

ISTANBUL SABAHATTIN ZAIM UNIVERSITY
GRADUATE EDUCATION INSTITUTE
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

**AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE RELATIONSHIP
BETWEEN LEARNERS' EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE
AND WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE IN TERMS
OF GENDER IN THE TURKISH EFL CLASSROOMS**

MA THESIS

Kübra UĞURLU

Istanbul

August - 2020

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Supervisor

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Emrah Görgülü

Istanbul

August - 2020

THESIS APPROVAL

To the Graduate Education Institute

This is to certify that this study has been approved in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the MASTER THESIS in English Language Teaching.

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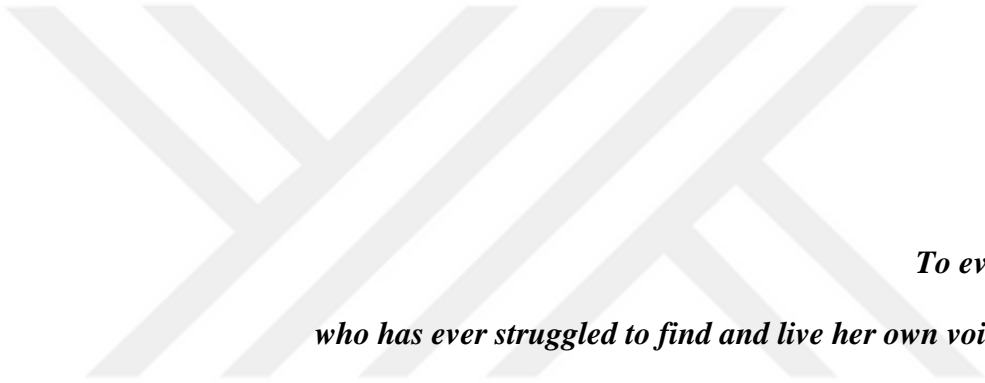
DECLARATION OF SCIENTIFIC ETHICS AND ORIGINALITY

This is to certify that this MA thesis titled “**An Investigation into the Relationship between Learners’ Emotional Intelligence and Willingness to Communicate in terms of Gender in the Turkish EFL Classrooms**” is my own work and I have acted according to scientific ethics and academic rules while producing it. I have collected and used all information and data according to scientific ethics and guidelines on thesis writing of Istanbul Sabahattin Zaim University. I have fully referenced, in both the text and bibliography, all direct and indirect quotations and all sources I have used in this work.



Kübra UĞURLU

August, 2020



*To every woman
who has ever struggled to find and live her own voice out loud*

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Kübra Uđurlu

ÖZET

**TÜRKİYE’DEKİ YABANCI DİL OLARAK İNGİLİZCE
SINIFLARINDA CİNSİYET AÇISINDAN ÖĞRENCİLERİN
DUYGUSAL ZEKÂSI VE İLETİŞİM KURMA İSTEKLİLİĞİ
ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİNİN İNCELENMESİ**

Kübra Uğurlu

Yüksek Lisans, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi

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Dil, dünyada iletişim için büyük önem taşıyan bir araçtır. Bu nedenle dil öğretimi ve öğrenimi de hayati bir öneme sahiptir. İlgili literatür boyunca, öğrencilerin yabancı dilde iletişim becerilerini geliştirmek için bulunmuş birçok yöntem ve strateji vardır. Duygusal zekânın, yaşamın birçok alanında başarıyı etkilediği düşünülmektedir ve son araştırmalar, dil öğrenme ve iletişiminin bu alanlardan biri olduğunu göstermektedir. Bu çalışma, İngilizce Hazırlık Okulu öğrencilerinin duygusal zekâ, iletişim kurma istekliliği ve cinsiyetleri arasında bir ilişki olup olmadığını araştırmak için yapılmıştır. 120 hazırlık okulu öğrencisi, Bar-On Duygusal Bölüm Envanteri (EQ-i) (Uyarlanmış Versiyon) ve MacIntyre, vd. (2001) İkinci Dilde İletişim İstekliliği Ölçeğini (Uyarlanmış Versiyon) tamamlamıştır. Daha sonra, istatistiksel olarak anlamlı olan veya olmayan farklılıkları bulmak için bulgular, Sosyal Bilimler için İstatistiksel Paket 22 (SPSS 22) bağımsız örnek t-testleri ve Pearson Korelasyon Analizi kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Sonuçlar, kadın öğrencilerin kişilerarası performansının erkek öğrencilerin kişilerarası performansından daha iyi olduğunu ve konuşma istekliliği dışında bireylerin İletişim Kurma İstekliliği ve diğer alt ölçeklerinin cinsiyetten etkilendiğini ortaya koymuştur. Pearson Korelasyon Analizine göre, erkek öğrenciler için (1) iletişim kurma istekliliği ve içsel zekâ, (2) okuma istekliliği ve kişilerarası zekâ, (3) yazma istekliliği ve EQ/kişilerarası zekâ arasında negatif bir ilişki olduğu bulunmuştur. Kadın öğrenciler için ise, (1) iletişim kurma istekliliği ve genel ruh hali, (2) konuşma istekliliği ve uyum, (3) yazma istekliliği ve genel ruh hali, (4) kavrama istekliliği ve genel ruh hali arasında pozitif anlamlı bir ilişki bulunmuştur. Duygusal zekâ, iletişim kurma istekliliği ve alt

bileşenler için cinsiyetin bir fark yarattığı sonucuna varılabilir. Bu bulgulara dayanarak, öğrencilerin öğrenmesini teşvik etmek için pedagojik uygulamalar önerilmiştir.

Anahtar Terimler: Duygusal Zekâ, İletişim Kurma İstekliliği, Cinsiyet Farklılıkları, İngilizcenin Yabancı Dil Olarak Öğretimi



ABSTRACT

**AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN
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WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE IN TERMS OF GENDER
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Kübra Uğurlu

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Language is a tool of great importance for communication in the world. That is why language teaching and learning are also of vital importance. Within related literature, there are many methodologies and strategies found to improve learners' communication skills in a foreign language. Emotional intelligence is considered as a factor that affects success in life and recent research demonstrates that language learning and communication are some of these areas. This study was conducted to explore whether there is a relationship between emotional intelligence, willingness to communicate, and gender in English Preparatory School. 120 preparatory school students filled out the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) Adapted Version and MacIntyre et al. (2001)' L2 Willingness to Communicate Scale (WTC) (Adapted Version). Afterward, to find out if the differences which may be statistically significant or not, the findings were analysed by using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) independent sample t-tests and Pearson Correlation Analysis. The results revealed that female students' interpersonal performance was better than male students' interpersonal performance and individuals' WTC and its subscales, except for the willingness to speak, were affected by gender. According to the Pearson Correlation Analysis, for male students, it was found that there was a negative correlation between (1) WTC and intrapersonal intelligence, (2) willingness to read and intrapersonal intelligence, (3) willingness to write and EQ and intrapersonal intelligence. For female students, there was a significant correlation between (1) WTC and general mood, (2) willingness to speak and adaptability, (3)

willingness to write and general mood, (4) willingness to comprehend, and general mood. It can be concluded gender made a difference through subcomponents of emotional intelligence and willingness to communicate. Based on these findings, pedagogical implications have been proposed to promote the learning of students.

Keywords: Emotional Intelligence, Willingness to Communicate, Gender Differences, Teaching English as a Foreign Language



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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

IQ: Intelligence Quotient

EQ: Emotional Quotient

EI: Emotional Intelligence

MI: Multiple Intelligences

WTC: Willingness to Communicate

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

CA: Communication Apprehension

SPCC: Self-Perceived Communication Competence

AA: Academic Achievement

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

Language is an important tool of communication all over the world. For this reason, language learning and language teaching also have importance to maintain continuity of communication around the world. During the process of learning a new language, various learning dynamics get involved. It may be considered that these dynamics are learning and teaching strategies, willingness to communicate (WTC), and individual differences in terms of learners and teachers. These dynamics have an impact on using this new language in an accurate and fluent way. In addition to these dynamics mentioned, emotional intelligence has also an important role in language learning (Tabatabaei and Jamshidifar, 2013).

Emotional intelligence is not a new field of study. It emerged long before and maintains the idea that cognitive intelligence is not the only determinant of attitudes towards experienced events, ways to deal with problems encountered, behaviours against the results of these problems. However, as a basis for this idea, the concept of emotional intelligence has newly emerged. Emotional intelligence was first proposed by Mayer and Salovey (1990) and many studies on this concept have been put forward since then.

Research has linked the concept of emotional intelligence to different fields of study, and this concept has begun to be studied in broader frameworks. Thanks to the research, the idea that emotional intelligence is a complement to cognitive intelligence has gained importance and it has arisen that it is effective in the success demanded in the globalizing world. In parallel with this, emotional intelligence includes a number of abilities such as an individual's self and others' accurate assessment of his emotions, and with this assessment, he demonstrates his gains in his behaviour (Acar, 2002: 54). Emotional intelligence functions in many parts of an individual's life and plays a complementary role to cognitive intelligence (Öner, 1998). That is why the role emotional intelligence plays should be taken into account

when targeting success in the fields such as education, work, and social life, and searching for factors that trigger success.

In the past, only individuals with high intelligence quotient (IQ) values would have been described as intelligent until the last few years according to the research. Even so, interest in emotional intelligence has increased in the field of education, including Foreign Language Teaching, and emotional intelligence has been recognized as an influential factor in success. Most scholars in the field of L2 learning claim that foreign language learning is emotionally directed (Oz, Demirezen, Pourfeiz, 2015: 417). In this case, individuals with a high level of emotional intelligence are expected to exhibit more positive attitudes towards learning and be more willing to communicate within the classroom. “It is not your IQ. It is not even a number. But emotional intelligence may be the best predictor of success in life, redefining what it means to be smart” (Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso, 2004: 396).

The rest of this chapter includes statement of the problem, purpose and significance of the study, hypothesis, limitations, and definitions and structure of the thesis.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Following the spread of the notion of emotional intelligence into broader areas, the idea has become popular that it takes on a crucial role in individuals’ success. Studies indicate that it is EQ, not IQ that matters more in life also in education (Goleman, 1995). Emotional intelligence, which is believed to have an impact on individuals’ achievements in life, is likewise thought to have a similar effect on language learning.

One of the main objectives of language learning is to eliminate the handicaps that hinder communication. In this context, it is necessary to recognize language learning and communication as a whole with the purpose of each other instead of thinking them independently. Situations such as the way of communication and perception of events vary for all individuals depending on the emotion factor. Emotional status has direct positive or negative effects on individuals. Negative emotion somehow affects the output of the individual and leads to consequences accordingly. Language is a channel of communication and emotions cannot be considered separate from them while the two are perceived as a whole. That is, communication skills such as comprehension, perception, interpretation of an individual who is emotionally

intelligent are shaped accordingly in a positive direction and that makes communication stronger, which is the main goal of language learning. At this point, the concept of emotional intelligence becomes important to language learning.

Even if there are separate studies related to emotional intelligence and willingness to communicate in language learning, the relationship between EQ of students and willingness to communicate in terms of gender in a preparatory class at a foundation university has not been studied in detail so far. In Turkey, in order to graduate from a department in which English is the language of education, it is necessary to be proficient in English. Students who do not have this qualification can only start their departmental courses after successfully completing the required foreign language preparatory education. In other words, they need to master the language. Some of the students who have the ability to enter the departments think that they will be successful in the departmental courses, but are concerned that their English will be insufficient. Although these students are cognitively successful, herein, the question arises as to why they fail to learn a foreign language. Language proficiency is not adequate on its own to bring success in the departmental courses. Our learners need emotional components to be successful (Tosun, 2013: 5).

The problem of ELT in Turkey is that although there is a remarkable effort to teach English as a second language to the students from the early beginnings of their educational life, there is also a failure to improve students' oral and written communication skills, which are a requirement to fulfill demands of the globalized world (Barlas, 2019). The ability to communicate or interact well with other people and awareness of the inner dialogue is the basic component of an emotionally intelligent learner. Learning thrives if learners' interpersonal skills are developed, and emotionally intelligent learners are more confident and more willing to interact with others, especially with their peers in language classrooms (Elliott, 2003). Though research has shown the importance of EQ, most people are not aware of their emotional intelligence.

The relationship between languages, which is a tool for communication, is also one of the basic focuses of language learning. The result of the research is that interaction also has a critical role in the learning process. Bruner and Haste (1987) regard learning as a complex "interweaving of language, interaction and cognition" (cited in Cooper and McIntyre, 1996: 117). Therefore, interaction, which refers to "reciprocal

face-to-face action”, is the elemental prerequisite of effective teaching and learning (Robinson, 1994: 7).

Willingness to communicate in the target language is seen as providing language practice and learning opportunities. Additionally, it is considered as establishing language development (ibid: 7). Many research studies were implemented with different headings related to various aspects of willingness to communicate. The effects of gender differences in a communicative classroom environment are also one of these aspects. When compared to females, males interact with teachers more (Brophy, 1985; Sadker, Sadker, and Klein, 1991). Teacher and student talk are also those that focus on gender factors in classroom interaction. It is shown that the amount of these talks affects the level of communication (Myhill, Jones and Hopper, 2006; Sinclair and Brazil, 1982). There are many studies considering WTC of foreign language learners but there is not any study that is related to emotional intelligence.

It is generally observed that our learners come to university without being aware of how much they are emotionally intelligent. Thus, it is important to research emotional intelligence since it can help learners discover how intelligent they are and how they can use a second language well. If there is a link between these aspects: gender, EQ, and willingness to communicate, then there is also a need to find out the ways to flourish the language proficiency of learners.

1.3. Purpose of the Study

In the Turkish EFL contexts, students are mostly observed as quiet and unwilling to communicate inside the classrooms. This can be caused by different reasons such as the educational system, students themselves or the instructors, and so on (Çürük, 2019). The purpose of this study is to focus on students and to investigate the role of emotional intelligence in language learning. For this purpose, the relationship of emotional intelligence is going to be analysed in terms of the factors such as willingness to communicate and gender. The participants will be prep school students at a foundation university in Istanbul, Turkey. There are many studies on various aspects of language learning. Teachers have carried out many different strategies through recorded history but still, some kind of problems are encountered, that is, problems of passive learners and dominating teachers (Gorman, 1969: v).

The results can lead the language teachers to choose the best strategies, raise learners' awareness level, and investigate how a meaningful language-learning context can be established to teach the language.

1.3.1. Research Questions

1. Is there a relationship between EI and students' gender studying in preparatory programs?
2. To what extent does the gender of the students serve as a factor influencing the willingness to communicate in language classes?
3. What is the correlation between EI and WTC in terms of gender differences in EFL classrooms?

1.4. Significance of the Study

A desired outcome of the study is to determine the level of emotional intelligence of preparatory school students and to help them and their teachers carry out the most suitable strategies to make learners more interactive in language classrooms and more proficient in the language. Emotional intelligence leads up to skills that can have positive effects on an individual's life (Bradberry and Greaves, 2009). Regardless of an individual's emotional intelligence level, it can be developed because the brain forms itself throughout life (Goleman, 1995: 11). It is important to educate individuals during their whole life (Lewkowicz, 2007). That is why universities with emotionally intelligent faculty can develop learner achievement more. In this case, this research is not only optimizing successful language but also has implications for faculty performances.

This current research focuses on the lack of research on the relationship between emotional intelligence and the willingness to communicate in terms of gender in foreign language classrooms. In accordance with the relationships of these aspects, the study can contribute to the language teaching profession by focusing on the elements of emotional intelligence, willingness to communicate, and gender. Finding an answer to whether there is a relationship between these variables has importance for the universities in Turkey as there are many students with different backgrounds that affect their learning process. The result can make new ways for the ELT to make students more interactive and communicative in Turkey (Tosun, 2013).

1.5. Assumptions of the Study

The main assumption behind this study is that willingness to communicate increases the language learning of students in foreign language classrooms (Thomas, 1987). Emotional intelligence is also seen as a factor, which affects acquiring a language. Bar-On EQ-i questionnaire is used to measure students' emotional intelligence levels and Willingness to Communicate Scale is used to measure their willingness level by shedding light on the classroom language, teaching and learning process in the language classroom.

The assumption is that students' language proficiency levels are nearly identical. The test, which is taken by the participants, and the scale that is used by the researcher for observing the performance are reliable data collection devices in assessing their willingness to communicate performance and the questionnaire was sufficient to determine their EQ level correctly. Additionally, students have filled out the questionnaire honestly. Therefore, it is assumed that the results are valid and reliable.

1.6. Limitations of the Study

Emotional intelligence is not a new concept in the area of foreign language teaching. It is studied under the umbrella of various topics such as four skills, vocabulary learning, listening strategies, and teacher efficacy, etc. However, there are different subtopics that need to be uncovered. The relationship between willingness to communicate and emotional intelligence in language learning is one of them. In this sense, it is hard to come to certain generalizations about this issue. The limitations of this study are that it will be carried out at only a foundation university in Istanbul and it is going to be conducted with 120 students. Because it is limited to only two, nearly identical, proficiency levels at one university, it is hard to generalize. There is a need for replicating this kind of study at many universities in much larger samples to augment the level of generalization.

1.7. Definitions of the terms and Abbreviations

Intelligence: "The ability to solve problems, or to create products, that are valued within one or more cultural settings" (Gardner, 1999: 11).

Intelligence Quotient (IQ): "An intelligence test score that is obtained by dividing mental age, which reflects the age-graded level of performance as derived from population norms, by chronological age and multiplying by 100" (Dictionary.com).

Emotional Intelligence (EI): “An array of personal, emotional and social competencies and skills that influence one’s ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures” (Bar-On, R., 1997: 15).

Emotional Quotient (EQ): “The level of a person’s emotional intelligence, often as represented by a score in a standardized test” (Lexico).

Multiple Intelligence (MI): “It is an approach by Gardner, who is doing scientific research at Harvard University. To this approach, human intelligence is divided into 9 subcategories. The nine sub-categories consist of the types of intelligence that indicate or classify where people can use their intelligence more effectively” (Cole, 2018).

Willingness to Communicate (WTC): “An underlying continuum representing the predisposition toward or away from communicating, given the choice (MacIntyre, et al., 2002: 538).

First Language (L1): “the language that someone learns to speak first” (Cambridge Dictionary).

Second Language (L2): “A language that a person can speak that is not the first language they learned naturally as a child” (Cambridge Dictionary).

Communication Apprehension (CA): “An individual’s fear or anxiety associated with either real or anticipated communication with another person or persons” (McCroskey, 2001: 40).

Self-Perceived Communication Competence (SPCC): “It is how an individual perceives their own competence at spoken communication” (Lockley, 2013).

1.8. Structure of the Thesis

The present study attempts to investigate a number of problems related to the context of Turkey.

The first chapter presents statement of the problem, purpose of the study and research questions, significance of the study, hypothesis of the thesis, limitations of study, definitions of the terms, and structure of the study.

The second chapter presents a literature review establishing the theoretical framework of the study with respect to intelligence, multiple intelligence, and emotional intelligence, willingness to communicate, and gender differences.

Chapter three provides the methodology of the study, which was conducted in preparatory classes of a foundation university in Istanbul. The chapter consists of the research design, setting and the participants, data collection instruments, pilot study, and data analysis procedure with concluding comments.

Chapter four illustrates the results of the study by means of tables and presents an interpretation of the results. The findings will be given and then analysed in accordance with the questionnaires filled out by learners. The results will be interpreted by referring the research questions.

In the fifth chapter of the study, the findings will be discussed in consideration of the related literature. Then, the chapter will end with the pedagogical implications and recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Intelligence

In the now classic tale, three blind men approached an elephant and were curious about its nature. Having never encountered an elephant before, the men each had a different impression. For the man holding the elephant's thick legs, the elephant was like a tree. The elephant was snakelike to the man who had the elephant's lively trunk in his hands. The third blind man, feeling the elephant's sturdy side, exclaimed it was like a wall. (Ciancialo and Sternberg, 2004: 1)

Which man was right? Like these blind men in the story, people who endeavour to explore the nature of intelligence use some metaphors to be able to conceptualize intelligence since they cannot see the object of their study (ibid).

There have been plenty of theories about intelligence, none of which agrees with each other. For years, many of those have contributed greatly to the literature of intelligence. Each theory of intelligence presents a different perspective. Many people have researched in the area of intelligence but the first ones were not the psychologist or the trainer. Most importantly, philosophers such as Plato defined intelligence as blocks of wax, which differ in capacity, stability, humidity, and pureness (ibid). Extreme differences between blocks of wax would impair intellectual trait. Immanuel Kant claims there are numerous types of intelligence and each one has different aspects. People, having that type of intelligence, differ from each other (ibid: 2).

Intelligence has different definitions for different researchers, which makes it difficult to give a common description for it. According to Wechsler (1944: 3), intelligence is a complete and common ability of the individual to act deliberately, to consider reasonable, and to handle the environment and problems. In other words, capacity does not need to be assessed but performance. Herrnstein and Murray (1994: 4) state intelligence as a cognitive ability while some philosophers like Alfred Binet (1909/1975) argues that intelligence is not a stable quantity therefore it can be boosted. It is also claimed that intelligence is the capacity of a good analysis to

possess a pivotal opinion (Binet and Simon, 1916: 43). Terman (1916: 46) claims that intelligence is an individual's ability to perceive conceptual reasoning. Terman (1916) and Binet (1909/1975) are the advocates of *uni-factor theory of intelligence* that lessens all abilities in an only capacity of general intelligence.

There is also another perspective of intelligence, which is *Spearman's two-factor theory*. Spearman (1927: 80) asserts that there are two factors that comprise intellectual traits. The first is general ability known as 'G' factor and the second is specific abilities known as 'S' factor. 'G' factor is an inborn ability and it has a great role in being successful in life. However, the 'S' factor depends on activities since it is acquired from the factors in the environment. Therefore, it is concluded that the 'S' factor can vary accordingly (ibid).

The other theory of intelligence is the multi-factor theory by Thorndike. He rejects the theory of general intelligence. Thorndike (1926: 38) characterizes that intelligence is the ability of great responses of the truth or actual events. According to him, every mental activity requires a collection of a different set of abilities. Thorndike (ibid) distinguished attributes of intelligence as level, range, area, and speed. Level is about the difficulty of the task. Range is the number of tasks in any degree of difficulty that can be solved. Area is the total number of circumstances at every level that the individual can respond. Speed is how rapidly an individual can respond to items (ibid).

Freeman reflects that perceptual capacity leads to unify the experiences and responds to accommodate the new circumstances (Sternberg, 2000). Gardner (2004: xi) describes intelligence as an ability to solve an assessed problem or create a product within one or more cultural frameworks. According to Gardner, intelligence is the whole of the unique abilities and skills found in every human being in order to survive in a changing world and adapt to changes (ibid). All humans are born with various levels of these types of intelligence and may have more tendencies to some of these types of intelligence (Vural, 2004: 238). In other respects, Piaget (1963: 7) expounds the intelligence with his own theory. He declares intelligence as an adaptation that is equilibrium between assimilation and accommodation. Assimilation integrates the experience inside its schema while accommodation integrates the new components into its earlier schemata (ibid).

2.2. Multiple Intelligence Theory

Howard Gardner is the one who best accounts for the boundaries of old beliefs about intelligence (Cherniss and Goleman, 2001: 21). Traditional assumptions of intelligence are pluralized by Gardner, who explains intelligence as the capacity to make solving difficulties or “fashion products” arising in a specific cultural circumstance (Gardner, 1999: 11). The multiple intelligence theory, by psychologist Howard Gardner, postulates each individual has eight or more relatively independent intelligences. Each benefits them, independently or together, to spawn outcomes and correct complications, which are pertinent to the people, who they are together in their society (Gardner, 1983: 9). Linguistic intelligence, logical-mathematical intelligence, spatial intelligence, musical intelligence, bodily-kinaesthetic intelligence, naturalistic intelligence, interpersonal intelligence, and intrapersonal intelligence are the eight intelligences proposed by Gardner (Gardner, 1999). Gardner analyses “linguistic” and “logical-mathematical” that are attached importance and assessed for in contemporary educational institutions. It is profitable to consider that “language-logic” blend as “academic” or “scholarly intelligence”. Perceiving intelligence as multiple, not unitary in nature, stands for a concrete separation from conventional notions of intelligence which were developed in the early 20th century by Piaget (1963) and other cognitively oriented pioneers of these notions.

According to MI theory, human beings exhibiting specific aptitude in one intelligence do not exhibit equal aptitude regarding the other types of intelligence. To illustrate, an individual can have a different profile of intelligence like higher in musical intelligence but can be average or lower in intrapersonal intelligence or conversely (Gardner, 2006: 219). This discrimination is the first between MI theory and the conventional notion of intelligence. The second distinction is about the origins of intelligence. Many advocates of the general intelligence perceive intelligence as an innate trait, thus assert that it can change little (Eysenck, 1994; Herrnstein and Murray, 1994; Jensen, 1998). As opposed to the conventional notions of intelligence, intelligence is considered in MI theory as a blend of inborn potentials and skills that can be refined in various methods via pertinent experiences (Gardner, 1983). For instance, an individual may have innate musical intelligence that allows him or her to create the meaning of sound’s different patterns for a musical

performance with relative ease. For other individuals, more effort may be needed. Each individual may be an expert in that domain however; the travel that they need to complete to be an expert may have different pathways.

The fact that individuals, who exhibit valuable talents in some different domains such as chess, politics, music, have some capacities in these domains which must be taken into consideration to conceptualize intelligence has been clarified by Gardner (1983). While developing MI theory, Gardner focused on research findings of anthropology, neuroscience, and some psychological studies and determined some criteria to identify each intelligence type. Depending on these criteria, Gardner firstly composed of seven different intelligences and he deduced that the eighth intelligence, naturalistic intelligence that refers to the businesses keeping in touch with natural products such as animals, plants, textiles and ecology (Gardner, 1999). He has also written about the possibility of the ninth intelligence “the existential” (Gardner, 1995, 1999). The first intelligence, linguistic intelligence, is an ability to consider words, to analyse language and use it to comprehend any complicated meanings. It allows individuals to analyse information and synthesize products including both spoken and written language. It is the most common intelligence shared. Journalists, poets, novelists and the other individuals having these kinds of professions may be cited as examples of ones being high in linguistic intelligence. The second one is logical-mathematical intelligence that is the ability to analyse problems lucidly, solve mathematical problems, and scrutinize issues scientifically. Mathematicians, logicians, and scientists utilize logical-mathematical intelligence. The third is spatial intelligence that involves navigation, transportation, advertising, or graphics. It involves the sensitivity to large-scale, local, three-dimensional and two-dimensional spaces. A sculptor or painter can benefit from spatial intelligence. It has the makings of identifying and using patterns of larger areas such as used by navigators and pilots and patterns of more limited areas such as essential to sculptors, surgeons, chess players, graphics artists or architects (Gardner, 2011). The fourth is musical intelligence that is the ability for entailing skills in the performance, the composition of musical patterns. Individuals excelling in musical intelligence may use rhythms and patterns to assist in learning. Being a musician, composer, band director, and the disc jockey is career paths for individuals with high musical intelligence. Ludwig van Beethoven and Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart are the most

widely known among these individuals. The fifth is bodily-kinaesthetic intelligence that refers to having a profile of intelligence that is high in using one's own body to constitute products and figuring out the problems. Athletes, dancers, surgeons, and craftspeople demonstrate bodily-kinaesthetic intelligence. The sixth is interpersonal intelligence that encompasses the capacity of the young to distinguish between the individuals around him and to identify their various moods. Interpersonal knowledge allows a skilled adult to read the intentions and desires of the other individuals and, potentially, to act upon this knowledge. It is observed that interpersonally intelligent people are in political and religious leaders such as Mahatma Gandhi and Lyndon Johnson. The seventh is intrapersonal intelligence that individuals are able to identify and understand their own mood, desire, and intentions. The one with high intrapersonal intelligence may symbolize complex and highly differentiated sets of feelings. Intrapersonal intelligence includes essentially an individual's knowledge of his own feelings while the interpersonal intelligence looks outward, the behaviour, feelings, and motivations of others. The eighth one is naturalist intelligence as mentioned above. It makes individuals recognise and distinguish nature more skilfully and fashion products based on nature. Botanists, hunters, geologists, etc. are some of the occupations that require naturalist intelligence. The ninth and the last type of intelligence is the existential intelligence. According to Gardner, personalities holding a powerful existential intelligence possess the ability to "ponder the most fundamental questions of existence". "Why do we live? Why do we die? Where do we come from?" (McCoog, 2010:126). These people are contemplative ones who observe so as to comprehend their world surrounding them. Existentialists own a substantial perception of their beliefs and prefer to decipher distinct doctrines from these beliefs and their life backgrounds (ibid: 127). Socrates, Plato, and Buddha are such samples of the individuals having this type of intelligence. These mentioned nine types of intelligence may appear completely separate entities from each other at most points, in stark contrast, they are complementary and they work together.

MI approaches have been approved with a good performance in comparison to traditional approaches (Ozdemir, Güneysu and Tekkaya, 2006). These approaches in curricula have been approved by teachers of forming a framework for making instructional decisions (ibid). According to Christison (2002), most educators agree with MI theory by Gardner as each student may individually be different and MI

theory forms an effective frame to decide what strategies should be utilized for fruitful teaching and learning. Teele has constructed one of the principals of MI theory and asserts that in the circumstances that students are partners in the education and being conscious about the liability for actions they do, "a sense of responsibility", "positive self-image", "intrinsic motivation" boost themselves (1996: 72). By the same token, Gardner (1991) states that the fact that there is more than one intelligence indicates that there is more than one way of teaching anything. All students are individually different. Some of them may be good at linguistics; others can performance better at something different. To Gardner, each intelligence is important. However, it is hard to find a common task that refers to all intelligence types. It may not be possible to come through all the MI profiles in each language class (Gardner, 1983). He states that there needs to be a balance for each type and explains it as "windows on the same concept" that are unified as a body (ibid). Students may be helped by teachers to become aware of their intelligences that are higher than the other intelligences. Moreover, this may then be more effective to use the right methods to learn (Lazear, 1992). Regarding language learning, it is expressed that conceiving of multiple intelligence may be profitable with the tasks based on MI types (Arnold and Fonseca, 2004). For instance, listening to English stories, news, songs, and writing what they hear may be more effective for learners with linguistic and musical intelligence while attending lectures, mimicking, utilizing real objects and pictures, holding discussions in English may be a better way of learning for learners with interpersonal and bodily-kinaesthetic intelligence.

Emotional intelligence has some models that are based on Gardner's concepts such as interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence although there is no term like emotional intelligence used by Gardner. Intrapersonal intelligence includes essentially an individual's knowledge of his own feelings while the interpersonal intelligence looks outward, the behaviour, feelings, and motivations of others. It is obvious to conclude that Gardners' MI theory initiated the development of emotional intelligence theory (Ergün, 2011).

2.3. Emotional Intelligence

2.3.1 Models of Emotional Intelligence

There are a few suggested models of emotional intelligence: Ability Model of Emotional Intelligence, Trait Emotional Intelligence Model and Mixed Models of

Emotional Intelligence including The Bar-On Model of Emotional-Social Intelligence and Goleman Model of Emotional Intelligence that will be presented.

2.3.1.1. Ability Model of Emotional Intelligence

The phrase “emotional intelligence” was first originated in 1990 by Peter Salovey and John Mayer (Salovey and Mayer, 1990). Their theory unifies basic concepts in the areas of emotion and intelligence. The theory of intelligence introduces the idea that intelligence contains the capacity to make abstract reasoning. Mayer and Salovey (1997) describe emotional intelligence as the ability to analyse emotions to boost thoughts. According to Mayer and Salovey;

Emotional intelligence involves the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth (Mayer & Salovey, 1997: 33).

Peter and Salovey put forward the idea that there can be changes in the capacity to handle emotional information and in the capacity to correlate to handle a more extensive cognition (Mayer, Salovey and Caruso, 2000). According to Mayer and Salovey (1997) and Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2000), EI refers to the capacity to comprehend and state emotions, assimilate emotions in thought, perceive and speculate with emotions and regulate emotions in self and others. Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey also give a definition of emotional intelligence:

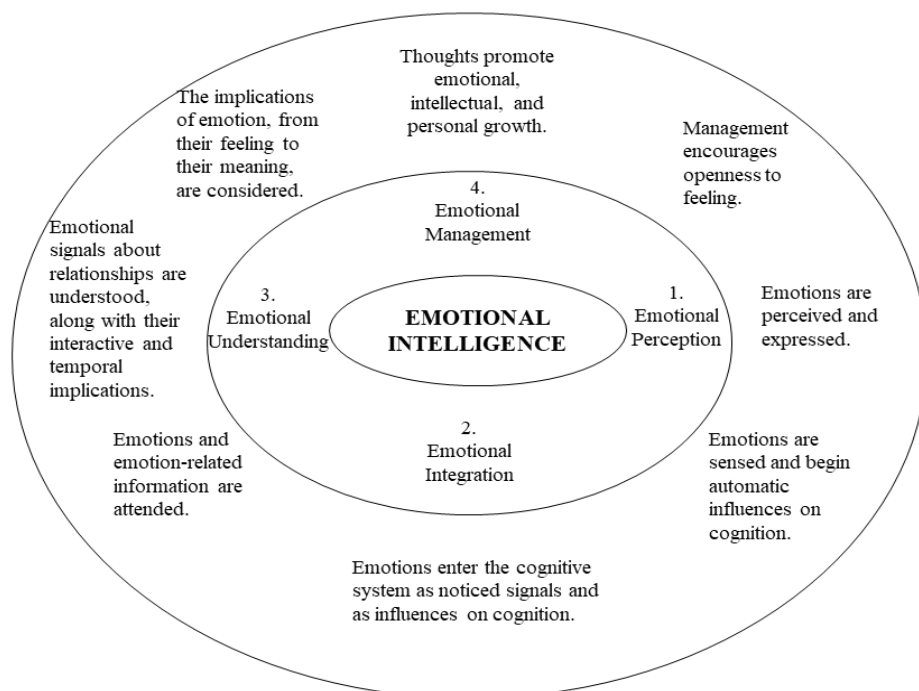
Emotional intelligence refers to an ability to recognize the meanings of emotion and their relationships and to reason and problem-solve on the basis of them. Emotional intelligence is involved in the capacity to perceive emotions, assimilate emotion-related feelings, understand the information of those emotions, and manage them (Mayer, Salovey and Caruso, 2000: 267).

Each individual with emotional intelligence has a set of abilities. In another saying, each individual with emotional intelligence knows what his emotions tell him, he is aware of his feelings and knows how to handle and authorize these emotions. He can easily come to a mutual understanding with people. He has a readiness for any random situation.

There is an attempt to give a definition for EI in the limits of the conventional standards concerning the different intelligence (Mayer et al., 2003). Accordingly, there are two proposed areas that EI is comprised: experiential (ability to comprehend, answer, and employ emotional information without fundamentally understanding it) and strategic (ability to perceive and dominate emotions without fundamentally comprehending feelings well or experiencing them). These mentioned areas consist of two domains that extended from essential mental manners to complicated manners consolidating “emotion” and “cognition”.

The first is “emotional perception” domain, which implies being conscious about emotions, declaring them and demands to others. The second is “emotional integration” that is the capacity to discriminate amid the emotions felt and analyse those affecting their thinking process. “Emotional understanding” is also one of the other branches. It is to be able to comprehend more complicated sentiments such as simultaneously sensing emotions that are different from each other and to perceive transmission from one to the other. “Emotion management” is the last branch that is to be able to associate or disassociate with an emotion subject to the benefit of it during a certain circumstance (Mayer and Salovey, 1997). There is an outline following that depicts the “Four Branch Model” in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1 Mayer and Salovey’s Four-Branch Model of Emotional Intelligence



Reference: Mayer, J.D. and Salovey, P., What is emotional intelligence?, 1997

2.3.1.2. Trait Emotional Intelligence Model

Petrides and Furnham (2000) distinguished between trait EI and ability EI. They propose that trait EI and ability EI are two different constructs. Trait EI includes personality characteristics and involves numerous emotion-related dispositions and self-perceptions under self-report, whereas ability EI includes cognitive skills and involves emotion-related cognitive abilities, which should be measured by maximum performance tests (Petrides, Furnham and Mavroveli, 2007).

The method to determine the construct is the distinction between trait EI and ability EI (Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso, 2000), but elements (facets) that the different models are hypothesized to embrace. Fundamentally, it is irrelevant to the difference between these models.

Trait EI is explained as a constellation that is a combination of social manner and self-perception on one's capacity to identify, manage and promote emotional information (Petrides and Furnham, 2003). While the trait model is about social manners and self-perceived capacities measured via self-report, the ability model is related to current capabilities expressing themselves in performance-based criteria.

Petrides and Furnham (2001) defined 15 facets that have formed the basis for the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue). These 15 facets are adaptability, assertiveness, emotion expression, emotion management (others), emotion perception (self and others), emotion regulation, impulse control, relationships, self-esteem, self-motivation, social awareness, stress management, trait empathy, trait happiness, and trait optimism. The TEIQue surveys every one of the 15 facets, which sorted out into four areas (well-being, self-control, sociability, and emotionality).

Table 2. 1: The Adult Sampling Facets of Trait EI

| <i>Facets</i> | <i>High scorers perceive themselves as...</i> |
|--------------------------------------|--|
| Adaptability | "...eager to comply with new situations." |
| Assertiveness | "...sincere, eager to defend their truths." |
| Emotion expression | "...ability to communicate their emotions to others." |
| Emotion management (others) | "...ability to influence other's emotions." |
| Emotion perception (self and others) | "...be clear about one's own and other's emotions." |
| Emotion regulation | "...ability to manage their feelings." |
| Impulse control | "...controlling emotional state and incentives." |
| Relationships | "...ability to make good relationships with others." |
| Self-esteem | "...one who is successful and confident." |
| Self-motivation | "...impossible to give up while facing difficulties." |
| Social awareness | "...achieved networkers with good social skills." |
| Stress management | "...ability to tolerate pressure and regulating stress." |
| Trait empathy | "...ability to take someone else's perspective." |
| Trait happiness | "... joyful, pleased with her/his life." |
| Trait optimism | "... self- confident and full of life." |

Reference: Petrides, K.V. and Furnham, A., Trait emotional intelligence: psychometric investigation with reference to established trait taxonomies, 2001

It is believed that individuals with high EI scores are linked to their emotions and can arrange them to promote well-being. EI is also a determinant of happiness that clarifies more than 50% of the total variance (Furnham and Petrides, 2003). Some dispositions of personality traits such as empathy and assertiveness (Goleman, 1995) are parts of trait EI. Social Intelligence (Thorndike, 1920) and Personal Intelligence (Gardner, 1983) are also parts of trait EI.

Petrides and Furnham (2001) state that the term "trait" highlights not only it has a dense relationship with personality dimensions but also it is not cognitive ability. However, the term "ability" highlights the second sort of EI chiefly had a place in the space of cognition.

It was found out by Petrides and his colleagues that a positive correlation was detected between AA and the students' trait emotional intelligence. It is told that

students with low trait EI scores are less successful than their peers with high scores. Moreover, Petrides, Frederickson and Furnham (2004) revealed that students with high EI scores amid low-IQ students had better academic performance at school in comparison to their peers with low scores. Another important thing to remember is that they also testified that low trait EI students were more unauthorized absent (truancy) and it was more likely to happen that they were to have been alienated from school due to antisocial manners.

It should be accepted that trait EI and ability EI are different constructs in terms of conception, methodology, and empiricism. To clarify misunderstandings, overcome problems, and gather evidence of systematic research in this field, it is required to understand this distinction and related consequences (ibid).

2.3.1.3. Mixed Models of Emotional Intelligence

a) The Bar-On Model of Emotional-Social Intelligence

It was Reuven Bar-On who coined the term Emotional Quotient (EQ) to explain and evaluate emotional and social competence. Bar-On's model focuses on the potential for performance and success instead of performance and success itself. Thus, it can be perceived as process-based rather than outcome-based (Dawda and Hart, 2000; Bar-On, 2002). Bar-On states that the theoretical basis for the Bar-On model may be followed back to the five foundations of the field (Bar-On, 2006: 3):

1. Darwin's initial work on how significant emotional expression is and concerning durability/adjustment which esteems the outcomes of emotionally and socially intelligent manners,
2. Thorndike's approach dealing with social intelligence and its significance for human behaviour,
3. Wechsler's case on the non-intellective variables to characterize intelligence performance,
4. Sifneos' conceptualization of alexithymia (failure to express one's feelings),
5. Appelbaum's definition of psychological mindedness.

Bar-On unmistakably expressed that every one of these augmentations greatly affected planning his model and since 2000; he utilized emotional-social intelligence to allude to both emotional and social intelligence. He expresses that emotional-

social intelligence is an intersection of emotional and social abilities, aptitudes and facilitators that decide how adequately we comprehend and express ourselves, comprehends and identify others, and adapt to day by day requests. After characterizing what the concept is, he additionally gave the highlights of being emotionally and socially intelligent such as understanding and explaining oneself, comprehending and connecting with others, adapting to day by day needs, troubles and pressures seamlessly (Bar-On, 2006). According to him, each of these highlights depends on two abilities specifically interpersonal and intrapersonal. Being emotionally and socially intelligent, on the intrapersonal level, demands to have self-awareness, to comprehend one's strong and weak points, and expressing one's emotions and ideas non-destructively (ibid). On the interpersonal level, being emotionally and socially intelligent requires being aware of others' emotions, feelings, and needs, and to build and preserve collaborative, positive and reciprocally fulfilling relationships (ibid).

Bar-On thinks that there is close conformity between the terms Emotional Quotient (EQ) and Intelligence Quotient (IQ). He regards EQ as a figure of social and emotional capacities allowing individuals to comprehend the necessities of daily occurrence. Bar-On (1997:14) describes emotional intelligence as “a set of non-cognitive abilities, competencies, and the ability that affect one's capacity to prevail with regards to adapting to natural requests and pressures”. This explanation suggests that emotional intelligence assumes a significant job being effective throughout everyday routine and that EQ and overall emotional health have a meaningful relationship. The model is considered as the broadest model of emotional intelligence. (Bar-On and Handley, 1999).

Bar-On created his scale “the Emotional Quotient Inventory” to be able to assess emotional intelligence. He aims to measure people's capacity for success regarding satisfying the needs of society and administering the requirements (Dawda and Hart, 2000; Bar-On, 2002).

With 133 items, the inventory is a self-report scale. It is aimed to measure five main skills, which are intrapersonal, interpersonal, adaptability, stress management and general mood (Bar-On, 1997). The questionnaire contains items connected with scales that are composed to determine the response validity depending on a 5-point Likert type scale.

To develop the EQ-i, Bar-On firstly created a conceptual framework, and then managed the development and explanation of the items. Validity scales and correction indexes have been added to improve measurement over time. Through studies using this inventory, it is determined that the scales have substantially test-retest reliability and internal consistency (Bar-On, 1988). Many ways for convergent and distinctive validity of EQ-i have been tried and studied. To investigate the reliability and validity of the inventory Dawuda and Hart (2000) did research and the inventory validity and reliability of the results are appropriate to use to measure emotional intelligence because of being almost the same as shown in terms of gender. The Bar-On model of emotional intelligence in this study is used owing to covering each conceptualization contained in every essential model of emotional intelligence.

The “intrapersonal” aspect contains “self-actualization”, self-regard”, “assertiveness”, “independence” and “emotional self-awareness” that are mainly concerned with self-awareness and self-expression, which regulates our ability to recognize our emotions and ourselves in general, to understand our strengths and weaknesses, and to express our emotions and ourselves non-destructively. Individuals with high intrapersonal competence have higher self-efficacy and show comfort in sharing their feelings. (Bar-On, 2003; Bar-On and Handley, 2003).

The definition is given for “self-regard” is “...to be able to comprehend and admit ourselves...” (Bar-On, 2006: 23). It is simply to have a capacity for respecting essentially, acknowledging ourselves as well behaved. Valuing ourselves is the method that is approved by us and self-acceptance is being capable of knowing the strengths-weaknesses of one just as the constraints and potential outcomes (Bar-On, 2003; Bar-On and Handley, 2003).

“Emotional self-awareness” is characterized as “...the capacity to know about and comprehend our emotions...” (Bar-On, 2006: 23). The name might suggest an individual with emotional self-awareness is the person who comprehends his feelings and recognize those feelings by deciding the causes and knowing what and why. The absence of emotional self-awareness is recognized as alexithymia that is known as an emotional disorder of the ability to portray and express feelings (Bar-On, 2003; Bar-On and Handley, 2003).

“Assertiveness” is characterized as “...the capacity to effectively articulate our emotions and ourselves overall...” (Bar-On, 2006: 23). This factor can be found in a person’s capacity to express his feelings and contemplations and to represent his rights properly to keep others from utilizing his rights. Assertive individuals are able to explain their feelings in an appropriate and direct behaviour without losing their temper that may destruct relations (Bar-On, 2003; Bar-On and Handley, 2003).

“Independence” is identified as “...the capacity of being self- controlled instead of being emotionally-dependent” (Bar-On, 2006: 23). These individuals make plans themselves and adopt decisions without depending on anyone else. Independence additionally alludes to be self-ruling in satisfying emotional demands without anticipating support from others. It depends on self-confidence, inner strength and to activate oneself towards hopes and obligations (Bar-On, 2003; Bar-On and Handley, 2003). However, it does not indicate that independent individuals consistently get things done without others’ endorsement. It is typical for those individuals to take others’ recommendations and trade thoughts with each other.

“Self-Actualization” is “the ability to set individual goals to complement our potential and provide the impulse to achieve them” (Bar-On, 2006: 23). It is a pursuit of maximizing one’s abilities, capabilities and talents. Enthusiasm and excitement assume a significant job in completing a person’s potential and arriving at the objectives will lead while a jam in arriving at objectives and wants will wind up with depression. Individuals lacking this ability sense that there is no viewpoint of them in life (Bar-On, 1997; 2003; Bar-On and Handley, 2003).

“Interpersonal” aspect of emotional-social intelligence consists of three subscales: Empathy, Social Responsibility, and Interpersonal Relationship. Social awareness and interaction with others are the main components of this scale. It is a personal ability to understand others’ feelings and set up agreeable and valuable connections that fulfil reciprocally (Bar-On, 2003; Bar-On and Handley, 2003).

“Empathy” is the ability to be conscious and realize how others feel (Bar-On, 2006: 23). Individuals with this ability enable themselves to experience the emotions and thoughts of others, to be able to realize why they think the way they do, to be conscious, to be sensitive and to be aware. They can read other people’s feelings, pay attention and feel the way other people feel. They attempt to comprehend the

activities of others without blaming them. Individuals coming up short on this skill can encounter issues conveying adequately, that is why they can establish insufficient relationships (Bar-On and Handley, 1999). They can be qualified as a psychopath (Bar-On, 2003; Bar-On and Handley, 2003).

“Social Responsibility” is “... to be able to recognize the society we belong to and collaborate with other individuals...” (Bar-On, 2006: 23). Social responsibility appears at the point when an individual associates with a group like family, friends or colleagues in a helpful, useful and contributing way for their advantage, not for the good of his own. The way to a better interaction can emerge in a capable manner that is identified with social awareness. This ability gives rise to the tendency to accept others and using an individuals’ potential to collaborate with others (Bar-On, 2003; Bar-On and Handley, 2003). However, people lacking this capacity are not social and start to mistreat people around them (ibid).

“Interpersonal Relationship” is the ability to build up and keep up reciprocally satisfactory relationships (Bar-On, 2006: 23). Social interactions are fulfilling and important to the two sides and express interpersonal relationships. A person with high interpersonal abilities is eager to gain affection and intimacy by indicating intimacy (Bar-On, 2003; Bar-On and Handley, 2003). Notwithstanding, individuals who do not have this scale are generally timid and introverted. This skill depends on sensitivity to set up good interactions besides to feel contented with these interactions (Bar-On, 2003; Bar-On and Handley, 2003).

Stress Management consists of two subscales that are Stress Tolerance and Impulse Control. Stress management is about being able to control and handle changing situations. Individuals with high-stress management skills can control stressful circumstances with ease in a controlled manner (Bar-On, 2003; Bar-On and Handley, 2003).

“Stress Tolerance” is “...to be capable of overseeing feelings adequately...” (Bar-On, 2006: 23). Stress tolerance is linked to adapting to distressing circumstances, without escaping, emotionally and profoundly damaging. The point is maintaining the anger in bad conditions and to feel the strength to manage the challenges. A person with a high-stress tolerance can find many ways to solve problems by monitoring how to manage pressure. These individuals are also self-confident

enough to control distressing circumstances. Individuals with high-stress tolerance do not get a feeling of misery or powerlessness, yet rather they yield to issues and look for solutions (Bar-On, 2003; Bar-On and Handley, 2003). However, those who do not have this ability are inclined to experience anxiety and generally feel anxious (ibid).

“Impulse Control” is “... the ability to organize emotions...” (Bar-On, 2006: 23). Individuals who viably control their impulses stand by calmly before making a move. They do not go for an act impatiently. They can control their emotions and rule them according to the circumstances. They are calm and good at critical thinking about issues (Bar-On and Handley, 1999). Lack of this ability can cause unpredictable movements, easily losing temper, and low frustration tolerance. People with lower level of impulse control are generally inclined to be aggressive that is why they are not able to consider rationally before making a move. (Bar-On, 2003; Bar-On and Handley, 2003).

“Adaptability EQ” consists of Reality Testing, Flexibility, and Problem Solving. It is the ability to analyse and cope with the everyday issues effectively. Adaptability can be explained as handling change like having the option to manage changes in a person, making changes in others, and making changes in the environment. Individuals who have adaptability skills are frequently reaching effective and adequate solutions to understand flexible, realistic and problematic situations. They are able to find solutions when faced with challenges. Therefore, individuals with this capacity think that it is simple to find solutions for issues they face with their family, companions or partners (Bar-On, 2003; Bar-On and Handley, 2003).

“Reality Testing” is “...to be capable of validating our emotions impartially and reasoning with peripheral actuality...” (Bar-On, 2006: 23). Reality testing can be viewed as the capacity to recognize the difference between feelings and reality. It includes having the option to regard occasions precisely and comprehend them as they are without exaggerating or doing anything. People with a high level of reality testing are rational and place great emphasis on reality. They can make detailed analyses of events to make better evaluations (Bar-On and Handley, 1999). In this case, one’s impartiality and accuracy concerning one’s perception of the environment is focused as pragmatism (Bar-On, 2003; Bar-On and Handley, 2003). The difficulties they experience in perceiving things as they can lead to problematic

issues in terms of adjusting themselves to reality. Moreover, those who do not have this ability may find it difficult to accept the reality.

“Flexibility” is the capacity to adjust and alter our feelings, thoughts, and behaviours to new circumstances (Bar-On, 2006: 23). Flexible individuals are receptive and they are open to difference. It is not a problem that the situations can change, as they are able to accept new ideas and change their minds. Nevertheless, people with a lack of this ability cannot tolerate any changes so situations that are not familiar concern them (Bar-On and Handley, 1999).

“Problem Solving” is the ability to solve problems of a personal and interpersonal nature efficiently (Bar-On, 2006: 23). The first step in problem-solving is to understand the problem and to come through it confidently. The other step is about recognizing the problem and finding alternative solutions. Those solutions are decided after making advantages and drawbacks analysis and the most appropriate one is implemented to overcome the problem (Bar-On, 2003; Bar-On and Handley, 2003). Individuals with this capacity are able to organize the things and act appropriately those steps in case of problems. In contrast, people with a lack of problem-solving skills bring problems in their lives instead of solving them. When there is something negative, they will panic and act illogically (Bar-On and Handley, 1999).

“General Mood” has two components: Optimism and Happiness. It is about self-motivation. Individuals with this emotional-social intelligence frequently have a positive mind, happiness and are content with life (Bar-On, 2003; Bar-On and Handley, 2003). This scale has an impact on individuals’ interaction and their capacity of overcoming difficulties.

“Optimism” is the capacity to keep up a positive and confident disposition to life even despite difficulty (Bar-On, 2006: 23). Being optimistic affects how people beat challenges and manage distressing circumstances. Optimists find solutions to daily problems self-confidently. On the other hand, pessimism is the most common reason for depression (Bar-On, 2003; Bar-On and Handley, 2003). They seek the negative aspects of life. Their constant pessimistic attitudes affect both themselves and the people around them (Bar-On and Handley, 1999).

“Happiness” is ... to be able to sense satisfied with ourselves, others, and life...” (Bar-On, 2006: 23). Individuals with the high levels of happiness are inclined to have fun in life and are satisfied with their circumstances. They will most probably have good interactions with others. In opposite, individuals with lower degrees are joyless, discouraged and disappointed with themselves. Thus, they often experience high levels of anxiety that is a reason for depression (Bar-On, 2003; Bar-On and Handley, 2003).



Table 2. 2: The EQ-i Scales and What They Assess

| Scales | Subscales | EI Competencies and skills assessed by each scale |
|---|-----------------------------------|---|
| Intrapersonal (Self-awareness and self-expression) | Self-Regard | “... to accurately perceive, understand and accept oneself.” |
| | Emotional Self-Awareness | “... to be aware of and understand one’s emotions and feelings.” |
| | Assertiveness | “... to effectively and constructively express one’s feelings.” |
| | Independence | “... to be self-reliant and free of emotional dependency on others.” |
| | Self-Actualization | “... to strive to achieve personal goals and actualize one’s potential.” |
| Interpersonal (Social awareness and interpersonal relationship) | Empathy | “... to be aware of and understand how others feel.” |
| | Social Responsibility | ... to identify with one’s social group and cooperate with others. |
| | Interpersonal Relationship | “... to establish mutually satisfying relationships and relate well with others.” |
| Adaptability (Change management) | Reality-Testing | “... to objectively validate one’s feelings and thinking with external reality.” |
| | Flexibility | “... to adapt and adjust one’s feelings and thinking to new situations.” |
| | Problem-Solving | “... to effectively solve problems of a personal and interpersonal nature.” |
| Stress Management (Emotional management and regulation) | Stress Tolerance | ... to effectively and constructively manage emotions. |
| | Impulse Control | “... to effectively and constructively control emotions.” |
| General Mood (Self-motivation) | Optimism | “... to be positive and look at the brighter side of life.” |
| | Happiness | “... to feel content with oneself, others and life in general.” |

Reference: Bar-On, The Bar-On Model of Emotional-Social Intelligence, 2006: 21

b) Goleman Model of Emotional Intelligence

Goleman began to research this idea, concentrating on Gardner’s theory of multiple intelligence that Goleman acknowledged, and came up short on the role of emotions should have been found (Goleman, 1995). According to Bar-on and Parker (2000), Goleman’s mixed model consists of both mental abilities and personal traits. Goleman points out Gardner’s theory in his work, to his intelligence, and providing information about interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence citing Gardner (Goleman, 1995: 39). Interpersonal intelligence is the capacity to understand other individuals: what can motivate them, how they work, how to work in collaboration

with them. It affects working-life under favour of aiding individuals to figure out how to function all the more productively in collaboration (Brackett, Mayer and Warner, 2004). Successful salespeople, politicians, teachers, clinicians, and religious leaders are all likely to be individuals with high degrees of interpersonal intelligence. Intrapersonal intelligence is an introverted, correlative capacity. It is the ability to create an accurate, verified personal model and to utilize that model to work effectively in life. As noted by Goleman, the explanation Gardner has not touched on emotions further lies in his perspective on intelligences. Goleman noted that “Gardner focused on cognition; nevertheless, as in the kinaesthetic realm, where physical brilliance shows itself as nonverbal, the realm of emotions extends beyond each of language and cognition.” (Goleman, 1995: 40). His initiative made emotional intelligence popular both in scientific circles and in all private and public sectors, especially in business. In 1995, Goleman depicted emotional intelligence in an unclear way and later gave a definitive explanation to his theory in 1998. He described five different aspects: knowing one’s emotions (self-awareness), managing emotions (self-regulation), motivating oneself, recognizing emotions in others (empathy), and handling relationships (ibid: 43).

Goleman asserts that self-awareness is the cornerstone of emotional intelligence. It represents perceiving emotions and constructing vocabulary for them, seeing the bonds between thoughts, emotions, and responses, realizing whether thoughts or emotions control a choice, knowing the results of other choices; and applying these perspectives to various choices. It is the foundation of self-confidence. Self-awareness is also concerned with how you perceive your strengths and weaknesses and find yourself more realistically and positively. It allows individuals to know their emotions and feelings as they arise and recognize the discrimination between them. In the event that an individual does not have the attributes to know their strong and weak points to settle on the correct choices throughout everyday life, it cannot be workable for the individual in question. Therefore, self-awareness is an element of emotional intelligence that every individual should have the option to settle on the correct choices throughout everyday life. To improve this, it is important to train children at a youthful age what it implies for each feeling. Goleman (ibid) points out that individuals who are more confident in their emotions can easily control their lives and have a firm comprehension of what they feel about personal choices.

Emotional self-awareness is the cornerstone of the next foundation of emotional intelligence: getting out of a bad mood (ibid). An individual with a good self-awareness skill can improve oneself in identifying emotions, comprehend the reasons for emotions, and know the distinction between emotions and actions (ibid).

The second element is self-regulation that is the most basic element of emotional intelligence. An individual with this skill is good at knowing emotions and what lies behind them, finding new ways to manage negative feelings like anxiety, anger, and sadness, reacting appropriately to the present situation via managing emotions. Marshmallow Test Experiment sheds light on the importance of self-regulation (ibid: 91-94). The test consists of four-year-old kids. Each of the kids is given a marshmallow in a room. The experimenter tells the kids that they can take the marshmallow when they ask at the moment of speaking in the event that they wait for him without eating the marshmallow to return subsequent to addressing a task, they could have one more. After the experimenter steps out, a few kids take the marshmallow and sniff it, at that point set it back because it is hazardous, a few kids go to a corner in the room and sing and dance to distract their attention, and some kids just grabbed it. About a third of the kids take it, about a third wait, a while and the rest wait until the experimenter returns and take two. These kids are followed up 14 years later. The kids who take the marshmallows without waiting are still impulsive. They can easily get angry and not popular while the kids who wait are popular and emotionally sensible. Furthermore, the test is implemented on these kids after they graduate from high school. The kids who wait calmly are more superior than the others who are the kids who do not pause (ibid). Goleman presumes that as Walter Mischel (who examines) depicts it “goal-directed, purposeful postponement of gratification is maybe the substance of emotional self-regulation: the capacity to deny motivation in the administration of an objective, regardless of if it be building a business, settling a logarithmic condition or seeking after the Stanley Cup” (ibid: 93). Individuals with self-regulation are able to soothe themselves, have more superior frustration tolerance and anger management. They are less in fights and classroom disruptions, they are good at showing their anger more appropriately, they are not a part of the fight. They can manage their stress; feel more positive about themselves and others (ibid).

The other element of emotional intelligence is “motivating oneself”: the capacity to channel feelings to attain the goal, to have emotional self-control, to delay gratification and to satisfy skills and adaptability. Motivating oneself can be characterized as advancing toward one’s very own objectives. Goleman (ibid) points out that one of the most important components of motivation is “hope”.

Having hope lessens or removes the anxiety, the defeatist attitude or depression in the face of difficulties or setbacks. As long as it continues, good moods enable individuals to think more broadly about more complex situations, so that it becomes much easier to solve problems, whether intellectual or interpersonal (ibid). Optimism is a state of strong expectation that life will not always go bad despite problems. In terms of emotional intelligence, optimism prevents individuals from falling into apathy, despair or depression during challenging periods. According to Goleman, hope and optimism have a good impact on academic success. Motivated individuals are more responsible and they can pay attention and concentrate more easily. These individuals have more self-control and they do not directly act with their impulses.

Goleman (ibid) states that empathy, more specifically, “recognizing emotions of others” is the basic skill that emotional intelligence touches on. Individuals with this ability can interpret the emotional situations of people around them. They can easily perceive their perspective and how they feel finding cues. These cues are not generally verbal, because people do not express their emotions through words but gestures and mimes (ibid). An individual who can empathize has the capacity to read others’ emotions. This kind of individuals has empathic awareness that allows them to take others’ perspectives and to be better at listening to others. In the event that there is a lack to understand the emotions of others, it means that there is a huge lack of emotional intelligence. Professions based on caring such as teaching require to have empathy skills to establish a better learning environment for students in the classroom. This skill enables to understand students’ emotions about the courses and enables teachers to have better strategies for challenging situations during the learning process.

The last element of this mode is handling relationships. To this model, the capacity to build a good communication environment with individuals is the primary component of emotional intelligence. The social competencies that are for concerning with other individuals prevent individuals from experiencing social world

ineptness or repeated interpersonal disasters. This ability allows people to adjust the emotions of others, to be a good listener, to be a questioner. They are able to realize the difference between what others say, what they mean and how they react and judge. Goleman proposes that “the ability to know another’s feelings and to act in a way that further shapes those feelings and... being able to manage emotions in someone else is the core of the art of handling relationships.” (ibid: 128). The individuals with this skill can analyse and understand a relationship; they are good at finding a solution for conflicts and negotiating. They have better communication skills and are assertive. This kind of individuals collaborates with others and prefers sharing.

Table 2. 3: Goleman’s Emotional Intelligence Competencies

| | SELF | OTHER |
|--------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------------|
| | Personal Competence | Social Competence |
| RECOGNITION | <u>Self-Awareness</u> | <u>Social Awareness</u> |
| | Emotional Self-Awareness | Empathy |
| | Accurate Self-Assessment | Service Orientation |
| | Self-Confidence | Organizational Awareness |
| REGULATION | <u>Self-Management</u> | <u>Relationship Management</u> |
| | Self-Control | Developing Others |
| | Trustworthiness | Influence |
| | Conscientiousness | Communication |
| | Adaptability | Conflict Management |
| | Achievement Drive | Leadership |
| | Initiative | Change Catalyst |
| | Building Bonds | |
| | Teamwork and Collaboration | |

Reference: Goleman, An EI-based theory of performance, 2001

Goleman writes his first book about education that makes some offers in practice. After 1998, he changes his working item and focuses on business life more. He gives a description of emotional competence and proposes that individuals’ inborn emotional intelligence has a role in determining the possibility of learning emotional competencies.

He states that emotional competence is “a learned capability based on emotional intelligence that results in outstanding performance” (Goleman, 1998). Goleman made a few changes with his model in 2000. There are now four domains and twenty emotional competencies (Boyatzis, Goleman, and Rhee, 2000).

2.3.2. Emotional Intelligence Improvement

EI is a psychological concept that seems more powerful than a locomotive (e.g. IQ), faster than a speeding bullet (e.g. saves struggling marriages), and able to leap over tall buildings in a single bound (e.g. improves academic achievement), with a big “EI” written across its broad chest (Chang, 2008: 25).

The conception, Emotional Intelligence, is very popular in many fields such as education, work-life, and leadership. Chang (ibid) states there is a possibility to improve one’s emotional intelligence with a remarkable effort independently of his age. School is the most significant place for this purpose. The first step is the early stages of primary school to make sense of emotions and interpret them for the children. As learning is a continuous process, age does not have a strict place for EI. Some schools prepare their curriculum taking EI into consideration in the USA. In parallel with this, teachers have also an important place to enhance learners’ EI. They can assist their students to improve their EI. In the classroom, there are different strategies and activities to promote learners’ EI skills such as role-plays, real life situations about problem-solving, modelling, motivating learners about how to listen and think (Ergün, 2011: 43). Pishghdam (2009) proposes creating discussion groups to foster EI skills. These groups are to “watch emotional-clips, self-disclosure, preparing questionnaires for the learners and engaging literary excerpts and texts related to psychology” (Ergün, 2011: 43). These kinds of activities have importance for helping learners to show their emotions more freely and they can compare notes with each other and have a more transparent atmosphere to communicate that leads to lessening stress and anxiety.

2.3.3. Emotional intelligence and academic success in education

Emotional intelligence (EI) is an important indicator of all aspects of life especially in AA and career development (Goleman, 1995; Saarni, 1999; Li, Wei ting and Wang, 2012; as cited in Hanafi and Noor, 2016). Research has shown that EI skills

can forecast AA and ultimate success. Besides, this success has shown an approach to comprehend the reason why EI has significance for undergraduate students (Bar-On, 1997; Brackett, Mayer, and Warner, 2004; Mayer, Roberts, and Barsade, 2008; Parker et al., 2004). According to Panju (2008), it can be noted that emotions have a great role in AA. Learners' mood to be more open to learning depends on the classroom atmosphere that bears emotional situations in mind. In a steady classroom environment, learners will be both academically and personally successful in life. The academic pressures at the university level can increase anxiety. Students have to complete many different assignments with different expectations. Parker (2015) proposes that the difference between emerging adult students' academic and non-academic interests can be problematic when assigning works proper time in the process of transition between high school and the university.

There are many studies implemented to examine the correlation between AA and emotional intelligence in different academic and cultural contexts. According to Low et al. (2004), emotional intelligence helps make students and teachers more professional to get the AA. Goleman (1995) thus offered EI predicts AA better than traditional measures of intelligence. Bar-On (2005) also recognizes the influence of this non-cognitive ability on the success of a student's life. He proposes that managing emotions, verifying feelings and solving both individual and intrapersonal problems are crucial to be successful academically. Furthermore, being optimistic and self-motivated allows students to set goals and accomplish them.

It is asserted that EI promotes learners' AA (Jaeger and Eagan, 2007). Additionally, "stress management", "interpersonal skills" and "adaptability" have a positive role in AA. Fallahzadeh (2011) also proposes adaptability and stress management, and academic success is paramount. According to Zahed-Babelan and Moenikia (2010), there is a positive correlation between intrapersonal and general mood with AA. "Stress management" and "adaptability" show no relation to AA while interpersonal has a negative relationship with AA. Carvalho and Colvin (2015) conducted a study with 353 university students, who studied at undergraduate programs in the USA and it has shown stress management skills are positive and a more powerful predictor of AA, with 61% reporting variance in AA. Notwithstanding, Siegling et al. (2012) recorded that adaptability was noticeable to manage AA after the study that was carried out at UK universities. Durgut, Gerekan,

and Pehlivan (2013) have shown that the positive correlation between AA and EI on 177 students in Turkey. According to the results, “problem-solving” and “social responsibility” have positive effects on AA, on the other hand, independence, self-actualization and flexibility negatively affect the learners’ AA. Moreover, Meshkat (2011) has revealed that there is no link between EI and AA.

There are also many studies conducted on emotional intelligence in foreign language classrooms. The research topics are mostly about receptive and productive skills. Most of the result has shown that EI affects positively language learning.

Even if, the Bar-on model of intelligence is mixed in contrast to the other models, there are some more scientific explanations. The Bar-on model of intelligence includes more the dynamics in foreign language classrooms such as interpersonal relations, stress management or adaptability. Remembering all these, so as to test the correlation between emotional intelligence and willingness to communicate, Bar-On’s model of emotional intelligence will guarantee a superior outcome for the investigation.

2.4. Willingness to Communicate (WTC)

2.4.1. The Definition of WTC

Particular requirements must be fulfilled to improve the language. Krashen (1982) states that the L2 learning occurs as the learner gets comprehensible input consisting of structures, which are higher than the present capacity of the learner’s inter-language. He proposes that the appropriate input level is accomplished automatically when learners flourish in making themselves more understandable in communication. Long (1985) indicates the practicality of “inter-language talk”, the communication between non-native speakers where they “negotiate meaning” in groups, and supposes that interacting with the L2 is vital to acquire the language. Unless the language classroom environment permits for interaction, learners cannot be expected to improve the speaking skill that is required for fruitful communication (Lightbrown and Spada, 1999; Şener, 2014). Vygotsky (1978) clarifies that interaction has an important role in second language acquisition and how “zones of proximal development” are established via interaction. Then it is accepted that learners need to communicate to acquire the language and improve their language skills. Today, English is spoken by more than one and half billion native and non-

native speakers in the world as their first, second or foreign language (Strevens, 1992). Only one-fourth of this population is native speakers whereas the others are non-native speakers that use English as a second or foreign language to interact with native/non-native speakers of English. This population increases every passing day because English is used for many reasons such as tourism, diplomacy, economy, technology, trade, media, etc. All of these reasons demonstrate that English is a language that is internationally used for interaction among different countries in the world (Alptekin, 2002; Norton, 1997; Smith, 1992; Strevens, 1992). With the arrival of communicative language teaching in the 1970s there was a reduction in formal structure teaching and its supporters uttered that the structure might be learned with practical improvement in communication skills throughout purposeful interaction (Brumfit, 1979; Canale and Swain, 1980; Savignon, 1991). As communicational gadgets are progressing each day, even if the objective of educating was learning language structure for a long time, learning to communicate with English seem to play a pivotal role in this period of innovation (Ketabdar, Yazdani and Yarahmadi, 2014). Therefore, the goal of teaching this language has altered from its grammar to skills to communicate better. As a consequence, the main purpose of language learning and teaching is described as “authentic communication between persons of different languages and cultural backgrounds” (McIntyre et al., 1998: 559). Although CLT as an English teaching method has appeared, some people are more willing to communicate, while the others feel anxious for communication. Hence, there is a need to explore the reasons, which affect the willingness to communicate with learners.

Burgoon (1976) introduced unwillingness to communicate scale and since then WTC has been involved in many studies. The notion of willingness to communicate arises firstly from one’s L1 in terms of individual differences and personal characteristics and it is a complicated construct that is conceptualized first in L1 (McCroskey and Baer, 1985; McCroskey and Richmond, 1987). According to McCroskey and Baer (1985), this term means the possibility to start a conversation when an individual feels free to do. WTC in the first language is defined as “a personality-based disposition” regarding types of communication (McCroskey and Richmond, 1990: 20). According to MacIntyre et al. (2002: 538), WTC is “an underlying continuum representing the predisposition toward or away from communicating given the

choice”. Dörnyei (2005) summarizes WTC comprehensively and highlights the factors that can be aligned with WTC as organic:

WTC is a composite ID variable that draws together a host of learner variables that have been well established as influences on second language acquisition and use, resulting in a construct in which psychological and linguistic factors are integrated in an organic manner (ibid: 210).

(MacIntyre et al., 1998: 547) defined as a readiness to get into the discourse in the second language at a specific time with a particular person and the final psychological step to start L2 communication. Dourakhshan and Baghaei (2012: 55) assert that the “higher WTC a speaker has the more likely he is to succeed in the second language (L2) acquisition”. L1 and L2 WTC are most probably to be autonomous concerning L2 communication (MacIntyre et al., 2003); in other words, it is not plausible that WTC may be easily transmitted from L1 to L2. Both variations in communicative competence and social aspects in regard to practice are the basic reasons for this absence of transferability (MacIntyre et al., 1998). Depending upon the fundamental aim at second language teaching, which is to make learners communicatively competent in L2, this notion becomes a paramount issue of L2.

WTC is seen as the main introduction to communication. It is easier to answer a directly asked question than going on or initiating interaction for anyone. WTC is also seen as a circumstantial variable with both temporal and continuing impacts. Kang’s emphasis (2005: 291) is also about the dynamic nature of WTC and puts forward a WTC definition of the L2. It is determined that this status to get together with L2 communication may differ in accordance with speakers, point, context, and the other possible situational variables. House (2004) also proposes some factors can influence WTC in variable contexts. Additionally, a few precedents have been proposed such as inner-directedness, self-esteem, communicative competence, communication apprehension, and cultural variety. To exemplify, a relative study on WTC in the USA, Sweden, Australia, Micronesia, and Puerto Rico was carried out by McCroskey and Richmond (1990). The countries may be similar in terms of the Western context. Thus, it can be supposed that WTC is culture-dependent (Bursalı and Öz, 2017). In terms of L2 WTC, numerous aspects such as “a particular mode of the learner, deeply rooted uneasiness, unattractiveness of the subject, his or her thoughts of competence, fear of making mistakes or inadequate time to answer”

should be considered (Williams, Mercer and Ryan, 2016: 140). There has been much research in terms of L2 WTC; however, Macintyre et al. (1998) offer the pyramid-shaped model, which is the most effective one.

2.4.2. Willingness to Communicate in the Native Language

The conception of willingness to communicate was first in the native language. According to McCroskey and Baer (1985), WTC is a personality trait in an individual's native language that explains why one individual would communicate and the other would not under the same or similar circumstances. They assumed that if individuals were willing to communicate in specific contexts, they would be willing in the others. McCroskey and Baer (ibid) composed a scale for willingness to communicate in four contexts (public speaking, meetings, small groups, days) and three types of recipients (strangers, acquaintances, and friends) to measure their communication willingness. Whereupon the study of WTC by McCroskey and Baer's (ibid), a new dimension has arisen to the communication research field.

To elicit whether high or low willingness would depend on class participation, Chan and McCroskey (1987) conducted a study. Firstly, university students completed the scale and then high and low willing students were grouped and observed. The results showed that low willing students had less willingness to communicate in classrooms in comparison to high willing students.

In chronological order, there is another study by Barraclough, Christophel and McCroskey (1988). They analysed the people in the United States and Australia. In terms of similarities and differences in communication orientations that were communication apprehension, willingness to communicate, and communication competence. The study, which included 195 participants, found that Australian students scored significantly lower overall than American students in terms of their willingness to communicate score and self-perceived competence. In both countries, a higher willingness to communicate has been associated with higher SPCC and lower communication apprehension.

In their research, Zakahi and McCroskey (1989) examined if low or high willingness to communicate influenced individuals' volunteering to be a part of a research. After a semester of being grouped as high and low willing according to their WTC scores, they were asked if they would want to be a participant of a research consisting of

interviews and questionnaires. In light of their answers, the students were divided into two groups as those rejected and the individuals who consented to participate. Next, agreements were made with the second group of students for the study and they were grouped as students who arrived at the scheduled time and attended later because they did not appear in the first appointment. The outcomes indicated that, first, significantly more willing students consented to partake in the research compared to low-willing students. Similarly, in the next phase, students willing for research appeared more than those who were low willing.

McCroskey and Richmond (1990) discussed whether WTC is a personality trait or situation based concept. They explained willingness to communicate as “variability in talking behaviour”. It was an aim to begin communication when free to do. In this line, WTC was a permanent personality that is improbable to alter depending on situations. There was an argument that specific factors may alter willingness to communicate but in contrast, WTC inclinations stayed nearly the same in various circumstances. As such, WTC was essentially thought of as personality traits in place of a variable changed by the condition.

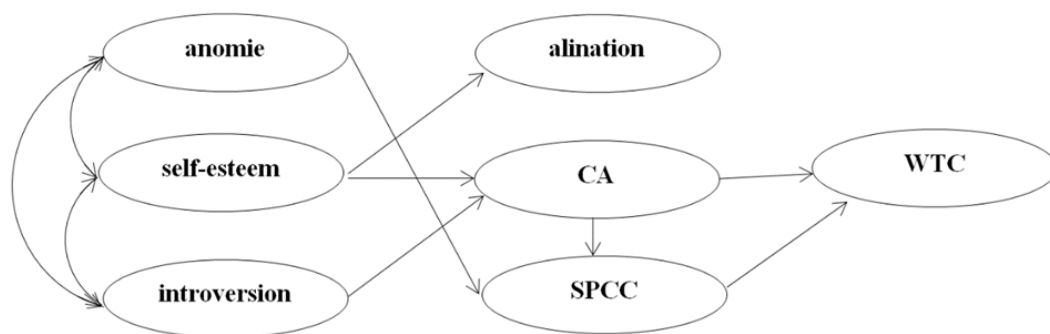
In 1991, Sallinen-Kuparinen, McCroskey and Richmond examined Finnish people’s communication orientations. The data were collected from 249 Finnish college students and the findings were analyzed comparing with Australian, Micronesian, Swedish and American populations’ data from previous research (Barraclough, Christophel and McCroskey, 1988; Burroughs, Marie and McCroskey, 2003; McCroskey and Richmond, 1990; McCroskey and McCroskey, 1988). According to results, Finns and Americans appeared to have scored similarly concerning communication apprehension “fear of communication with others” (and self-perceived communication competence (McCroskey, 1977). Besides, according to the results, Finns were less willing to communicate from all the other groups included but Micronesians. In this sense, Sallinen-Kuparinen et al. (1991) pointed out that culture had an impact on WTC.

Using the data by McCroskey and his colleagues, MacIntyre (1994) studied the relationship between communication apprehension, anomie, alienation, introversion, self-esteem, and perceived competence. He composed of an L1 WTC model consisting of variables as determinants of WTC. According to this model, as people’s apprehension increases they will be more willing to communicate and more

competent in communication. Also, MacIntyre (ibid) points out there was no relation among WTC, anomie, and alienation; that is why he did not mention anomie and alienation as casual factors unlike Burgoon (1976).

MacIntyre, Babin and Clement (1999) investigated WTC in terms of both trait and state levels in a structural equation model. There were 226 participants, who were given WTC perceived competence, self-esteem, extraversion, emotional stability, and communication anxiety scales, along with additional speaking and writing task questionnaires, to analyse WTC at the trait level. State-level analysis involving 70 participants observed in a laboratory setting while completing 4 specific tasks consisting of willingness, anxiety, perceived competence and communication tasks demonstrated that the degree of communication apprehension is inversely proportional to perceived competence and willingness to communicate (Macintyre, 1994). There was no significant relationship found between communication apprehension and WTC. Besides, it was also found that there was a relation between extroversion and perceived competence and apprehension. The study revealed that the participants who voluntarily participated in laboratory tasks had significantly higher WTC levels. Finally, MacIntyre et al. (1998) inferred that people were in certain communication situations via trait willingness and state willingness has an impact on the probability of communication. A started communication makes other variables more important, such as comprehension, anxiety, or perceived communication competence.

Figure 2. 2 MacIntyre’s Casual Model of Predicting WTC by Using Personality-Based Variables



Reference: MacIntyre, P. D., Variables Underlying Willingness to Communicate: A Causal Analysis, 1994

Taking everything into account, the research above analysed L1 WTC develops from alternate points of view. Thusly, culture was uncovered to influence L1 WTC. Correspondence apprehension and SPCC were viewed as the indicators of WTC. Individuals with high WTC and perceived competence levels were proposed to have low degrees of apprehension. Personality additionally appeared to influence WTC and extroverts were accepted to have high competence however low apprehension.

2.4.3. Willingness to Communicate in the Foreign Language

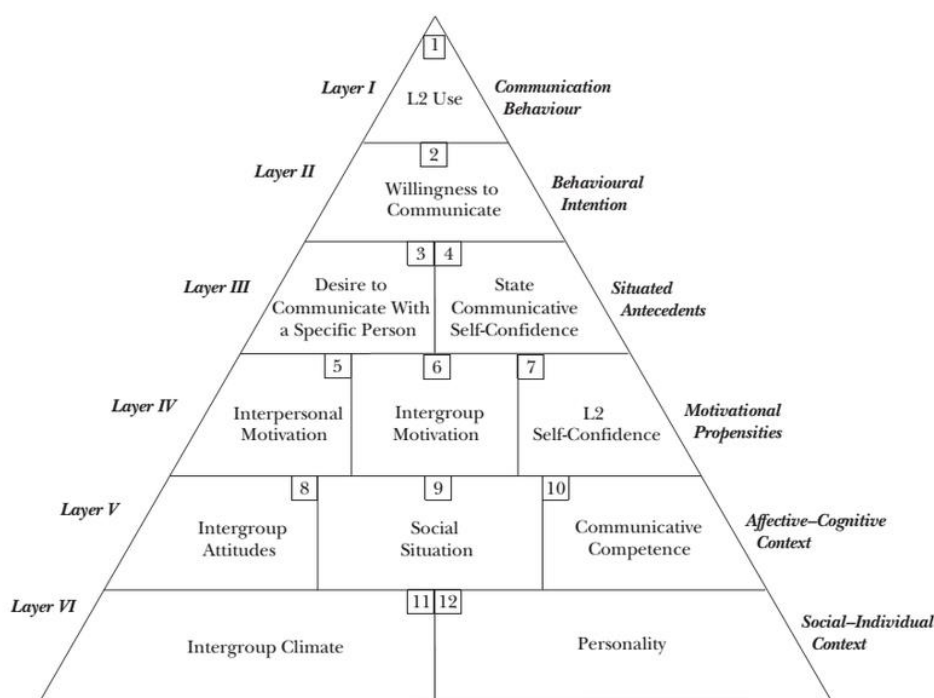
The notion of willingness to communicate was first introduced by McCroskey in North America that has a multicultural society construct which requires strong communication skills (McCrosky, 1997). There is a difference between people in terms of the way they communicate. This difference in communication behaviours was conceptualized as routinely happening over circumstances dictated by personality traits (McCroskey and Richmond, 1990; McCroskey, 1997). This concept was WTC. He correlated this construct concerning willingness to communicate in the first language. Considering WTC in L1 and WTC in L2, MacIntyre et al. (1998) discussed that the study of L1 WTC formed the basis for L1 WTC, which had a more complex structure because the predictors of WTC in L2 are different from the predictors of WTC in L1. To illustrate, social and political inferences have a remarkable impact on L2 communication but not L1. Besides, the purposes to use L1 and L2 are quite different. L1 is used with the purpose of communication while L2 usage purpose varies according to contexts and people such as for exams, for a good job, and business.

2.4.3.1 MacIntyre et al.'s Heuristic Model

MacIntyre et al. (ibid) portrayed a heuristic model of factors that impacts L2 WTC based on the L1 WTC model by McCroskey and Baer. In this model mental processes enabling to trigger the communication in the L2 pyramid. The model units psychological, linguistic and communicative approaches to create notions of situational and contextual nature of L2 WTC that make the model significant. The aspects that contribute to willingness to communicate are classified as two groups: permanent effects and “situational” effects. Regarding the hypothesis of having situational effects on and being the foremost proximal components of L2 communication, Communication Behaviour, Behaviour Intention, and Situated

Antecedents are the three nearest layers to the head of the pyramid. There are six layers and twelve variables consisting of the model that are classified into two groups. These groups are situational variables (Layer I-II-II) and individual influences (Layer IV-V-VI). Situational variables (e.g., desire to talk to a particular person) can vary depending on a particular context at a particular time. Individual variables (e.g., intergroup relationships, learner personality) are perceived as stable characteristics of an individual that can be employed in any situation. In the pyramid model, situational variables are placed in the upper level whereas individual variables are at the lower level (ibid). That shows the importance of situational variables on individual differences. Even if individual differences do not have a direct effect on willingness to communicate, they construct an essential level of the WTC process (ibid). Layer I-II-II represent situational impacts on WTC. Motivation Propensities, Affective-Cognitive Context, and Social and Individual Context are the three layers at the bottom of the pyramid. These last-mentioned three layers indicate moderately steady and permanent impacts on the second language communication. Hence, the layers stand for progress with the foremost quick, “situation-based” settings and permanent impacts of specific features on the second language communication environments (ibid).

Figure 2. 3 Heuristic Model of WTC in L2 of MacIntyre et al. (1998)



Reference: MacIntyre et al., Conceptualizing willingness to communicate in a L2: A situational model of L2 confidence and affiliation, 1998

The second language usage complexity is clarified by this model, which justifies willingness to communicate as “cognitive-affective” aspects that interact with societal causes. Self-confidence, attitudes, second language competence, personality, and motivation, which are “the cognitive-affective” aspects are involved in this model (Xie, 2011: 23). Per this model, whereas affective variables e.g. personality, L2 competence have an indirect impact on WTC, motivation, and self-confidence affect WTC directly.

Since it was presented in 1998, many studies have been conducted. for example, MacIntyre and his colleagues have conducted a few empirical studies in Canada that are mainly about finding the correlation between WTC and several factors from this model. Baker and MacIntyre (2000) carried out a study that had 71 Canadian high school immersion and 124 non-immersion students to investigate the effects of gender and immersion on variables. Variables were perceived competence, WTC, frequency of communication, communication anxiety and motivation. The results indicated that non-immersion students were with lower WTC and higher communication anxiety.

“MacIntyre et al.’s (1998) heuristic WTC model” is also examined as experimental research in the EFL context (Xie, 2011: 24). In Korea, a study was conducted by Kim (2004) to investigate this model of WTC in L2 through Korean students and its implications in Korean EFL classrooms. According to the results, Korean university students’ WTC was directly influenced by self-confidence and indirectly affected by motivation via self-confidence. Besides, results showed there is not any continuous correlation between attitudes with the international community and L2 WTC. The study demonstrated that WTC in the second language was more personality-based predisposition instead of situational and “MacIntyre et al.’s (1998) heuristic model” was reliable in the Korean EFL context (Xie, 2011: 25).

In Turkish EFL context, Çetinkaya (2005) also carried out a research with 356 Turkish undergraduate students. The aim was to examine if the model justified the link between variables, which are social-psychological, linguistic, and communication (ibid). Çetinkaya (2005) used a mixed-method, which is both qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis procedures. With questionnaires, he studied the interrelations through learner’s willingness to communicate in the second language. The results were similar to Kim (2004). It was found that there was a direct impact on their perceived self-confidence and an indirect effect on the motivation by self-confidence. In contrast to Kim’s (ibid) research that discovered no immediate connection between attitude to “the international community” and willingness to communicate, Çetinkaya’s (2005) revealed that “SEM” uncovered a steady connection between the international community and WTC in the L2 and between the international community and WTC (Xie, 2011). To sum up, the studies implemented in different contexts proved the appropriateness of MacIntyre et al.’s (1998) heuristic model in the contexts.

2.4.4. Variables affecting WTC

There are two factor types distinguished by researchers that are considered to influence learners’ WTC. These factors are situational factors and psychological factors (Tuyen and Loan, 2019).

2.4.4.1. Situational Variables

Situational factors are a group of variable views to influence learners’ WTC. These factors show that learners want to converse with a particular individual in a specific

circumstance. These variables identified by Kang (2005) and Peng (2012) are briefly explained below.

“Effect of Task Types”: Peng (ibid) describes tasks as the learning activities that are sorted out in a class focused on either “structural knowledge” or “communication ability”. The types of tasks are remarkable elements that will influence learners’ WTC degrees. Pattapong, (2010) asserts that task nature, difficulty level and the time permitted to complete the task can influence learners’ L2 WTC.

“Effect of Topics”: Learners might be disposed to communicate with their friends in L2 when the teachers expose them to more common themes to talk about and consequently increase the possibilities of practice (Tuyen and Loan, 2019). MacIntyre et al. (1998) state that topic familiarity that promotes learners’ linguistic self-confidence increases also learners’ WTC. Correspondingly, some specific topics may encourage learners to be more willing to take an interest in the discussions. In other words, there will be an intrinsic need to communicate due to their instrumental interest in that topic. In opposite, insufficient information about the subjects causes learners to avoid communication (Kang, 2005). It has been broadly investigated and confirmed that teachers can considerably affect WTCs by choosing topics accordingly learners’ interests (Xie, 2011).

“Teacher role”: Factors like “teaching styles, classroom procedures, verbal and non-verbal behaviour” by teachers influence learners’ competence, anxiety, and WTC foreign language classes (MacIntyre, Burns and Jessome, 2011; Pattapong, 2010; Peng, 2012). Teachers’ verbal behaviours such as actions in classrooms like giving instructions and clear explanation, feedback, motivation and their personality like being friendly all affect greatly learners’ willingness to communicate in L2 (Tuyen and Loan, 2019).

“Classroom atmosphere”: Students can be encouraged with the atmosphere to either talk or prevent their attention. The ambiance in the classroom is the realm that the class bunch makes and likes, demonstrating the interest and participation of all individuals in the class (ibid). While a quiet and dull environment discourages learners’ L2 WTC, a friendly classroom environment allows learners to improve it (Pattapong, 2010; Peng, 2012; Suksawas, 2011). Researchers have demonstrated that

the L2 WTC level may be higher by sharing their opinions through activities in a collaborative learning environment that learners are equally grouped (ibid).

2.4.4.2. Psychological Variables

“L2 Self-Confidence”: It affects learners’ WTC in different ways. To illustrate, it can cause anxiety or show perceived competence (MacIntyre et al., 1998). It is seen as the most determined predictor of willingness to communicate among variables (Clément, Baker and MacIntyre, 2003); and it deeply impacts learners’ second language willingness to communicate (Çetinkaya, 2005).

“Perceived Communication Competence”: As far as it is concerned, learners’ perceived communication competence might be thought as their perception of the capacity to speak L2 to another second language user (MacIntyre et al., 1998). Second language learners that consider themselves weak or strong communicators, incline to be less or more willing to communicate. Baker and MacIntyre (2000) state that learners’ real ability is to comprehend that WTC is established by their competence.

“L2 Learning Anxiety”: Gardner and MacIntyre (1991) identify a few factors concerning L2 learning anxiety such as persistent anxiety, situational anxiety, and state-specific anxiety. Speaking activities often cause anxiety among learners in the second language classes. Speech anxiety hinders and limits learners from getting the better of their verbal skills. Language use anxiety and past communication experiences, which are positive or negative, are among the main dynamics determining learners’ testified level of WTC (Baker and MacIntyre, 2000). McCroskey and Baer (1985) state oral communication anxiety has also impacts on learners’ perception, thus influencing their WTC (ibid).

“Learners’ Motivation”: According to Gardner (1985), motivation is an effort by students to acquire language due to their willing to perform so and the contentment drew on it. L2 proficiency by means of communication with others can be brought by the motivation. Teachers and their strategies for teaching can determine if their learners are willing or unwilling. They may build crucial motivational circumstances, create and support student motivation. They can foster positive self-assessment, which directly affects the attitudes towards the L2 learning context (Clément, Dörnyei and Noels, 1994). Low motivation can cause unwillingness to communicate.

“Learners’ Personality”: Personality is a significant pattern of WTC in communicating in both L1 and L2. Individual differences affect learners’ level of willing in term of communication. “Introversion and extraversion personality traits” are influential signals of WTC (McCroskey and Richmond, 1990). Personality is seen as a considerable cause behind learners’ willingness to communicate. Some students are introverted therefore; they are inclined to stay silent in classes (Liu, 2005).

2.5. Gender, Emotional Intelligence and Willingness to Communicate

The evidence that has been found so far encircles if there is a considerable distinction between two genders in their level of emotional intelligence or not. Considering the studies investigating the relationship between gender and emotional intelligence, it was concluded that this relationship is positive in some studies, or there is no relationship in others. Goleman (1998) proposes there are no gender differences in emotional intelligence. He admits that their overall levels of EI are equivalent although he asserts males and female can possess different kinds of profiles in terms of strengths and weaknesses in various areas of emotional intelligence. Bar-On (1997) claims that gender does not cause differences in emotional intelligence levels of individuals. Bar-On et al. (2000) also found that although there were some gender differences, gender did not affect interaction among individuals with higher emotional intelligence. Aquino (2003) reported males and females did not show a significant difference in overall EI. Brown and Schutte (2006) did not find significant differences between females and males on the major variables. Although there were significant correlations between EI components, overall EI did not change significantly considering gender (Arteche et al., 2008). It was also stated that there was not any degree of gender differences in terms of total emotional intelligence (Brackett and Mayer, 2003; Brackett, M. A. et al., 2006; Nasir and Masrur, 2010; Myint and Aung, 2016). In their studies, Çakan and Altun (2005), Şakrak (2009), Meshkat and Nejati (2017), and Ateş (2019) reported there was no clear difference between genders in total EI.

In contrast, some studies such as Mayer and Geher (1996), Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (1999), and more recently Mandell and Pherwani (2003) have indicated that women have higher scores on emotional intelligence tests than men, both in professional and personal settings. Sutarso et al. (1996), Brody (1997), Betts and

Morell (1999) found gender as a predictor of success. In line with it, it was reported that there were empirical data findings that females have significantly higher scores than males in overall EI (Petrides and Furnham, 2000; Costa, Terracciano and McCrae 2001; Brackett, Mayer and Warner, 2004; Kafetsios, 2004; Van Rooy, Alonso and Viswesvaran, 2005; Harrod and Scheer, 2005; Craig et al., 2009; Makvana, 2014; Domakani, Mirzaei and Zeraatpisheh, 2014; Cabello et al., 2016). Argyle (1990) asserts that women tend to express their emotions and to establish empathy more than men do. Zohrevand (2010) claimed 11th-grade females had lower EI scores than male students in Iran. Hyde and Kling (2001), Kim, Rhoades, and Woodard (2003), and Fayombo (2012) revealed that gender difference had a statistical influence on AA. Asadollahfam, Salimi and Pashazadeh (2012), Tariq et al. (2013), Shehzad and Mahmood (2013), and Chaudhry et al. (2013) found female learners with higher emotional intelligence showed better performances with lower anxiety. Joshi and Dutta (2014) and Fida et al. (2018) stated that females had better scores in EI among students. In the Turkish context, the studies showed that females scored better than males (Dayıoğlu and Türüt-Aşık, 2007; Yılmaz, 2007; Ergün, 2011; Kılıç, 2018).

The difference can be because of the measurement ways. To illustrate, while self-report measures the Bar-On (EQ-i) and the Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SREIT) find no difference in terms of gender, Brackett and Mayer (2003) show that females have higher scores than males.

It is also one of the issues discussed in the ELT whether gender differences are a factor in the WTC. Worrall and Tsarna (1987), studying English and French teachers, regarded a model that determined a general favourability of females in the language classes. Canary and Hause (1993) argue a small tendency of gender differences in communication variables. Gardner (1985) asserts females' positive attitudes are more than males towards a new language. There are different developmental paths in adolescence for each gender, which affects the language learning process (Wright, 1999). Baker and MacIntyre (2000) found that females were more communicative in L2 classes. MacIntyre et al. (2002) argue that even though males did not show any change, females increased gradually in overall WTC with a decrease of anxiety level. Smith (1997) found among Irish students learning French, females adopted more positive attitudes in learning and communicating in French than males.

Mohammadzadeh and Jafarigohar (2012) found out that there was a positive relationship between WTC in the second language and gender. Lahuerta (2014) reported a correlation between self-perceived communication competence and L2 competence, and gender had an important role in WTC. Munezane (2014) claimed gender difference was favored to encourage effective classroom communication. In contrast to these findings, Valadi, Rezaee and Baharvand (2015) and Hişmanoğlu and Özüdoğru (2017) proclaim that gender is not a factor affecting learners WTC in English. Ekin (2018) and Uyanık (2018) also found out that gender does not make a statistical difference in L2 WTC levels.

The number of studies in which the concepts of emotional intelligence and willingness to communicate are addressed in terms of gender is very small despite the mass of studies in which multiple intelligence theory, communication, gender differences are discussed in ELT literature. Research on the relationship between these concepts is encountered in studies after the year 2000. Zakian (2019) has not found gender is an effective factor regarding WTC and intelligence. There was no gender difference despite having a positive correlation between learners' social intelligence and WTC in Iranian EFL contexts (Ghalani and Pahlavani, 2019). Ketabdar, Yazdani and Yarahmadi (2014), Amini and Sabber (2015), Vahedi and Fatemi (2015) state that there is a clear relationship between the learners' EI and WTC. While analyzing the difference between "WTC inside and outside classroom", Rahbar, Suzani and Zoleikha (2016) related EI to "WTC outside" but not "WTC inside classroom". Ożańska-Ponikwia (2016), studying immersion students' L2 use, revealed the influence of emotional intelligence components on the frequency of L2 use. According to Bagheri and Souzani (2017), the relationship between EI and WTC was not affected by gender. Tabatabaei and Jamshidifar (2013) reported a positive correlation between WTC and EI and females outperformed men (Alavinia and Alikhani, 2014; Janfeshan and Nazeri, 2014; Gholami, 2015). Oz (2015) also recorded the positive correlation between EI and WTC and he noticed men scored better despite not being statistically different.

2.6. Conclusion

The main aim of this chapter, based on the literature review, was to introduce and elaborate on the issues of gender, EQ and WTC's roles in language learning process. It provides information about findings of the previous studies concerning how these

variables affect language learning. The next chapter is going to be concerned with the methodology that has used in this study.



CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This chapter includes the research design, the setting and the participants, the data collection instruments, and the data analysis procedure with concluding comments in the end.

3.2. Research Design

The aim of this study is to find whether there is a correlation between emotional intelligence and willingness to communicate in terms of gender in EFL classrooms at a foundation university. The study is designed as an experimental and descriptive study that investigates male and female students' tendencies in foreign language classes regarding their WTC and EI. This study is going to be conducted through Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) Adapted Version and L2 Willingness to Communicate Scale adapted from MacIntyre et al. (2001). All scales (questionnaires) are presented in Turkish for students whose English level is not good enough to understand the items and mark the appropriate option. The students are going to be asked to complete these scales and after the data collection, the data are analysed by SPSS programme.

3.3. Setting and Participants

The study is conducted as an experimental and descriptive study at EFL classrooms of a foundation university preparatory classrooms in Turkey. The medium of instruction in many programs within the body of the university is English. There is an extensive English preparatory programme offered that includes five levels A1, A2, B1, B1+, and B2.

There are 120 prep. school students participating in the study. Of these, 50 were males (41, 6%) and 70 were females (58,4%). Students from all levels except A1 were included in the research to be able to generalize the results. The participants were kept informed it was voluntary and that their participation would not have any influence in the courses. The ages of students ranged from 18 to 33 and they can read, write, listen and speak Turkish well enough to complete questionnaires.

3.4. Data Collection Instruments

The data for the study are collected through two questionnaires that have been adapted from Bar-On EQ-i, MacIntyre et al. (ibid).

Firstly, an adapted version of the Bar-On EQ-i, which is a self-report including 133 items that measure 5 scales of emotional intelligence and 15 factorial components, was used. The adapted version was shortened to get more reliable responses drawing students' attention (Ekmekçi, 1999). It consists of intrapersonal (12 items), interpersonal (9 items), adaptability items (9 items), stress management (8 items), and general mood (8 items) EQ.

Secondly, an adaptation from MacIntyre et al. (2001) was used to measure learners' L2 WTC inside and outside the classroom. The scale was accordingly adapted to tasks more usual to EFL classes. The 27-item adaptation of MacIntyre et al. (ibid) evaluated the frequency of time that learners' choices to communicate in their English classrooms.

The questionnaires were presented in Turkish, as all students were proficient enough in Turkish to fill in. The responses were given on 5-point scale, 1: Strongly Disagree, 2: Disagree, 3: Neutral, 4: Agree, 5: Strongly Agree. Higher scores indicate higher levels of WTC in English and more emotionally intelligent.

3.5. Pilot Study

Pilot studies play a crucial role to see if it is feasible or not before carrying out a full-scale research project. That is why, after determining to research on EI, WTC and gender in this study, the scales were selected to be examined. A pilot study was conducted with a group of pilot students before the actual data were collected. Bar-On EQ-i (adapted version) and, MacIntyre et al. (ibid) were implemented to test whether there would be any problems. After getting permissions from the School of Languages of a foundation university, it was conducted with a small group of students consisting of males and females. The gathered data were analysed using SPSS 22, as there was no drawback found out. According to results, both questionnaires were reliable with their Cronbach Alpha values: Bar-On EQ-i (.826) and WTC scale (.956). These reliability values allowed the researcher not to make any change in the questionnaires.

3.6. Data Analysis Procedure

After getting permission from the coordinator of the schools' English department, the questionnaires were shared with prep schools' students in the 2019-2020 academic year. The quantitative data were analysed using SPSS 22. While processing the data into SPSS, 18 items in the EQ-i were reverse-scored (Tosun, 2013). First, a normality test was used to check whether the data are normally distributed or not. At this stage, the data were checked for kurtosis and skewness values and the distribution of the data were normal. Secondly, each individual's score and the average of response were calculated for every variable under the heading WTC and EQ.

To analyse data, two different statistical techniques were utilized. To answer the first two research questions, the independent samples t-tests were conducted to find out whether there are any significant differences between males and females concerning WTC and EQ-i Likert-scale items. Lastly, to explore the correlation between WTC and EI, cumulative means were correlated with total EI and WTC scores and their sub-skills total scores by utilizing the Pearson Correlation Analysis. The data were calculated at the 95% confidence interval and a 5% significance level.

Table 3. 1: Adapted version of Bar-On EQ-i scales and with item numbers

| Scales | Items |
|-------------------|---|
| Intrapersonal | 1, 2, 3 , 4, 5, 6, 7, 10 , 12, 14 , 17, 19 |
| Interpersonal | 8 , 9, 11 , 16 , 22, 26, 29, 31, 33 |
| Adaptability | 13, 15, 18 , 20, 21 , 23, 24 , 25 , 34 |
| Stress Management | 27, 35, 36, 37 , 38 , 40 , 42 , 43 |
| General Mood | 28, 30, 32 , 39 , 41, 44, 45 |

Reference: Tosun. M., In the relationship between emotional intelligence and foreign language skills in ELT, 2013

Table 3. 2: Adapted version of MacIntyre et al. (2001)' WTC scales with item number

| Scales | Items |
|---------------|--------------------------------|
| Speaking | 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 |
| Reading | 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, |
| Writing | 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21,22, |
| Comprehension | 23, 24, 25, 26, 27 |

Reference: MacIntyre, P. D., Willingness to communicate, social support, and language-learning orientations of immersion students, 2001

Table 3.1. demonstrates how items were distributed for each scale and 18 items which are shown in bold are negatively worded and reverse-scored (Tosun, 2013). Table 3.2. also shows how WTC scale items were distributed.

3.7. Conclusion

This chapter aimed to introduce the methodology of the study. After the research design was explained, extensive information was given about the research setting and participants. Afterwards, the Emotional Quotient Inventory and Willingness to Communicate scale were presented. Finally, the data analysis procedure was explained. In the next chapter, the obtained data will be analysed, and the results will be interpreted.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

4.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the data gathered from the questionnaires analysed in SPSS for Windows 22.0. There will be findings of the data via the independent sample t-test and correlation analysis tables. Firstly, an independent sample t-test table will be presented to address the first research question of the study. Secondly, another independent sample t-test table will be presented to answer the second research question. Lastly, there will be a correlation analysis table for the third research question.

4.2. Results

This study is based on three research questions. To be able to address these questions, the following steps were followed:

1. A normality test was conducted, and it was revealed that there was a normal distribution.
2. Whether variances were homogenous or not was checked. The results demonstrated that all were homogenous except the writing variance. That is why “equal variances not assumed” values were used only for this variance in the analysis. For the other variances, “equal variances assumed” values were used.
3. An independent sample t-test was conducted to investigate the impact of gender on individuals’ level of EI and its scales.
4. Independent samples t-tests were conducted to investigate the impact of gender on individuals’ level WTC and its scales.
5. To reveal the relationship between EQ, WTC and their scales, the Pearson Moment Correlation was utilized.

4.2.1. The relationship between EI, its scales and Gender in EFL classrooms

RQ1: “Is there a relationship between EQ and students’ gender studying in preparatory programs?”

Table 4.1 shows that there was not a significant difference between EQ total scores of male students ($M=160.39$, $SD=17.64$) and female students ($M=162.27$,

$SD=15.21$); $p > .05$. When the scales of EQ were considered, there were also no significant differences between males and female students' intrapersonal, adaptability, stress management and general mood scores. In contrast to these scales, there is a significant difference between interpersonal scores of male students ($M=33.90$, $SD=5.05$) and female students ($M=35.94$, $SD=4.32$); $p < .05$. According to these results, it is clear that gender has clearly an impact on interpersonal levels of individuals in EFL classrooms and female students' interpersonal scores were more positive than male students' interpersonal scores.

Table 4. 1: The result of t-test on EQ total, its scales and gender

| Total Sample <i>Male: 51/Female: 69</i> | Gender | Mean | S. D. | t | p |
|---|---------------|-------------|--------------|----------|----------|
| EQ Total | Male | 160.39 | 17.64 | -.626 | .532 |
| | Female | 162.27 | 15.21 | | |
| Intrapersonal | Male | 45.20 | 6.73 | -.448 | .655 |
| | Female | 45.68 | 5.15 | | |
| Interpersonal | Male | 33.90 | 5.05 | -2.381 | .019 |
| | Female | 35.94 | 4.32 | | |
| Adaptability | Male | 31.00 | 4.01 | -.706 | .482 |
| | Female | 31.52 | 4.00 | | |
| Stress Management | Male | 24.24 | 3.59 | 1.804 | .074 |
| | Female | 22.94 | 4.09 | | |
| General Mood | Male | 26.06 | 4.88 | -.157 | .876 |
| | Female | 26.19 | 4.15 | | |

4.2.2. The relationship between WTC, its scales and Gender in EFL classrooms

RQ2: "To what extent does the gender of the students serve as a factor influencing the willingness to communicate in language classes?"

Table 4.2 reveals that there was a significant difference between WTC total scores of male ($M=71.70$, $SD=23.59$) and female students ($M=83.91$, $SD=26.12$); $p < .05$. Additionally, it shows that there were also significant differences between male and female students' scores of willingness to read, write and comprehend. However, there was no significant difference between male students ($M=23.18$, $SD=7.80$) and female students' ($M=25.07$, $SD=8.23$) $p > .05$ speaking scores. These results indicate

that female students significantly outperformed male students in terms of willingness to read, write and comprehend in English.

Table 4. 2: The result of t-test on WTC total, its scales and gender

| Total Sample | | | | | |
|----------------------------|---------------|-------------|--------------|----------|----------|
| <i>Male: 51/Female: 69</i> | Gender | Mean | S. D. | <i>t</i> | <i>p</i> |
| WTC Total | Male | 71.90 | 23.59 | -2.594 | .011 |
| | Female | 83.91 | 26.12 | | |
| Speaking | Male | 23.18 | 7.80 | -1.275 | .205 |
| | Female | 25.07 | 8.23 | | |
| Reading | Male | 16.22 | 6.51 | -2.974 | .004 |
| | Female | 19.68 | 6.16 | | |
| Writing | Male | 16.84 | 7.73 | -2.522 | .013 |
| | Female | 20.78 | 9.35 | | |
| Comprehension | Male | 15.67 | 4.82 | -3.054 | .003 |
| | Female | 18.38 | 4.80 | | |

4.2.3. The Correlation between EI, WTC and their scales according to gender

RQ3: “What is the correlation between EI and WTC according to gender differences in EFL classrooms?”

According to the Pearson Moment Correlations, table 4.3. reports that in EFL classrooms, there is a statistically significant positive relationship ($p < .05$) between male students’ levels of:

1. willingness to speak and their levels of willingness to read, to write, to comprehend.
2. willingness to read and their levels of willingness to write and comprehend,
3. willingness to write and their levels of willingness to comprehend,
4. intrapersonal and their levels of interpersonal, adaptability and general mood emotional intelligence,
5. interpersonal and their levels of adaptability and general mood emotional intelligence,
6. adaptability and their levels of stress management and general mood emotional intelligence,

7. stress management and their levels of general mood emotional intelligence.

According to the Pearson Moment Correlations, table 4.3 reports that in EFL classrooms, there is a statistically significant negative relationship ($p > .05$) between male students' levels of:

1. willingness to communicate (total) and their levels of intrapersonal emotional intelligence,
2. willingness to read and their levels of intrapersonal emotional intelligence,
3. willingness to write and EQ (total) and their levels of intrapersonal emotional intelligence.



Table 4.3: The result of correlation between EQ, WTC and their subscales (Males)

| Sample <i>Males (51)</i> | WTC | | EQ | | | Inter | | Stress Management |
|-----------------------------|----------|----------|---------|---------|---------------|-------|----------|----------------------|
| | Total | Speaking | Reading | Writing | Comprehension | Total | Personal | |
| Speaking | <i>r</i> | .879** | | | | | | |
| | <i>p</i> | .0005 | | | | | | |
| Reading | <i>r</i> | .935** | .793** | | | | | |
| | <i>p</i> | .0005 | .0005 | | | | | |
| Writing | <i>r</i> | .879** | .636** | .771** | | | | |
| | <i>p</i> | .0005 | .0005 | .0005 | | | | |
| Comprehension | <i>r</i> | .799** | .592** | .704** | .625** | | | |
| | <i>p</i> | .0005 | .0005 | .0005 | .0005 | | | |
| EQ Total | <i>r</i> | -.198 | -.027 | -.255 | -.294* | -.108 | | |
| | <i>p</i> | .164 | .853 | .071 | .036 | .449 | | |
| Intrapersonal | <i>r</i> | -.317* | -.158 | -.338* | -.437** | -.136 | .801** | |
| | <i>p</i> | .024 | .267 | .015 | .001 | .340 | .0005 | |
| Interpersonal | <i>r</i> | -.137 | -.042 | -.147 | -.252 | -.001 | .739** | .482** |
| | <i>p</i> | .337 | .771 | .304 | .074 | .992 | .0005 | .0005 |
| Adaptability | <i>r</i> | -.095 | .066 | -.181 | -.125 | -.125 | .713** | .411** |
| | <i>p</i> | .508 | .646 | .203 | .381 | .380 | .0005 | .003 |
| Stress | <i>r</i> | -.007 | .053 | -.075 | .010 | -.035 | .491** | .117 |
| | <i>p</i> | .961 | .713 | .601 | .944 | .809 | .0005 | .482** |
| Management | <i>r</i> | -.054 | .073 | -.101 | -.106 | -.074 | .800** | .181 |
| | <i>p</i> | .709 | .612 | .483 | .458 | .606 | .501** | .0005 |
| General Mood | <i>p</i> | | | | | | .0005 | .419** |
| | | | | | | | .0005 | .002 |
| | | | | | | | | .286* |
| | | | | | | | | .042 |

According to the Pearson Moment Correlations, table 4.4 reports that in EFL classrooms, there is a statistically significant positive relationship ($p < .05$) between female students' levels of:

1. WTC (total) and their levels of all WTC subscales and level of general mood emotional intelligence.
2. willingness to speak and their levels of willingness to read, to write and to comprehend and level of adaptability emotional intelligence.
3. willingness to read and their levels of willingness to write and comprehend,
4. willingness to write and their levels of willingness to comprehend and general mood emotional intelligence,
5. willingness to comprehend and their level of general mood emotional intelligence,
6. EQ (total) and each sub-scale.

According to table 4.4., there was no negative correlation between female students' levels of WTC (total), EQ (total) and their subscales.

Table 4.4: The result of correlation between EQ, WTC and their subscales (Females)

| Sample | WTC | | EQ | | Intra | | Inter | | Stress Management |
|-------------------|----------|----------|---------|---------|---------------|-------|----------|----------|-------------------|
| | Total | Speaking | Reading | Writing | Comprehension | Total | Personal | Personal | |
| Speaking | <i>r</i> | .916** | | | | | | | |
| | <i>p</i> | .0005 | | | | | | | |
| Reading | <i>r</i> | .915** | .783** | | | | | | |
| | <i>p</i> | .0005 | .0005 | | | | | | |
| Writing | <i>r</i> | .930** | .766** | .806** | | | | | |
| | <i>p</i> | .0005 | .0005 | .0005 | | | | | |
| Comprehension | <i>r</i> | .885** | .773** | .783** | .762** | | | | |
| | <i>p</i> | .0005 | .0005 | .0005 | .0005 | | | | |
| EQ Total | <i>r</i> | .180 | .207 | .149 | .150 | .139 | | | |
| | <i>p</i> | .139 | .087 | .220 | .219 | .254 | | | |
| Intrapersonal | <i>r</i> | .128 | .114 | .108 | .123 | .125 | .781** | | |
| | <i>p</i> | .293 | .350 | .377 | .315 | .308 | .0005 | | |
| Interpersonal | <i>r</i> | .096 | .163 | .066 | .057 | .045 | .589** | .352** | |
| | <i>p</i> | .434 | .180 | .589 | .643 | .713 | .0005 | .003 | |
| Adaptability | <i>r</i> | .215 | .255* | .167 | .172 | .180 | .798** | .481** | .386** |
| | <i>p</i> | .077 | .034 | .171 | .157 | .138 | .0005 | .0005 | .001 |
| Stress Management | <i>r</i> | -.053 | .025 | -.017 | -.095 | -.128 | .539** | .168 | .412** |
| | <i>p</i> | .662 | .838 | .889 | .439 | .295 | .0005 | .169 | .0005 |
| General Mood | <i>r</i> | .246* | .178 | .201 | .264* | .261* | .782** | .624** | .554** |
| | <i>p</i> | .042 | .144 | .098 | .028 | .031 | .0005 | .0005 | .0005 |

4.3. Conclusion

In this chapter, the findings were reported and analysed. The answers to three research questions were illustrated through tables of the findings. All the data were analysed through a quantitative analysis method. The data were collected from male

first research question, an independent samples t-test on SPSS 22 was used and compared the means of each gender in terms of their total EQ levels and EQ's scale levels. According to the results of table 4.1., it is revealed that female students' interpersonal performance was better than male students' interpersonal performance. However, there was no significant difference found between mean EQ scores and its scales' scores concerning gender. In other words, gender was detected to affect individuals' only interpersonal emotional intelligence levels in terms of their emotional intelligence. For the second research question, the total willingness to communicate and its scales' means were compared in terms of gender via an independent sample t-test. It was found out that individuals' total WTC and its scales' levels, except for the willingness to speak, were influenced by gender. That is, gender has no statistically significant impact on willingness to speak. The last research question sought an answer to the relationship between EQ, WTC and their scales in terms of gender differences. Therefore, the Pearson Moment Correlation was used to find whether there was a significant relationship or not. In conclusion, WTC and EQ have a positive relationship between their scales for each gender. For male students, it was found that there was a negative correlation between (1) their level of WTC (total) and their level of intrapersonal emotional intelligence, (2) their level of willingness to read and their level of intrapersonal emotional intelligence, (3) their willingness to write and their levels of EQ (total) and intrapersonal emotional intelligence. Table 4.4. showed that there was a significant correlation between female students' (1) level of WTC (total) and general mood emotional intelligence, (2) level of willingness to speak and adaptability emotional intelligence, (3) level of willingness to write and general mood emotional intelligence, (4) level of willingness to comprehend and general mood emotional intelligence. There was no negative relationship between females' levels of WTC (total), EQ (total) and their subscales. The following chapter will present the discussion, conclusion of the study and suggestions for further studies.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1. Introduction

This chapter presents discussions of the findings obtained via SPSS analysis in line with the literature, the implications, and limitations of the study, suggestions and conclusion.

5.2. Discussion of the Findings

This study aimed to investigate the role of emotional intelligence in terms of willingness to communicate and gender in EFL classrooms at a foundation university in Istanbul, Turkey. First, to achieve this aim an EQ inventory and a WTC scale, which were filled out by 120 preparatory school students, was used. The quantitative data were analysed using SPSS 22 (Statistical Package for Social Sciences). A normality test was carried out to explore whether or not the data are normally distributed. After checking, the data for kurtosis and skewness values and the distribution of the data were found as normal. Reliability values for each scale were: Bar-On EQ-i (.826) and WTC scale (.956). Every individual's score and the average of response were calculated for every variable under the heading WTC and EQ.

5.2.1. Discussions of the Research Question 1

“Is there a relationship between EQ and students' gender studying in preparatory programs?”

Emotional intelligence is one of the fields that have been studied in terms of different branches such as job satisfaction, education, health, etc. It has been argued people with higher level of EI are more successful regardless of their field. Many studies supporting this have also taken their place in the literature. Another of the topics discussed under the title of emotional intelligence is that gender affects emotional intelligence and therefore on the success of individuals. In general, there are studies supporting females to be emotionally more intelligent, as well as studies with opposite findings or findings that show that gender does not have a significant impact.

The findings of this study showed that there was not a significant difference between EQ total scores of female and male students. Despite female students' being more interpersonally intelligent than males, there were no significant differences between them in terms of other EI subscales: intrapersonal, adaptability, stress management and general mood. It is clear that gender has an impact on interpersonal levels of individuals in EFL classrooms and female students' interpersonal scores were more positive than male students' interpersonal scores.

According to Goleman (1998), there are some differences between males and females regarding their different strong and weak profiles in various points of EI however, gender does not cause any difference in overall levels of EI. Studies carried out in different contexts have also found that there was no statistically significant difference between males and females in overall EI although there were some differences (Bar-On, 1997; Bar-On et al., 2000; Aquino, 2003; Brackett and Mayer, 2003; Brackett et al., 2006; Brown and Schutte, 2006; Arteché et al. 2008; Nasir and Masrur, 2010; Myint and Aung, 2016). Meshkat and Nejati (2017) stated that females scored higher than males in terms of emotional self-awareness, interpersonal relationship, self-esteem, although there was no significant difference in overall EI by gender. There is also research that declared no clear difference in emotional intelligence from gender differences in the Turkish context. Emotional intelligence is not affected by gender, age and job experience (Çakan and Altun, 2005). Şakrak (2009) found that the level of EI does not have any change by gender. Tosun (2013) also stated that no significant relationship was found in terms of genders but interpersonal emotional intelligence. Similarly, Ateş (2019) claimed females' total level of EI was higher than males although there was no significant difference between the genders except for interpersonal emotional intelligence. These studies' results are partially in line with the findings of this study. However, there are also studies suggesting that females are more emotionally intelligent. Sutarso et al. (1996) found that gender affected a few factors of EQ in overall and female students scored higher on self-awareness and compassion. Betts and Morell (1999) found gender as a predictor for GPA after they controlled different individual differences such as SAT scores, and ethnicity. Brody (1997) declared that women in different cultures show more intensively their positive and negative emotions than men. It has been confirmed that females tend to be in more emotional expression and that they know

and comprehend their own and others' emotions better (Argyle 1990). According to previous studies across different contexts, there are remarkable empirical data that females have significantly higher scores than males in overall EI (Petrides and Furnham, 2000; Costa, Terracciano and McCrae, 2001; Brackett, Mayer and Warner, 2004; Kafetsios, 2004; Rooy, Alonso and Viswesvaran, 2005; Harrod and Scheer, 2005; Craig et al., 2009; Makvana, 2014; Domakani, Mirzaei and Zeraatpisheh, 2014). Cabello et al. (2016) stated that Spanish people's overall EI scores, which women got higher, were influenced by gender. In contrast to these findings, Zohrevand (2010) reported 11th grade females had lower EI scores than male students in Iran.

There are also studies conducted based on gender differences in terms of educational context. Hyde and Kling (2001) revealed that higher education females are better than males, and they outscored men in SAT exams. Kim, Rhoades and Woodard (2003) reported that gender significantly affects student graduation at the individual level among 60,000 undergraduates from 22 colleges. Research on gender inequality by Fayombo (2012) has resulted in significant gender differences in favour of girls in AA. Findings on the relationship between EI, gender, and vocabulary have indicated that women with high EI display high vocabulary knowledge compared to men (Asadollahfam, Salimi and Pashazadeh, 2012). Tariq et al. (2013) reported female students, who had superior confidence and lower anxiety were more emotionally intelligent. It was determined that female instructors scored better than males in the "interpersonal aspect" of emotional intelligence (Shehzad and Mahmood, 2013). Chaudhry et al. (2013) found female students were superior in emotional intelligence. Joshi and Dutta (2014) reported that female learners' EI levels were shown to be higher on the exams compared to male learners among 10th graders. As a result of their study, Fida et al. (2018) showed that females among university students had better scores in EI than their male partners. In the Turkish educational context, there are also studies. It was reported in these studies that female students are outperformed male students (Dayioğlu and Türüt-Aşık, 2007; Yılmaz, 2007; Ergün, 2011; Kılıç, 2018).

5.2.2. Discussions of the Research Question 2

“To what extent does the gender of the students serve as a factor influencing the willingness to communicate in language classes?”

The second research question aimed to explore whether gender had an impact on students' levels of willingness to communicate in EFL classrooms or not. With this purpose, the results from the WTC questionnaire will be discussed below.

The results of the current study demonstrated that there was a significant difference between WTC total scores of participating male students ($M=71.70$, $SD=23.59$) and female students ($M=83.91$, $SD=26.12$); $p<.05$. Having examined the subscales of WTC the results also displayed that there were significant differences between male and female students' scores of willingness to read, write and comprehend. In contrast, there was no significant difference between male students ($M=23.18$, $SD=7.80$) and females' ($M=25.07$, $SD=8.23$) $p > .05$ speaking scores. These results showed that female students performed significantly better than male students in terms of their willingness to read, write and comprehend in English.

It was determined that there were studies with similar and contradictory results when the studies on this subject were examined. According to Canary and Hause (1993), there was a small tendency of gender differences in communication variables. Baker and MacIntyre (2000) found that females prefer L2 communication inside the class while males prefer communication out of the class. MacIntyre et al. (2002) found that whereas females had an increase in their overall WTC and a decrease in their level of anxiety between grade 8 and grade 9, males did not experience any change for both. However, it was also stated that this could be related to puberty process, which is later for boys than girls. The study by Valadi, Rezaee and Baharvand (2015) resulted that there was no significant difference between the two genders regarding WTC. In the Turkish context, Hişmanoğlu and Özüdoğru (2017) conducted a study that was focused on finding out the effects of some variables including gender difference on the students' willingness to communicate at a state university and gender was not found to affect students' WTC in English. Ekin (2018) stated that in-class and out-of-class WTC scores of university-level students do not have a gender difference in Turkey. Uyanık's study (2018) noted that gender had no meaningful impact on the WTC level, but had an effect on its motivations. These studies

mentioned are contradictory to the findings of the current study. However, there are studies in line with the obtained results. Gardner (1985) proclaims some studies that show more positive attitudes toward language learning in females and argues that attitude differences in achievement may be due to gender differences. It was believed that contributing more to the observed gender differences could have the cumulative impacts of various attitudes performed by teachers. Investigating English French and French teachers, Worrall and Tsarna (1987) noticed a pattern that showed a general favourability of girls in the language class. Smith (1997) interprets his findings that the tendency of females towards close interpersonal relationships is more encouraging talk to intimates than males. It was found that in a group of Irish students learning French, females had increasingly positive attitudes in learning and communicating in French than males. Gender was also found as the strongest predictor of attitudes towards speaking French when gender, school type, perceived effects on attitudes at school, and perceived out-of-school effects on attitudes were analysed in a regression analysis (Wright, 1999). Mohammadzadeh and Jafarigohar (2012) searched whether there is any relationship between WTC in L2 and multiple intelligence (MI) and gender regarding the link between each or not. The results showed there was a positive relationship between WTC in L2 and the type of MI of English learners and the relationship was impacted by gender. Alavinia and Alikhani's study (2014), which was conducted to find the relationship between EI and WTC of learners, resulted that females were outperforming regarding EI and WTC. Lahuerta's study (2014), which analyzed variables believed to affect WTC in L2 of Spanish undergraduate students, revealed a significant relationship between self-perceived communication competence and L2 competence, and gender had an important role in WTC. According to Munezane (2014), there were potentials to develop L2 WTC by implementing motivation strategies and self-reported L2 WTC that predicted actual L2 use gives extra confidence to such motivational strategies, and gender difference was preferable to encourage effective classroom communication.

5.2.3. Discussions of the Research Question 3

“What is the correlation between EI and WTC in terms of gender differences in EFL classrooms?”

With the third research question, it was aimed to find out whether there was a correlation between EI and WTC across gender. EI and WTC are in a positive relationship with their subcomponents across gender. However, the correlation of the components of WTC and EI with each other one by one was determined to have differences according to gender.

Table 5. 1. The results of the correlation of EI, WTC and their subscales across gender

| | | |
|----------------|-----------------------------|--|
| Males | Positive Correlation | (1) EI and its subscales (2) WTC and its subscales |
| | Negative Correlation | (1) their level of WTC (total) and their level of intrapersonal emotional intelligence, (2) their level of willingness to read and their level of intrapersonal emotional intelligence, (3) their willingness to write and their levels of EQ (total) and intrapersonal emotional intelligence. |
| Females | Positive Correlation | 1) level of WTC (total) and general mood emotional intelligence, (2) level of willingness to speak and adaptability emotional intelligence, (3) level of willingness to write and general mood emotional intelligence, (4) level of willingness to comprehend and general mood emotional intelligence. (5) EI and its subscales (6) WTC and its subscales |
| | Negative Correlation | - |

There are some studies conducted about the relationship WTC and cognitive intelligence, social intelligence or emotional intelligence. However, it is not too long ago that studies began on these relationships in EFL classes. Zakian (2019) found that females and males were not different regarding their WTC, not only more but also less intelligent students. Ghalani and Pahlavani (2019) reported a positive

relationship between Iranian male and female learners' social intelligence and WTC, and no significant difference was across genders. Ketabdar, Yazdani and Yarahmadi (2014), Amini and Sabber (2015), Vahedi and Fatemi (2015) found a positive correlation between the learners' EI subscales and their WTC. There was a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and "WTC outside" but not "inside" (Rahbar, Suzani and Zoleikha, 2016). Ożańska-Ponikwia (2016) also reported that emotional intelligence subscales such as openness, empathy, emotional stability, emotional regulation, and assertiveness affected the frequency of L2 use. Bagheri and Souzani (2017) found a positive relationship between EI and WTC in learners' speaking ability. However, they also stated that gender does not any impact on this relationship.

Some studies reported that there was a positive correlation between WTC and EI and females outperformed men (Tabatabaei and Jamshidifar, 2013; Gholami, 2015). According to Alavinia and Alikhani (2014), four subscales of EI (1) intrapersonal, (2) interpersonal, (3) adaptability and (4) general mood scales were correlated with WTC except for stress management scales and the female group tended to be the outperforming group. Janfeshan and Nazeri (2014) found five subscales of EI had a positive correlation with WTC, and females outscored for both EI and WTC. Öz (2015) found the same correlation between EI and WTC; he noted that even though there was no significant statistical difference, men scored better.

In conclusion, most studies found that there was a significant correlation between WTC and EI in EFL classrooms, and females are generally the outperforming groups although a few studies showed otherwise. In this study, it was also found that females and males were not statistically different in EI (total) although females were better in WTC (total). Additionally, WTC and EI's all subscales were not correlated with each other at all.

5.3. Pedagogical Implications

There are pedagogical implications of this study that may be useful for language teacher's self-reflection and practice in class. The present study revealed that Willingness to Communicate and Emotional Intelligence should be taken into consideration in language teaching. Since language is a serious part of communication, it is important to enhance learners' willingness to be a part of communication (MacIntyre et al., 1998). In this enhancement, individual differences

of learners must be detected. EI and WTC levels can individually be different. At first, language teachers should obtain knowledge about these differences: what differences they are, how they affect students' language learning, etc. Gaining insight about learners' backgrounds and analysing learner needs help to get information about learner profiles and that allows teachers to plan more effective lesson plans. Lesson plans should be prepared following the learner profile. In crowded classrooms, it may be harder for teachers however, there are some specific important features any lesson should provide such as student-teacher interaction, student-student interaction, ice-breaking activities, scaffolding activities, contextual activities, mingling activities, extra-curricular activities, pair work, group work activities, authentic language and, materials, etc. Teachers should have competency in identifying and mediating learning strategies and arrange the activities accordingly, knowing whether their students use metacognitive or cognitive strategies. Teachers' arrangements should lead students to be more autonomous. Another point is the classroom atmosphere that makes students feel comfortable or uncomfortable. Teachers should be facilitators and create less stressful classroom atmospheres. In a positive atmosphere, learners feel more relaxed and feel free to make mistakes. Teachers can motivate students to be risk-takers. In the Turkish context, most students have hesitations to communicate for fear of making mistakes in front of peers and teachers and that is why they do not participate in the activities. Immediate error correction through recasts or repetitions may help learners get the point without being demotivated. Positive and corrective feedback leads learners to make the same mistakes less and being motivated lowers individuals' affective filters. Choosing enjoyable activities related to learners' interests decreases anxiety level and increases student engagement as well as motivation and self-confidence.

To extend communication areas, conversation classes may be created where students have more opportunities to use languages and they can be more exposed. In these classes, useful expressions in the target language, practical knowledge, and real-life situation dialogues can be benefitted. Task-based education is another method to allow students to use the target language completing the tasks.

Communication is not only to speak in a language but also to read and write in it, and comprehending it. Implicit grammar teaching exposes learners to fewer grammar rules and does not alienate them from the learning of language. Learners mostly

prefer to be silent if they do not have vocabulary knowledge and know-how to pronounce words. That is why grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation activities should be used in the courses with the right methods. Language skills should be taught integrated. In this case, the course book gains importance since it contains most activities in lessons. Course books use practical approaches and techniques to enhance communication such as Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), Collaborative Language Learning (CLL), Suggestopedia, etc. However, it is hard to estimate each class's student profile exactly therefore, teachers should plan the lessons more flexibly.

Effective teaching needs effective teachers. An effective teacher has enough knowledge of pedagogy, language, and culture. They have language presentation skills that help to mediate in exposing students to the target language. They should be able to encourage openness to different methods of thinking and learning. They are capable of getting learners to intend for intercultural communication.

As for emotional intelligence, the first task of teachers to be aware of EI and raise awareness for students about their emotional intelligence and to ensure that students get to know themselves. Chang (2008) emphasizes that emotional intelligence can be improved. In parallel with Chang (ibid), learners can develop their emotional intelligence if they are aware of it. Panju (2008) also proposes ideas to enhance EI skills such as using role-playing real-life situations, creating model constructive relationships, using multiple intelligence strategies, making use of literary excerpts and stories that students may express their and others' emotions, aiming at developing students' critical thinking skills, allowing ss. to share their opinions about learning experiences, and teaching techniques making them "stop and think of the heat of the moment and so avoid inflaming the situation" (Ergün, 2011: 130).

Emotions should be taken into consideration while preparing a curriculum. However, teachers may not authorize their own. That is why educational institutions should make decisions on this issue. Units that will provide professional support for this should be established if necessary. As Kılıç (2018) stated, The Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (CASEL) is a trusted organization to improve social and emotional learning in schools for instructors and policymakers. CASEL suggests that EI Teacher workshops provide teachers to be more aware of

the importance of emotions and to be able to understand and manage emotions in the learning and teaching process.

To conclude, learning and teaching in each area is a life-long process. In this process, teachers, learners, and educational institutions have a big role in maintaining it successfully. They each should fulfil their responsibilities properly.

5.4. Limitations of the Study

Although this study has achieved its main objectives, there are some limitations. The key limitation is that it was carried out at only a foundation university and consisted of 120 preparatory school students, who were at A2, B1 and B1+ proficiency level in English. Different results could have arisen in different contexts and cultures such as high schools and preparatory classes of various languages. It could have checked whether there were any students had taken private lessons or had been abroad before etc. or not. Secondly, to collect the data, only quantitative methods were used because of time limitations. The quantitative methods helped generalize and analyse easier. However, qualitative methods such as interviews and observing courses could have been benefitted to understand better the context and learners' opinions and reactions by observing them.

5.5. Suggestions for Further Research

The present study investigated the relationship between learners' emotional intelligence and willingness to communicate in terms of gender in preparatory classes at a foundation university in Turkey. Firstly, further studies might examine EI and WTC impacts on teaching in terms of language teachers in varied contexts or the integration of emotional intelligence programs to language education and so on. Secondly, only WTC and EI subscales relationships were analysed in this research, but not causal relations regarding EI and anxiety, communication apprehension, self-perceived competence. These causal relations might be investigated for further research.

5.6. Conclusion

Emotional intelligence is an on-going issue in terms of many areas including education. With this research, it was aimed to contribute to the field of ELT through using the findings of the research questions of the investigation into the relationship

between EFL students' emotional intelligence and their willingness to communicate in terms of genders.

First, the data of learners' emotional intelligence, willingness to communicate and their subscales scores were obtained through two different questionnaires. Then, they were analysed according to genders through independent sample t-tests to identify whether there are any significant differences between genders or not. Female students outperformed male students only for interpersonal intelligence. For the other subscales and total EI scores, the gender difference was not a significant factor. Additionally, gender was found as a factor that influences all WTC subscales and total WTC score except for the willingness to speak.

Secondly, the Pearson Correlation Analysis was used to find out whether regarding genders, there was a positive or negative correlation between WTC and EI or not. Considering the last research question, it was revealed that EI and WTC had a positive correlation between their subscales. Unsurprisingly, a negative correlation between total WTC scores and intrapersonal intelligence were detected for the male students. However, it was also detected that willingness to read and intrapersonal intelligence affected each other negatively as well as their willingness to write affected negatively their EQ (total) and intrapersonal intelligence. For female students, the results were different. There was no negative correlation between subscales. In contrast, the general mood had a positive relationship with WTC, willingness to comprehend and to write. Adaptability had also a positive correlation with the willingness to speak.

Overall, gender does not have a direct impact on total EI scores although it is effective in the overall scores of WTC, which plays a crucial role in second/foreign language learning. Nevertheless, it is difficult to assume that on the subscales where female students are good, male students are completely bad, or vice versa. Additionally, factors affecting WTC such as psychological and situational factors should be taken into consideration. Individual differences and multiple intelligence types should not be ignored to promote WTC.

To bring this research a close, firstly, findings of the research questions were discussed in this chapter. This was resumed with pedagogical implications and limitations of the study. In the end, suggestions for further research were presented.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Adapted Version of Bar-On EQ-i in Turkish

Değerli Katılımcı,

Sizi “**Yabancı Dil Sınıflarında Cinsiyet ve Duygusal Zekânın Konuşmaya İstekliliğe Etkisi ve İlişkisi**” başlıklı bir araştırma çalışmasına katılmaya davet ediyorum. Araştırmanın amacı, bir vakıf üniversitesi İngilizce hazırlık sınıflarında cinsiyet açısından iletişim kurma isteği ve duygusal zeka arasındaki ilişkiyi araştırmaktır.

Bu araştırmaya katılımınız tamamen gönüllüdür. Yanıtlarınız gizli ve anonim olacaktır. Toplanan veri sadece bu çalışmada ve araştırma amaçlı kullanılacaktır. Paylaştığınız bilgiler araştırmanın güvenilirliği için önemlidir.

Tamamlanması yaklaşık 15-20 dakika sürecektir.

Çalışma hakkında herhangi bir sorunuz varsa, lütfen ugurlukubraa@gmail.com adresine mail atınız.

Katılımınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederim.

Kübra Uğurlu

Istanbul Sabahattin Zaim Üniversitesi
İngiliz Dili ve Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı
Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi

Bölüm I

Lütfen size uygun seçeneği işaretleyiniz.

a) Cinsiyet: Kadın () Erkek ()

Bölüm II

Lütfen size uygun seçeneği işaretleyiniz.

5- Kesinlikle katılıyorum

4- Katılıyorum

3- Kısmen katılıyorum

2- Katılmıyorum

1- Kesinlikle katılmıyorum

| | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|----|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Kişiliğimden memnunum. | | | | | |
| 2 | Benimle birlikte olmak eğlencelidir. | | | | | |
| 3 | Ders çalışırken ne yapacağımın bana söylenmesini tercih ederim. | | | | | |
| 4 | Kendimi kötü hissettiğim zaman beni neyin üzdüğünü bilirim. | | | | | |
| 5 | Hoşuma giden konuları sonuna kadar öğrenmeye çalışırım. | | | | | |
| 6 | Duygularımı tanırım. | | | | | |
| 7 | Başkalarının bana ihtiyaç duymalarından çok ben başkalarına ihtiyaç duyarım. | | | | | |
| 8 | Mecbur kalırsam kuralları çiğnerim. | | | | | |
| 9 | Aynı anda başka bir yerde bulunmak zorunda olsam da ağlayan bir çocuğun anne ve babasını bulmasına yardım ederim. | | | | | |
| 10 | Son birkaç yılda çok az başarı elde ettim. | | | | | |
| 11 | Başkalarının bana güvenmesi zordur. | | | | | |
| 12 | Fiziksel görüntümden memnunum. | | | | | |
| 13 | Eski alışkanlıklarımı değiştirebilirim. | | | | | |
| 14 | İstediğim zaman "hayır" demek benim için zordur. | | | | | |
| 15 | Her şeyi olduğu gibi hayaller kurmadan görmeye çalışırım. | | | | | |
| 16 | Sevgimi belli edemem. | | | | | |
| 17 | Başkalarına kızarsam duygularımı söylerim. | | | | | |
| 18 | Abartmayı severim. | | | | | |
| 19 | Çoğu durumda kendimden eminimdir. | | | | | |
| 20 | Zorluklarla baş etmek için adım adım ilerlerim. | | | | | |
| 21 | Çevremde olup bitenlerin farkında değilim. | | | | | |
| 22 | Doğrudan ifade etmeseler de, başkalarının duygularını çok iyi anlarım. | | | | | |
| 23 | Yeni şartlara uyum sağlamak benim için kolaydır. | | | | | |
| 24 | Bazı konularda fikrimi değiştirmem zordur. | | | | | |
| 25 | Problemlerin çözümüne ilişkin farklı çözüm yolları düşünmeye çalışınca genellikle zorlanırım. | | | | | |
| 26 | Diğer insanların duygularını incitmemeğe özen gösteririm. | | | | | |
| 27 | Zor şartlarda serinkanlılığımı nasıl koruyacağımı bilirim. | | | | | |
| 28 | İşler gittikçe zorlaşsa da genellikle devam etmek için motivasyonum vardır. | | | | | |
| 29 | İnsanlar benim sosyal olduğumu düşünürler. | | | | | |
| 30 | Zaman zaman ortaya çıkan tersliklere rağmen, genellikle işlerin düzeleceğine inanırım. | | | | | |
| 31 | Başkalarına neler olduğunu önemserim. | | | | | |
| 32 | Yeni bir işe başlamadan önce genellikle başarısız olacağım hissine kapılırım. | | | | | |

| | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|----|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 33 | Arkadaşlarım bana özel konularını anlatabilirler. | | | | | |
| 34 | Güç bir durumla karşılaştığımda konuyla ilgili olabildiğince çok bilgi toplamayı isterim. | | | | | |
| 35 | Öfkemi kontrol etmem zordur. | | | | | |
| 36 | Çok sinirlenmeden stresle baş edebilirim. | | | | | |
| 37 | Konuşmaya başlayınca zor susarım. | | | | | |
| 38 | Sabırsız bir insanım. | | | | | |
| 39 | Kendimi çok sık kötü hissederim. | | | | | |
| 40 | Düşünmeden hareket ettiğim zaman sorunlarla karşılaşırım. | | | | | |
| 41 | Hafta sonlarımı ve tatilleri severim. | | | | | |
| 42 | Endişemi kontrol etmemin zor olduğunu biliyorum. | | | | | |
| 43 | Üzücü olaylarla yüzleşmem zordur. | | | | | |
| 44 | Genellikle en iyisini ümit ederim. | | | | | |
| 45 | Hayatımdan memnunum. | | | | | |

Appendix B: Adapted Version of Willingness to Communicate Scale in Turkish
(Adapted from MacIntyre, et al., 2001)

Bölüm III

| | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|----|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 46 | Yaz tatilim hakkında bir grup insanla İngilizce konuşurum. | | | | | |
| 47 | Öğretmenimle İngilizce ödevim hakkında İngilizce konuşurum. | | | | | |
| 48 | Tanımadığım biri benimle İngilizce sohbet ederse, ben de İngilizce konuşarak sohbeti sürdürürüm. | | | | | |
| 49 | Yapmam gereken İngilizce ödevimi anlamadığım zaman öğretmenimden İngilizce açıklama isterim. | | | | | |
| 50 | Bir sırada beklerken arkadaşımınla İngilizce sohbet ederim. | | | | | |
| 51 | İngilizce bir oyunda aktris/aktör olurum. | | | | | |
| 52 | Dili İngilizce olan en sevdiğim oyunun kurallarını İngilizce açıklarım. | | | | | |
| 53 | İngilizce bir tartışma olduğunda katılırım. | | | | | |
| 54 | İngilizce roman okurum. | | | | | |
| 55 | İngilizce makale okurum. | | | | | |
| 56 | Anadili İngilizce olan bir arkadaşımın bana yazdığı mektubu okurum. | | | | | |
| 57 | Basit kelime ve yapıların bilerek kullanıldığı İngilizce yazılmış kişisel mektupları ve notları okurum. | | | | | |
| 58 | Satın alabileceğim iyi bir ürün (kitap vb.) bulmak için İngilizce gazetelerdeki reklamları okurum. | | | | | |
| 59 | Popüler filmlerin İngilizce eleştirilerini okurum. | | | | | |
| 60 | Hafta sonu partisine yabancı sınıf arkadaşlarımı çağırmak için İngilizce davetiye gönderirim. | | | | | |
| 61 | En sevdiğim hobim için yapılması gerekenleri İngilizce olarak yazarım. | | | | | |
| 62 | En sevdiğim hayvan ve alışkanlıkları hakkında İngilizce bir rapor yazarım. | | | | | |
| 63 | İngilizce hikâyeler yazarım. | | | | | |
| 64 | Yabancı arkadaşlarıma İngilizce mektuplar yazarım. | | | | | |
| 65 | Yabancı gazetelere İngilizce köşe yazıları yazarım. | | | | | |
| 66 | İngilizce dergilerdeki bilgi sorularına cevaplar yazarım. | | | | | |
| 67 | Ertesi gün yapmam gereken şeyler için İngilizce notlar alırım. | | | | | |
| 68 | İngilizce talimatlar dinler ve bir görevi tamamlarım. | | | | | |
| 69 | Tarifi İngilizce olsa bile yemek yaparım. | | | | | |
| 70 | İngilizce formlar doldururum. | | | | | |
| 71 | İngilizce konuşan birinin yol tarifini anlarım. | | | | | |
| 72 | İngilizce bir filmi anlarım. | | | | | |

Appendix C: Normality Test Results

Descriptives

| | | | Statistic | Std. Error |
|---|----------------------------------|-------------|--------------|------------|
| Adapted Version of Bar-On EQ-i in Turkish | Mean | | 161,4750 | 1,48244 |
| | 95% Confidence Interval for Mean | Lower Bound | 158,5396 | |
| | | Upper Bound | 164,4104 | |
| | 5% Trimmed Mean | | 161,7222 | |
| | Median | | 163,0000 | |
| | Variance | | 263,714 | |
| | Std. Deviation | | 16,23926 | |
| | Minimum | | 114,00 | |
| | Maximum | | 204,00 | |
| | Range | | 90,00 | |
| | Interquartile Range | | 20,00 | |
| | Skewness | | -,347 | ,221 |
| | Kurtosis | | ,260 | ,438 |
| Adapted Version of Willingness to Communicate Scale in Turkish | Mean | | 78,8083 | 2,34384 |
| | 95% Confidence Interval for Mean | Lower Bound | 74,1673 | |
| | | Upper Bound | 83,4494 | |
| | 5% Trimmed Mean | | 78,4537 | |
| | Median | | 73,5000 | |
| | Variance | | 659,232 | |
| | Std. Deviation | | 25,67551 | |
| | Minimum | | 29,00 | |
| | Maximum | | 133,00 | |
| | Range | | 104,00 | |
| | Interquartile Range | | 34,50 | |
| | Skewness | | ,326 | ,221 |
| | Kurtosis | | -,572 | ,438 |

Tests of Normality

| | Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a | | | Shapiro-Wilk | | |
|--------------------|---------------------------------|-----|-------|--------------|-----|-------------|
| | Statistic | df | Sig. | Statistic | df | Sig. |
| Bar-On EQ-i | ,063 | 120 | ,200* | ,986 | 120 | ,262 |
| WTC Scale | ,111 | 120 | ,001 | ,968 | 120 | ,006 |

Appendix D: Reliability Test Results

1. For Adapted Version of Bar-On EQ-i in Turkish

| Cronbach's Alpha | N of Items |
|------------------|------------|
| ,826 | 45 |

2. For Adapted Version of Willingness to Communicate Scale

(Adapted from MacIntyre, et al., 2001)

| Cronbach's Alpha | N of Items |
|------------------|------------|
| ,956 | 27 |

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PROCEEDINGS

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