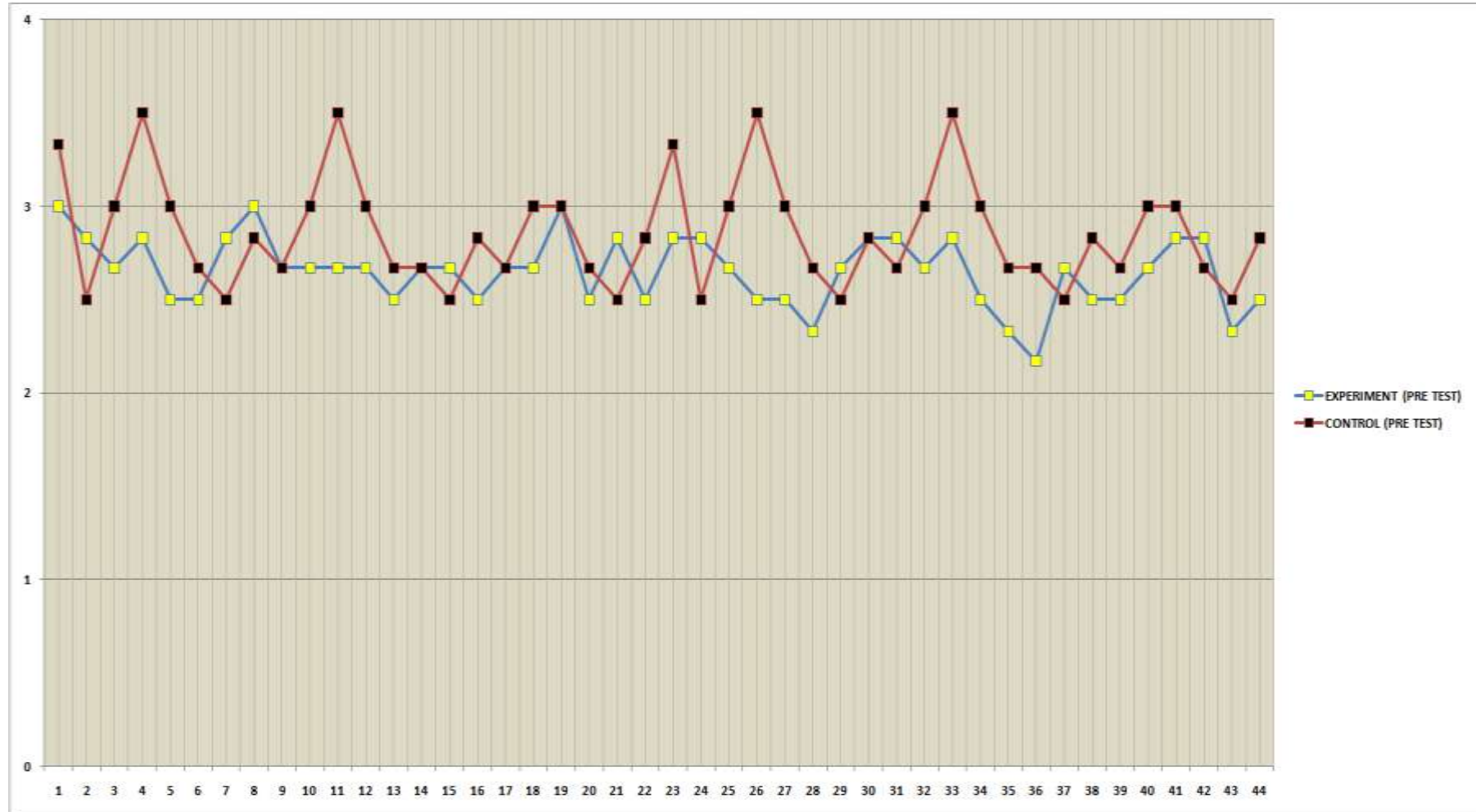
4.2.48. Comparison of the difference in “Negotiation” levels of students before and after the application of the study

Graph 16: Comparison of the difference in “Negotiation” levels of students before and after the application of the study



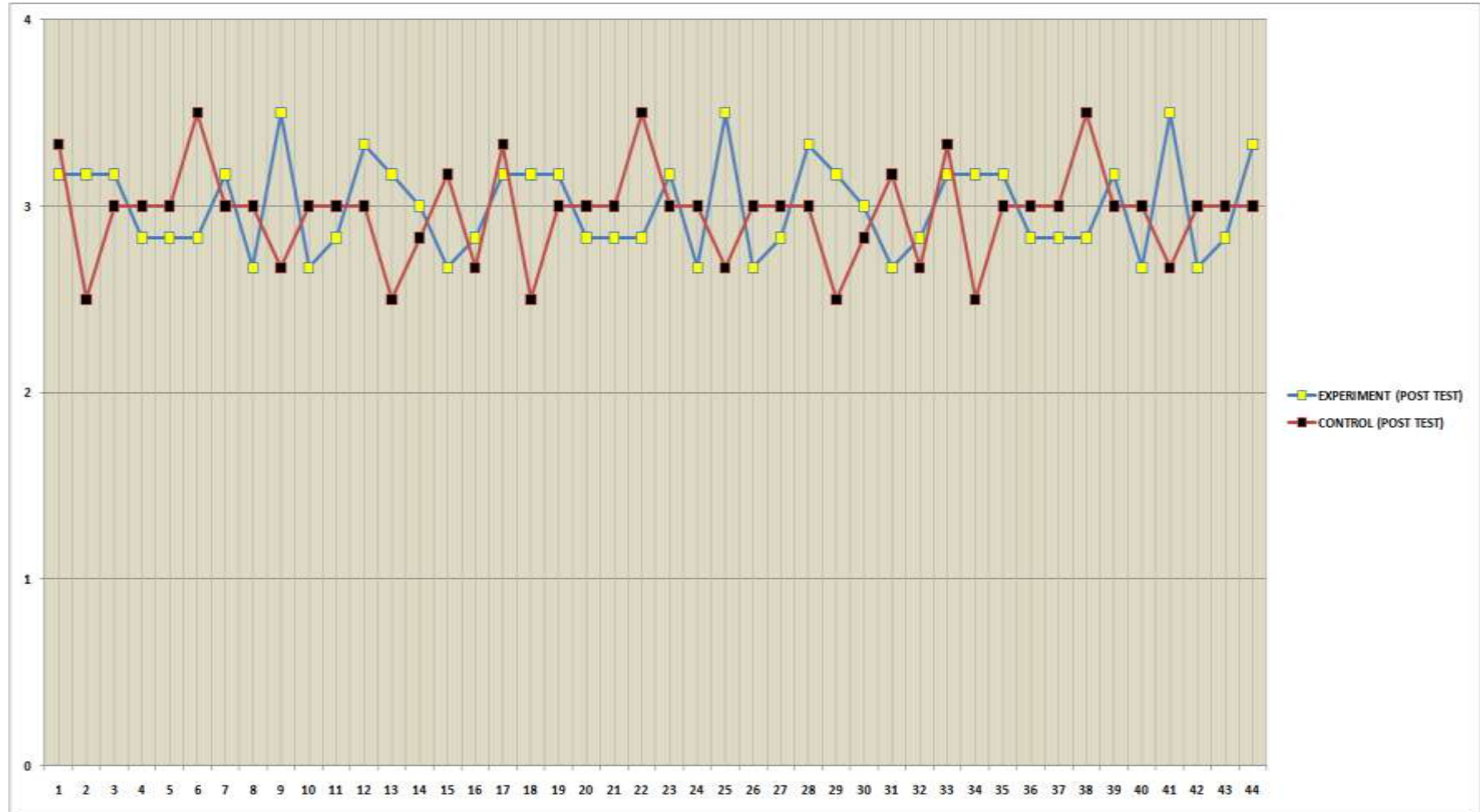
4.2.49. Comparison of the average “Negotiation” points of students before the application of the study

Graph 17: Comparison of the average “Negotiation” points of students before the application of the study



4.2.50. Comparison of the average “Negotiation” points of students after the application of the study

Graph 18: Comparison of the average “Negotiation” points of students after the application of the study



4.2.51. The distribution of Groups' Differences on "Collaboration" Prior to the Study

Table 28: The distribution of Groups' Differences on "Collaboration" Prior to the Study

PRE TEST	Attitudes towards "Collaboration"	Group	Definitely Agree	Agree	Disagree	Definitely Disagree	TOTAL
Collaboration	I don't ask for my friends' opinions.	Study	4 (%9,1)	10 (%22,7)	25 (%56,8)	5 (%11,4)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	8 (%18,2)	3 (%6,8)	28 (%63,6)	5 (%11,4)	44 (%100,0)
	I don't care about my friends' opinions.	Study	4 (%9,1)	29 (%65,9)	11 (%25,0)	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	8 (%18,2)	2 (%4,5)	30 (%68,2)	4 (%9,1)	44 (%100,0)
	I don't like group work.	Study	6 (%13,6)	31 (%70,5)	7 (%15,9)	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	18 (%40,9)	10 (%22,7)	14 (%31,8)	2 (%4,5)	44 (%100,0)
	I consult to my friends for their opinions.	Study	4 (%9,1)	13 (%29,5)	25 (%56,8)	2 (%4,5)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	-	20 (%45,5)	16 (%36,4)	8 (%18,2)	44 (%100,0)
	I try to solve a problem with a friend.	Study	4 (%9,1)	15 (%34,1)	25 (%56,8)	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	-	28 (%63,6)	8 (%18,2)	8 (%18,2)	44 (%100,0)
	I like group work.	Study	11 (%25,0)	12 (%27,3)	11 (%25,0)	10 (%22,7)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	-	15 (%34,1)	11 (%25,0)	18 (%40,9)	44 (%100,0)

4.2.52. The distribution of Groups' Differences on "Collaboration" After the Study

Table 29: The distribution of Groups' Differences on "Collaboration" After the Study

POST TEST	Attitudes towards "Collaboration"	Group	Definitel y Agree	Agree	Disagree	Definitely Disagree	TOTAL
Collaboration	I don't ask for my friends' opinions.	Study	2 (%4,5)	8 (%18,2)	26 (%59,1)	8 (%18,2)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	10 (%22,7)	6 (%13,6)	22 (%50,0)	6 (%13,6)	44 (%100,0)
	I don't care about my friends' opinions.	Study	2 (%4,5)	10 (%22,7)	24 (%54,5)	8 (%18,2)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	10 (%22,7)	10 (%22,7)	20 (%45,5)	4 (%9,1)	44 (%100,0)
	I don't like group work.	Study	6 (%13,6)	16 (%36,4)	16 (%36,4)	6 (%13,6)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	12 (%27,3)	10 (%22,7)	20 (%45,5)	2 (%4,5)	44 (%100,0)
	I consult to my friends for their opinions.	Study	6 (%13,6)	28 (%63,6)	8 (%18,2)	2 (%4,5)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	4 (%9,1)	20 (%45,5)	10 (%22,7)	10 (%22,7)	44 (%100,0)
	I try to solve a problem with a friend.	Study	6 (%13,6)	24 (%54,5)	14 (%31,8)	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	4 (%9,1)	22 (%50,0)	10 (%22,7)	8 (%18,2)	44 (%100,0)
	I like group work.	Study	6 (%13,6)	18 (%40,9)	14 (%31,8)	6 (%13,6)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	4 (%9,1)	20 (%45,5)	6 (%13,6)	14 (%31,8)	44 (%100,0)

4.2.53. Comparison of the Control Group Students' Pre-Test and Post-Test Results

Table 30: Comparison of the Control Group Students' Pre-Test and Post-Test Results

Collaboration	N	(Mean)	Standard Deviation	t	p
PRE TEST (CONTROL)	44	2,3371	0,691	-0,021	0,983
POST TEST (CONTROL)	44	2,3333	0,871		

Based on the pre-test and post-test results, A T-Test was applied in order to see if there were a meaningful difference between the attitudes of 44 students in the control group towards "Collaboration". The results were illustrated in the above table. The hypotheses set forth are as follows:

H_0 : There is no difference in the scores of control group students between the pre-test and post tests.

H_1 : There is difference in the scores of control group students between the pre-test and post tests.

As a result of the T-Test, since $p > 0,05$, it can be concluded that there is no meaningful difference between the groups' success and attitude after the study. ($t = -0,021$, $p = 0,983$)

4.2.54. Comparison of the Study Group Students' Pre-Test and Post-Test Results

Table 31: Comparison of the Study Group Students' Pre-Test and Post-Test Results

Collaboration	N	(Mean)	Standard Deviation	t	p
PRE TEST (STUDY)	44	2,3977	0,398	2,579	0,013
POST TEST (STUDY)	44	2,7008	0,576		

Based on the pre-test and post-test results, A T-Test was applied in order to see if there were a meaningful difference between the attitudes of 44 students in the study group towards “Collaboration”. The results were illustrated in the above table. The hypotheses set forth are as follows:

H_0 : There is no difference in the scores of study group students between the pre-test and post tests.

H_1 : There is difference in the scores of study group students between the pre-test and post tests.

As a result of the T-Test, since $p < 0,05$, it can be concluded that there is meaningful difference between the groups’ success and attitude after the study. ($t=2,579$, $p=0,013$).

This 2 to 4 hour program based on student needs showed a meaningful effect on the “Collaboration” of the students.

4.2.55. INTERPRETATION OF THE FINDINGS: COLLABORATION

Based on the results of the subscale "Collaboration", we can conclude that the study had a positive effect on learners' collaboration while learning English. That is, the experimental group students showed a meaningful difference in collaboration at the end of the study. In other words, they became more collaborative learners of English.

The items in this subscale are designed for one of the basic pillars of constructivism, being "collaboration". The results are important since they shed light on how such a 2 to 4 hour quasi negotiated syllabus could foster collaboration in English language learning. As seen in the results, the experimental group students showed a positive change on the basis of collaboration while the control group students had a falling trend. Thus, it can be concluded that the study succeeded to help learners become more collaborative at the end of the program.

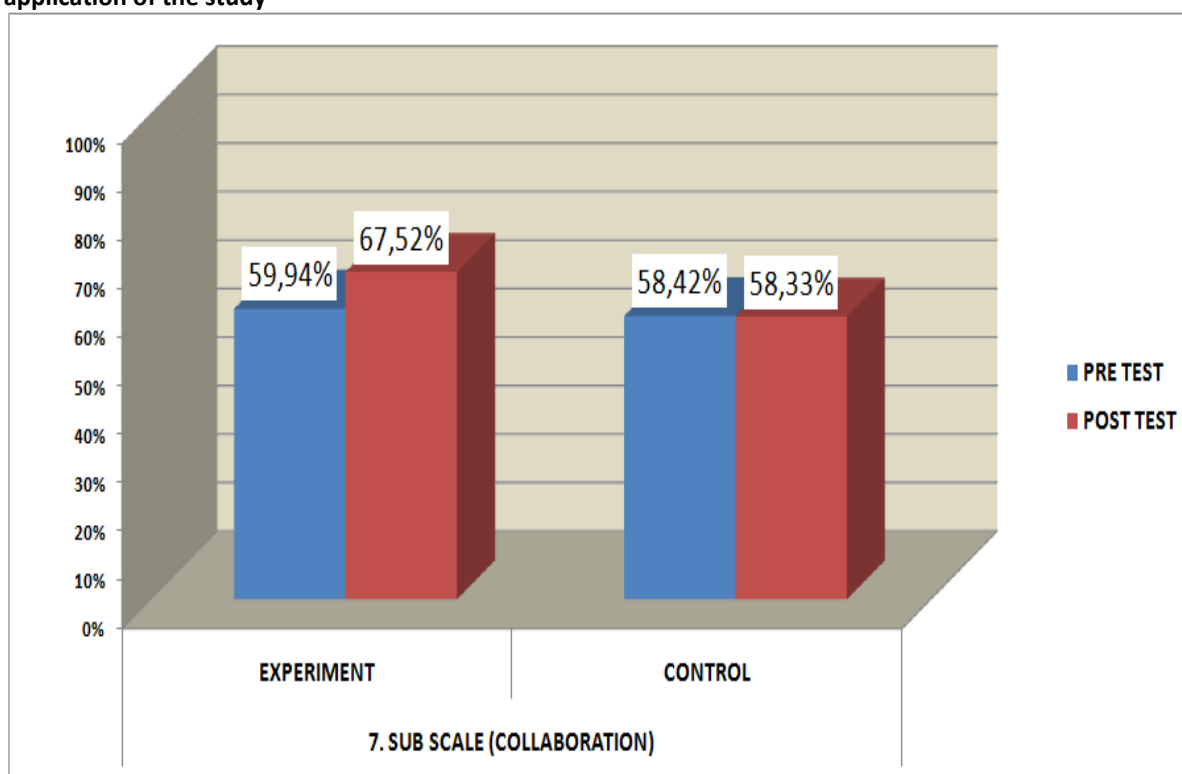
The results are important to this study in that learners construct their own understanding of the subject matter when there is another source, being the other

learners in class. This falls into Vygostky's social constructivism where the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) gains importance. Based on this idea, learners learn best when there is the presence of others and preferably the more capable peers. Thus, in this study, especially in the reading of short stories and the in-class tasks from the course book, learners were encouraged to work together to reach the information, and consult to the teacher, the ultimate source of information, as the final choice.

The results proved to be fruitful since the learners valued the benefits of collaboration with others. This not only affected a better understanding of language matters and created a constructivist learning environment, but also helped classroom ties become stronger. Learners seem to have valued the work done with others, and learned from their own and others' weaknesses and strengths.

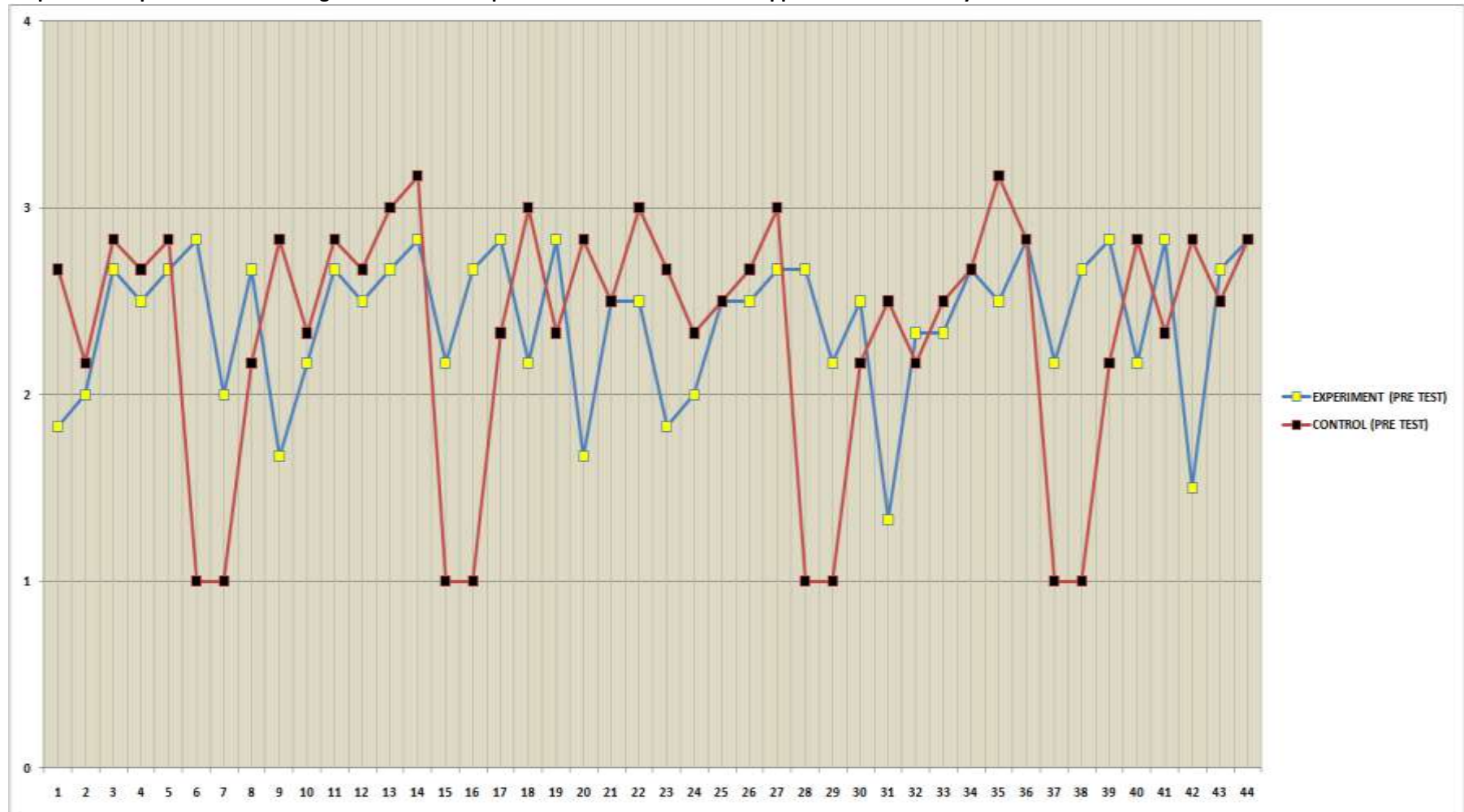
4.2.56. Comparison of the difference in “Collaboration” levels of students before and after the application of the study

Graph 19: Comparison of the difference in “Collaboration” levels of students before and after the application of the study



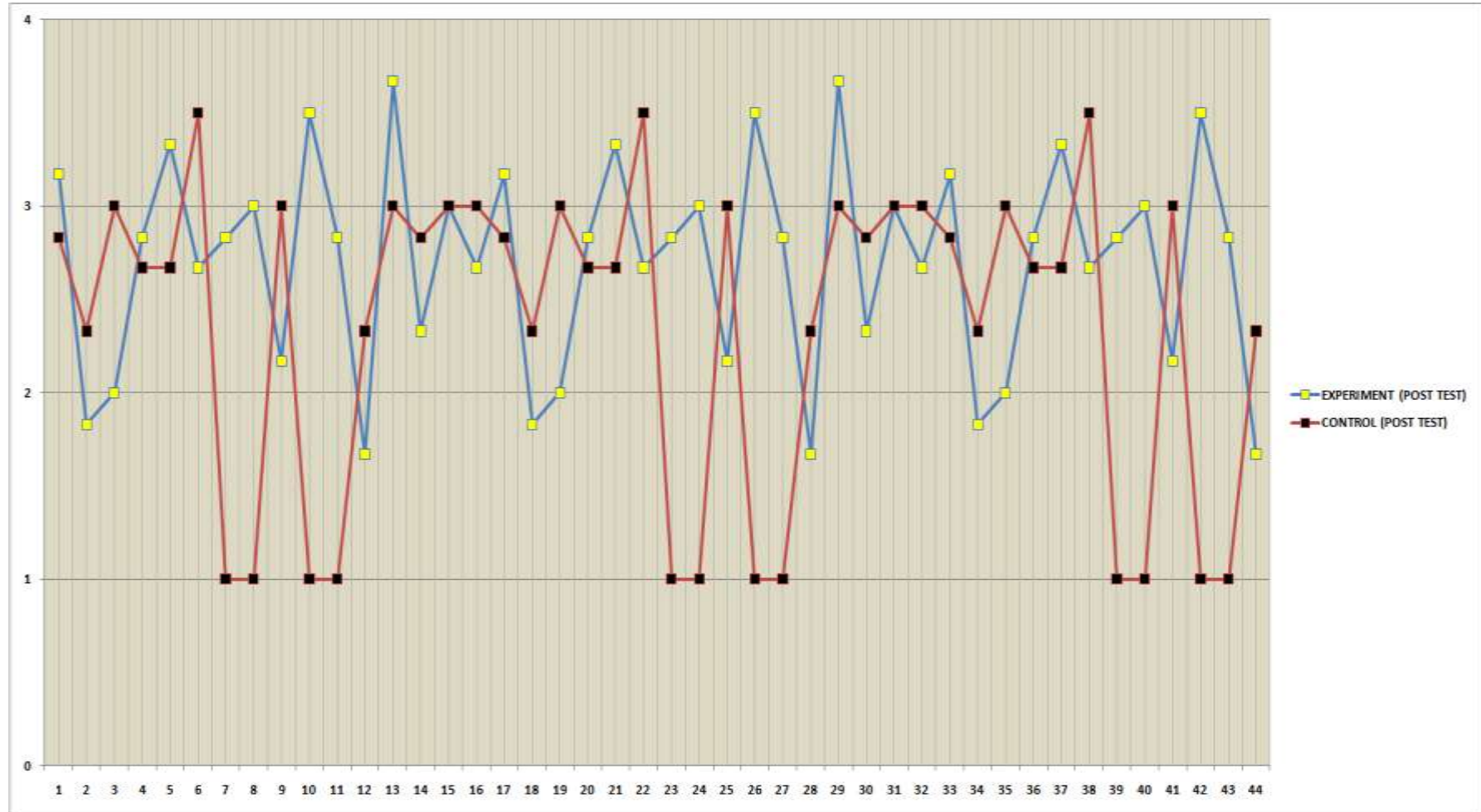
4.2.57. Comparison of the average “Collaboration” points of students before the application of the study

Graph 20: Comparison of the average “Collaboration” points of students before the application of the study



4.2.58. Comparison of the average “Collaboration” points of students after the application of the study

Graph 21: Comparison of the average “Collaboration” points of students after the application of the study



4.2.59. The distribution of Groups' Differences on "Socialization" Prior to the Study

Table 32: The distribution of Groups' Differences on "Socialization" Prior to the Study

PRE TEST	Attitudes towards "Socialization"	Group	Definitel y Agree	Agree	Disagree	Definitely Disagree	TOTAL
Socialization	I consider myself a social person.	Study	4 (%9,1)	32 (%72,7)	8 (%18,2)	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	22 (%50,0)	22 (%50,0)	-	-	44 (%100,0)
	I am good at friendships.	Study	4 (%9,1)	30 (%68,2)	10 (%22,7)	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	22 (%50,0)	22 (%50,0)	-	-	44 (%100,0)
	I feel relaxed while speaking in public.	Study	4 (%9,1)	38 (%86,4)	2 (%4,5)	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	-	26 (%59,1)	18 (%40,9)	-	44 (%100,0)
	I feel anxious while making a presentation.	Study	-	10 (%22,7)	24 (%54,5)	10 (%22,7)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	8 (%18,2)	26 (%59,1)	10 (%22,7)	-	44 (%100,0)
	I avoid expressing my opinions.	Study	-	8 (%18,2)	28 (%63,6)	8 (%18,2)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	2 (%4,5)	6 (%13,6)	16 (%36,4)	20 (%45,5)	44 (%100,0)
	I avoid talking to other people.	Study	-	8 (%18,2)	24 (%54,5)	12 (%27,3)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	2 (%4,5)	-	22 (%50,0)	20 (%45,5)	44 (%100,0)

4.2.60. The distribution of Groups' Differences on "Socialization" After the Study

Table 33: The distribution of Groups' Differences on "Socialization" After the Study

POST TEST	Attitudes towards "Socialization"	Group	Definitel y Agree	Agree	Disagree	Definitely Disagree	TOTAL
Socialization	I consider myself a social person.	Study	14 (%31,8)	24 (%54,5)	4 (%9,1)	2 (%4,5)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	20 (%45,5)	16 (%36,4)	6 (%13,6)	2 (%4,5)	44 (%100,0)
	I am good at friendships.	Study	10 (%22,7)	28 (%63,6)	6 (%13,6)	-	44 (%100,0)
		Control	18 (%40,9)	22 (%50,0)	4 (%9,1)	-	44 (%100,0)
	I feel relaxed while speaking in public.	Study	8 (%18,2)	22 (%50,0)	10 (%22,7)	4 (%9,1)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	10 (%22,7)	22 (%50,0)	8 (%18,2)	4 (%9,1)	44 (%100,0)
	I feel anxious while making a presentation.	Study	6 (%13,6)	22 (%50,0)	10 (%22,7)	6 (%13,6)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	6 (%13,6)	16 (%36,4)	12 (%27,3)	10 (%22,7)	44 (%100,0)
	I avoid expressing my opinions.	Study	4 (%9,1)	2 (%4,5)	24 (%54,5)	14 (%31,8)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	2 (%4,5)	6 (%13,6)	16 (%36,4)	20 (%45,5)	44 (%100,0)
	I avoid talking to other people.	Study	2 (%4,5)	4 (%9,1)	20 (%45,5)	18 (%40,9)	44 (%100,0)
		Control	-	4 (%9,1)	18 (%40,9)	22 (%50,0)	44 (%100,0)

4.2.61. Comparison of the Control Group Students' Pre-Test and Post-Test Results

Table 34: Comparison of the Control Group Students' Pre-Test and Post-Test Results

Socialization	N	(Mean)	Standard Deviation	t	p
PRE TEST (CONTROL)	44	3,0379	0,348	0,685	0,497
POST TEST (CONTROL)	44	3,1098	0,545		

Based on the pre-test and post-test results, A T-Test was applied in order to see if there were a meaningful difference between the attitudes of 44 students in the control group towards “Socialization”. The results were illustrated in the above table. The hypotheses set forth are as follows:

H_0 : There is no difference in the scores of control group students between the pre-test and post tests.

H_1 : There is difference in the scores of control group students between the pre-test and post tests.

As a result of the T-Test, since $p > 0,05$, it can be concluded that there is no meaningful difference between the groups' success and attitude after the study. ($t=0,685$, $p=0,497$)

4.2.62. Comparison of the Study Group Students' Pre-Test and Post-Test Results

Table 35: Comparison of the Study Group Students' Pre-Test and Post-Test Results

Socialization	N	(Mean)	Standard Deviation	t	p
PRE TEST (STUDY)	44	2,9848	0,296	-0,038	0,970
POST TEST (STUDY)	44	2,9811	0,663		

Based on the pre-test and post-test results, A T-Test was applied in order to see if there were a meaningful difference between the attitudes of 44 students in the study group towards “Socialization”. The results were illustrated in the above table. The hypotheses set forth are as follows:

H_0 : There is no difference in the scores of study group students between the pre-test and post tests.

H_1 : There is difference in the scores of study group students between the pre-test and post tests.

As a result of the T-Test, since $p > 0,05$, it can be concluded that there is no meaningful difference between the groups’ success and attitude after the study. ($t = -0,038$, $p = 0,970$).

This 2 to 4 hour program based on student needs showed no meaningful effect on the “Socialization” of the students.

4.2.63. INTERPRETATION OF THE FINDINGS: SOCIALIZATION

Based on the results of the subscale "Socialization", we can conclude that the study had no effect on learners' socialization. That is, neither the control group nor the experimental group showed a meaningful difference in socialization at the end of the study. In other words, there were no changes in socialization in either group.

Although not directly related to this study, the researcher thought it would be helpful to look at whether the study would have any effect on students' socialization process. It may not seem relevant to the study, but when we consider the affective filters, like anxiety, that impedes the individual's successful integration to a community, socialization also plays an important role which we should consider in our teaching practices. To put it in another way, the more social a person, the more he or she is eager to participate in activities, feel relaxed when making presentations, eager to join group or peer activities and better concentrate on the classroom instructions. When one is under stress and have the fear others are watching him or her, the individual may not function at the usual level he or she could in normal times. This is in fact one of the

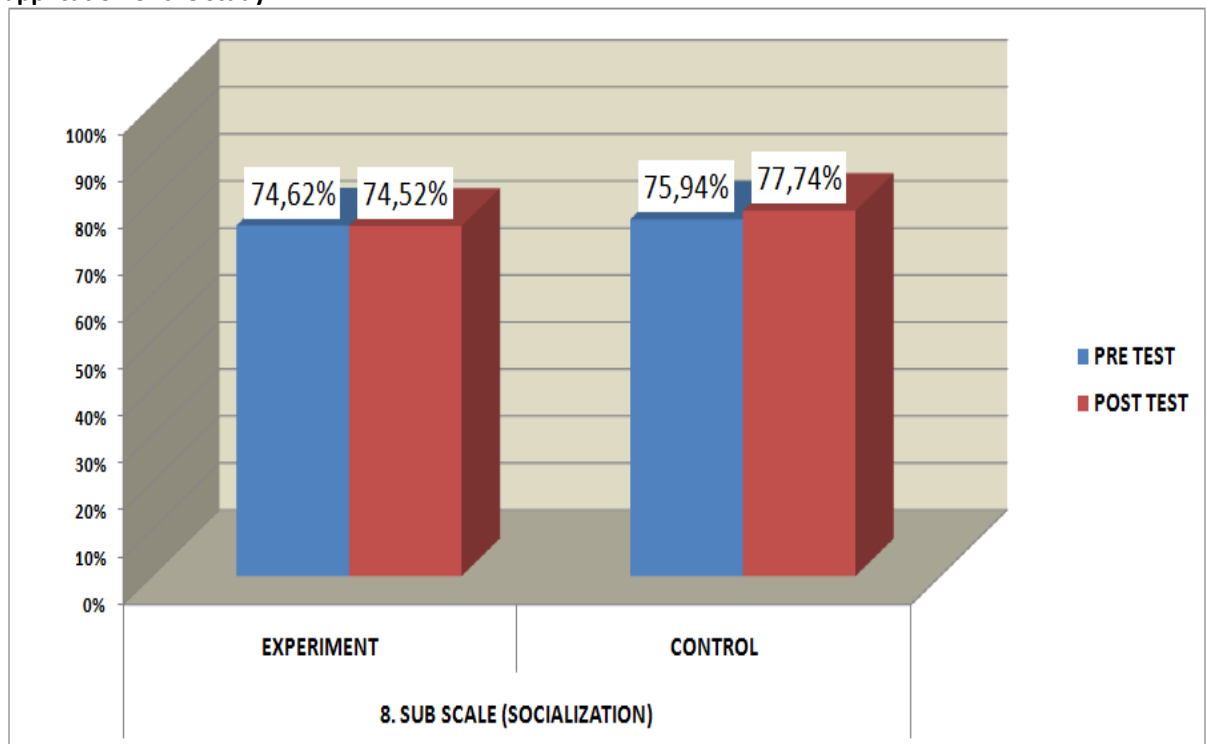
basic affective filters we should overcome in our classes and help learners become as stress-free as possible.

Unlike intended, the results of the study revealed no meaningful results on whether the study had any effect on socialization or not. So, we can say that the 2 to 4 hour quasi negotiated syllabus had no effect on the mentioned factor.

However, this may be because the learners were already social ones. Among the 44 students in the study group, only 3 students were observed to be reserved at the beginning, and due to the friendly atmosphere of the class and the instructor's way of handling the classroom instruction, they were observed to be less anxious starting from the very first week of the program. So, the results for this subscale may need further research.

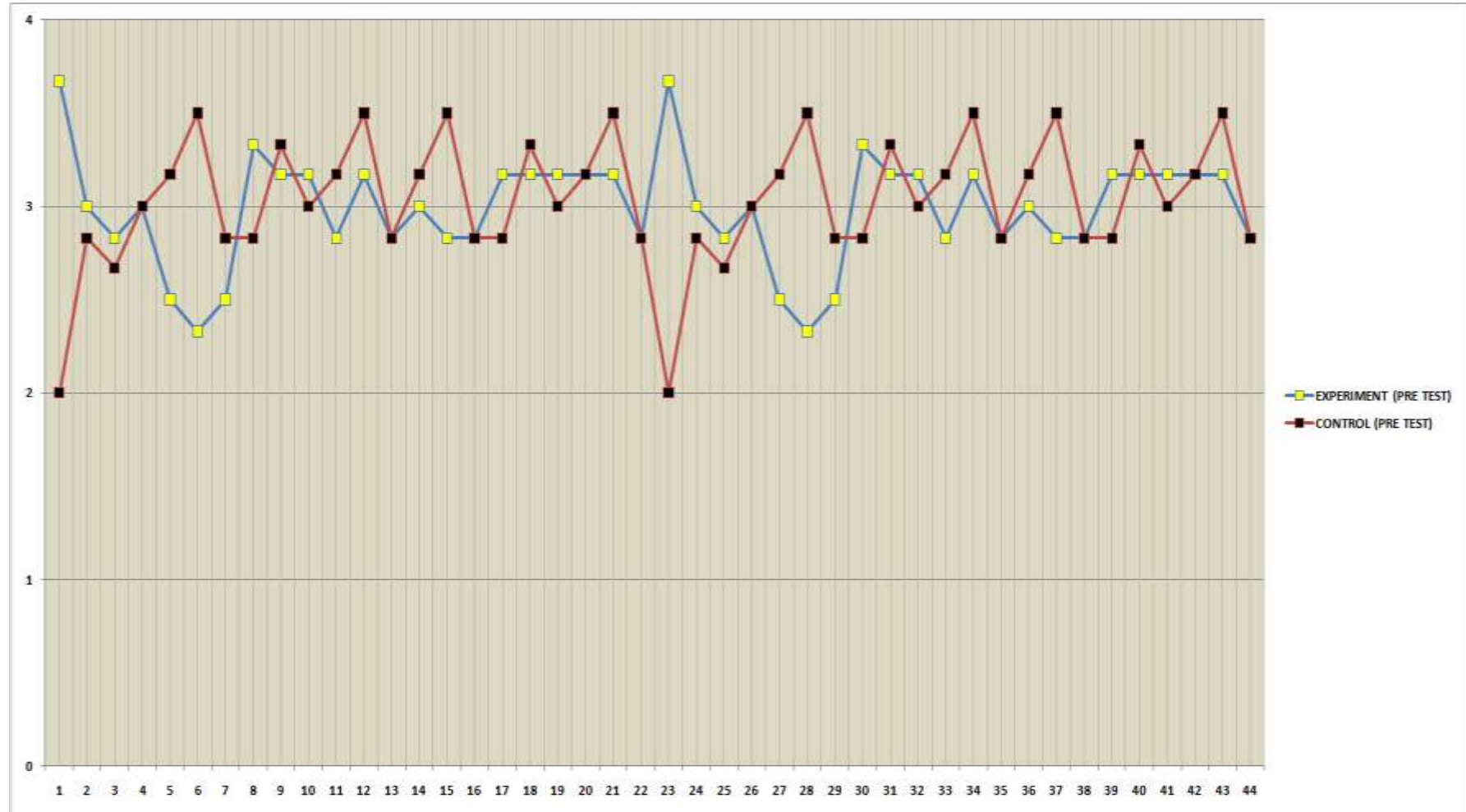
4.2.64. Comparison of the difference in “Socialization” levels of students before and after the application of the study

Graph 22: Comparison of the difference in “Socialization” levels of students before and after the application of the study



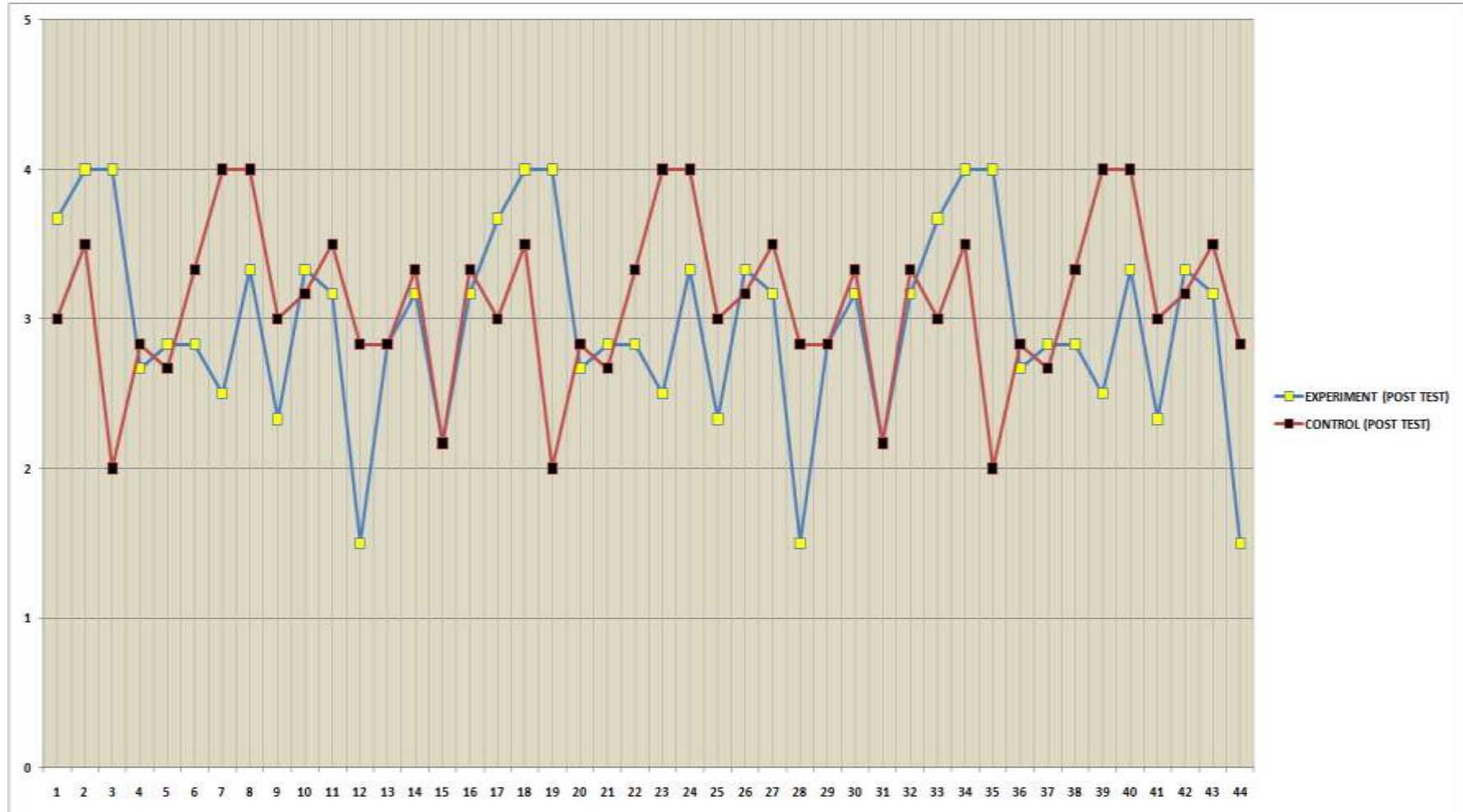
4.2.65. Comparison of the average “Socialization” points of students before the application of the study

Graph 23: Comparison of the average “Socialization” points of students before the application of the study



4.2.66. Comparison of the average “Socialization” points of students after the application of the study

Graph 24: Comparison of the average “Socialization” points of students after the application of the study



4.2.67. Comparison of the Final Grades of Study and Control Group Students

Table 36: Comparison of the Final Grades of Study and Control Group Students

FINAL GRADE	N	(Mean)	Standard Deviation	t	p
STUDY	44	76,77	10,016	10,825	0,000
CONTROL	44	53,32	13,509		

A T-Test was applied in order to see if there were a meaningful difference between the Final Grades of 44 students in the control and study. The results were illustrated in the above table. The hypotheses set forth are as follows:

H_0 : There is no difference in the Final Grades between the control and study group students.

H_1 : There is difference in the Final Grades between the control and study group students.

As a result of the T-Test, since $p < 0,05$, it can be concluded that there is meaningful difference between the control and study group's Final Grades. ($t=10,825$, $p=0,000$)

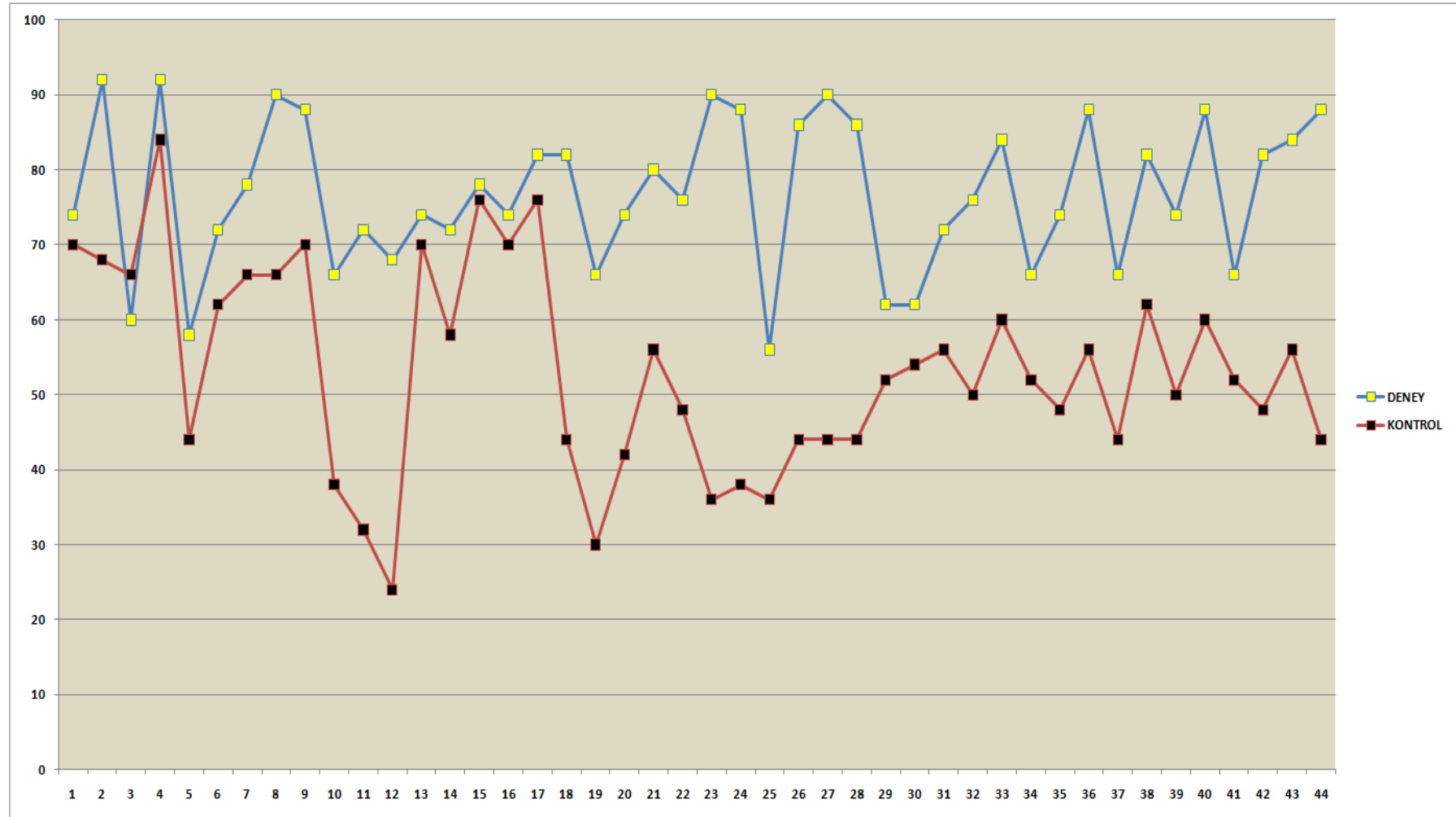
4.2.68. INTERPRETATION OF THE FINDINGS: FINAL GRADES OF THE STUDY AND CONTROL GROUPS

The second quantitative source for this study comes from the overall academic scores of both groups at the end of the first semester.

Based on the results, we can say that the experimental group outscored the control group. While both groups were identical at the beginning of the study on the basis of their academic levels, the experimental group turned out to have a better overall academic achievement at the end. Therefore, we can conclude that the 2 to 4 hour quasi negotiated syllabus had a positive effect on their academic success.

4.2.69. Comparison of the Final Grades of Students after the application of the study

Graph 25: Comparison of the Final Grades of Students after the application of the study



CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

5.1.Introduction

This chapter will present the results of the study, pedagogical implications and suggestions for further study, respectively. In the results section, a detailed overview of the findings will be discussed and each sub scale and the results of the analysis will be summarized. The next section will be centered on the pedagogical implications the study revealed and the significance of the study will be presented. The final section will be a closing for the paper with suggestions for further study in light of the limitations to the study.

5.2.Results

This study was aimed to modify, to some extent, the design of an English Language syllabus by which we, as instructors, could foster a constructivist way of teaching, meet our learners' needs, and increase their success levels.

To do so, a certain amount of the normal syllabus hours per week, being 2 to 4 hours, were allocated for free roaming. That is, we negotiated these hours with the learners to be spent as per learners' decisions. Since the whole syllabus was not negotiated and the rest of the class hours per week were subject to the normal syllabus, we named this syllabus "quasi-negotiated syllabus".

This quasi-negotiated syllabus was applied for 17 weeks to two experimental group classes of 22 students each at Ankara University Foreign Languages Department. Other 2 classes of identical parameters at the same school were set as the control group and didn't receive any treatment.

A scale was developed by the researcher and piloted at the beginning of the semester and validated through Reliability Analysis. Later, it was handed out to both groups first at the beginning of the semester and then at the end. The results were

analyzed and interpreted using SPSS v15.0 software program. In addition to the questionnaire, the overall academic scores of both groups were also analyzed at the end of the first semester to see if the treatment had any effect on the experimental group learners' success levels.

The results of the analysis revealed the intended results, except one, being the "socialization".

The study basically had four aims. The first of these was to promote a constructivist learning environment where learners would be able to discover, collaborate, and become autonomous learners. With that in mind, 2 to 4 hours of the normal syllabus hours were allocated to address learners' needs in light of constructivist learning. However, the mentioned hours were aimed not only at creating a constructivist venue for learners, but also to reveal some beneficial peripheral effects on the normal syllabus, which might not have been achieved through the normal syllabus.

The first of these peripheral effects could be the "Class Anxiety". If learners' anxiety levels in the classroom is high, this may cause them to develop negative feelings towards learning English and towards the instructor, and may prevent them from collaborating with other students which is an essential part of a constructivist environment. To overcome this problem, the study seems to have been successful when we look at the results of the subscales 1, 2, 3 and 4, "Class Anxiety", "Attitudes towards Learning English", "English Course Evaluation" and "English Use Anxiety" respectively. The attitudes of learners in the experimental group seem to have changed positively after the treatment. This change also reflected itself in the subscale 7 "Collaboration" which is again one of the requirements of a constructivist learning environment. The experimental group learners seem to have valued collaboration with others.

Based on these findings, we can say that unlike the control group students who went through the normal syllabus, the quasi-negotiated syllabus had meaningful effects on experimental group students and lowered their anxiety levels, helped them develop more positive feelings towards learning and using English and the English course and instructor at the same time, and become more willing to collaborate with other students

in the class. These were the assumed results of the study and they seem to have been met.

The second effect could be the "Attitudes towards Learning English". If learners develop hard feeling towards learning English, this may prevent them from experiencing discovery, collaboration and autonomy in a constructivist classroom. Thus, the study seems to have overcome this problem when we look at the results of subscale 2, being "Attitudes towards learning English". The experimental group learners turned out to feel more positive about learning English when compared to the control group students. This suggests that the quasi-negotiated syllabus might have had an effect on this aspect. That is, the negotiation of needs, the friendly atmosphere set, the activities done within the wish list students came up with, all seem to have had a positive effect on students' attitudes. Moreover, it also seems to have had a peripheral effect on the acceptance of the normal syllabus by making it more absorbable by the experimental group learners.

The third effect could be the "English Course Evaluation". The subscale 3 revealed that the experimental group learners' attitudes towards the English course and the instructor changed in a positive way and they enjoyed the course more when compared to the control group learners. Just like the second effect, this also plays a major role to enable a constructivist venue where learners find it enjoyable to go through a course they get pleasure, and thus willingly engage in activities that would foster discovery, collaboration and autonomy.

The fourth effect could be "English Use Anxiety". Similar to the first three subscales, subscale 4 also revealed that the experimental group students' anxiety levels for using English changed in a positive way. This could be tied to the experience they had with native speakers for two weeks within the study, or to the collaboration with other students in class, or to the stress free environment in the class. All in all, the study seems to have succeeded to help experimental group learners lessen their anxiety when speaking in English. This is important since with high levels of anxiety when speaking English, a learner might not benefit from opportunities both in the class and outside to discover the use of real English, or collaborate with others to increase his or her current level. We believe, it is one very important affective filter that should be eliminated and

seen as one of the prerequisites of a constructivist teaching process.

The second aim of the study was to value learners' needs to some extent. We couldn't have achieved this without the 2 to 4 hour separate instruction, since the normal syllabus hours were allocated according to the syllabus, and there was almost no extra space for meeting learners' needs. So, the mentioned hours were thought to meet this goal which was not possible through the normal syllabus.

The aim here was not just academic, but non-academic as well. In the 4th week of the study, a wish list was collected from students and the 2 to 4 hour period was reserved to meet these needs. Most of the items in the list were academically oriented like reading books or meeting native speakers of English; however, some were also non-academic, like throwing parties. The underlying goal here was not to provide learners language instruction based on their academic needs and improve their field-specific skills. Instead, the aim was to give learners an extra space where they could construct based on their decisions.

The results of the subscale 6, "Attitudes towards Negotiation" revealed that the experimental group learners valued this quasi-negotiation process positively. When we go back to the results of the other subscales of the questionnaire, we can comment that this quasi-negotiation process might have been responsible for all the positively changed attitudes in them. That is, the negotiated hours helped them work collaboratively, discover by themselves or with others, and become more autonomous learners through the reading of short stories, reduced their English use anxiety levels through meeting native speakers of English, and helped them develop positive feelings towards Learning English and towards the instructor at the same time.

The third aim of the study was to see if learners' overall academic success levels would be affected positively as a result of the treatment they went through. The overall mean results of the academic achievement tests revealed that the experimental group students outscored the control group students and received an average of 76,77 final grade compared to 53,32 of the control group students. We can conclude that the study might have had a positive effect on the academic achievement of students. The underlying reasons could be tied to the results of all the scales which are 'reduced

anxiety levels', 'positive attitudes towards learning English, the English course and the instructor', 'lessened English use anxiety', 'autonomous learning', and 'collaboration'.

A final aim was not directly related to the study but considered important. The 8th subscale of the questionnaire was designed to see if the study would have any effect on learners' socialization process. Specifically, what we mean by socialization is how we can help some shy students become more social and thus have less anxiety to engage in the classroom activities. The study revealed no improvement in this process in either group. This could be tied to the presence of already social learners in both groups. In the experimental group, only 3 students were observed to be shy. Throughout the study, they showed improvement and become more social learners. However, probably because their number was not enough to make a meaningful change in the analysis of the data for this subscale, the study revealed no considerable difference.

5.3. Pedagogical Implications

Constructivism sees the learners as unique individuals who may have different needs. Meeting these needs may lead to a better learning experience on the side of the learners. Thus, the current study might shed a light on how to meet those needs in a classroom setting and help realize constructivism in practice to a certain extent.

We believe that, no matter how successful a methodology or an approach could be, there are some factors that should be seen as prerequisites to prepare the learning venue to get the most out of that method or approach. Some of the most important factors could be the anxiety levels of students and their attitudes towards learning English and the English course and the instructor. Unless these affective filters are eliminated, any successful method or approach might work below its real potentials. Therefore, the present study may reveal some important results to lessen these negative feelings, if not totally eliminate them.

Moreover, English language classrooms shouldn't be just places where all the time is allocated for language instruction. Instead, it should be a ground where mutually agreed activities could take place. These could be academically oriented as well as non-

academically oriented. Allowing 1 or 2 hours to throwing a birthday party, or talking about recent news in the mother tongue may not be seen as course related, but it may have a peripheral effect on the perception of learners about the learning process and lead them to develop positive feelings towards the course and the instructor at the same time.

Classrooms are social places where people gather and socialize. It is not just a place to receive instruction all the time. If we can set a balance between the requirements of the syllabus and needs of students, this may lead to a fruitful equilibrium and help the classroom become a micro community. This way, we may not only be able to teach them English in a better way, but we can also prepare them for their future schooling and their professional and personal lives. A shy student may overcome this drawback and become a self confident one which might prepare him for a better future life free of anxieties. We can create socially developed individuals who know the value of teamwork, who value others' feelings and who can communicate effectively with other people in the society. Our learners can develop their discovery skills and become self sufficient individuals. These might seem irrelevant to the nature of teaching of English, but if we look at it from the other side, all these gains might help create a strong community in the classroom and a language can only be learned in a community.

5.4.Suggestions for Further Study

This study was limited to a particular school and groups of students. So, the results might not be generalizable to all institutions and levels of students. Although the results turned out to be as intended, it might be otherwise in different settings and with different student groups. Therefore, future studies with similar intents might shed a better light on the issue.

Only 2 to 4 hours of the normal syllabus hours were allocated for this study. Less or more of this time might reveal different results in different circumstances.

There were only 6 items in the wish list negotiated with learners and this number could be increased or decreased to meet a certain focus on one or more particular areas. This might show different results.

The instructor's role in motivating the students and the way he handles classroom interaction might be a subjective factor that might have affected the control and experimental group students' attitudes towards the study. Thus, it is suggested that the study be carried out with different groups and instructors.

Socialization subscale received no change at the end of the study. It would be beneficial to see the results of the same study in a class where there are more shy students and how they may turn out to be at the end of such a study on the basis of socialization.

The study investigated the overall academic achievement scores of students. Individual skills like speaking, reading and listening could be analyzed separately and the negotiated activities could be modified accordingly to see their effects on these sub skills.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX 1. ATTITUDE QUESTIONNAIRE (ENGLISH)



GAZI UNIVERSITY INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES

Attitude Questionnaire for Prep School Student's Perception of the English Language Course

QUESTIONNAIRE FORM

This questionnaire is designed to collect data for a PhD Thesis.

All the information you provide will be kept confidential and no personal information will be published. Therefore, your sincere answers to the questionnaire items will be highly appreciated.

Thank you for your participation.

Tumer ALTAS
Ankara University
School of Foreign Languages
Instructor



Gender Age Prep Class		☐ Female ☐ 17-20 ☐ Compulsory	☐ Male ☐ 21-24 ☐ Elective	☐ 25-30	
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	Attitudes towards English	Definitely Agree	Agree	Disagree	Definitely Disagree
Class Anxiety	I get nervous while speaking in English in the classroom.				
	I feel tense while speaking in English in the classroom.				
	I have the feeling that my friends will laugh at me while speaking in English in the classroom.				
	I don't feel anxious when I need to answer a question in English in the classroom.				
	I don't feel nervous when speaking in English in the classroom.				
	I don't feel anxiety when speaking in English in the classroom.				
Attitudes towards Learning English	I like learning English.				
	I want to learn English inside out.				
	It is fun to learn English.				
	I don't like learning English.				
	English is an unnecessary course.				
	It is boring to learn English.				
English Course Evaluation	I find English course entertaining.				
	I look forward to the English course.				
	English is one of my favorite courses.				
	English course is a waste of time.				
	I have no interest in English.				
	I don't like English course.				
English Use Anxiety	If I were to speak in English with a tourist, I feel tense.				
	I feel anxious in places where I have to speak in English.				
	I get nervous when someone asks me a question in English.				
	I feel relaxed while speaking to a foreigner in English.				
	I like speaking to tourists in English.				
	I can easily communicate with foreigners in English.				
	I can investigate and find out anything I want to learn.				

Autonomy	I can study and learn many things by myself.				
	I like investigating and learning by myself.				
	I don't do English related activities in my free times.				
	I don't study English outside the class.				
	I don't read English books outside the class.				
Negotiation	I think teacher should be the one to decide on the classroom activities.				
	I think teacher should be the one to choose the topics to be covered in class.				
	I think teacher should be the one to control the flow of the lesson.				
	I think learners as well as the teacher should have a say on the progress of the lesson.				
	I think learners should participate in the selection of topics to be covered in class.				
	I think learners as well as the teacher should decide on the activities to be covered in class.				
Collaboration	I don't ask for my friends' opinions.				
	I don't care about my friends' opinions.				
	I don't like group work.				
	I consult to my friends for their opinions.				
	I try to solve a problem with a friend.				
	I like group work.				
Socialization	I consider myself a social person.				
	I am good at friendships.				
	I feel relaxed while speaking in public.				
	I feel anxious while making a presentation.				
	I avoid expressing my opinions.				
	I avoid talking to other people.				

APPENDIX 2. ATTITUDE QUESTIONNAIRE (TURKISH)

**GAZİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ
ENSTİTÜSÜ**

**Hazırlık Sınıfı Öğrencilerinin İngilizce Derslerine İlişkin Tutumları
üzerine Tutum ve Değerlendirme Anketi**

ANKET FORMU

Bu çalışma bir doktora tezine kaynak bilgi sağlaması amacıyla hazırlanmıştır.

Bu çalışmadan elde edilecek bilgiler herhangi bir şekilde isim belirtilerek yayımlanmayacağından dolayı ankete içtenlikle cevap vereceğinizi umuyorum.

Katkılarınız için teşekkür ederim.

Tümer ALTAŞ
Ankara Üniversitesi
Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu
Öğretim Elemanı



Cinsiyet

☐ Kız☐ ErkekYaşınız
30☐ 17-20☐ 21-24☐ 25-30

İngilizce Hazırlık

☐ Zorunlu☐ İsteğe Bağlı

	İngilizceye Karşı Tutum	Tamamen Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
Class Anxiety	Sınıfta İngilizce konuşurken heyecanlanırım.				
	Sınıfta İngilizce konuşurken gerginimdir.				
	Sınıfta İngilizce konuşurken arkadaşlarım bana gülecek endişesi duyarım.				
	İngilizce bir soruya cevap vereceğim zaman kaygı duymam.				
	İngilizce konuşurken heyecanlanmam.				
	Sınıfta İngilizce konuşurken endişe duymam.				
Attitudes towards Learning English	İngilizce öğrenmeyi seviyorum				
	İngilizceyi çok iyi öğrenmek istiyorum.				
	İngilizce öğrenmek keyiflidir.				
	İngilizce öğrenmeyi sevmiyorum.				
	İngilizce gereksiz bir derstir.				
	İngilizce öğrenmek sıkıcıdır.				
English Course Evaluation	İngilizce dersini eğlenmeli buluyorum.				
	İngilizce dersini dört gözle bekliyorum.				
	İngilizce benim için en favori derslerden biridir.				
	İngilizce dersi zaman kaybıdır.				
	İngilizce dersine ilgim yok.				
	İngilizce dersini sevmiyorum.				
English Use Anxiety	Bir turistle İngilizce konuşacak olsam gergin hissederim.				
	İngilizce konuşmam gereken yerlerde endişelenirim.				
	Biri bana İngilizce soru sorsa endişelenirim.				
	Bir yabancıyla İngilizce konuşurken rahat hissederim.				
	Turistlerle İngilizce konuşmak hoşuma gider.				
	Yabancılarla rahatlıkla İngilizce iletişim kurabilirim.				

Autonomy	Merak ettiğim birşeyi araştırıp öğrenebilirim.				
	Kendi başıma çalışarak birçok şeyi öğrenebilirim.				
	Kendi kendime araştırıp öğrenmeyi severim.				
	Boş zamanlarımda ingilizce ile alakalı aktiviteler yapmam.				
	Sınıf dışında ingilizce çalışmam.				
	Sınıf dışında ingilizce kitap okumam.				
Negotiation	Sınıf içi aktiviteleri öğretmen belirlemelidir.				
	Öğrenilecek konuları öğretmen seçmelidir.				
	Dersin akışını öğretmen kontrol etmelidir.				
	Dersin akışında öğretmenle birlikte öğrenciler de söz sahibi olmalıdır.				
	Öğrenilecek konuların seçimini öğretmenle birlikte öğrenciler de yapmalıdır.				
	Sınıfta yapılan aktiviteleri öğretmenle birlikte öğrenciler de belirlemelidir.				
Collaboration	Arkadaşlarımdan fikrini sormam.				
	Arkadaşlarımdan fikrini önemsemem.				
	Grup çalışmalarını sevmem.				
	Arkadaşlarımdan fikirlerinden yardım alırım.				
	Bir problemi arkadaşlarımla beraber çözmeye çalışırım.				
	Grup çalışmalarını severim.				
Socialization	Kendimi sosyal bir insan olarak görüyorum.				
	Arkadaşlık ilişkilerinde başarılıyım.				
	Topluluk önünde konuşurken rahat hissederim.				
	Sunum yaparken heyecanlanırım.				
	Fikirlerimi açıklamaktan çekinirim.				
	Başka insanlarla konuşmaktan çekinirim.				

APPENDIX 3. FINAL GRADES AND OVERAL MEAN SCORES

Group	Student No	Mean Score	Group	Student No	Mean Score
Control Group	Student 1	70	Study Group	Student 1	74
Control Group	Student 2	67	Study Group	Student 2	92
Control Group	Student 3	66	Study Group	Student 3	60
Control Group	Student 4	83	Study Group	Student 4	92
Control Group	Student 5	44	Study Group	Student 5	59
Control Group	Student 6	61	Study Group	Student 6	72
Control Group	Student 7	65	Study Group	Student 7	79
Control Group	Student 8	65	Study Group	Student 8	90
Control Group	Student 9	70	Study Group	Student 9	89
Control Group	Student 10	39	Study Group	Student 10	66
Control Group	Student 11	32	Study Group	Student 11	72
Control Group	Student 12	24	Study Group	Student 12	69
Control Group	Student 13	70	Study Group	Student 13	75
Control Group	Student 14	58	Study Group	Student 14	73
Control Group	Student 15	76	Study Group	Student 15	78
Control Group	Student 16	70	Study Group	Student 16	75
Control Group	Student 17	76	Study Group	Student 17	82
Control Group	Student 18	44	Study Group	Student 18	82
Control Group	Student 19	30	Study Group	Student 19	66
Control Group	Student 20	42	Study Group	Student 20	74
Control Group	Student 21	56	Study Group	Student 21	80
Control Group	Student 22	48	Study Group	Student 22	76
Control Group	Student 23	37	Study Group	Student 23	90
Control Group	Student 24	38	Study Group	Student 24	88
Control Group	Student 25	37	Study Group	Student 25	56
Control Group	Student 26	44	Study Group	Student 26	86
Control Group	Student 27	44	Study Group	Student 27	90
Control Group	Student 28	44	Study Group	Student 28	86
Control Group	Student 29	52	Study Group	Student 29	62
Control Group	Student 30	54	Study Group	Student 30	62
Control Group	Student 31	56	Study Group	Student 31	71
Control Group	Student 32	50	Study Group	Student 32	75
Control Group	Student 33	60	Study Group	Student 33	83
Control Group	Student 34	52	Study Group	Student 34	66
Control Group	Student 35	49	Study Group	Student 35	73
Control Group	Student 36	56	Study Group	Student 36	89
Control Group	Student 37	44	Study Group	Student 37	66
Control Group	Student 38	62	Study Group	Student 38	81
Control Group	Student 39	50	Study Group	Student 39	73
Control Group	Student 40	60	Study Group	Student 40	88
Control Group	Student 41	52	Study Group	Student 41	65
Control Group	Student 42	48	Study Group	Student 42	82
Control Group	Student 43	57	Study Group	Student 43	84
Control Group	Student 44	44	Study Group	Student 44	87
Mean		53.31818182	Mean		76.77272727