THE EFFECT OF PERSONALITY TRAITS EXTROVERSION/ INTROVERSION

ON VERBAL AND INTERACTIVE BEHAVIORS OF LEARNERS

A Master's Thesis

by

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Teaching English as a Foreign Language
Bilkent University
Ankara

August 2006

To my beloved father and mother

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FUNDA ABALI

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                          on Verbal and Interactive Behaviors of Learners

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ABSTRACT

THE EFFECT OF PERSONALITY TRAITS EXTROVERSION/INTROVERSION

ON LEARNERS' COMMUNICATIVE L2 BEHAVIOUR

Abalı, Funda

MA, Department of Teaching English as a Foreign Language

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The aim of this study was to see the influence of extroversion/introversion continuum on learners' verbal tendencies and interactive behaviors. In addition, this study also tried to discover learners' perception of the influence of their personality on their interactive behaviors.

The study was conducted in Ankara University, School of Foreign Languages, involving nineteen participants. The relevant data was collected in three steps. First, students were given a personality inventory test, so that their personalities could be identified. After the test results were obtained four introverted and four extroverted students were chosen for the rest of the study. In the second step, subjects were asked to participate in a set of speaking tasks. Finally, an interview with the subjects was conducted to be informed about learners'

understanding of the link between their personality and verbal tendencies. The data collected from the speaking tasks was first transcribed and than analyzed according to the categories established as interactional behaviors and speech production.

The results showed that, learners with extroversion and introversion tendencies differed in terms of the way they communicate in L2. While extroverts inclined to start most of the conversations, introduce new topics to the speech and make restatements, introverts tended to ask questions. With respect to speech production, extroverts were found to produce longer sentences, employ more filled pauses and self-corrected utterances. As to second research question, the results revealed that both extroverted and introverted subjects were aware of the effect of their personality on their language behavior.

ÖZET

İÇEDÖNÜK/DIŞADÖNÜK KİŞİLİK YAPILARININ ÖĞRENCİLERİN SÖZEL DAVRANIŞLARI VE İLETİŞİMSEL ETKİLEŞİMLERİ ÜZERİNDEKİ ETKİSİ

Abalı, Funda

Yüksek Lisans, Yabancı Dil Olarak İngilizce Öğretimi Bölümü

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Temmuz 2006

Bu çalışmada içedönük ve dışadönük kişilik yapılarının öğrencilerin dilsel eğilimleri ve iletişimsel etkileşimleri üzerindeki etkisini görmek amaçlanmıştır. Buna ek olarak, öğrencilerin kişiliklerinin iletişimsel davranışlarına olan etkisini nasıl algıladıkları ortaya çıkarılmaya çalışılmıştır.

Bu çalışma Ankara Üniversitesi, Yabancı Diller Okulu'nda ondokuz katılımcı ile yürütülmüştür. Gerekli data üç aşamada toplanmıştır.Birinci aşamada, öğrencilere kişilik yapılarının belirlenebilmesi için bir kişilik testi verilmiştir. Test sonuçları elde edildikten sonra çalışmanın geri kalanına dahil edilmek için dört dışadönük ve dört içedönük öğrenci seçilmiştir.

İkinci aşamada, öğrenciler bir dizi konuşma aktivitelerinde yer almışlar ve konuşmaları kaydedilmiştir. Son olarak, öğrencilerin kişilik yapılarıyla dilsel

eğilimleri arasındaki bağlantıyı algılama şekilleri hakkında bilgi edinmek için bu sekiz öğrenciyle mülakatlar düzenlenmiştir. Konuşmalardan toplanan veriler yazıya dökülmüş ve önceden belirlenmiş iletişimsel etkileşim ve dilsel üretim adlı kategorilere göre analiz edilmiştir.

Çalışma sonuçlarına göre dışadönük ve içedönük öğrenciler iletişimsel etkileşimleri ve yabancı dil kullanımları konusunda farklılık göstermişlerdir. İletişimsel etkileşim göz önüne alındığında, içedönük öğrencilerin daha çok soru sorma eğiliminde oldukları bulunmuşken, dışadönük öğrencilerin daha çok konuşma başlatma, konuşmalara yeni alt konular katma ve daha önceden üzerine konuşulmuş konuları tekrarlama eğilimi içinde oldukları ortaya çıkarılmıştır. Dilsel üretim göz önüne alındığında ise, dışadönük öğrencilerin içedönük olanlara nazaran daha uzun cümleler kurdukları, daha fazla duraksadıkları ve kendilerine ait hataları düzeltme eğilimi içinde oldukları belirlenmiştir.

İkinci araştırma sorusu hakkında sonuçlar öğrencilerin kişilik yapılarının dil davranışları üzerindeki etkisinin farkında oldukları bulunmuştur.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Introduction

English language learning is a very complex process which has both universal (same for all learners) and learner specific (individually different) properties. These structural properties make their own contributions to second language acquisition (SLA) process. Learner specific factors differentiate one individual from another in SLA. Learners vary on a number of dimensions involving their learning style, age, language aptitude, personality, and motivation.

Individual differences among learners are predicted to be crucial for SLA since they determine how each individual experiences his/her own unique process of language learning. That is to say, learners' approach to language and the steps they take during this process are assumed to be shaped by individual variables, which, according to Ellis (1999), have cognitive, social and affective aspects.

These cognitive, social and affective aspects of individual differences have been categorized by Ellis (1999) as external and internal factors. Ellis regards social factors as external, and cognitive and affective factors as internal to the learner. To Ellis (1999, p. 100), cognitive factors concern "the problem solving strategies", while affective factors deal with the "emotional responses" learners give during their attempts to learn the language. One of these affective factors is the personality of student, which has been explored in terms of many different personal traits of an individual. The detailed discussion of personality studies in SLA research

shows that the study of personality holds considerable promise for second language acquisition.

Most of the personality studies attempted to find out which aspects of L2 proficiency were affected by which personality variables. Ellis (1999) describes various researchers' ways of studying personality and states that some researchers (e.g., Dawaele and Furnham 1999 and 2000) preferred to use dichotomies, which were seen as two poles of a continuum, like extroversion/ introversion, while some others (Fillmore 1979; and Strong 1983) preferred to develop their own concept and called it as "social style".

Eysenck and Eysenck (1964) are researchers who tried to identify the traits of personality, and defined extroversion and its counterpart, introversion, as the main personality traits. Furthermore, Eysenck and Eysenck (1964) also justified these personality variables (extroversion-introversion) with a set of experimental studies. Though personality traits of extroversion/ introversion represent a continuum, they can also be identified as isolated types.

To provide a portrait of these two variables it is possible to say that the term "introvert" defines a person who is likely to experience a deep sense of isolation and disconnectedness, conserve his/her energy, retired, reluctant in interacting and sharing what she/he has in her/his mind with others. However, the term "extrovert" defines a person who is more sociable, interactive, interested in external happenings and appears to be energized by other people around. While introverts hide their inner world and prefer to work on their own, extroverts prefer to work, communicate with excitement and enthusiasm with other people (Keirsey, 1998).

Extroversion and introversion are hypothesized to be in relation with language learning, since they are assumed to make their own contributions to language learning and outcomes of SLA. There are different assumptions which define the role of extroversion-introversion in second language acquisition. In addition, there are also some studies conducted basing on these assumptions to see the link between language learning and these two variables. Similarly, the present study aims to find out the role of extroversion-introversion in shaping learners' communicative L2 behavior. In other words, it attempts to see how and to which extent learners' interactive and verbal behaviors are affected by learners' personality preferences. In addition, this study also tries to see the subject from the learners' point of view and find out what learners think about the effect of their personality on their communicative behaviors. It is supposed by the researcher that a clearer image of the effect of these traits on learners' communicative behaviors could be obtained with a close examination of the interaction patterns between learners.

Background of the Study

There are two main hypotheses which have been central to extroversion/ introversion studies in SLA. With respect to first hypothesis developed, extroverted learners will do better in acquiring "basic interpersonal communicative skills" and will be more successful in acquiring L2 (Ellis, 1994, p. 520). The notion behind this hypothesis is that sociability, which is an essential feature of extroversion, helps learners create more opportunities to practice the target language and leads them to more input and more success in L2 communication. In other words, certain social behaviors of an individual are hypothesized to have an effect on learner's language acquisition by regulating the input. As cited in Skehan (1989, p.101) many

investigators (e.g. Naiman et.al., 1978 ;Mc Donough 1981) have suggested that more sociable learners will be more inclined to talk and more likely to participate in practice activities and accordingly, more likely to increase language-use opportunities through which they gain input. The tendency of extroverted students to be more sociable and interactive are suggested to create opportunities for them to practice the language they are learning. In other words, in the first hypothesis, extroverted learners who tend more to participate in oral activities are thought to contribute more to their own learning by the help of their outgoing personality. To sum up, learners, who find it easier to contact with the target language, are believed to obtain more input and therefore contribute to acquisition (Krashen, 1981).

However, the research results seem to provide only partial support for this hypothesis. Naiman et al. (cited in Skehan, 1989, p.101) found no link between extroversion and language proficiency. Likewise, Bush (1982) failed to find any correlation between extroversion oral proficiency of her subjects. However, there are also some studies which point to positive correlation between social styles of learners' and success in language learning. Fillmore (1979) in a study of five Spanish-speaking children's acquisition of English claims that learners, who desire to be a part of a social group that speak the target language, are more likely to learn the language. The results of Fillmore's study showed that one of the subjects, who put herself in a position to receive maximum input, had became a comfortable communicator, while others had hardly acquired the language. As indicated by the results, the situation is not clear cut.

With respect to the second hypothesis, as stated in Ellis (1994, p.520), introverted learners are predicted to do better in developing "cognitive academic

language ability". Ellis (1994) states that the notion which supports this hypothesis comes from the results of the studies which indicate that introverted learners enjoy more academic success. However, there is no strong support for this hypothesis, either. Strong (1983) reviewed the body of research which was conducted to see the link between extroversion- introversion and language success. Strong's survey of the studies which have focused on the effects of introversion on 'the linguistic task language' pointed out that less than half of these studies failed to find a significant correlation between the degree of introversion and linguistic task language. Furthermore, the study of Busch (1982) also failed to provide support for the hypothesis that introversion reinforces the development of academic language since the results of the studies revealed no significant correlation between YTEP test scores (scores in reading, writing and grammar) and introversion. Accordingly, the second hypothesis also could not be supported by empirical results.

In addition to these studies which tried to see the link between extroversion-introversion and SLA, there are also some others which try to see the influence of extroversion/introversion continuum on verbal behaviors of learners. For instance, Dawaele and Furnham (1999) introduced some studies on the relationship between the degree of extroversion of learners and linguistic variables in oral language. One of them is the study conducted by Siegman and Pope (1965) who analyzed the conversations of extroverted and introverted subjects and found that extroversion correlates with speech rate of learners. However, the results of the studies conducted by Ramsay (1968) and Steer (1974) failed to indicate significant correlations. Ramsay (1968) found no relation between extroversion and length of silence between

utterances. Similarly, Steer (1974) also found no correlation between speech rates and degree of extroversion.

Thus, the results of studies reported above fail to provide a clear picture of the relationship between extroversion/introversion continuum and learners' SLA journey.

<div align="center">Statement of the Problem</div>

As indicated in the previous sub-section, there are two different hypotheses on the relation between extroversion-introversion and second language learning. They each focus on different contributions of extroversion and introversion to SLA. In addition, there are some studies (Fillmore, 1979; Busch, 1982; Strong, 1983) which were conducted taking these hypotheses into account. They aimed to define the role and influence of extroversion/introversion continuum or social style on second language acquisition. These studies all tried to find out if learners' personality variables had any effect on their language learning process or EFL/ESL proficiency and which aspects of L2 learning were affected by these two traits (extroversion and introversion). However, the results of the studies do not seem to provide a clear picture of this relationship. Thus, the relation between extroversion-introversion and SLA process, and second language learning success could not be defined yet. The picture of the relationship between extroversion and verbal behaviors of learners is also unclear. In addition, it is also a matter of question if the results of these studies could change depending on the setting or culture the study conducted. It is not known if extroversion makes any difference in learners' verbal behaviors in prep-classes of Turkish Universities.

In addition, no idea or belief is provided in the literature about the learners' opinions or considerations about the role of their personality in their interactive activities. No study or research tackles the issue from the students' perspective. All these are to conduct a study to see if there is link between two basic personality variables, extroversion/introversion, and students' interactive behaviors. To sum, the present study aimed to find out examples of personality marking in speech, giving importance to extroversion and its counterpart, introversion, which are both considered to somehow affect the language learning process and learners' communicative behaviors. In addition the study also tried to see the subject from the students' point of view and define students' understanding of their own personality tendencies and their effect on communicative L2 behaviors in class.

Research Questions

The present research tried to find answers of the following questions.

1. In what way and to what degree do the personality traits of extroversion/ introversion influence learners' communicative behaviors?

2. What is the students' perception about the influence of their personality in their communicative L2 behavior?

Significance of the Study

This study can contribute to the literature by indicating which aspects of verbal and interactive behaviors of learners are affected by their personality preferences. In other words, it might be helpful in terms of defining the contributions of learner's personalities to their interactions with their classmates in the classroom.

In addition, the results might be helpful for recognizing how learners individually differ from each other and how these differences are reflected in their in-

class communicative behaviors. This recognition might encourage teachers to provide appropriate settings for learners to actively participate in in-class interactive activities. Learners, who differ from each in the way they approach the task of language learning might, also gain a self-awareness in terms of the link between their personality preferences and verbal and interactive tendencies.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE   REVIEW

Introduction

In this chapter, the literature on individual differences, extroversion/ introversion continuum and its relationship to different aspects of educational attainment and second language learning will be reviewed. In the first sub-section, the literature on individual differences will be examined. In the second and third parts, definitions of extroversion/introversion and their assessment will be discussed. In the fourth sub-section, the link between extroversion/introversion and educational achievement will be discussed, and the focus will be narrowed down to second language learning in the fifth sub-section. Finally, the relation between the extroversion/introversion continuum and interactive behaviors of learners in L2 will be discussed in the sixth sub-section.

Individual Differences

The literature on second language acquisition (SLA) deals with two different issues which both have been central to second language acquisition research. On one hand, researchers are interested in discovering universal aspects of SLA that deal with factors which are the same for all learners like input or output. On the other hand, researchers are also interested in knowing whether the process of language learning, which has universal aspects, may vary among learners depending on their individual differences. In recent years, there has been a growing emphasis on the role of individual differences in second language learning. The variation among learners is considered to be important, since it has been regarded as a factor affecting

learners' ways of approaching second language learning. There are two dimensions

of SLA which are claimed to be influenced by individual differences. As Ellis (1990,

p. 99) states, the first aspect of SLA, which is hypothesized to be affected by

individual differences, is "the sequence or order in which linguistic knowledge is

acquired". He argues that "differences in age, learning style, aptitude, motivation,

and personality result in differences in the route along which learners pass in SLA."

To Ellis (1990, p. 99), the second aspect of SLA, which is affected by individual

differences, is "the rate and ultimate success of SLA". Fillmore (1979, p. 204) also

provides support for this claim and states that "while some individuals acquire

languages after the first with ease, and they manage to achieve a degree of mastery

over the new language, others find it difficult to learn later languages". At this point,

she asserts to the fact that the explanation for this variability among learners in terms

of their success can be explained by differences among learners. That is to say,

Fillmore also regards individual differences as a factor affecting SLA success.

Furthermore, Ellis (1990) compares these two claims and argues that claiming the

influence of individual differences on learners' rate of learning and competence is

less controversial than claiming the influence of individual differences on the route

of acquisition.

In addition to these arguments and hypotheses which attempt to define the

effect of individual differences on SLA, there are also some other claims which try to

define the importance of individual differences. For instance, Fillmore (1979) states

that in SLA there are two different points of view which are opposite to each other in

terms of the importance given to individual differences. One regards individual

variation as an important factor which makes SLA different from the first language

acquisition. In this regard, second language learning is considered to be far different from the first language learning, since "individuals vary greatly in the ease and success with which they are able to handle the learning of new languages" (Fillmore, 1979, p. 203). In addition, with respect to this claim, first language learning is considered to be "uniform across populations in terms of developmental scheduling" (Fillmore1979, p.203). As to the second point of view, individual differences don't play a more significant role in SLA than they do in first language learning. In other words, individual differences are considered to have the same role both in first and second language acquisition. Ellis (1990) also mentions this disagreement on the subject and states that the importance of the individual differences has been emphasized in studies that focus on differences on learners' proficiency levels, while it has been underestimated by studies which focus on the process of second language acquisition.

Despite these contradicting opinions, the study of individual differences involves a great area of work, since it is predicted to contribute to SLA research. It is still a matter of question in what way and to what degree learners differ from each other and what kind of effects these learner variables have on the process of language acquisition. An in-depth and detailed study of individual differences might provide insight for the answers of these questions (for motivation and foreign language aptitude. (See Dörnyei and Skehan, 2003.)

Research done in the past (Rossier, 1975; Busch, 1982; Dawale and Furnham, 1999) indicates that personality, which stands as one of the main differences between learners, is also crucial since it shapes a learner's approach to language learning. The two basic personality dimensions, extroversion-introversion,

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which are main concern of this thesis, are also hypothesized to be in relation with second language learning, since they seem to be making their distinct contributions to this process. As indicated before, this study tries to see the role of individual differences in second language learning, putting specific emphasis on extroversion and introversion. However, before examining the role of these two variables in SLA, I will have a look at in what way the construct of extroversion-introversion is identified and in what way it is operationalized and measured both in psychology and language learning literature. The following sub-section will provide definitions of extroversion and its counterpart, introversion.

<center>Extroversion- Introversion Continuum</center>

As indicated, before investigating the role of the extroversion-introversion continuum in SLA, these two terms (extroversion and introversion) will be defined first with respect to psychology and then second language acquisition research. In what follows, definitions of "personality" and "extroversion-introversion" in psychology will be provided.

The term "personality" is derived from the Latin word persona, which means "mask", the "outward indication of a person's character" (Eysenck, 1967). For scientific psychologists, personality is defined as the characteristics and qualities of a person which are seen as a whole and which differentiate him or her from other people (Eysenck, 1967). The definition of personality differs in a variety of ways, considering the diversity of psychological approaches aroused in the personality studies. However, individual differences, behavioral dimensions and traits have been the basic notions in the definition of personality from different vantage points. In literature of psychology, the individual differences are manifested through internal

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psychological characteristics: in other words, traits. As Allen (1994) indicates, traits can be labeled as being shy, mean, kind, dominant, etc. The trait approach of personality theories was pioneered by Eysenck and Eysenck (1984), who studied independently from each other, and provided a similar approach in personality studies. The traits are derived from factor analysis and defined as theoretical constructs based on observed intercorrelations between a number of different habitual responses (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1969). Eysenck and Eysenck (1984) identified three major traits of personality, one of which was extroversion-introversion.

In the last two decades, cognitive definitions of an extroversion-introversion continuum were proposed, each of them adopting a different point of view and therefore emphasizing a different aspect of these personality traits in their definition. In what follows, I will briefly characterize these definitions and will then briefly point out in what way they are or are not connected with each other. For the sake of simplicity, I will limit myself to the characteristics of extroversion.

A definition of extroversion – introversion considering the affective and cognitive dimensions is done by Depue and Collins (1999). To them extroversion is composed of two major dimensions termed interpersonal engagement and impulsivity. Interpersonal engagement refers to being receptive to the company of others and agency means seeking social dominance and leadership roles, and being motivated to achieve goals. In addition, impulsivity refers to need for excitement and change for risk-taking, adventuresomeness and sensation seeking.

While the definition of Depue and Collins (1999) has been used in psychology literature, Busch (1982) and Brown (1993) use slightly different

definitions that have been used in SLA research. Brown (1993, p. 146) makes a cognitive definition of extroversion-introversion and states that extroversion is "the extent to which a person has a deep-seated need to receive ago enhancement, self-esteem, and a sense of wholeness from other people as opposed to receiving that affirmation within oneself". In addition to Brown, Busch (1982), who conducted a study to explore the relationship between extroversion-introversion tendencies of students and their proficiency levels in English as a foreign language (EFL), provided definitions of extroversion-introversion. Busch (1982, p.111) defines states that "extroverts tend to seek stimulation from the environment to increase arousal level, while introverts attempt to seek a reduction of stimulation. The behavioral differences are such that extroverts seek out the presence of other persons, enjoy social activities and talking, tend to act aggressively and impulsively and crave excitement".

Looking at these three definitions, we see three main concepts, social dominance in Depue and Collins (1999), self-esteem in Brown's (1993) definition, and sociability in Busch's (1982) definition. These are the cores of these three definitions. All these definitions cover aspects of the construct extroversion, however, as they are applied in different areas of research, each of them putting the emphasis on a different aspect.

Besides these cognitively oriented definitions of extroversion, there is also a more behaviorist approach. Though the behaviorist research paradigm has been largely overcame or replaced, in the case of research into extroversion-introversion, different definitions of the behaviorist approach are still very popular, and have been widely used in both area of SLA and psychology. The instruments associated with

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this behavioristic approach have been developed by Eysenck (1985) and have been widely tested within different areas of research. Therefore, they can claim high degree of construct validity (see the following sub-section), and they have been adopted as a basis for the present study. However, before turning to the issue of operationalisation and measurement, I will have a brief look at the definition of extroversion-introversion which is developed by Eysenck (1967), and which is adopted for the purpose of the present study.

Relying on observable behavior rather than on conclusions drawn from the interpretations of motives, etc. in order to arrive at an understanding of human personality, Eysenck (1965), as cited in Skehan (1989, p. 100), puts forward the following definitions of extroversion-introversion.

"The typical extrovert is a sociable, likes parties, has many friends, needs to have people to talk and does not like reading and studying by himself. He craves excitement, takes chances, often sticks his neck out, acts on the spur of the moment, and is generally an impulsive individual." As opposed to that, introverts are defined as follows, "The typical introvert is a quiet, retiring sort of person, introspective, fond of books rather than people; he is reserved and distant except to intimate friends. He tends to plan ahead, and distrusts the impulse of the moment. He does not like excitement, takes matters of everyday life with proper seriousness, and likes a well-ordered mode of life."

Though this definition seems to be too behavioristic, and far from providing any cognitive information about extroverts and introverts, it has been used in some of the sources and studies (Skehan, 1989, Dawaele and Furnham, 1999, Atbaş, 1997) that focused on the role of extroversion-introversion in SLA.

Beside the definitions provided, Eysenck (1967) draws attention to the fact that individuals might not tend totally to extroversion or introversion. Eysenck (1967) states that the scale of extroversion-introversion is continuous, and the majority of the people have been found to give scores at an intermediate level between two poles of this continuum. Additionally, he emphasizes that very high scores in both direction are not often confronted.

As it is not enough only to define traits of extroversion-introversion for scientific studies, how these two personality tendencies have been measured, and what kind of limitations and usefulness these measurements have will be discussed in the following sub-section.

Measurement of Extroversion-Introversion

Crucial to any investigation of the possible relationship between extroversion-introversion on the one hand and their possible effects on issues like educational achievement, SLA, or communicative behavior on the other hand is an explicit and valid definition of the independent variable, that is to say, the construct of extroversion, introversion. In this chapter, the methods used by researchers while identifying the degrees of the extroversion and introversion construct will be discussed with respect to their limitations and usefulness.

As indicated by the literature, there are two ways of measuring the degree of an individual's personality tendency. While, some researchers prefer to conduct personality inventory tests to be informed about their subjects' personalities, others make observations while defining their subjects' social or personal tendencies. However, conducting an observation requires a very systematic and regular focus on the subject in a long period of time, which is not convenient for some studies.

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Accordingly, most researchers both in psychology and SLA prefer to employ personality tests, since they are considered to be more reliable. Thus, personality tests, which identify the personality inclination of the subjects, have great importance for studies, which focus on the probable relationship between personality and language learning .The success of the studies depend on the validity and reliability of these tests. Eysenck and Eysenck (1985), who has done many studies on theory of personality, has developed different versions of personality test considering the main dimensions of personality. One of these personality test is the Personality Inventory Test (1985), which has been used in most of the studies (Rossier, 1976; Busch, 1982; Dawaele and Furnham, 2000).

Eysenck's scales for the measurement of personality among adults have been developed and refined over a period of nearly fifty years. One of the consequences of this process has been a progressive increase in their length. The early Maudsley Medical Questionnaire (MMQ) contains forty items (Eysenck, 1952), the Maudsley Personality Inventory (MPI) contains forty-eight items (Eysenck, 1959), the Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI) contains fifty-seven items (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1964), the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ) contains ninety items (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1975) and the Revised Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQR) contains one hundred items (Eysenck, Eysenck & Barrett, 1985). This increase in length can be accounted for by the introduction of an additional dimension of personality within Eysenck's scheme (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1976) and by the psychometric principle that greater length enhances reliability.

There are, however, some practical disadvantages in long tests. In particular, there are numerous occasions when a research project would benefit from including a

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personality measure, but an additional ninety or one hundred items would increase the overall questionnaire to an unacceptable length. Alongside the full questionnaires, there has been also a series of shorter instruments. Eysenck (1958) developed two short indices of extraversion and neuroticism, each containing only six items, based on the Maudsley Personality Inventory. Subsequently, Eysenck and Eysenck (1964) developed another pair of six-item scales to measure extraversion and neuroticism, based on the Eysenck Personality Inventory. Floderus (1974) developed slightly longer indices of extraversion and neuroticism, containing nine items each, from the Eysenck Personality Inventory. The major limitation with these early short forms is that they are based on Eysenck's original two-dimensional (psychoticism, extroversion) model of personality, rather than on the three-dimensional model (neuroticism, psychoticism, and extroversion) promoted by the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire. However, the personality test used in present study, Eysenck Personality Questionnaire Revised-Abbreviated (Karancı et al., 2006), which is also an abbreviated form of Eysenck Personality Inventory Questionnaire (1985), has been developed and abbreviated on three-dimensional model of personality (nueroticism, psychoticims and extroversion) which it was originated from. Furthermore, with its use in studies conducted by other researchers and psychologists, its validity and reliability have been substantiated in terms of both the content and its application to and validation within the Turkish setting.

Personality traits of extroversion/introversion, which have been described and defined by most psychologists in detail in terms of general tendencies and biological bases, seem to be central to many psychological and linguistic studies. However, it is still a matter of question how and to what degree these personal tendencies affect

learners' educational life, language learning, and interactive behaviors in a foreign language. Having discussed the issue of operationalization and measurement, I will now have a look at the available empirical evidence as to what concerns the relationship between the extroversion-introversion personality traits and (i) educational achievement, (ii) language learning and lastly (iii) communicative behavior.

Introversion-Extroversion and Educational Achievement

As the extroversion-introversion continuum is defined and principles of its measurement have been discussed in previous sub-sections, this section will review the literature which deals with their relation to educational success of learners at school.

As cited in Handley (1973, p. 78,77), there are a number of studies (Savage, 1966, Enwistle, 1970, Kline and Gale, 1971) that have been conducted to find out the possible link between extroversion/ introversion and educational success of learners. While the results of some of the studies (Cunningham, 1968, Enwistle and Welsh, 1969) point to extroverts' tendency to underperform, the results of some others (Savage, 1966, Riddings, 1967) do not seem to provide support for introverts' superior academic success. In other words, the results of the studies are not in line with each other. However, there are some factors which seem to contribute to this confusing picture. The factors that have gained the most prominence in research are first age and second the learning environment. In what follows, each of these factors will be dealt with separately.

The first and most important factor which seems to be in relation with the educational success of extroverts and introverts is age. As cited in Skehan (1989, p.

104), Wankowski (1973) argues that the influence of extroversion-introversion on educational success depends on the age of the learners. Wankowski (1973) has found that below puberty extroversion tends to have a positive relationship with achievement, whereas after puberty introverts are more successful. There are some further studies which provide support for this hypothesis. For example, most of the studies (Rushton, 1966; Chuningam, 1968; Ridding, 1967) cited in Handley (1973, p. 78, 79) point to the fact that the educational success of an extroverted or introverted student changes as his/her age differs. In a study of ninety-three primary school children, Savage (1966) reported that children high in extroversion had higher academic attainment scores than the others at the age of eight. In addition, the result of Rusthon's (cited in Handley, 1973, p. 76) study on 458 children also seems to support the hypothesis. The results of this study revealed that extroversion positively correlated with academic success at eleven. Both of these studies seem to point the fact that extroversion correlates with academic success at early ages.

However, the results of the studies seem to change as the age of the subjects increases. It is hypothesized that as the age of the subjects move to fifteen, the relationship between extroversion and academic achievement changes and introverts start to show their superiority to extroverts. Eysenck and Eysenck (1964) supported this hypothesis and stated that at all ages from about 13 or 14 upwards, introverts show superior academic attainment to extroverts. There is also empirical evidence for this hypothesis. For example, as cited in Handley (1973,p. 77), the results of a study conducted by Gordon (1961) on sixty male university students aged between eighteen and twenty-three showed that there was a positive correlation between introversion and academic success. Kline (cited in Handley, p. 77) is another

researcher who conducted a study on academic attainment and he found that introversion was strongly related to academic success in Ghanian University students. So far, the empirical evidence seems to indicate that while extroverts do better at junior school level, introverts seem to do better as they move to secondary schools and university level.

When speculations about the reasons of the effect of age on achievement were considered, researchers came to realize another closely related factor: learning environment. As different tasks are learned at different ages and different tasks are placed in different institutions and different learning environments, learners' task characteristic for this learning environment seems to be closely related to the age of the success and their academic success. As cited in Skehan (1989, p.104), Wankowski (1973) provides support for this claim and states that the changing nature of the learning tasks involved is responsible for the different academic scores of extroverts and introverts in different ages. The "group bases organization" of the classes before puberty is reported to be an advantage for extroverted students, who are more likely to work in groups. Subsequently, subject specialization, which made individual work important, becomes to be an advantage for introverts, who tend to work alone. This claim also makes it clear that the change in "achieving personality" is determined by the learning environment. Accordingly, the second factor, which seems to affect extroverts' and introverts' academic attainment, appears to be the learning environment. Handley (1973), supports this hypothesis and claims that the academic success of students with different personality tendencies can differ depending on the amount of stimulus they encounter in their learning environment. As claimed by Eysenck (1981) extroverts' being more likely to learn better in an

environment which is full of stimulus and introverts' being more likely to learn in an environment which is quiet and free from intense stimulation, also reinforces the idea that the educational setting affects educational success.

Beside these main factors other factors can differentiate extroverts and introverts. The subject studied by the learners and the learning environment are also hypothesized to affect learners' academic success. However, there is little research done in this area. For instance, Handley (1973, p.79) draws attention to the fact that subjects studied by learners are hypothesized to contribute to the academic success of extroverts and introverts and states that "it would be interesting to discover whether successful extroverts and introverts are attracted by different subjects-disciplines". Handley (1973, p.79) suggests tentatively that "introverts may be predisposed towards scientific achievement and extroverts towards linguistic attainment". As a result, it might be necessary to consider the subjects studied by two types of learners while comparing extroverts and introverts in terms of their academic success.

Lastly, besides the age of learners, the educational environment and the subject studied, studying methods are also predicted to play role in extroverts' and introverts' educational success. Some studies offer support for this prediction. As cited in Skehan (1989), Enwistle and Enwistle (1970) found that introversion was associated with good study methods. They also add that introversion still significantly correlated with achievement, even when the effects of good studying methods were not considered.

From the previous discussion, it has become clear that when we talk about the relation between extroversion-introversion and academic success, we can't provide a "yes-or-no" answer. However, we have to consider the differentiating and

manipulating influence of moderator variables, for example, the age of the learners and the learning environment. Accordingly, it seems, one should be cautious while interpreting the results of these studies and reaching a conclusion. After presenting the role of extroverts/ introverts in general educational success in this sub-section, the researcher now narrows down the focus and attempts to see in what way extroversion/introversion can contribute to second language learning.

Introversion-Extroversion and Second Language Learning

In this sub-section, the literature on the influence of extroversion /introversion on the rate and success of second language acquisition will be discussed. First, central theoretical claims and assumptions regarding a positive connection between extroversion-introversion continuum will be introduced. Afterwards, relevant empirical evidence will be considered.

It has been hypothesized by many researchers (Skehan, 1989; Krashen 1981; Strong 1983; Busch, 1983) that extroversion or an outgoing personality positively contributes to second language learning process of a learner. While some researchers (Strong 1983; Fillmore, 1979) regard learners' social skills or ability to maintain verbal contact as factors promoting language learning, some other researchers (Busch, 1983; Rossier, 1976) directly point to extroversion as an indicator of success in SLA, since they relate sociability and tendency to talk to extroversion. Thus, it is suggested that extroverted learners, who tend to interact more, will be more likely to obtain more input. For instance, Ellis (1999, p.120), states that "since extroverted learners find it easier to communicate, they will be more likely to obtain more input". In addition, Skehan (1989, p.101) also offers support for the idea and states that many researchers (e.g. Naiman et. al., 1978) have suggested that "more sociable

learners will be more inclined to talk, more inclined to join in groups, more likely to volunteer and engage in practice activities and finally more inclined to maximize language use opportunities in the classroom by using language for communication". Thus, "extroverts seem to benefit more in the classroom by having the appropriate personality trait for language learning, which is best accomplished by, according to most theorists, actual use of the target language" (Skehan, 1989, p.101).

Further support for this claim comes from Krashen's (1981) input hypothesis. He asserts that an outgoing personality may contribute to "acquisition". In his theory, language acquisition seems to be in relation with high exposure to target language. Although input in Krashen's sense can be provided by the face-to-face interaction as well as input which is not directed to the learner, Krashen (1981) promotes the idea that it is a particular sort of input that is tuned to the proficiency level of learners which is specially helpful in SLA. This fine tuned input, however, is provided by personal and face-to-face communication. In this respect, extroverts who might produce more output might receive more of this kind of personally addressed, fine tuned and therefore, acquisition fostering input.

Now the researcher goes from theoretical background to empirical evidence. The theoretical assumption that assumes that the verbal tendencies and sociability of learners act as a facilitator to access fine-tuned and therefore comprehensible input has been challenged as well as partly confirmed by some several studies. Strong (1983) for example, not focusing on extroversion-introversion but on the broader concept of social ability, conducted a study on the relationship between social style and EFL proficiency. His subjects were thirteen Spanish-speaking kindergartners who began school with almost no English. The social styles examined in his study

were talkativeness, responsiveness, gregariousness, assertiveness, extroversion, social competence and popularity. In this study, language measures were productive structural knowledge, play vocabulary and pronunciation. Strong (1983) suggested that language learners who are able to maintain the communicative interactions will be creating conditions that will help them improve skills in the new language. However, the results of the study conflicted with this assumption, and they didn't point to the relation between social characteristics and language acquisition. That is to say, sociable personality did not correlate with particular measure of language proficiency adapted in this study.

Despite the results of Strong's study, which failed to show the link between sociability and language learning, the results of a study conducted by Fillmore (1979) supported the idea that social skills of learners control their exposure to L2. In her longitudinal study, Fillmore (1979) observed language development of five Spanish-speaking subjects who were paired with native speakers of English. These five subjects and their partners had no common language to communicate at the beginning. Her study aimed to find out "what social processes might be involved in when children who need to learn a new language come into contact with those from whom they are to learn it-but with whom they cannot communicate easily" (Fillmore, 1979, p. 205). The subjects were observed regularly for a year so as to see how much farther they went in learning a new language. The results of the study revealed that one of the subjects, Nora, improved her English much more quickly than the others subjects and became a comfortable communicator at the end of the year. However, Nora was different from the others in the way she approached to the task of learning the new language. Nora took part in activities which required verbalization, and she

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had a tendency to develop intense relationships with her friends. That is to say, Nora was the only subject who put herself in a position to maintain verbal contact with native speakers and receive maximum exposure to the new language. In this study Fillmore (1979, p. 205) pointed out to that learners who play an "active role in inviting interaction from the speaker of language" and who try to get the right sort of input will be more successful in mastering the target language, and also those children who find it easy to interact with English progress more rapidly than those whose don't.

The two studies mentioned do not investigate directly the extroversion-introversion continuum rather a broader concept, social ability. However, the construct of extroversion-introversion has been directly investigated and measured by Busch (1982).

Busch (1982) hypothesized that introversion-extroversion tendencies as measured by personality inventory may produce significant correlations with proficiency in English, since extroverted students are expected to take advantage of opportunities they get to receive input in English and to practice the language both inside and outside the classroom. Based on this hypothesis, Busch conducted a study to explore the relationship between the introversion-extroversion tendencies of Japanese students and their proficiency in English. Busch (1982) involved 105 adult school English students and 80 junior college English students as subjects. Those students took a standardized English test and a personality inventory test**.** The result of the study pointed to the fact that students with introversion tendencies had a better English pronunciation and higher English proficiency scores. However, a negative relationship was found between extroversion and subjects' scores on written tests and

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oral interviews. That is to say, the findings of the study did not support the idea that extroverts, who have the opportunity of practicing the language more, would perform better in oral activities. Again, as stated before, it might be hypothesized that it is not just an extroversion-introversion distinction which accounts for the variance in English attainment or oral proficiency, but rather a combination of certain factors e.g. before mentioned factors like age and learning context, which are likely to influence a learner's success or failure in SLA. With respect to individual differences, there might be variables like motivation, learning style as well as combination of these dimensions.

At the same time, one has to realize that it is not only the relationship of these dimensions that leads to inconsistent results between different studies. There are further both conceptual and methodological factors which lead to these inconsistent results. In order to account for the empirical results the reminder of this sub-section will briefly discuss these factors. First the nature of the language assessed, second the quality of measurement, and finally the quality of input are considered to be the factors affecting the results of the studies.

First of all, the nature of the language assessed is regarded to be a reason for the inconsistencies in the results. Strong (1983) suggests that if the effect of this variable (nature of the language assessed) is taken into consideration, many of the inconsistencies in results might be solved. He makes a distinction between "natural communicative language" and "linguistic task language". Strong (1983, p.244) defines "natural communicative language" (NCL) as language used in interpersonal communication and "linguistic task language" (LTL) as "a language used in formal test of some kind such as comprehension test, close test, repetition task, or a story

telling task". Strong (1983, p.244) also suggests that "personality variables can be seen to be consistently related to the former, but erratically to the latter". In addition to Strong, Ellis (1999) also calls attention to the fact that different personality factors may be responsible for different kinds of L2 competence. Furthermore, Ellis (1999, P.123) states that "a relationship between personality and communicative skills seems more intuitively feasible than the one between personality and pure linguistic ability". Thus, these suggestions might help researchers to define which kind of language to assess so as to reach a more conclusive result, while searching for the effect of any kind of personality on second language acquisition.

The second factor, which is hypothesized to cause the confusing results, is the quality of personality measurement. Dawaele and Furnham (1999), who call attention to contradicting results, claim that poor quality of measurement of extroversion-introversion might result in inconsistent results. In most of the studies, personality inventory tests or general observations are used to get an idea about the personal tendencies of learners. However, Dawaele and Furnham (1999) criticize both personality tests and observations. For instance, personality tests, which mostly function as self-report papers, are claimed not to point to subjects' real tendencies since some subjects reflect on tests how they want to be rather than how they actually are. In addition to this, observations are regarded to be inadequate in terms of defining the personality of a learner. One another issue to take into account in terms of measurement is that tests measure only one dimension of subjects' personality. Thus, the results of the studies might not be reliable at all when other aspects of personality which account for superiority in speaking and language learning are considered. If subjects who are different in extroversion-introversion continuum but

similar in other personality tendencies are compared, the results could be more reliable. With consideration of these suggestions, researchers have to pay attention to the nature of the language assessed and the way they measure the personality when they are stating and interpreting the results of the studies.

Lastly, the third factor which is hypothesized by some researchers (Strong 1983; Ellis, 1999) to be a reason for confusing results is the lack of consideration of the quality of input rather than its quantity. As indicated before, while defining the role of extroversion-introversion in the success of second language acquisition, most researchers (Skehan, 1989; Krashen, 1981; Strong, 1983; Busch, 1983) hypothesize that extroversion positively correlates with success in language learning, since the amount of input gained is raised by extroverts' tendency to interact more. However, importance of the quality of the input and students' ability of making best use of it are not as much considered. Thus, some researchers like Strong (1983), Ellis (1999), and Rubin (1975) take attention to the fact that how a learner uses and internalizes the input should also be considered as much as the necessity of an outgoing personality for creating opportunities to reach input**.** Thus, the studies, which always seem to focus on the opportunities alone, might as well consider learners' making use of these opportunities. Furthermore, it can be suggested that maintaining contact with the new language may not be enough to promote language learning and active use of this extra input by the learner might be necessary. This might lead researchers to focus more on what goes on in the learner rather than the amount of input he encounters. In other words, what seems to be important is the learners' personalities which control the quality of interaction in the L2, rather than those that lead to quantity of input (Strong, 1983).

At this point, to make a distinction between the quality of interaction and the quantity of input becomes crucial. The focus of most of the research to date has been on the quantity of input however, the quality of interaction through which input is gained as well seems important. The quality of the input varies depending on the modifications made by the speaker like repetition, expansion and clarification. These kinds of modifications make input "comprehensible". If it is comprehensible input that counts for language learning (Krashen, 1981), then it becomes possible to say that not every kind of interaction and input helps learners improve their language skills. A learner who is in intense contact with the language has to be provided with "comprehensible input" so that he/she can make use of it and benefit from interaction.

Therefore, with respect to these three factors of inconsistency, I tried to take measures and used an instrument that has been widely used and can claim a high degree of construct validity. Secondly, I used dialogic tasks in order to elicit communicative language use, in particular an information-gap and an opinion-gap task. Lastly, I did account for the quality of input by transcribing the dialogue work and accomplishment of students and analyzing these interactions in terms of discourse analysis techniques.

As this study is not investigating the influence of extroversion-introversion on success and proficiency in SLA, but on the verbal and interactive behaviors of learners, the next sub-section will present literature on what way students produce the L2 and in what way they interact with each other.

Introversion-Extroversion and Communicative L2 Behavior

As indicated in the previous sub-section, the focus of this study is not the influence of extroversion-introversion continuum on learners' success in SLA. Rather, this study tries to discover in what way and to what extent learners' communicative L2 behavior is affected by their personal tendencies, especially by extroversion and introversion. Therefore, in this sub-section, literature on the link between learners' verbal and interactive behaviors and extroversion-introversion continuum will be presented. The main speech variables, which seem to differentiate extroverts from introverts, will be introduced within the studies conducted. In addition, the causes of this linguistic variation will also be discussed.

Although the number of the studies in this field is rather limited, research available points to some specific differences between extroverts and introverts in terms of their communicative language use and speech production. The main differences between extroverts and introverts in terms of their communicative behaviors discussed in research were first, the length of pauses, second, the number of filled pauses, third, speech rate, fourth, choice of speech style, fifth, willingness to communicate, and lastly lexical richness. In what follows, these speech variables which seem to differentiate extroverts and introverts will be discussed with their possible causes.

Empirical evidence seems to point to the fact that extroverts and introverts differ in terms of the length of the pauses they employ during a speech. Silence can be interpreted as a decision making process during which learners stop and try to decide how to overcome a problem or how to express him or herself. Siegman and Pope (1965), who analyzed the conversations of extroverts and introverts, found

negative correlation between extroversion and the number and duration of silent pauses. Support for this result comes from a second study conduced by Ramsay (cited in Dawaele and Furnham, 1999, p. 527). He conducted a study to see if there were any correlation between the degree of extroversion and the length of pauses employed. He used two different kinds of tasks to collect the necessary data, and one of the tasks was comparatively more complex than the other one. The results of the study indicated that extroverts and introverts do not differ in terms of the length of silence they employ between utterances in the simple verbal task. However, the results also indicated that as the task gets more complex, introverts' pauses before speaking get longer. Ramsay (1968) argues that the link between extroversion-introversion continuum and length of utterance tends to appear when more complex verbal tasks are involved in studies. In addition, Dawaele and Furnham (2000) provide support for this claim and argue that complex cognitive tasks performed under stressful conditions were likely to be important in terms of differentiating extroverts and introverts more clearly. Introverts are claimed to have difficulties in speaking, when they are under pressure because pressure is hypothesized to push their arousal level beyond its optimal level and affect parallel cognitive processing. On the other hand, low arousal level of extroverts is hypothesized to help them with coping with stress. That is to say, increased tasks difficulty is predicted to be differentiating extroverts and introverts especially with the use of a complex task in stressful settings.

In addition to length of silence in speech, secondly, the number of filled pauses employed by extroverts and introverts was also investigated. Silence and filled pauses can be regarded as related to each other since they both reflect the

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learners' hesitation or a breakdown during communication. Expressions showing hesitation like "er" are investigated and interpreted as signals of "actual trouble" during speech. These expressions were regarded to be common in L2 production. Dawaele and Furnham (2000) conducted a study with twenty-five Flemish University students and provided the subjects with speaking tasks. However, the study involved two different settings. In one hand, the conversations of participants were recorded in an interpersonal stressful, and on the other hand, subjects were provided with a more informal setting conversations in that relaxed setting were recorded. The researchers aimed to see linguistic variables employed by extroverts and introverts had different in two different settings. The findings of the study showed that in a formal situation the proportion of "er" negatively correlated with the degree of extroversion. This result of the study appears to support the idea that under stress and pressure introverts hesitate more than extroverts do. Dawaele and Furnham (2000) hypothesize that since introverts are more anxious and less stress-resistant, they are expected to employ such expressions more than extroverts do. At this point, what accounts for the variety seems to be the formality of the situation.

The third speech variable which has been hypothesized to be in relation with learners' personality tendencies is speech rate. The speech rate is regarded as an indicator of fluency and is usually measured in terms of the number of syllables produced per second or per minute (Ellis, 2005). It is claimed by some researchers (Dawaele and Furnham, 1999; Koomen and Dijkstra, 1975) that there is a positive correlation between degree of extroversion and speech rate. As cited in Dawaele and Furnham (2000, p.528), the results of a study conducted by Koomen and Dijkstra (1975) on 36 Dutch university level learners revealed that there was a positive

correlation between the degree of extroversion and speech rate of subjects. It is hypothesized by Dawaele and Furnham (2000) that introverts are more anxious than extroverts and they suggest that introverts high level of anxiety causes introverts to have difficulties in speaking which in turn results in a low level of speech rate. What is responsible for the difference between extroverts and introverts is hypothesized to be introverts' high level of anxiety. In addition to speech rate, extroverts and introverts were also hypothesized to differ in terms of their choice of speech style. In Dawaele and Furnham (1999, p.532) it was stated "that perception that speakers have of formality is likely to lead them to make different pragmatic choices". When speech choice is considered, introverts, who are more anxious, were predicted to opt for more explicit styles and be willing to expand a greater effort in order to avoid the risk of being misunderstood. As a result, formality of the situation is a reason for introverts to choose a more explicit speech style. However, there is not empirical evidence which verifies this hypothesis.

The forth speech variable which seems to differentiate extroverts and introverts in terms of verbal tendencies is their willingness to communicate, which is also stated in psychological description of these two variables. A definition made by Keirsey (1998, p. 1) involves extroverts tendency to interact and to be in verbal contact with others. Keirsey(1998, p. 1) states that "owing to the surge extroverts get when in company, they are quick to approach others, even strangers, and talk to them, finding this an easy and pleasant thing to do, and something they don't want to do without". Further empirical evidence for extroverts' willingness to interact comes from Oya, Manalo, and Greenwood (2004) as well as from Vogel and Vogel (1986). For example, Vogel and Vogel (1986), who conducted a study with 89 Germans

learning French, investigated speech production of extroverts and introverts and found a strong relationship between extroversion and backchannel behavior in a film-retelling task. The authors drew the conclusion that with the use of these backchannels, extroverted language learners give the signals of their wish to communicate.

The last speech variable which is hypothesized to differentiate extroverts and introverts is lexical richness. Lexical richness of a speech represents target-like use, particularly variation of vocabulary in speech production (Ellis, 2005, p. 152). Dawaele and Furnham (2000, p. 361) hypothesize that "when under pressure, introverts could be spending more time converting their preverbal messages accurately into words and hence, increasing the lexical richness of their speech compared to that of extroverts, but sacrificing the fluency". Thus, when they are speaking under pressure, introverts are hypothesized to employ much richer vocabulary, but extroverts do not spend as much time and energy as introverts on the task.

With regards to the studies reported above, it seems that extroverts and introverts are likely to differ in terms of linguistic variables they employ in a speech. However, as it is indicated before, some intervening factors seem to be contributing this difference in their speech production and interactive behavior. First of all, introverts are hypothesized to have a high level of social and linguistic anxiety which affects them during their speech production. Accordingly, the speech of introverts is hypothesized to differ in formal situations during which their level of anxiety increases. That is to say, introverts' high level of anxiety, and the formality of the tasks seems to be interrelated causing some of the differences in communicative

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behavior between extroverts and introverts which has been stated and discussed above.

In this chapter, the two personality traits, extroversion-introversion, and the hypotheses developed to discover their influence on SLA outcomes have been discussed considering the empirical evidence. In the following chapter, the research design of the present study, which aims to see the effect of extroversion-introversion continuum on learners' communicative behaviors, will be introduced.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

Introduction

In the previous chapter, the personality variables of extroversion-introversion, their measurement and their relation to second language learning and learner's communicative behaviors were discussed. In addition, the studies conducted were reported. In this chapter, the researcher will turn to her own study and introduce the research design, the instruments used and the subjects involved in the present study. As indicated before, previous studies tried to see the influence of extroversion-introversion on language learning process and SLA outcomes. However, taking students' personality into account, the present study owned a different perspective and tried to investigate interactive behaviors of learners rather than their performance on any L2 skill. The researcher tried to see the possible link between personality traits of learners and the way they communicate, interact, and use the language in the classroom. Accordingly, the study aims to find answers to certain questions. The first question stated asks in what way and to what extent personality traits of extroversion- introversion influence learners' communicative behaviors. In other words, it explores the direct relation relation of extroversion-introversion to verbal behavior of learners. The second research question investigates what the learners' perception about the influence of their personality on their communicative L2 behavior is. It focuses more on students' thoughts about the relation between their personality preferences and verbal behaviors. In what follows, the participants of the study will be introduced.

Participants of the Study

This study was conducted in Ankara University, School of Foreign Languages, and the participants of the study were chosen among the students of an intermediate level class. The number of the students was nineteen. At the first step of the study, all these students were included, and they were given a personality inventory test (Eysenck Personality Inventory Test, EPQR-A). After the results of personality test were gathered, only eight of the students, who had the extreme scores in extroversion and introversion continuum, were chosen for the rest. Four of the chosen students were extroverted and four of them were introverted. Three of the participants were female and the rest five were male. All eight had nearly the same educational and language background. First of all, they were all coming from high schools with one year of prep-class, which is called "Anatolian High School" in Turkey. Secondly, they were found to be at the same proficiency level according to the results of a proficiency exam conducted before they started their university education. To sum up, the study involved four introverted and four extroverted subjects from the same class with similar educational and language background. The next section of this chapter will present the instruments used while conducting the present study involving these eight participants.

Instruments of the Study

The researcher used four different kinds of instruments to collect the required data for the study. The students were first asked to fill out a personality inventory test, which was used to group the learners as extroverts and introverts. Secondly, they were observed in the classroom setting to see if the results of the questionnaire were supported by the reality in the classroom. At the third step, students were given

two different kinds of speaking tasks, which provided researcher with necessary amount of data. Lastly, students were asked questions during an interview to get their own feelings and opinions about the effect of their personality on their verbal behavior. The instruments used in the course of data collection procedure can be described as follows.

<center>Eysenck Personality Inventory Test</center>

In this sub-section, first the personality inventory test used in this study will be introduced and second, necessary information about its implementation during the data collection procedure will be provided.

As indicated before, in chapter 2, there have been a number of personality tests developed by Eysenk, who is a leader in defining main dimensions of human personality. Most of these tests were rather long and involved 40 or 57 items and all these scales are regarded to be valid and reliable. However, they caused some practical problems, since they are too long. For this reason, the original forms of the tests were abbreviated, and short-versions of the test were developed by psychiatrists.

The personality inventory questionnaire (Eysenk Personality Inventory Questionnaire, EPIQ-RA, Karancı, 2006), used in the present study was also an abbreviated form of Eysenck Personality Test (1985). This abbreviated form was developed by Karancı (2006) and her colleagues in METU, Psychology Department. Eysenck Personality Inventory Questionnaire (Karancı, 2006) consists of 24 items and it measures degree of personality tendency of an individual on the bases of extroversion, neuroticism, psychoticism and lying. However, since the other three sub-scales are irrelevant to the present study, only the items which were related to extroversion factor (2, 4, 13, 15, 20, and 23) were regarded in this study. The

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participants answered these 24 questions marking either "YES" or "NO" for each question.

Karancı (2006) and her colleagues in METU Psychology Departmentc onducted a study to see if this abbreviated form could be adapted to Turkish setting. For the study, the original form of the questionnaire was translated to Turkish by three independent researchers. The Turkish version, which was studied and corrected by the researchers of the study, was translated back to English by a bilingual speaker so as to avoid language-oriented problems. This back-translated form of the questionnaire was compared with the original one by the researchers in terms of meaning and form. The study involved 756 university students as subjects in four universities from different parts of Turkey. The subjects were students of Ege, Hacettepe, Istanbul and Samsun 19 Mayıs Universities. The subjects were between the age of 17 and 37. After the study conducted Karancı (2006) and her colleagues evaluated the validity and reliability of this test, they concluded that the sub-scales of EPIQ-RA were all highly consistent except for psychoticsm, which is not relevant to present study. Karancı (2006, p.8) states that "the findings of this study supported the idea that the abbreviated form of the Eysenck Personality Inventory Questionnaire (EPIQ-RA) (See Appandix A for Turkish and B for English version of EPIQ-RA) is quite reliable, since the consistency coefficients are high and test revision reliability of the test is at an acceptable level". Since this study involved a huge number of subjects from four different parts of Turkey, it is possible to claim that it is valid for Turkish culture. By evaluation of all findings, it is concluded that EPIQ-RA is a scale which is both reliable and valid for studies which involve personality identification and clinical implementation. That is to say, the results of the study conducted by

Karancı (2006) indicated to the fact that the personality inventory test (EPIQ-RA) used in present study is adaptable for Turkish setting and its validity and reliability is at an acceptable level. In what follows, the implementation procedure of the test will be presented.

The questions in the questionnaire were answered in the classroom by 24 prep-class students in Ankara University, and it took participants less than 10 minutes to answer the questions. (See Appendix C for samples of the test.) The results were analyzed by a graduate student in the Psychology Department of Middle East Technical University. The total point of each subject were calculated considering the "yes" or "no" answer he/she had given. (See Appendix C for the answers of the subjects.) The subjects received 1 point for each "YES" answer and 0 for each "No" answer. After the analyzing the results, four students who were found to be extroverted and four who were found to be introverted were chosen to go on with the speaking tasks. After the results of the questionnaire were gathered, the researcher observed the classroom for two hours. This observation was conducted to see, on the level of intuition and common sense, if students who were found to be extroverted or introverted in the tests showed any tendency to extroversion or introversion in the classroom setting. The observations were done during regular classes and the students were discussing a speaking point during the class. This observation session helped the researcher to see if the test results were supported by the reality in the classroom. The subjects who came up with extroverted tendencies were all talkative, interactive and sociable in the classroom. However, the ones who came up with introverted tendencies were isolated, conserved and reluctant in interacting. In addition, this observation process made it possible to focus on the

chosen students and see their verbal behaviors in the classroom setting. In the following, the speaking tasks accomplished by eight participants observed in the classroom will be introduced.

<div align="center">Speaking Tasks</div>

The second type of instrument used in data collection procedure was a set of speaking tasks. In this sub-section, first the aim of the researcher in involving these speaking tasks, second, the type and the features of each task used and the tasks themselves, and finally necessary information about the implementation of the tasks during data collection procedure will be reported.

Since the main data of this study consist of verbal outputs of learners, the researcher needed to create a context for verbal production. For this reason, two communicative speaking tasks, which gave rise to interaction by focusing on meaning more than form, were used. These were tasks designed so that students could interact to achieve a particular goal or objective in a given particular speaking situation (Luoma, 2004).

The present study involved two different kinds of tasks, an information-gap and an opinion-gap task. They were both reciprocal tasks which had subjects engage in interpersonal interaction. As Ellis (2003, p. 87) states, reciprocal tasks are viewed as "devices for generating interaction" involving L2 learners which was highly needed for the present study.

The first type of task used was an info-gap task. As stated in Nunan (1989), information gap activities are regarded as tools to make students share their information with their partners. Nunan (1989) reports that since information they need for the task is split into two parts (student A and student B), no student has

enough information to be able to do it alone. Information-gap tasks are also regarded as typically "close" in nature requiring participants "reach a single, predetermined and correct solution" (Ellis, 2003, p. 89). Accordingly, the students have to share the information they have in order to complete the task. Info-gap task type was chosen so that learners could share and exchange the information they had for the best accomplishment of the task. By this task, the researcher aimed to see the devices used by the subjects when they worked for a common goal with their partners, and when they faced a breakdown in the course of interaction. In the first task, learners were provided with two pictures with slight differences and they were asked to find out eight differences between these two pictures. None of the participants was allowed to show their picture to their partner.

The second speaking task was an opinion-gap. Opinion-gap tasks differ a bit from information-gap tasks, since they go beyond the information and involve the subjects' opinions. As stated in Ellis (2003, P.86) in opinion-gap tasks "the information is not split but shared and the exchange of information is not required but optional". Furthermore, Ellis regards many of the opinion-gap tasks like making choices, surveys, debates and making general discussions as "open" in nature providing learners with a context in which they are free to decide on the solution. In the second task, participants were given situations and they had to negotiate, express their feelings and ideas and come to an agreement with their partner. They were given objects and asked to choose eight that they would take on a trip to a desert. The second task had two parts. They were also asked to state their reasons for their choices. In the second part of the task, it was assumed that their tour guide had died and this time they had to choose most useful four from the eight before they went on

their trip without their tour guide. The second tasks had two parts because the situations given in the first and second part were different and this was intended to help collect data of students' verbal production under different circumstances.

The speaking tasks used in the study were first piloted with a group of subjects to see the amount of time spent by learners. The group of learners, who performed the task in pilot study, was at the same level with the real subjects, and they completed both tasks in half an hour. In the actual study the tasks were performed in the classroom setting and they were completed one after another by the learners. As stated before, the students were paired as extroverts with introverts and introverts with extroverts, and four pairs of students were formed for speaking tasks. The researcher matched the students as extroverts with introverts, since this kind of matching was supposed to be closer to classroom situation in which students communicate with both extroverts and introverts. In both activities the speech of the learners was recorded by a tape recorder. Both of the speaking activities used in this study were completely adapted from a study conducted by Eckerth (2003) who used them in order to investigate the speech production, interactive behavior and language learning during task-based pair work.

The activities introduced and discussed above provided the researcher with the necessary data which includes communicative and interactive strategies of both extroverted and introverted learners. (See Appendix D for the speaking tasks.)

<u>Interview</u>

The last instrument used in the data collection procedure was an interview. In this sub-section of chapter 3, first the interview questions and their aims, and second its implementation during data collection procedure will be reported.

The interviews had two different parts, and questions in each part had different aims. The questions in the first part were about the general verbal behavior of the participants in the classroom setting and the influence of their personality on their speech production. The first part included three different sets of questions. The questions in the first set were related to subjects' inclination and willingness to participate in interactive activities in the classroom, the second set of questions were related to characteristics of subjects' interactive behaviors, and the last set of questions were about the learners' perceptions of the relation between their personality and their verbal behaviors. (See Appendix G for the first part of the interview.)

In the second part, the researcher focused on some specific verbal tendencies (employing filled pauses) which were encountered during the analysis of speaking tasks and asked students give reasons for these behaviors. (See Appendix G for the second part of the interview.) The second part involved a play-back session. In this part, the interviewer and the subjects listened to the recordings and stopped to talk about any specific verbal or interactive behavior employed by the students. This playback session also helped the researcher form a precise idea about why subjects employed any kind of verbal behavior. (See Appendix G for the second part of the interview.)

The subjects were informed about the aim of the study till they were gathered for the interview. First the verbal data was analyzed, and later the interviews were held, because the researcher aimed to focus on some specific verbal behaviors that were encountered during the analysis of the speaking tasks. The first and the second part of the interviews were done one after another, and they were conducted in

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students' mother tongue so that they could express themselves well enough. The interviews were held in groups of two.

As instruments used in the data collection and the researcher's aim for using each were reported in this sub-section, in the following, the researcher provides information about the procedure of the data collection using these instruments.

Data Collection Procedure

The necessary data for this study was collected in three steps during the class time by the researcher. Before the speaking tasks were performed, the subjects were briefly informed about the study and the data collection procedure but the aim of the study was not introduced to the learners. First, all of the learners in the classroom took the personality inventory test, which took less than 10 minutes. One week after, as the results of the questionnaire were obtained, the four students who had the highest scores in extroversion and the four students who had the highest scores in introversion were chosen for the rest of the study. However, they were not informed about their personality preferences until they were met for the interviews. Two weeks after the results of the personality inventory test was received, the eight students chosen were observed in the classroom setting to see if the results matched with the classroom situation.

One month after the classroom observation, in the second step, learners were grouped in pairs (extroverts with introverts and introverts with extroverts). They performed the given speaking tasks in pairs and the speech of each pair was recorded by four tape recorders and four external microphones. The study was conducted in the classroom setting. After the analysis of the data collected through speaking tasks (four weeks after task performance), learners had an interview with the researcher in

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groups of two. They answered the questions which dealt with both their in-class and task specific communicative behaviors.

Data Analysis Procedure

The data analysis procedure of this study started with analyzing the abbreviated form of The Eysenck Personality Test (2006), which was used to differentiate extroverted subjects from the introverted ones. A psychiatrist analyzed the scores of subjects on EPIQ-RA considering the answer given to each question and calculating the total point by giving 1 for each 'YES' answer and 0 for each 'No' answer. The analysis of the speaking activities was done by intense listening of the recorded speeches and transcribing them. (See Appendix E for the samples of transcriptions.) The verbal data was analyzed the in two separate parts. First, the researcher focused on the interactional behaviors of learners which included sub-sections like negotiation of meaning, conversation initiation, topic-initiation, restatement, question-response sequences. Afterwards, the speech production of subjects was paid attention to considering the length of the utterance, filled pauses and self- corrected utterances. The speech samples collected from students were analyzed considering the criteria established considering the measurements supplied by the data itself and by previous research. That is to say, the actual data was analyzed combining data driven approach with theory driven approach.

In this chapter, the participants of the study, the instruments involved, the procedure of the data collection and analysis of the collected data were presented. In the following chapter, the analysis of the data and the results of the study will be introduced in detail.

CHAPTER 4: DATA ANALYSIS

Overview of the Study

This study aimed to find out the influence of the personality traits of extroversion / introversion on verbal and interactive behaviors of learners in the classroom setting. In order to accomplish this, the researcher used a set of instruments and collected data over a period of ten weeks. The data collection procedure consisted of four steps, each of which contributed to the study with different kinds of data.

The study included 19 subjects. At the very beginning of the data collection a personality inventory test was used to identify the extroverted and introverted learners in the classroom. After the results were reached, four students who were found to be at extremes of an extroversion/introversion continuum were chosen. In the following step, the subjects were observed in the classroom for two hours to see if the classroom observation gave intuitive support for the results of the personality test. During the classroom observation, I focused only on the eight students who were chosen regarding their personal tendencies. For the rest of the study those eight students were included in the study. These learners were grouped in pairs as extroverts with introverts for the following procedures of data collection. After grouping learners, two different speaking tasks were given to them. The subjects were all recorded while they were performing their interactional tasks.

Finally, the subjects who participated in speaking tasks were interviewed so that the researcher could be informed about the feelings and ideas of learners about their personality and influence of their personalities on their speech.

The data analysis procedure first began with analyzing the results of the personality inventory test. The answers given to the questions of the test by the learners were analyzed with some external help by a trained psychologist. After this step the speech samples produced by the learners were all transcribed. These transcriptions were analyzed by using certain categories which were partly derived from the relevant data and partly established on the basis of a transcript analysis. The researcher tried to identify samples of these categories in the data gathered through the speaking tasks.

Data Analysis Procedure

In this study the analysis of the collected data was done in steps. The researcher first tried to establish some categories which would be treated as a base for analyzing the speech samples gathered through the interactional tasks given to learners. Since it is rather complex to measure oral production, I used a range of specific categories to quantify my subjects' verbal production. In establishing the list of categories two approaches were followed which can be named as theory-driven and data-driven. On one hand, measures used in relevant research before were taken as a base, and on the other hand measures which were derived from the collected data it self was used.

However, in respect to data-driven approach the researcher had no specific presuppositions as well-defined assumptions, since it was not possible to know what the actual data would provide the researcher with. Considering these two approaches,

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I set up a list of categories and grouped them under two different groups as "speech production" and "interactional behavior". In other words, this study tried to identify the communicative behavior of students with different personality preferences. While doing this, the collected data was analyzed in terms of speech production and interactional behavior with a combination and data-driven and theory-driven approaches. First, interactional behavior was assessed by using the following categories for data analysis: negotiation of meaning, conversation initiation, topic-initiation, restatement, question-response sequences. Second, speech production was assessed using the following data analysis criteria: length of the utterance, filled pauses and self-corrected utterances. In the following sub-sections qualitative and quantitative results of the data analysis done with respect to these categories will be reported.

<div align="center">Results of the Study</div>

<div align="center">Speaking Tasks</div>

1. Negotiation of Meaning

In terms of interactional behavior, the first object of inquiry in the collected data was to identify instances in which meaning was negotiated between the speakers during their interaction. As stated by Ellis (2005, p. 166) negotiation of meaning, which is one of the aspects of interaction, refers to "conversational exchanges that arise when interlocutors seek to prevent a communicative impasse occurring or to remedy an actual impasse that has arisen". Ellis (2005, p.167) regards negotiation of meaning also as a "discourse work which is done to resolve non-understanding sequences". That is to say, negotiation of meaning is a process which starts with experiencing problems in message comprehensibility and leads to partial

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reconstruction of the conversation. It mostly occurs in tasks that require exchange of information during which students are prompted to get and convey the meaning to accomplish the task. If any gap in understanding emerges, then the speakers have to modify their output. During modification learners are required to make changes in their utterances for a more comprehensible output.

In this study two types of tasks were used, information-gap and opinion-gap. This choice was motivated by results of previous research (e.g. Pica 1994; Long 1996) which indicates that it is above all these kinds of tasks which stimulate negotiation of meaning. After collecting interactional data gathered from information and opinion exchange, the researcher tried to identify three aspects of negotiation of meaning in them. These were comprehension checks, clarification requests and confirmation checks. All of these have different forms and functions in a negotiated interaction. Chaudron (1998) defines these terms as follows. To Chaudron (1998, p.45) clarification request is "a request for further information from an interlocutor about previous utterance". In other words, clarification request functions as an utterance for eliciting explanation for the former utterance. A comprehension check is another aspect of negotiation of meaning which is also defined by Chaudron (1998, p.45) as "the speaker's query of the interlocutor(s) as to whether or not they have understood the previous speaker utterance(s)". It is designed so as to check if the interlocutor has understood the preceding utterance of the speaker. The last aspect of negotiation of meaning is a confirmation check defined by Chaudron (1998, p.45) as "the speaker's query as to whether or not the speaker's (expressed) understanding of the interlocutor's meaning is correct". A confirmation check emerges in an interaction when the speaker checks his/her own understanding.

The total amount of speech produced during task completion of all four pairs on both sides was recorded and analyzed by the researcher. The total speaking time was eighty-eight minutes. The researcher tried to identify samples of negotiation of meaning in all speeches. However, it was found out that only one pair of student tended to negotiate meaning, and this negotiation was limited to one instance which is reported below. (Transcript 1) Since the task type was neither a relevant criteria, nor a variable under investigation the type of the tasks will not be indicated in the following transcripts.

Transcript 1: ((e) = extroverts and (i) = introverts) (see Appendix F for the list of transcript conventions)

```
1  B (e)      : er in my picture there is a spot under tie
2  K (i)      : er I couldn't understand what you say
3  B (e)      : in my picture er er  there is a point spot under my tie . under his
                tie
```

In this instance the interlocutor doesn't understand the utterance and asks for further clarification, saying "I couldn't understand what you say"

Although the tasks designed and used were expected to prompt negotiation of meaning by providing speakers with a bit of information, the subjects of this study were not inclined to negotiate meaning during their interaction. There may be a set of reasons for that. First of all, the subjects share the same language background, and the first language of all is Turkish. As a result, they may be experiencing same sort of language patterns, for instance they may be making similar mistakes because of the influence of their L1 on their production in the target language. In addition, the subjects who are at the same interlanguage level might have understood each other

quite well and might have experienced no communicational breakdowns as a result of which they would need checks, clarifications and modifications. Besides, when previous research is taken into consideration, it is seen that these communicative tasks are most commonly used in studies which investigate the interaction between native and non-native speakers. That is to say, they focused on interaction between a more competent and a less competent speaker. As result, this inequality in their levels may be pushing speakers to check the interlocutors' understanding or request for clarification. However, the present study focuses on the interaction between two non-native speakers with same language background. Lastly, negotiation of meaning emerges when there is a communication breakdown. Therefore, implying and "indicating each time that you fail to grasp the meaning" might be discouraging for the interlocutors. It may make one "look and feel incompetent" (Foster, 1998, p.18). As a result, the students might have avoided appearing unsuccessful and ineffective. The subjects might have used the strategy of pretending to understand the utterances and to hope to grasp the meaning from the following sentences rather than checking and asking the interlocutor to clarify the problematic part. These are strategies used by learners when they avoid negotiating meaning. These strategies can be characterized as "pretend and hope" rather than "check and clarify" (Foster, 1998, p.19). In contrast to what Long's Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1983) would predict, non-native interactants tend to avoid negotiation of meaning, relying on the further development of the conversation.

Since the data did not yield any promising result in terms of negotiation of meaning, I switched to other categories. As a second step, I went through the data and established my own categories. These categories used for data analysis were as

follows: conversation initiation, topic initiation, restatement, and, question/respond sequences.

2. Conversation Initiation

As indicated before, each pair performed two tasks. The first one was an information-gap task and the second one was an opinion-gap task. The info-gap task involved only one and the opinion-gap activity involved two steps in each of which learners faced different situations. Accordingly, the subjects performed two different tasks but in three steps. That is to say, the participants accomplished three different and discrete conversations. When I looked at the data, I had the impression that opening a conversation was not equally distributed between all students. In order to check my impression, I counted the number of all conversation openings throughout the task. On the basis of this counting it was found that 83% of all conversations were initiated by extroverts. Such a tendency might point to the fact that extroverts' take on more of the responsibility of the conversation and tend to set up an interaction. However, at this point of the data analysis process, such an assumption is rather preliminary in nature. Hence, in order to find further evidence or counter more evidence for such an assumption, other criteria for data analysis will be used.

3. Topic Initiation

Since I had the questions whether it could be extroverts who take the responsibility of the talk, I focused on a second feature of interaction. I observed instances where new topics are opened, developed and closed. As the term "topic" is often used in a rather vague manner, in what follows some evidence from the literature will be discussed in order to arrive at a more clearly defined understanding of the term. First of all, McCarthy (1991, p.131) defines topics as "strings of

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utterances perceived as relevant to one another by participants in a talk". McCarthy (1991, p.131-134) also adds that a linguistic sequences is only a topic if more than one person makes an utterance relevant to it". Conversational discourse during which "speakers make their own contributions in terms of existing framework" can involve some other sub-topics or speaker topics (Brown and Yule, 1983, p.87-94). Brown and Yule (1983), furthermore, state that these sub-topics which are introduced by the speakers are never sufficient to make a full conversation however, since there isn't any pre-determined way for the conversation to go in some instances, speakers can make their own contributions by introducing new sub-topics. Speech, which is based on a topic framework, can be developed by an individual speakers' topic, and during interaction shift from a sub-topic to others can be observed.

Searching the data, interactional sequences were found in which interlocutors introduced certain sub-topics within the frame of superordinated topic. Although subjects' speech is located within the main topic framework, from time to time they express a specific sub-topic within the general topic of the interaction. The data presented below is evidence of these conversational situations.

Transcript 2: (underlined utterances = issue under investigation)

1 B(e)   : in my picture er er there is a point spot under my tie . under his
                tie
2 K(i)   : in my picture has two spots
3 B(e)   : er in my picture he is wearing a jacket
4 K(i)   : he has jacket too unfortunately
5 B(e)   : he has stripes er hair stripe hair
6 K(i)   : my picture has hair . like . cow

The given transcript is taken from an interaction of the two students Burak and Kağan. The underlined passages represent the conversational situations in which one of the interlocutors raises a new topic. In this extract, the speakers are trying to find out the eight differences between two similar pictures. Burak makes his own contribution to the talk by introducing a new different topic in each of his turns.

As I looked at the data, it seemed as most of such attempts are performed by extroverted subjects of the study. Extroverts appeared to make contributions the interaction by introducing new topics within the general topic frame work of the conversation. So as to confirm my hypothesis by numbers, I counted the instances in which interlocutors attempted to raise new sub-topics within the main shared topic of the developing conversation. The number of the conversational situations in which a new sub-topic was introduced was 87, and 56 of these were performed by extroverted subjects. This result might point to the extroverted subjects' inclination to keep the conversation going. It might also be interpreted as a kind of attempt to decide on the following sub-topic which will give direction to the conversation.

This finding is rather interesting with respect to the nature of the tasks which were employed to provide extroverted and introverted subjects with a linguistic context for their conversation. These tasks, in particular the information-gap task which is based on split rather than shared information, try to ensure equal participation of both task performers (extroverts and introverts). However, this is not the case in present data. The amount of talk produced by extroverts and introverts will be analyzed later; however, the data so far seems to show that the quality of their participation clearly differs. As topic initiation can be considered as a way to give an internal structure to a conversation and to establish a certain direction for the

development of the talk, it appears that extroverts are more concerned with shaping the conversation.

4. Restatement

As I was observing the data for any kind of discourse marker that would help me to describe the verbal tendencies of my subjects, I saw that in some cases some of the subjects were inclined to restate the previous information. Restatement, which is a discourse marker, can be defined as a conversational move to reformulate and revise a fact or an element which has been already discussed and reported. It is a kind of attempt to summarize the content of the previous utterances. In the present study the interaction between the subjects is task-oriented and subjects who try to accomplish both info-gap and opinion-gap tasks show an inclination to reformulate any previous information that has been uttered before. The following transcriptions show where and how subjects restated the previously discussed issues.

Transcript 3

1 K (i)   yes you are so right we must take a drinking water it's essential as
2   I think and maybe we can take a walky- talky with us because we can .
3   get get lost and we must wait /
4 B(e) : yes yes I agree with you err I completely agree with you err and I think
5   we don't need matches because there are no wood /
6 K(i) : you're right no wood
………
7 K(i) : and we need a compass as I think
8 B(e) : compass yes
9 K(i) : oh compass
………
10 B(e) : yes forget about the compass er and we can get them order er
11   first of all compass second walky talky third batteries er and the
12   last one is first aid kit why first aid kit ?

The conversational event above is an example from the existing data which represents how subjects discussed an issue which had already been discussed before. In the first six lines they discuss an issue and decide on what to take with them; in other words, they come to conclusion. Afterwards, in the next three lines, from line 7 to line 9, they switch to another issue and again they come to a conclusion in the last three lines, from line 10 to 12, one of the subjects turns back to issues discussed before and makes a conclusion stating information which has been formerly given. It is observed in the data that these restatements were performed to the end of the conversations and involved the content of the previous utterances. Stating again any piece of information which has already been dealt with might be interpreted as a conversational move of the speaker which aimed to make further contribution to the conversation in addition to previous ones. Speakers' restating any piece of information can be interpreted as a conversational move which intends to gather the whole information discussed before into separate conversational sequences.

When I scanned the existing data, I observed that restated language issues were all performed by extroverted subjects of the study. Restated utterances can be regarded as a conversational closing behavior, and this result might indicate extroverts' possible inclination to end the conversation. Considering the last three results, it might be hypothesized that extroverted subjects of the study may be performing some interactional work which starts with initiating the conversation, keeps with introducing new topics and controlling the topic to talk about and finally, ending the conversation with reporting information that has already been expressed before. All these results may be regarded as signals of extroverted learners' tendency to structure the conversation on content level.

During restatements, interactants do not contribute new information,; rather they repeat what has already been reported and concluded. Furthermore Nunan (1993, p.43) makes a distinction between "given information" and "new information" in a discourse and defines given information as "information which has already been introduced to the discourse or assumed to be known to the reader or listener". In addition Nunan (1993, p.45) defines new information as any piece of information that is introduced for the first time. Furthermore, Nunan (1993) states that which of these options (new or given information) is chosen by the speaker is determined by the context in which utterances are produced and the status of the information in the discourse. In the view of these distinctions, it may be possible to hypothesize that the extroverted subjects in the present study might have intended to introduce "given information" in some conversational sequences, since they had thought that it was necessary for the context or they might have regarded the restated information important enough to report it again. To sum up, such a conversational behavior can be interpreted with respect to three motivations. First of all, by restating a linguistic issue or topic, which has been already dealt with before, the speaker "legitimizes" or "authorizes" the results of the previous discussion or reports it again, since it is regarded to be important when its role in the talk is considered. Second, by doing so s/he takes over some responsibility for the conclusion of the previous discussion. Finally, in agreement with the results reported in this chapter earlier, such a conversational behavior might possibility be considered a tendency of the extroverted subjects to impose their own structure on the conversation and therefore to exercise, to a certain degree, some sort of discourse or control. At this point, in may be essential to refer Ellis (1997), who has defined the term 'discourse control'.

Ellis (1997, p.4-8) makes a distinction between discourse constructed by participants who are equal to each other and discourse which arises out of unequal encounters and he states that these two types of discourse differ most in terms of how the topic is chosen, developed and how the discourse is controlled and managed by participants. Ellis (1997) regards the participant who takes the charge of the talk and who insists on her own topic as the controller of the discourse. Under these assumptions, it might be possible to hypothesize that the extroverted subjects of the present study might have an inclination to control the discourse by their overall tendency to restate the previously reported information imposing their own structure into the topic and concluding the discourse.

5. Question-Response Sequences

The last interactive behaviors which took my attention during my data scanning were sequences where a question was asked and answered. The data provided me with some conversational situations in which subjects asked topic relevant questions to their partners. These were questions which were designed for the accomplishment of the task, and they were directly related to the main topic of discourse. Since the learners were exchanging the information they had, the questions might be hypothesized to be functioning as the initiation of an exchange. In addition, asking a question might also be regarded as one's attempt to introduce a new topic which determines the direction of the talk. The data presented below will provide some examples of question-response sequences found in the data.

Transcript 6

1 B(e) : Kağan in my picture he is wearing glasses err <u>is he wearing glasses in</u>
2 <u>your picture ?</u>
3 K(i) : <u>yes he has glasses</u> … ın a his eyes and err in my picture he has a rose
4 in his poc po pocket
5 B(e) : <u>yeah it is same</u> err I think err there is no difference err with glasses
6 and err handkerchief in pocket ...

Transcript 7

1 K(i) : <u>so what will find our way after this</u> ?
2 B(e) : <u>by looking at sun</u>
3 K(i) : <u>looking at sun</u> ? so that ---- maybe we can do this . but
4 <u>what about pocket knife . we can loose it too</u>

Transcript 8

1 İ(i) : and the other he has a rose in his pocket . <u>do you have</u> ?
2 M(e) : <u>no err I didn't have rose</u>
3 İ(i) : <u>yes</u> this is the second difference

The utterances above, which are part of a longer discourse, show instances in which subjects ask questions and provide answers. These question-response sequences may provide insight how information was exchanged between the subjects. It may show the role each interlocutor has during an information or opinion exchange. In fact, subjects in the present study had a precise pattern of exchange which had an "opening move" as a question, "answering move" as a respond and a "follow up move" as a comment (McCarthy, 1991, p.16). For instance, the first line in transcript 6 functions as an opening move, the third line functions as an answering move and the fifth line functions as a follow up which is a comment on the given answer. In other words, the subjects of the study shared a pattern of interaction which is named as initiation, response and follow up. I searched for the number of the

conversation situations where subjects asked questions to each other and found out that the number of the questions asked during the interactions was 29, and 19 of these questions were raised by introverts in the study. Considering this result, it might be hypothesized that introverts "formulate their own contributions" to the talk and "make them at a moment which is right for them". (McCarthy, 1991, p.16) Introverts can be making their own contribution to the talk but in a different form. They are not so much initiating or restating, but they are asking. It seems also the function of expressing their contribution to the direction of the talk since some questions function as a topic initiation. Introverts' possible tendency to raise questions may also be interpreted as a strategy to take the turn and to keep the floor for a time. In addition, introverts inclination to raise questions can be an attempt to keep the conversation alive.

The focus of relevant research was not only on interactional behaviors but also on speech production. The research done before to see personality marking in speech provided interesting results. I wanted to see those results would also be confirmed by the results of the present study. Furthermore, I also wanted to know if differences in interactional behaviors would be accompanied with differences in speech production.

6. Length of Utterance

Before starting my data analysis, while I was transcribing the verbal output of the subjects, the length of the utterances produced by extroverts and introverts seemed to be different from each other. However, I had no evidence for such a claim since I had this impression while transcribing the data. After finishing transcribing the data, I decided to involve length of the utterance as a category in terms of speech

production to see if my observation would be confirmed by the results of the data analysis. Taking the mean length of utterances of two types of learners and comparing them might provide insight in the learners' capacity to build longer utterances. Mean length of utterance (MLU) is a measure of linguistic productivity in speech, and it is calculated adding the number of the words produced and dividing it with the number of turns of a person has.

While computing MLU of the subjects of the study, I involved the whole interaction regardless of their length. However, the compound words, reduplications and proper names (walky-talky, choo-choo, Mustafa Ali) counted as single words. In addition, fillers and exclamations were eliminated during the calculation of MLU. I found individual mean length of utterance of each subject and made a distinction between extroverts and introverts. The table below presents the total mean length of utterance extroverts and introverts have in the study.

Table 1: Mean length of utterance

Personality / Pairs	Extroversion	Introversion
1	13.2	10.4
2	12.6	8.0
3	14.3	11.0
4	14.7	12.6
Sum	54.8	42.0
Average	13.7	10.05

As it indicated by the table, the MLU profiles of extroverted and introverted subjects differ both in terms of individual scores and average. The introverted subjects' total MLU score remains at a level of 42.0, while the extroverted subjects' total MLU score reaches to 54.8.

Mean length of utterance has been used as a measure to indicate level of language productivity and also to reflect language complexity. For example, Ellis (1990, p.102) regards MLU as a measure which gives indication of "general syntactic complexity". Furthermore, as cited in Dawaele and Furnham (1999, p.362), Martin et al. (1989) also consider high MLU scores as "indicators of fluency" and low MLU scores as "indicator of syntactic breakdown". Under these assumptions, the average amount of verbal output of the subjects might be hypothesized to be reflecting their ability and willingness to produce longer and more complex sentences. Considering the results of the study, it might be stated that extroverted learners have a tendency to produce longer utterances during their interactional work with their partner. As stated in Furnham (1990, p.80), Cope (1969) correlates extroversion with long utterances and states that "speech acts, turns and total verbal output have been related to a number of personality variables, but extroversion is the only trait which has consistently found to be associated with a greater amount of verbal output or longer total speaking time". As a result, the extroverts' higher MLU scores might be regarded as an indication of their tendency to produce longer sentences and accordingly, to speak more. Longer and therefore more complex sentences, however, are comparatively difficult to structure. For this reason, the next category of data analysis called "Filled Pauses" looked at the way the speakers structured their utterances and coped with unlimited processing capacity.

7. <u>Filled Pauses</u>

"Filled pauses", which was involved as a second category in terms of speech production, is a category of analysis derived from the relevant literature. The findings of the study conducted by Dawaele and Furnham (1999) suggest that introverts have a tendency to hesitate more in formal settings. For this reason, I wanted to see if this result would be confirmed by my study.

Filled pauses are sounds which are produced during spontaneous speech; they are pauses filled with vocalization. Hesitation phenomena mostly occur while the speaker is thinking. Filled pauses do not add any new information to the conversation, but indicate that the speaker is planning his utterance. They can occur at any place in the speech. 'ah, eh, er, uh,um are examples of such fillers. It is possible to regard filled pauses as "meaningless speech" which results from speech difficulties and from speech planning. A speaker might be employing a filled pause during the speech as a result of a trouble or hesitation. On a discourse level, the speaker might be trying to figure out what to say and how to react. On a cognitive level, the speaker might be experiencing trouble and might need additional time during the speech for the retrieval of any kind of information (grammatical or lexical) from his/her memory. In both conversational situations, the time, which is filled with a filling sound, functions as conversational time-gaining routine.

The transcriptions below provide examples of conversational situations in the data in which subjects employed filled pauses.

Transcript 10

1 M(e) : <u>er</u> my friend <u>er</u> in my picture <u>er</u> I <u>er</u> saw a button in the jacket
2 İ(I)   : two button I have

Transcript 9

1 B(e)   : Kağan in my picture he is wearing glasses <u>er</u> is he wearing glasses in
2   your picture
3 K(i)   : yes he has glasses … ın a his eyes and <u>er</u> in my picture he has a rose
4   in his poc po pocket
5 B(e)   : yeah it is same <u>er</u> I think <u>er</u> there is no difference <u>er</u> with glasses and
6   <u>er</u> handkerchief in pocket ... <u>er</u> my picture he is smoking

In the present study, I counted the number of the filled pauses "er", taking the first five minutes of the first task (info-gap task) as a basis, so as to see if the extroverts and introverts would employ different numbers of filled pauses in their speeches. The data analysis revealed that the total number of filled pauses employed by all students during the first five minutes of the first task was 81. Furthermore, 61of the filled pauses were produced by extroverted subjects of the study. That is to say, 75% of all hesitation expressions in the first five minutes of the conversation were produced by extroverts. The table below presents the results considering each group of learner.

Table 2: Filled pauses

Personality Pairs	Extroversion	Introversion
1	25	4
2	15	1
3	8	5
4	13	10
Sum	61	20
Average	15.25	5

As can be inferred from the table, the extroverted subjects of the study seem to be employing filled pauses ten times more often than their counterparts. Using filled pauses in speech can be hypothesized to be increasing with the length of the utterance. As stated before, extroverts have a comparatively higher MLU score, and since it requires more effort to produce longer sentences, extroverts might have experienced some difficulties while producing their long utterances. They might have needed some time while shaping what to say and which word or structure to use next, and they might have employed filled pauses during this decision making process.

On the other hand, speech, which has filler materials during hesitations, might be providing information to the listener about the state of the speaker in speech. In addition, filled pauses can be preserving the continuity of the speech by connecting the utterances of the speaker to each other.

Hesitation phenomena, which are defined by the use of filled and unfilled pauses in speech, have been hypothesized to be in relation with a learner's fluency and speech rate. The number of pauses (filled and unfilled) during a speech is regarded as an indicator of learners fluency. Ellis (2005) points out that, learners who spend less time pausing can be regarded more fluent. To Ellis (1994, p.394) both "temporal variables" (speech length, pause length, length of turn), which are related to the speed and rate of speech, and "hesitation phenomena" (filled pauses, repetitions, corrections), which is related to the dsyfluency, are on-line measures of speech and related to the idea of fluency. Considering these assumptions, extroverted subjects' tendency to employ many more filled pauses can be hypothesized as relating to the fluency of extroverts.

In addition, hesitation has also been considered to be in relation to unplanned discourse. One aspect of speech which L2 variability research has focused on is the effect of planning time on discourse. As stated in Ellis (1994, p. 365), the amount of time spent by a learner planning different stages of discourse has been claimed to affect verbal output. Furthermore, Ochs (cited in Ellis, 1994, p.365) makes a distinction between "planned" and "unplanned discourse" and defines the former as "discourse organized and prepared prior to its expression" and the latter as discourse which "lacks forethought and organizational preparation". These statements may help to hypothesize that extroverts' frequent hesitation during their speech might be an indication of their unplanned speech, which is to say the planning of their speech is not before but during verbal production. Ellis (2005, p.156) provides support for this hypothesis, claiming that "the number of pauses and length provide an indication of the extent to which learners need to disengage from speaking in order to plan their spoken messages". He also regards the length and number of pauses employed by a learner as an indicator and result of his/her on-line planning which takes place during conversation. The employment of filled pauses in speech seems to be a result of a speaker's tendency to plan his/her utterances beforehand. I wanted to see if unplanned speech made any other difference affecting speakers' discourse and searched the data.

8. Self-Correction

The last speech variable which I observed in the existing data was a set of self-corrected utterances which functioned as a discourse repair in speech. In some cases, the data provided examples of conversational situations in which a word or an utterance was produced and corrected immediately after the ill-structured utterance

was realized by the speaker. Self-correction can be interpreted as one's attempt to reformulate an utterance after realizing that it is not well-formed enough to convey the intended meaning to the listener. It occurs after speaker's realizing the "gap" in his/her language production.

Foster et al. (cited in Ellis, 2000, p.148) defines self-correction as a process in which "the speaker identifies an error either during or immediately following production and stops and reformulates the speech". Schwartz (cited in Ellis, 1994, p. 586) reports that these repair sequences are most often employed in non-native-non-native discourse. It is a matter of question if this is also the case for the present study, which involves interaction between non-native speakers of English. So as to answer this question, I analyzed the data and tried to identify self-corrected utterances in the first five minutes of the first tasks (information-gap task). The transcriptions below provide examples of self-corrected utterances in the existing data.

Transcript 11

1 B(e)   : in my picture er er there is a point spot under <u>my tie . under his tie</u>
2 K(i)   : in my picture has two spots

Transcript 12

1 M(i) :and second we we need to carry sleeping bags it is necessary because in
2   night desert er the weather was too cold and if <u>we don't if we didn't if</u>
3   <u>we don't</u> carry sleeping bags we must er got get sick
4 İ(e)   : maybe we may die

Transcript 13

1 K(i)   : so <u>how much . how many things</u> now we have
2 B(e)   : now two more things . two more things /
3 K(i)   : yes two more things . maybe we can have a map but/

The underlined utterances above represent words or phrases which the speakers attempted to repair during the discourse. I counted the number of the utterances corrected by the speaker him/herself during the interaction. While doing this, the utterances produced only in the first five minutes of the first task were taken into consideration.

The data analysis revealed that, in the first pair, the number of the self-corrected utterances was 4. 3 of them were performed by an extrovert. In the second pair, the number of self-corrected utterances was 2, and both of them were performed by the extrovert. In the third, the number of self-corrected utterances was only one, and it was performed by extrovert. There was no self-corrected utterance in the last pair. In other words, of 7 self-corrected utterances, 6 were corrected by extroverts. Even if the overall number of self-corrections is quite low, these results show that extroverted subjects of the study tended to employ self-correction more often than their introverted counterparts did. There might be a set of reasons for this inclination. First of all, extroverts might be monitoring their output more and "paying attention to specific element of the utterances in order to correct or improve them" which can be called as self-monitoring (Ellis, 1994 p. 131). Ellis (1994, p.356) defines self-monitoring as correcting one's speech for accuracy in pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary or for appropriateness related to the setting or to the people who present". That is to say, self-monitoring is defined to be a process during which the speaker tries to fix his/her own language so that in can be accurate and appropriate. However, Ellis (2005, p.150) does not regard self-monitoring as a measure of accuracy and emphasizes that it only indicates the degree to which a learner is "oriented towards

accuracy". Furthermore, Levelt (1983) takes attention to some learners' inclination to observe their own utterances and introduces a theory which is called "production theory of monitoring". According to this theory, "learners respond to alarm signals during the course of implementing a plan and make appropriate adjustments" Levelt (1983, p.116). In addition, Furnham (1999) regards self-monitoring as a process which involves "careful regulation of one's self presentation to fit a behavior pattern which is perceived appropriate and desirable". Furthermore, Furnham (1999), who focuses on the relation between personality and speech, states that self-monitoring is an interpersonal orientation which correlates with extroversion. In the light of these assumptions, it might first be suggested that extroverts seem to be more sensitive in terms of accuracy of their language and tend to observe their verbal output during their production and accordingly self-correct more.

Secondly, interaction is a process during which speakers need to be understood by the listener. Thus, the speaker's desire to convey the intended meaning makes it necessary for him/her to repair some problematic utterances. So extroverts' high- level of self-correcting can be hypothesized to be in relation with their need to make their message understandable and get it across. In other words, extroverts can be employing more self-corrections as a result of their inclination to make necessary adjustments in their language which are required to convey the intended meaning. Finally, extroverts' long utterances might be making it necessary to plan their speech during discourse (on-line planning), and this may be leading them to employ more filled pauses and more self-corrections, since long utterances are both more complex and more demanding. The most fundamental factor differentiating extroverts from introverts in terms of speech seems to be their choice

of planning the discourse either before or during speech. This difference in their style of planning results in differences in number of hesitation expressions and self-corrected utterances employed.

While this first sub-section of this chapter reported the results of the data gathered through speaking tasks, the next sub-section (interviews) will present the results of the interviews held with subjects.

<div align="center">Interviews</div>

At the last step of the data analysis, I had interviews with the subjects so as to have an idea about students' perception of the role of their personal tendencies in their interactive behaviors. The interviews provided insight for learners' understanding of the link between their personality and verbal L2 behavior. In addition, it helped the researcher to be informed about the students' reasons for employing any specific verbal behavior. (See Appendix G for interview questions.) The interview had two separate parts. In the first part of the interview, students were asked three groups of questions which had different aims. The first group of questions (1st, 2nd, 3rd and 4th questions) was asked to get have an idea about subjects' tendency and willingness to participate in interactive activities (e.g. speaking tasks provided by the teacher) in the classroom. The second type of questions (5th, 6th and 7th) aimed to figure out characteristics of subjects' interactive behaviors (e.g. learner preferences of group work or pair work) in the classroom setting. Finally, the last question was directly related to learners' perceptions of the link between their personality and their verbal behaviors. In the second part of the interview, the subjects and the interviewer focused on learners' task-related verbal

behaviors like hesitation sounds. The following paragraphs will first present the interpretation of results of the first and then the second part of the interviews.

With regard to the first set of questions in the first part, while some of the learners stated that they loved speaking English, some others stated that they didn't. Their love of speaking English was not found to be related to their personality. Some expressed that they didn't want to speak when they were forced to speak. Furthermore, subjects with extroversion tendencies believed that they often used English in the classroom and that they often participated in activities which require speaking. Accordingly, introverts didn't find themselves enthusiastic enough in terms of verbal participation and language use in the classroom. The learners' desire to use English communicatively in the classroom seemed to change depending on their personality. Extroverted subjects of the study expressed that they were always ready to speak, no matter what the topic was, and that they never avoided speaking in English in the classroom. They also added that they never waited for the request of the teacher and started speaking whenever they wanted. However, introverted learners stated that they tended to speak when the teacher or any other person asked them to. One of the introverted learners stated that she wanted to speak only when she really wanted to say something or wanted to inform her friends about a topic. Introverted learners were more likely to speak in response to the wish of a teacher.

With regard to the second set of questions, the subjects differed in terms of their interaction style in the classroom. Extroverts and introverts were found to differ most in terms of their choice of working style in the classroom. Introverts preferred to work in pairs, especially with a close friend, since they found it difficult to speak in front of a crowded audience. On the contrary, extroverts stated that it made no

difference if they worked in pairs or in groups. Extroverts and introverts also differed in terms of directing their attention to what others speak in the classroom. Extroverted subjects stated that they listened to others only when the topic was interesting. However, introverts expressed that they were more inclined to listen to others rather than speaking.

As indicated before, in the third set of question, the researcher focused on learners' thoughts about the effect of their personality on their language behavior. With respect to this question, all of the learners agreed on that their personality somehow affected both their use of language and speaking tendencies in the classroom setting. They thought that they differed in terms of their inclination to use English communicatively since they had different personal preferences.

The second part of the interview involved a play-back session which had a focus on tasks-specific behaviors. The interviewer and the subjects listened to the recordings and the subjects commented on some distinctive behaviors, some of which were related to the categories of data analysis. (See Appendix G for second part of the interview questions.) In the first part of the data analysis, the extroverted and introverted subjects were found to differ in terms of their inclination to employ filled pauses and self-corrected utterances. Some of the statements of the subjects during the interview supported these findings.

With respect to filled pauses, extroverted subjects stated that they stopped and thought during the speech and tried to decide what to say and how to express it. They regarded these stops as sequences during which they tried to plan their ongoing speech. To extroverts, these planning sessions also functioned as a process in which they tried to remember the targeted vocabulary and appropriate structures. However,

introverted learners said that they didn't hesitate much, since they planned their speech beforehand. One of the introverted subjects stated that she planned every each word and grammatical detail before she started speaking. Some of the introverted subjects pointed to the task difficulty as a reason for planning their discourse beforehand, not during the speech production. In addition, introverts had a second reason for planning their speech. They expressed that they didn't want to take the risk of making big mistakes during their speech. As a result, planning strategies employed by extroverts and introverts seemed to differentiate them.

As to self-corrected utterances, during the interviews extroverts stated that they had a tendency to monitor their speech, which led a desire to self-correct their utterances. However, introverts did not point to any kind of attempt to monitor their verbal output. In the light of these statements, it might be hypothesized that, in contrast to introverts, extroverts, who pay attention to their own verbal output during discourse, incline to correct their utterances more.

As a result of data analysis, it might be generally concluded that extroverted learners' personalities and inclination to speak makes it easier for them to communicate in the target language. However, introverted learners, who prefer to keep silent in the classroom, seemed to use the target language communicatively up on the teacher's request. Furthermore, it might also be hypothesized that difference in their planning strategies causes difference in their attempts to self-correct their utterances and employ filled pauses. Extroverts' longer utterances, on-line planning strategy and self-monitoring seem to be differentiating them from introverts. So far, the results for each chapter have been presented and discussed. However, as they all reflect, to a certain degree, the participants unique verbal tendencies, the question

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arises in what way these separate results compose an overall picture of common

behavior of extroverts and introverts. Therefore, the interrelationship between these

distinct results will be discussed in chapter 5.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION

Introduction

As stated in previous chapters, this study was conducted to investigate the effect of two basic personality dimensions, extroversion-introversion, on verbal behaviors of learners. The first aim of the study was to find out if these two personality variables made their own distinct contributions to verbal output of learners in L2. In addition, it tried to define how learners perceived the effect of their personality on their interactive behaviors and speech production. The subjects of the study were nineteen preparatory class students in Ankara University, School of Foreign Languages. The researcher used a set of instruments to identify personality marking in L2 speech. Since the main focus of the study was on two basic variables of personality, the subjects were first given a personality inventory test so as to identify extroverts and introverts. Four extroverts and four introverts were chosen for the rest of the study. They were selected among the ones who were on the extremes of extroversion/introversion continuum. The students were grouped in pairs, extroverts with introverts and introverts with extroverts. The rest of the study was conducted placing particular emphasis on the relationship between these subjects and their interactional behaviors. In the second step the learners were provided with two speaking tasks. These tasks were designed and chosen to allow as much as verbal interaction. The speech of the learners was recorded. In the third step interviews were conducted for the second research objective, which aimed to get the learners' opinions about the marking of their personality on their speech. The collected data

was transcribed and analyzed with combined of data-driven and theory-driven approach with a close focus on interactional behaviors and speech production of learners. Transcribed speech samples of the subjects provided the researcher with necessary data to define general interactional and speech tendencies of subjects. In the next section, all the findings will be discussed in relation with research questions.

Summary of the Findings and Discussion

The first research question of this study was asked to see if the two main personality traits extroversion/introversion played any important role in shaping learners' communicative behaviors. The table below summarizes the overall results of the present study involving categories of both interactional behavior and speech production.

Table 3: Overall results

Participant Category of Data Analysis	Extroverted %	Introverted %	Both n
Interactional Analysis			
negotiation of meaning	0%	100%	1
conversation initiation	83%	17%	12
topic initiation	64%	36%	87
restatement	100%	0%	3
question-response seq.	35%	65%	29
Speech Production			
filled pauses	75%	25%	81
self-correction	85%	15%	7
mean length of utterance (words per turn)	13.7	10.4	-

The table above indicates subjects' distinct verbal tendencies with respect to speech and interactional behavior. Though they stand as single results, there might be an interrelationship between them, and interpretation of these results as a whole can be helpful in terms of obtaining a complete picture of extroverts' and introverts' communicative L2 behavior. Thus, in the following, I will try to hypothesize about the overall results to see the general picture. Since the communicative behaviors of subjects were examined with respect to two separate categories (interactional behavior and speech production), it might be more reasonable to handle the results in two separate parts.

As interaction is a process during which both participants make their own contributions to a conversation, it might be useful to compare extroverts and introverts in terms of contributions they made to existing speech. This may help us to see how extroverts and introverts behaved, and how they cooperated in the management of the discourse. As indicated in chapter four and can be seen in table three, extroverted subjects were found to have a tendency to start conversations and initiate new topics in the course of discourse. First of all, it can be hypothesized that extroverts' tendency to initiate conversations can be a result of their eagerness to communicate. Extroverts' taking initiative to communicate is also supported by extroverted learners' comments in the interviews. Extroverted learners stated that they started conversations because they liked speaking and establishing interaction with other people. In addition, extroverts who attempt to set up an interaction between themselves and the interlocutor may be taking the responsibility for the conversations by doing so. Extroverted subjects' inclination to start an interaction can also be interpreted as their attempt to be the dominating character in the speech.

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Similarly, introverts may be leaving the control to their partner by avoiding initiating a conversation.

The second contribution extroverts made to conversation is their attempts to introduce new topics during discourse. Extroverted subjects' inclination to introduce new topics can be regarded as an attempt to direct the conversation by determining what to talk about. In other words, they might be trying to keep their control on conversation which has been initiated by them before and developed by new topics. Each attempt to initiate a new topic can also be interpreted as an invitation to the interlocutor to talk about the raised topic. However, introverts who feel the initiative of extroverts might be having difficulties in introducing new topics to the discourse. One another factor which may be causing introverts to initiate much less topics can be their anxiety level. As stated before, introverted people, who are believed to be socially more anxious, can be feeling the stress of the task and reflecting it to their task performance. As cited in Dawaele and Furnham (1999, p.529) Eysenck (1979) also believes in the effect of anxiety; he conceptualizes anxiety in terms of cognitive inference and suggests that the "attention of anxious people is divided between the task-related cognition and self-related cognition which makes cognitive performance less efficient for them". In other words, introverted learners who feel more anxious during the task completion may be having difficulties in focusing their attention on the task and finding new topics to talk about. Consequently, considering these two results, it might be concluded that extroverted subjects might have a tendency to structure the conversation and control the discourse, while introverts are more reluctant to make contributions to the conversation in terms of structuring it.

Finally, extroverts seem to be contributing to the talk by restating some information which has been dealt with before. By this conversational move, extroverts don't contribute the talk by introducing new information; rather, they summarize the content of the previous topic. This verbal move, which is often performed by extroverts, can be regarded as a contribution to the structure of the talk rather than the content. However, since there are very few instances of restating, no strong conclusion can be built on it.

Besides all these contributions of extroverts, introverted subjects do also make their own contributions to the conversation by asking questions. As can be seen in table three, two thirds of the question-respond sequences in the talk were performed by introverts. Thus, this result might indicate that introverts also have a role to play in the discourse by raising questions. As extroverts initiate the talk and direct it by introducing new sub-topics, introverted subjects might be feeling the pressure or control of their partner on the conversation and trying to "take the turn" or "keep the floor" by their each attempt to ask question. To sum up, in terms of interactional behavior, it can be concluded that extroverts seem to have a role of initiating, structuring and directing the conversation. In other words, they seem to be more active when their attempts to organize the talk are considered. Furthermore, introverts seem to accept and follow this direction and the framework established and proposed by extroverts. However, introverts don't have a passive role at all, since they also contribute the conversation by "filling in" linguistic material. They adapt to extroverts' structure however, they also try to keep the conversation going by asking questions. The talk between extroverts and introverts never becomes or turns into a

monologue; rather it is genuine talk, to which each part makes his/her own contributions.

With respect to speech production, table three again provides distinctive results in terms of each individual speech variable. However, a close interpretation of these results regarding their interrelationship can be useful in terms of defining general tendencies of extroverts and introverts in speech production. As indicated by table 3, extroverts and introverts differed in terms of the length of their utterances, the number of filled pauses they employed and the number of self-corrected utterances. The results of the data analysis revealed that extroverts had a tendency to produce longer sentences, employ much more filled pauses and self-correct their utterances more often than introverts did. When the results of the speaking tasks and the interviews are considered as a whole, it might be possible to see the connection between these single results.

Three before -mentioned factors- -extroverts' tendency to produce longer utterances, their inclination to plan their speech during discourse, and their tendency to self-monitor are interrelated. The longer the utterance, the more complex it is and the more difficult to plan. That is to say, extroverts who produce longer utterances may rely on on-line planning to save time for producing these complex utterances. However, this planning strategy causes them employ many more filled pauses, during which they try to decide what to say and how to express it. In addition, extroverts' inclination to monitor their discourse also contributes to their verbal behavior and causes them to self-correct more often during speech production. In other words, in the case of extroverts, who tend to monitor their own speech

production, long utterances increase the likeliness of repair of the utterances during discourse for extroverts who tend to watch their own production.

To sum up, extroverts and introverts don't only differ in terms of the degree of their individual contributions to talk but also in terms of the way they create their own discourse. They mostly seem to differ in terms of the length of utterances, their planning strategies and monitoring, which result in differences in the number of filled pauses and self-corrections. The results of the data analysis in terms of speech production also provide support for the assumption that personality factors influence communicative behavior. The results helped the researcher see which trait attributed to which speech variable.

The outcomes of the present study are partly inline with the results of the previous research. As posited by Dawaele and Furnham (2000), introverts were found to produce editing expressions like "er" more often than extroverts. It was suggested by Dawaele and Furnham that introverts' inclination to employ more filled pauses stemmed from their anxiety level which increases in formal situations. Dawaele and Furnham argue that since introverts are more anxious and less stress-resistant, it is not surprising that they produce hesitation phenomena more and fill this gap with the sound "er". However, while evaluating the results, they make a distinction between formal and informal conditions and believe that cognitive tasks performed under a stressful condition seem to differentiate extroverts and introverts more evidently. They also regard stressful condition as a factor causing introverts hesitate after errors or before lexical gaps. However in the present study, the setting was not perceived as formal by subjects. During interviews introverted subjects stated that despite the unnatural setting and tape-recorders, they didn't feel anxious

since they were interacting with their classmates and they were working in pairs. That is to say the results of the present study might not be in line with previous study since the setting of two studies differs in terms of its formality, which is regarded to cause difference.

The second research question addressed learners' perception of the effect of their personal tendencies on their communicative behaviors. With regards to the results of the interviews, it can be generally concluded that both extroverts and introverts, to a certain degree, are aware of the role of their personality on their language behavior. However, there is no clear awareness or conception among extroverts and introverts in which way and to which degree their personality can bear an influence on their communicative behavior. This might be attributed to the fact that they rarely discussed the issue in class and, therefore they never actively thought and paid attention directly to the relation between their personality and their communicative L2 behavior. In sum, it can be said that subjects are aware of the fact that their personality somehow determines their language behavior however, there is no clear concept how this might take place.

Pedagogical Implications

To date, learner variables have been classified and dealt with in different ways by researchers, since individual differences are considered to be important in second language acquisition. Ellis (1994, p.467), for instance, states that "all learners analyze input and structure information about L2 in much the same way. However, it is also true that learners vary enormously in both the ways they set about learning an L2 and also in what they actually succeed in learning". As indicated in this statement, in addition to universal factors as input, individual differences are also

important in SLA research. To Ellis (1994, p.467) the study of individual differences involves a great area of work, since it should be clarified "what affects individual differences have on learning outcomes and how learner differences affect the process of L2 acquisition". Regarding the present study, it made small contributions to the role of individual differences in SLA, attaching specific importance to two main personality variables, extroversion and introversion, indicating that each learner needs a different natural learning environment.

As far as language pedagogy is concerned, communicative language teaching is also an approach to language teaching which attempts to provide learners with natural settings in which they are exposed to social interaction. Communicative language teaching (CLT) is a very predominant approach to language teaching all over the world, and it emphasizes the "communication of meaning both between the teacher and learners and between the learners" (Lightbown and Spada, 1999, p.95). Two variables of communicative language teaching, Task-Based Instruction and Content-Based Instruction, also attach importance to oral production and verbal interaction in the classroom and regard a developed communicative ability as being desirable. However, the results of this study indicate that learners can have different verbal and interactive behaviors depending on their personal preferences. In other words, though some learners find it easy to use L2 communicatively, some others may have difficulties in maintaining contact with the target language. It is possible to provide some solutions for this problematic situation. First of all, teachers can be more responsive to students' for whom speaking in L2 is not as easy as for others. They can be careful about encouraging learners to speak, interact and engage in

communicative activities. Teachers can teach students who are more reluctant to participate in speaking activities how to interact and maintain a conversation.

Secondly, the materials and the curriculum can be designed regarding students who experience problems in communicating in L2. The courses and the classroom setting could be designed so that they can provide a variety of speaking and interaction occasions for students. For instance, knowing the verbal tendencies of students, teachers can create a context in which each learner can feel comfortable enough to verbally produce (e.g., group work, pair work).

Finally, in the last decade, "language awareness" and "language learning awareness" have been important goals of language teaching, which are all supposed to lead to more autonomous learning. Accordingly, the present study suggests that certain knowledge and awareness of one's own personality profile and therefore one's own communicative preferences are to be considered as an integral part of the concept of language learning awareness. It is therefore hoped that learners, teachers, material designers and curriculum developers will be informed about and sensitized towards the significance of individual differences in general, and extroversion-introversion in particular. The more these people are informed about the effect of personality traits, the more they are able to contribute to the mutual endeavor of developing individualized and self-directed foreign language learning.

Limitations of the Study

The limitations of this study should be taken into consideration while drawing some conclusions. First of all, as personality is a multidimensional concept and a person has some other personality variables, it is clear that there are some other aspects of personality, which somehow directly or indirectly influences learners'

communicative behavior. However, in the present study, only one of these traits, extroversion and its counterpart introversion are taken into consideration. Accordingly, the results might be affected by other personality tendencies of each subject. The results of the study could have been more reliable if subjects with similar personality tendencies apart from extroversion/introversion had been involved in the study. Secondly, the study involves a very limited number of subjects. Thus, it may not be possible to make generalizations of such limited empirical evidence. The validity of the results could increase if greater number of subjects had been involved in the study. In other words, the results of this study can not be generalized to other prep-class students in other English-medium universities.

Next, the speaking tasks involved in the study were chosen so as to stimulate a broad variety of language functions. That is to say, the researcher had no intention to see the effect of these two tasks on communicative behaviors of subjects. Thus, the task type was not the focus of the study. However, it should also be considered that the task type might have affected the verbal behaviors of learners to some extent, and the results might have changed if different communicative tasks had been used.

Lastly, the researcher paired the subjects as extroverts with introverts since she believed that both type of learners would present their own distinctive verbal behaviors more clearly when they were paired with their counterparts. However, it should be taken into consideration that the results might have been different if the subjects had been paired as extroverts with extroverts and introverts with introverts.

Implications for Further Research

This research was conducted involving a very limited number of subjects, so it may not be reasonable to draw very definite conclusions and to make

generalizations out of the findings. For this reason, the number of the subjects can be increased and the study can be conducted in other universities of Turkey, so that more valid results can be gathered and generalizations can be made from the conclusions.

The subjects of this study were all learners from the same class, and they had same level of proficiency, which was determined by a leveling test done at the very beginning of the term by the university itself. However, the subjects of the study might not have been exactly at the same language level when every aspect of English proficiency is considered. In other words, subjects who were placed in classes according to their general success at the exam might not have had the same proficiency in the same skills. For example, they might not have shared the same level of vocabulary or grammar. The results would not have affected by the proficiency level of the learners if they all performed the same in sub-skills of English.

Conclusion

This kind of investigation is able to help to see in what way and to what degree individual differences, extroversion-introversion distinction in particular, affect overall communication behaviors of learners. Such knowledge then can be used to adapt language teaching methodology to the needs of learners of all kinds.

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APPENDIX A

Eysenck Personality Inventory Test

Turkish Version

Sevgili öğrenciler,

Bilkent Üniversitesi, MA TEFL master programında öğrenciyim. Şuanda bazı kişilik özelliklerinin öğrencilerin yabancı dil kullanımı üzerindeki etkisi hakkında bir çalışma yapmaktayım. Aşagıdaki teste vereceğiniz cevaplarla çalışmamın ilerleyişine ve sonuçlanmasına katkıda bulunmuş olacaksnız. Sorulara vereceğiniz cevaplar ders notlarınızı ve hakkınızdaki kanaati hiçbirşekilde etkilemeyecektir. Soruları samimiyetle cevaplandıracağınıza inanıyor ve şimdiden teşekkür edediyorum.

Funda Abalı
MA TEFL - Bilkent Üniversitesi
Bilkent/ Ankara

EPQR-A   Isim:
Soyisim:

Yönerge : Lütfen aşağıdaki her soruyu 'EVET' yada ' HAYIR'I yuvarlak içine alarak cevaplayınız. Doğru veya yanlış cevap ve çeldirici soru yoktur. Hızlı cevaplayınız ve soruların tam anlamları ile ilgili çok uzun düşünmeyiniz.

1.Duygu durumunuz sıklıkla mutlulukla mutsuzluk arasında değişir mi? Evet Hayır
2.Konuşkan bir kişi misiniz?   Evet Hayır
3.Borçlu olmak sizi endişelendirir mi?   Evet Hayır
4.Oldukça canlı bir kişi misiniz?   Evet Hayır
5.Hiç sizin payınıza düşenden fazlasını alarak açgözlülük yaptığınız
  oldu mu ?   Evet Hayır
6.Garip yada tehlikeli etkileri olabilecek ilaçlar kullandınız mı? Evet Hayır
7.Aslında kendi hatanız olduğunu bildiğiniz bir şeyi yapmakla hiç
  başka birini suçladınız mı?   Evet Hayır
8.Kurallara uymak yerine kendi bildiğiniz yolda gitmeyi mi tercih

edersiniz?   Evet Hayır

9.Sıklıkla kendinizi her şeyden bıkmış hisseder misiniz?   Evet Hayır

10.Hiç başkasına ait olan bir şeyi (topluiğne veya düğme bile olsa)
  aldınız mı?   Evet Hayır

11.Kendinizi sinirli bir kişi olarak tanımlar mısınız?   Evet Hayır

12.Evliliğin modası geçmiş veya kaldırılması gereken bir şey olduğunu
  düşünüyor musunuz?   Evet Hayır

13.Oldukça sıkıcı bir partiye kolaylıkla canlılık getirebilir misiniz?   Evet Hayır

14.Kaygılı bir kişi misiniz?   Evet Hayır

15.Sosyal ortamlarda geri planda kalma eğiliminiz var mıdır?   Evet Hayır

16.Yaptığınız bir işte hatalar olduğunu bilmeniz sizi endişelendirir mi?   Evet Hayır

17.Herhangi bir oyunda hiç hile yaptınız mı?   Evet Hayır

18.Sinirlerinizden şikayetçi misiniz?   Evet Hayır

19.Hiç başka birini kendi yararlarınız için kullandınız mı?   Evet Hayır

20.Başkalarıyla birlikte iken çoğunlukla sessiz misinizdir?   Evet Hayır

21.Sık sık kendinizi yalnız hisseder misin?   Evet Hayır

22.Toplum kurallarına uymak kendi bildiğinizi yapmaktan daha mı
  iyidir?   Evet Hayır

23.Diğer insanlar sizi çok canlı biri olarak düşünürler mi?   Evet Hayır

24.Başkalarına önerdiğiniz şeyleri kendiniz her zaman uygular mısınız?   Evet Hayır

The EPQR-A

1.	Does your mood often go up and down?	Yes	No
2 .	Are you a talkative person?	Yes	No
3.	Would being in debt worry you?	Yes	No
4.	Are you rather lively? Yes No		
5.	Were you ever greedy by helping yourself to more than you share of anything?	Yes	No
6.	Would you take drugs which may have strange or dangerous effects?	Yes	No
7.	Have you ever blames someone for doing something you knew was really you fault?	Yes	No
8.	Do you prefer to go your own way rather than act by the rules?	Yes	No
9.	Do you often feel 'fed-up'?	Yes	No
10.	Have you ever taken anything (even a pin or button) that belonged to someone else?	Yes	No
11.	Would you call yourself a nervous person?	Yes	No
12.	Do you think marriage is old-fashioned and should be done away with?	Yes	No
13.	Can you easily get some life into a rather dull party?	Yes	No
14.	Are you a worrier?	Yes	No
15.	Do you tend to keep in the background on social occasions?	Yes	No
16.	Does it worry you if you know there are mistakes in your work?	Yes	No
17.	Have you ever cheated a game?	Yes	No
18.	Do you suffer from 'nerves'?	Yes	No
19.	Have you ever taken advantage of someone?	Yes	No
20.	Are you mostly quiet when you are with other people?	Yes	No
21.	Do you often feel lonely?	Yes	No
22.	Is it better to follow society' rules than your own	Yes	No
23.	Do other people think of you as being very lively?	Yes	No
24.	Do you always practice what you preach?	Yes	No

The Eysenck Personality Tests Filled Out by Learners

İsim: Bilge Kağan
Sayısım: Tvr

EPQR-A

Yönerge: Lütfen aşağıdaki her bir soruyu 'Evet' yada 'Hayır'ı yuvarlak içine alarak cevaplayınız. Doğru veya yanlış cevap ve çeldirici soru yoktur. Hızlı cevaplayınız ve soruların tam anlamları ile ilgili çok uzun düşünmeyiniz.

1. Duygu durumunuz sıklıkla mutlulukla mutsuzluk arasında değişir mi? **(Evet)** Hayır
2. Konuşkan bir kişi misiniz? Evet **(Hayır)**
3. Borçlu olmak sizi endişelendirir mi? **(Evet)** Hayır
4. Oldukça canlı bir kişi misiniz? Evet **(Hayır)**
5. Hiç sizin payınıza düşenden fazlasını alarak açgözlülük yaptığınız oldu mu? Evet **(Hayır)**
6. Garip yada tehlikeli etkileri olabilecek ilaçları kullanır mısınız? Evet **(Hayır)**
7. Aslında kendi hatanız olduğunu bildiğiniz birşeyi yapmakla hiç başka birini suçladınız mı? Evet **(Hayır)**
8. Kurallara uymak yerine kendi bildiğiniz yolda gitmeyi mi tercih edersiniz? Evet **(Hayır)**
9. Sıklıkla kendinizi her şeyden bıkmış hisseder misiniz? **(Evet)** Hayır
10. Hiç başkasına ait olan bir şeyi (toplu iğne veya düğme bile olsa) aldınız mı? Evet **(Hayır)**
11. Kendinizi sinirli bir kişi olarak tanımlar mısınız? **(Evet)** Hayır
12. Evliliğin modası geçmiş ve kaldırılması gereken bir şey olduğunu düşünüyor musunuz? Evet **(Hayır)**
13. Oldukça sıkıcı bir partiye kolaylıkla canlılık getirebilir misiniz? Evet **(Hayır)**
14. Kaygılı bir kişi misiniz? **(Evet)** Hayır
15. Sosyal ortamlarda geri planda kalma eğiliminiz var mıdır? **(Evet)** Hayır
16. Yaptığınız bir işte hatalar olduğunu bilmeniz sizi endişelendirir mi? **(Evet)** Hayır
17. Herhangi bir oyunda hiç hile yaptınız mı? Evet **(Hayır)**
18. Sinirlerinizden şikayetçi misiniz? Evet **(Hayır)**
19. Hiç başka birini kendi yararınıza kullandınız mı? Evet **(Hayır)**
20. Başkalarıyla birlikte iken çoğunlukla sessiz misinizdir? **(Evet)** Hayır
21. Sık sık kendinizi yalnız hisseder misiniz? **(Evet)** Hayır
22. Toplum kurallarına uymak, kendi bildiğinizi yapmaktan daha mı iyidir? **(Evet)** Hayır
23. Diğer insanlar sizi çok canlı biri olarak düşünürler mi? Evet **(Hayır)**
24. Başkasına önerdiğiniz şeyleri kendiniz her zaman uygular mısınız? Evet **(Hayır)**

EPQR-A

Yönerge: Lütfen aşağıdaki her bir soruyu 'Evet' yada 'Hayır'ı yuvarlak içine alarak cevaplayınız. Doğru veya yanlış cevap ve çeldirici soru yoktur. Hızlı cevaplayınız ve soruların tam anlamları ile ilgili çok uzun düşünmeyiniz.

1. Duygu durumunuz sıklıkla mutlulukla mutsuzluk arasında değişir mi?	Evet	**Hayır**
2. Konuşkan bir kişi misiniz?	**Evet**	Hayır
3. Borçlu olmak sizi endişelendirir mi?	**Evet**	Hayır
4. Oldukça canlı bir kişi misiniz?	**Evet**	Hayır
5. Hiç sizin payınıza düşenden fazlasını alarak açgözlülük yaptığınız oldu mu?	**Evet**	Hayır
6. Garip yada tehlikeli etkileri olabilecek ilaçları kullanır mısınız?	Evet	**Hayır**
7. Aslında kendi hatanız olduğunu bildiğiniz birşeyi yapmakla hiç başka birini suçladınız mı?	Evet	**Hayır**
8. Kurallara uymak yerine kendi bildiğiniz yolda gitmeyi mi tercih edersiniz?	Evet	**Hayır**
9. Sıklıkla kendinizi her şeyden bıkmış hisseder misiniz?	Evet	**Hayır**
10. Hiç başkasına ait olan bir şeyi (toplu iğne veya düğme bile olsa) aldınız mı?	**Evet**	Hayır
11. Kendinizi sinirli bir kişi olarak tanımlar mısınız?	Evet	**Hayır**
12. Evliliğin modası geçmiş ve kaldırılması gereken bir şey olduğunu düşünüyor musunuz?	Evet	**Hayır**
13. Oldukça sıkıcı bir partiye kolaylıkla canlılık getirebilir misiniz?	**Evet**	Hayır
14. Kaygılı bir kişi misiniz?	Evet	**Hayır**
15. Sosyal ortamlarda geri planda kalma eğiliminiz var mıdır?	Evet	**Hayır**
16. Yaptığınız bir işte hatalar olduğunu bilmeniz sizi endişelendirir mi?	**Evet**	Hayır
17. Herhangi bir oyunda hiç hile yaptınız mı?	**Evet**	Hayır
18. Sinirlerinizden şikayetçi misiniz?	Evet	**Hayır**
19. Hiç başka birini kendi yararınıza kullandınız mı?	**Evet**	Hayır
20. Başkalarıyla birlikte iken çoğunlukla sessiz misinizdir?	Evet	**Hayır**
21. Sık sık kendinizi yalnız hisseder misiniz?	Evet	**Hayır**
22. Toplum kurallarına uymak, kendi bildiğinizi yapmaktan daha mı iyidir?	Evet	**Hayır**
23. Diğer insanlar sizi çok canlı biri olarak düşünürler mi?	**Evet**	Hayır
24. Başkasına önerdiğiniz şeyleri kendiniz her zaman uygular mısınız?	Evet	**Hayır**

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Speaking Tasks

Name:

Surname: *A

Task 1: Spot the difference

      Working in pairs, try to find out eight (8) differences between the two pictures given to you and your partner. Please do not show your own picture to your partner and try to use words while explaining yours to your pair. There is no time limitation.

1st difference:
2nd difference:
3rd difference:
4th difference:
5th difference:
6th difference:
7th difference:
8th difference:
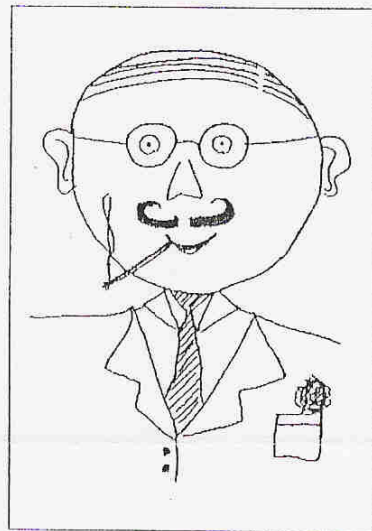
Name:

Surname: *B

Task 1: Spot the difference

Working in pairs, try to find out eight (8) differences between the two pictur
to you and your partner. Please do not show your own picture to your partner and tr
words while explaining yours to your pair. There is no time limitation.

1st difference:
2nd difference:
3rd difference:
4th difference:
5th difference:
6th difference:
7th difference:
8th difference:

APPENDIX E
Transcriptions of the Speaking Tasks

TASK 1 : Information Gap Activity

1 Burak   : Kağan in my picture he is wearing glasses er is he wearing glasses in
2   your picture
3 Kağan   : yes he has glasses … ın a his eyes and er in my picture he has a rose in
4   his poc po pocket
5 B   : yeah it is same er I think er there is no difference er with glasses and
6   er handkerchief in pocket ... ın my picture he is smoking
7 K   : yes he is smoking too
8 B   : er he has a mustache er like er going down
9 K   : er my picture his mustache is going up
10 B   : first difference er is mustache
11 K   : yes we are writing
12 B   : in my picture er he is wearing tie
13 K   : yes he is wearing a tie too in my picture
14 B   : er but mine is er spotted one
15 K   : mine has .. my picture hasn't got a spotted tie .. this is the second
16   difference
17 B   : er in my picture he is wearing a square glasses
18 K   : in my picture he has a er oval glasses so this is the third difference
19 B   : er in my picture er he is smoking long cigarettes
20 K   : in my picture it is too long
21 K   : it is long too I think we can't ----- it I think because as we it is long
22   too
23 B   : er in my picture er hiz cigarettes er his left side . on his left side
24 K   : yes this is difference . mine has a right side . this is the forth difference
25 B   : er in my picture his eyes is ----
26 K   : we can say mine is ---- eyes so this can be difference
27 B   : er in my picture there is a spot under tie
28 K   : er I couldn't understand what you say
29 B   : in my picture er er there is a point spot under my tie . under his tie
30 K   : in my picture has two spots
31 B   : er in my picture he is wearing a jacket
32 K   : he has jacket too unfortunately
33 B   : he has stripes er hair stripe hair
34 K   : my picture has hair . like . cow
35 B   : in my picture he has stripes er on his eyes
36 K   : my picture hasn't got stripes in his eyes
37 B   : and this is the last difference

TASK 2: Opinion Gap Activity

A-)

32	C	: we can take coffe with us I think ıhh
33	S	: why ?
34	C	: because it's we will drink it and ıhh we can be awake easily
35	S	: ıhh yes but I think we can choose the sleeping problems by
36		sleeping enough at nights so I think the first think we must take a map with us
37	C	: it can be ıhh and also a second thing can be a walky talky ıhh against to lost each other
39		: yes of course and also we can take water disinfect tablets because it is a desert and we of course need a clean water
41	C	: maybe we can take drinking water ıhh except from it but yes ıhh it can take a little place to carry it can be also we should take ıhh fire to fire something it can be useful but it is a desert sorry
44	S	: I think we have to take sleep bag with us because it's a desert and we need to sleep to be awake during the day so sleeping bag is very useful I think
47	C	: how many of them do we choose ?
48	S	: this is the sixth one
49	C	: ıhh and compass can be useful for us ıhh in case of lost our way
50	S	: yes you're sure and also the thing maybe it can be a pocket knife
51	C	: it can be
52	S	: yes
53	C	: firstly we should I think leave coffee because we are not hundred percent need that
55	S	: yes you you're right and we have to use a compass I think we don't have a guide how can we find our way
57	C	: exactly you're right ıhh and also we can have we can make the choose between a map and a compass and ıhh one of them can be
59		left by us also ıhh sleeping bags are too heavy to carry for us I think and maybe we can left one of them
61	S	: but how can sleep and where can we sleep . if we don't have a sleeping
63	C	: ıhh at least ıhh we're on our own so we can we don't care I don't care how to sleep
65	S	: okey
66	C	: we just try to survive ourselves now
67	S	: maybe we can leave a pocket knife . maybe it isn't necessary we can't find a stone maybe to cut something . but we have to take walky talky with us because we ıhh we left ourselves
70	C	: yes ıhh also we exactly need water disinfect tablets we're in a desert that's all I think

APPENDIX F

Transcription Conventions

.	pause of a second
-	undefined utterance
?	rising intonation
/	overlapping utterances

APPENDIX G

Questions of the Interview

Part A

1. Do you like speaking English in the classroom? In which situations yes, in Which situations 'yes' in which situations 'no'?
2. Do you think that you use English much often in the classroom?
3. If you would score your language use in the classroom with a number between 1 and 5 which number would you choose?
4. In the classroom do you start speaking with your own wish or with your teacher's request? Why?
5. What makes it easier or more difficult to speak in the classroom?
6. Do you feel better during individual work or group work in your speaking activities? Why?
7. In your speaking courses are you interested in what others say or do you focus more on your own speech?
8. Do you think your personality affect your speech production? Why? Why not? In what way?

Part B

(The first three questions were asked to extroverts)
1   Why do you think that you self-correct your utterances so often?
2. Do you think that you produced long utterances during your speech?
3. Why do you think you employ so many filled pauses?

(4th, 5th and 6th questions were asked to introverts)
4. Did you always waited for your partner to start the conversation? Why?
5. Do you think that the setting in which you performed the task was a formal one?
6. Do you think that you have a tendency to produce short utterances?

(The last question was asked to both extroverts and introverts)
7. Do you plan your speech before you start speaking? Why? Why not?