IDENTIFICATION AND MEASUREMENT OF SPEECH PROBLEMS OF ELT STUDENTS AT TURKISH UNIVERSITIES

A THESIS

Submitted to the Faculty of Letters
and the Institute of Economics and Social Sciences
of Bilkent University
In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of A Master of arts in
the Teaching of English As A Foreign Language

BY
KEMAL BASCI
AUGUST, 1990

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tarafından bağışlanmıştır.

BILKENT UNIVERSITY

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MA THESIS EXAMINATION RESULT FORM

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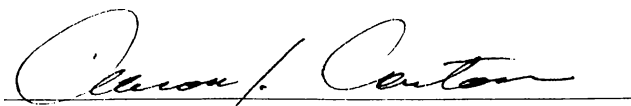

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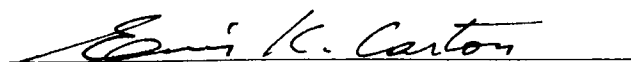
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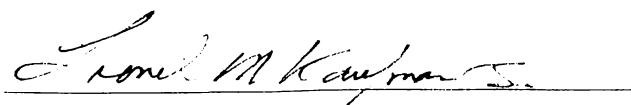   Bilkent University, MA TEFL Program

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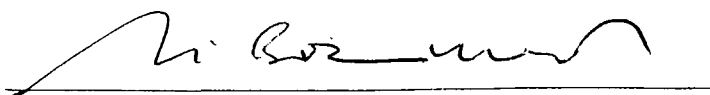
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To my mother

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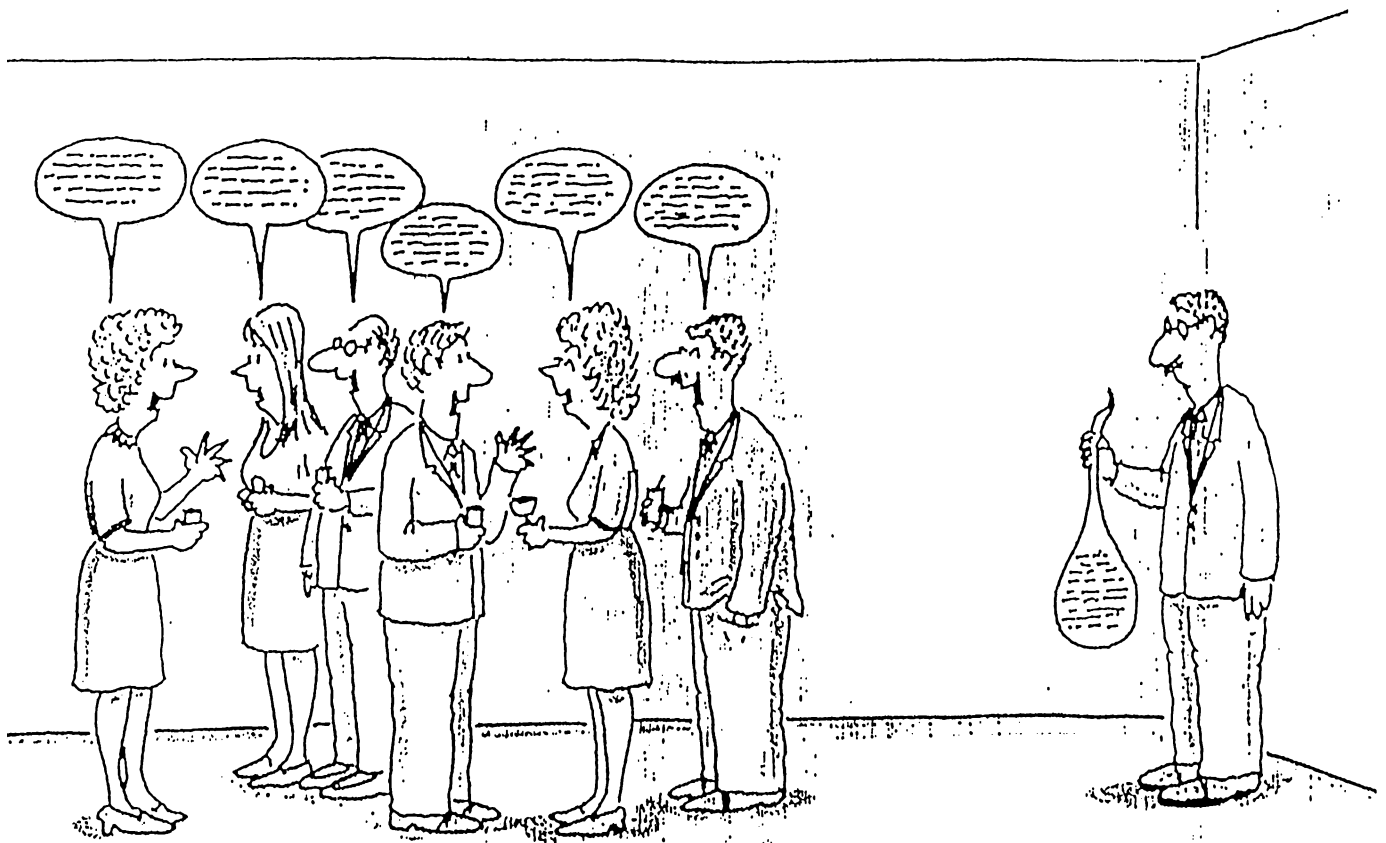
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CHAPTER 1

1.1 Introduction:

It was 1986. I was a student in ELT department of the educational faculty of 19 Mayıs University. A teacher came in to a class and began to instruct his lesson. Sitting in the back part of the class, as usual, I listened or seemed to listen to him. Suddenly he asked a question and called my name to answer. I didn't expect to be questioned in such a way. I became very excited. After a moment of silence, I managed to put a few words together and gave a semblance of an answer. The teacher responded to my answer turning to the class: "He is right in content, but wrong in grammar."

After that day I began to talk in the classroom. Not caring whether I was right or wrong, I would state my opinion about any subject. As time went by I saw that I was improving.

Until that occasion I had not realized that I had been silent in the class and a majority of the class behaved the same way. There were only some students who participated in the class talk and maintained the courses. The first part of the teacher's feedback, "He is right in content..." encouraged me that I could say something in class classifiable as right. I could speak even if I was wrong grammatically.

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Until that day I sat back and remained silent for fear of being wrong, and probably because of lack of interest and motivation. The other fellows at my side possibly kept quiet for the same reasons.

1.2 Statement of the Topic:

Of late the study of foreign languages has radiated around Turkey like an epidemic. As a result over the last two decades foreign language study has become a very important subject in Turkey. Almost all the students are required to know a foreign language when they graduate from their schools. Proficiency in a foreign language is necessary to find a good job, and/or to be promoted to a better position. As in the other parts of the world, English ranks first in Turkey as the foreign language of choice.

Students of ELT departments at the universities face a number of difficulties. The basic assumption of this thesis is that their most serious difficulty is in the oral production of the language. To speak the language, to develop the speaking skill well,is of great importance for these students since they are going to be English teachers and while teaching English they will need to use it as a medium of instruction in the classroom. They have to have a good speaking competence in order to provide good models for the

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students. Once they do, they can set up a good educational atmosphere in the clasrroom. However, observations of the proficiency of graduates indicate that the outcome is not as adequate as expected. The speaking ability of the students and the graduates of ELT programs is unsatisfactory. Of course many reasons account for this.

In this study, I have investigated some of the problems and the difficulties which ELT students encounter in bringing their speaking skill to a desired level. I have tried to identify the factors which affect classroom speech. In many ways this study could not go beyond a rough outline of the problem. However, I hope it opens the door to the issue and constitutes a base for further, more satisfactory studies in this field.

1.3 Statement of the Purpose:

In this study, I wish to focus my interest on speaking which is a demanding skill requiring an aptitude as well as being an art. Language is a tool for communicating ideas, intentions, and meanings. People need to use a common tool which will be a means of transacting their ideas and they need to be as fluent as they can in order to set the stream of communication at a desired level. Communication is usually understood as speech transfer, that is speaking. Bygate

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(1987) holds that people are generally evaluated by the fluency of their speech and confirms it as the skill by which language learners are "most frequently judged". My observations lead me to agree with this assumption. The main goal of this thesis is to identify the reasons why speaking cannot be developed as well as other skills in ELT classes. What is more ELT students are not willing to speak in classes. To what extent do they have speech anxiety? Is the reticense of students due to a lack of motivation? Are they embarrassed? How can they be motivated toward speaking? How can they be activated in class without being overwhelmed? This topic is important to the field of EFL because speaking is a skill of English which is more apparent and outstanding than the others. And it is, in a sense, a fruit, final product of other skills. Studies of factors affecting speaking are of interest to students, teachers, curriculum designers, material producers, etc.

1.4 Statement of the Method:

For this study I have reviewed the professional literature on speaking, the effective teaching of speaking, and affective factors which effect classroom speech in order to develop the background necessary for preparing an instrument by which students' feelings and attitudes could be measured.

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I distributed a questionnaire to the students of ELT departments at Gazi, Hacettepe, METU, 19 Mayıs, Anadolu, Çukurova, and Atatürk Universities to find out what motivates them to speak English, how their motivation to speak in class can be improved, to distinguish those who are willing to speak from those who aren't, to clarify the general shyness, (concerning friends), to find out language motivation concerning grades, to find out students' expectation of success (whether optimistic or pessimistic).

The data gathered through this questionnaire have been analyzed and the findings were compared with the findings in the literature review. To end the study some implications were written up, conclusions and recommendations were made. Consequently, a brief summary of the whole file was given.

1.5 Statement of the Limitations:

This work is limited to:

the students of ELT departments,

and the speaking skill of English.

CHAPTER 2.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction:

This chapter examines the factors which effect the development of foreign language speaking skill and presents a review of literature related to what experts have hypothesized about the psychology of speech production of students. This study is primarily concerned with the ELT students who are going to be English teachers when they graduate.

Two significant elements of an educational process are educators and those who are educated, that is, teachers and learners. A large potential of learners to be taught English lies in front of us. The task is to train English teachers to teach English to these students.

Speaking is an essential part of English and it is more demanding on the part of students to learn and the teachers to teach. ELT students should be aware that they are going to replace their present teachers or take a similar position at other schools in the future. They should be conscious that a good teacher embellishes his teaching skills with good speaking and can only create effective teaching this way.

Before going into teaching the speaking skill we should

investigate and see the nature of teaching at teachers side
and the conditions of learning at students side in terms of
educational psychology.

2.2 What is teaching?

Everybody must have a definition of teaching in his/her
mind. What is certain is that a process of transacting know-
ledge yielding change in behaviour takes place between the
two sides the teacher and the pupils. Brumfit (1984) defines
teaching as an activity which is performed, directly or
indirectly, by human beings on human beings. It sure is that
as the time advances, the developments in humanity change
everything and the teaching as well.

Time is ceaseless. New days bring new perspectives. Our
world is changing with a stirring speed. Change is the unique
phenomena in life that does not change. Teaching also has
been placed in a new perspective by the developments in
educational thought. The current knowledge explosion,
advances in science and technology have given the world a new
shape dismissing the previous classical approaches and the
methods. Furthermore, teaching should be examined in the
light of these improvements. The change during past decades
from emphasis on "teaching subject matter" to directing pupil
growth has redefined the teacher's task from one of imparting

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knowledge to one of helping students learn how to learn. (Mouly 1973)

It is not possible to impart student with ample knowledge at school. That is why the logical behavior is to teach him learn how to learn. For example, "to help him develop both the skills he will need to continue to learn after graduation and a deep interest in the continued pursuit of meaningful knowledge"(Mouly 1973:13); that is to say the task of the modern teacher will become progressively less important while the learners are becoming more responsible for their own learning.

Rogers (1969) in Mouly (1973) makes a dialectical argument of teaching: according to him, teaching is a vastly overrated activity. The basic issue is the assumptions concerning the nature of the learner and of the learning process. He presents two approaches here. According to one approach, the learner should not be left by himself to learn, he cannot pursue his own learning, "that effective presentation is equivelant to learning, and that the aim of education is to accumulate knowledge" (p.13). This approach can be considered as teacher-centered. The second approach, on the contrary, proposes that "human beings have a natural propensity for learning and that significant learning takes place when the student perceives the subject matter as having

relevance to his purposes" (p.14). Teaching must be directed toward learners' needs.

Teaching and learning involve teachers, pupils and the subject matter in dynamic interactions that are obviously too complex to be defined in terms of a simple set of teacher traits or procedures. As is seen, the definition of teaching in the general sense implies showing the students the ways of learning. If they are given everything in ready form they will develop dependence on someone who is available to teach them and will remain helpless when introduced to something new. Thus, we must consider and examine teaching taking the learners' need of learning to learn into account.

2.3 Teaching Speaking:

One of the basic tasks in foreign language teaching is to prepare the student to be able to use the language. However, until the communicative approaches appeared the primary focus of the teaching foreign languages was to provide students with linguistic competence (usage of language) rather than providing them with linguistic performance (use of language). It was possibly because of the demand of practise on the performers. Rivers (1968) claims that the teaching of speaking skill is more demanding on the teacher than the teaching of any other skill. Many teachers

give up the attempt to teach it and concentrate on what they call a more "intellectual" approach to language teaching (the deciphering of the written code and discussion of its features, or the discussion of the content of foreign language texts). Other teachers persuade themselves that if they speak the foreign language exclusively in the classroom the students will, at some time, begin to speak it fluently too; this they justify by the argument that the students now have the opportunity to learn the foreign language "as the child learns his native language". Rivers does not agree with this assumption, because:

> This reasoning ignores the fact that little children learn to speak their language by continual prattling (frequently using incorrect forms) for most of their waking hours, that they are continually being spoken to and encouraged in their efforts to imitate speech, and that their efforts at producing comprehensible speech enable them to gain things for which they feel a great need (physical satisfactions or mother's attention and proud praise). Students in a foreign language class will not learn to speak fluently merely by hearing speech, although this is important in familiarizing them with the acceptable forms of the code. The teacher will need to give the students many opportunities to practise the speaking skill; he will need to use his imagination in devising situations which provoke the student to the use of the language in the expression of his own meaning, within the limits of what he has been learning (Rivers 1968: 160).

Speaking seems to be the most significant skill of a language. The term "knowing a language" is mostly understood as speaking of that language. Paulstone and Bruder (1976) strengthen this idea in the following sentence:"Communicative

competence is, generally, taken to be the objective of language teaching; the production of speakers competent to communicate in the target language" (p.56). Rivers (1968) asserts that "students come to the study of a foreign language in high school with the strong conviction that language means something spoken" (p.161). Similarly Westphal proclaims "the ability to communicate is a primary goal of foreign language instructions" (in Joiner and Westphal 1973: 5). Likewise, Adrian Palmer (1970) has pointed to the same idea: "classroom presentation should be directed from the outset toward the development of communication skills since the ultimate goal of language learning is communication" (Joiner and Westphal 1978: 57). To teach the speaking skill it is necessary to have a clear understanding of the processes involved in speech. Through speech, man expresses his emotions, communicates his intentions, reacts to other persons and situations, and influences other human beings. Spoken language is, then, a tool for man. In the teaching of the speaking skill we are engaged in two processes. Rivers (1968: 189) identifies these processes as;

1. forging the instrument,

2. giving the student guided practice in its use.
"The student already knows how to use a similar instrument, his native language; finding at first that the new instrument

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is cumbersome and frustrating, he tends to slip back, where possible, to the use of the instrument which he is accustomed" (Rivers 1968:162).

Probably, the best way for a student to develop the speaking skill to the fullest is to go to the country where English is spoken as a native language. But this is not possible for an average Turkish student, nor can he, for the most part, have frequent contact with native speakers of English in Turkey. However, it is possible to give him basic attitudes in the classroom and foundational skills upon which he can build rapidly when the opportunity for real communication presents itself.

2.4 The Psychology of Speaking:

Since the nature of speech needs to be understood by those who teach it, we turn to an examination of what speech is, how it is produced, and how it functions. Ellis and Beattie (1986) defined speech as just one of a number of channels through which humans can communicate. Concepts and ideas cannot be directly communicated, and speech is perhaps the most highly developed channel for the transmission of ideational messages. That is to say, emotional and other sorts of interpersonel messages are more amenable to trans- mission through modalities other than speech. To understand

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speech production we need to understand both how conceptual messages are represented in the mind, and how these messages are translated into sounds which can pass from speaker to listener. Pillsbury and Meade, as early as 1928, proposed the following:

> Man thinks first and then expresses his thoughts in words by some sort of translation. To understand this it is necessary to know how the words present themselves in the consciousness of the individual, how they are related to ideas of another type than the verbal, how the ideas originate and how they arouse the words as images, how the movements of speech are evoked by these ideas,and finally how the listener or reader translates the words that he hears or the word that he sees into thoughts of his own. Speech has its origin in the mind of the speaker/writer and the process of communication is completed only when the word uttered or spoken arouses an idea in the listener/reader.

Speech production is a complex skill which, requires two steps: planning and execution. It is time to examine it through the psychology of human nature.

Foreign language methodologists concerned with drawing the attention of the profession to the need for spontaneous, meaningful language use in the acquisition of a second language have made the distinction between linguistic competence and communicative competence. Linguistic competence may be defined as the mastery of the sound system and basic structural patterns of a language. Communicative competence may be defined as the ability to function in truly communicative setting; that is, in a spontaneous transaction

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involving one or more other persons (Rivers 1968). As most experienced teachers will acknowledge, it is one thing to know about a language and quite another to know how to use it in a conversational exchange.

In a FL classroom the students may at times fall in the situations like:

What do I do when I don't understand?
What if I can't think of a word?
How can I overcome my embarrassment at not speaking fluently?

Self-assurance in speaking, or real-life situations come not from repetition of patterned phrases but from first, understanding of what it means to communicate, and second, lots of practice in doing so.

The point is, all our students, no matter how long they study a foreign language, will find themselves eventually in in the classroom, before the students to discover they don't know "all" of English. They will have to make do with what they do know. How much better for them, whether they study a language for four years or four weeks, to have had the oppor- tunity for spontaneous interaction in the classroom with their teacher's encouragement. The student who can't speak English as well as his classmates in the classroom may think that he will not be able to realize a good performance as others do when he speaks, they will think how poor he is

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while pitying him, and the teacher will make a comparison between the talks he does and they do, then, even if she does not scold or accuse him for his unadequate talk she will pity him and say "poor X he is not able to perform a good speaking". To me these are the inhibitions the students have and keep quiet instead of talking in the classroom activities.

2.5 Psychological Factors in Communication:

In the process of developing conversational abilities in the classroom certain psychological factors play important roles which interfere with interpersonal communication. The only product of knowledge and skill in using a language is not the spontaneous verbal expression. It implies that the student has something to communicate. The silent student in the classroom often has "nothing to say" at that moment. For example, the teacher may have chosen an uncongenial or unfamiliar topic, and under such circumstances, the student will have nothing to say. As well as having something to say, the student must have the desire to communicate his ideas to some person or group of persons. If the student has an unsympathetic relationship with his teacher, or does not feel comfortable enough among his classmates, he might feel that they will not appreciate or be interested in what he would like to say. Besides, he may be aware of his inadequacies in

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English and feeling that if he talks and makes mistakes he will be critisized or blamed. Due to these reasons he prefers keeping quiet. (Rivers 1968)

Personality factors of the students in a class affect the participition in class discussions and conversations. Therefore, the teacher should be alert to recognize these characteristics that some students may be talkative while others are quiet shy or taciturn. For the most part, students are affected by these factors in terms of oral production during class activities. Nida (1975) in Rivers (1968) reported that the talkative extravert students learned the language faster than the quiet studious ones. Rivers added that "some students are by nature, cautious or meticulous; others are unduly sensitive and therefore easily embarrassed or upset if found to be in error or not understood. Students in these categories often prefer to say nothing rather than run the risk of expressing themselves incorrectly, whether in a first or a second language" (Rivers 1968:225). In a conversational situation when people agree with what one says, he is more likely to continue his speech than when they disagree. Describing the "Greenspoon effect", Carton (1989) pointed out if you nod your head to someone who is talking to you, you can make him talk on and on. So, teachers should be conscious of this point to encourage their

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students in class talks. Correction of speech errors is another important factor which affects learners in the performance of speech. If the teacher corrects every little mistake, the student will likely quit talking or remain silent instead of indicating his opinion.

2.6 Affective Factors:

A child produces sounds words or phrases to communicate his/her needs. Since he has needs he wants to communicate. He forces himself to utter the words being not conscious of their accuracy or relevancy. The foreign language student is like a child who has needs. He has to produce sounds, words phrases, sentences and so on, in order to transmit his needs in the classroom. He should not care for the accuracy of his utterances. The atmosphere in the class should let him utter what he wants or needs to say. The wish to build up accurate sentences while talking prevents the student from speaking freely for fear of making mistake. If the student cannot feel free and comfortable enough to express his ideas, he would rather keep quiet and would not be able to satisfy his needs. Therefore, both foreign language learning, and learning speaking will slow down. The atmosphere of the class has a great effect on students' motivation, feelings and psychology. Besides, learners' personal and psychological characteristics

account for the speech production. In this part of the thesis, the factors which affect classroom speech related to the psychological side of humans will be examined and their roles and the extent will be presented. There are quite a lot of "affective factors" which affect language learning and classroom speech. But since the scope of this study does not allow for it, only six of them are dealt with here.

The affective factors are not easy to define within the definable limits since they are related with the emotional side of human behavior. You cannot percieve them with one of the five senses. You can only feel them or perceive them through mind.Keeping this in mind let's go through with them.

2.6.1 The Affective Domain:

In order to perceive the term "affect" we should try to understand how it exactly operates on the part of humans. Brown (1987) broadly interprets it as "emotion or feeling" relating "the affective domain" to the emotional side of human behavior. "The development of affective states or feelings involves a variety of personality factors, feelings both about ourselves and about others with whom we come into contact" (p.101). Bloom, Krathwohl, and Masia,(1964) outlined the "affectivity" at five levels and introduced a useful definition of "affective domain" in an extended form.

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1. Receiving: At the first and fundematal level, the development of affectivity begins with receiving.

2. Responding: The student is willing to respond voluntarily and content with that response.

3. Valuing: Individuals value things in terms of their beliefs and attitudes as internalizing them. At this level the student, gives importance to the subject matter and seeks it out, desires it, to the point of conviction.

4. Organizing: The values are put into a system of beliefs determining interrelationships among them.

5. Finally individuals become characterized by and understand themselves in terms of their value system.

"The fundemantal notions of receiving, responding and valuing are universal. In foreign language learning the learner needs to be receiptive, both to those with whom s/he is communicating and to the language itself, responsive to persons and to the context of communication, and to place a certain value on the communicative act of interpersonal exchange" (Brown 1987: 101).

It is an extremely important aspect to understand how human beings feel, and respond and believe and value in the theory of foreign language learning.

2.6.2 Self-Esteem:

Performers without self-esteem and self-confidence are usually observed to be failures in any job. Self-esteem is probably the most pervasive aspect of any human behaviour. Brown (1987) quotes Coopersmith (1967) to refer to a well accepted definition of "self-esteem":

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By self-esteem, we refer to the evaluation which an
individual believes himself to be capable, significant,
successful and worthy. In short, self-esteem is a per-
sonal judgement of worthiness that is expressed in the
attitudes that the individual holds towards himself. It
is a subjective experience which the individual conveys
to others by verbal reports and other overt expressive
behaviour. (p.101-2)

Brown (1987) examined self-esteem in three levels:

a) General or global self-esteem,

b) Situational or specific self-esteem,

c) Task self-esteem.

In an experiment Adelaide Heyde (1979) examined the
effects of the three levels of self-esteem on performance of
an oral production task by American college students learning
French as a foreign language. She found that all three
levels of self-esteem correlated positively with performance
on the oral production measure, with the highest correlation
occuring between task self-esteem and performance on oral
production measures.

Becker, at al (1971) mentioned some teaching procedures
that help to form confident students who like school and
themselves. "First, the students must receive praise and
other demonstrations that they are capable, successful, smart
and so forth. Second, the model the teacher presents is also
very important. This model, itself, must be an instance of
'I can do it', 'I can succeed if I work hard', 'I am smart',
or 'Learning is fun'. The teacher is able to show the

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students through her behavior what she wants them to learn. Third, it is essential to have an academic program that is suitable for the students-one in which they can learn and succeed with a low error rate. Such a program should also provide frequent demonstrations that the student is smart and capable. Academic failure and the unproductive use of punishment are two major causes of self-esteem in the society. Becker , at al (1971) suggest two specific attitudes that can be taught systematically as a part of teaching for promoting self-esteem. These attitudes are "Persistence pays off" and "I know when I am right".

Teaching persistence is very important in reaching the success. If the student has not learned that persistence leads to success, s/he may stop before there is a chance to succeed and be reinforced for doing so. Students need to learn according to the rule, "If I keep trying, I will succeed". established in school.

In developing speaking skill task self-esteem comes into the stage. The student needs task self-esteem while performing speech. He should trust himself that he can speak if he tries and goes on and on.

Covington and Beery in Gardiner (1980), on the other hand, argue that schools often lower the self-esteem of students. According to Gardiner "self-esteem is linked by schools and

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other socializing agencies to intellectual ability which is, in turn, linked to scholastic performance. Since a competative atmosphere is set up in the classroom, there can be only a few successes and many failures. Students become apprehensive about failing since this reflects back on their intellectual ability which reflects, in turn, on their self-esteem. Many students become oriented toward avoiding failure rather than achieving success... They fail because of the fear of failing and this is frustrating for the teacher" (Gardiner 1980: 108).

2.6.3 Inhibition:

All human beings, in their understanding of themselves build sets of ego protecting defenses. According to Brown (1987) some persons -those with higher self-esteem and ego strength- are more able to withstand threats to their existence and thus their defences are lower. Those with weaker self-esteem maintain walls of inhibition to protect what is self-perceived to be a weak or fragile ego, or a lack of self-confidence in a situation or task.

One of the rare studies on inhibition in relation to second language learning was executed by Guiora at al.(1972). Guiora designed an experiment to prove his claim that the notion of ego boundaries is relevant to language learning.

Small amounts of alcohol were used to induce temporary states of less than normal inhibition in an experimental group of subjects. The performance on a pronunciation test in Thai of subjects given the alcohol was significantly better than the performance of a control group. Guoria concluded that a direct relationship existed between inhibition (a component of language ego) and pronunciation ability in a foreign language. (in Brown 1987)

Any language learner must be aware that learning a foreign language entails making mistakes. The progress in learning the language can take place by risking to make mistakes. If one does not attempt to speak the language unless he is sure of the accurcy of his speech it will be very hard for him to communicate productively forever. Brown (1987) discusses the "conflict" in the psychological world of the language learner in respect to the threats which the committed mistakes pose on the learner. Threats come from two directions: internal and external. Internal threats arouse within the personality of the learner. The person has two selves; "critical self" and "performing self". These two selves can be in conflict:when the learner performs something "wrong" his critical self critisizes his own mistake. Externally, the learner perceives others exercising their critical selves, even judging his very person when she blun-

ders in a second language. Stevick (1976) contributes to the discussion contending that learning a second language comprises a number of forms of alienation, "alienation between the critical me and the performing me, between my native culture and my target culture and my teacher and between me and my fellow students. This alienation arises from the defenses that we build around ourselves. These defenses do not facilitate learning; rather they inhibit learning, and their removal therefore can promote language learning, which involves self-exposure to a degree manifested in few other endeavours" (in Brown 1987: 104).

Although alienation does not play as much a role as in Learning English as a Foreign Language as it does in Learning English as a Second Language, which is peculiar to Turkey, the students coming from different remote parts of Anatolia are affected by those factors to a certain extent. Anomie is one of these that students feel uncertainty about their place and loyalty in the new situation.

2.6.4 Risk-taking:

A primary characteristic of good language learners, according to Rubin (1975), was a willingness to "guess". Students "have to be able to gamble a bit, to be willing to try out hunches about the language and take the risk of being

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wrong" (Brown 1987: 104-5).

For Beebe (1983) risk-taking is important in both class-room and natural setting: In the classroom, these risks may appear as a bad grade in the course, a failure on the exam, a reproach from the teacher, a smirk from a classmate, punishment or embarrasment imposed by oneself.

The silent student in the classroom is the one who fears to appear foolish when s/he makes mistakes. Self-esteem seems closely connected to risk-taking factor: when those foolish mistakes are made, a person with high global self-esteem is not daunted by the possible consequences of being laughed at. Beebe (1983) notes that fosssilization, or the relatively permenant incorporation of certain patterns of error, may be due to a lack of willingness to take risks. It is "safe" to stay within patterns that accomplish the desired function even though there may be some errors in those patterns. In a few uncommon cases, overly high risk-takers, as they dominate the classroom with wild gambles, may need to be "tamed" a bit by the teacher. But most of the time our problem as a teacher will be to encourage students to guess somewhat more willing-ly than the usual student is prone to do, and to value them as persons for those risks they take. (Brown 1987)

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2.6.5 Anxiety:

Anxiety is not easy to define in a simple sentence. It is a complex construct related to a number of other psychological constructs which seem to play a role in triggering anxious experiences. Various authorities have discussed anxiety in connection with problems of self-esteem, inhibition, and problems with risk-taking. Scovel (1978), on the other hand, defined anxiety in descriptive terms as "a state of apprehension; a vague fear" (in Brown 1987: 106) which is associated with feelings of uneasiness, self-doubt, apprehension or worry.

Brown (1987) studied anxiety at various levels like self-esteem. At the deepest or global level **trait anxiety** is a more permenant predisposition to be anxious. Some people are predictably and generally anxious about many things. At a more momentary, or situational level, **state anxiety** is experienced in relation to some particular event or act. In the classroom it is important for a teacher to determine whether a student's anxiety arises from a more global trait or comes from a particular situation at the moment. Anxiety seems to be negative, something to be avoided in any case. It is usual just before in-class talks for almost all students.

2.6.6 Motivation:

Motivation, which is a crucial affective factor in language learning, involves the learners' willingness to learn the foreign language. It is probably the most often used term for explaining the success or failure of any task in language class. Brown (1987) defined motivation as "an inner drive, impulse, emotion or desire that moves student to a particular action" (p.114). Gardner and Lambert (1972) have identified two motivational orientations for second language learning: an integrative motivation and an instrumental motivation.

Integrative motivation as they hypothesized "implies a desire to identify with native speakers of a language in certain ways. Instrumental motivation is manifested by those who wish to acquire the language as a tool for practical purposes" (Rivers 1983: 113). Instrumental motivation, on the contrary, "refers to motivation to acquire a language as a means for attaining instrumental goals: furthering a career, reading technical material, translation and so forth" (Brown 1987: 115).

An integrative motive is employed when learners wish to integrate themselves within the culture of the second language group, to identify themselves with and become a part of that society. After identification of these two kind of motivation, we may conclude, that our students need

instrumental motivation since they study English here in Turkey as a Foreign Language. Up to now little is known about motivation because it is related with people's inner world, their psychological situation. It affects one's psychology against a behaviour. After many experiments Gardner and Lambert (1972) pointed out that students with integrative motivation had a very high performance on the target language in comparison with students who had instrumental motivation. Some teachers and researchers even claimed that for a successful second language learning integrative motivation is extremely essential.

Paris at al. (1983) argue that information about students' need hierarchies is helpful in anticipating their interests and concerns and predicting their free-choice behaviors. Need for achievement is valid in the classroom. Failure is regarded as a monster by the students in school. That is why, they are much more concerned with avoiding failure rather than achieving success. Even for those oriented toward success, excessive demands become counter-productive.

Dobson (1988) points out the role of the teacher in motivating the students. According to her "a primary responsibility of the teacher is to revive motivation. Without strong motivation students will fail in their attempt to

bridge the gap between manipulative and the communicative phase of language learning, and their hopes of speaking English fluently will never be realized. Your own personality and outlook may provide students with fresh motivation. If you have a genuine interest in the students and their welfare, if you smile often and give praise where deserved, if you are responsive to students' difficulties, and if you show faith in their abilities,they will try harder to succeed in speaking English" (Dobson M. Julia 1988: 15).

As to the role of motivation with the skill of speaking, students realize that in order to communicate orally in English they should attempt to talk and find opportunity to speak. They will learn to speak through speaking. Teachers should not look for the errors of student talk as a failure, but rather they should look for the well used forms as success.

2.6.7 The Role of Listening Skill:

Conversation is essentially interaction among persons, and comprehension plays a role, as well as skill in expression. The student may have acquired skill in expressing himself in the new language code, but have had little practice in understanding the language when spoken at a normal speed of delivery in a conversational situtation.

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Learners need a certain period of time to prepare for speaking before they start to speak. We should be cautious about forcing them to speak before they are ready. How children learn their first language can be a model which the target language learning may be based on. In this model, of the first language listening skill, listening is far in advance of speaking. A mother repeats her baby the words; mum, dad, beautiful, good, bad, and so forth, thousands of times. Then the baby learns these words or learns how to respond to them. S/he gains an intimacy towards these words and when the time comes produces them easily. From the observations we can infer that listening precedes speaking. Asher (1977) names listening as a "blueprint for the future acquisition of speaking" (p. 2-3).

An experiment by Ervin (1964) in Asher (1977) supports this hypothesis that "young children had no difficulty in understanding model sentences spoken by adults. But when these children were asked to imitate a sentence immediately after it was uttered by an adult, they were unable to do this accurately. Their attempts at imitation were not copies of what the adult said but were distorted according to a concept the child had about the nature of English. This concept, we would suggest, was acquired through listening comprehension.

Finally, listening skill may produce a "readiness" for

the child to speak. Speaking may be like walking in that attempts to speed up the appearance of this behavior before the child is ready, may be futile. As listening comprehension develops, there is a point of readiness to speak in which the child spontaneously begins to produce utterences" (Asher 1977: 2-2.3).

According to the input hypothesis, "speaking is not absolutely essential for language acqusition. We acquire from what we hear (or read) and understand not from what we say. The input hypothesis claims that the best way to teach speaking is to focus on listening (and reading) and spoken fluency will emerge on its own"(Krashen and Terrell 1986:56).

As students move into the advanced stage of learning the foreign language, Rivers (1968) contends that many teachers give up regular training in the speaking skill. Class activities mainly focus on reading and writing with concurrent attempts at discussion of subjects which students have little previous knowledge. Students find themselves lost in the pool of literary concepts and novel terminology which even they have not adequate competence in the native language. Consequently a pall of silence falls over the class. The teacher tries to lecture in desperation. Certain guiding principles may help the teacher to see how to plan his work so that further training in this important skill is

not neglected. The role of listening in expressing one's meaning in FL cannot be underestimated.

The student would find the opportunity of mingling with native speakers of English and hear the language spoken around him continually in a foreign country. After a period he advances to the stage where he speaks like those around him. However, Rivers goes on, "this constant hearing of the language throughout the day is missing in the school environment. Without this opportunity to pattern his utterences continually on an authentic model the student begins to flounder, his dearly won control of structure and conversational expressions being too frail to resist the growing pressure of native language interference as he tries to express himself in a more mature fashion. He must be given opportunities for careful and attentive listening to foreign language material at frequent intervals, either in a laboratory, or with a tape recorder or record player.

"If the student has a distinct auditory image of what his speech should sound like, he will be able to listen to his own speech more critically, with a greater possibility of adjusting it gradually to the model of native speech to which he listens frequently" (Rivers 1968: 199).

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2.8 Situational Barriers:

Learning the language in the classroom:

Imparting students with the information about the language in the classroom could be quite easy. But what is hard is to develop students' ability to use the language for a variety of communicative purposes. This is naturally and easily acquired outside the class in real life. However, foreign language students are obliged to acquire these skills within the artificial limits of classroom. So as to develop the skills needed for this, particularly the oral ones: understanding and speaking, we have to cope with a number of obstacles, such as:

* the size of the class,

* the arrangement of the classroom,

* the number of hours available for teaching the language,

* the syllabus, and examinations, which may discourage the teachers from giving adequate attention to the spoken language.

Classes in our universities usually have not less than thirty students. That crowd does not let the class activate and work fluently. The teacher often cannot find opportunity to deal with each student and give chance him to speak or participate in class-work.

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Desks are still and fixed in an order which may not allow to move. Often two students share one desk, students sit as to see their backs only. The teacher rarely reaches the back of class and makes her voice heard.

The number of class hours is not adequate. For instance, a teacher spending one or two class hours on reading or writing could hardly save time to do oral practice on the same subject. Actually, available class hours cannot and should not be spent on oral work.

A dense and dull syllabus may discourage the teachers from giving sufficient attention to the spoken English while demotivating the students from participating in class-talk. (Donn Byrne 1983)

2.9 Communicative Methods and Their Attitudes Toward Speaking

2.9.1 Audio-Lingual Method (ALM):

The theory behind ALM lies in structuralism. An important principle of structural linguistics was that the primary medium of language is oral: Language is speech. According to ALM learning a foreign language is "a process of mechanical habit formation". Thus, memorization of dialogues, performance of pattern drills are primary activities existed in ALM. Language is verbal behavior that is the automatic production

and comprehension of utterences. The method introduces the spoken form of the language first, before they are seen in written form so that other language skills are learned more efficiently. For the development of other language skills a base is needed and this is established through "aural oral" training.

While speech is the most prominent feature of ALM students are often discouraged by the immediate correction of speech errors by the teacher. The method views language learning as a "habit formation". Good habits are acquired by giving correct responses. Hence, the teacher promptly corrects the mistakes the students commit in order not to lead fossilization. This may discourage the students willing to respond to the teacher stimulus. Actually the method has no principles to tackle with students psychology and feelings (Larsen Freeman, 1986).

2.9.2 The Silent Way:

Caleb Gattegno's Silent Way is based on "the premise that the teacher should be silent as much as possible in the classroom and the learner should be encouraged to produce as much language as possible. The general objective of the Silent Way is to give beginning level students oral and aural facility in basic elements of the target language" (Richards

and Rodgers 1986: 103). The purpose of teacher's silence is
to remove him from the center of the class and develop
independent, responsible and autonomous learners.

The Silent Way claims to facilitate what psychologists
call "learning to learn". The process chain that develops
awareness proceedes from attention, production, self-
correction, and absorption. Silent Way learners acquire
'inner criteria'which plays a central role in one's education
throughout all of one,s life" (Gattegno 1976: 29). "These
inner criteria allow learners to monitor and self-correct
their own production" (Richards and Rodgers 1986: 103).

Learning is seen to be gradual, involving imperfect
performance at the beginning. The teacher helps students to
develop a way to learn on their own. By giving students only
what they absolutely need, by assisting them to develop their
own "inner criteria", and by remaining silent much of the
time, the teacher tries to help students to become self-
reliant and increasingly independant of the teacher (Larsen
Freeman 1986). Richards and Rodgers (1986) also indicate that
"the absence of correction and corrected modeling from the
teacher requires the students to develop "inner criteria" and
to correct themselves. The absence of explanations requires
learners to make generalizations, come to their own
conclusions,and formulate whatever rules they themselves feel
they need" (p. 106).

2.9.3 Suggestopedia:

Georgi Lozanov, the inventor of suggestopedia, (1978) feels that the inadequacy of the students in language classes is due to the psychological obstacles they establish before themselves. Among these obstacles fear of failure ranks first. Students should be helped to get these obstacles over and entirely open their "mental power". This could be achieved by "desuggesting" their self-imposed limitations. Larsen Freeman (1986) touches that point while mentioning the goals of suggestopedia: "Teachers hope to accelerate the process by which students learn to use a foreign language for everyday communication. In order to do this, more of the students' mental power must be tapped. This is accomplished by desuggesting the psychological barriers learners bring with them to the learning situation" (p. 81). According to Lozanov (1978) students will learn best if their conscious attention is focused, not on the language forms, but on using the language. Therefore, speaking communicatively is emphasized in in-class activities. Vocabulary also takes a significant attention on the success of the method. It often focuses on the large number of words that can be acquired (Larsen Freeman 1986).

Evaluation is usually conducted on students' normal in-class performance and not through formal tests, which would

threaten the relaxed atmosphere considered essential for accelerated learning.

Student error is not corrected immediately and obliquely in order not to discourage the student and disturb the flow of communication. When errors of form occur the teacher uses the correct form at a later time during class.

2.9.4 Community Language Learning (CLL):

Human beings are not made up of flesh and bone only. They have soul, feelings, intellect, and some other sipiritual beings too. Community Language Learning which is derived from Counseling-Learning approach that is originally developed by Charles Curran considers students' these characteristics and treats them as "whole persons". According to the method teachers should also recognize and understand "the relationships among students' physical reactions, their instinctive protective reactions and their desire to learn" (Larsen-Freeman 1986:89).

The major goal of CLL is communication in the target language,hence listening (understanding) and speaking skills are primarily emphasized.

For many years, studying and examining the adults learning foreign language Curran discovered that a new learning situation often threatens the adults. For fear of

appearing comic and the change inherent in learning they build barriers before themselves. Curran believed that these barriers could be overcomed by applying a "counseling-learning" approach. For this, it is essential to develop a community among the class members since it will build trust and help reduce the threat of the new learning situation. (Larsen Freeman 1986)

The CLL teacher takes the role of a counselor and the learners take the role of the clients. "Clients are people with problems, who in a typical counseling session will often use emotional language to communicate their difficulties to the counselor. The counselor's role is to respond calmly and nonjudgementally, in a supportive manner" (Richards and Rodgers 1983: 122). For the clients to learn and to grow, a safe environment is required. If they feel secure they will learn best. Curran describes the importance of a secure atmosphere in Richards and Rodgers (1983: 123) as follows:

> As whole persons, we seem to learn best in an atmosphere of personal security. Feeling secure, we are freed to approach the learning situation with the attitude of willing opennes. Both the learner's and the knower's level of security determine the psychological tone of the entire learning experience (Curran 1976: 6).

Correction of errors is done indirectly. The teacher provides a correct paraphrase of what the student has said in a non threatening way. The teacher being sensitive to students' limitations and not overwhelming them creates a stress-

free atmosphere. Another important tenet of the method is that teacher invites students to express their feelings, how they felt during class, was it fun, boring, beneficial, etc.

All these characteristics of the method encourage the students to speak freely and comfortably in class among classmates.

2.9.5 Total Physical Response (TPR):

Almost all the newer communicative methods in foreign language learning give more emphasis on the speaking skill and the communicative use of language than other areas of language skills. It is obvious that before the oral production -it is valid also for written production- emerges a certain amount of time is required to constitute that production.

Despite the fact that TPR aims to make the learners skillful in the production of the language,"understanding the spoken language precedes its production"(Larsen Freeman 1986: 117). Therefore,listening skill receives more significance in the method. It is already apparent from students' performance of body movement as a response to the teacher command that students listen attentively to what the teacher wants so that they could react appropriately. This choral physical reaction also creates a relaxed, stress-free air in the classroom and

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confirms that learning can be fun. The inventor of TPR, James J. Asher, argues the role of affective factors in language learning. His ideas are in line with the school of humanistic psychology, he believes that "a method that is undemanding in terms of linguistic production and that involves gamelike movements reduces learner stress... and creates a positive mood in the learner, which facilitates learning" (Richards and Rodgers 1983: 87).

The emphasis of TPR on developing comprehension skills combines it to "comprehension approach" which outlines the development of language learning as follows:

a) comprehension abilities precede productive skills,
b) the teaching of speaking should be delayed until comprehension skills are established,
c) skills acquired through listening transfer to other skills,
d) teaching should emphasize meaning rather than form,
e) teaching should minimize learner stress.
(Richards and Rodgers 1983: 87-88)

Asher draws three influential learning hypothesis for the dimensions of his learning theory. The first of them is the "Bio-Program" which defines an optimal path for first and second language development, second is the "Brain Lateralization" which defines different learning functions in the left and right-brain hemispheres, the third one is the "Reduction Of Stress" which is closely related with the core of this study. A very significant "condition for succesful language learning is the absence of stress" (Richards and Rodgers 1986: 91).

TPR teacher avoids too much and direct error correction in the early stages in order not to disturb and inhibit the learners. Yet, as time advances "more teacher intervention is expected as the learners' speech becomes 'fine tuned'... The teacher also should avoid having too narrow a tolerance for errors in speaking" (Richards and Rodgers 1986: 94). Ramiro Garcia has done a classroom study of pronunciation which lasted over two years. In three high school classes he tested for "fidelity" of pronunciation at different times during year. One class was the focus of an intensive pronunciation practice. Another class was given occasional training and the third one got no training. Ramiro observed that individual differences are a powerful variable in accounting for quality of pronunciation, but what's more is the age differences. Children younger than puberty have the highest probability of achieving a near-native pronunciation. Ramiro concluded his experiment with the following conclusions. Students trained with TPR are:

a) more spontaneous in speaking,
b) more willing to participate in any production exercise,
c) more self-confident in attempting production.
(Ramiro Garcia, 1988: 15-16)

2.9.6 Natural Approach (NA):

The Natural Approach is designed to develop basic communication skills in the target language. The theory of the method is based on Krashen's views of second language acqusition.The name "Natural Approach" comes from the natural sequence of acquiring the first language. According to Krashen an adult learns a second language best as a child acquires his mother tongue. (Krashen and Terrel 1983)

Language development takes place step by step in the natural order. Krashen studies the developmental stages for beginners in three segments:

a) Preproduction (comprehension),
b) Early Production,
c) Speech Emergence.

Natural Approach is a method which considers language learning as naturalistic development of human body together with the emotion. Therefore, it is necessary to review its basic principles which affect learners in-class talk briefly.

In NA foreign language classes students are allowed to progress naturally from one stage to another. In early stages students' grammatical accuracy is rather low. For that reason, they are not "forced to speak before they are ready. In addition, speech errors which do not interfere with communication are not corrected; while the correction of

errors may help learning, acquired competence comes from comprehensible input" (Krashen and Terrell 1983: 20). So the more comprehensible input is provided the better the acqusition is. And this input should be "slightly beyond their current level of competence"(Richards and Rodgers 1983: 132) that Krashen calls I+1.

The syllabus of NA consists of communicative goals, that is each activity is dependent on a topic rather than grammatical structure. "Activities in the classroom focus at all times on topics which are interesting and relevant to the students and encourage them to express their ideas, opinions, desires, emotions and feelings" (Krashen and Terrell 1983:21).

One of the five hypothesis of NA is the Input Hypothesis. This hypothesis claims "that listening comprehension and reading are of primary importance in the language program, and that the ability to speak (or write) fluently in a second language will come on its own with time. Speaking fluency is thus not 'taught' directly; rather, speaking ability 'emerges' after the acquirer has built up competence through comprehending input" (Krashen and Terrell 1983: 32).

According to another hypothesis, the affective filter, "acquirers with a low affective filter seek and receive more input, interact with confidence and are more receiptive to the input they receive" (Richards and Rodgers 1986: 133).

Richards and Rodgers summarize the implications of five hypothesis of Natural Approach:

1. As much comprehensible input as possible must be presented.
2. Whatever helps comprehension is important. Visual aids are useful,as is exposure to a wide range of vocabulary rather than study of syntactic structure.
3. The focus in the classroom should be on listening and reading; speaking should be allowed to 'emerge'.
4. In order to lower the affective filter,student work should center on meaningful communication rather than on form; input should be interesting and so contribute to a relaxed classroom atmosphere. (Richards and Rodgers 1986: 133-4)

CHAPTER 3.

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction:

This chapter of the thesis presents the methodology of the research. It discusses how the literature review was executed, what procedure was followed to collect data, how the findings were analyzed and comparisons were made. The description is presented in a chronological order.

3.2 Literature Review:

The research of the relevant literature was done at libraries in Ankara: MA TEFL and the university libraries at Bilkent, Gazi, Hacettepe and METU, the American and British Culture libraries and the USIS library. In addition, the YOK documentation center was utilized to reach some needed sources.

While reviewing the literature my main concern was with studies and discussions by psychologists about the behavior of students because I believe that individual psychology and social psychology contributed significantly to the understanding of an individual's behavior, especially when the behavior occurs in public. The general psychology of teaching and learning were examined prior to the specific psychology of language teaching and learning. Ultimately my

focus was upon the psychology of speaking. The nature and production of speech were analyzed, and then the affective factors which are of primary importance for speech in the classroom were examined. Only six issues relating to affect were examined in the study as the scope of it did not allow for more. These are: the affective domain, self-esteem, inhibition, anxiety, risk-taking, and motivation. Next, the importance of listening skill while developing speaking skills was examined. The situational barriers affecting the classroom interaction were discussed and the last part of the the literature review was about communicative methods which give consideration to the feelings of the students in class situations. These are Audio-Lingual Method, The Silent Way, Suggestopedia, Community Language Learning, Total Physical Response, and The Natural Approach.

3.3 Development of the questionnaire:

In order to test my hypothesis that some students in our schools have certain psychological problems which block them from speaking or starting speech in class, I planned to conduct a survey of students and teachers. Therefore, two questionnaires were originally prepared. Later, as it became obvious that teachers' perception would fall beyond the scope of this study as well as because of time constraints, the

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teachers' questionnaire was set aside to use for a future study.

The students' questionnaire consisted of three parts. The first part identifies certain demographic variables of the respondents. These are age, sex, family income, sense of well-being, and the place of education before university. The second part sought to reasone the students'general talkativeness in their native tongue, whether they are talkative by nature,feel excited while talking to a high ranking person or to a new acquaintance. This section contained three questions in yes-no form which were written in Turkish as they aimed at measuring respondent's general talkativenes and it seemed that the respondants' mother tongue would tap this trait better. The third part of the questionnaire aimed at measuring the students' anxiety level of speech in class situations. It consisted of two sections each containing 12 questions. The first section was in Turkish and sought to measure anxiety about talking in one's native language in the clasroom,and the second part consisted of English equivalents of the same questions with particular to speaking classes in English. Ten of the questions were in Likert scale form asking for ratings from 1 to 5, and two asked for the rank ordering of five items. These rank ordered questions aim to find the reasons that make students willing or unwilling to

speak. The purpose of asking the same or similar questions in language 1. and in language 2. was to test whether talkativenes is a general trait peculiar to the person or something which appears only in the language classroom.

Some of the questions in the questionnaire were adapted from a written source by Porter, at al. (1985) and others are originally developed by me. They assumed the final shape after several editorial reviews by the staff members at Bilkent. The preparation of successive drafts of the questionnaires lasted for approximately more than two months. Interviews with the experts at Hacettepe, Gazi and Bilkent Universities provided for the contribution of their opinions as to whether certain questions were appropriate for this research. As a result, some questions were dropped and other relevant ones were added.

3.4 Distribution of the questionnaire:

The questionnaire was distributed at 7 Universities at diverse sites in Turkey. These are Gazi, METU, Hacettepe Universities in Ankara, 19 Mayıs University in Samsun, Anadolu University at Eskişehir, Çukurova University at Adana, and Atatürk University at Erzurum. The sample provided for the inclusion of Anatolian and cosmopolitan Universities because it was hypothesized that in the Turkish culture

students coming from small towns would be less talkative than those coming from metropolitan areas.

When the first draft of the questionnaire was ready, a pilot administration was conducted at Gazi University. A time was arranged with the speaking class teacher and the questionnaires were distributed to about 20 students. After filling out the papers the respondents were allowed to express their opinions about the question types. Since some students had difficulty in understanding the instructions, the instructions were made clearer. And an open ended question was added at the end. It asks for extra information about what could and should be done to improve speaking skill in-class activities.

The administration of the questionnaire entailed a number of difficulties. It required considerable time and effort, and the researcher acquired considerable experience in coping with the difficulties which are characteristics of such studies. Scheduling was a burden since the classes were already at work. On certain days, I took the questionnaires to the universities, handed them to the class teachers, did the necessary explanations and waited in the teachers room to get them back. Some of the teachers refused administering the questionnaire during class time with the apology that they had enough work of their own to do. They distributed it to

the students to fill in at home and bring back later. Unfortunately, most of these papers were not returned.

Out of Ankara Universities, MA TEFL participants, had taken the questionnaire while going for their own research and brought it back. The only university was 19 Mayıs University where the questionnaire was mailed and 100% of them were sent back.

3.5 Analysis of data:

A total of 400 questionnaires were distributed and 269 were returned. Yet, this number is still rather large to handle and not necessary given the scope of this study. Hence 100 questionnaires of 269 were selected at random for analysis.

To do the analysis of the collected data first, the questionnaries were separated and quantified according to the variables which are university, age, sex, place of back-ground education, family income and sense of well-being. Later since the university and age variables did not show significant results in accounting for classroom speech anxiety they were excluded from the analysis. The first three Turkish questions were formulated as a talkativeness scale and all the variables except university and age were cross-tabbed with other ones. The results were evaluated according

to the "chi square" which is a technique of analyzing frequencies. Each item in the next part was again cross-tabbed Turkish by English. This yielded Tables 5 through 14 which show a very high correlation between classroom speech anxiety scale(CSAS) in Turkish and in English. As the work progressed it was noted that the last two items (of ranking type) and the open ended question were beyond the scope of the present study and their analysis were postponed for a future study.

3.6 Limitations and cautions:

Students in Ankara universities took the questionnaire at an inconvenient time that was the middle exam week. They might not have given it enough attention because of the stress of the exams. Another inconvenience was that they responded to the Turkish and English parts at the same time, at the same setting. It would have been better if they took the Turkish one at a different time in a Turkish speaking situation and the English one in an EFL speaking class.

Before starting to prepare this questionnaire some other ways of research and data collection were considered. For example, visitations to classrooms would have been paid in order to observe the students interacting with one another and the teacher organizing the class talk, getting students to participate in discussions and conversations. Another idea

was to work with a group of about 15 students on an experiment. These students would have been recorded secretly while talking in class at several times. And then they were going to be asked to talk to a tape recorder. Then the talks would have been compared to find out if there were any difference in terms of spontaneity, choice of words, comfort and pronunciation. But because of the inconveniencies these ideas were kept in mind to be utilized for further studies if the opportunity allows.

CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION and ANALYSIS of DATA

4.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the processing and analysis of questionnaired data. These processing consisted of preparing frequency counts and cross-tabulations and enabled analysis consisting of the preparation of tables and the statistical computation of chi square.

4.2 Presentation and Analysis of Data

4.2.1 Question 1. Do female EFL students report themselves more talkative than male students?

Table 4.1 shows the cross-tabulation of self-report on talkativeness by sex. It is addressed to the question: Do the men (in one sample) report themselves more (the same or less) talkative than women. The table also shows the 'expected frequencies' based on the proportion of cases in the cells (i.e.row totals multiplied by column totals and divided by the number of cases) which were necessary for the computation of chi square. The table is based on an analysis of the responses of 100 questionnaires which, as noted in chapter 3, were selected from the avaliable sample of 269. In the analysis of this -and all others- table chi square calculation the formula used is:

$$X^2 = \Sigma d(f_o - f_e)^2 / f_e$$

Σ = sum

f = frequency observed

f = frequency expected

d = difference between $f_o - f_e$

This formula is used to analyze bivariate tables to determine interdepence. The actual computation of chi square is shown in Table 4.1a, see Appendix B.

The rating scale used to measure talkativeness runs from 0 to 6 where 0 means rather quiet while 6 means extreme talkativeness. The talkativeness scale was derived from three items (numbered 1 through 3) on the first page of the questionnaire. See Appendix A. The first of these items is the most general one encompassing all of the three. "Are you a talkative person by nature?" It was assigned 3 points if the responded replied "yes". The second item asks if the respondent gets nervous when talking to a new acquaintance. It was assigned 2 points if the answer was "no". The third item asks whether the respondent is embarrassed while talking to a high ranking person and it was assigned 1 point in case of a "no" reply. Respondents were assigned scores 0-6 on the basis of their response patterns to these three items.

Table 4.1 Self report on talkativeness by sex.

Rating	Males f_o	Males f_e	Females f_o	Females f_e	Total
0	9	(6.93)	12	(14.07)	21
1	1	(0.99)	2	(2.01)	3
2	2	(2.31)	5	(4.97)	7
3	5	(7.59)	18	(15.41)	23
4	–	(0.66)	2	(1.34)	2
5	5	(6.27)	14	(12.73)	19
6	11	(8.25)	14	(16.75)	25
Total	33		67		100

X^2 = 5.04   df = 11.1   not significant beyond 0.005

4.2.2 The computation of chi square

Total number of the cases was 100. Thirty three out of the hundred were males and 67 were females. The entries in the column under "f_o" show the number of students who marked the corresponding number from 0 to 6.

Let's examine the first row of Table 4.1 where the rating scale value is 0. The observed number of the males who marked 0 was 9 and the observed number of females was 12. The total is 21.

The "expected frequency" was obtained when the total number of males (33) was multiplied by the total number of

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respondents with a scale value of 0 (21) and divided by the total number of cases (100). The resulting expected frequency is 6.93.

In order to find "d" (the difference between observed frequency and expected frequency), "f_o" is subtracted from "f_e" and d^2 is taken. When the actual computation is shown, the value of d (2.07) is not shown because of the lack of space but d^2 is shown (4.285). The division of "d^2", 6.93 by "f_e", 4.285 gives the value 0.618. The sum of all d^2/es for males yields 3.378 and value for all females is 1.662. The grand total 5.04 which is the value chi square for these data.

4.2.3 Interpretation of chi square

What does this number mean? Nothing itself. To find out what it means we should first check its significance level in the chi square table which provides a probability value for chi squares at various degrees of freedom (df). The degrees of freedom is equal to the number of rows by one times the number of columns by one (df = (r-1) (c-1)) which, in the present example is 5. Such a table was entired at 5 df found in almost all statistics texts and available in most statistical packages profound for personal computer. We find that a chi square which is less likely to occur five times in a hundred (the 0.05 significance level) must be as high as 11.1

while the value we obtained is 5.04. Such a chi square value is likely to have occurred more frequently than five times in a hundred. That is to say, it might well have occurred by chance. For this reason we are inclined to conclude that any connection between self-report and talkativeness which we may have thought was perceptible in one data is rather likely to have occurred by chance. No causal connections may appropriately be inferred and we are obliged to report that we found no statistically significant connection to support over hypothesis or to answer a question with a "yes".

4.3 Question 2. Is self-report on talkativeness related to the size of the city in which respondents have grown up.

Table 2. Self report on talkativenes by city size

Rating	large city		small city		Total
	f_o	f_e	f_o	f_e	
0	6	(13.23)	15	(7.77)	21
1	3	(1.89)	–	(1.11)	3
2	4	(4.41)	3	(2.59)	7
3	12	(14.49)	11	(8.51)	23
4	1	(1.26)	1	(0.74)	2
5	12	(11.97)	7	(7.03)	19
6	25	(15.75)	–	(9.25)	25
Total:	63		37		100

X^2 = 28.08

df = 5   significant beyond 0.005

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Table 4.2 shows the self-report on talkativeness by the size of city in which the student has grown up. The total number of the students coming from large cities was 63 and from the small cities was 37. That is, more than half of the total cases are from large cities. Twentyfive of the students from large cities reported themselves as extreme talkative while none of the small cities scored a value of 6. And 15 of the students coming from small cities reported themselves as silent while only 6 of large city dwellers did so. In this instance the chi square computation resulted the value 28.08 which proved to be statistically significant beyond the 0.005 level. Since such a chi square occurs by chance only five times in a thousand we are inclined to conclude that our data are not a manifestation of a chance occurrence. On the contrary, this result suggests that self-report on talkativeness and city size are interdependent in our Turkish EFL students. Our inspection of the values in the Table suggest that people from the large cities are the ones who reported themselves as talkative.

4.4 Question 3. Is self-report on talkativeness related to the economic status of the family the student comes from?

Table 3. Self report on talkativeness by family income. (million TL.per month)

Rating	>1.million TL f_o	f_e	1-2 million TL f_o	f_e	<2.million TL f_o	f_e	Total
0	15	(7.56)	5	(9.03)	1	(4.41)	21
1	1	(1.08)	-	(1.29)	2	(0.63)	3
2	3	(2.52)	3	(3.01)	1	(1.47)	7
3	11	(8.28)	12	(9.89)	-	(4.83)	23
4	1	(0.72)	1	(0.86)	-	(0.42)	2
5	3	(6.84)	8	(0.87)	8	(3.99)	19
6	2	(9.00)	14	(10.75)	9	(5.25)	25
Total	36		43		21		100

$X^2 = 38.22$ df = 10   significant beyond 0.005

Table 4.3 shows the self-report on talkativeness by family income. For monthly income, three categories were established which took into account the current life standards during the time this research was done. As is seen in the Table, 15 of the students whose families make less than 1 million TL a month reported themselves as quiet while there were 5 of 1-2 million TL category and only 1 coming from a family earning 2 million TL or more. On the other hand, 2 students whose families make less than 1 million TL per month

reported themselves as extremely talkative, while 14 came
from the 1-2 million TL category, and 9 from the families
earning 2 million TL or more per month. The result of the
computation of chi square yielded the value 38.22 which is
again highly significant in terms of the interdepence between
talkativeness and family income.

4.5 Question 4. Is self-report on talkativeness related to the sense of well-being?

Table 4.4 Self report on talkativeness by sense of well-being.

Ra-ting	bad f_o (f_e)	average f_o (f_e)	good f_o (f_e)	very good f_o (f_e)	To-tal
0	2 (0.63)	12 (9.03)	6 (9.87)	1 (1.47)	21
1	- (0.09)	1 (1.29)	1 (1.41)	1 (0.21)	3
2	- (0.21)	5 (3.01)	2 (3.29)	- (0.49)	7
3	1 (0.66)	6 (9.46)	14 (10.34)	1 (1.54)	22
4	- (0.06)	1 (0.86)	1 (0.94)	- (0.4)	2
5	- (0.57)	10 (8.17)	9 (8.93)	- (1.33)	19
6	- (0.78)	8 (11.18)	14 (12.22)	4 (1.82)	26
To-tal:	3	43	47	7	100

X^2 = 21.59

df = 15

Table 4.4 shows the self-report on talkativeness by
sense of well-being. Sense of well-being is scaled from bad

to very good. See Appendix A. As appears in the table, the majority of the responses are in the middle two columns which are "average" and "good". There are three students who feel that their economic status is bad and two out of three report themselves as quiet. Seven students, reported themselves as having a very good sense of well-being and the 4 of which reported themselves as talkative. We observe in the Table however that those who feel that their economic status is good or average are distributed through the scale in the rows from 0 to 6. The value of chi square (21.59) is less than 25 which is the value needed to report significance at the 0.05 level. Thus our data suggest a relationship but we cannot report the possibility that our result may have occurred by chance.

4.6 The relation between English and Turkish responses on a Classroom Speech Anxiety Scale.

This second part of the data analysis examines the relationship between feelings about speech in native language and the target language. It is based upon data collected by means of Classroom Speech Anxiety Scale (CSAS). It contained items seeking the students' in-class talk. They appeared in the questionnaire in both Turkish and English. Ten bi-variete Tables are presented to show how the responses are. The data for the first item are displayed in Table 4.5 the text was:

I take my turn and talk comfortably and   1   2   3   4   5
easily.

Scale numbers mean, 1: always
                       2: often
                       3: sometimes
                       4: seldom
                       5: never

To determine the interdepence between Turkish and English language use, again, chi-square technique was used. The actual computation of chi square is shown on Table 4.5a. See Appendix B.

As is seen in the Table, the highest frequencies center on the diagonal which implies the responses in Turkish and English are highly correlated. The result of chi-square computation confirms the supposition that the relationship is statistically quite significant. Table 4.6 through 4.14 (and the correspanding Tables showing computations in Appendix B) were all prepared in the same manner and all of them yielded strikingly similar results.

Table 4.5 Cross break of frequencies of ratings by respondents on Turkish Item by English Item 1. on the classroom speech anxiety scale (CSAS). The numbers in parenthesis show the expected frequencies.

		English					
		always 1	2	3	4	never 5	Total
T u r k i s h	1	10 (1.95)	3 (2.25)	1 (5.7)	1 (4.05)	0 (1.05)	15
	2	1 (2.47)	11 (2.85)	5 (7.22)	1 (5.13)	1 (1.33)	19
	3	1 (5.2)	1 (6)	26 (15.2)	8 (10.8)	4 (2.8)	40
	4	1 (2.99)	0 (3.45)	5 (8.74)	16 (6.21)	1 (1.61)	23
	5	0 (3.9)	0 (0.45)	1 (1.14)	1 (0.81)	1 (0.21)	3
Total		13	15	38	27	7	100

X^2 = 113.387

df = 16   significant beyond 0.005

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Table 4.6 Cross break of frequencies of ratings by respondents on Turkish Item by English Item 2. on the classroom speech anxiety scale (CSAS). The numbers in parenthesis show the expected frequencies.

English

		always 1	2	3	4	seldom 5	Total
T u r k i s h	1	6 (0.99)	3 (2.64)	0 (2.75)	0 (3.19)	2 (1.43)	11
	2	2 (1.71)	13 (4.56)	1 (4.75)	3 (5.51)	0 (2.47)	19
	3	1 (2.52)	5 (6.72)	18 (7)	4 (8.12)	0 (3.64)	28
	4	0 (2.88)	2 (7.68)	5 (8)	21 (9.28)	4 (4.16)	32
	5	0 (0.9)	1 (2.4)	1 (2.5)	1 (2.9)	7 (1.3)	10
To- tal		9	24	25	29	13	100

X^2 = 130.07

df = 16   significant beyond 0.005

The second item is:

I lose my calm and get nervous just before getting up to speak.

Table 4.7 Cross break of frequencies of ratings by respondents on Turkish Item by English Item 3. on the classroom speech anxiety scale (CSAS). The numbers in parenthesis show the expected frequencies.

		English					
		always 1	2	3	4	seldom 5	Total
	1	4	6	3	1	1	15
		(1.2)	(3.6)	(6.3)	(3)	(0.9)	
	2	4	14	12	2	1	33
		(2.64)	(7.92)	(13.86)	(6.6)	(1.98)	
T u r k i s h	3	0	3	21	2	1	27
		(2.16)	(6.48)	(11.34)	(5.4)	(1.62)	
	4	0	0	4	15	0	19
		(1.52)	(4.56)	(7.98)	(3.8)	(1.14)	
	5	0	1	2	0	3	6
		(0.48)	(1.44)	(2.52)	(1.2)	(0.36)	
	To-tal	8	24	42	20	6	100

X^2 = 98.56

df = 16   significant beyond 0.005

Item. 3

I look forward to an opportunity to speak in class.

Table 4.8 Cross break of frequencies of ratings by respondents on Turkish Item by English Item 4. on the classroom speech anxiety scale (CSAS). The numbers in parenthesis show the expected frequencies.

English

		always 1	2	3	4	seldom 5	Total
T	1	9	3	0	0	0	12
u		(1.32)	(3.96)	(2.88)	(2.28)	(1.56)	
r	2	1	22	3	0	1	27
k		(2.97)	(8.91)	(6.48)	(5.13)	(3.51)	
i	3	1	5	13	3	1	23
s		(2.53)	(7.59)	(5.52)	(4.37)	(2.99)	
h	4	0	1	4	15	2	22
		(2.42)	(7.26)	(5.28)	(4.18)	(2.86)	
	5	0	2	4	1	9	16
		(1.76)	(5.28)	(3.8)	(3.04)	(2.08)	
	To- tal	11	33	24	19	13	100

X^2 = 159.16

df = 16   significant beyond 0.005

Item 4.

I hesitate when I want to ask a question or state my opinion.

Table 4.9 Cross break of frequencies of ratings by respondents on Turkish Item by English Item 5. on the classroom speech anxiety scale (CSAS). The numbers in parenthesis show the expected frequencies.

		English				
	always 1	2	3	4	seldom 5	Total
1	13	3	2	1	0	19
	(3.04)	(4.37)	(4.18)	(5.51)	(1.9)	
2	1	16	2	7	1	27
	(4.32)	(6.21)	(5.94)	(7.83)	(2.7)	
3	2	3	15	7	0	27
	(4.32)	(6.21)	(5.94)	(7.83)	(2.7)	
4	0	0	3	12	2	17
	(2.72)	(3.91)	(3.74)	(4.93)	(1.7)	
5	0	1	0	2	7	10
	(1.6)	(2.3)	(2.2)	(2.4)	(1)	
Total	16	23	22	29	10	100

(Left margin label: Turkish)

X^2 = 138.28

df = 16   significant beyond 0.005

Item 5.

I feel relaxed and comfortable while speaking in class.

Table 4.10 Cross break of frequencies of ratings by respondents on Turkish Item by English Item 6. on the classroom speech anxiety scale (CSAS). The numbers in parenthesis show the expected frequencies.

		English always 1	2	3	4	seldom 5	Total
T	1	7	2	–	–	–	9
		(1.17)	(2.34)	(2.25)	(1.89)	(1.35)	
	2	1	15	4	2	–	22
		(2.86)	(5.72)	(5.5)	(4.62)	(3.3)	
u	3	3	2	13	1	–	19
r		(2.47)	(4.94)	(4.75)	(3.99)	(2.85)	
k	4	1	5	6	13	1	26
i		(3.38)	(6.76)	(6.5)	(5.46)	(3.9)	
s	5	1	2	2	5	14	24
h		(3.12)	(6.24)	(6)	(5.04)	(3.6)	
	To-tal	13	26	25	21	15	100

X^2 = 93.99

df = 16   significant beyond 0.005

Item 6.

Although I talk fluently with the friends, I am at a loss for words in class.

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Table 4.11 Cross break of frequencies of ratings by respondents on Turkish Item by English Item 7. on the classroom speech anxiety scale (CSAS). The numbers in parenthesis show the expected frequencies.

		English always 1	2	3	4	seldom 5	Total
T	1	1	-	1	-	-	2
u		(0.06)	(0.38)	(0.74)	(0.46)	(0.36)	
r	2	1	10	3	2	-	16
k		(0.48)	(3.04)	(5.92)	(3.68)	(2.88)	
i	3	1	8	24	8	3	44
s		(1.32)	(8.36)	(16.28)	(10.12)	(7.92)	
h	4	-	1	6	12	3	22
		(0.66)	(4.18)	(8.14)	(5.06)	(3.96)	
	5	-	-	3	1	12	16
		(0.48)	(3.04)	(5.92)	(3.68)	(2.88)	
	Total	3	19	37	23	18	100

X^2 = 127.81

df = 16   significant beyond 0.005

Item 7.

I feel that I am more fluent when talking to people than most other people are.

Table 4.12 Cross break of frequencies of ratings by respondents on Turkish Item by English Item 8. on the classroom speech anxiety scale (CSAS). The numbers in parenthesis show the expected frequencies.

		English					
		always 1	2	3	4	seldom 5	Total
T u r k i s h	1	16 (4.14)	– (3.78)	2 (4.14)	– (3.42)	– (2.52)	18
	2	2 (5.52)	14 (5.04)	6 (5.52)	1 (4.56)	1 (3.36)	24
	3	2 (3.91)	4 (3.57)	7 (3.91)	3 (3.23)	1 (2.38)	17
	4	1 (5.06)	2 (4.62)	5 (5.06)	13 (4.18)	1 (3.08)	22
	5	2 (4.37)	1 (3.99)	3 (4.37)	2 (3.61)	11 (2.66)	19
	Total	23	21	23	19	14	100

X^2 = 128.99

df = 16   significant beyond 0.005

Item 8.

I am fearful and tense while speaking before a group.

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Table 4.13 Cross break of frequencies of ratings by respondents on Turkish Item by English Item 9. on the classroom speech anxiety scale (CSAS). The numbers in parenthesis show the expected frequencies.

		English always 1	2	3	4	seldom 5	Total
T	1	8	2	1	1	–	12
		(1.44)	(2.52)	(3.36)	(2.4)	(2.28)	
u	2	3	14	4	2	–	23
		(2.76)	(4.83)	(6.44)	(4.6)	(4.37)	
r	3	1	4	17	2	2	26
k		(3.12)	(5.46)	(7.28)	(5.2)	(4.94)	
i	4	–	–	5	12	2	19
s		(2.28)	(3.99)	(5.32)	(3.8)	(3.61)	
h	5	–	1	1	3	15	20
		(2.4)	(4.2)	(5.6)	(4)	(3.8)	
	To-tal	12	21	28	20	19	100

X^2 = 143.93

df = 16   significant beyond 0.005

Item 9.

I am tense and nervous while participating in group discussions.

Table 4.14 Cross break of frequencies of ratings by respondents on Turkish Item by English Item 10.on the classroom speech anxiety scale (CSAS). The numbers in parenthesis show the expected frequencies.

		English					
		always 1	2	3	4	seldom 5	Total
	1	4	–	1	1	–	6
		(0.54)	(1.44)	(1.92)	(1.02)	(1.08)	
	2	–	13	2	–	2	17
T		(1.53)	(4.08)	(5.44)	(2.89)	(3.06)	
u							
r	3	1	2	18	2	–	23
k							
i		(2.07)	(5.52)	(7.36)	(3.91)	(4.14)	
s							
h							
	4	2	6	7	11	–	26
		(2.34)	(6.24)	(8.32)	(4.42)	(4.68)	
	5	2	3	4	3	16	28
		(2.52)	(6.72)	(8.96)	(4.76)	(5.04)	
	Total	9	24	32	17	18	100

X^2 = 118.97

df = 16   significant beyond 0.005

Item 10.

I feel self-conscious when called upon to answer a question or give an opinion.

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4.7 Conclusion

The result needs to be interpreted with care. Our original intention with the data analysis was to determine whether the feelings about speaking in class (as measured by the CSAS) of the students sampled applied only to their EFL classes or consisted of a general trait. The results in the tables, which show the preponderance of cases distributed along the diagonal and which yielded highly significant chi-squares speak for the conclusion that feelings about speaking in class are general to all types of classes. Yet it must be borne in mind that students responded to the CSAS first in Turkish and immediately thereafter in English and that they may not have been allowed enough time to be able to distinguish between subjective feelings in one or another type of class as they attempted to register them on the questionnaire. Further, the possibility must be allowed for that at least some students failed to note that the English version of the scale was addressed to EFL classes and the Turkish version to other types of classes despite the fact that two versions in two languages were used. (The approach to measuring attitudes in two languages has been tried by Dr. Mary Lee Fields who presented some results in Ankara on Dec. 5, 1989. However, no thoroughgoing analysis of the effective-

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ness and precision of this approach seems to have been reported in the literature.) Thus our interpretation of the results must be limited by misgivings as to whether the measurement produced in the two languages were themselves independent from each other. (In any event the results suggest that the CSAS may be a rather reliable instrument. On the other hand, it may be inferred from the data that not all respondents considered the items in English to be mere translations of the Turkish items. Had they done so, all the cases would have distributed themselves in the diagonals of the tables. When the values in the diagonals are summed for each table, values ranging from 57 through 68 are yielded. That is to say, given 100 respondents, they gave exactly the same response in both English and Turkish from 57 percent to 68 percent of the time across the 10 items. The result suggests not only that distinctions were being made by at least some respondents, but that they were being made differently across languages for each of the items of the scale. The analysis of the data, clearly shows that the talkativeness of students depends on the variables like; city size, family income and sense of well-being, while age and sex do not seem account for it. The students who have grown in small Anatolian towns are less talkative, shyer and do not have self-confidence to speak freely in public, wheres those

who have grown up in large cities talk more, are not shy and seem to have self-confidence. The economic status of the family the student comes from also plays a role on his relations and this affects the talkativeness in a negative way. I think that if the student cannot afford his expenses due to lack of money or go out with his friends in an evening, he will feel upset, and isolate himself from the community. Probably a class distinction according to money earned will be a matter of problem. When he does not have a group of friends he will consequently feel lonely. All these result in the isolation from the social life leading to quietness.

If a student is talkative in Turkish, s/he is also talkative in English. Approximately half of the students have speech anxiety, lack self-esteem and fear from making mistakes. To summarize the result of the analysis in one sentence, there is not a significant difference between native language and target language classroom speech and students are affected by the personal and psychological and social factors while talking.

CHAPTER.5

CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction:

A problem can be solved only by identifying it in its entirety. Getting language learners to speak in class is one of the prominent problems to deal with in Turkish schools of foreign language training. So far, the effort was to identify the reasons why Turkish, particularly English Language Teaching (ELT), students are not willing to speak. What are the factors that push them into silence? What motivates or demotivates them toward speaking? What affects their speech in class? Trying to find logical answers to these and many similar questions, the preceding four chapters have come into existence. After an introduction to the problem, a review of professional literature was conducted to provide the thoughts of various authors on the subject matter. Next a survey was executed on students of ELT departments attending 7 different universities throughout Turkey. This was performed by means of a questionnaire and it resulted in finding some interesting relationships which proved to be statistically significant. These data may be among the first ever to be collected for such a study. They provide significant hints about the talkativeness of students of different backgrounds,

different social status, different economic status and different personality characteristics. It is time to draw some conclusions against the findings of literature review and the findings of data analyses, and to give some recommendations about the key points at teaching the speaking skill eventually, hypothesizing some new conceptions for further studies.

5.2 Conclusions of literature review:

As many authors and language methodologists agree the affective factors are of paramount importance in learning a foreign language. Especially in the oral production, that is speaking, this importance indicates itself clearly. Some students usually keep quiet for fear of making mistakes. Some do not have self-confidence at all. Some others are shy innately; that is why they are embarrassed to talk in public and remain silent. As Rivers (1968) asserts, some students may be talkative or taciturn by nature. These students need encouragement by the teacher. Besides, if the student cannot build a good relationship with his classmates or if he cannot get along with his teacher well he may feel frustrated and pushes himself into silence. Suffice it to say, the atmosphere in the classroom is also important as well as the personal and psychological characteristics of the student.

5.3 Conclusions of data analysis:

Findings from the analysis of data are in line with what the experts have hypothesized. According to the self-report of the students who responded to the questions in the questionnaire, the reasons of talkativeness or quietness show a variety with the students background training, location, economic and social status, and his feelings about his place in the community he is in. Another conclusion to infer from data analysis is that talkativeness in the target language is related to talkativeness in the mother tongue. Therefore it is useless to force a student to talk in English if he is silent in Turkish already.

5.4 Recommandations:

Almost everybody would agree that speaking and listening are two most important and perhaps the most difficult skills to teach students of English as a foreign language. In an EFL situation, as in Turkey, opportunities for practicing listening and speaking in English in an authentic, communicative setting do not abound since students do not generally hear English spoken outside the classroom.

In teaching speaking or preparing students in oral communication, the teacher's role is of paramount importance. The teacher should be alert to recognize the personal

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differences in the classroom. To prevent them grow inhibitions in their inner world, she should relax the atmosphere as much as she could as Lozanov (1978) suggests. Since they need security against a new situation which is threatening, she should set up good relations with and among them. (Curran 1978). The correction of errors should be in an encouraging manner rather than a discouraging way. The best way is to paraphrase the correct form of the speech at a later time during class. (Gattegno 1978) They should not be forced to speak; speaking should be left to emerge on its own (Krashen 1983). That is, students should be allowed to speak when they feel themselves ready to do so. Teachers should provide the students with interesting topics along with systematic presentation, frequent practice and extended listening on the same topic. Topics that bring the students' world into the classroom will make learning more meaningful, while repeated exposure to spoken English will encourage and build oral language skills. Providing students with frequent listening will also expose them to a great deal of language, making them feel less inhibited about approximating English pronunciation. At this point teacher's ability to motivate the students, to arouse their interest and involve them in what they are doing will be crucial. The teacher should be an exemplary listener, listening to students with understanding,

tolerance and patience. Students have to learn how to listen just as they learn how to speak. Teacher should prepare the students psychologically for the listening activity that they will not be able to understand everything they hear and that they should not panic because of this.Jin Yaping is a teacher teaching audio-visual English in Zhejiang Normal University (1988). She is telling her concerns about listening-speaking classes complaining how reluctant her students were to respond to the questions about such a simple listening passage of Nasreddin Hodja. She says that her students will become teachers after graduation. If they cannot speak, or more precisely,express themselves clearly how can they teach their students? Therefore she is very persistent and intense in her efforts with getting them to speak and coaked them internally to participate in class activities.

To sum up, teachers should persist on students' speaking to develop oral skills and for this provide them with as much comprehensible input as they could as Krashen suggests. They need not follow the principles of a certain method strictly in their instruction, because every individual is unique and has his own characteristics, likewise every teaching/learning situation carries its own special conditions. Therefore, what teachers need to do is to set up a suitable atmosphere of education, and the best conditions for learning.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX.A

QUESTIONNAIRE

Yönerge: Aşağıdaki anket iki bölüm halinde düzenlenmiştir. İlk bölüm
Türkçe derslerde ve ana dil deki konuşma durumunuzu tesbite yöneliktir.
Bu bölümü Ingilizceyi dikkate almadan salt ana dildeki performansınızı
düşünerek cevaplandırınız. Ikinci bölümde ise Ingilizce özellikle
Ingilizce Konusma derslerindeki durumunuz belirlenecektir. Cevaplar
bilimsel bir çalışmada veri olarak kullanılacaktır, başka hiç bir amacı
yoktur. Bu yüzden mümkün olduğunca samimi ve gerçek cevaplar vermenizi
diler teşekkür ederim.

Kemal BAŞCI
Bilkent Universitesi
MA. TEFL Program.

Universite:_____

Yaşınız:_____

Cinsiyetiniz: ☐ Erkek ☐ Kız

İlk-orta öğreniminizi yaptığınız yer: Ailenizin aylık geliri

☐   Büyük Şehir   ☐ 1 milyon dan az

☐   Küçük Şehir   ☐ 1 milyon - 2 milyon

☐   Kasaba   ☐ 2 milyon dan fazla

☐   Diger (belirtiniz)_____

Sizce ekonomik durumunuz nasıl ? ☐Cok iyi ☐İyi ☐Orta ☐Kötü

Asagıdaki sorulara Evet yada Hayır şeklinde cevap veriniz.

1. Genelde konuşmayı seven biri misiniz?

   ☐ Evet   ☐ Hayır

2. Yeni tanıştığınız birisiyle konusurken çekinip utanır mısınız?

   ☐ Evet   ☐ Hayır

3. Kendinizden üst düzeydeki kisilerle pek rahat konusamaz heyecanlanır
   mısınız?

   ☐ Evet   ☐ Hayır

Asağıdaki sorularda size uygun gelen sadece bir seçenegi daire içine alarak işaretleyiniz.

	her zaman	çoğu zaman	bazen	nadi ren	asla
***Türkce Derslerde					
1. Sınıf içerisinde söz alıp rahatca konuşurum.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Konuşmaya başlamadan az önce heyecanlanır sükunetimi kaybederim.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Konuyu biliyorsam öğretmen bana sormadan kendim konuşmak icin fırsat kollarım.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Soru soracağım ya da bir fikir belirteceğim vakit tereddüt ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Sınıf icinde konusurken gayet rahat ve sakinimdir.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Arkadaslar arasında cok rahat oldugum halde sınıf icinde ne diyecegimi şaşırırım.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Baskalarıyla konusurken kendimi onlardan daha rahat ve akıcı buluyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Konusurken hata yapma korkusu beni tedirgin eder.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Grup tartışmalarına katılırken heyecanlanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Sınıf içinde fikrim soruldugunda ya da bir soru yöneltildiğinde utanır sıkılırım.	1	2	3	4	5

Asağıdaki ifadelere etki derecesine göre en fazla etkili olana: 1 en az etkili olana: 5 olacak sekilde 1 den 5 e doğru numara veriniz.

Sizi konusmaya isteksiz ve sınıf içi tartısmalarında suskun yapan sebepler:

----- hata yapıp arkadaslarımın arasında küçük düşme korkusu,
----- öğretmen tarafından aşagılanma korkusu,
----- konuların benim için ilginç olmaması,
----- moralimin bozuk olması,
----- kendime güvenimin olmaması,

Sizi konuşkan ve konuşmaya istekli yapan sebepler:

-----hata yapmayacagım ya da hata yapmamın önemsiz olduğuna olan inancım
-----öğretmenimin söyledigim şeyden hoşlanacağı düşüncesi,
-----arkadaşlarımın söylediğim şeyden hoşlanacagi düşüncesi
-----kendimi iyi hissediyorsam,
-----kendime güvenimin var olması

***In English Spoken Lessons:

	al-ways	of-ten	some times	occa-sion ally	ne-ver
1. I take my turn and talk comfortably and easily.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I lose my calm and get nervous just before starting to speak.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I look forward to an opportunity to speak in class.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I hesitate when I want to ask a question or state my opinion.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I feel relaxed and comfortable while speaking in the class.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Although I talk fluently with my friends, I am at a loss for words in class.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I feel that I am more fluent when talking to people than most other people are.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I am fearful and tense while speaking before a group.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I am tense and nervous while participating in group discussions.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I feel self-conscious when called upon to answer a question or give an opinion.	1	2	3	4	5

Rank the statements below from 1 to 5 as they apply to circumstances when you are willing/unwilling to participate in group discussions or class talk.
1: the strongest, 2: strong, 3: neutral, 4: weak, 5: the weakest

What makes you unwilling to speak in class:

----- fear of making mistakes in front of classmates
----- fear of being embarrassed by the teacher
----- uninteresting topics
----- the days when I do not feel well
----- when I do not have self-confidence at all

What makes you eager to speak in class:
----- When I am sure that I won't make a mistake or feel that mistakes don't matter,
----- When I feel the teacher will like my speech, and will not embarrass me
----- When I feel my friends will admire me,
----- When I feel good about myself,
----- When subjects are interesting to me.
NOT: İngilizceyi daha rahat ve akıcı konuşmak için neler yapılabilir? Lütfen önerilerinizi arka sayfaya yazınız.

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APPENDIX B

CALCULATIONS OF CHI SQUARE

Table 4.1a   The chi square* computation of self report on
talkativeness by sex

Rating	Males: f_o	f_e	d^2	d2/e	Females: f_o	f_e	d^2	d^2/e	Total
0	9	6.93	4.285	.618	12	14.07	4.285	.304	21
1	1	.99	.000	.000	2	2.01	.000	.000	3
2	2	2.31	.096	.042	5	4.69	.096	.02	7
3	5	7.59	6.708	.884	18	15.41	6.708	.435	23
4	-	.66	.436	.660	2	1.34	.436	.325	2
5	5	6.27	1.613	.257	14	12.73	1.613	.127	19
6	11	8.25	7.562	.917	14	16.75	7.562	.451	25
Total:	33			3.378	67			1.662	100

$X^2 = 5.04$ df: 1 x 5 = 5

*The computation of "d" is not shown.

Table 4.2a   The chi square* computation of self report on
talkativeness by place of origin

Rating	Large city: f_o	f_e	d^2	d^2/e	Small city: f_o	f_e	d^2	d^2/e	Total
0	6	13.23	52.29	3.951	15	7.77	52.27	6.727	21
1	3	1.89	1.23	.652	-	1.11	1.23	1.11	3
2	4	4.41	.17	.038	3	2.59	.17	.065	7
3	12	14.49	6.2	.428	11	8.51	6.20	.729	23
4	1	1.26	.07	.054	1	.74	.07	.091	2
5	12	11.97	.00	.000	7	7.03	.00	.000	19
6	25	15.75	85.56	5.432	-	9.25	85.56	9.25	25
Total:	63			10.51	37			17.97	100

$X^2 = 28.48$ df: 1 x 5 = 5

*The computation of "d" is not shown.

Table 4.3a The chi square computation* of self report on talkative-
ness by family income(million TL. per month)

Rat-ing	less<1million f_o	f_e	d^2/e	1-2 million f_o	f_e	d^2/e	more>2 million f_o	f_e	d^2/e	To-tal
0	15	7.56	7.32	5	9.03	1.79	1	4.41	2.63	21
1	1	1.08	.00	-	1.29	1.29	2	.63	2.97	3
2	3	2.52	.09	3	3.01	.00	1	1.47	.15	7
3	11	8.28	.89	12	9.89	.45	-	4.83	4.83	23
4	1	.72	.1	1	.86	.02	-	.42	.42	2
5	3	6.84	2.15	8	8.17	.00	8	3.99	4.03	19
6	2	9.00	5.44	14	10.75	.98	9	5.25	2.67	25
To-tal:	36		15.99	43		4.53			17.7	100

X^2 = 38.22   df: 1 x 5 = 5

*The computations of "d" and "d²" are not shown.

Table 4.4a The chi square* computation of self report on
talkativeness by sense of well-being.

Rat-ing	bad f_o	d^2/e	average f_o	d^2/e	good f_o	d^2/e	very good f_o	d^2/e	To-tal
0	2	2.97	12	.97	6	1.51	1	.15	21
1	-	.99	1	.06	1	.11	1	2.97	3
2	-	.21	5	1.34	2	.5	-	.49	7
3	1	.17	6	1.26	14	1.29	1	.18	22
4	-	.06	1	.02	1	.00	-	.4	2
5	-	.57	10	.4	9	.00	-	1.33	19
6	-	.78	8	.9	14	.25	4	2.61	26
To-tal:	3	4.85	43	4.95	47	3.66	7	8.13	100

X^2 = 21.59   df: 1 x 5 = 5

*The computation of "e" is shown in Table 4.4 and the
computations of "d" and "d²"are not shown.

Table 4.5a   The chi square computation of Item 1 on the
             classroom speech anxiety scale.

fo	fe	d(o-e)	d2	d2/fe
10	1.95	8.05	64.8	33.23
1	2.47	1.47	2.16	0.87
1	5.2	4.2	17.64	3.39
1	2.99	1.99	3.96	1.32
-	0.39	3.9	15.21	3.9
3	2.25	0.75	0.56	0.25
11	2.85	8.15	66.42	23.30
1	6	5	25	4.16
-	3.45	3.45	6.9	2
-	0.45	0.45	0.2	0.44
1	5.7	4.7	22.09	3.87
5	7.22	2.22	4.92	0.68
26	15.2	10.8	116.64	7.67
5	8.74	3.74	13.98	1.6
1	1.14	0.14	0.019	0.01
1	4.05	3.05	9.3	2.29
1	5.13	4.13	17.05	3.32
8	10.8	2.8	7.84	0.72
16	6.21	9.79	95.84	15.43
1	0.81	0.19	0.036	0.04
-	1.05	1.05	1.15	1.1
1	1.33	0.33	0.1	0.08
4	2.8	1.2	1.44	0.51
1	1.61	0.61	0.37	0.23
1	0.21	0.79	0.62	2.97
100	100	82.95	494.245	113.387

$X^2 = 113.387$

Table 4.6a   The chi square computation of Item 2. on the
classroom speech anxiety scale.

fo	fe	d(o-e)	d2	d2/fe
6	0.99	5.1	25.1	25.35
2	1.71	0.29	0.08	0.049
1	2.52	1.52	2.31	0.91
0	2.88	2.88	8.29	2.88
3	2.64	0.6	0.36	0.13
13	4.56	8.44	71.23	15.62
5	6.72	1.72	2.95	0.44
2	7.68	5.68	32.26	4.2
1	2.4	1.4	1.96	0.81
0	2.75	2.75	7.56	2.75
1	4.75	3.75	14.06	2.96
18	7	11	121	17.28
5	8	3	9	1.12
1	2.5	1.5	2.25	0.9
0	3.19	3.19	10.17	3.19
3	5.51	2.51	6.3	1.14
4	8.12	4.12	16.97	2.09
21	9.28	11.72	137.35	14.8
1	2.9	1.9	3.61	1.24
2	1.43	0.57	0.32	0.22
0	2.47	2.47	6.10	2.47
0	3.64	3.64	13.24	3.64
4	4.16	0.16	0.02	0.00
7	1.3	5.7	32.49	24.99
100	100	86.42	525.79	130.05

X^2 = 130.05

Table 4.7a   The chi square computation of Item 3. on the
             classroom speech anxiety scale.

fo	fe	d(o-e)	d2	d2/fe
4	1.2	2.8	7.84	6.53
4	2.64	1.36	1.84	0.7
0	2.16	2.16	4.66	2.16
0	1.52	1.52	2.31	1.52
0	0.48	0.48	0.23	0.48
6	3.6	2.4	5.76	1.6
14	7.52	6.08	36.96	4.66
3	6.48	3.48	12.11	1.86
0	4.56	4.56	20.79	4.56
1	1.44	0.44	0.19	0.13
3	6.3	3.3	10.89	1.72
12	13.86	1.86	3.45	0.24
21	11.34	9.66	93.31	8.22
4	7.98	3.98	15.84	1.98
2	2.52	0.52	0.27	0.1
1	3	2	4	1.33
2	6.6	4.6	21.16	3.2
2	5.4	3.4	11.56	2.14
15	3.8	11.2	125.44	33.01
0	1.2	1.2	1.44	1.2
1	0.9	0.1	0.01	0.01
1	1.98	0.98	0.96	0.48
1	1.62	0.62	0.38	0.23
0	1.14	1.14	1.29	1.14
3	0.36	2.64	6.96	19.36
100	100	72.48	389.382	98.56

$X^2 = 99.56$

Table 4.8a The chi square computation of Item 4. on the
classroom speech anxiety scale.

fo	fe	d(o-e)	d2	d2/e
9	1.32	7.68	58.98	44.68
1	2.97	1.97	3.88	1.3
1	2.53	1.53	2.34	0.92
0	2.42	2.42	5.85	2.42
0	1.76	1.76	3.09	1.76
3	3.96	0.96	0.92	0.23
22	8.91	13.09	171.34	19.23
5	7.59	2.59	6.7	0.88
1	7.26	6.26	39.18	5.39
2	5.28	3.28	10.75	2.03
0	2.88	2.88	8.29	2.88
3	6.48	3.48	12.11	1.86
13	5.52	7.48	55.95	10.13
4	5.28	1.28	1.63	0.31
4	3.8	0.2	0.04	0.01
0	2.28	2.28	5.19	2.28
0	5.13	5.13	26.31	5.13
3	4.37	1.37	1.87	0.42
15	4.18	10.82	117.07	28
1	3.04	2.04	4.16	1.36
0	1.56	1.56	2.43	1.56
1	3.51	2.51	6.3	1.79
1	2.99	1.99	3.96	0.25
2	2.86	0.86	0.73	0.25
9	2.08	6.92	47.88	23.02
100	99.96	92.28	596.95	159.16

X^2 = 159.16 .

Table 4.9a   The chi square computation of Item.5 on the
             classroom cpeech anxiety scale.

fo	fe	d(oe)	d2	d2/fe
13	3.04	9.96	99.20	32.63
1	4.32	3.32	11.02	2.55
2	4.32	2.32	5.38	1.06
0	2.72	2.72	7.39	2.72
0	1.76	1.6	2.56	1.6
3	4.37	1.37	1.87	0.42
16	6.21	9.79	95.84	15.43
3	6.21	3.21	10.3	1.65
0	3.91	3.91	15.28	3.91
1	2.3	1.3	1.69	0.73
2	4.18	2.18	4.75	1.13
2	5.94	3.94	15.52	2.61
15	5.94	9.06	82.08	13.81
3	3.74	0.74	0.54	0.14
0	2.2	2.2	4.84	2.2
1	5.51	4.51	20.34	3.69
7	7.83	0.83	0.68	0.08
7	7.83	0.83	0.68	0.08
12	4.93	7.07	49.98	10.13
2	2.40	0.4	0.16	0.06
0	1.9	1.9	3.61	1.9
1	2.7	1.7	2.89	1.07
0	2.7	2.7	7.29	2.7
2	1.7	0.3	0.09	0.05
7	1	6	36	36
100	100	83.86	479.88	138.35

X^2 = 138.35

Table 4.10a The chi square computation of Item.6 on the
classroom speech anxiety scale.

fo	fe	d(o-e)	d2	d2/fe
7	1.7	5.83	33.98	29.05
1	2.86	1.86	3.45	1.2
3	2.47	0.53	0.28	0.11
1	3.38	2.38	5.66	1.67
1	3.12	2.12	4.49	1.44
2	2.34	0.34	0.11	0.04
15	5.72	9.28	86.11	15.05
2	4.94	2.94	8.64	1.74
5	6.76	1.76	3.09	0.45
2	6.24	4.24	17.97	2.87
0	2.25	2.25	5.06	2.25
4	5.5	1.5	2.25	0.4
13	4.75	8.25	68.06	14.32
6	6.5	0.5	0.25	0.03
2	6	4	16	2.66
0	1.89	1.89	3.57	1.89
2	4.62	2.62	6.86	1.48
1	3.99	2.99	8.94	2.24
13	5.46	7.54	56.85	10.41
5	5.04	0.04	0.016	0.00
0	1.35	1.35	1.82	1.35
0	3.3	3.3	10.89	3.3
0	2.85	2.85	8.12	2.85
1	3.9	2.9	8.41	2.15
14	3.6	10.4	108.16	30.04
100	100	83.66	469.52	128.99

X^2 = 128.99

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Table 4.11a   The chi square computation of Item.7 on the classroom speech anxiety scale.

fo	fe	d(o-e)	d2	d2/fe
1	0.06	0.94	0.88	14.72
1	0.48	0.52	0.27	0.56
1	1.32	0.32	0.1	0.07
—	0.66	0.66	0.43	0.66
—	0.48	0.48	0.23	0.48
—	0.38	0.38	0.14	0.38
10	3.04	6.96	48.44	15.93
8	8.36	0.36	0.12	0.01
1	4.18	3.18	10.11	2.41
—	3.04	3.04	9.2	3.04
1	0.74	0.26	0.06	6.09
3	5.92	2.92	8.52	1.44
24	16.28	7.72	59.59	3.66
6	8.14	2.14	4.57	0.56
3	5.92	2.92	8.52	1.44
—	0.46	0.46	0.21	0.46
2	3.68	1.68	2.82	0.76
8	10.12	2.12	4.49	0.44
12	5.06	6.94	48.16	9.51
1	3.68	2.68	7.18	1.95
—	3.36	3.36	0.12	0.36
—	2.88	2.88	8.29	2.88
3	7.92	4.92	24.2	3.05
3	3.96	0.96	0.92	0.25
12	2.88	9.12	83.17	28.88
100	99.5	64.92	330.74	93.99

X^2 = 93.99

Table 4.12a The chi square computation of Item.8 on the
classroom speech anxiety scale.

fo	fe	d(o-e)	d2	d2/e
16	4.14	11.86	140.65	33.97
2	5.52	3.52	12.39	2.24
2	3.91	1.91	3.64	.93
1	5.06	4.06	16.48	3.25
2	4.37	2.37	5.61	1.28
-	3.78	3.78	14.28	3.78
14	5.04	8.96	80.28	15.92
4	3.57	1.57	2.46	.69
2	4.62	2.62	6.86	1.48
1	3.99	2.99	8.94	2.24
2	4.14	2.14	4.57	1.1
6	5.52	.48	.23	.04
7	3.91	3.09	9.54	2.44
5	5.06	.06	.00	.00
3	4.37	1.37	1.87	.42
-	3.42	3.42	11.69	3.42
1	4.56	3.56	12.67	2.77
3	3.23	.23	.05	.01
13	4.18	8.82	77.79	18.61
2	3.61	1.61	2.59	.71
-	2.52	2.52	6.35	2.52
1	3.36	2.36	5.56	1.65
1	2.38	1.38	1.9	.8
1	3.08	2.08	4.32	1.4
11	2.66	8.34	69.55	26.14
100	100	75.1	500.27	127.81

X^2 = 127.81

Table 4.13a   The chi square computation of Item.9 on the
              classroom speech anxiety scale.

fo	fe	d(o-e)	d2	d2/e
8	1.44	6.56	43.03	29.88
3	2.76	.24	.05	.02
1	3.12	2.12	4.49	1.44
–	2.28	2.28	5.19	2.28
–	2.4	2.4	5.76	2.4
2	2.52	.52	.27	.1
14	4.83	9.17	84.08	17.4
4	5.46	1.46	2.13	.39
–	3.99	3.99	15.92	3.99
1	4.2	3.2	10.24	2.43
1	3.36	2.36	5.56	1.65
4	6.44	2.44	5.95	.92
17	7.28	9.72	94.47	12.97
5	5.32	.32	.1	.01
1	5.6	4.6	21.16	3.77
1	2.4	1.4	1.96	.81
2	4.6	2.6	6.76	1.46
2	5.2	3.2	10.24	1.96
12	3.8	8.2	67.24	17.69
3	4	1	1	.25
–	2.28	2.28	5.19	2.28
–	4.37	4.37	19.09	4.37
2	4.94	2.94	8.64	1.74
2	3.61	1.61	2.59	.71
15	3.8	11.2	125.44	33.01
100	100	90.25	546.55	143.93

X^2 = 143.93

Table 4. 14a The chi square computation of Item.10 on the
classroom speech anxiety scale.

fo	fe	d(o-e)	d2	d2/e
4	.54	3.46	11.97	22.16
–	1.53	1.53	3.58	1.53
1	2.07	1.07	1.14	.55
2	2.34	.34	.11	.04
2	2.52	.52	.27	.1
–	1.44	1.44	2.07	1.44
13	4.08	8.92	79.56	19.5
2	5.52	3.52	12.39	2.24
6	6.24	.24	.05	.00
3	6.72	3.72	13.83	2.05
1	1.92	.92	.84	.44
2	5.44	3.44	11.83	2.17
18	7.36	10.64	113.2	15.38
7	8.32	1.32	1.74	.2
4	8.96	4.96	24.6	2.74
1	1.02	.02	.00	.00
–	2.89	2.89	8.35	2.89
2	3.91	1.91	3.64	.93
11	4.42	6.58	43.29	9.79
3	4.56	1.56	2.43	.53
–	1.08	1.08	1.16	1.08
2	3.06	1.06	1.12	.36
–	4.14	4.14	17.13	4.14
–	4.68	4.68	21.9	4.68
16	5.04	10.96	120.12	23.83
100	100	80.92	496.32	118.77

X^2 = 118.77

RESUME

I was born in TOKAT in 1964. I completed my primary and secondary education in Tokat and enrolled in 19 Mayıs University, department of foreign languages in 1982. After four years of training I received a diploma for teaching of English as a foreign language in 1986. The same year, I started to teach in a private college in İstanbul. In August 1987, I joined the army to do my military service. I taught English to the military nurses in Gülhane Military Hospital for one year. Soon after leaving the army I started teaching at Gazi University in January, 1989. I am a current English Instructor at the faculty of Economical and Administrative Sciences.

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August, 1990