

T.C.
DOKUZ EYLÜL ÜNİVERSİTESİ EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ
YABANCI DİLLER EĞİTİMİ ANABİLİM DALI
İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLİĞİ PROGRAMI
YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ

**THE EFFECT OF COOPERATIVE LEARNING
ACTIVITIES ON ANXIETY AND MOTIVATION
IN MULTILEVEL ADULT CLASSES**

Ferdane Denkci

**İzmir
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**Danışman
Yrd. Doç. Dr. Kadim Öztürk**

**İzmir
2008**

To my dear father...

YEMİN METNİ

Yüksek Lisans Tezi olarak sunduğum “The Effect Of Cooperative Learning Activities On Motivation And Anxiety In Multilevel Adult Classes” adlı çalışmamın, tarafımdan bilimsel ahlak ve geleneklere aykırı düşecek bir yardıma başvurulmaksızın yazıldığını ve yararlandığım eserlerin kaynakçada gösterilenlerden oluştuğunu, bunlara atıf yapılarak yararlanılmış olduğunu belirtir ve bunu onurumla doğrularım.

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Eđitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü M¼d¼rl¼đ¼'ne

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Danıřman Adı Soyadı: Yrd. Do. Dr. Kadim Özt¼rk

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ONAY

Yukarıdaki imzaların, adı geen öğretim ¼yelerine ait olduđunu onaylıyorum.

Prof. Dr. Sedef GİDENER

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of present research is to investigate the effect of Cooperative Learning activities on motivation and anxiety in multilevel adult classes.

Pre-test post-test design with control group was used for the research. Cooperative Learning activities were applied in the experimental group including 12 students and the traditional method was carried out in the control group consisting of 12 students. The data were collected with FLCAS (Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale) and FLMQ (Foreign Language Motivation Questionnaire).

SPSS packet programme was utilised in data analysis.

Research results suggest that Cooperative Learning activities do not have a significant effect on motivation and anxiety in multilevel adult classes although some positive tendency has been observed in terms of these two variables.

Keywords: Anxiety, Motivation, Multilevel Adult Classes, Cooperative Learning

ÖZET

Bu çalışmanın amacı İşbirlikli Öğrenme etkinliklerinin çoklu seviyeli yetişkin sınıflarında öğrencilerin güdü ve kaygı düzeyleri üzerinde bir etkisi olup olmadığını araştırmaktır.

Araştırmada kontrol gruplu ön-test son-test deney deseni kullanılmıştır. 12 kişiden oluşan deney grubunda işbirlikli öğrenme ile öğretim yapılırken yine 12 kişiden oluşan kontrol grubunda geleneksel yöntemle ders işlenmiştir. Veriler FLCAS (Yabancı Dil Sınıfı Kaygı Ölçeği) ve FLMQ (Yabancı Dil Güdüsü Anketi) ile toplanmıştır.

Veriler SPSS paket programına aktarılarak analiz edilmiştir.

Araştırma sonuçları her iki değişkenin de olumlu bir eğilim içinde olmasına rağmen İşbirlikli Öğrenme etkinliklerinin çoklu seviyeli yetişkin sınıflarında güdü ve kaygı üzerinde belirgin bir etkisi olmadığını göstermiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Kaygı, Güdü, Çokluseviyeli Yetişkin Sınıfları, İşbirlikli Öğrenme

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This part will discuss the source, purpose and significance of the problem and present the research problem, limitations, assumptions and abbreviations.

1.1 LANGUAGE AND SECOND LANGUAGE

Language is a system, a social phenomenon, or institution, which of itself is purely abstract, in that it has no physical existence, but which is actualised on particular occasions in the language-behaviour of individual members of the language-community (Lyons, 1981: 12).

Fromkin & Rodman (1998) report from Chomsky that when one studies human language, he/she is approaching what some might call the “human essence”, “the distinctive qualities of mind that are, as far as we know, unique to man”.

Aksan (1995) defines language as a multiple and developed system, which enables thoughts, feelings and wishes to be transformed to others by utilising the elements and rules which are common in the society in terms of sounds and meanings.

Language is man’s most valuable possession due to the fact that without language, civilization wouldn’t be possible. Frequent interchanges of information through the use of language are essential in order the community to go on functioning. Moreover, language enables people to learn the preceding knowledge accumulated by the previous generations as well as to add new knowledge to it. But for language, there would be no transfer of ideas. Therefore, language lets civilizations progress and so wherever humans exit, language exists.

Brown (2000) summarizes some significant characteristics of language:

- Language is systematic.
- Language is a set of arbitrary symbols.
- Those symbols are primarily vocal, but may also be visual.
- The symbols have conventionalised meanings to which they refer.
- Language is used for communication.
- Language operates in a speech community or culture.
- Language is essentially human, although possibly not limited to humans.
- Language is acquired by all people in much the same way; language and language learning both have universal characteristics.

Second language is defined by UNESCO as a language acquired by a person in addition to his mother tongue. Nowadays learning a second language in addition to the mother tongue has gained such great importance that it is even an obligation in order to deal with the globalization of the world. Due to the global expansion of English, it has obviously become the language of international communication. According to what Mc Donough and Shaw report from Richards and Rodgers, especially after 1960 people had more opportunities to cooperate professionally and travel for business, study or other reasons particularly in Europe, which resulted in the need of teaching European languages and especially English, to adults (Richards and Rogers, 1986: 65; Mc Donough & Shaw, 2002: 21). Since English has been used as the common language to follow the technological, cultural, scientific, political and economical developments all over the world, it has become the inevitable preference of people as their second language. Therefore, many countries construct their education systems in a way that will enable their people to learn English as a second language and if possible another language as the third one.

Likewise, Turkey has become more and more conscious of both the necessity of learning a second language and the significance of English as a global language. Therefore, in the regulation prepared by the Turkish Education Ministry it is stated that students start studying obligatory second language courses when they start the

fourth grade. The regulation also allows some institutions to arrange a third language learning programme either as an obligatory or as an optional course if necessary. It also requires informal education institutions to arrange second language courses at different levels which will meet the needs of different areas and age groups as well as which will support life-long learning. Turkish Ministry of Education declares the objectives of teaching a second language in the same regulation as this: People learning a second language should be able to gain the skills of reading comprehension, listening comprehension, speaking and writing in addition to communicating in that language. Moreover, they should develop a positive attitude towards second language learning and teaching (Appendix 1).

1.1.1 Issues in Second Language Teaching

Second language teaching is not something haphazard; on the contrary, it should be planned carefully by considering some significant issues. How these issues are dealt with in the planning process is determined by the teaching philosophy of the teacher (Leamson, 1999). These issues are categorised under four titles:

- a) linguistic issues
- b) social issues
- c) cognitive issues
- d) affective issues

1.1.1.1 Linguistic Issues

The issues which are related to language and how learners deal with its systems are categorised under this title.

1.1.1.1.1 Native Language Effect

It is known that native language effects second language learning throughout the process, which can be either interfering or facilitative. Many comparative studies were carried out to find out the similarities and the differences between various

languages in order to guess the potential errors caused by the native language of learners. In other words, it was believed that errors could be avoided before they occurred by contrasting two languages. Although there has been emphasis on this negative effect of native language on second language learning, today it is definitely clear that there is also a facilitating effect. Brown (2000) reports from Ravem (1968), Natalicio and Natalicio (1971), Dulay and Burt (1974), Ervin-Tripp (1974), Milon (1974) and Hansen-Bede (1975) that there are similar strategies and linguistic features for both first and second language learning in children, which proves the positive effect of native language on second language learning. Additionally, this issue is more valid for adult learners since their native language learning is relatively complete and instable. However, their first language can be quite supportive if it is used to bridge gaps in second language (Brown, 2000).

1.1.1.1.2 Intralingual Strategies

There is a systematic process in second language learning just like in first language acquisition. That is, an utterance produced by a second language learner can be incorrect for native speakers; however, there is still a logic constructed by the learner according to the system developed in that process. This system has nothing to do with the first language of the learner. It is completely within the second language since similar errors are performed by its native speakers throughout their acquisition process. Therefore, the source of problems faced by a second language learner is not always interlanguage effect, but it can be intralingual strategies as well. So, it is surely logical to be aware of the existence of these intralingual systems and to develop appropriate strategies for providing learners with the necessary feedback for their errors occurring due to these systems rather than blaming their first language (Brown, 2000).

1.1.1.1.3 Communicative Competence

Oxford (1990) defines communicative competence as the ability to communicate which concerns both spoken or written language and all four language skills. It includes:

- a) organizational competence (grammar and discourse)
- b) pragmatic competence (functional and sociolinguistic)
- c) strategic competence
- d) psychomotor competence (Brown, 2000 and Oxford, 1990).

For language learners to gain the authentic language and to apply the classroom learning to the outside world and in the unrehearsed contexts, all these components of communicative competence should be considered. That is, fluency should not be ignored for the sake of accuracy or vice versa. Moreover, learners should be trained to use strategies and to achieve sociolinguistic functions.

1.1.1.2 Sociocultural Issues

These issues are connected to the environmental language-relevant variables, which include the socio-cultural milieu where language learning takes place.

People in school are believed to belong to a sub-system of a wider social organisation in which many influences are at work on the group's behaviour. These may be academic, political, social, financial or emotional. Failure to understand these processes, it is said, will inhibit the teacher's ability to work effectively in a school, although learning itself is seen as an individual process (Wragg, 1994).

Culture is the context in which people exist and also which determines how they behave in community. Different societies have different cultures, which means that they perceive the reality differently. Language as a part of culture is also affected by culture. Therefore, one learning a second language has to learn about a second culture as well.

1.1.1.2.1 Stereotypes and Generalizations

Stereotypes and generalizations are formed due to the oversimplification or the exaggeration of the differences among cultures. People of the same culture believe that everything in their culture is objectively accurate considering the things in other cultures as wrong or at least strange. They label individuals with these stereotypes

formed in their minds, which is considerably wrong as it may result in prejudice and misjudgement. In a second language learning context, learners should be able to know and understand different world views so that they can have a positive and open-minded approach towards different cultures (Brown, 2000: 178-179).

1.1.1.2.2 Attitudes

Due to the stereotypes or generalizations in their minds, people have either positive or negative attitudes towards the culture or the language they learn. Negative attitudes which hinder learning process negatively are generally gained as a result of insufficient knowledge, wrongly-formed stereotypes or extreme authentic thinking. In a learning context, such negative attitudes should be decreased as much as possible by informing learners about the realities of the target culture (Brown, 2000: 180-181).

1.1.1.2.3 Second Culture Acquisition

Learning a new language means learning a new culture which involves having a second identity. This difference may sometimes cause serious problems for some people when they face the thinking, feeling, acting and communication systems of a different culture. This may lead them to the feelings of frustration, confusion, isolation or alienation. Moreover, people learning a second language within the target culture may suffer from culture shock which can be overcome only in time (Brown, 2000: 182-183).

1.1.1.3 Cognitive Issues

Gardner (1990) defines these issues as the “intellectual and verbal skills that individuals bring with them to the language learning situation that facilitate the acquisition and retention of language material”. These are cognitive issues because they are related to mind, mental and intellectual functions (Parry & Stansfield, 1990).

1.1.1.3.1 Meaningfulness

It has been stated by many psychologists for long that brain responds to new knowledge differently if it is meaningful for the learner. That is, it is vitally important for a learner to know the aim of his/her learning rather than what he/she learns. When the learner is aware of the aim of his/her learning as well as the content, he/she will inevitably feel a natural need and desire to learn it, which is one of the basic and innate functions of our brain (Gülten, 2002). De Cecco and Crawford (1974) emphasises the importance of telling students what they are expected to learn and the significance of explaining the meaning of their learning in the classroom.

1.1.1.3.2 Automaticity

Mc Laughlin (1994) suggests that every new skill is learnt with focal attention which means focusing on new actions and using the control mechanism while practising something new. As learning takes place, this control mechanism decreases, focal attention disappears and automaticity is gained. In other words, focal attention is replaced by peripheral attention. The aim of teaching is to enable learners to carry out the new skill through this automatic processing. In second language learning automaticity is gained more easily if the new language is given in a context; that is, in a meaningful way. Moreover, emphasizing the use of language as well as the usage is also important since focusing on forms and structures raises the control mechanism and hinders automaticity. However, this does not mean that the usage of language should be completely ignored as learners, especially adults, can benefit from it to some extent (Brown, 2000).

1.1.1.3.3 Meaningful Learning

Meaningful learning which is crucial in providing automaticity is just the opposite of rote learning. According to what Royer & Royer report from Novak (1998) about Ausubel's Meaningful Learning Theory, when a new material is related to a relevant established material in the cognitive structure, an association is formed and

meaningful learning is performed. Retention of the new material is managed via these associations. Contrary to meaningful learning, rote learning is a kind of mental storage which involves almost no associations with the existing cognitive structures, which results in a short-term retention. Unless the new information is related to the already existing one, it can not be retained in the long-term memory. Therefore, the new knowledge should not be presented as an isolated or discrete item, which will result in short-term retention of the new knowledge (Royer & Royer, 2004).

1.1.1.4 Affective Issues

Among all these issues affective variables which refer to the “emotional or predispositional characteristics of individuals that influence their perceptions and impressions of the language learning context and thus their reactions to it, and their views of language itself” are considered as one of the significant predictors of success in second language learning (Gardner, 1990). They are connected to feelings, relationships of learners and the emotional ties between language and culture. Additionally, Krashen emphasizes the significance of motivation, anxiety and self-esteem in his Affective Filter Hypothesis by claiming that increase in negative emotions and lack of positive ones may build a filter which inhibits learning. Shannon reports from Lightbown and Spada (1993: 28) that:

A learner who is tense, angry, anxious, or bored will screen out input, making it unavailable for acquisition. Thus, depending on the learner’s state of mind or disposition, the filter limits what is noticed and what is acquired. The filter will be up or operating when the learner is stressed, self-conscious or unmotivated. It will be down when the learner is relaxed or motivated (Shannon, 2005).

1.1.1.4.1 Language Ego

Learning a second language means developing a new way of thinking, feeling and acting; that is, creating a second identity in addition to the first language ego. Learners with very strong language egos become defensive against the new language which inhibits their learning as they are afraid of making mistakes and they do not make any attempts to use the language due to this fear. Second language learners

should be informed about the confusion of developing a second identity since their language ego becomes fragile when they start to learn a new language.

1.1.1.4.2 Self-Confidence

Self-confidence describes people's belief in themselves and their success. People with self-confidence are sure that they can deal with a task successfully and this helps them to achieve it. Seeing that others also believe in them will strengthen learners' self-confidence and support their learning. Therefore, self-confidence should be protected for learners who have it and should be provided for the ones who do not have.

1.1.1.4.3 Risk Taking

This issue is closely related to language ego and self-confidence. Learners who have overcome their language ego fragility and gained self-confidence start taking risks. They attempt to use language although there is a risk of making mistakes. This encourages learners to use language meaningfully for communicative purposes.

1.1.1.4.4 Anxiety

Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope define anxiety as "the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system" (Horwitz & Young, 1991: 27). Moreover, Brown (2000) adds that "uneasiness, frustration and self-doubt" are also related to being anxious (Brown, 2000: 151). Elkhafaifi (2005) argues that such negative feelings occur due to the fear of failure and he explains that anxiety may lead to lower test scores or grades and in the end may cause a learner to fail. He even claims that the severe anxiety of a learner may result in a change in academic or career plans (Elkhafaifi, 2005: 207). Anxious learners of foreign languages can not perform successfully in classroom situations because they prefer to avoid difficult or complex tasks in order not to get embarrassed in front of the class. They find it particularly stressful to learn a foreign language (Horwitz & Young, 1991: 27-28). This is because they feel insecure and

helpless as a result of which some psychological barriers to communication are built. Consequently, they are likely to be reluctant to participate in classroom activities (Littlewood, 1984: 58). Furthermore, Elkhafaifi (2005) expresses that lower classroom performance occurs because of anxious learners' underestimation of their own ability (Elkhafaifi, 2005: 208). Consequently, anxiety is a crucial affective factor which deserves to be focused on.

1.1.1.4.4.1 Types of Anxiety

1.1.1.4.4.1.1 Facilitative Anxiety

Facilitative anxiety is helpful for learning since it leads to improvement in performance. When there is no anxiety, it may prevent learning. So, learners need to be anxious to some extent in order to get encouraged to study and learn. Otherwise, learners may get too relaxed to try to learn anything (Horwitz & Young, 1991).

1.1.1.4.4.1.2 Debilitative Anxiety

Unlike facilitative one, debilitative anxiety hinders learning since it leads to impaired performance. Therefore, neither too much nor too little anxiety is an advantage for learning due to the fact that it has considerable effect on cognitive, effective and behavioural functioning (Von Worde, 1998).

1.1.1.4.4.1.3 Trait Anxiety

Trait anxiety is the more global type, which means that it indicates how anxious a person is in general. It is more general, stable and permanent as it is accepted as a part of one's personality. As a result of this, people with high trait anxiety tend to get anxious in any situation. They generalize their anxiety, so they apply it to different situations which results in a tendency (Von Worde, 1998; Tudor, 1996).

1.1.1.4.4.1.4 State Anxiety

Compared to trait anxiety, state anxiety is situational since it refers to “an unpleasant temporary emotional state or condition, activated by the individual’s nervous system” (Von Worde, 1998: 19). Von Worde (1998) reports from Young (1990) that people suffer from state anxiety much more than the other types due to its negative effects.

1.1.1.4.4.2 Language and Foreign Language Anxiety

Von Worde (1998) relates language anxiety with other types of anxiety such as communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation and test anxiety. He adds that the most significant area of language anxiety is observed in speaking. He emphasizes the anxiety caused by speaking and mentions Daly’s (1991) claim that people have a fear of speaking in public almost as much as a fear of snakes, elevators and heights. When people face it in a second language, things get a lot more difficult for them because they feel the pressure to perform well in a new language they are supposed to learn. Moreover, language anxiety is also argued to be particular since it is believed to be inherent in language learning process resulting in nervousness for some people. Learners of a foreign language become frustrated because they feel unable to express the meaning and the affect they wish with their limited language knowledge, which is seen as a threat for their self-esteem especially by adult learners (Von Worde, 1998).

1.1.1.4.4.3 Effects of Anxiety on Language Learning

Language learning anxiety is a serious barrier for learners in various ways. Von Worde (1998) reports from Krashen (1982) that learners can not process language input appropriately because of their anxiety. In other words, it inhibits their input, processing and output. Therefore, learners register insufficient information. Moreover, when learners become aware of the fact that they can not prevent making mistakes especially in tests, they increase their anxiety which results in more mistakes. This leads to a decrease in their self-esteem and self-confidence. Therefore,

they become unwilling to take risks in order to avoid mistakes. Consequently, this causes their language proficiency to deteriorate. With limited language proficiency, people can not express themselves especially in the target community which makes them feel withdrawn and alienated (Von Worde, 1998).

1.1.1.4.4 Possible Sources of Anxiety

Von Worde (1998) summarizes some possible sources of anxiety:

- a) It can be caused by the factors related to learners such as their low level of self-esteem or their prejudice concerning language learning process.
- b) It can also be related with teachers especially if they do not prefer having friendly relationships with their learners or if they favour correcting mistakes all the time.
- c) Learners may be anxious because of their poor preparation for their task or their deficit in studying and test taking skills.
- d) Teachers who are themselves anxious may reflect it to their learners causing them to feel under pressure as well.
- e) Speaking activities are the greatest source of anxiety for learners.
- f) Negative experience resulted from inappropriate instruction can also lead learners to be anxious.
- g) Too frequent testing is seen as a cause of worry and anxiety in language learning. Considered as test anxiety, it is believed to be much more severe if the test is given orally as it leads to communication apprehension as well.
- h) It is also argued that testing learners on discrete grammar items is also the source of frustration and annoyance for learners.

1.1.1.4.5 Ways Thought To Reduce Anxiety

Approaches and methods such as Grammar-Translation or Audio-Lingual Method were believed to provoke anxiety seriously due to their focus on accuracy. So, some

other methods like the Natural Approach and Community Language Learning hoped to create a learning atmosphere with low level stress and to promote communicative competence by dealing with daily activities. However, their focus on oral activities became the source of anxiety they wished to decrease. Working with dialogues and listening passages became quite stressful for learners. Moreover, having none of their errors corrected makes learners anxious as much as receiving a correction for each of their mistakes. Therefore, avoiding correction in speech proposed by the Natural Approach is not a solution, either. Nevertheless, some techniques used by Suggestopedia and the Natural Approach may help some learners to overcome their anxiety. For instance, providing learners with a foreign language name and identity is a kind of a mask for learners which hides them and which lets them make mistakes without the fear of embarrassment. Likewise, learners can facilitate their anxiety better with a humanistic and learner-centred approach as well due to their enjoyment of the learning process. Von Worde (1998) suggests that if learners are allowed to practise in small groups before they speak in public they may feel less anxious. Writing, talking about their anxiety may let learners share their fear with other learners and knowing that there are people having a similar problem may reduce their anxiety (Von Worde, 1998).

To sum up, it is undoubtedly clear that anxiety has a really crucial effect on language learning performance.

1.1.1.4.5 Motivation

Motivation is ‘an internal state that arouses, directs, and maintains behaviour’ (Sternberg & Williams, 2002: 345). It is a concept, which has been defined with different perspectives by different psychological approaches. For instance, motivation is “the anticipation of reward” in Behaviourism. However, in Cognitive Approach it is “the choices people make” while it is a term that “must be interpreted in a social context” according to Constructivism (Brown, 2000: 160-161).

1.1.1.4.5.1 Definitions of Motivation

1.1.1.4.5.1.1 Motivation in Behavioral Theories

Motivation is considered in terms of rewards and punishments by Behaviourists. According to them, people either look for some kind of reward or escape from punishment which results in the reinforcement of the behaviour. Learners are rewarded in two ways by providing them with something positive such as a teacher's approval or by removing something unpleasant like leaving an uncomfortable room. In this way, learners are supposed to increase the intended behaviour. However, in punishment learners receive something negative such as not doing what they want. So, they are expected to decrease the probability of the unwanted behaviour. Moreover, motivation is an external concept in Behaviourism due to the fact that it highly relies on rewards and punishment from the external world. This may also result in some serious drawbacks. First, dependence on external rewards and punishment may prevent the development of intrinsic motivation. Furthermore, this may lead learners to focus on the reward or punishment rather than on their learning. Finally, it may be less effective with adult learners since they may consider such rewards as attempts to bribe them (Sternberg & Williams, 2002: 353-354).

1.1.1.4.5.1.2 Motivation in Cognitive Theories

Cognitive theories, which are interested in what is going on within the brain, relate the concept of motivation with how students think claiming that their thoughts create or reduce motivation. In other words, motivation is considered as an intrinsic need to understand, strive, excel, succeed, advance and challenge themselves (Sternberg & Williams, 2002: 354-355).

1.1.1.4.5.1.3 Motivation in Social Learning Theories

Social learning theories view motivation both intrinsically and extrinsically relying on the idea that people are motivated when they believe that they have a personally

meaningful goal to reach and a reasonable chance to achieve it (Sternberg & Williams, 2002: 355).

1.1.1.4.5.1.4 Motivation in Humanistic Theories

Humanistic theories, on the other hand, focus on a higher order incentive coming from within the person. According to them, not only rewarding and punishment or thoughts but also everything affecting them, such as their feelings or environment, can be a source of motivation. People are naturally motivated to learn due to the inborn need for self-actualization. Therefore, learners are to be considered as a whole within the classroom with all their cognitive, emotional and social characteristics. Additionally, it requires the learning experience to be meaningful. Moreover, these theories ask teachers to have a supportive and caring role in order to develop the self-esteem so that learners can believe in their capability (Sternberg & Williams, 2002: 355-356).

1.1.1.4.6 Types of Distinctions in Second Language Learning Motivation

Motivation is not only defined in terms of different approaches but also analysed in terms of different types.

1.1.1.4.6.1 First Distinction

The first distinction is done according to the source of motivation, and Brown (2000) mentions intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of learners:

Those who learn for their own self-perceived needs and goals are intrinsically motivated, and those who pursue a goal only to receive an external reward from someone else are extrinsically motivated.

Dörnyei (2001) associates intrinsic motivation with the interest in and enjoyment of the learning activity and adds that it can be achieved by arousing learners' curiosity. In other words, the pleasure one gets from the task itself or from the sense of satisfaction in completing or even working on a task motivates the

learner. Intrinsically motivated learners study a second language because it is enjoyable or the challenge of learning it provides a sense of pleasure. The reason for their effort is never that there is some reward involved, such as a prize, a payment, or in the case of students, a grade. However, it does not mean that learners need no rewards. What is meant here is that it is not enough to provide such external rewards in order to keep learners motivated. An intrinsically motivated student may want to get a good grade from a test, but the possibility of a good grade is not enough to maintain that student's motivation to put any effort into the preparation for the test (Semmar, 2006).

Extrinsic motivation, on the other hand, refers to motivation that comes from outside learners. What motivates them is external rewards such as money or grades. The task itself may not provide the satisfaction or pleasure which these rewards provide. On the contrary, they may have little interest in the task they work on, but they are still motivated to deal with it because of the anticipated satisfaction they will get from some reward. In the case of students, the reward would be a good grade on an assignment or in the class. As it is in intrinsic motivation, this does not mean that extrinsically motivated learners will not get any pleasure from working on or completing a task. For instance, an extrinsically motivated student may be bored with learning a second language and may have no interest in it. Still, the possibility of a good grade may motivate him/her enough to study hard to do well in the test (Semmar, 2006).

1.1.1.4.6.2 Second Distinction

Likewise, Littlewood (1984) distinguishes integrative and instrumental motivation in terms of the purpose of language learning. He argues that a learner with integrative motivation learns a particular language in order to communicate with the community of it more satisfactorily and to get more familiar with their culture whereas a learner with instrumental motivation uses the language as an instrument to reach other goals such as getting a job (Littlewood, 1984: 57). It is argued that intrinsic motivation enhances success in language learning more than extrinsic motivation. Brown (2000) mentions an investigation made by Ramage in 1990 and explains that successful high

school students participated in the investigation were intrinsically motivated whereas the ones who exhibited lower performance were extrinsically motivated. Additionally, Brown (2000) supports the claim that integrativeness is an important requirement for successful language learning by reflecting on the studies made by Gardner and Lambert (1972) and Spolsky (1969) (Brown, 2000: 163-165). However, Littlewood (1984) argues that instrumental motivation is as important as the integrative one due to the research studies carried out by Gardner and Lambert in the Philippines and by Lukmani in India in 1972, who found a strong correlation between instrumental motivation and success in second language learning (Littlewood, 1984: 57). In short, in addition to anxiety, motivation is an affective factor, which determines success of second language learners.

1.1.1.4.7 A Motivating Classroom

Littlewood (1984) explains the significance of motivation in learning contexts:

In second language learning, as in every other field of human learning, motivation is the crucial force which determines whether a learner embarks on a task at all, how much energy he devotes to it, and includes many components: the individual's drive, need for achievement and success, curiosity, desire for stimulation and new experience, and so on.

Therefore, it can be claimed that motivation; likewise anxiety, plays an important role on second language learning performance. Gardner finds it quite reasonable to argue that motivation is responsible for achievement. This is because "highly motivated individuals may try harder, work longer hours, process material more efficiently, and find the acquisition of the material more reinforcing than those who are less motivated"(Parry & Stanfield, 1990: 183; Sternberg & Williams, 2002: 345). This situation can be explained with some aspects of motivation such as enjoyment and interest (Littlewood, 1984: 56). In other words, learners who are motivated become interested in the task they are supposed to learn and enjoy doing so, which consequently enhances their success (Selçuk, 2000: 212). Moreover, this also means that learners who are not motivated enough for the task they are required to learn lose their interest and start to get bored with it. Therefore, their performance is influenced negatively by their low level of motivation. Shortly, how successful a

learner will become in a learning task is related to how much he or she is motivated for it as well.

Lumsden (1999) identifies the characteristics of a motivating classroom as following:

- 1) A supportive, respectful climate: It is stated that students should be appreciated with everything they have or do such as their effort, interest, reasoning skills, problem solving strategies and character in order to support the motivating climate in the classroom. That is, learners can take the risk of producing a wrong answer being confident about the support and useful feedback which never means avoiding challenge or criticism.
- 2) Deemphasizing competition: Based on the various research results, it is more motivating to cooperate rather than to compete in a classroom.
- 3) Meaning and relevance: Learners get more motivated when they believe that what they are going to learn is something useful or beneficial; that is, meaningful for them. Stipek (1998) also states that learners' belief in the significance of the task they are supposed to learn has been proved to be more motivating by various researches.
- 4) Task difficulty: It is a well-known fact that tasks learners deal with should be neither too difficult nor too easy, but challenging enough to manage so that learners can sustain their motivation to work on these. Moreover, Stipek (1998) reports that tasks which can be completed with too little or too much effort will most probably decrease their engagement with the task.
- 5) Variety: Learners always need some variety in the class; otherwise, they may lose their motivation due to the repetitiveness of the activities. That is, when tasks become predictable they cause boredom (Stipek, 1998).
- 6) Instructive feedback: It is also motivating to talk to learners about their learning process by providing them with descriptive feedback. In other words, they need to receive substantive and informative feedback (Stipek, 1998).

- 7) Student self-evaluation: As students are supposed to take the responsibility of their own learning, they are also given the opportunity of reflecting on their own process or product which encourages, motivates and helps them to develop themselves. Additionally, Stipek (1998) argues that evaluating learners in terms of their own learning process and improvement is much more motivating than comparing their grades.
- 8) Positive peer relations: Due to the strong relation between social skills and academic success, positive relations among learners should be encouraged in order to maintain the motivation to learn.
- 9) Look to students for input: It is absolutely beneficial to ask learners for the sources of motivation.

1.1.2 Multilevel Adult Classes

What Ur (1996) names as heterogeneous classes and what Brown (2001) discusses as multiple classes are also the same concepts with multilevel classes. This term is used “to identify any group of learners who differ from one another in one or more significant ways “such as learner expectations, learning style preference, culture, religion, etc” (Shank & Terril, 1995: 1). Ur (1996) mentions nineteen types of differences that can be observed in a second language classroom (Table 1). Understanding of these varieties is crucial as how they are appreciated also affects how students learn. Moreover, it is obviously necessary to reach each member in the class who has different values, beliefs, cultural norms, expectations and behaviours from the others (Sternbeg, 2002: 192-193). Balliro (1997) states that some teachers having such kind of a complex composition in their classes consider it as a strength since they believe that the variety enriches their teaching whereas some others see it as a deficit blaming it for being the source of many problems and arguing that it is absolutely difficult to engage learners in such classes. Ainslie (1994) specifically reminds that what is meant with multiplicity does not refer to the capacity to learn between learners adding that the most challenging variation is observed in adult classes. McShane (2005) states that adult learners generally have to work hard to support themselves and their families adding that adults have developed

interpersonal skills which let them function as component and contributing members in the society. They attempt to join in education since they believe it will provide them with opportunities of improving their lives. Likewise, Florez & Burt (2001) reports some characteristics of adult learners from Malcolm Knowles (1973):

- Adults are self-directed in their learning.
- Adults have reservoirs of experience that serve as resources as they learn.
- Adults are practical, problem-solving-oriented learners.
- Adults want their learning to be applicable to their lives.
- Adults want to know why something needs to be learned (Florez & Burt, 2001: 3).

Multiplicity is most commonly observed in adult classes due to the fact that adults come from diverse backgrounds with various life experiences (Burt & Peyton, 2003; Huang, 2005; Van Duzer & Florez, 2003 and Clardy, 2005).

1.1.2.1 Learner Differences in Multilevel Adult Classes

Some of these significant differences are explained below.

1.1.2.1.1 Learning Styles

What is meant by learning styles or cognitive styles is all about how learners process information and solve problems (Brophy, 1998: 225). It is a well-known fact that people learn in different ways. Ainslie (1994) exemplifies this issue for a language class by saying that some learners would like to receive an explanation for every word they meet while some others let themselves be in the flow of the learning process without trying to explain everything. Although they can not be claimed to be completely unchanging, they become more stable as people get older. So, adults are less likely to change their styles than young learners. Brown (2000) identifies the characteristics of four types of learning styles.

1.1.2.1.1.1 Field Independence Versus Field Dependence

Field independent people are able to perceive a particular item in a field of distracting items. In other words, they have the ability to detect details from the whole. Therefore, they have an analytic approach in their learning process and deal with differences easily. Field independent people tend to be competitive and self-confident and so they are generally the members of industrialised, developed, democratic and capitalist cultures or societies. On the contrary, field dependent people are not very likely to see the details in the whole as they are dependent on the total field. That is, they are better with the whole than with the pieces. Hence, they tend to be more socialised and emphatic and they derive their personality from the people around them. Furthermore, there are more field dependent people in underdeveloped or developing, authoritarian, socialised and less democratic societies. It is also argued that field independent people are better language learners in classroom settings due to their analytic reasoning whereas field dependent people become more successful outside the classroom as they can deal with the language as a whole in a natural environment without focusing on any details (Brown, 2000: 114-118).

1.1.2.1.1.2 Left Brain Functioning Versus Right Brain Functioning

Although the two parts of the brain cooperate, either the left or the right side becomes lateralised as people grow up which means that people become either right brain or left brain dominant. The differences between these two types of people occur owing to the different functions practised by each hemisphere. Left brain dominant people tend to be more logical, systematic, controlled, objective, planned, structured and analytic relying on verbal language in thinking and communicating. They are not likely to interpret body language properly. Moreover, they prefer controlling their feelings. Nevertheless, right brain dominant people are rather intuitive, visual, subjective, fluid, spontaneous, synthesising and manipulative responding to demonstrated and symbolic instructions and images in thinking and remembering. They are free with their feelings and they can interpret body language better. Considering their characteristics, it can be concluded that left brain dominant

people are likely to be field independent as they are happier with details while right brain dominant people tend to be field dependent because they are generally more successful in inductive teaching despite the fact that there is no certain research proving it (Brown, 2000: 118-119).

1.1.2.1.1.3 Ambiguity Tolerance Versus Intolerance

Ambiguity means uncertainty and refers to unclear ideas or things. In a language learning process, learners face various ambiguities such as pronunciation. Ambiguity tolerant people are likely to be open-minded accepting ideas or things which contradict with their own. In other words, they do not get disturbed by uncertainties and they can tolerate making mistakes which enables them to use language freely and to become creative. However, ambiguity intolerant people are less open-minded as they tend to reject the ideas or things which do not fit in to their own cognitive styles. Their intolerance helps them deal with the reality of the system. Since they do not tolerate any mistakes or uncertainties, they try hard to use and speak language more accurately (Brown, 2000: 119-120).

1.1.2.1.1.4 Reflectivity Versus Impulsivity

Reflective people consider everything in a problem before they come out a solution. They want to weigh, evaluate and think over every detail systematically in order to reach the whole. This reflection process makes them slower, but more accurate at the same time. However, impulsive people prefer to make a quick and gambling guess to solve a problem. They do not spend much time thinking of it, rather they depend on their intuition. Consequently, they are faster, but less accurate (Brown, 2000: 121).

1.1.2.1.2 Age

Although that young learners are better language learners than adults has been proved to be a myth, there are significant differences between learners of different ages. First of all, adults have an established intellectual capacity and developed strategies which help them learn and remember complex issues more easily.

Moreover, they already know about some concepts related to language, which they do not need to relearn. However, their short term memory needs more time to process the new items to the long term memory because of the years of overloading. That is, adults need more time to move on with a new item before they internalise the previous one. Unlike them, younger learners wish to go on with new things as they can transfer new knowledge to their long term memory in a shorter time thanks to their fresh short term memory. They get bored if they are to wait for others (Ainslie, 1994: 13). Moreover, Brophy (1998) states that interests become different with age and adds that the younger learners are the more common their interests are. That is, as learners get older, their interests are differentiated.

1.1.2.1.3 Gender

Rosenberg (1989) argues that schools and classrooms reflect what the society has; therefore, students come to the classroom with gender stereotyped behaviour or attitudes shaped by the society they live in. He also adds that there are significant behavioural differences between two genders. In traditional societies, girls are educated to be wives or mothers whereas boys are supposed to be breadwinners. However, these differences have been claimed to be decreasing in the modern world. Learners build different structures of interaction with each other as well as with their teacher due to gender differences, which obviously influences their preferences of activities in their classrooms. That is, different genders have different attitudes towards learning activities (Brophy, 1998).

1.1.2.1.4 Educational Background

Significant differences in terms of educational background can mostly be observed in a class of adult learners. From the primary school to the high school level, learners receive an official and common education programme. Due to being educated within the same national programme, they can be said to share a similar educational background. However, there are still differences among them owing to the context they participate in education. Hence, it is quite predictable that in a class of adult learners this variety will be much more considerable. That is, in such a class there

may be learners who left formal education at different ages. For instance, it may be possible to see a learner who has just graduated from university and another one who left primary school fifteen years ago in the same class trying to learn English. That means learners with developed effective study skills may have to share the same learning context with some others who definitely need strategy training for the necessary skills. This situation also creates remarkable diversity in their learning pace. Moreover, whether learners have a positive experience with success or a negative one due to any failure is another variety in terms of educational background. Ainslie (1994) claims that such differences may result in different expectations about the type of education learners should receive. In other words, some will expect a teacher-centred approach avoiding communicative activities whereas others prefer games. Teaching such learners in the same class is a great challenge for language teachers.

1.1.2.1.5 Family and Cultural Background

Brophy (1998) argues that learners from different social class backgrounds have different values and expectations especially in terms of motivation claiming that students of lower social classes prefer material rewards while middle-class learners expect intrinsic rewards. It is also emphasised that in addition to the social class, the family life they experience and the culture they belong to also effect how learners deal with the challenges at school as well as their self-confidence. Moreover, how their families value education or second language learning has an influence on learners' performance. Learners with educated parents who encourage their children to learn another language and who are really interested in them create a difference from the ones who are not aware of the importance of education or learning. Additionally, Brod (1999) exemplifies the effect of culture and family on learners in terms of gender-related issues:

A Moslem tells us his wife cannot study in the same classroom with male students. An Asian wife, who is learning quickly, decides to drop out because women in her country of origin are not expected to learn to read and this is causing conflict at home. Dominant males may not allow their wives or female children to volunteer in class. These are just a few of the gender issues that may be bound to a learner's culture. Awareness of all these issues

can help us to structure our classes in a way which will best respond to the needs and expectations of the learners.

Moreover, it is known that especially adult learners have different roles and so responsibilities in the family and society which may sometimes limit their time and attention to study for the language they hope to learn. This means a learner married with four children and working in a full-time job can not have the same amount of time to focus on his or her language learning process with another learner whose only responsibility is to do a degree at a university. The first learner needs to find somewhere in his or her mind for the new language among the problems at work and the responsibilities at home. Lastly, financial issues in addition to all these factors have a significant effect on learners' priorities (Ainslie, 1994: 14).

1.1.2.1.6 Language Knowledge

It is a utopia to suppose that a class of learners have the same linguistic background with no difference at all. There are definitely some diversities even in a class who have been taught together for years. Therefore, such varieties become much more obvious in an adult education class. There may be learners who have somehow exposed to the target language to some extent before as well as the ones who have never heard about it up to then. Likewise, some may be good at speaking skills with little accuracy while some others are successful grammarians. Moreover, there may be learners who are at ease with vocabulary but who can not build accurate sentences from the words they know. What is more, a class may consist learners with different foreign language background such as French or German speakers in an English class. Their language knowledge may both facilitate and hinder their third language learning which creates a difference from the other learners in their class (Ainslie, 1994: 11).

Table 1: Some Differences Between Learners in Heterogeneous Classes

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ language-learning ability ▪ age or maturity ▪ language knowledge ▪ gender ▪ cultural background ▪ personality ▪ learning style ▪ confidence ▪ attitude to the language ▪ motivation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ mother tongue ▪ interest ▪ intelligence ▪ independence ▪ world knowledge ▪ self-discipline ▪ learning experience ▪ educational level ▪ knowledge of other languages
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(Ur, 1996: 304)

Ur (1996) argues that the most significant diversity in a language classroom is proficiency levels. Therefore, when a multilevel class is discussed in terms of second language learning what is generally understood is a multiple proficiency class that includes a wide range of proficiency levels among students. Brown (2001) emphasizes a crucial fact that teachers of such classes are “faced with the problem of challenging the higher-level students and not overwhelming the lower-level students, and at the same time keeping the middle group well paced toward their goals” (Brown, 2001: 197).

Additionally, it is a well-known fact that it is generally adults who make up a language classroom with a diversity of proficiency. This is because generally the programmes designed for adults who have completed their official education have to place learners of all levels, from beginning to advanced, in a single class due to funding constraints, learner scheduling difficulties, number of learners and program logistics (Shank & Terril, 1995: 1).

1.1.2.2 Teaching Problems in Multilevel Adult Classes

Ur (1996) identifies some teaching problems in multilevel classes:

- 1) Interest: It is difficult to find tasks that are interesting for all students in the class. It is because their interests vary according to their age, gender, personality and social class.
- 2) Effective learning for all: It is difficult to be sure that all students are learning effectively. The tasks they are dealing with may be either too difficult for low-level students or too easy for high-level students. Likewise, it is rather challenging to find appropriate teaching strategies and activities for all learners when their learning styles vary too much.
- 3) Materials: Again it is difficult to provide materials that are suitable in terms of both level and interest for all learners in the class.
- 4) Participation: It is difficult to encourage all students to participate in the lesson since low-level students generally feel anxious and exhibits the avoidance behaviour. Similarly, high level learners tend to dominate them. (Ur, 1996: 303).
- 5) Motivation and Anxiety: These are serious problems in a language classroom that hinder learning process and they clearly show the significance of anxiety and motivation in such classes. On one hand, in a class with a variety of proficiency levels, less proficient learners are generally dominated by the proficient ones, which results in their feeling anxious within the classroom. So, their anxiety inhibits their learning leading them to failure due to their avoidance behaviour. On the other hand, the high-level learners get bored when the lesson is designed by considering the low-level ones. Consequently, they lose their interest and their motivation decreases, which is again a situation that hinders their learning (Shank & Terril, 1995: 2). So, although these two factors are crucial in all kind of human learning, it is obvious that anxiety and motivation require a special interest in multilevel classes since it

is very difficult to control them sufficiently with learners of different levels in the same class.

Moreover, these affective factors also have significance for adult learners. In terms of anxiety, Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope argue:

Adults typically perceive themselves as reasonably intelligent, socially adept individuals, sensitive to different sociocultural mores. These assumptions are rarely challenged when communicating in a native language as it is usually not difficult to understand others or to make oneself understood. However, the situation when learning a foreign language stands in marked contrast. Because individual communication attempts will be evaluated according to uncertain or even unknown linguistic and sociocultural standards, second language communication entails risk taking and is necessarily problematic. Because complex and nonspontaneous mental operations are required in order to communicate at all, any performance in the L2 is likely to challenge an individual's self-concept as a competent communicator and lead to reticence, self-consciousness, fear, or even panic (Horwitz & Young, 1996: 31).

Likewise, Scovel explains that language anxiety is more directly observed in formal learning circumstances that are particular to adult learners rather than children who generally acquire a language. He exemplifies this situation with Krashen's Monitor Model:

Be that as it may, the monitor theory should be incorporated into any model concerning the effect of affect on foreign language learning, for it deals with the intrinsic learner variables that are part and parcel of the learner's personality, and, as such, have a bearing on the individual's affective motivation (Horwitz & Young, 1996: 32).

1.1.3 Cooperative Learning

In addition to identifying these problems, this study also suggests a solution to them. First of all "students learn better in a supportive, non-threatening environment" since this lets their anxiety decrease (Horwitz & Young 1996: 23). Littlewood (1984) suggest that a sympathetic teacher and a cooperative atmosphere in the classroom will provide a supportive effect that will prevent learners from getting overanxious (Littlewood, 1984: 59). Furthermore, Ur (1996) argues that when teachers of multilevel classes make use of cooperative work and peer-teach, they can achieve engagement with the learning task in the required task. Likewise, Willis (2007) pays

attention to the effectiveness of cooperative learning in responding the diversity of multilevel classes. Consequently, what this study offers as a solution to the multilevel problem is cooperation and collaboration in the classroom.

Açıkgöz (2003) defines cooperative learning as students working in small groups by helping each other in order to reach a common goal. The key point in cooperative learning is that each member of the group is responsible for the learning of other members (Altınok, 2004: 486; Ünsal & Moğol, 2004: 621). Nowicki & Meehan (1996) describes the cooperative classroom:

The cooperative classroom is one in which people work with instead of against one another. It reflects the world outside of school, where often problems are solved through community efforts. Also it is a place in which students are responsible for and accountable to themselves and to peers (Nowicki & Meehan, 1996: 7).

Likewise, Nowicki & Meehan reports from Slavin the characteristics of a cooperative classroom:

Heterogeneous grouping, including special education students, is the norm. Teachers and students share leadership appropriately. Activities emphasize task accomplishment and maintenance of skills. Students share responsibility for one another's learning, with the most effective learning evolving from positive interdependence among students. Teachers observe and intervene, teaching social skills directly. Students are held individually accountable for performance. Groups reflect on their effectiveness (Nowicki & Meehan, 1996: 8).

Cooperative Learning offers ways to organise group work to enhance learning and increase academic achievement. However, it is not general, free discussion and all types of group work are not necessarily cooperative. Kessler (1992) reports Olsen and Kagan's (1992) definition for Cooperative Learning as follows:

Cooperative Learning is group learning activity organised so that learning is dependent on the socially structured exchange of information between learners in groups and in which each learner is held accountable for his or her own learning and is motivated to increase the learning of others.

1.1.3.1 History of Cooperative Learning

Cooperative Learning has antecedents in proposals for peer-tutoring and peer-monitoring that go back hundreds of years and longer. The Talmud clearly states that in order to learn you must have a learning partner. In the first century, Quintillian argued that students could benefit from teaching one another. The Roman philosopher, Seneca advocated cooperative learning through such statements as, "Qui Docet Discet" (when you teach, you learn twice). Johann Amos Comenius (1592-1679) believed that students would benefit both by teaching and being taught by other students. In the late 1700s, Joseph Lancaster and Andrew Bell made extensive use of cooperative learning groups in England, and the idea was brought to America when a Lancastrian school was opened in New York City in 1806. Within the Common School Movement in the United States in the early 1800s there was a strong emphasis on cooperative learning. In the last three decades of the 19th Century, Colonel Francis Parker brought to his advocacy of cooperative learning enthusiasm, idealism, practicality, and an intense devotion to freedom, democracy, and individuality in the public schools. Parker's advocacy of cooperation among students dominated American education through the turn of the century (Johnson & Johnson & Holubec, 1994).

The early 20th century US educator John Dewey is usually credited with promoting the idea of building cooperation in learning into regular classrooms on a regular and systematic basis. It was more generally promoted and developed in the USA in the 1960s and 1970s as a response to the forced integration of public schools and has been substantially refined and developed since then. Due to this integration, teachers had to face the problem that minority students would fall rather behind when placed in schools with higher-achieving majority students. Looking for ways to structure social integration in the classroom and academic achievement for minorities, researchers observed factors associated with improved academic achievement and prosocial behaviour such as collaboration and interdependence. Language teachers, who have long recognised the value of group work for language learning, have recently examined and adopted Cooperative Learning procedures to aid in the instruction and management of group activities (Johnson & Johnson & Holubec, 1994).

1.1.3.2 Theoretical Background of Cooperative Learning

CL is said to be based on three general theoretical perspectives: social interdependence theory, cognitive development theory and behavioural learning theory.

The most influential one of these three perspectives is social interdependence. It was first proposed by Kafka and then reconsidered by Lewin as the key of turning any group into a dynamic whole. One of Lewin's students formulated these ideas as a theory in 1940s. There are two types of interdependence which are quite significant in terms of the interaction patterns within the group. If the group has positive interdependence which means cooperation, members of the group interact to encourage and help each other to achieve a shared goal. Nevertheless, if it is a negative one which means competition, interaction functions as a discouraging and hindering factor among the members. There is one more possibility which is the lack of interdependence and which means that there is no interaction among people as they work individually (Johnson & Johnson & Holubec, 1994).

The second theory which CL takes its roots is mostly concerned with the ideas of Piaget and Vygotsky who argue that cognitive development takes place through social interaction. In other words, people learn due to their social experience. Knowledge is believed to be social, so acquisition of knowledge is based on cooperative efforts to learn. It is also argued that "group members exchange information and insights, discover weak points in each other's reasoning strategies, correct one another, and adjust their understandings on the basis of one another's understandings" (Johnson & Johnson & Holubec, 1994: 14).

The behavioural theory as the third one is concerned with the effect of rewarding on learning. According to this theory, it is assumed that cooperation is empowered by extrinsic group rewards. That is, learners are required to work cooperatively in order to achieve a particular group reward (Johnson & Johnson & Holubec, 1994).

1.1.3.3 Characteristics of CL

There are five key elements in Cooperative Learning:

1.1.3.3.1 Positive Interdependence

Positive interdependence occurs when the gains for one are associated with gains for others; that is, when one student achieves, others benefit, too. Positive interdependence is contrasted with negative interdependence and non-interdependence. Students are negatively interdependent in competitive situations, that is, the gains of one student are associated with losses for another. Students are non-interdependent during individualized instruction if students are all working alone at their own pace on individual projects or exercises and the grades of each have no relation to those of other students. There are two kinds of ways to structure positive interdependence among students:

- 1) outcome structured:
 - a) goal structured: Positive interdependence is provided when learners believe that they can reach their goal if all members in their group work for it.
 - b) reward structured: Learners are told to be given a reward only if all group members achieve a particular goal. That is, each learner is dependent on other group members to get the reward.
- 2) means structured:
 - a) role structured: Learners are made dependent on each other by means of their roles. Teachers need to provide them with complementary and interconnected roles to achieve dependence.
 - b) materials structured: Materials students need to accomplish their goal are shared among group members so that each member becomes dependent on the others to do the task.

- c) rule structured: This is related to the division of labour in the group. Particular rules are set so that each member can not go on with the task before the previous member completes his/her own task. So, each member needs to help others to be able to start his/ her own task (Johnson & Johnson & Holubec, 1994).

1.1.3.3.2 Face-to-Face Promotive Interaction

When learners have face-to-face promotive interaction, this means they help each other to achieve their goal. Learners interact with each other in order to assist and facilitate their learning. In other words, they exchange information or materials, give feedback on each other's performance and encourage each other to succeed in a trustworthy way (Johnson & Johnson & Holubec, 1994).

1.1.3.3.3 Accountability

Both individual and group accountability is important for achievement in cooperative learning settings and it is a defining characteristic of CL. Methods which use only a group grade or a group product without making each member accountable do not consistently produce achievement gains. In such a case, members of a group may benefit from only one member's effort by getting the same mark from the group assignment which has been achieved by that particular member. Additionally, this may cause a sense of injustice. It needs to be ensured that each learner has a contribution to the group work. Students can be made individually accountable by assigning each student a grade on his/her own portion of the team project or by the rule that the group may not go on to the next activity until all team members finish the task. When learners are aware of their accountability, the cooperation among them will increase. This is because they can have a chance to find out who in their group needs more help, support or assistance. Therefore, a primary way to ensure accountability is through testing (Johnson & Johnson & Holubec, 1994; Sharan, 1994).

1.1.3.3.4 Social Skills

Teaching social skills is another defining characteristic of CL. Social skills, which means interpersonal and small group skills, include ways students interact with each other to achieve activity or task objectives and ways students interact as team-mates. These skills are crucial in CL since it is not possible for learners to work cooperatively without them. These skills enable learners to “get to know and trust each other, communicate accurately and unambiguously, accept and support each other, and resolve conflicts constructively” (Johnson & Johnson & Holubec, 1994: 32).

1.1.3.3.4.1 Task-Related Social Skills

- a) Asking for clarification
- b) Asking for explanation
- c) Checking understanding of others
- d) Elaborating ideas of others
- e) Explaining ideas or concepts
- f) Giving information or explanation
- g) Paraphrasing and summarising
- h) Requesting clarification

1.1.3.3.4.2 Group-Related Social Skills

- a) Acknowledging others' contribution
- b) Appreciating others' contribution
- c) Asking others to contribute
- d) Praising others
- e) Recognising others
- f) Verifying consensus

- g) Keeping the group on task
- h) Keeping conversation quiet and calm (Johnson & Johnson & Holubec, 1994 & Kessler, 1992)

1.1.3.3.5 Group Processing

This is the fifth characteristic of CL. Learners make reflections on their group process in order to decide on what was helpful and what was troublesome. They consider this evaluation while discussing about the actions they will go on or give up. Johnson & Johnson & Holubec (1994) describes the advantages of group processing:

Such processing enables learning groups to focus on maintaining good working relationships among members, facilitates the learning of cooperative skills, ensures that members receive feedback on their participation, ensures that students think about their metacognitive as well as their cognitive work, and provides a way to celebrate the success of the group and reinforce group members' positive behaviours (Johnson & Johnson & Holubec, 1994: 33).

1.1.3.4 Team Formation in CL

Team formation is an important factor in creating positive interdependence. Factors involved in setting up groups include:

- a) Deciding on the size of the group: This will depend on the tasks they have to carry out, the age of learners, and time limits for the lesson. Typical group size is from two to four.
- b) Assigning students to groups: Groups can be teacher-selected, random, or student-selected, although teacher-selected is recommended as the usual mode so as to create groups that are heterogeneous on such variables such as past achievement, ethnicity, or sex.
- c) Student roles in groups: Each group member has a specific role to play in a group, such as noise monitor, turn-taker monitor, recorder, or summarizer.

There are four types of formal team formation that are commonly used in CL:

- a) Heterogeneous grouping: Learners who are different from each other in terms of various aspects are put in the same group.
- b) Random grouping: This is considered to be an easy and effective way in forming the groups. A particular way derived from random assigning procedures is giving a pre-test and dividing the whole class into high, medium and low scorers. Then groups are formed by choosing a learner randomly from each category.
- c) Interest grouping: Learners having similar interests may be put in the same group. In order to achieve this, a pre-analysis of their interests should be done.
- d) Homogeneous/heterogeneous language ability grouping: Learners can be grouped either homogeneously or heterogeneously in terms of their language abilities. Homogeneous groups are used when specific skills or certain instructions need to be mastered whereas heterogeneous grouping is used to elaborate thinking and to widen the perspective in discussing material (Johnson & Johnson & Holubec, 1994; Kessler, 1992; Ledlow, 1999).

1.1.3.5 Structuring and Structures

Structures are generic, content-free ways of organising student interactions with content and with each other. CL activities should be very carefully structured and organised. Otherwise, it cannot be possible to achieve interactions among students. Structures are constructed by combining a number of elements. An element is a particular activity done by a particular person. Generally, what teachers want to accomplish in their classes can not be achieved with only one element. So, they need to combine different elements which have different qualities in order to get the best structures which will lead them to their objectives. Teachers have to build powerful structures in order to provide useful learning contexts for learners (Sharan, 1994; Kessler, 1992). Sharan (1992) presents a table which shows an overview of some selected structures of CL.

Table 2: Overview of Selected Structures

STRUCTURE	BRIEF DESCRIPTION	FUNCTIONS ACADEMIC&SOCIAL
Roundrobin	<p style="text-align: center;">Teambuilding</p> Each student in turn shares something with his/her teammates.	Expressing ideas & opinions. Creation of stories. Equal participation: getting acquainted with teammates.
Three-step Interview	Students interview each other in pairs, first one way, then the other. Students each share with the group information they learned in the interview.	Sharing personal information such as hypotheses, reactions to a poem, conclusions from a unit. Participation. Listening.
Corners	<p style="text-align: center;">Classbuilding</p> Each student moves to a corner of the room representing a teacher-determined alternative. Students discuss within corners, then listen to and paraphrase ideas from other corners.	Seeing alternative hypotheses, values, problem solving approaches. Knowing and respecting different points of view, meeting classmates.
Match Mine	<p style="text-align: center;">Communication Building</p> Students attempt to match the arrangement of objects on a grid of another student using oral communication only.	Vocabulary development. Communication skills, role-taking ability.
Numbered Heads Together	<p style="text-align: center;">Mastery: Practise&Review</p> The teacher asks a question, students consult to make sure everyone knows the answer, then one student is called upon to answer.	Review. Checking for comprehension. Knowledge. Comprehension. Tutoring.
Inside-Outside Circle	Students stand in pairs in two concentric circles. The inside circle faces out, the outside circle faces in. Students use flashcards or respond to teacher questions as they rotate to each new partner.	Checking for understanding. Review. Processing. Helping. Tutoring, sharing, meeting classmates.
Pairs Check	Students work in pairs within groups of four, within pairs, students alternate- one solves a problem while the other coaches. After every two problems, the pair checks to see if they have the same answers as the other pair.	Practising skills. Helping, praising.
Think-Pair-Share	<p style="text-align: center;">Concept Development</p> Students think to themselves on a topic provided by the teacher, they pair up with another student to discuss it. They then share with the class their thoughts.	Generating and revising hypotheses, inductive reasoning, deductive reasoning, application. Participation, involvement.

Team Word-Webbing	Students write simultaneously on a piece of chart paper drawing main concepts, supporting elements and bridges representing the relation of ideas on a concept.	Analysis of concepts into components, understanding multiple relations among ideas, differentiating concepts. Role-taking.
Roundtable	<p style="text-align: center;">Info-Exchange: Within Teams</p> Each student in turn writes one answer as a paper and pencil are passed around the group.	Assessing prior knowledge, practising skills, recalling information, creating cooperative art. Team-building, participation of all.
Blackboard Share	<p style="text-align: center;">Info-Exchange: Between Teams</p> A student from each team goes to the board and writes an opinion, solves a problem, or shares other information. Usually there is a predetermined place at the board for each team to record its answers.	Sharing information, contrasting divergent opinions or problem solving strategies. Classbuilding. Participation of eight times as many as the traditional class.

1.1.3.6 Learner Roles in CL

The primary role of the learner is to be a member of a group who must work collaboratively on tasks with other group members. Learners have to learn teamwork skills. Learners are also directors of their own learning. They are taught to plan, monitor and evaluate their own learning. Thus, learning is something that requires students' direct and active involvement and participation. Pair tasks, in which learners alternate roles, involve partners in the role of tutors, checkers, recorders, and information sharers (Kessler, 1992). Trudi exemplifies some common learner roles in CL:

- a) Team Leader or Coordinator : They organise the team work and make the final checking to see they have met the requirements of the instructor or not. They also make the presentation if necessary.
- b) Recorder: They arrange the dates of group meeting and record what the group has collected. They are also responsible for the distribution of any necessary documents.

- c) Data Collector: They utilise various resources to get any useful data the group can benefit from.
- d) Media Specialist or Materials Manager: They help the group and sometimes the data collector to obtain data from different media.
- e) Checker: They check all the collected data and products in order to ensure all members have reached goals and what they have is accurate.
- f) Worrier or Consensus Taker: They ensure on-task participation.
- g) Encourager or Supporter: They support and encourage each member to participate equally to the group project.
- h) Clarifier: They give examples or alternatives. They also restate what the other members say in order to check whether there is any misunderstanding or not.
- i) Initiator: They are responsible for starting the interaction by proposing tasks or procedures.
- j) Reconciler or Mediator: They help their group to reconcile disagreements if there is any.
- k) Group Process Monitor: They observe and balance group dynamics in order to prevent any serious problems throughout the process.

1.1.3.7 Teacher Roles in CL

The teacher has to create a highly structured and well-organised learning environment in the classroom, setting goals, planning and structuring tasks, establishing the physical arrangement of the classroom, assigning students to groups and roles, and selecting materials and time. An important role for the teacher is that of a facilitator of learning. Teachers speak less than in teacher-fronted classes providing broad questions to challenge thinking and they prepare students for the task they will carry out, they assist students with the learning tasks, and they give few commands, imposing less disciplinary control (Kessler, 1992). Likewise, Trudi argues that teachers of cooperative classrooms need to observe and intervene groups

by asking open-ended questions during in-class group work, praise and encourage learners in order to extend participation and involving of group members as well as their responsibility and self-evaluation and promote student learning of meta-cognitive and social skills. Moreover, Sharan (1994) states teacher roles have expanded in CL due to the addition of some new roles and according to her, CL teachers need to be able to:

- 1) conceive of the classroom as a system of small groups as the functioning learning units,
- 2) redesign curricular materials to be appropriate for group-centered learning that requires cooperation instead of being aimed exclusively at individuals,
- 3) identify and locate a wide variety of resources of learning beyond textbook-related assignments,
- 4) involve student groups in planning their topics of study and process of their work,
- 5) monitor groups to ensure free exchange of information, mutual helping, and maximum participation by all members within the group,
- 6) help groups to reflect on the interactions among their members and to receive feedback from one another on their performance as group members, in order to enable groups to develop and become more congenial and effective,
- 7) select the cooperative learning methods most appropriate for the curricular materials to be studied, combine or integrate two or more methods as circumstances require to afford students the best possible means of pursuing the study of subjects at hand,
- 8) advise student groups on the selection of creative means for organising and presenting their work to their peers and to the teacher for evaluation,
- 9) participate in one or more teams of teachers who plan and implement cooperative learning methods in their classrooms, as well as engage in problem solving and decision making about instruction on a schoolwide basis (Sharan, 1994: 346).

1.1.3.8 Types of CL Groups

There are three types of CL groups:

- a) Formal learning groups
- b) Informal learning groups
- c) Cooperative base groups

1.1.3.8.1 Formal Cooperative Learning Groups

These last from one class period to several weeks. These are established for a specific task and involve students working together to achieve shared learning goals. It is possible to structure any learning task in any subject area with any curriculum cooperatively. Teachers can formulate any course requirement or assignment for formal cooperative learning. In order to achieve this, teachers specify the objectives for the lesson, make a number of pre-instructional decisions, explain the task providing the positive interdependence, monitor students' learning and intervene within the groups to provide task assistance or to increase students' interpersonal and group skills, and finally evaluate their learning and help students process how well their groups functioned (Kessler, 1992; Sharan, 1994; Johnson & Johnson & Holubec, 1994).

1.1.3.8.2 Informal Cooperative Learning Groups

These are ad-hoc groups that last from a few minutes to a class period and are used to focus student attention or to facilitate learning during direct teaching. It may be effective to use lectures, demonstrations, films, and videotapes with informal cooperative learning groups since they help to focus student attention on the material to be learned, to set a mood conducive to learning, to help set expectations as to what will be covered in a class session, to ensure that students cognitively process the material being taught, and to provide closure to the instructional session. With informal cooperative learning, teachers can be sure that students do the intellectual work of organizing, explaining, summarizing, and integrating material into existing

conceptual structures during direct teaching. Teachers often organise these groups in order to enable students to engage in a three- to five-minute focused discussion before and after a lecture and two- to three-minute turn-to-your-partner discussions throughout a lecture (Kessler, 1992; Sharan, 1994; Johnson & Johnson & Holubec, 1994).

1.1.3.8.3 Cooperative Base Groups

These are long-term, lasting for at least a year and consist of heterogeneous learning groups with stable membership whose primary purpose is to allow members to give each other the support, help, encouragement, and assistance they need to succeed academically. Therefore, students need to build permanent, committed relationships that allow them to give each other the needed support, help, encouragement, and assistance to work hard continuously in school and make academic progress such as attending class, completing all assignments, etc. Moreover, they support each other to develop in cognitively and socially healthy ways. The use of base groups helps to improve attendance, personalize the required work and the school experience, and improve both the quality and quantity of learning. The importance of base groups increases as the class or school gets larger or the subject matter gets more difficult and more complex (Kessler, 1992; Sharan, 1994; Johnson & Johnson & Holubec, 1994).

1.1.3.9 Advantages of CL

CL has various advantages. Teachers can benefit from CL a lot since in a cooperative learning class:

- a) Learners' achievement and positive relationships increase.
- b) Learners' intrinsic motivation and self-esteem expand.
- c) Teachers can achieve more "on-task" behavior.
- d) Learners develop better attitudes toward teachers and school.
- e) Students take responsibility for their own learning.

- f) Learners translate “teacher talk” into “student speak” for their peers.
- g) Students engage in “cognitive collaboration.”
- h) Students have fun learning.
- i) Teachers use students’ social nature for their advantage (Kessler, 1992; Sharan, 1994; Johnson & Johnson & Holubec, 1994; Leamnson,1999; Stipek, 1998).

Moreover, CL seeks to develop classrooms that foster cooperation rather than competition in learning. From the perspective of second language teaching, McGroarty (1989) also offers these learning advantages for ESL students in CL classrooms:

- a) It increases frequency and variety of second language practice through different types of interaction.
- b) It enhances development or use of language in ways that support cognitive development and increased language skills.
- c) It provides opportunities to integrate language with content-based instruction and to include a greater variety of curricular materials to stimulate language as well as concept learning.
- d) It is freedom for teachers to master new professional skills, particularly those emphasizing communication.
- e) It enables students to act as resources for each, thus assuming a more active role in their leaning.

Likewise, Yıldız (1999) also reveals the benefits of cooperative groups by comparing them to traditional learning groups in Table 3.

Table 3: Differences Between Cooperative Learning and Traditional Learning Groups

COOPERATIVE LEARNING GROUPS	TRADITIONAL LEARNING GROUPS
There is positive interdependence among group members. Each learner in the group can reach his/her aims as long as the other members of the group are successful. This interdependence includes the aim, reward, source, role, symbol presentation, common fantasy, responsibility and response dependence.	There is no positive interdependence among group members.
Heterogeneous groups are formed. Groups include different members in terms of ability, gender, nationality, social and personality characteristics. This finds a place for disabled and weak learners in the class.	Homogeneous groups are observed.
Leadership is shared by group members.	There is only one leader in the group.
Members are responsible for each other's learning. There is group responsibility.	Members rarely feel responsible for others' learning. There is individual responsibility.
Study relationships in the group are paid attention to support each learner's success. Group work is emphasized. There is support for improvement.	There is generally individual study. Group members produce their individual products and the work is emphasized.
Social skills are directly taught.	Social skills are less emphasized. The relationships among members and small group skills are generally misconstrued, there is competition.
Teachers have an observing role and they solve the problems and assist learners.	Teachers observe and rarely interact with the groups. They do not pay attention to group work, but give importance to individual work.
Teachers construct the necessary context in which groups can work efficiently.	Teachers do not pay attention to the construction of the necessary contexts for group work.
Group members are given individual responsibility. This responsibility is about the material according to which each member is evaluated. Members provide feedback for each other's improvement. They know who need feedback and encouragement in the group. Groups work by using the group efficiency in order to reach their goal.	There is not enough share of responsibility in group work. They sometimes benefit from each other's work.

1.1.3.10 Cooperative Learning and Language Teaching

In second language teaching, Cooperative Learning has been embraced as a way of promoting communicative interaction in the classroom and is seen as an extension of the principles of Communicative Language Teaching. It is viewed as a learner-centred approach to teaching held to offer advantages over teacher-fronted classroom methods. In language teaching the goals are:

- a) to provide opportunities for naturalistic second language acquisition through the use of interactive pair and group activities,
- b) to provide teachers with a methodology to enable them to achieve this goal and one that can be applied in a variety of curriculum settings,
- c) to enable focused attention to particular lexical items, language structures, and communicative functions through the use of interactive tasks,
- d) to provide opportunities for learners to develop successful learning and communication strategies,
- e) to enhance learner motivation and reduce learner stress and to create a positive affective classroom climate (Richard and Rodgers, 2001).

Cooperative Language Learning is founded on some basic premises about interactive/cooperative nature of language and language learning and builds on these premises in several ways:

- a) We are born to talk since we are programmed to talk.
- b) Most speech is organised as conversation.
- c) Conversation operates according to a certain agreed-upon set of cooperative rules or maxims.
- d) One learns how these cooperative maxims realised in one's native language through casual, everyday conversational interaction.
- e) One learns how the maxims are realised in a second language through participation in cooperatively structured activities.

Practises that attempt to organise second language learning according to these premises, explicitly or implicitly, are jointly labeled Cooperative Language Learning.

In its implications, CLL is used to support both structural and functional models as well as interactional models of language, since CLL activities may be used to focus on language form as well as to practice particular language functions (Richard and Rodgers, 2001).

1.1.4 The Purpose and Significance of the Study

In this study, cooperative learning activities are suggested to be useful in overcoming the problems of multilevel classes. Shank & Terril (1995) comments that cross-ability grouping lets strong learners help the weak ones (Shank & Terril, 1995: 2). Ibrahim and Penfield (2005) also directed a research in which they could successfully deal with the diversity in mixed composition classes thanks to cooperation and collaboration (Ibrahim & Penfield, 2005: 217). Likewise, Nunan (1992) emphasizes the significance of cooperative learning in multilevel classes by comparing it with traditional teaching methods:

Cooperative learning in mixed-ability teams provides a major pedagogical structure for working toward such goals. This orientation entails a paradigmatic shift from the transmission model, seeing learners as active agents in their learning and teachers as researchers of their work (Nunan, 1992: 11).

When considered in terms of anxiety, cooperative learning activities seem to be helpful to overcome it. Mejlas et. al. identify the most common source of anxiety as “learners’ fears of being laughed at by the others; of making a fool of themselves in public” (Horwitz & Young, 1991: 105). Since cooperation requires learners to be responsible for the whole group’s achievement and other group members’ learning, it creates a supportive and welcoming atmosphere in the classroom. Consequently, the fears mentioned above will decrease that results in a decline in the levels of anxiety as well. In a multilevel class, for instance, a low-level student will receive help from the high-level one rather than being laughed at. As a result, he/she will feel relatively less anxious and more motivated.

Cooperation in the classroom increases motivation, especially in multilevel ones while it decreases anxiety. Brewer and Klein (2004) states that research on

cooperative learning shows that students working in groups are more motivated than those who work alone (Brewer & Klein, 2004: 1). Moreover, the motivating effect of collaboration and cooperation has been proved also with various studies such as Johnson & Johnson (1985), Johnson & Anderson (1976), Slavin (1978), Sharon & Shaulov (1990) and Lazarowitz & Karsenty (1990) (Özer, 1999: 16). These all show that learners cooperating with each other are more motivated than the ones who work individually. Özer reports from Slavin that what motivates learners in cooperation is the reward their group receives (Özer, 1999: 17). Therefore, in this study it is predicted that cooperation in multilevel classes will increase motivation as well.

To sum up, it is accepted that the effect of cooperation on anxiety and motivation in language classrooms is a facilitating one (Altınok, 2004: 487). Aksakal (2002) explains that cooperation decreases anxiety whereas it increases motivation within the classroom (Aksakal, 2000: 68). However, what kind of effect cooperative activities have on motivation and anxiety in multilevel classes has not been investigated up to date.

1.1.5 The Statement of the Problem

Does Cooperative Learning have a significant effect on motivation and anxiety in multilevel adult classes?

1.1.6 The Research Problems

- 1) Does cooperation have a significant effect on motivation in multilevel adult classes?
- 2) If it does, what kind of effect is this? Does it motivate or demotivate learners of such classes?
- 3) Does cooperation have a significant effect on anxiety in multilevel adult classes?
- 4) If it does, what kind of effect is this? Does it increase or decrease the level of anxiety?

1.1.7 Limitations

This study is limited to the learners attending the morning and afternoon classes of the first stage English courses organised by Uşak Halk Eğitim Merkezi ve Akşam Sanat Okulu in the second term of the 2005-2006 education period.

1.1.8 Assumptions

It is supposed that all subjects have answered all the questionnaires honestly in this study.

1.1.9 Abbreviations

CL: Cooperative Learning

CLL: Cooperative Language Learning

FLCAS: Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale

FLMQ: Foreign Language Motivation Questionnaire

UHEMASO: Uşak Halk Eğitim Merkezi ve Akşam Sanat Okulu

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This part will cover the previous research on anxiety, motivation, multilevel adult classes and cooperative learning by following a historical order starting with the recent studies.

2.1. RESEARCH ON ANXIETY

Research on anxiety indicates that it is one of the crucial affective issues which is influenced by various factors in education.

Kurt & Atay (2007) did a research with 86 Turkish preservice English teachers in order to identify the effects of peer feedback on their writing anxiety. The study lasting eight weeks was conducted with a control and an experimental group. At the end of the study all preservice teachers were given Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory and 20 randomly chosen preservice teachers were interviewed. When the collected data was analysed, the preservice teachers in the experimental group were proved to have less writing anxiety compared to the ones in the control group. The data collected with the interviews revealed that the preservice teachers benefited from peer feedback since they explained that they could realise their mistakes with their friends' help and they enjoyed the different ideas their friends shared with them and these ideas enabled them to see the things from a different perspective (Kurt & Atay, 2007).

Batumlu and Erden (2007) conducted a study with 150 A, B and C level students attending Yıldız Technical University, School of Foreign Languages, Basic English Department Prep Classes to determine the relation between foreign language anxiety and students' English achievement. The level of students' foreign language anxiety was measured by "Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale" developed by Hortwiz, Hortwiz and Cope and their achievement was determined by the average of their first and second midterm grades. The results of the study showed that

students' initial foreign language anxiety did not vary according to their English level whereas their latter foreign language anxiety varied significantly for B and C levels. No difference in their initial and latter anxiety scores was identified in terms of gender. Additionally, it was found that unsuccessful students at B and C levels had a higher level of anxiety (Batumlu & Erden, 2007).

In another study, Taşğın aimed to find out whether the professional concerns of preservice Physical Education teachers differ according to gender or the sport branch that they have. In order to collect data, the Preservice Teacher Concerns Checklist was given to 90 senior students studying at Selçuk University during the 2003-2004 academic year. The results showed that teaching task concern and self-concern of girls are statistically more significant than those of boys (Taşğın, 2006).

Çakmak and Hevedanlı (2005) designed a research in order to find out how some factors such as class, university, gender, success at school, relationship among students, job perspectives, parents attitude and economic status do influence the students' concern. The study was done with 273 participant biology student teachers in Education and Science Faculties at Dicle University and 264 of 273 questionnaires were considered. The Self Evaluation questionnaire and the Personal Information Questionnaire were used to gather data. The analysis of the data showed that the students' concern was affected by their class, gender, friendship at school and parents' attitude, but it was not affected by their university, success at school, job perspective and economic status (Çakmak & Hedevanlı, 2005).

Dalkılıç (2004) examined the relationship between foreign language classroom anxiety and achievement of the freshman ELT students at the faculty of Education of Dicle University in addition to the relationship between anxiety and demographic factors as well as the causes and effects of anxiety and the students' strategies to deal with these effects. In order to collect data, the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale, a demographic information sheet, a standard English proficiency test and an interview protocol were used. The results of the study showed that female students were significantly more anxious than males and there was a negative relationship between students' anxiety and achievement. According to the research results, the most common consequence of anxiety was failure. Moreover, the students suffering

from debilitating anxiety tried studying along with self-encouragement and positive self-talk and using relaxation techniques or getting help from others as a strategy (Dalkılıç, 2004).

Haskin, Smith & Racine (2003) studied with five 7th grade Spanish classes in two suburban middle schools in order to describe instructional strategies to decrease anxiety and frustration in the Spanish classrooms. The data for anxiety and frustration were collected with direct teacher observation, the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale, student questionnaires and interviews. According to the research results, anxiety levels increased in both of the schools and several activities caused foreign language anxiety. Post-test revealed that students showed less test anxiety, communication apprehension and fear of negative evaluation in the classroom and less anxiety and frustration in the area of oral communication, which had previously hindered their full acquisition of the language (Haskin, Smith & Racine, 2003).

Von Werde (1998) did a research to identify factors that may increase anxiety in a foreign language classroom and factors that may help to reduce anxiety, described student manifestations of anxiety, and correlated final grade with anxiety level and utilised the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale, interviews and the final grade correlation from students in diverse foreign language classrooms. The results showed that anxiety could negatively effect the language learning experience in various ways and that when anxiety was reduced, language acquisition and motivation increased (Von Werde, 1998).

Likewise, Gülsün (1997) designed a study to search the relationship between learners' foreign language classroom anxiety and their success in learning English as a foreign language in the Freshman Section of the University of Gaziantep. Moreover, the native speaker teachers' influence on students' anxiety levels was examined. The Turkish version of Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale assessing students' anxiety levels, an English achievement test determining students' success in learning English as a foreign language and a five point rating scale evaluating students' oral proficiency in English were used in order to collect data. The results of the study proved a significant moderate negative relationship between

students language anxiety and their achievement in learning English as a foreign language; a significant moderate negative relationship between their language anxiety levels and their achievement in English reading comprehension; and a significant moderate negative relationship between students' language anxiety levels and their oral English proficiency. On the other hand, the study revealed no significant difference between the anxiety levels of the students taught by native speaker teacher and those taught by non-native speaker teachers (Gülsün, 1997).

Title (1997) conducted a study to investigate the relationship between anxiety experienced by students in the second language classroom, irrational thoughts associated with these anxieties, and classroom achievement among three groups of language learners. In the study, the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale and Irrational Beliefs Test were given to 94 college students of Russian, Spanish and English as a second language at various levels of difficulty. The research results did not reveal any significant correlations between language anxiety and irrational thought. Moreover, moderate negative correlations were found between language anxiety and classroom achievement whereas there were not similar correlations between irrational thought and classroom achievement (Title, 1997).

Onwuegbuzie, Bailey & Daley (1997) conducted a research with 210 university students attending French, Spanish, German and Japanese language courses in order to investigate predictors of foreign language anxiety. The data about student characteristics, study behaviours, attitudes, and language anxiety experience during the fourth week of the semester were gathered with several instruments. The results of the study revealed that 14 variables which were gender, age, academic achievement, semester course load, prior history of visiting foreign countries, high school experience with foreign languages, expected grade for current language course, perceived intellectual ability, perceived scholastic competence, perceived appearance, perceived self-worth, cooperativeness, value placed on competitive learning, academic locus of control were significant in prediction of foreign language anxiety. Accordingly, freshmen and sophomores had the lowest levels of anxiety, and levels increased linearly as a function of year of study (Onwuegbuzie, Bailey & Daley, 1997).

Gardner and others (1987) investigated the relationship between different aspects of anxiety and second language production in a relatively non-threatening oral production task. The study was conducted with 43 introductory psychology students who had completed grade 12 French instruction at least one year prior to the study and who had not had any formal French instruction since then. The subjects were asked to complete a questionnaire indicating how anxious they felt at the time before they did a number of oral French tests. After completing the tests, they were given a battery of tests assessing various types of anxiety. After that, the subjects were given the state anxiety measure before they did more French tests which were an alternative form of the previous French tests. The results indicated that context-relevant anxiety played a significant role in second language learning (Gardner and others, 1987).

2.2.RESEARCH ON MOTIVATION

Researches on motivation obviously show that it is one of the most important factors affecting learning in general and language learning in particular.

Gençay & Gençay (2007) conducted a research in order to determine education motivations and motivation problems of School of Physical Education and Sports students with regard to various variables. The questionnaire was applied to 138 female and male college students and the results showed a significant difference between male and female students in terms of their motivation as well as between their grades and their motivation levels. The results also revealed a decline in their motivation as they moved to upper classes (Gençay & Gençay, 2007).

A research conducted by Çetin (2007) examined the effect of computer assisted education software based on ARCS motivation model on students' achievement, and permanence of learning. The study was carried out with randomly chosen sixty 10th grade students from high schools in Kırşehir, 30 of whom are experimental group and the other 30 are control group. During the experiment which lasted two weeks for four course hours, the control group was taught with traditional method including laboratory work while the experimental group was taught with a method based on ARSC Motivation Model and its principles and strategies. The results of the study

revealed that the students taught with education software based on ARSC Motivation Model were more successful than the students in the control group. This means that the method used in this study increases achievement (Çetin, 2007).

Madran (2006) aimed to find out the effects of achievement motivation on the academic achievement of university preparation class students in her research. The data were collected with the achievement motivation scale from 545 participants in randomly chosen 36 classes of D.E.U. School of Foreign Languages. The means of the first semester grades were used as the participants' academic achievement. The findings identified that the achievement motivation and academic achievement of post-graduate students were higher than the undergraduate students, the day class students were higher than the evening class students, the students of Turkish-medium departments were higher than the students of English-medium departments. Moreover, it was found that there was a positive correlation between the academic achievement and the achievement motivation. It was also revealed that the students having studied in a prep class before university have a lower achievement motivation, but a higher academic achievement. Finally, it was found that there was a positive correlation between the academic achievement and achievement motivation (Madran, 2006).

Acat & Köşgeroğlu (2006) developed a questionnaire to identify the motivation level of students to learn about their occupation at Health Colleges. They utilised a descriptive method in the study and worked with 400 students. At the end of the study they achieved to develop a valid and reliable questionnaire consisting of 24 items (Acat & Köşgeroğlu, 2006).

In a research designed by Aydemir (2006) it was aimed to find out primary school students' attitudes towards mathematics lessons; the relationship between attitudes towards mathematics lesson and gender, socio-economic status of school, educational status of students' mother and father, type of school; their achievement motivations; the relationship between their achievement motivations and gender, socio-economic status of school, educational status of students' mother and father, type of school and the relationship between attitudes towards mathematics lesson and achievement motivation. The data were collected with the Attitudes Towards

Mathematics Scale and the Achievement Motivation Scale from 715 students in 3 private and 11 public primary schools. The research results showed that students' attitudes towards mathematics significantly varied in terms of social status of school, the educational status of mother and father and type of school whereas there was not any significant variance in terms of gender. Moreover, the achievement motivation of primary students' significantly varied in terms of gender, socio-economic status of school, educational status of mother and type of school whereas they did not vary in terms of educational status of father. Finally, it was revealed that there was a positive but weak relationship between students' attitudes towards mathematics and their achievement motivation (Aydemir, 2006).

Deliçay (2005) did a descriptive research in order to find out how motivated the students of Firat University to learn Arabic in the first term of 2002-2003 education period. The result of the study showed that female students were more idealistic than the male ones. Moreover, it was seen that 1st grade students were more motivated than the third grade students, which could be explained with the 1st grade students' excitement as well as with the third grade students' worry about their future after their graduation. What is more, students who had started learning Arabic as a whole with its alphabet and grammar together were more motivated than the other students as well. One of the reasons of the lack motivation in Arabic courses was identified as the low levels of grading credits of the courses related to Arabic (Deliçay, 2005).

Özer (1999) designed a research to investigate the effects of cooperative learning and traditional methods on primary school students' Turkish achievement and their achievement motivation. In the study which had pre-test post-test research design with control groups and survey model, an experimental group was taught with cooperative learning while traditional method was implemented in the control group. The data were collected with Turkish Achievement Test and Achievement Motivation Scale. The findings revealed that cooperative learning was more effective than traditional methods on primary school students' Turkish achievement and achievement motivation (Özer, 1999).

2.3. RESEARCH ON MULTILEVEL ADULT CLASSES

Research on multilevel and adult classes shows that instructors of such learners need to deal with particular difficulties caused by the diversity among learners in these classes.

Narayanan's research focuses on gender differences affecting the motivation factors towards learning of English as a second language among engineering and technology students. It also gives special emphasis on different motivation factors such as: integrative, instrumental, resultative and intrinsic with respect to gender differences. The research results indicate that female students scored higher scores in all of the motivation categories. Therefore, it can be concluded that male students are less motivated to learn English language (Narayanan, 2007).

In a case study conducted by Suda (2002) in Australia, it was aimed to find out the significance of the complexities diversity brings to development of language and literacy practices and challenges educators face to develop a culturally inclusive vision. The study focused on the comparison and contrast of the ALBE (adult literacy and basic education) and ESL (English as a second language) in addition to the differences and similarities of pedagogical implications of combining learners from English-speaking background with learners with ESL needed in ALBE settings. Group and individual interviews revealed that practitioners were aware of the importance of understanding the complex socio-cultural, linguistic, educational, motivational and individual factors that were effective on learner needs. According to the research results, literacy learners with from language backgrounds other than English have needs not necessarily addressed in ESL or ALBE classrooms (Suda, 2002).

Martin's research on the difficulties of matching of learner perceptions of language and cultural needs with the realities of the negotiation situation was done by analysing 30 interviews with Irish sales representatives who had varying levels of knowledge of German and who had conducted negotiations with German-speaking customers. The research results showed that all of the sellers had difficulty in listening to and understanding potential buyers; therefore, most of them found it difficult to implement an interactive strategy of listening to and questioning potential

buyers about their needs. They also had trouble in reading the sales situation in which they found themselves and the personality of the buyer because of cultural differences in conversation and negotiation styles (Martin, 1993).

2.4. RESEARCH ON COOPERATIVE LEARNING

Research on Cooperative Learning reveals that it is a significantly effective teaching method to deal with various problems in teaching contexts.

Kıncal, Ergül & Timur (2007) conducted a research with 7th grade students at two primary schools to identify the effect of “Force and Motion” subject on student success, which takes place “Meeting of Force and Motion Energy” unit of primary school 7th grade. A control group of 74 students and an experimental group of 80 students were formed to apply a pre-test and a post-test. In the control group teaching was done with the traditional method while a cooperative method was used in the experimental group for 9 weeks. The results indicated that cooperative learning was more effective in teaching the subject since it helped students to be more successful in knowledge, understanding, practise and general level (Kıncal, Ergül & Timur, 2007).

Sarıtaş (2007) investigated the effects of cooperative learning and traditional learning methods on academic achievements of the students with different success levels. The research was carried out with the fourth grade students in Denizli Raşit Özkardeş Primary School. Two groups as the test group of 46 students and the control group of 45 students were formed. The test group was taught with cooperative method whereas the traditional method was applied in the control group. The experiment lasted four weeks and the findings indicated that the achievements of the test group were in favour of the control group (Sarıtaş, 2007).

Avşar and Alkış (2007) investigated the effects of jigsaw I which is one of the techniques in cooperative learning on student success in social studies course. They utilised pre-test post-test control group design in the study and collected the data with an achievement test. The experimental group was taught with cooperative learning whereas the control group was taught with traditional method. The findings showed that there was a significant difference between the test points of the two

groups. It also revealed a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test implementation. In short, it was concluded that cooperative learning was more effective than the traditional method (Avşar and Alkış, 2007).

Şenol, Bal & Yıldırım (2007) conducted a research to compare and analyse teaching through Cooperative Learning Methodology and Teacher Central Teaching Methodology in terms of their effect on the 6th grade elementary education students' academic performance in Science courses and their attitudes in the lectures. In the research, one of the 6th grade classes of the Prof. Bahri Savcı Elementary Education School was selected as the experiment group and another one was selected as the control group. Both groups were taught about the sense organs which was a part of the Science Course's curriculum but the experimental group was taught with Cooperative Learning Methodology and the data were collected with Science Courses Success Test and Science Courses Attitude Survey. The findings showed that Cooperative Learning Methodology practised on the experimental group resulted in higher improvement in the success level of the students in Science courses. Moreover, the group practising Cooperative Learning Methodology developed positive attitude towards Science Courses whereas there was not such a significant change or development in the control group (Şenol, Bal & Yıldırım, 2007).

Çaycı, Demir, Başaran & Demir (2007) investigated the effect of cooperative learning on students' concept learning. The study had a pre-test post-test model and it was carried out with an experimental group consisting of 30 students and a control group including 32 students in primary school fifth class. The data were collected with concept achievement test. The findings showed that cooperative learning was effective on the students' concept learning in "Adım Adım Türkiye" unit (Çaycı, Demir, Başaran & Demir, 2007).

Tunçel (2006) did a study in order to determine the effects of cooperative learning and practise method on 7th graders' physical education development, social skills and cognitive processes with regard to gender. "Pairs-Check Up-Perform" and "Learning Together" techniques were utilised in the experimental group while the Practise Method was implemented in the control group. Scale of Cognitive Processes, Scale of Social Skills and Motor Skill Assessment Form were given to

collect the data. The findings revealed that Cooperative Learning Method was more effective than the traditional methods on physical education achievement. The effect was observed to be higher on the males than the females (Tunçel, 2006).

Çörek (2006) investigated the effects of cooperative learning and traditional teaching strategies on the achievement of 7th grade learners in Turkish course. The pre-test and post-test design with control group was implemented in the research. There were two groups consisting of 70 students: a control group and an experiment group. The control group was taught with the traditional method while the “Learning Together” technique was implemented in the experiment group. The data were collected with Turkish Achievement Test and Scale for Attitudes towards the Turkish course. The research results revealed that the students taught with cooperative learning were significantly more successful than the ones in the control group. Likewise, their attitudes towards the lessons were significantly more positive than those of the ones in the control group (Çörek, 2006).

Gök (2006) aimed to determine the effect of the teaching of the cooperative problem solving strategies on students’ achievement in physics, achievement motivation, attitudes towards problem solving, the problem solving strategies used by students, their gender difference and their level of achievement using the cooperative problem solving strategies. The study used a pre-test post-test control group experimental design and it was carried out with two groups of second year upper secondary school students studying physics in the fall term of 2005-2006 academic year. Cooperative problem-solving strategies were implemented in the experimental group and traditional teaching methods were used in the control group. The data were collected with Physics Achievement Test, the Scale of Problem-Solving Attitude Towards Physics, Achievement Motivation Scale and problem solving sheets. The findings showed that teaching through cooperative problem solving strategies had a positive effect on the students’ achievement in physics, their attitude towards problem-solving and achievement motivation. No relation was found between teaching of problem-solving strategies and gender difference. It was also showed that the more the level of the students’ achievement in using the cooperative problem-solving strategies increased the more the students used strategies (Gök, 2006).

Kaya Şengören (2006) did a research in order to develop some activities related to learning of the interference and diffraction subjects of light in undergraduate level, and to compare the effects of the cooperative learning method in which these activities were used on the students' success and recalling related to subject, attitudes towards optic course, reliability-significance level related to physics course, and affective characteristics towards teaching method and the materials used, with the effects of the traditional teaching. The study was carried out with the students at physics education department in a public university in 2005-2006 academic year. A pre-test and a post-test were applied to the control group consisting of 22 students attending the optics course and to the experimental group consisting of 22 students attending the optics course. The data were collected with achievement tests, attitude scale towards the optics course and confidence and significance scale of physics course and students' compositions. The cooperative learning techniques, activities related to interference and diffraction subjects and effective learning tasks were carried out in the experimental group whereas traditional techniques were implemented in the control group. The experimentation process lasted eight weeks. According to the findings, there were positive differences in favour of experimental group between the academic achievement and the eight-week retention levels, between the cooperative learning and traditional learning class students in addition to that there was no meaningful difference between the confidence and significance level towards the physics course. Additionally, the attitudes of the students in both groups towards the optics course increased meaningfully; however, there was no meaningful difference between the groups. Moreover, the students' compositions revealed that the cooperative learning helped the students to use and develop some certain social skills and to learn the subjects better, and had more positive effects on affective products of the students towards the method and materials used as compared to the traditional teaching. Additionally, it was determined that the developed materials contributed the students to understand and analyse the traditional class did not allow the developed materials to be used effectively, whereas the cooperative class allowed to create a learning environment where the materials could be used more effectively and efficiently (Kaya Şengören, 2006).

Tanel (2006) investigated the effects of the cooperative learning and traditional teaching methods on student achievement and retention in the second law of thermodynamics, on students' attitudes towards the subject of thermodynamics and on students' self-confidence in physics and the importance students placed on the factors affecting their learning. A quasi-experimental research design was applied in the study which was carried out with 40 university students attending a thermodynamics course at physics education department in a state university during 2005-2006 academic year. The data were collected with the Second Law of Thermodynamics and Entropy Test, the Attitude Scale Towards Thermodynamics, Confidence and Importance Scale in Physics and students' compositions. The research results indicated that cooperative learning method increased student achievement in thermodynamics, and improved student retention. However, no statistically significant difference between the Attitude Scale Towards Thermodynamics scores of the students in the control and experimental groups in the post-test was identified. It was also found that the method did not improve student self-confidence in physics and the importance placed on the factors affecting their learning by the students. The students in the control group were pleased with the traditional teaching and believed that they reached an appropriate level of understanding and some of them stated their lessons were entertaining and enjoyable although they were aware of the deficiencies of the method. The students in the experimental group liked the cooperative learning method and believed in its usefulness and meaningfulness providing permanent learning. Moreover, they found the lessons enjoyable and felt that they improved their communication and interaction skills stating that the cooperative learning method had a positive impact on the affective domain of student learning (Tanel, 2006).

In a research conducted by Ateş (2004), it was aimed to find out the effects of collective teaching method on students' success on science subject and attitudes of students towards science. Achievement Test and Science Attitudes Scale were used to collect data. The research was carried out with 102 primary school students between ages 13 and 15 of 6th and 7th grade during 2003-2004 school period who were divided into the control and experimental groups. They were taught using traditional and a collective teaching method respectively. The findings showed that

the students' attitudes to science in the experimental group changed significantly positively compared to the control group. The same results were found in terms of their success in science as well (Ateş, 2004).

Güngör Kılıç (2004) investigated the effects of cooperative learning and traditional methods on primary school students' reading comprehension, strategy use, attitudes towards reading and the relationships between their reading comprehension and gender. The pre-test and post-test experimental design with control group was used in the study and Learning Together technique was implemented in the experimental group whereas the control group was taught by using the traditional teaching methods. Reading Comprehension Strategy Scale, Attitudes Towards Reading Scale and Reading Comprehension Tests were applied to collect data and the findings showed that cooperative learning method was more effective than traditional methods on reading comprehension, strategy use and attitudes towards reading. Moreover, cooperative learning eliminated gender differences in reading comprehension (Güngör Kılıç, 2004).

Altınok (2004) did a study to search the effects of cooperative and individual concept mapping, traditional teaching methods and students' attitudes towards concept mapping on their science achievement, use of strategy and attitudes of concept mapping. The pre-test and post-test experimental design with control group was used and 52 female and 70 male fifth graders participated in the study. One of the groups was taught with cooperative concept mapping, one with individual concept mapping and the other one with traditional method. The data were collected through Scale for Attitudes Towards Science Course, Learning Strategies Scale, Achievement Test and Scale for Attitudes Towards Concept Mapping and interview with participants. The findings showed that cooperative and individual concept mapping groups were not different in terms of their science achievement. Moreover, the attitudes of the cooperative concept mapping groups towards the science course are more positive than the other two groups and there was no difference between the individual concept mapping and the traditional teaching groups in terms of their attitudes. Finally, cooperative concept mapping affected students' attitudes towards concept mapping more positively than individual concept mapping did (Altınok, 2004).

In a study conducted by Gökdağ (2004), it was aimed to determine the effects of the cooperative learning and traditional method on the learning styles and academic achievement of the students, interactions of the student with various learning styles in cooperative learning groups and to find out whether these effects vary according to their gender and learning styles. A pre-test post-test with control group design was carried out in the primary school with an average socio-economic level. Cooperative learning was implemented in the experimental group while the control group was taught with the traditional method. A multiple choice test, an essay test, Learning Style Scale and audio tape recordings were used to collect data. The results revealed that the cooperative learning increased social science achievement. Neither cooperative learning nor traditional method changed learning styles of the students'. Only visual learners' means in the control group decreased significantly and the effects of cooperative learning and traditional methods did not differ significantly in terms of gender. It was also found out that in cooperative groups, visual learners scored better than auditory and kinaesthetic learners; extracurricular, curricular, group management and ordering conflicts were observed and interaction patterns did not differ according to learning styles (Gökdağ, 2004).

Ünsal & Moğol (2004) carried out a research in order to find out the effect of the cooperative-based learning on teaching "one-dimension motion" subject on academic achievement. The experimental and control groups were formed with the undergraduate students attending Gazi University, Gazi Education Faculty, Physics Department first class in 2002-2003 academic year. Problem solving activities were implemented in the experimental group while traditional instructions were applied in the control group. The findings suggested that cooperative-based learning in physics lessons increased the academic achievement (Ünsal & Moğol, 2004).

Uysal (2004) conducted a study to determine the effect of cooperative learning on classroom environment and singing skills in elementary music education. The study was carried out with 140 5th graders at YIBO Elementary School in Kiraz, İzmir in 2003-2004 education year. A pre-test and post-test design was used for the study. The experimental group including 70 students was taught with the Jigsaw technique while the control group consisting of 70 students was taught by using the traditional method. The Musical Knowledge Test, Singing Skills Observation Form

and Classroom Environment Scale were used in order to gather data. The findings suggested that cooperative learning was significantly more effective than traditional techniques on classroom environment, singing skills and musical knowledge and the effects did not differ in terms of gender (Uysal, 2004).

Uysal (2003) investigated the effects of Cooperative Learning on students' achievements and trait-state anxiety in teaching English. The study was carried out on the 5th graders at İğdeli Elementary School in Kiraz, İzmir and a pre-test post-test design was used. The experimental group consisting of 10 females and 8 males was taught with the Learning Together technique whereas the traditional method was implemented in the control group including 8 females and 14 males for eight weeks. In data collection, English Achievement Test and Trait-State Anxiety Scale were utilised. The research results showed that Cooperative Learning was significantly more effective on students' achievements and state anxiety than traditional techniques and those effects did not differ in terms of gender (Uysal, 2003).

In a research with pre-test post-test design with control group conducted by Sucuoğlu (2003), it was aimed to determine the effect of cooperative learning and traditional teaching methods on student attributions, performance and use of learning strategies and interaction patterns in cooperative groups. The study was carried out at a high school of a middle class socio-economic level. Cooperative learning was implemented in experimental groups whereas traditional method was used in the control group. The data were collected with achievement tests, Scale of Success/Failure Attributions, Scale of Use of Learning Strategies in Biology and interview records. The research results showed that cooperative learning methods increased the students' achievement in biology lessons. While the students attributed their success to the teacher and their failure to the families in Experiment 1, in Experiment 2 the students attributed their success and failure depending on the teacher. In experiment 1, it was found that cooperative learning affected the students' attributions and in Experiment 2, it was not affected. Moreover, the findings showed that cooperative learning did not change the learning strategies of the students much, but some techniques could have effects on learning strategies. Additionally, in cooperative learning groups, the students had desire to direct the group so much and these

attitudes were demonstrated more by external students than internal students (Sucuoğlu, 2003).

A research conducted by Saritaş (2002) aimed to find out learning strategies, attitudes and performance levels of successful and unsuccessful problem solvers in cooperative and traditional classes. Pre-test post-test design was used for the research and the data were collected from the fourth graders at a primary school with a scale for problem solving strategies, video records, students' drafts, an achievement test and a scale for attitudes implemented in the experimental group taught with the Learning Together technique and in the control group taught by traditional methods for seven weeks. According to the findings, the achievement level of the experimental group was significantly higher than that in the control group. Moreover, the attitudes of the subjects were significantly more positive than those of the ones in the control group. There were significant differences between the learning strategies of the successful and unsuccessful problem solvers in the experimental and control groups in the pre-test while there were similarities in the post-test (Saritaş, 2002).

In another study done by Özder (2000), there were four groups used to determine the effects of cooperative mastery learning method and each of its components on mathematics achievement: experimental group 1 (cooperative learning), experimental group 2 (mastery learning), experimental group 3 (cooperative mastery learning) and a control group with no mastery or cooperative strategies. The results showed that the achievement of the low ability students in the second and third experimental groups was significantly higher than that of the control group at the level of total listening. Moreover, there were significant differences in the total scores among the high, medium and low ability students in the experimental groups 1 and 3 and also in the control group (Özder, 2000).

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

In this part, the model of the research will be explained in addition to the data collection instruments, the procedure, data collection and the analysis techniques.

3.1. THE MODEL OF THE RESEARCH

Some questions and hypotheses to be searched can drive from different sources, and a set of such interrelated hypotheses which constructs a theory can be dealt with for research by testing these hypotheses in a controlled context. This type of research is called as an experimental one since it requires an experiment to be carried out. Experimental research, which is analytic and deductive, needs to be constructed carefully in order to control and manipulate the variables the three of which are the population, the treatment and the measurement of the treatment. In an experimental research subjects are generally formed into groups, to whom specified and controlled treatments are given. These groups can be either natural or constructed specifically for the experiment. Then the effects of the treatment are studied. Therefore, what is meant with treatment, which is a controlled and intentional experience, is anything done to groups in order to measure the effect. Moreover, treatments are the independent variable in the research (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989: 135-137).

Kaptan (1973) states that the members of the control and experimental groups are chosen randomly and that as pre-tests and post-test are given to both groups at the same time, all the factors effecting the difference between the pre-tests and post tests of the experimental group are supposed to effect the difference between the pre-tests and post-tests of the control group as well.

Since this study also reflects the characteristics above, it can be considered as a pre-test post-test experimental research with a controlled group. There is a hypothesis which claims that cooperative learning activities have a positive effect on both anxiety and motivation in multilevel adult classes. As Seliger & Shohamy

(1989) states, the subjects are formed into two natural groups who are the learners attending the morning and afternoon classes of the first stage English courses organised by Uşak Halk Eğitim Merkezi ve Akşam Sanat Okulu in the second term of the 2005-2006 education period. This study has the quasi-experimental quality since the members in each of these classes were not chosen by the researcher. These two classes which were determined as the control and treatment groups had already existed in the institution. The treatment which is teaching a class with cooperative learning activities is implemented in one of the groups chosen as the experimental group and its effect is measured in terms of anxiety and motivation by comparing it to the measurement of the second group of subjects who are taught with the traditional methods and who are determined as the control group. Consequently, the independent variable in this research is cooperative learning activities whereas the dependent variables are motivation and anxiety.

3.2.THE POPULATION AND THE SAMPLE OF THE STUDY

The population of the study included the learners attending the morning, afternoon and evening classes of the first stage English courses organised by Uşak Halk Eğitim Merkezi ve Akşam Sanat Okulu in the second term of the 2005-2006 education period. The number of the officially registered students was 28 for the morning course whereas it was 35 for the afternoon course and 35 for the evening course. Therefore, a total of 98 students enrolled the courses organised by the institution. However, due to various reasons some learners never started their course and some others gave it up after some time. Consequently, the actual number of the students attending the classes was different from the number of the registered ones. There were 18 students in the morning class, 20 students in the afternoon class and 20 students in the evening class, which means that the actual population of the study was 58 students, 20 of whom were males and 38 of whom were females.

The sample of the study consisted of the learners attending the morning and afternoon courses owing to the fact that they were randomly determined as the experimental and control groups for the study. There were 4 males and 14 females in the morning group while there were 7 males and 13 females in the afternoon group.

Therefore, the number of the students in the sample was 38. However, 24 of the implemented questionnaires were considered to be valid. Detailed information for each group is provided in Tables 4 and 5.

Table 4: Some Characteristics of the Students Attending the Morning Course (the Treatment Group)

NAME	AGE	JOB	EDUCATION LEVEL	PREVIOUS LANGUAGE LEARNING EXPERIENCE	GENDER	REASON TO ATTEND THE COURSE
NİHAL KARAGÖL	31	student	Anadolu University Open Education Faculty	English courses in High School	Female	To pass the English courses in Open Education Faculty
NERVİN CENGİZ	21	student	Anadolu University Open Education Faculty	Knowledge of German due to being born there	Female	Just to learn English
SULTAN GÜNAYDIN	22	student	Two years of college	English courses in High School	Female	To start teaching English in a primary school
HATİCE BOZOĞLUER	26	technician	Two years of college	English courses in High School	Female	To communicate with the relatives abroad
ZÜBEYDE KAYA	20	student	Open Education High School	English courses in High School	Female	To pass the KPSS exam
GAMZE ARSLAN	29	unemployed	Graduated from primary school	English courses in Secondary School	Female	To start the Open High School Education
AYÇA AYGÜN	19	unemployed	Graduated from high school	English courses in High School	Female	To benefit from English in business contexts
FATOŞ CENGİZ	21	student	Anadolu University Open Education Faculty	English courses in High School	Female	To benefit from English in occupation
AHMET ETYEMEZ	22	student	Afyon Kocatepe University Education Faculty	English prep class in High School	Male	To get the certificate
AYŞE EKİNCİ	23	student	Afyon Kocatepe University Education Faculty	English courses in High School	Female	To teach English in primary school classes
MURAT YEŞİLKAYA	24	student	Anadolu University Open Education Faculty	English courses in High School	Male	To pass the exams in the school
HATİCE DAĞLIGİL	29	student	Anadolu University Open Education Faculty.	English courses in High School	Female	To benefit from English in business contexts

Table 5: Some Characteristics of the Students Attending the Afternoon Course (the Control Group)

NAME	AGE	JOB	EDUCATION LEVEL	PREVIOUS LANGUAGE LEARNING EXPERIENCE	GENDER	REASON TO ATTEND THE COURSE
NEVİN KAYA	47	retired	Graduated from high school	No experience	Female	To benefit on holidays abroad
MELİKE ÇÖKELEZ	21	student	Graduated from high school	English courses in High School	Female	To find a job more easily
ESİN IŞIK	27	unemployed	Graduated from high school	No experience	Female	For self-development
MEHMET GÜLENC	21	student	Anadolu University Open Education Faculty	English courses in High School	Male	As a free time activity
YAKUP AĞOLDAY	23	student	Afyon Kocatepe University Education Faculty	English courses in High School	Male	For self-development
AYŞEGÜL ÇAKIN	24	unemployed	Two years of college	English courses in High School	Female	To find a job more easily
HİLAL ŞAHİN	21	student	Anadolu University Open Education Faculty	English courses in High School	Female	For self-development
NECMETTİN BURÇAK	21	technician	Two years of college	English courses in High School	Male	To benefit from English in business life
MUSTAFA ÇİZMECİ	22	student	Afyon Kocatepe University Education Faculty	English courses in High School	Male	To teach English in primary school classes
CELALETTİN ÖZDEMİR	50	retired	Two years of college	French courses of the college	Male	As a free time activity
HATİCE KAVAK	19	student	Graduated from high school	English courses in High School	Female	Just to learn English
FİGAN SAVURAN	28	housewife	Graduated from university	Prep class education of university	Female	As a free time activity

3.3.DATA COLLECTING INSTRUMENTS

In this section, the instruments utilised to collect data are introduced.

3.3.1. Foreign Language Motivation Questionnaire

The Foreign Language Motivation Questionnaire (FLMQ) which was developed by Schmidt, Boraie & Kassabgy (1996) was translated into Turkish by the researcher. The adapted questionnaire consisted 50 items 36 of which were positive and 14 of which were negative. For each item the subjects were asked to record a response on a five-point Likert scale.

The following procedure was followed in order to evaluate the items:

For the positive items, the student who marked “Strongly Agree” option was given 5 points, the student who marked “Agree” option was given 4 points, the student who marked “Neither Agree Nor Disagree” option was given 3 points, the student who marked “Disagree” option was given 2 points and the student who marked “Strongly Disagree” option was given 1 point.

For the negative items, the student who marked “Strongly Disagree” option was given 5 points, the student who marked “Disagree” option was given 4 points, the student who marked “Neither Agree Nor Disagree” option was given 3 points, the student who marked “Agree” option was given 2 points and the student who marked “Strongly Agree” option was given 1 point.

Table 6: Scoring of Items in the Motivation Questionnaire

Attitude	Point	
	Positive	Negative
	Item	Item
Strongly Agree	5	1
Agree	4	2
Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3	3
Disagree	2	4
Strongly Disagree	1	5

3.3.1.1. Language Validity Analysis Of FLMQ

39 students of D.E.U. Buca Education Faculty, the Department of English Language Teaching were given the original questionnaire and two weeks later they were asked to answer the Turkish version of the questionnaire in order to determine the language validity. The data collected from both of the implementations were analysed in order to find out the Pearson Correlation Coefficient for each item and the Item – Total Correlation Statistics has been carried out.

Correlation coefficient and significance values for each item are presented in Table 7. According to the table, the items of 1, 4, 8, 9, 11, 12, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 26, 28, 29, 31, 33, 35, 36, 38, 40, 41, 42, 43, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49 and 50 had $p=0.01$ level of significance, the items of 3, 5, 10, 27, 30, 32, 34 and 39 had $p=0.05$ level of significance whereas the items of 2, 6, 7, 13, 24, 25, 37 and 44 had lower levels of correlation.

Table 7: Pearson Correlation Coefficients for Motivation Questionnaire

Item Number	r	p	Item Number	r	p
Item 1	,536	,000*	Item 26	,470	,003*
Item 2	,132	,423	Item 27	,404	,011**
Item 3	,400	,012**	Item 28	,512	,001*
Item 4	,713	,000*	Item 29	,529	,001*
Item 5	,356	,026**	Item 30	,332	,046**
Item 6	,094	,571	Item 31	,610	,000*
Item 7	-,056	,735	Item 32	,406	,010**
Item 8	,469	,003*	Item 33	,705	,000*
Item 9	,495	,001*	Item 34	,344	,032**
Item 10	,375	,019**	Item 35	,449	,004*
Item 11	,552	,000*	Item 36	,644	,000*
Item 12	,582	,000*	Item 37	,274	,091
Item 13	,291	,072	Item 38	,441	,005*
Item 14	,647	,000*	Item 39	,369	,021**
Item 15	,538	,000*	Item 40	,514	,001*
Item 16	,714	,000*	Item 41	,472	,002*
Item 17	,533	,000*	Item 42	,488	,002*
Item 18	,439	,005*	Item 43	,692	,000*
Item 19	,673	,000*	Item 44	,289	,074
Item 20	,562	,000*	Item 45	,684	,000*
Item 21	,574	,000*	Item 46	,509	,001*
Item 22	,578	,000*	Item 47	,704	,000*
Item 23	,666	,000*	Item 48	,791	,000*
Item 24	,301	,062	Item 49	,662	,000*
Item 25	,229	,162	Item 50	,832	,000*

*0,01 significance level

**0,05 significance level

According to the values given in the table, it was found out that the items of 2, 6, 7, 13, 24, 25, 37 and 44 did not have language validity and these items were deleted from the questionnaire. Consequently, a questionnaire of 42 items was constructed.

When Pearson Correlation Coefficient between the total points taken from all of the items was considered, the language validity of the questionnaire was calculated as 0,84.

3.3.1.2. Reliability of FLMQ

The result of the total-item correlation carried out to determine the reliability of the questionnaire showed that the items of 1 and 40 had negative values; therefore, these two items were deleted from the questionnaire. As a consequence of all these analysis, a questionnaire of 40 items was formed and the reliability of this questionnaire was calculated as 0,75. According to what Tavşancıl (2002) reports from Özdamar, the questionnaire is reliable.

3.3.2. Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)

In order to measure the anxiety levels of the subjects, the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) designed by Horwitz et al. (1986) was translated into Turkish by the researcher. The scale consisted 33 items which were accompanied by a 5-point Likert scale.

The following procedure was followed in order to evaluate the items:

For each item, the student who marked “Strongly Agree” option was given 5 points, the student who marked “Agree” option was given 4 points, the student who marked “Neither Agree Nor Disagree” option was given 3 points, the student who marked “Disagree” option was given 2 points and the student who marked “Strongly Disagree” option was given 1 point.

Table 8: Scoring of Items in the Anxiety Scale

Attitude	Point
Strongly Agree	5
Agree	4
Neither Agree Nor Disagre	3
Disagree	2
Strongly Disagree	1

3.3.2.1. Language Validity Analysis of FLCAS

39 students of D.E.U. Buca Education Faculty, the Department of English Language Teaching were given the original questionnaire and two weeks later they were asked to answer the Turkish version of the questionnaire in order to determine the language validity. The data collected from both of the implementations were analysed in order to find out Pearson Correlation Coefficient for each item and the Item – Total Correlation Statistics has been carried out.

Correlation coefficient and significance values for each item are presented in Table 9. According to the table, the items of 1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 23, 24, 26, 27, 28, 29, 31, 32 and 33 had $p=0.01$ level of significance, the items of 2, 8, 15 and 25 had $p=0.05$ level of significance whereas the items of 22 and 30 had lower levels of correlation.

Table 9: Pearson Correlation Coefficients for the Anxiety Scale

Item Number	r	p
Item 1	,739	,000*
Item 2	,407	,010**
Item 3	,599	,000*
Item 4	,667	,007*
Item 5	,425	,000*
Item 6	,542	,000*
Item 7	,533	,000*
Item 8	,340	,034**
Item 9	,718	,000*
Item 10	,540	,000*
Item 11	,618	,000*
Item 12	,459	,003*
Item 13	,785	,000*
Item 14	,456	,004*
Item 15	,353	,027**
Item 16	,640	,000*
Item 17	,638	,000*
Item 18	,727	,000*
Item 19	,582	,000*
Item 20	,653	,000*
Item 21	,571	,000*
Item 22	-,076	,647
Item 23	,693	,000*
Item 24	,652	,000*
Item 25	,357	,026**
Item 26	,802	,000*
Item 27	,851	,000*
Item 28	,676	,000*
Item 29	,671	,000*
Item 30	,060	,717
Item 31	,762	,000*
Item 32	,712	,000*
Item 33	,746	,000*

*0,01 significance level

**0,05 significance level

According to the values given in the table, it was found out that the items of 22 and 30 did not have language validity and these items were deleted from the scale. Consequently, a scale of 31 items was constructed.

When Pearson Correlation Coefficient between the total points taken from all of the items was considered, the language validity of the questionnaire was calculated as 0,82.

3.3.2.2. Reliability of FLCAS

The result of the total-item correlation carried out to determine the reliability of the scale revealed that the items of 2, 5, 8, 11, 14, 18, 24, 28 and 32 had negative values; therefore, these two items were deleted from the scale. As a consequence of all these analysis, a scale of 22 items was formed and the reliability of this scale was calculated as 0,95. According to what Tavşancıl (2002) reports from Özdamar, the questionnaire is highly reliable.

3.4.THE PROCEDURE AND DATA COLLECTION

When the English course programme of U.H.E.M.A.S.O. for the 2005-2006 academic year was analysed, it can be seen that the morning and afternoon classes are required to have 3 hours of courses on Tuesdays and Wednesdays and 2 hours of courses on Thursdays and Fridays. The evening group is required to have 4 hours of courses on Tuesdays while they need to have 3 hours of courses on Wednesdays and Thursdays. In other words, each group has 10 hours of lessons each week.

The content of the course programme was determined according to the general programme prepared by the Ministry of Education in 2004 for 1st stage English language courses of public education centres. New Hotline Starter and Elementary course books, which were thought to be in harmony with the general course programme in terms of the content and objectives, were planned to be covered.

3.4.1. Control and Experimental Groups

Because the study had a pre-test post-test experimental design with control group, a control group and an experimental group needed to be chosen from the three classes attending the English course. The evening group had a different programme from the

morning and afternoon groups; therefore, it was excluded from the study. The morning and afternoon classes were chosen as the experimental and control groups randomly.

3.4.2. The Procedure Followed in the Control Group

No cooperation was implemented in the control group. Teaching was carried out according to the suggestions of the selected course book. Each unit of the book started with an introduction page which presented and illustrated the learning objectives, main grammar points and learning to focus of the unit. Then the photo-story of Victoria Road introduced the main language items for the unit. Language work section enabled students to analyse and practise the new grammar points in detail. Reading, Listening, Interaction and Guided Writing parts developed students' reading, listening, speaking and writing skills and extended the main grammar point or introduced a new point. Finally, in the Learning Diary, students reviewed the unit. At the end of each week, students were tested on the unit they had covered.

3.4.3. The Procedure in the Treatment Group

In the treatment group, cooperative learning activities were implemented for the photo stories and reading sections of the course book. Thus, the students were taught thorough cooperative learning in 4-5 lessons in a week.

The students in this group were informed about the procedure so that they could be aware of the characteristics of the cooperative learning activities, what they were expected to do and what kind of skills and strategies they needed to apply in order to manage the tasks. Therefore, on the first day of the experimental process, the students were given a seminar about these points:

- 1) Cooperative group work will gain importance rather than individual work from then on.
- 2) Groups of three people will be formed by the teacher for the group activities and they will be announced to them.

- 3) In group work, each member is required to help the other members because they are dependent on each other.
- 4) The evaluation will be done in terms of each member's contribution to his/her group. This means that group task will not be accomplished by only one member, which will result in low scores.
- 5) The students' contribution and support is valued. Therefore, being the member of a group which is formed by high performing students is not important. Each student needs to improve his/her scores in order to bring points to his/her group. Even if a student is a low-scorer, he/she can bring points to his/her group as long as he/she can get a higher mark which may be lower than a high performing student's mark. Likewise, unless a high scoring student can not get a higher mark even though it is higher than everyone else in the class, he/she cannot bring any points to his/her group. This also means that team members need to help each other to achieve improvement.
- 6) The teacher will always assist them whenever they have a problem to show the ways to solve their problem. Whether they speak in English or in Turkish will also be checked by the teacher while they are working on the given task.
- 7) Each week the team which has got the highest improvement point will be chosen and the members will be given 100 without considering their actual scores.

3.4.3.1. Team Formation

The teams were formed with random grouping in the experimental group. For this the medium grade of each student's previous test scores was determined and listed from the highest to the lowest. Since it was planned to form groups of three people, the students were divided into three categories: high performing students, average performing students and low performing students. The students in the first and the third parts of the divided list were assigned letters of A, B, C, D, E, F while the ones

in the second part were assigned the letters of F, E, D, C, B, A. As each letter represented a group, the students assigned the same letters became team-mates. Consequently, six groups were formed for the treatment.

Table 10: Team Formation Procedure in the Treatment Group

	NAME	THE MEAN OF PREVIOUS GRADES	TEAM NAME
HIGH PERFORMING STUDENTS	SULTAN	92	A
	AHMET	87	B
	HATİCE D.	82	C
	FATOŞ	80	D
	GAMZE	79	E
	YUNUS	79	F
AVERAGE PERFORMING STUDENTS	NİHAL	79	F
	AYÇA	74	E
	MURAT C.	71	D
	ŞÜKRİYE K.	70	C
	NERVİN	70	B
	REMZİYE	69	A
LOW PERFORMING STUDENTS	AYŞE	67	A
	ZÜBEYDE	62	B
	ŞÜKRİYE KI.	60	C
	KÜBRA	58	D
	HATİCE B.	56	E
	MURAT Y.	40	F

Table 11: Cooperative Learning Groups in the Treatment Group

GROUP A	GROUP B	GROUP C
SULTAN	AHMET	HATİCE D.
REMZİYE	NERVİN	ŞÜKRİYE K.
AYŞE	ZÜBEYDE	ŞÜKİYE KI.
GROUP D	GROUP E	GROUP F
FATOŞ	GAMZE	NİHAL
MURAT C.	AYÇA	YUNUS
KÜBRA	HATİCE B.	MURAT Y.

3.4.3.2. Cooperative Learning Activities

The treatment group was taught with “Learning Together”, “Teamwork”, “Testing” and “Team Reward” techniques.

First, the students are informed about their team-mates. Then the lesson starts with the introduction and presentation of the unit on the introduction page. The teacher asks students some questions about the unit title and the introduction page so that the students can brainstorm about the topics to be covered. Then the teacher asks the students to look at the photo story and lets them listen to the dialogue in the story from the tape recorder and follow from their books. While doing so, the students are told to underline the new vocabulary items for them. Then the teacher writes the vocabulary items the students have underlined on the board and lets them guess the meanings. Then the teacher wants each group to come together and the students of the same group move their chairs in order to form a circle. The teacher divides the dialogue into three parts and writes them on the board and asks the group members to share these parts. The students share the dialogue as the teacher explains in a few minutes and then the teacher asks the students who are responsible for the first part

of the dialogue, the second part of the dialogue and the last part of it to come together. This means that there will be only three groups in the class: one which is studying on the first part of the dialogue, one which is studying on the second part of it and one which is studying the last part of it. The teacher wants each group to work on the parts they are responsible for in order to teach the part to other group members who have not studied that particular part. The students work on the vocabulary items, grammar points and pronunciation of the sentences in their part of the dialogue. When these three groups have finished, the teacher asks the students to go back to their old groups consisting three people and wants them to teach what they have learnt to the other members. When they have finished, the teacher chooses some students randomly from different groups to role play the dialogue and asks comprehension questions in order to check whether they have been taught well and whether they have worked efficiently or not. At the end of the week, the students are given a test about the unit covered and each group's improvement point is calculated.

The photo story and the reading passage of each unit in the course book were taught through cooperative learning. The topics covered with cooperation are shown in Table 12.

Table 12: Topics Covered with Cooperation

DATE	TOPIC
14.02.2006	Sue's Coat
16.02.2006	Amazing Escapes
21.02.2006	Terry's Story
23.02.2006	James Dean
28.02.2006	Terry's Problem
02.03.2006	Sleep Sleep Sleep
07.03.2006	Sue Teases Terry
09.03.2006	The King Of Rock And Roll

14.03.2006	Jackie Arrives
16.03.2006	Hartfield
21.03.2006	Sue Goes To Spain
23.06.2006	An Expedition To Save The Planet
28.03.2006	Kamala's Story
30.03.2006	The Adventure
04.04.2006	Sue Fights Back
06.04.2006	20 th Century Fashion

3.4.3.3. Team Reward

In order to calculate the team points, the means of the students' previous scores and their test scores were compared and the improvement point was given to each member according to the schedule given in Table 13.

Table 13: Improvement Points of Cooperative Groups

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN TWO SCORES	IMPROVEMENT POINT
-10	0
0	10
+10	20
+11 AND OVER	30
NO MISTAKE (WITHOUT CONSIDERING THE PREVIOUS SCORE)	30

Each student's improvement point was calculated accordingly as shown in Table 14:

Table 14: Improvement Points of the Cooperative Groups in the Treatment Group

GROUP S	MEMBERS	BASE SCORE	TEST SCORE	IMPROVEMENT POINT	GROUP POINT
A	SULTAN	92	84	0	0
	REMZİYE	69	42	0	
	AYŞE	67	66	0	
B	AHMET	87	94	20	7
	NREVİN	70	57	0	
	ZÜBEYDE	62	48	0	
C	HATİCE D.	82	86	20	17
	ŞÜKRİYE K.	70	37	0	
	ŞÜKRİYE KI.	60	73	30	
D	FATOŞ	80	68	0	0
	MURAT C.	71	64	0	
	KÜBRA	58	30	0	
E	GAMZE	79	59	0	0
	AYÇA	74	56	0	
	HATİCE B.	56	30	0	
F	NİHAL	79	37	0	0
	YUNUS	79	73	0	
	MURAT Y.	40	20	0	

According to the results of the first quiz, group C became the most successful team of the first week and all the group members were given 100 as it had been told them.

Moreover, the groups were changed twice accordingly throughout the experiment.

3.4.4. Data Gathering

The experimental process can be summarised like this:

Table 15: The Data Gathering Procedure

Group	Before the treatment	The treatment	After the treatment	
	Date	14.02.2006	14-02.2006 / 06.04.2006	07.04.2006
Treatment group	The tests implemented	FLMQ FLCAS	COOPERATIVE LEARNING	FLMQ FLCAS
	Date	14.02.2006	14-02.2006 / 06.04.2006	07.04.2006
Control group	The tests implemented	FLMQ FLCAS	TRADITIONAL TEACHING	FLMQ FLCAS

3.5.DATA ANALYSIS TECHNIQUES

The data have been analysed with SPSS packet programme. The students' scores gathered from the pre-tests and post-tests have been transferred to the SPSS programme and analysed by using "Mann Whitney U test", "Wilcoxon Signed Rank test" and "the comparison of the means of the two groups" techniques. The results have been considered at $p < 0,05$ significance level.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATIONS

In this part, the results of the data analysis will be given. The presentation of the data analysis will be done according to the research problems and the results will be discussed.

4.1.The Effects of Cooperative Learning on Motivation in Multilevel Adult Classes

The analysis done to find out the answer to the question “Does cooperation have a significant effect on motivation in multilevel adult classes?” and the results of the analysis will be presented in this part.

The first analysis tries to determine whether there is a difference between the motivations of the control and experimental groups before the experimentation.

The results of the Mann Whitney U test are shown in Table 16. When the values are analysed, it is seen that there is not a significant difference between the means.

Table 16: The results of the analysis of Mann Whitney U test carried out using the pre-test scores of the treatment and control groups' motivation questionnaires

Group	n	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	z	p
Treatment	12	10,67	128	50	-1,253	0,203
Control	12	14,33	172			

Table 17 reveals that the value of $t=1,088$ has been received as a result of the comparison of the means of the two groups; therefore, it cannot be considered to have the significance of $p<0,05$ level.

Table 17: The results of the analysis of the comparison of the means of the treatment and control groups' motivation questionnaire pre-test scores

Group	n	X	SS	t
Experimental	12	147	7,96	1,088
Control	12	151	9,92	

This result indicates that the treatment and control groups have equal levels of motivation before the experimentation and there is not a significant difference between them. When the average values are considered ($X_E= 147$, $X_C= 151$), it is seen that the control group has a positive tendency in terms of their motivation levels rather than the treatment group.

The results of Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test carried out by comparing the scores of the pre-test and post-test in order to determine whether any difference in the motivation level of the treatment group has occurred due to the cooperative learning activities are shown in Table 18. When the values are analysed, it is revealed that there is no significant difference of $p<0,05$ level.

Table 18: The results of the analysis of Wilcoxon Signed Rank test carried out using the pre-test and post-test scores of the treatment group's motivation questionnaire

Pre-test / Post-test	n	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	P
Negative Ranks	4	6,75	27		
Positive Ranks	7	5,57	39	-0,534	0,593
Ties	1				

When the means of the two groups are compared ($X_1= 147$, $X_2= 144$), the value of $t=0,480$ has been calculated and a significant result can not be achieved. The means indicate a tendency in a negative way.

Table 19: The results of the analysis of the comparison of the means of the pre-test and post-test scores of the treatment group's motivation questionnaires

Treatment Group	n	X	SS	t
Pre-test	12	147	7,96	0,480
Post-test	12	144	20,02	

All these analysis reveal that cooperative learning activities do not have any significant effect on the motivation level of the treatment group and that there is a negative tendency in terms of motivation.

The results of Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test carried out by comparing the scores of the pre-test and post-test in order to determine whether any difference in the motivation level of the control group has occurred due to the cooperative learning activities are shown in Table 20. When the values are analysed, it is revealed that there is no significant difference of $p<0,05$ level.

Table 20: The results of the analysis of Wilcoxon Signed Rank test carried out using the pre-test and post-test scores of the control group's motivation questionnaire

Pre-test / Post-test	n	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	P
Negative Ranks	5	5,30	26,5		
Positive Ranks	6	6,58	39,5	-0,579	0,562
Ties	1				

Table 21 shows the analysis results of the comparison of the pre-test and post-test scores of the control group. When the means of the two groups are compared ($X_1=151$, $X_2=150$), the value of $t=0,028$ has been calculated.

Table 21: The results of the analysis of the comparison of the means of the pre-test and post-test scores of the control group's motivation questionnaires

Control Group	n	X	SS	t
Pre-test	12	151	9,92	
Post-test	12	150	12,72	0,028

These findings show that the motivation level does not change after the experimentation. When the average values are analysed ($X_1=151$, $X_2=150$), it can be realised that there is a negative tendency in the control group as well.

The results of Mann Whitney U Test carried out by comparing the scores of the pre-test and post-test in order to determine whether any difference in the motivation levels of the control and experimental groups has occurred due to the

experimentation are shown in Table 22. When the values are analysed, it is revealed that there is no significant difference of $p < 0,05$ level.

Table 22: The results of the analysis of Mann Whitney U test carried out using the post-test scores of the treatment and control groups' motivation questionnaires

Group	n	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	z	p
Treatment	12	11,92	143	65	-0,405	0,686
Control	12	13,08	157			

The values which have been calculated with the comparison of the means of the post-test scores of the both groups can be seen in Table 23. The analysis have resulted in the calculation the value of $t = 0,952$ and no significant result at the level of $p < 0,05$ has been gained.

Table 23: The results of the analysis of the comparison of the means of the post-test scores of the treatment and control groups' motivation questionnaires

Group	n	X	SS	t
Treatment	12	144	20,02	0,952
Control	12	150	12,72	

The findings suggest that neither of the groups has achieved any significant value in terms of motivation as a result of the experimentation; however, it reveals that there is a negative tendency in both groups.

The results of the analysis carried out between the pre-test and post-test scores of the control and experimental groups in order to determine whether there is a relation between the negative tendencies of the two groups are presented in Table 24.

As a result of the analysis, the value of $t=0,040$ has been calculated and it has been revealed that there is no significant result at $p<0,05$ level.

Table 24: The results of the analysis of the comparison of the means of the pre-test and post-test scores of the treatment and control groups' motivation questionnaires

Group		n	X	SS	t
Treatment	Pre-test	12	147	7,96	0,040
	Post-test	12	144	20,02	
Control	Pre-test	12	151	9,92	
	Post-test	12	150	12,72	

The findings show that there is no significant difference at the level of $p<0,05$ between the tendencies observed between the pre-test and post-test scores of the treatment and control groups.

All these analysis reveal that neither cooperative learning nor traditional teaching has a significant effect on the motivation of adults in multilevel classes.

4.2.The Effects of Cooperative Learning on Anxiety in Multilevel Adult Classes

The results of the analysis carried out to answer the second research question which is "Does cooperation have a significant effect on anxiety in multilevel adult classes?" will be presented in this part.

The first analysis about the problem aim to determine whether there is a difference between the anxiety levels of the experimental and control groups before the experimentation.

The findings of the Mann Whitney U test are shown in Table 25. When the values are analysed, it is seen that there is no significant difference at the level of $p<0,05$.

Table 25: The results of the analysis of Mann Whitney U test carried out using the pre-test scores of the treatment and control groups' anxiety scales

Group	n	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	z	p
Treatment	12	11,17	134	56	-0,616	0,538
Control	11	12,91	142			

Table 26 shows the values calculated with the comparison of the means of both of the groups. When the values are considered, it is found out that there is no significant value at the level of $p < 0,05$ due to the level of $t = 0,061$ as a result.

Table 26: The results of the analysis of the comparison of the means of the pre-test scores of the treatment and control groups' anxiety scales

Group	n	X	SS	t
Treatment	12	49	15,53	0,061
Control	11	51	15,29	

The findings suggest that there is no significant difference between the anxiety levels of the treatment and control groups before the experimentation. When the means are considered ($X_E = 49$, $X_C = 51$), it is seen that the treatment group has a rather negative attitude in terms of anxiety.

The results of Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test carried out by comparing the scores of the pre-test and post-test in order to determine whether any difference in the anxiety level of the experimental group has occurred due to the cooperative learning activities are shown in Table 27. When the values are analysed, it is revealed that there is no significant difference of $p < 0,05$ level.

Table 27: The results of the analysis of Wilcoxon Signed Rank test carried out using the pre-test and post-test scores of the treatment group's anxiety scale

Pre-test / Post-test	n	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	P
Negative Ranks	5	5,80	29		
Positive Ranks	6	6,17	37	-0,356	0,722
Ties	1				

Table 28 reveals that the comparison of the means of the two groups gives the value of $t=0,798$ and this t value is not significant at the level of $p<0,05$.

Table 28: The results of the analysis of the comparison of the means of the pre-test and post-test scores of the treatment group's anxiety scales

Treatment group	n	X	SS	t
Pre-test	12	49	15,53	
Post-test	12	53	19,71	0,798

According to the average values ($X_1= 49$, $X_2= 53$), there is not a significant difference at the level of $p<0,05$ between the pre-test and post-test scores of the treatment group; however, it is seen that the students are in a positive tendency.

The findings show that Cooperative Learning has a positive effect on anxiety even though the difference is not significant.

The results of Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test carried out by comparing the scores of the pre-test and post-test in order to determine whether any difference in the

anxiety level of the control group has occurred due to the cooperative learning activities are shown in Table 29. When the values are analysed, it is revealed that there is no significant difference of $p < 0,05$ level.

Table 29: The results of the analysis of Wilcoxon Signed Rank test carried out using the pre-test and post-test scores of the control group's anxiety scale

Pre-test / Post-test	n	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	P
Negative Ranks	6	5,17	31		
Positive Ranks	4	6,00	24	-0,357	0,721
Ties	1				

Table 30 reveals that the comparison of the means of the two groups gives the value of $t=0,449$ and this t value shows that the anxiety level of the control group has not changed significantly after the experimentation.

Table 30: The results of the analysis of the comparison of the means of the pre-test and post-test scores of the control group's anxiety scales

Control group	n	X	SS	t
Pre-test	11	51	15,29	
Post-test	11	54	16,75	0,449

Although the findings suggest that the anxiety level of the control group has not changed significantly after the experimentation, it is seen that the students have a positive attitude in terms of their anxiety.

The results of Mann Whitney U Test carried out by comparing the scores of the pre-test and post-test in order to determine whether any difference in the anxiety levels of the control and experimental groups has occurred due to the experimentation are shown in Table 31. When the values are analysed, it is revealed that there is no significant difference of $p < 0,05$ level.

Table 31: The results of the analysis of Mann Whitney U test carried out using the post-test scores of the treatment and control groups' anxiety scales

Group	n	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	z	p
Treatment	12	11,67	140	62	-0,247	0,805
Control	11	12,36	136			

As a result of the comparison of the means of the two groups the value of $t=0,019$ has been calculated and this is not significant at the level of $p < 0,05$. The findings are shown in Table 32.

Table 32: The results of the analysis of the comparison of the means of the post-test scores of the treatment and control groups' anxiety scales

Group	n	X	SS	t
Treatment	12	53	19,71	0,019
Control	11	54	16,75	

The differences between the pre-test and post-test scores of the treatment and control groups have been analysed in order to find out whether there is a relation between the positive tendencies of the two groups and the results are shown in Table

33. The analysis have resulted in the value of $t=0,083$ and it is understood that there is no significant result at the level of $p<0,05$.

Table 33: The results of the analysis of the comparison of the means of the pre-test and post-test scores of the treatment and control groups' anxiety scales

Group		n	X	SS	t
Treatment	Pre-test	12	49	15,53	0,083
	Post-test	12	53	19,71	
Control	Pre-test	11	51	15,29	
	Post-test	11	54	16,75	

The findings indicate that there is no significant difference at the level of $p<0,05$ between the pre-test and post-test scores of the treatment and control groups.

Finally, all these analysis show that neither Cooperative Learning nor the traditional learning has a significant effect on the anxiety levels of the learners in multilevel adult classes.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

In this chapter of the study, Conclusions and Discussions related to the Effects of Cooperative Learning on Motivation in Multilevel Adult Classes and Conclusions and Discussions related to the Effects of Cooperative Learning on Anxiety in Multilevel Adult Classes that are yielded by the data collecting instruments are highlighted. Finally, suggestions for further research are presented.

5.1. CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSIONS

The first part of this section presents the findings of the FLMQ and the second part deals with the findings of the FLCAS.

5.1.1. Conclusions and Discussions Related to the Effects of CL on Motivation in Multilevel Adult Classes

The findings obtained from the FLMQ suggest these conclusions:

- 1) There is no significant difference between the motivation levels of the control and treatment groups before the treatment.
- 2) There is no significant difference between the motivation levels of the treatment group before and after the treatment.
- 3) There is no significant difference between the motivation levels of the control group before and after the treatment.
- 4) There is no significant difference between the motivation levels of the control and treatment groups after the treatment.
- 5) There is no significant difference between the motivation levels of the control and treatment groups before and after the treatment.

The decrease in the motivation levels of both the control and treatment groups can be explained with the tiredness of the students at the end of the course. As the students were given the post-test at the end of their course, they might have lost their motivation. This finding is similar to the results of the study conducted by Deliçay (2005), which revealed that 1st grade students were more motivated to learn Arabic than the third grade students, which could be explained with the 1st grade students' excitement as well as with the third grade students' worry about their future after their graduation. Another similar research of Gençay & Gençay (2007) showed that there was a decline in the students' motivation as they moved to upper classes in the School of Physical education and Sport.

5.1.2. Conclusions and Discussions Related to the Effects of CL on Anxiety in Multilevel Adult Classes

The findings obtained from the FLCAS reveal these conclusions:

- 1) There is no significant difference between the anxiety levels of the control and treatment groups before the treatment.
- 2) There is no significant difference between the anxiety levels of the treatment group before and after the treatment.
- 3) There is no significant difference between the anxiety levels of the control group before and after the treatment.
- 4) There is no significant difference between the anxiety levels of the control and treatment groups after the treatment.
- 5) There is no significant difference between the anxiety levels of the control and treatment groups before and after the treatment.

The increase in the anxiety levels of both the control and treatment groups can be explained with the frustration and uneasiness of the students at the end of the course. As the students were given the post-test at the end of their course, they might have got more anxious. Moreover, the students were given the end of the course test just after the post-test, which might have risen their anxiety due to their worry about the final test. This finding is similar to the results of the study conducted by

Onwuegbuzie, Bailey & Daley (1997), which revealed that freshmen and sophomores had the lowest levels of anxiety, and levels increased linearly as a function of year of study in language courses at university. So, this means that learners become more anxious as they get into an upper class of a language course and the increase in the students anxiety levels in this study can be explained with this situation.

5.2.SUGGESTIONS

This study has aimed to find out the effects of CL on motivation and anxiety in multilevel adult classes.

The sample of this study included 12 students attending the first stage English morning course and 12 students attending the first stage English afternoon course at Uşak Halk Eğitim Merkezi ve Akşam Sanat Okulu in the second term of the 2005-2006 education period. Therefore, the findings have validity only for the participants in the sample of this study. The sample of the research can involve more participants from different public education courses in different cities and from different adult ELT courses in different institutions.

Particular reasons of the decrease in motivation and increase in anxiety in multilevel adult classes may be investigated in another research.

Another research may focus on the effects of other teaching methods on anxiety and motivation in multilevel adult classes.

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APPENDIX

- 1. English Language Course Programme for Public Education Centers**
- 2. FLMQ Sample Items**
- 3. FLCAS Sample Items**
- 4. A Sample Lesson Plan**

T.C
MİLLİ EĞİTİM BAKANLIĞI
Çıracılık ve Yaygın Eğitim Genel Müdürlüğü

HALK EĞİTİM MERKEZLERİ
İNGİLİZCE
KURS PROGRAMI

ANKARA

2004

GİRİŞ

Bilim ve teknolojinin gelişmesi, dünya üzerindeki ulusların birbirleriyle daha yakın ilişkiler kurmasına neden olmuştur ve yeryüzünde değişik toplumların kullandıkları konuşulan dil sayısı ortalama dört binden fazla olduğu düşünüldüğünde, gittikçe artan uluslararası ilişkilerde, ulusların kendi dilleriyle iletişim kurmalarını yetersiz kılmıştır. Bu nedenle başlayan diğer ülkelerin dillerinin öğrenme gereksinimi yadsınamaz hale gelmiştir.

Öğrenilecek yabancı dilin seçimindeki ölçütler genelde politik ve ekonomik durumlar olup, kültürel, tarihsel ve ticari ilişkiler de öğrenilecek dilin önemini artırmaktadır. Çağdaş uygarlık düzeyine çıkmayı kendine hedef olarak almış olan Türkiye, jeopolitik ve siyasal konumu açısından çeşitli ülkeler ile anlaşmalar yapmış, birçok uluslararası kuruluşu üye olmuştur. Uluslararası örgütlerde resmi dil olarak batı dillerinin kullanılması, ağırlık İngilizce olmak üzere bu dillerin öğretimi Türkiye'deki okul programlarına konulmasına neden olmuştur.

Evrensel standartlara ulaşabilmenin ve uygarlık değerlerini en iyi şekilde kavramanın yolu sağlam bir yabancı dil bilgisinden geçmek olduğu bilinci bugün birçok kimse tarafından anlaşılmaktadır. Yabancı dil öğretiminin amacı olarak yer alan “dinlediğini anlayabilme, konuşabilme, okuduğunu anlayabilme ve yazabilme” biçiminde belirtilen temel iletişim becerilerini öğrenci davranışlarına kazandırmak en önemli hedeftir.

Dünyadaki gelişmeleri zamanında ve kolayca izleyebilen, dış dünya ile iletişim kurabilen, evrensel bilgi ve değerlere sahip bireyler yetiştirilmesi amacıyla Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı Çıraklık ve Yaygın Eğitim Genel Müdürlüğüne bağlı Halk Eğitimi Merkezlerinde “İngilizce Dersi” programı iki kademeli olarak birinci kademesi 340 saat, ikinci kademesi 320 saat olarak hazırlanmıştır.

Bu programdan yararlanabilecek kursiyerler; Yaygın Eğitim Kurumları Yönetmeliğinin 101. maddesi kapsamına giren kursa kabul özelliklerini “

- a) T.C vatandaşı olmak koşulu aranır (Yabancı uyruklu olanlar için valilik izni gerekir).

b) Yaygın eğitim etkinliklerinden yararlanmak için yaş sınırı yoktur. Ancak

ilköğretim çağında bulunanlar devam ettikleri öğrenim kurumlarının öğrenime kapalı olduğu sürelerde etkinliklere katılabilirler. Belirli yaş ve

eğitim düzeyi programın özelliğine göre gerektiğinde aranır.”

Taşır nitelikte olmalıdır.

Programın uygulanmasında kursiyerlerin eğitim düzeyleri, ilgi ve gereksinimleri, çevre koşulları gibi etmenler dikkate alınarak, gerektiğinde vatandaşlık bilgisi, Türkçe dilbilgisi, drama teknikleri çevre sağlığı, ilk yardım gibi konulara da yer verilecektir. Kurslar Halk Eğitim Merkezlerinde yürütülecek, gerek görüldüğü takdirde çevre kurum, kuruluş ve işletmelerde uygulamalar yaptırılacaktır.

PROGRAMIN HAZIRLANMASINDA ESAS ALINAN İLKELER

1. Dört Temel Beceriye Geliştirme

Dört temel beceri olarak kabul edilen dinleme, konuşma, okuma ve yazma becerilerinin kazandırılması dil öğretilirken kazandırılması gerekmektedir.

2. Bilinenden Bilinmeyene, Yakından Uzağa Doğru Öğretme

Yabancı dil öğretiminde konular basitten karmaşığa, somut kavramlardan soyuta doğru öğretilmelidir.

3. Görsel ve İşitsel Araçları Kullanma

Öğretimin daha etkili olmasını sağlamak, öğrencinin dikkatini derse çekmek, ezberi azaltmak ve sınıfta doğal ortamın oluşmasına yardımcı olmak için görsel ve işitsel araçlar mümkün olduğunca kullanılmalıdır.

4. Türkçe'yi Yalnızca Gerekli Durumlarda Kullanma

Öğrenilen dili daha çok duymanın ve kullanmanın verimli olması esasına dayanılarak derslerde öğrenci merkezli tekniklere yer verilmelidir. Türkçe yapılan açıklamalar kısa ve öz olmalıdır.

5. Dili bir Bütün Olarak Öğretme

Tüm dil becerileri ve öğeleri aynı anda öğretilmeli, öğretmen de bildiklerinin hepsini aynı anda öğretmeye çalışmamalıdır. Temel öğeler ayrıntıya girilmeden verilmelidir.

6. Verilen Bilgilerin Günlük Yaşama Aktarılmasını Sağlama

Dil öğretiminde kullanılan örneklerin gerçek yaşamdan verilip öğrencinin ihtiyaçlarına uygun olduğu aktarılmalıdır.

7. Öğrencilerin Derse Daha Etkin Katılımlarını Sağlama

Öğrencilerin derse daha etkin katılmalarını sağlayacak tekniklere yer verilmelidir.

8. Bireysel Farklılıkları Dikkate Alma

Öğrencilerin farklı ilgi, yetenek ve öğrenme hızları olduğu göz önüne alınarak sınıfta yapılacak etkinliklere öğretmen çeşitlilik getirerek verimli hale getirmeye çalışmalıdır.

9. Öğrencileri Güdüleme ve Yüreklendirme

Öğretmen öğrenciyi öğrenilecek konuyla ilgi motive edip onların daha katılımcı olmalarını sağlamalıdır.

YABANCI DİL ÖĞRETİMİNDE GENEL İLKELER

Yukarıda açıklanan temel ilkeler dışında kalan genel ilkeler aşağıda verilmiştir.

1. Öğretimde tüm becerilere eşit önem verilmesi,
2. Günlük iletişimde kullanılan dilin öğretilmesi,
3. Öğrenilen dilin seslerini, anlaşılır biçimde çıkarmalarının öğrencilere öğretilmesi,
4. Amaç dilde sorun olan sesletim yapılarının üzerinde durulması,
5. Öğretim materyallerinin öğrencilerin hazır bulunuşluk düzeyine göre sunulması,
6. Öğrencilere öğrendiklerini kullanma olanağının tanınması,
7. Dil sözcük ve yapılarının bir bütünlük içinde sunulması,
8. Başlangıç düzeyinde öğrencilerin katılımını artırmak için cesaretlendirilmesi,
9. Bir seferde bir tek sorunla uğraşılması,
10. Amaç dilin, o dili ana dili olarak konuşan kişilerle anlaşabileceği gibi öğretilmesi,
11. Amaç dilin, dilden ayrılamaz olan kültür öğelerinin açıklanması,
12. Amaç dilin yaşadığı kültürü tanıtabilmek üzere öğretilmesi,
13. Sınıf içi bireysel farklılıkların dikkate alınması,
14. Öğrencilerin sınıfta daha çok konuşma becerilerini sergilemelerine olanak sağlanması,
15. Öğretim amaçlarını gerçekleştireci etkinliklere yer verilmesi,
16. Fırsat eğitimine yeri geldiğinde yer verilmesi,
17. Öğrencilere sorumluluk verilmesi, öğrencilerin bireysel çalışmalar için yönlendirilmesi, Bu çalışmaların öğrencilerin farklı yönelişlere cevap verecek nitelikte olmasına dikkat edilmesi,
18. Dersi planlarken derse çeşitlilik getirmeye dikkat edilmesi,

19. “Ne istiyorsan onu test et” anlayışının dil öğretim becerilerinin test edilmesinde uygulanması,
20. Öğrenme-öğretme sürecinin değerlendirilmesinin en az ürün değerlendirilmesi kadar önemli olduğunun farkına varılması.

HALK EĞİTİM MERKEZLERİNDE İNGİLİZCE DERSİNİN AMAÇLARI

A. Genel Amaçlar

1. İngilizce'yi normal hızda konuşulduğunda anlayabilme.
2. Anlaşılır şekilde İngilizce konuşabilme.
3. İngilizce bir parçayı sesli ve sessiz okuduğunda doğru olarak anlayabilme.
4. Duygu, düşünce ve izlenimlerini yazıyla açık ve anlaşılır bir şekilde ifade edebilme.
5. İngilizce'nin konuşulduğu ülkelerin kültür değerlerinin farkında olma.
6. İngilizce iletişim kurmaya istekli olma.
7. Farklı kültür ve değerlerini hoşgörü ile karşılayabilme.
8. İngilizce öğrenimi süresince ve mezuniyetinden sonra dili öğrenmede kararlı olma.

B. Özel Amaçlar

Halk Eğitim Merkezlerindeki İngilizce öğretimin başlangıç devresi (İlk Kademe) Amaçları:

- a) Basit ve bileşik cümlelerden (simple, compound ve complex sentences) oluşan bir parçada geçen kelimelerin anlam bilgisi.
- b) Basit ve bileşik cümleleri anlayabilme.
- c) Basit ve bileşik cümle öğelerinin bilgisi.
- d) Basit ve bileşik cümlelerle ilgili belli başlı dilbilgisi kuralları bilgisi.
- e) Günlük konuşmada kullanılan belli başlı İngilizce kısaltmalar bilgisi.
- f) Düzeye uygun noktalama işaretleri bilgisi.
- g) Basit ve bileşik cümlelerden oluşan bir parçayı dinlediğinde anlayabilme.
- h) Basit cümlelerden oluşan bir parçayı bir başka basit anlatım biçimine çevirebilme.

- i) Normal hızda ve düzeyde uygun bir karşılıklı konuşmayı anlayabilme.
- j) Basit ve bileşik cümlelerden oluşan bir parçayı okuduğunda anlayabilme.
- k) Basit cümlelerde normal hızda ve düzgün bir telaffuzla konuşabilme.
- l) Günlük yaşantıyla ilgili basit ve bileşik cümlelerden oluşan bir parçada bilmediği kelimelerin anlamlarını kestirebilme.
- m) Günlük yaşantıyı basit ve bileşik cümlelerle yazılı olarak ifade edebilme.
- n) İngilizce öğrenmeye istekli olma.
- o) İngilizce öğrenmekten zevk alma.

Halk Eğitim Merkezlerindeki İngilizce öğretimin Orta Kademenin Amaçları:

- a) Genellikle bileşik cümlelerden oluşan bir parçada geçen kelimelerin anlam bilgisi.
- b) Bileşik cümle(compound complex) öğelerinin sıra bilgisi.
- c) İngilizce imla kuralları bilgisi.
- d) Günlük hayatta kullanılan belli başlı kısaltmalar bilgisi.
- e) İki veya daha çok basit cümleyi verilen bağlaçlar yardımıyla bileşik cümle haline çevirebilme.
- f) Seviyesine uygun bileşik (compound complex) cümlelerden oluşan bir parçayı (authentic material) dinlediğinde anlayabilme.
- g) Seviyesine uygun olarak normal hızda yapılan her konuşmayı anlayabilme.
- h) Bileşik (compound complex) cümlelerden oluşan bir parçayı okuduğunda anlayabilme.
- i) Verilen bir duruma uygun olarak genellikle bileşik cümleler kullanarak, normal hızda ve düzgün bir telaffuzla konuşabilme.
- j) Günlük yaşantıyla ilgili olan bileşik (compound complex) cümlelerden oluşan bir parçada bilmediği kelime ve deyimlerin anlamını kestirebilme.
- k) İmla kurallarını İngilizce bir parçada doğru olarak kullanabilme.
- l) Günlük yaşantıyı tabii bir biçimde sözlü olarak anlatabilme.

- m) Günlük yaşantıyı bileşik (compound complex) cümlelerle yazılı olarak ifade edebilme.
- n) Düzeyine uygun İngilizce yayınları izlemeye istek duyma.
- o) İngilizce konuşmaktan zevk alma.

PROGRAMIN YAKLAŞIMI

Bu programa temel oluşturan yaklaşım **İletişimci Yaklaşımdır**(Communicative Approach) Ancak öğrenim esnasında bilişsel öğrenme yaklaşımı(Cognitive-Code Approach), Seçmeli Yaklaşım(Eclectic Method) gibi yaklaşımlara ait yöntem ve teknikler de kullanılmalıdır. Öğrencilerin konuya ilgi, yetenek ve öğrenme durumlarına göre öğretmen yöntem ve teknik değiştirebilmelidir.

İletişimci Yaklaşımın Kullanım Özellikleri

- a. Öğrenci için anlamlı olan sözlü ve yazılı iletişim etkinliklerine ağırlık verilir.
- b. Öğrenme öğrenci merkezlidir.
- c. Öğretim etkinlikleri daha çok karşılıklı diyalog, grup çalışması, benzetim, problem çözme ve eğitsel oyunlarla öğrenime dayanır.
- d. Amaç dilde yazılmış ve günlük iletişimde kullanılan özgün materyaller öğretim için kullanılır.
- e. Öğretmenin rolü, öğrencilere amaçlarına uygun bir şekilde iletişim kurmaları için yardımcı olmaktır.

PROGRAMDA KULLANILMASI ÖNGÖRÜLEN TEKNİKLER

Programda kullanılması yararlı teknikler aşağıda verilmiştir. Öğretmen uyguladığı yönteme göre kullanacağı teknikler üzerinde değişiklikler yapabilir.

- a) Gösteri (demonstration)
- b) Soru-cevap (Question-answer)
- c) Drama ve Rol Yapma (Drama and Role-Play)
- d) Benzetim (Simulation)
- e) İkili ve Grup Çalışmaları (Pair-Work and Group-Work),

- f) Eğitsel Oyunlar (Communication Games)
- g) Gramer Oyunlar (Grammar Games)

İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETİMİNDE GÖRSEL İŞİTSEL ARAÇLAR

Öğretimin kalıcı ve verimli olması amacıyla imkanlar ölçüsünde görsel ve işitsel araçlardan yararlanılması gerekmektedir. Kitaplar, resimler, posterler, gerçek eşya ve modeller, teyp ve ses bantları VCD, İnternet, projektör gibi araçlar öğretimi monotonluktan çıkarıp doğal yaşamdaki dilin kullanımını örneklemekte fayda sağlar.

İNGİLİZCE DERSİ BAŞLANGIÇ DÜZEYİ (İLK KADEME) PROGRAMI

Functions	Language areas and Structure Sets	Vocabulary Sets	Period Sürsaat
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Giving personal information and opinion about beliefs and cultural differences 	If..pres. tense, you may... If.....you will....	Despite although Where as Yet however	25
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Expressing preferences ● Giving information about present and past ● Giving information about future 	Definite, indefinite, zero article Tense contrast Past simple, past continuous, present continuous, relatives	Vocabulary related to fashion and clothing	25
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Expressing future plans ● Giving information about possibilities ● Inviting someone ● Making an excuse 	May/might possibility Would you like... Wh- questions	Phrasal verbs: take Present gift and drinks	25
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Making a request about transportation and accommodation ● Complaining about transportation and accommodation 	Could for request Would you mind.. Reflexive pronouns Let s.o do smth	Means of transport. Symbols of transportation and accommodation	25
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Giving information about national, foreign and international cultural events. ● Agreeing and disagreeing 	Recycling present simple & past simple Present simple passive Past simple passive So do I neither do I	Vocabulary related to food festivals life styles	25
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Giving information about recent events ● Expressing duration ● Reporting 	Recycling present perfect For / since Indirect speech Imperative statements reported	Past participle forms of verbs	25
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Asking for and giving information about social manners ● Expressing abilities and disabilities in the past ● Expressing present and past habits ● Reporting past events with question forms 	Should/ shouldn't Could / couldn't Used to Past simple & present simple If/whether	Expressions like lick stamps, smoke, greet, whistle Onomatopoeic words.	25
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Describing jobs and routines ● Expressing wishes ● Expressing warning 	Gerunds / infinitives Expressing wishes Quantity expressions	Vocabulary related to jobs, routines and wishes	25
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Asking for and giving information about present events that come from the past ● Expressing duration of events 	Present perf. cont. for /since How long ...? Indefinite pronouns: someone..somewhere Pres.perf. simple & pres.perf.cont.	Nouns, adjectives and verbs related to arts, culture, business and economics, crime, disaster, Politics, religion. Etc.	25
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Stating reason and result related 	Infinitive for purposes	Prepositional verbs	25

to health ●Giving information about first aid rules ●Giving information about health precautions	So that + can Will for probability Present perf. Passive Future passive	Take part in, put out, get in Nouns related to emergency	
●Comparing adjectives ●Expressing opinions through comparisons	Gerunds as subject/object/predicate Comparatives with gerunds	Nouns adjectives verbs related to indoor outdoor activities	25
●Narrating past events ●Sequencing past events ●Describing someone	Recycling past simple&past cont&past perfect with as soon as when after once until By the time while as just as	Exclamations:ouch,yuk,yummy,ugh Participle adjectives: Shocked annoyed,amazing etc	25
●Expressing certainty and uncertainty ●Expressing some imaginary situations ●Expressing wishes and regrets	Must, may If conditional type 2 I wish If only I had	Verb+noun collocations and vocabulary related to imaginary events	20

**Toplam 340
Saat**

FLMQ SAMPLE ITEMS

AŞAĞIDAKİ CÜMLELER İNGİLİZCE KURSU İLE İLGİLİ DUYGU VE DÜŞÜNCELERİNİZİ YANSITMAKTADIR. LÜTFEN HER CÜMLE İÇİN KENDİNİZE UYGUN DÜŞEN RAKAMI İŞARETLEYİNİZ.

1: KESİNLİKLE KATILMIYORUM

2: KATILMIYORUM

3: NE KATILYORUM NE KATILMIYORUM

4: KATILYORUM

5: KESİNLİKLE KATILYORUM

1.	İngilizce öğrenmekten çok hoşlanıyorum.	1 2 3 4 5
2.	İngilizce öğrenmek benim için bir hobidir.	1 2 3 4 5
3.	Bu sınıfta başarılı olacağımı umuyorum çünkü İngilizce öğrenme konusunda iyiyim.	1 2 3 4 5
4.	Bu kurstaki katılımım iyi olacaktır.	1 2 3 4 5
5.	Bu kursta daha öncekilerden daha fazla İngilizce öğrenmeyi gerçekten istiyorum.	1 2 3 4 5
6.	Mümkün olduğunca uzun süre İngilizce öğrenmeye devam etmeyi planlıyorum.	1 2 3 4 5
7.	İngilizce benim için önemlidir çünkü bakış açımı genişletecektir.	1 2 3 4 5
8.	İngiliz kültürü dünyaya çok şey katmıştır.	1 2 3 4 5
9.	İngilizce öğrenmek için elimden gelenin en iyisini yaptığımı dürüstçe söyleyebilirim.	1 2 3 4 5
10.	Amerikalılar çok arkadaş canlısıdır.	1 2 3 4 5
11.	Sevdiğim oyuncu ve müzisyenlerin çoğu ya İngiliz'dir ya da Amerikalıdır.	1 2 3 4 5
12.	Bu kursun ücreti arttırılsa yine de devam ederdim çünkü İngilizce öğrenmek benim için önemlidir.	1 2 3 4 5

FLCAS SAMPLE ITEMS

AŞAĞIDAKİ CÜMLELER İNGİLİZCE KURSU İLE İLGİLİ DUYGU VE DÜŞÜNCELERİNİZİ YANSITMAKTADIR. LÜTFEN HER CÜMLE İÇİN KENDİNİZE UYGUN DÜŞEN RAKAMI İŞARETLEYİNİZ.

1: KESİNLİKLE KATILMIYORUM

2: KATILMIYORUM

3: NE KATILIYORUM NE KATILMIYORUM

4: KATILIYORUM

5: KESİNLİKLE KATILIYORUM

1.	İngilizce konuşurken asla kendimden emin olamıyorum.	1 2 3 4 5
2.	Sınıfta öğretmenin bana söz hakkı vereceğini bildiğimde titriyorum.	1 2 3 4 5
3.	Öğretmenin İngilizce konuşmasını anlamamak beni korkutuyor.	1 2 3 4 5
4.	İngilizce kursunda kendimi dersle alakası olmayan şeyler hakkında düşünürken buluyorum.	1 2 3 4 5
5.	Sürekli sınıftaki diğer arkadaşlarımdan İngilizce'de benden daha iyi olduklarını düşünüyorum.	1 2 3 4 5
6.	İngilizce dersinde hazırlıksız konuşmam gerektiğinde hemen panik oluyorum.	1 2 3 4 5
7.	İngilizce kursunda başarısız olmanın doğuracağı sonuçlar için endişeleniyorum.	1 2 3 4 5
8.	İngilizce kursunda öyle tedirgin oluyorum ki bildiğim şeyleri de unutuyorum.	1 2 3 4 5
9.	İngilizce dersinde sorulara gönüllü cevap vermek beni utandırıyor.	1 2 3 4 5
10.	Öğretmenim hatamı düzelttiğinde anlayamazsam endişeleniyorum.	1 2 3 4 5

SAMPLE LESSON PLAN

PART ONE	Teacher's Name: FERDANE DENKCI		Classes: MORNING
	Lesson Name: ENGLISH		Date: 14/15/16/17.02.2006
	Book Name: HOTLINE STARTER		Duration: 120 MIN.
	Unit Name&Number: THE NEWS (12)		Topic: THE NEWS
	Objectives of the Unit	Linguistic: Past simple negatives	
		Lexical: irregular verbs	
		Expected Behaviours:	
	Unit Concepts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ News ▪ Amazing Escapes ▪ Robbery 	
	Anticipated Problems:		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Sts may not know all the the irregular verbs yet. ▪ Sts may have difficulty with the cooperative learning activities.
	Presumed Knowledge:		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Sts are familiar with the Past simple tense in affirmatives.
Possible Solutions & Technological Devices:		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ T can revise the irregular verb forms. ▪ T can give very clear instructions and examples. 	
Resources / Student Teacher:		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Irregular verb forms list ▪ A dictionary ▪ A tape recorder 	

			▪ A cassette
P R O C E D U R E	PROCESS	Time:	40 minutes
		Linguistic:	
		Lexical:	
		Skills:	
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ T comes to the class and greets sts. T talks to sts about their holiday and listens to the volunteers who want to tell their holidays. (5 min.) ▪ T tells sts that she wants them to answer a questionnaire for her and informs them that these questionnaires will be kept in their personal files in order to be used to solve their problems with learning English. (15 min.) ▪ T tells sts that they will change their classroom routine since they will utilise cooperation in their lessons from then on. T tells sts: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Sts will work in permanent groups which have been determined by her according to their success in the first term. b) She can change groups if necessary and she will announce it to them. c) Sts can learn their groups by looking at the paper on the class wall. d) Sts need to help each other in their groups since the success of a group member will mean their own success as well as the failure of a friend in their group will mean their failure. e) Sts will have a quiz every week as they used to have in the first term, but they will be evaluated according to their contribution to their groups. Contribution to their groups doesn't mean getting high marks from the exams, but it means improvement. This means that each student should get a higher mark than the the one he/she got from the previous exam. So, whatever mark they get from the exams, the important thing is to improve themselves. A group can be successful when all members can improve. f) Each student has a starting point according to which their improvement will be observed. These

			<p>points have been determined with the help of the marks they got from the previous exams. Sts can learn their starting points from the paper on the class wall.</p> <p>g) How sts are supposed to study cooperatively in their groups will be explained to them by the teacher while they are doing the activities in the class.</p> <p>h) Every week the group who have achieved the best improvement will be determined and the members of this group will receive 100 points bonus as their oral marks.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ T asks sts if they have any questions about these procedures and answers them if sts ask any questions. T will exemplify how she will evaluate the sts if they have any questions about the process. (19 min.) ▪ T tells sts to look at the paper on the in the break to learn their group members. T tells sts to get the material she has prepared for them for the next lesson. T thanks sts and finishes the lesson. (1 min.)
		Techniques	
		Expected Behaviours	
PART TWO	PROCESS	Time:	40 minutes
		P R O C E D U R E	Linguistic: The Past Simple Tense <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Irregular verbs ▪ Negatives ▪ Questions
			Lexical: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Irregular verbs ▪ Useful expressions: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a) What's going on? b) I bet... c) The rat! d) It's all my fault.

			<p>e) Poor Terry!</p> <p>f) There he is!</p> <p>g) That's funny.</p> <p>h) Hi, you lot!</p> <p>i) Something strange.</p>
			<p>Skills:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Guessing the meanings of the useful expressions from the context. ▪ Answering the comprehension questions after they have listened and read the dialogue.
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ T comes to class and greets sts. (1 min.) ▪ T asks a st to come to the board and tells him/her to write the past form of the irregular verb she will tell. T lets the class help the st if he/she has difficulty in remembering. ▪ T asks the st on the board to choose a friend and an irregular verb. T lets him/her sit down and wants the new st to write the past form of the verb on the board. (10 min.) ▪ T asks sts to look at the cover page of the material and tell her the name of the new unit. Then she writes the unit name on the board 'the news' and circles it. She wants sts to tell her any words or phrases related to this concept and she writes them on the board. (3 min.) ▪ T wants sts to look at the cover page of unit 12 in their material. She wants sts to tell her what they see in the photo. Sts give their answers. T tries to direct them to relate the photo with the story in the previous chapters of the photo story. (3 min.) ▪ T asks sts to look at the sentences given on the cover page. She wants a st to read the sentences aloud and asks sts which time the sentences are about; past, present or future. She wants some sts to explain why they think so, maybe in their mother tongue. (3 min.) ▪ T tells sts to look at the photo story on the next page and asks about the title of the story. T tells sts to work in pairs. She wants sts to read the sentences in the first part and order these sentences according to the photo story. She tells sts not to read the dialogue and she wants them to do the activity just by looking at the photos. T wants different sts to tell her the order asking each st which

			<p>photo is described in each sentence. (5 min.)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ T asks sts to read the dialogue in the second part silently and underline the new words in it. (2 min.) ▪ T tells sts to listen to the dialogue from the tape recorder and follow it in their materials. (2 min.) ▪ T tells sts to come together in their groups. She tells sts there are six people in the dialogue. She writes their names on the board. She tells sts that there are three people in each group. So, each member will be responsible for the speech lines of two characters from the dialogue. It will be as follows: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 6) Sue and Casey 7) Policewoman and Vince 8) Terry and Kamala <p>T tells sts to share the characters in the dialogue. (2 min.)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ T tells the sts who are responsible for the lines of Sue and Casey from each group to come together. So, these sts will leave their own groups and come together to study the lines which they are responsible for. T tells other sts to do the same. So, the whole class will be divided into three groups. (2 min.) ▪ T tells sts to study the lines they are responsible for. T reminds sts that they are responsible the meanings of the sentences, the meaning of the new structures, words or phrases in the sentences. They are also responsible for the pronunciation of the new words. So, they may read the lines aloud so that they can correct each other in terms of their pronunciation. They can also ask questions to each other in order to check whether everyone has understood everything. While sts are studying T walks among the groups and helps them if they need. (5 min.) ▪ T tells sts to go back to their old groups when the time is up. T gives feedback on the job they have done in their groups. She can give some advice about their groupwork since it is the first time sts are dealing with such an activity. She may encourage sts to speak in English in their study. T answers students' questions if they have any, and finishes the lesson. (2 min.)
		Techniques	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Warm up ▪ Setting

			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Brainstorming ▪ Question-answer display ▪ Reading aloud ▪ Identification ▪ Information exchange ▪ Checking
		Expected Behaviours	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Sts will be able to tell the related words or phrases about the unit title. ▪ Sts will be able to tell and write the past forms of the irregular verbs. ▪ Sts will be able to order the sentences about the photo story just by looking at the photos. ▪ Sts will be able to identify the new vocabulary items in the dialogue. ▪ Sts will be able to focus on the pronunciation of the new vocabulary items while they are listening to the tape recorder. ▪ Sts will be able to share the dialogue appropriately. ▪ Sts will be able to guess the meanings of the new words they have underlined before. ▪ Sts will be able to get the general meaning of the sentences in the part they are responsible for of dialgue. ▪ Sts will be able to read aloud the dialogue without making any pronuciation mistakes. ▪ Sts will be able to share their ideas with the other people in their goup. ▪ Sts will be able to identify and correct each others' pronuciation mistakes.