

**ISTANBUL SABAHATTIN ZAIM UNIVERSITY**  
**INSTITUTE OF POSTGRADUATE EDUCATION**  
**DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING**

**THE EFFECTS OF VIDEO-RECORDED SPEAKING  
TASKS ON EFL LEARNERS' ORAL FLUENCY,  
ACCURACY AND  
ANXIETY**

**MA THESIS**

**Glden GNDOĐAN**

**Istanbul**  
**Temmuz, 2020**

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**Istanbul**  
**Temmuz, 2020**

This study has been approved in partial fulfillment of the requirements for MA Degree in English Language and Literature

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## **DECLARATION OF SCIENTIFIC ETHICS AND ORIGINALITY**

This is to certify that this MA thesis titled “The Effects of Video-Recorded Speaking Tasks on EFL Learners’ Oral Fluency, Accuracy and Anxiety” is my own work and I have acted according to scientific ethics and academic rules while producing it. I have collected and used all information and data according to scientific ethics and guidelines on thesis writing of Sabahattin Zaim University. I have fully referenced, in both the text and bibliography, all direct and indirect quotations and all sources I have used in this work.



Signature

Glden GndoĖan

July, 2020



*Dedicated to my beloved father*

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

First and foremost, I would like to express my biggest gratitude to my supervisor Asst. Prof. Hidayet SARANDİ. Without his invaluable guidance and feedback, never-ending support and patience, and dedicated involvement in each step of my thesis, I could not complete this study. Whenever I needed, he was always there to help me, and he spent his valuable time to give me professional support throughout the study. It has been privilege for me to study with him.

Besides my thesis supervisor, I would like to express my sincere thanks to Asst. Prof. Kasım VARLI and Asst. Prof. Mehdi SOLHI who were members of my final committee for their valuable feedback, suggestions and contributions to the final version of my thesis.

I also have to thank to my colleagues, who were really helpful in this process, especially to Hasan Akkubak who was very supportive to inform and encourage his students to take part in the study and made it possible for me to contact with the participants when I needed. I would also thank to my colleague, Büşra Ulu who was always helpful and supportive during this process.

My deepest thank goes to my lovely students who completed weekly speaking tasks, survey, and reflected their experience both written and orally. They made my journey both enjoyable and fruitful. Hearing their positive reflections throughout the study encouraged me to deal with the obstacles. I am proud of being their teacher.

Most importantly, none of this could have happened without the support of my family who always encouraged me throughout my life. I would especially thank to my father for his never-ending support that he has provided and having the best qualities as a father. I would also thank to my mother and my sister for their emotional supports when I needed. I would also like to thank to my husband for his greatest support and understanding throughout my challenging journey. I am very lucky to have such a wonderful family.

**ABSTRACT**

**THE EFFECTS OF VIDEO-RECORDED SPEAKING TASKS  
ON EFL LEARNERS' ORAL FLUENCY, ACCURACY, AND  
ANXIETY**

Gülden Gündoğan

M. A. English Language Teaching

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July, 2020 - Page: 117

The use of technology has numerous advantages for English as a foreign language (EFL) learners who have limited exposure to the target language and suffer from restricted language instruction. The main purpose of the present study was to investigate whether combining online instruction with the face to face (f2f) instruction promote learners' oral fluency, accuracy, and reduces their anxiety. The participants of the study were 28 Turkish EFL learners at the tertiary level of an English preparatory school of a private university in Istanbul. Following a quasi-experimental design, these participants were divided into a control and an experimental group. Learners in the control group followed their coursebook syllabus and carried out speaking activities only in the classroom environment. The students in the experimental group had blended learning that included both following their classroom syllabus as well as six online tasks to support their speaking practice. They were required to complete weekly video-recorded speaking tasks outside of their language classes. A mixed methods research design was applied through which quantitative and qualitative data were collected through speaking tasks, Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), semi-structured interviews and students' reflections. The results obtained from pre- and post-speaking tasks indicated that the experimental group surpassed the control group in terms of oral fluency and accuracy. The results of FLCAS showed that the utilization of blended instruction was effective in reducing students' anxiety. In addition, the data collected from students' reflections and interviews showed that the experimental group developed a positive attitude towards video-recorded speaking tasks. The findings underscored the importance of blended instruction as a positive instructional tool for EFL learners.

This study has also showed that the asynchronous computer-mediated communication (ACMC) provides the practice that learners in EFL settings need to improve their speaking skills. It offers an alternative way to practice the language outside the classroom. In light of this study's findings, integrating online instruction into f2f instruction may assist learners to increase oral fluency and accuracy, and reduce speaking anxiety which offers insights for language instructors as well as curriculum designers. The ACMC speaking tasks might be used alongside the coursebook materials in order to help learners develop their fluency and accuracy as well as their speaking skills in general.

**Keywords:** Learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL), Blended Learning (BL), Asynchronous Computer-Mediated Communication (ACMC), Oral Fluency, Accuracy and Anxiety.



**ÖZET**

**VİDEO KAYITLI KONUŞMA ÖDEVLERİNİN İNGİLİZCEYİ  
YABANCI DİL OLARAK ÖĞRENEN ÖĞRENCİLERİN  
KONUŞMA AKICILIĞI, DOĞRULUĞU VE KAYGISI  
ÜZERİNDEKİ ETKİLERİ**

Güliden GÜNDOĞAN

Yüksek Lisans, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi

Tez Danışmanı: Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Hidayet SARANDİ

Temmuz-2020, 117 Sayfa

Öğrenilen dile sınırlı maruz kalan ve kısıtlı dil öğrenimi gören, İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen öğrenciler için teknoloji kullanımının sayısız avantajları vardır. Bu çalışmanın asıl amacı, çevrimiçi ve yüz yüze öğretimi harmanlamanın öğrencilerin konuşma akıcılığını, doğruluğunu geliştirme ve kaygısını azaltma üzerindeki etkilerini araştırmaktır. Çalışmanın katılımcıları, İstanbul'daki özel bir üniversitedeki İngilizce hazırlık programının üçüncü düzeydeki İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen 28 Türk öğrencisidir. Yarı deneysel desen olan bu araştırmanın katılımcıları kontrol ve deney grubuna ayrıldı. Kontrol grubundaki öğrenciler ders kitabı müfredatlarını takip ettiler ve konuşma aktivitelerini sadece sınıf ortamında gerçekleştirdiler. Deney grubundaki öğrenciler hem sınıf müfredatlarını takip eden hem de konuşma pratiğini desteklemek için çalışma boyunca altı çevrimiçi konuşma görevleri içeren harmanlanmış bir eğitim aldı. Dil derslerine ek olarak haftalık verilen video kayıtlı konuşma görevini tamamlamaları gerekiyordu. Bu çalışmada karma araştırma yöntemi uygulanmış ve konuşma görevleri, yabancı dil endişe anketi, yarı yapılandırılmış öğrenci görüşmeleri ve yansıtması aracılığıyla hem nicel hem de nitel veriler toplanmıştır. Konuşma görevlerinden elde edilen sonuçlar deney grubunun konuşma akıcılığı ve doğruluğu bakımından kontrol grubunu geçtiğini göstermiştir. Yabancı dil konuşma endişe anketi sonuçları, harmanlanmış öğretim kullanımının öğrencilerin konuşma kaygısını azaltmada etkili olduğunu göstermiştir. Ayrıca, öğrencilerin yansıtma ve görüşmelerinden toplanan veriler, deney grubunun video kayıtlı konuşma görevlerine karşı olumlu bir tutum geliştirdiğini göstermiştir. Bulgular, harmanlanmış eğitimin İngilizceyi yabancı

dil olarak öğrenen öğrenciler için olumlu bir öğretim aracı olarak önemini vurgulamıştır.

Bu çalışma ayrıca bilgisayar destekli asenkron öğrenmenin İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen öğrencilerin konuşma becerilerini geliştirmek için ihtiyaç duydukları pratiği sağladığını göstermiştir. Bu çalışmanın sonuçları, dili sınıf dışında kullanmak için alternatif bir yol sunmaktadır. Bu çalışmanın bulguları ışığında, çevrimiçi eğitimi yüz yüze eğitime entegre etmek, öğrencilerin konuşma akıcılığı ve doğruluğunu artırmasına ve konuşma kaygısını azaltmasına yardımcı olabileceğini göstermesi bakımından müfredat tasarımcılarının yanı sıra dil öğretmenleri için öngörüler sunar. Bu konuşma görevleri öğrencilerin konuşma akıcılığı ve doğruluğunun yanı sıra, genel olarak konuşma becerilerini geliştirmelerine yardımcı olmak için ders kitaplarının beraberinde kullanılabilir.

**Anahtar Kelimeler:** İngilizceyi Yabancı Dil Olarak Öğrenme, Harmanlanmış Öğrenme, Bilgisayar Destekli Asenkron Öğrenme, Konuşma Akıcılığı, Doğruluğu, ve Kaygısı.

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## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

<b>ACMC</b>	: Asynchronous Computer-Mediated Communication
<b>AMOC</b>	: Asynchronous Multimedia-Based Oral Communication
<b>BL</b>	: Blended Learning
<b>CALL</b>	: Computed-Assisted Language Learning
<b>CMC</b>	: Computer-Mediated Communication
<b>EFL</b>	: English as a Foreign Language
<b>FLCAS</b>	: Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale
<b>f2f</b>	: Face to Face
<b>Ibid:</b>	In the same source
<b>L1</b>	: First Language
<b>L2</b>	: Second Language
<b>SCMC</b>	: Synchronous Computer-Mediated Communication
<b>SLA:</b>	Second Language Acquisition

# **CHAPTER 1**

## **INTRODUCTION**

This chapter introduces the present study. This section starts with the impact of developing technology on English as a foreign language (EFL) teaching and learning. It goes on with theoretical framework of the study. It also introduces statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research questions, and significance of the study. Lastly, definitions of the key terms are presented.

### **1.1. EFL Teaching and Learning: From Past to Present**

The teaching process started with the use of chalk in classes and learning was mostly based on teachers, books, and encyclopedia. Traditional teaching techniques were used in classes in which teachers were active whereas students were passive. In other words, the teaching process was mostly teacher-centered and students were mostly listeners. In addition, education was mostly based on memorizing the information. When it comes to language learning, old-fashioned methods were used, such as the grammar-translation method, in which both teachers and language learners used to communicate in first language rather than in second language. However, thanks to the learning theory put forward by Dewey (1966), the teacher-centered approach was replaced by the learner-centered approach. According to Dewey (1966), learners need to encounter real-life situations and they need to find out how to deal with these situations in order to learn. In the learner-centered approach, the focus shifted from teaching to learning, and students needed to learn actively (Kolb, 1984). Kolb (1984) defined learner-centered learning as a process in which learners take part in both learning and teaching. Silcock and Brundtt (2001) stated that learner-centered approaches aim to help and guide learners instead of taking the whole control in teaching.

The advancement made in technology gave a new impetus to learner-centered education. According to Healey (2016), with the developments in technology, and increasing demands for computers and mobiles, a new way of communication has appeared for people. The internet has brought changes in language learning, which means new trends have flourished in language learning, and the role of teachers and

learners have changed. For example, computer-aided instruction (CAI) was a new teaching trend in which learners were sitting in front of the computers and doing various language exercises, such as multiple-choice exercises, and simple drills. The name later changed into computer-assisted language learning (CALL). There were teaching models that were either fully online and there were hybrid classes that included both online and face to face instruction. However, communication through the internet first appeared as text-based computer-mediated communication (CMC) and students who took hybrid courses did not have much chance to communicate orally online because online part of the course aimed to give information instead of providing interaction (Healey, 2016). In the early 1990s, the role of the teachers and learners also began to alter. Teachers started to benefit more from technology and prepared interesting lessons. Thanks to the internet, language learners could interact with people around the world and native speakers of the target language. In addition, teachers and learners could reach resources online (Ibid).

The traditional teaching method, in which students were passive learners, would not be appropriate for the new generation. With the rapid changes, technology resources are taking the place of old-fashioned learning approaches to offer an interactive learner-centered environment (Serbessa, 2006). In order to teach and learn efficiently, employing a suitable methodology with current technologies is crucial to cater for the needs of the new generation. However, it is demanding to explore how to promote the creative skills of the new generation that learn differently. Active teaching and learning require facilities that enhance interaction between teachers and students, as well as students and their peers (Serbessa, 2006).

## **1.2. Theoretical Background**

The support for the use of computer assisted language learning comes from two different schools of thought in second language acquisition: sociocultural theory and cognitive theory. According to Vygotsky's (1962) Zone of Proximal Development, the acquisition of the first and second language occurs through social interaction. In other words, when the language is used in a social environment, it is learned better. According to this theory, interaction would help people to move up in their zone of proximal and improve the accuracy of their sentences (Blake, 2017). The sociocultural theory is situated within modern language instruction, namely CALL (Lantolf and Thorne, 2007). Teaching speaking through CALL offers learners an environment in

which they can collaborate and interact with either native or non-native speakers (Blake, 2017). Besides, the positive impacts of CALL and CMC on language learning are supported by cognitive hypotheses in SLA (Jenks, 2014). From cognitive perspective, the support for CALL comes from two main theories; Krashen's input hypothesis, and Swain's output hypothesis. According to Krashen's (1985) input hypothesis, comprehensible input is necessary to improve the second language. There are some CALL programs that provide learners with comprehensible input. For example, extensive reading programs assist language acquisition by providing comprehensible input (Sehlaoui, 2018). Furthermore, according to Swain's (1993) output hypothesis, language production is essential for language acquisition.

Of importance here is also the connection between language production, accuracy and fluency. According to skill learning theory, language practice entails constant restructuring and automatization through which learners manage to get control over their internal grammar (McLaughlin, 1987). The initial language processing consumes considerable amount of attentional resources and happens in a controlled manner. However, through repeated practice and successive reorganization of language, the processing becomes more automatic, and less processing load was put on attentional space and working memory. This would help the conversion of declarative knowledge and the effortful use of language into a proceduralized knowledge, fluent, and effortless language use (Andersen, 1990).

CALL and CMC tools provide learners opportunities for language production. Teaching through CALL provides students an environment where they can create their products, such as blogs, wikis, posts through CALL (Blake, 2013). To improve speaking skills, many CMC tools may be useful to promote language production, such as Voxopop and Voice Thread (Pop, Tomuletiu and David, 2011).

CMC activities can be either synchronous or asynchronous (Blake, 2017). Each type of CMC task has its own place in language learning education, and it may facilitate language learning differently. Whereas ALCMC tasks provide time for planning, increase oral accuracy and complexity, and decrease speaking anxiety; SLCMC tasks promote learners for more elaboration (Abrams, 2003). To improve speaking through CALL, it is not necessary to decide which type of CALL is superior to the other. What is important, however, is to combine these tools with the right kinds of productive activities (Doughty and Long, 2003).

Constructionist education and learning theories envisage CALL and CMC as learning methods that promote student-centered learning and learner autonomy. In constructionist educational approaches, the student-centered teaching model has priority over the teacher-centered model (Blake, 2017). Blake (2017) describes autonomous learning as a process in which the role of the teacher is to guide while the role of students is to take responsibility for their learning. The main objective in constructionist models is to create an environment where learner autonomy can be enhanced (Little, 2007). CALL in this regard serves the purpose well as it creates an atmosphere that promotes autonomy (Blin, 2004).

In the past decade, many educators attempted to explore the contribution of CMC in learners' education in general and language learning in particular. Many of them presented the positive effects of CMC tools in higher education. Aoki (2014) suggested that using audio-blogs was beneficial for students' speaking practice outside of the class, and it also helped students realize their performance and build authenticity. According to Baniabdelrahman (2013), oral diaries enhanced students' motivation and participation in class. Pop, Tomuletiu and David (2011) found that benefiting from asynchronous Web 2.0 speaking tools enabled students to have more exposure to the language. They also showed that using these tools resulted in more motivated, engaged, and confident students who displayed positive attitudes towards speaking. Wulandari (2019) found that Instagram Vlogs were useful to learn vocabulary and to promote motivation, as well as speaking skills. Studies that investigated the use of text-based CMC revealed that it can promote oral proficiency (Jenks, 2014). Since both spoken interaction and texting are ways of communication, text-based CMC was considered useful for oral proficiency (Chun, 1994). However, not all the literature presents in favor of CMC. According to Jenks (2014), for example, text-based CMC does not offer the kind of environment that learners can exchange oral interaction, so it is not effective to develop spoken communication. In short, although some researchers have found that blended learning and the integration of technology were effective to provide students with a different learning experience and an environment that is conducive to meaningful interactions (Kırkgöz, 2011), further research to examine the spoken interaction in online platform is still required (Jenks, 2014).

### **1.3. Purpose of the Study**

This study aims to examine the effect of language exposure and practice outside the class through video recording tools on speaking skills. The study also aims to explore whether combining online instruction with face-to-face (f2f) instruction promotes learners' oral fluency and accuracy. In English education, even though the development of accuracy and fluency is one of the main objectives of language teachers, the simultaneous development of these two speaking sub-skills is a difficult endeavor since they have an adversary effect on each other, one happening at the cost of the other (Skehan, 1998). Therefore, it is important to find out new ways to improve both accuracy and fluency simultaneously, which is one main objectives of the present study. Also, further studies are required to reveal the effect of CMC on speaking anxiety in learning contexts such as English preparatory schools. Furthermore, the study also aims to contribute to the existing literature on Turkish students' perceptions of using ACMC tool so as to supplement f2f instruction in higher education. Regarding these objectives, the current study aims to find answers to the following research questions that are presented below:

### **1.4. Research Questions**

One of the problems that Turkish language teachers frequently encounters in the language classrooms is that students are usually reluctant to speak using the language that they are learning. One reason for this may be that students do not feel competent enough to speak in the target language. Another reason may be that they suffer from speaking anxiety and they are afraid of being criticized by their peers. Based on what we have said so far, the present study will seek answers to the following questions:

1. To what extent do video-recorded speaking tasks affect students' speaking fluency?
2. To what extent do video-recorded speaking tasks affect students' accuracy?
3. How do video-recorded speaking tasks affect students' anxiety?
4. What are Turkish language learners' attitudes towards video-recorded speaking tasks?

### **1.5. Hypotheses of the study**

To attain the objectives of the current study mentioned above, the hypotheses are formulated as follows;

**Hypothesis 1.** Benefiting APMC tool will broaden students learning environment by breaking classroom walls, and it will provide students with more exposure to the target language. It will also provide more opportunities to practice and improve their speaking skills outside of language classes, which will result in a more fluent speech in the experimental group.

**Hypothesis 2.** Integrating online speaking tasks into face-to-face teaching and learning will raise learners' awareness towards the accuracy of their production and promote it in the experimental group.

**Hypothesis 3.** Integrating online instruction into face-to-face teaching and learning will decrease learners' L2 speaking anxiety levels in the experimental group.

### **1.6. Significance of the Study**

Utilization of technology is the sine qua non in language learning because the new generation is quite engaged in technology, particularly in mobile phones. Pedagogical implications of CMC tools indicate positive effects in higher education in terms of improving speaking skills (Kırkgöz, 2011), providing more exposure to the language (Pop, Tomuletiu and David, 2011), promoting authenticity (Aoki, 2014), and increasing motivation and participation (Baniabdelrahman, 2013). In addition, blended learning is considered useful to provide learners a different learning experience with interactions (Kırkgöz, 2011). It is also useful to promote speaking skills and decrease speaking anxiety (Özdemir, 2018). However, it is important to point out that studies that have so far found that CMC is effective usually examined it in terms of general language proficiency (Kırkgöz, 2011; Özdemir, 2018;) and the number of the studies which have examined the effect of CMC on accuracy and fluency is limited if not nonexistent. This study is significant in examining if blended learning is helpful in improving subcomponents of language skills. Also, further studies are required to reveal its effect on speaking anxiety. Therefore, the present study tries to fill this gap and attempts to reveal if blended instruction is a positive tool for EFL language learners. It may also offer insights into English language instructors at university English preparatory programs as well as other learning settings, encourage them to

integrate f2f instruction with online instruction and enlarge students' learning environment. In addition, at a higher policy making level, the present research may inspire some university preparatory programs to come up with plans to integrate blended instruction in their curriculum. It may also be useful for language instructors who are interested in improving their students' oral fluency and accuracy. Finally, it is hoped that the study will be a guide for future researchers who give importance to speaking skills and have a desire to conduct research in the same field.

Developing speaking skills in the second language has an important role both in daily activities and professional lives of language learners. Despite its significant role, speaking skill is difficult to improve and many learners encounter difficulties while trying to speak in foreign language. The difficulty might stem from Turkish education system ignore speaking skills in language learning. Many language proficiency exams mostly test grammar, vocabulary, reading and comprehension skills, but they do not test speaking skills. Since students pay more attention to university entrance exam, even students that study in language classes focus on developing the skills that carry more importance in the language proficiency exam. When they are placed in preparatory programs, some factors such as psychological or emotional barriers might impede students' progress in speaking skills. To exemplify, one of them is speaking anxiety that many Turkish students suffer from because they are afraid of making mistakes and being ashamed in the classroom environment, so they refrain from speaking.

There are many reasons for the lack of speaking skills of Turkish students, but the main reason for failure stems from lack of practice both in and outside the classroom. For Turkish students, language learning and practice mostly take place in the boundaries of the classroom because students do not need English outside the classroom. In order to develop speaking skills, students need to use the language as much as possible both in and outside the classroom; however, many students might not achieve it due to the restricted opportunities to practice because of the number of students in classroom or overloaded curriculum that aims to foster vocabulary and grammar knowledge. Besides, it may not be possible with overcrowded classes to build a natural environment to promote communication skills and integrate speaking tasks into grammar and vocabulary exercises. For these reasons, practicing the language merely in classroom environment is not enough for students. To deal with this



problem, in the current study, learners are offered an environment where they can practice the language outside the classroom, in addition to the in-class activities so that they can improve their oral skills. Regarding the importance of speaking both accurately and fluently, students are provided an environment where they can develop fluency and accuracy simultaneously. It also provides better conditions for a more friendly environment for interaction among the students and the instructor, and thereby attempts to decrease their speaking anxiety by utilizing the technology.

### **1.7. Definition of Terms**

**Blended Learning (BL):** Integrating half online and half face-to-face teaching or learning (Bonk and Graham, 2012; Marczak, 2013).

**Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL):** Learning language through any microcomputers including mobile phones, desktops, laptops. (Egbert, 2005).

**Computer-Mediated Communication (CMC):** “The action of placing students in a networked environment through which they communicate with each other electronically in or outside the classroom. This may occur in either synchronous formats (real-time, i.e. immediate communication) or in asynchronous ones (delayed communication, i.e. students being able to access and respond to messages at their leisure)” (Hirvela, 2006: 233).

**E-learning or Online Learning:** Any type of educational setting in which technology assists learning (Tavangarian, et al., 2004).

**Face-to-face (f2f) Learning:** Learning in a classroom or other places, which does not include any use of technology (Neumeier, 2005).

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

This chapter presents a review of the related literature. It starts with information about speaking skills, the factors that make speaking skills complex, some factors that affect speaking skills, and the importance of speaking skills for EFL learners. It goes on with the main focus of this study; fluency, accuracy and anxiety in speaking skills. Lastly, it focuses on the role of technology in language learning, and reviews previous research about the effect of CMC on oral fluency, accuracy, anxiety, and students' attitudes towards CMC.

#### **2.1. Speaking**

The bulk of literature on the definition of speaking suggests that speaking is described in many ways. Chaney and Burk (1998) described speaking as a way of building and exchanging ideas through verbal or non-verbal communication in several contexts. Speaking was also described according to the bottom-up and top-down approaches. Based on the bottom-up approach, speaking was defined “as the production of auditory signals designed to produce differential verbal responses in a listener. It is considered as combining sounds in a systematic way, according to language specific principles to form meaningful utterances” (Bygate, 1987: 5-6). “In teaching speaking, we need to begin with small sound units and then continue mastering of words and sentences and eventually discourse” (Chinijani and Aidinlou, 2017: 2473). Within this approach, in order to carry out effective oral communication, it is essential to be aware of the significance of sub-components of the language (Brown,1994). When it is looked through sub-skills of oral communication, Brown (1994) emphasized the significance of forms and the functions of language. It is necessary to teach learners small units of language instead of teaching the whole picture because the speaking subskills create the whole (Ibid).

The following are some of the 16 speaking sub-skills enumerated by (Brown, 1994: 257-258).

1. *Produce chunks of the language of different lengths.*
2. *Use an adequate number of lexical units (words) to accomplish pragmatic purposes.*
3. *Produce fluent speech at different rates of delivery.*
4. *Monitor your own oral production and use various strategic devices pauses, fillers, self-corrections, backtracking to enhance the clarity of the messages.*
5. *Produce speech in natural constituents' inappropriate phrases, pause groups, breath groups, and sentence constituents.*
6. *Use cohesive devices in spoken discourse.*
7. *Appropriately accomplish communicative functions according to situations, participants, and goals.*

The micro-skills mentioned above illustrate the significance of small parts of language to achieve the whole picture in oral production (Brown, 1994). When it comes to the top down approach, speaking is defined as “interactional skills which involve making decision about communication” (Bygate, 1998: 23). In this approach, it is suggested that instead of teaching well-form sentences first and using them in speaking later, learners should take place in spoken discourse first, and they get the small units later (Nunan, 1989). Speaking is also defined as communicative process because of the presence of someone else (Noll, 2006). Luoma (2004) emphasized the interactive function of speaking; that is, meaning and form are shaped by the context, the setting, and the aim and people that speak. Similarly, Abugohar, et al. (2019) defined speaking as a way of interactive communication and an indispensable instrument for learning languages. Language learners are required to manage interaction by learning how to open, keep and close a conversation. Hedge (2005: 267-268) listed the required factors for a good conversation as the ability of “opening and closing conversation, responding appropriately in fixed routines, taking turns, and topic management”. Considering the descriptions above, speaking skills include several sub-skills and require some conversational skills, so it is safe to say that speaking has proved as a challenging and complex process.

## **2.2. The Factors That Make Speaking Skills Complex**

Speaking is a complex and challenging skill in learning EFL for many reasons (Hinkel, 2005). Some of the factors that contribute to the complexity of speaking skills result from conditions in speaking, the cognitive process of speaking, and the characteristics of speaking.

Firstly, in terms of speaking conditions, time pressure and reciprocity are two elements that affect speaking skills. According to Thornbury (2005), speech production is a linear process in which words and phrases pursue each other. The spontaneous nature of speech production in real life condition where there is limited planning time makes speaking a complicated skill. Similarly, Bygate (2009) stated that because of the presence of another person two important components in speaking, which are a reciprocity condition and a time-pressure condition, appear. The former represents that the speaker needs to adjust her speech according to the interlocutor's expectations. The latter arises from the real-time condition, which requires an immediate response. Lack of planning time during the speech results in time pressure, which affects the speaker adversely. According to Bygate (2009), reciprocity and time pressure may result in fragmentation, such as pauses, false starts. Hence, the two elements mentioned above have a negative impact on spoken language, and they make the language production more complex.

Secondly, to comprehend the reason why speaking is a difficult and complex process, it might be useful to examine it as a cognitive process. Levelt (1989) enumerated three significant cognitive processes that make speaking skills difficult, as conceptualization, formulation, and articulation. Deciding what to say happens during conceptualization stage. According to Tomlinson (2000), it is necessary for speakers to decide on the content and to have information about the topic to express ideas. The formulation is the process to determine how to say what one has chosen to communicate. It requires linguistic knowledge and the ability to express content, knowledge of vocabulary and grammar, as well. The last cognitive process is articulation which means expressing what to say. In other words, it is a physical process of expressing ideas through mouth, teeth, stressing words with the correct pronunciation (Levelt, 1989). These three cognitive processes make language production complex.

Lastly, the characteristics of speaking make it complex. Brown (1994) listed eight characteristics of speaking: 1. clustering (a fluent speech requires grouping a number of similar words), 2. redundancy (to make the meaning clear, learners need to benefit from redundancy of language through repetition, rephrasing, or elaboration), 3. reduced forms (contractions, elision, reduce vowel to avoid a bookish quality of speaking), 4. performance variables (process of thinking time which means it should not be silent, but gap fillers such as uh, um, well should be used), 5. colloquial language (use of idioms, phrases, slang in conversations), 6. rate of delivery (learners need to have an acceptable speed), 7. stress, rhythm, and intonation (to give prominence to different parts of messages), 8. interaction (if there is no interlocutor, learners lose their creativity in conversation). The characteristics of speaking listed above make speaking skills a complex process.

### **2.3. Some Factors that Affect Speaking Skills and the Role of Technology on These Factors**

A wide range of variables affect speaking skills and many researchers have been looking for ways to overcome the factors affecting oral production negatively. Some factors whose effects can be manipulated through the use of technology are lack of exposure to the target language and L1 use, time constraint in the classroom, lack of knowledge about the topic, listening ability, vocabulary, pronunciation, and the immediate feedback. These will be explained below.

#### **2.3.1 Lack of Exposure to the Target Language and L1 Use**

Because of very limited exposure to the target language, L2 learners mostly have difficulties in communicative skills. In the light of researchers' own experience as an EFL teacher, it is quite challenging to encourage Turkish students to use L2 both inside and outside the classroom. Turkish EFL learners tend to use L1 even inside the classroom. Nevertheless, if students are encouraged to use the target language both in and outside the classroom through technology, they might get exposed to the target language more. Therefore, it might be useful to examine the reasons behind L1 use and how to encourage learners to use L2 through technology.

Many researchers examined the reasons behind mother-tongue use and L2 learners have many different reasons for L1 use. For example, Harmer (1991) highlighted some reasons for using L1. One of the reasons why students use L1 is the lack of information

about the topic. The second reason is the teachers' attitude in language use. If a teacher does not insist on using L2, students start to use L1 to exchange ideas. The last reason provided by Harmer is that when teachers use L1 instead of L2 in the classroom, students feel free to use L1. According to Tuan and Mai (2015), some students prefer to communicate in L1 if they speak the same native language in speaking classes.

Learners might be encouraged to use the target language both in and outside the classroom through technological tools. According to Benson (2001), outside-of-class language exposure is described as any sort of learning that naturally occurs outside the classroom and it is a product of self-instruction. However, teachers might also contribute to students' learning journeys outside the classroom and they can benefit from technological tools to keep the interaction in the target language. For example, they may assign students to share a post in the target language or record some videos. According to Blattner and Fiori (2011), social networking tools offer learners an environment where they can use the target language and improve their skills collaboratively. In conclusion, L2 learners have various reasons to use their mother tongue, but teachers may inspire them to use L2 with the help of technology.

### **2.3.2 Time Constraints in the Classroom and the Reasons behind It**

The time factor is crucial in foreign language learning because students need enough practice to improve oral skills. The two main factors affecting the classroom time and restrict the time for oral practice are an overloaded curriculum in language programs and classroom size. However, time constraints in the classroom can be manipulated through the use of technology.

Language teachers, especially in preparatory schools, mostly have an overloaded curriculum as they teach all language skills, such as grammar, reading, writing, speaking that results in difficulties to allocate time for enough practice. L2 Learners speak in class but the point is if they learn how to speak competently in the target language. Hughes (2012: 7) differentiated speaking going on in classes and teaching speaking as a skill. He advocated that although there has been a lot of speaking in class, teaching speaking as a skill is something different. In other words, Hughes emphasized that speaking takes place in most of the class time but most of the speaking in class is described as "speaking-to-learn" rather than "learning-to-speak". When the classroom time is taken into consideration, it might be true that teachers may not allocate enough

time to teach how to speak as they have limited time to teach all the components of the target language including grammar, reading, writing, vocabulary, speaking. However, the time constraint can be manipulated through the use of technology. By using technology, the learning environment can be enlarged. Newton (2017) pointed out that most of the learning oral skills occur outside the classroom. Technology may be used as a bridge from inside to the outside world.

Another factor that restricts students' oral practice is classroom size. Classroom size is also a crucial factor that interacts with teachers' ability to allocate time for each student to improve oral skills. Leong and Ahmadi (2017) complained about the low participation in the classroom because of classroom size. According to them, the number of students in class reduces students' talking time because students are required to listen to their friends, which limits the practice time for each student. Also, they state that more dominant students may hinder others' speaking. Thus, some students are quite reticent whereas some of them are more active in class. Similarly, Özdemir (2018) underlined the importance of giving equal chance for each student in speaking classes. However, she stated that it is not feasible in speaking practice because one learner may practice at a time while others are supposed to listen even in a pair or group work. Especially in large groups, students do not have an equal opportunity to practice oral skills. However, as teachers play an important role to guide students, they may integrate mobiles in teaching as a bridge inside and outside class to practice speaking more and to give an equal chance to each student to practice the target language through useful applications, websites, or blogs to be used outside of class.

### **2.3.3 Lack of Knowledge about the Topic**

Bachman and Palmar (1996) described knowledge about a topic as the information about the subject that a speaker needs to know. They stated that it influences students' oral performance. Students might suffer from a lack of knowledge if they have little knowledge about a topic. According to Rivers (1981), the reason why students may not express themselves might be the topic chosen by the teacher. In other words, if the topic is inappropriate for students, they may have difficulties in expressing themselves. Nevertheless, some students might suffer from not knowing what to say even if they are asked amazing topics. For example, according to Özdemir (2018), although some students are given interesting topics, they may not be able to express their ideas. Their

failure derives from not being able to think of what to say (Ibid), or they cannot come up with an idea (Ur, 1996).

Baker and Westrup (2003) also emphasized the difficulty of expressing ideas in a foreign language when learners do not know what to say and which words and language form they need to use. It can be explained through schema theory. Schema theory, which was put forward by Kant in the 18th century and a concept in cognitive psychology, is mainly about connecting new information with the previous knowledge or concepts in order to understand new things (Fan Yu and Gao Ying, 2013). According to Kant (1781), it is merely meaningful when a concept was connected with the background information. There are two different types of schemata: content schemata which is related to topic familiarity and prior knowledge that individuals have of a subject matter and formal schemata which is about the knowledge of how different rhetorical organization is developed in different text types (Carrell and Eisterhold, 1983). If learners do not have any content schemata about the new topic, they cannot assimilate and understand the new topic unless their schemata are activated (Fan Yu and Gao Ying, 2013). As Krashen (1982) supported, language acquisition occurs if language input is comprehensible. The findings of a study conducted by Alimohamadi and Poordaryiaenejad (2015) indicated that activating background knowledge is quite effective to improve oral skills. They supported that activating schemata might facilitate the teaching and learning process and it provides learners a deeper comprehending of the new information. The study also indicated that activating prior knowledge is a useful technique to acquire new information and assist the process of speaking acquisition. Similarly, Nassaji (2002) advocated that EFL learners might improve their oral skills more and they become more fluent if their prior knowledge and schema are activated.

With the introduction of digital technology, it is easier for educators to provide more information to learners. For example, blended learning, which includes both face to face and online education, is considered useful to equip students with more knowledge about topics. According to Osguthorpe and Graham (2013), learners receive more information and knowledge if they are provided with a blended learning environment. It might be achieved through sharing the information in advance or providing discussions and some training as a post-activity. According to Sharma and Westbrook (2016), blended learning offers an environment where learners can work on relevant



sources for extra practice which is not possible to do in classes due to the time lag. The flexibility on time and setting makes the learning process more effective for learners. Besides, blended learning provides learners with both the materials and valuable time for teachers to carry out face-to-face activities. King (2016) suggested that because of blended learning, learners can have access to various materials including video, audio either uploaded by the teacher or through the internet.

To sum up, the learners' unfamiliarity with the topics selected and their inability to produce ideas might result in failure in expression, but through technology, learners might receive more information and knowledge about a topic.

### **2.3.4 Listening Ability**

Listening and speaking skills are related to each other, which means to be able to improve speaking skills, learners also need to be good at listening skills. Doff (1998) highlighted the necessity of listening ability to be able to improve oral skills. According to Doff, learners need to understand what is said in order to keep a successful conversation. Similarly, Shumin (1997) emphasized the importance of listening ability to exchange ideas. He stated that learners are both listeners and speakers because they should listen to others to share their ideas. Without listening and comprehending others, it is not possible to reply to their questions. Bozorgian (2012) investigated if listening skills affect language achievement. The findings of the study illustrated that students who got high grades in the listening test, performed better in speaking exams, as well. Thus, it can be inferred that listening and speaking ability cannot be separated from each other.

With the use of technology, it is easier for educators to improve both listening and speaking skills. For example, applying the blended learning approach might be beneficial to improve several skills at the same time. According to King (2016), a blended approach provides learners with many opportunities. Being able to work on different types of activities at the same time, such as listening to an audio, watching a video, reading a text enhances the learning process. Hence, by using the technology, teachers can assign video-recordings that both require students to listen to their peers and record their voices which in turn can improve both their listening and speaking skills.

### **2.3.5 Vocabulary**

According to Abdullaeva (n.d.), to be able to use the language efficiently, using appropriate words has great importance, but it is challenging for EFL learners to select the correct words during the speech. Searching for the appropriate vocabulary and synonyms sometimes results in a different meaning. Thornbury (2005) stated that compared to native speakers, most learners have half of the vocabulary knowledge for daily conversation. For academic purposes or professional life, learners need more vocabulary knowledge. Lee G. (2009) found out lack of vocabulary is one of the reasons for failure in English language achievement. Moreover, insufficient vocabulary affects learners' oral performance adversely. For example, Hamad (2013) explored the reasons for inefficacy in the oral skills of EFL learners at the university level. The findings of the study indicated that limited vocabulary knowledge affected learners' oral performance negatively and resulted in lower performance. The findings of the study proved that vocabulary knowledge had a great effect on speaking skills. Khan, et al. (2018) attempted to find out the effect of insufficient vocabulary on EFL learners' oral achievement. The findings showed that both teachers and learners agreed that one of the main reasons for failure in speaking skills is lack of vocabulary. The study is also suggested that learners can benefit from mobile assisted language learning by improving their vocabulary knowledge for speaking proficiency. Clark (2013) attempted to explore whether the use of iPad applications enhances vocabulary knowledge. The findings of the study revealed that it was efficient to promote vocabulary skills. She suggested that teachers should benefit from technological tools and provide environments for their learners to practice and improve their speaking skills.

### **2.3.6 Pronunciation**

According to Abdullaeva (n.d.), pronunciation is considered as a difficult language skill that needs to be practiced well to improve speaking skills. Learners are expected to recognize different sounds and their features while learning English. Learners are also required to be aware of the word stress and intonation during the speech. Rora (2015) advocated that if students have clear pronunciation and intonation, they might be able to achieve good communication even if they don't have enough vocabulary and grammar knowledge. According to Prodanovska-Poposka (2017), pronunciation is a crucial component of oral skills. If learners' pronunciation is insufficient, it causes

negative effects in speaking skills and they may suffer from a lack of self-confidence and avoid speaking in front of people. Many EFL learners experience difficulty in oral skills because of their inadequate pronunciation. Even if their English proficiency is good enough, their pronunciation may affect their oral skills adversely. Similarly, Wong (1987) supported that even if learners' vocabulary and grammar are perfect, they cannot achieve efficient communication when their pronunciation is poor. Pourhosein-Gilakjani (2012) advocated that it is possible to understand learners who have a good pronunciation but weak grammar skills. On the other hand, learners whose grammar skills are good but pronunciation is poor will not be understood. According to Burns (2003), learners can speak efficiently if they pronounce well. To sum up, having a good pronunciation is necessary for an effective conversation and learners' speaking skills.

To improve pronunciation, technology might be useful. The use of technology offers learners an efficient environment to teach and learn pronunciation (Hayati, 2010). Liu and Hung (2016) attempted to explore the impact of technology for English pronunciation. The findings revealed that using technology significantly improved learners' pronunciation. Hincks (2015) stated that utilization of technology started in the 1990s through the first pronunciation software, which was used to provide learners automatic feedback on their pronunciation. Later, computer-assisted pronunciation (CAPT) systems provided more personalized training. The advantage of these systems was that learners could choose exercises according to their needs and they could practice whenever they want without the presence of a teacher (Ibid). CAPT systems provided learners feedback by analyzing their speech. In the twenty-first century, innovations in technology allow learners to access many recordings from all over the world, which is useful to improve pronunciation (Ibid).

### **2.3.7 Feedback during Speaking Activities**

It is a controversial issue whether learners should be allowed to make mistakes or they should be corrected by their teachers (Revell, 1979). Lately, the idea of correcting every single mistake has altered as language instructors have shifted their focus from correcting students' mistakes to communicative skills and intelligibility (Sifakis and Bayyurt, 2015). The new theory of ELF (English as lingua franca) suggests that teachers should be selective with the types of errors they correct in language classes. And the focus should be on intelligibility and communication efficiency instead (Ibid).

Revell (1979) advocated that applying a language structure requires trying it out in different contexts. Therefore, instructors should refrain from overcorrecting their students and intervening in their language learning process and instead encourage them to take risks and produce the target language. According to Krashen (1982), error correction may cause students to be defensive and refrain from making mistakes. They avoid taking risks to make complex structures and they focus on grammar structure instead of meaning, which may destroy the communicative purpose and intervene with their learning process. Revell (1979) also added that in the controlled practice stage students should practice the new structures and grammar without too much interference from the teacher because too much intervention causes students' fear of making mistakes and inhibition. In addition, according to Baker and Westrup (2003), giving excessive feedback on students' oral skills reduces their motivation and causes fear of making mistakes. Hence, instructors should provide positive feedback to support and enhance students' oral skills.

It has long been disputed by second language researchers whether it is more beneficial to give immediate or delayed feedback. Immediate feedback can be described as the feedback provided at the time of speaking whereas delayed feedback is defined as the feedback given later or after the performance (Unsal Sakiroglu, 2020). Both might be useful in different situations. Some studies showed that learners preferred to be corrected during the conversations, through immediate feedback (Lee E.J., 2013). However, when teachers provide immediate feedback and correct students' performance, they disrupt the flow of the conversation in a speaking activity (Harmer, 1991). During a fluency activity, when teachers interrupt and correct students' errors in grammar, vocabulary, or pronunciation, the focus shifts from meaning to form. Therefore, students' focus becomes on accuracy more than fluency. Also, their stress levels increase and it may cease learning (Bohlke, 2014). According to Harmer (1991), the feedback given on students' performance should vary depending on the stages of the lesson, tasks and the sort of mistakes. When fluency is the focus, it is expected teachers to give feedback after the speaking performance. However, if the focus is accuracy, immediate feedback is suggested (Ellis, 2009).

On the other hand, Bohlke (2014) stated the right time for error correction for many teachers is when students finish speaking practice. Teachers should also be cautious while determining the correction type because inappropriate feedback may lead to

anxiety and emotional reactions in EFL learners (Agudo and de Dios, 2013). It is crucial to decide the type of feedback by considering the preferences of students in order to provide more efficient oral feedback (Lyster, Saito and Sato, 2013). According to Martinez (2014), even though many learners consider corrective feedback as a useful strategy and they prefer to be corrected in the classroom, some students show emotional reactions and they find it humiliating and inhibiting. Unsal Sakiroglu (2020) stated that most of the participants in her study preferred delayed feedback with positive manners. She suggested teachers considering student anxiety while providing feedback. She also emphasized the importance of providing a friendly environment during oral corrective feedback.

If it is better to give feedback after the activity is completed (Bohlke, 2014), teachers may benefit from technology because some online platforms are effective in giving feedback. For example, Hsu, Wang, and Comac (2008) conducted a study to unveil whether the use of audio blogs assists teachers to develop instruction. During the treatment, communication with ESL students, oral assignments, and the evaluation of their performance was carried out through audio blogs. The findings illustrated that the use of audio blogs was useful for instructional needs and it provided an environment where teachers evaluated students' performance and gave effective oral feedback.

#### **2.4. Importance of Speaking Skills for EFL Learners**

Researchers have long studied the importance of speaking skills. Many factors make learning speaking skills crucial for EFL learners. The first reason why learning speaking skill is essential is related to the role of English as a global language. Burns and Hill (2013) stated that the attention of learners and educators on oral communication has raised because of the growth of English as a global language. Most learners expect to communicate both orally and written to have more opportunities in their profession, so they prefer English as a medium of instruction. Being competent in English is mostly required and expected in business life. If learners practice speaking, they might express their knowledge in their fields better, which results in a better position in their profession (Baker and Westrup, 2003). Besides, in the era of electronic communication and mass media, most data exchanged among people occurs through oral communication. So, it has an important role in people's academic and business life. Secondly, its communicative function makes speaking skills outstanding.

Rivers (1981) compared the use of speaking skills outside the classroom with reading and writing skills and Rivers advocated that speaking is the most common skill that is applied outside the classroom. Mazouzi (2013) stated that being able to use the language depends on speaking ability. Speaking skill is crucial in daily activities and learners take place in real conversations through speaking skills. Lastly, speaking skill is also substantial to improve knowledge of grammar, vocabulary and writing skill. According to Leong and Ahmadi (2017), once an L2 learner improves speaking skills, his other language skills become better because the ability to express ideas helps to develop other skills of the language.

## **2.5. Fluency, Accuracy and Anxiety in Speaking Skills**

### **2.5.1 Fluency**

There are numerous definitions of fluency. For example, Skehan (1998) defined fluency as a natural process that occurs when the initial declarative knowledge is automatized. In other words, during fluent speech production mental resources do not need to check oral production. Therefore, speech production happens more rapidly but less consciously. Ellis (2009) defined fluency as the ability to communicate in real-time. Nation (1991) described fluency as the capacity to keep a conversation without hesitation and having a lot of pauses that may hinder communication. Similarly, according to Abbaspour (2016), fluency is the ability to speak or write smoothly. Hedge (2005) examined fluency from a broader perspective. She maintained that fluency is the capacity to combine words, phrases and pronouncing the words appropriately. Bumandalai (2013) defined fluency as the capacity to use language with some rate, flow, and tone of voice. To have a more fluent speech, it is required to improve speaking rate, stress, intonation, and reduced words.

One way to realize what fluency is to examine how it is developed. To begin with, Ellis (1997) stated that using the language increases fluency. More practice will enhance fluency because it improves automaticity (Segalowitz, 2003). Skehan (1998) asserted that the ability to use the language appropriately depends on using the language with some ease and speed. If an L2 speaker focuses on meaning more than the structure, he displays skilled behavior. Skehan resembles that behavior to driving a car or playing a musical instrument. Therefore, it can be inferred that the more

learners practice the target language, the more they become skilled performers and improve their fluency.

Another factor that may contribute to fluency is task planning. Ellis (2009) studied different types of planning, which are pre-task planning and within-task planning. According to Ellis, different types of planning can enhance learners' performance in fluency, accuracy, and complexity. For example, pre-task planning (rehearsal and strategic planning) increases fluency because learners can rehearse the task before the real performance. Besides, strategic planning, which is also called pre-task preparation, provides learners planning time before a task and it results in more fluent speech (Ellis, 2009; Foster and Skehan, 1996).

In addition to task planning (Foster and Skehan, 1996; Mehnert, 1998; Yuan and Ellis, 2003), task repetition (Bygate, 2001; Bygate and Samuda, 2005; Lynch and Maclean, 2000) also promotes fluency. Task repetition assists learners to use vocabulary and grammar structures. Bohlke (2014: 126) posited that "when learners repeat the task, their cognitive demands are lessened, and their conceptualizing becomes more automatized". Lynch and Maclean (2000) also advocated immediate task repetition increased fluency.

Several studies show that task repetition can positively affect fluency. Nation (1989) explored the benefit of task repetition on fluency through 4/3/2 task, which is used in classrooms. In this task, students were allowed four minutes to talk about a topic and the same story repeated in three and two minutes. This task includes both time pressure and task repetition. The results of the study indicated that the speech rate of learners enhanced, and false starts, hesitations and repeated words in learners' speech diminished. Arevart and Nation (1991) replicated the study with more participants and the findings suggested that most of the participants significantly improved their fluency, especially in terms of speed and hesitations, and complexity through task repetition. Jong and Perfetti (2011) concluded that the studies conducted proved the short-term effects of task planning and task repetition on fluency.

Topic familiarity may also contribute to fluency. Bui (2014: 78) stated that "topic familiarity enables learners with greater fluency with fewer breakdowns and repair fluency". Topic familiarity both prepares learners for the task and helps the whole process of speaking because it affects the Conceptualization and the Formulation in

Levelt's (1989) speaking model (Ibid). According to Skehan (1998), if L2 learners' target language system is not automatized, their restricted processing ability causes challenges for L2 learners. In other words, it results in a lower speech rate, more pauses, and a shorter speaking time to deal with unfamiliar topics.

Last but not least, learning the target language where it is spoken also improves fluency. The development in language fluency have been examined in different learning contexts (Jong and Perfetti, 2011). A number of studies indicated that learners showed little progress in fluency, particularly in terms of speed and length of runs when they learn the language in English-medium courses in their homeland because of the restricted opportunities to use the language (e.g. Freed, 1995; Freed, Segalowitz and Dewey, 2004; Segalowitz and Freed, 2004; Towell, 2002; Towell, Hawkins and Bazergui, 1996). However, many exchange students made remarkable progress in their oral skills, especially in terms of fluency if they attended in longer programs (DeKeyser, 2007).

Another way to realize what fluency is to examine how it is measured in SLA. Fluency is measured in many different ways. Karimy and Pishkar (2017: 50) used a combination of different measuring types;

*The mean length of pauses (measured in seconds), the phonation/time ratio (the percentage of time spent speaking as a proportion of the total time taken to produce the speech), the mean length of fluent runs (the mean number of syllables produced between pauses), the articulation rate in syllables per minute (dividing the total number of syllables produced by the amount of time taken to produce them, excluding pause time).*

According to Pishkar, Moinzadeh, and Dabaghi (2017: 69), "the speech rate, the mean length of utterance, phonation time ratio and the number of stressed words produced per minute were the best predictors of fluency scores". Yuan and Ellis (2003) measured fluency by calculating the number of meaningful syllables. Sangarun (2005), and De Jong and Perfetti (2011) measured it through counting effective use of syllables per minute, Larsen-Freeman (2006), and Oh and Lee (2012) measured it through number of words per T-unit in each minute. According to Skehan and Foster (2005), to measure fluency, three factors are important which are speed, pause, and length of run. According to Thornbury (2005), there are some prominent elements like speed and



pausing that need to be considered when defining fluency. Pause is essential for breathing and all speakers need to stop from time to time. However, the frequency and length of pausing are significant to be a fluent speaker. When the frequency and length of pausing are compared, the frequency of pausing is more important than the length of pausing. Thornbury (2005) also emphasized that the appropriate placement of pauses is a crucial factor. In other words, the speaker should pause after a meaningful group of words, units or phrases. Lastly, another prominent factor is the length of the run. It means the number of words between pauses. If a speaker utters more words between pauses, he sounds more fluent.

### **2.5.2 Accuracy**

Ellis (2009) defined accuracy as the capacity to refrain from making mistakes during the performance. According to Lan (1994), accuracy means applying the language without hindering features of the language, such as phonology, syntax, semantics, and discourse. According to Abbaspour (2016), it is the ability to use the language grammatically appropriate. Bumandalai (2013) described accuracy as applying the language with appropriate structures including sounds, words, and grammar during oral production.

An important issue in SLA is to examine how fluency, accuracy, and complexity interact. According to Skehan's (1996) trade-off hypothesis (the limited attentional capacity model), working memory has limited attentional capacity and it difficult to focus on more than one area at a time. In other words, increasing attention in one area (e.g. accuracy) may result in the expense of the others (e.g. fluency). However, Robinson (2001, 2005) came up with a counter-argument and theory, which is called as the cognition hypothesis. He claims that each complex task does not lead to trade-off effects. Learners have multiple attentional pools. According to this hypothesis, when learners expose to cognitively and functionally challenging tasks, they become more motivated to produce more a complex and accurate language, which means more challenging tasks may improve accuracy and complexity. This hypothesis supported that L2 learners can pay attention to multiple areas simultaneously (Benzehaf, 2016).

Another way to realize what accuracy is to examine how it is measured. Accuracy covers different aspects of linguistic competence including vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation (Torres, 1997). To test accuracy, vocabulary or grammar can be chosen

(Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth, 2000). According to Skehan (2009), in order to be accurate in speaking and writing, it is expected to use correct grammar and vocabulary. Besides, in order to measure accuracy, mostly the number of errors are counted. According to García-Ponce, et al. (2018: 81), accuracy can be measured through error-free clauses “calculated by identifying the number of learners’ error-free clauses, divided by the total number of clauses produced by the learners, and multiplying the result by 100”. In addition, accuracy can be measured in two ways, either specific or general (Ellis and Barkhuizen, 2005). The specific measures focus on measuring certain structures of language (Crookes, 1989; Kawauchi, 2005; Wigglesworth, 1997). It attempts to measure one error type, such as “correct verb forms, correct past tense use, and article use” (Bui and Skehan, 2018: 2). When it comes to general accuracy, it is considered a more realistic measure (Skehan and Foster, 1999) because it attempts to measure more general differences in accuracy (Skehan and Foster, 1997). Beniss and Bazzaz (2014: 55) exemplified the different ways that general measure of accuracy can be gauged including;

*Percentage of error-free speech (Foster and Skehan, 1996), error-free T-units (Ortega, 1999; Robinson, 1995), error-free AS-units ( Lambert and Engler, 2007), the number of errors per 100 words ( Kuiken and Vedder, 2007; Wolfe-Quintero, Inagaki, and Kim, 1998) number of errors per T-unit (Bygate, 2001), errors per one hundred words (Mehnert, 1998).*

Considering the role of grammar in the measurement of accuracy, it might be also useful to examine how grammatical structure is taught in language classes. Ellis (2014) stated that the target of grammar lessons is to assist learners to use the language accurately and fluently. Nevertheless, it takes a long time to acquire grammatical structures and before the production stage, students run through many stages. Therefore, it is arguable whether grammar lessons achieve their goals, and whether one or series of grammar lessons are enough for learners to acquire grammar structures (Ibid). There are two types of teaching grammar, explicit and implicit. The former stands for teaching grammar structures like mathematical formulae by ignoring long term process of procedural knowledge and communicative purposes. It is also described as teachable, which can be taught through conscious raising instruction either directly or indirectly. In direct instruction, teachers present grammar rules with their explanations. However, in indirect instruction, learners are expected to explore

grammatical rules by themselves. The latter stands for teaching grammar through a task-based approach, which means incidental language learning that can be explained as teaching language through meaning-focused communicative tasks in which attention to grammar structures appears naturally. Although it is a long process and takes a long time to acquire grammatical structures, it is necessary for language learning because efficient use of a second language is achieved through access to implicit knowledge. On the other hand, implicit teaching of grammar is described as unteachable, but teachers might assist learners to get the grammatical structures by providing them an environment in which learners expose to the language more and practice it more by drawing their attention on the target grammar structures when they are on task (Ibid).

It is a controversial issue which grammar strategy teachers need to apply, or which strategy is primary. Oxford, Lee and Park (2007) stated that many teachers consider grammar is crucial in language learning and needs to be drilled. Some teachers believe that the focus should be the meaning, not the form while others believe both form and meaning are equally significant and there should be a balance while teaching grammar. Oxford, Lee and Park (2007) posited that teachers may apply to different strategies to teach grammar. Nevertheless, no matter what kind of grammar strategy they use in the classroom, learning may not happen if it doesn't match with students' learning strategies. In other words, the teacher's strategy may not be applicable for each student because some students may prefer to learn grammar through a different strategy. Students create their learning strategies according to their purposes and desires. However, many factors might have an impact on students learning strategy, such as cognitive styles, age, individual differences, educational background, cultural background. To be more specific, although some students may adapt themselves to the teacher's strategy and expectations, some might suffer from language learning disabilities and they have difficulties in taking grammar rules even if they want to follow their teacher's strategy. Or, adult learners and young learners may have a different learning strategy. To exemplify, adult learners might be more rule-oriented compared to young learners and focus on the form even if they are provided communicative tasks in the classroom. Also, cultural reasons may affect the type of learners' grammar strategy. Students in some cultures might not feel that they learn when the grammar is presented by implicit instruction. In other words, learners do not

consider implicit instruction as teaching since they are not presented forms. All in all, learners get the grammar structure through their learning strategy intentionally or unintentionally. In other words, even if the grammar is presented by implicit instruction, they may develop a strategy that does not match with the instructors' teaching strategy. (Ibid).

Some researchers emphasize the importance of accuracy during oral production. For example, Bumandalai (2013) emphasized the necessity of focusing on the features of accuracy, such as vocabulary, sounds, grammar, and culture. According to her, although beginner learners mostly pay more attention to accuracy, they lose their interest in the accuracy once they get more proficient. Mazouzi (2013) pointed out students need to focus on using appropriate and complete language structure during oral production. Similarly, Abdullaeva (n.d.), contended that currently learners focus more on fluency than accuracy, so teachers need to highlight the significance of accuracy. If learners do not make accurate sentences, it will be difficult for the interlocutors to keep the conversation or to comprehend the speaker. Hence, he advocates the necessity and importance of accuracy in speaking performance.

Considering the importance of accuracy in oral production, it might be efficient to examine what promotes accuracy. One way of increasing accuracy is to provide learners with time for pre-task planning. Providing time for preparation has positive effects since it produces more complex grammar and elaboration during oral production (Crookes, 1989). To be more precise, as Goh (2007) pointed out pre-task planning assists learners to develop certain aspects in speaking performance. It promotes learners to use appropriate grammar structures. Wang (2014) suggested that learners benefit from both pre-task planning and online planning since pre-task planning enables students to organize their ideas as well as providing input to generate ideas. Through online planning, learners might pay more attention to accuracy.

Another way of promoting accuracy is task repetition. As Bygate (2001) pointed out, task repetition has a positive effect on oral accuracy. Learners become aware of the expectations if they do the same or similar tasks. Bohlke (2014: 126) underlined the importance of task repetition by stating “just as rehearsals can improve a pianist’s performance, task repetition allows the learner to practice and improve, to have a second chance”. Ahmadian (2012) held that task repetition promotes learners to build on what they have studied and it gives them more time to reformulate grammatical

forms more appropriately. Bygate (2001) stated that task repetition after ten weeks had a positive impact on learners' performance. However, this positive effect was especially in terms of complexity, which could have been because of the raising awareness on complexity. Bui and Skehan (2018) stated that if the time lag between the first and repeated performance is not long, learners' performance improves in the repeated task, especially in terms of accuracy. Therefore, they suggest repetition as a teaching technique. Bygate (1996) asserted that when learners repeated the same task, their focus shifts from meaning to accuracy. Bygate and Samuda (2005: 67) stated that "repeated encounters do not involve the learner in doing the 'same' thing, but rather in working differently on the same material".

### **2.5.3 Fluency and Accuracy**

It is a controversial issue whether accuracy or fluency is more important in language learning (Karimy and Pishkar, 2017). According to Karimy and Piskar (2017), they are both equally important, and student needs and the aim of the instruction shape which one needs to be more focused. Age of the learners, educational backgrounds and their levels are all important to decide what the focus should be. To exemplify the educational background, if learners are adults with little formal education, it is not necessary to focus on grammar structures. In that case, fluency becomes more essential (Pishkar, 2015). However, if the purpose is to develop writing skills, accuracy becomes more important (Karimy and Pishkar, 2017). According to Mazouzi (2013), there should be a balance between fluency and accuracy in speaking tasks. Both fluency and accuracy are significant components of interactive skills.

It might be useful to examine what fluency and accuracy activities mainly focus on in order to decide which one is prominent or equally important. While the main focus is on meaning in fluency activities, the main focus of the accuracy activities is the correct use of the language (Richards, 2006). Richards (2006: 14) summarized the focus of the fluency and accuracy activities;

*Activities focusing on fluency reflect natural use of language, focus on achieving communication, require meaningful use of language, require the use of communication strategies, produce language that may not be predictable, seek to link language use to context.*

*Activities focusing on accuracy reflect classroom use of language, focus on the formation of correct examples of language, practice language out of context, practice small samples of language, do not require meaningful communication, control choice of language.*

Richards (2006) suggested that there should be a balance in using fluency and accuracy activities and they should stand for each other. It can be started with either accuracy or fluency task, but the point is to support one another. During a fluency task, if teachers notice difficulties in grammar and pronunciation, depend on the students' performance, learners might be given accuracy tasks. In fluency tasks, because the meaning is prior and learners focus on vocabulary and conversational strategies, accuracy might be neglected. Therefore, it is necessary for teachers to reinforce accuracy with follow up activities as well as feedback (Ibid).

#### **2.5.4 Anxiety**

There is a relationship between oral skills and speaking anxiety (Tanveer, 2007). According to Krashen's affective filter hypothesis (1982), some affective factors play a significant role in facilitating second language acquisition. One of them is a low level of anxiety. Learners with a low level of anxiety are better in second language acquisition because anxiety can raise the affective filter and creates a mental barrier that impedes language acquisition. In other words, if the filter is high, it hinders comprehensible input for second language acquisition. As a result, it is implied that it is necessary to support learners by lowering the filter and creating a low-pressured environment for them. Considering the relation between anxiety and oral skills, it might be beneficial to examine some related studies, the reasons behind the speaking anxiety, the role of environment, and the role of technology to overcome foreign language speaking anxiety.

Firstly, there are several studies on the effect of speaking anxiety in language learning. For example, Tanveer (2007) conducted a study on foreign language speaking anxiety and found a connection between stress and anxiety on learners' speaking performance. The learners who had high anxiety had lower performance in oral skills. Similarly, some studies illustrated that most students experience the highest level of anxiety in speaking skills. For example, in the study conducted by Phillips (1999), most students admitted that speaking in the target language makes them nervous.

Secondly, some studies try to unveil the reasons behind foreign language speaking anxiety. For example, Leong and Ahmadi (2017) advocated that the fear of making mistakes and being criticized by their peers also result in inhibition. Therefore, these students avoid drawing attention of other people or they are usually shy in class. Even if they want to express their opinion, sometimes they are inhibited.

Thirdly, several researchers are looking for ways to overcome foreign language speaking anxiety. Some findings emphasize the role of a friendly and supportive environment while some of them advocate the importance of providing appropriate activities to deal with speaking anxiety. For example, Leong and Ahmadi (2017) also examined the factors that may influence the improvement of speaking ability. Their findings showed that learners who have low self-confidence, low motivation, and high anxiety have some difficulties in their oral performance even if they are competent enough in terms of linguistic skills. Hence, their study suggested that if learners are exposed to a friendly and cooperative environment, they may deal with these challenges. Similarly, Boonkit (2010) conducted a study on the factors that improve speaking skills. The results showed that providing appropriate activities for learners helps them reduce foreign language speaking anxiety. The findings of the study also indicated that when students have a chance to select the topic, they feel more comfortable and confident in their oral performance. As the literature suggests, it is important to provide a friendly and supportive environment where students feel more confident and enthusiastic, helps them raise interest and become more involved in speaking tasks.

Lastly, according to Stollhans (2015), although technology has been common in language classes, it is rarely used for productive skills. However, some researchers are looking for ways to overcome speaking anxiety through technology. They are trying to explore the role of technology to provide a less pressured environment to enhance oral skills and reduce anxiety. In a case study conducted by Stollhans (2015), Voxopop tool was used to enhance learners' speaking skills. In this study, a talk group was created and students were expected to record and discuss through recordings in the talk group. The task required them to listen to their peers, comprehend them and respond to them. The results of the study indicated that learners could rerecord their performance and they also could practice beforehand. Therefore, this tool was effective in providing a less pressured environment. Shamsi, Altaha and Gilanlioglu

(2019) conducted a study on the use of M-learning (mobile learning) to decrease speaking anxiety on EFL Learners. The result of the study indicated that M-learning had an important impact on reducing students' anxiety levels. Furthermore, the interviews made with students confirmed the positive effect of M-learning. Hamzaoglu and Koçoğlu (2016) also attempted to examine the impact of podcasts in EFL students' oral communication and speaking anxiety. The findings of the study revealed that using podcasts was efficient for students to promote their oral performance and decrease speaking anxiety level. The interview results indicated that students had positive attitudes towards the use of podcasts and stated the positive impact of podcasts for their self-esteem, pronunciation, and also vocabulary knowledge. The results of the study also proved that there was a relation between speaking skills and speaking anxiety level. Similarly, Özdemir (2018) carried out a study to reveal the effect of video-based computer-mediated communication on speaking skills and anxiety of EFL learners. The main purpose of the study was to examine if blended instruction affects students' oral achievement and foreign language anxiety. She found that students who received blended instruction made relatively more improvement in oral exams. However, the differences between the experimental and control groups did not approach significance. All the same, the experimental group displayed lower foreign language anxiety levels than the control group. The findings also illustrated students' positive attitudes towards blended instruction and its effect on improving their speaking skills.

## **2.6. The Role of Technology in Language Learning**

According to Healey (2016), one of the earliest teaching models with the developing technology was computer-aided instruction (CAI, later known as computer-assisted language learning, CALL), in which teaching occurred through computer and learners were just pressing keys. However, with the invention of microcomputers in the 1980s, computers took place in classrooms and they were used for drills and practice. According to Levy (2016), learning through computers used to take place only in labs. However, in present CALL is defined as learning language through any microcomputers including mobile phones, desktops, laptops. (Egbert, 2005). Levy (2016) also stated that through these technological devices, language learning might take place in any settings both in and outside the classroom.



Healey (2016) stated that with the advent of the internet, it has been easier to reach a wide audience and resources. With Web 2.0 tools, which is also called as social web, it has become practical to create and upload videos. Web 2.0 tools make it possible to interact via text, audio or video, and therefore, the learning has become more learner-centered. According to Farr and Murray (2016), the development of technology has benefited language teachers considerably as they use technological tools in their profession. However, with the expanding technology, it is difficult to select the best tools and programs for educators. Therefore, the teacher's role is crucial in practicing speaking. They both carry out speaking practices in language classrooms and decide the appropriate CALL tools to use to improve speaking outside the classroom (Blake, 2017).

Advancements in technology have affected language learning positively because technology provides plenty of opportunities to practice the language outside of classes through blogs, wikis, podcasts, videos, music, and mobile phones. Recently, most educators have accepted that computers and mobiles have a vital impact on language learning and communicative skills, so today many teachers are trying to integrate these devices into teaching, or they are using these devices to communicate with their students outside the classes. As a result, these devices are used as a bridge from inside to the outside of the classes.

Many terms have been introduced with the advancing technology in language learning and one of them is Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL). One of the advantages of MALL is that it enables easier communication among teachers and students outside of class. Utilizing some mobile applications and social media, a learner may easily have a direct interaction with classmates, teachers and even with a foreign speaker to improve his speaking skills. Reinders (2010) advocated that the use of mobile devices maximizes the connection between the classroom and the outside world. If mobiles are used appropriately, it can break down the classroom wall and make it possible to communicate with people all over the world.

As Kukulska-Hulme (2009) stated, mobile learning is not only useful because of its mobility, but also its function. It provides learners with the opportunity to take place in any activities outside of class, which makes time and place flexible, and the world smaller. Furthermore, as Shield and Kukulska-Hulme (2008) stated, MALL makes it

possible to take and send messages outside of class hours, which can be useful for learners. In addition, MALL is useful for speaking activities. Çakır (2016) highlighted that applications and MALL-based activities provide learners with opportunities to improve their speaking skills because learners can practice speaking through their voice or video recording.

### **2.6.1 Face-to-Face Learning and E-Learning**

Neumeier (2005) described face-to-face (f2f) learning as the learning in a classroom or other places which does not include any use of technology. Nevertheless, she also asserted that it is impossible not to benefit from any technology in present classes. Marczak (2013) suggested that in the case of not having technological equipment in EFL classroom, learners may benefit from technology as pre- or post-task, which requires using technology outside the classroom. The term E-learning or online learning is usually used as the counterpart to face to face learning. Different definitions are provided for E-learning. Tavangarian, et al. (2004) defined E-learning as any type of educational setting in which technology assists learning. Mason and Rennie (2008) described online learning as distributed learning where learners should select resources to enhance learning. They also added that online tasks may include language tests with feedback provided by the computer. Motteram and Sharma (2009) elaborated online learning as a platform in which students get access to the materials uploaded by their teachers and interact with their teachers or friends through synchronous communication tools, such as chat rooms or asynchronous communication tools like email or forums. According to Banados (2005), in order to provide an effective learning environment, teachers should apply to both E-learning and f2f learning and it should be well-arranged.

### **2.6.2 Blended Learning**

Because of the advancements in technology and rising demands on the use of mobiles, a new trend in language learning called blended learning (BL) has been introduced. BL is defined as the type of teaching that includes half online and half traditional classroom-based teaching or learning (Bonk and Graham, 2012; Marczak, 2013). The main purpose in BL is to combine technological tools with classroom instruction. BL facilitates learning process by providing learners with more input and assisting them to produce more output. In present, the term is called a 'right blend' which caters to the

effective learner-centered learning environment (King, 2016). In other words, the word 'right blend' refers to using the most appropriate tool and technique to teach in a more enjoyable and efficient way.

Badawi (2009) contended that BL provides an environment where learners exchange ideas and receive individual or collective feedback. Metcalf (2003) posited that BL expands teaching and learning processes to the outside classroom either synchronously or asynchronously. By placing emphasis on students learning outside of class, BL develops the learner autonomy, and provides a great opportunity for continuous learning. Hinkelman (2005) elaborated BL as a flexible learning platform that includes technology. King (2016) posited that in order to achieve an efficient BL approach, it is necessary to integrate two different environments to support each other. For example, if the teacher introduces a new topic, the online platform may be used for extra practice or to make students ready for the next topic.

Asynchronous blended learning is beneficial for students who complain about little thinking time in f2f activities because it offers more thinking time for reflection (Sharma and Westbrook, 2016). This usually happens during the pre-task stage where learners avail themselves of time required to perform the task. Crookes (1989) examined the effect of pre-task planning before speaking tasks on enhancing oral skills. The participants of the study were divided into two groups. Group one did not have preparation time before the speaking tasks whereas group two was provided with a planning time. The findings of the study illustrated that the learners who had planning time before the speaking tasks produced various vocabulary with more complex grammar and elaborated content during their oral production.

Some researchers elaborate on the benefits of BL in teaching and learning. BL has several advantages. For Example, Tanveer (2011) pointed out that integrating e-learning in face-to-face learning assists learners to be more autonomous and confident. The learning environment that E-learning creates helps introverted learners feel more comfortable expressing themselves which in turns promotes learning. According to Soliman (2014), e-learning is an important tool to support face to face learning for EFL learners. He investigated the impact of e-learning on EFL learners' language skills and independent learning. The results indicated that supporting face to face instruction with e-learning improved learners' language achievement and fostered independent learning. In a similar study, Larsen (2012) also found that blended learning was

effective in promoting autonomy because learners were more focused and in charge of their learning.

### **2.6.3 Computer-Mediated Communication**

When CALL tools permeated in language classrooms, a new term appeared as Computer-Mediated Communication (CMC). According to Heift and Vyatkina (2017), CMC technologies, asynchronous email and synchronous chat, started to be used in the 1990s for language teaching. Healey (2016) defined CMC as a related term with CALL that focuses on interaction through the internet. There are several definitions for CMC, but according to Hirvela (2006: 233), the common one is as follows;

*The action of placing students in a networked environment through which they communicate with each other electronically in or outside the classroom. This may occur in either synchronous formats (real-time, i.e. immediate communication) or in asynchronous ones (delayed communication, i.e. students being able to access and respond to messages at their leisure).*

CMC consists of two categories, which are synchronous or asynchronous. Each communication type has their own advantages. According to Ziegler (2016), whereas synchronous computer-mediated communication (SCMC) allows students a chance to communicate and negotiate meaning during the conversation, asynchronous communication contributes to learners' presentation skills mostly through creating an environment for negotiation. According to Graham (2006), asynchronous communication provides learners with more time to prepare while the synchronous communication has no lag time. Similarly, Ziegler (2016) claimed that the time lag makes CMC more efficient to improve oral skills when it is compared to face to face interaction.

What is more, asynchronous communication provides learners with an opportunity to revise and rerecord their output and publish the best one (Özdemir, 2018). According to Young and West (2018), asynchronous communication provides an environment for students to practice in their own time. They can rehearse their presentation beforehand on their own. They can then select their best performance to publish. The revision element creates the opportunities for task repetition which leads to improvement in

learners' speaking skills. To sum up, providing learners planning and preparation time has a positive impact on learners' speaking production.

Another advantage of asynchronous communication is that it enables learners to evaluate their own performance. If learners are alerted about their errors, they start to become more vigilant about their language production and conduct more self-correction (Willis, 1998). Audio and video recorders extend the ways of self-assessment in speaking (Torky, 2006). For instance, learners can focus on some linguistic areas, such as vocabulary and grammar (Thomson, 1992). According to Young and West (2018), video recording has been used by learners to gain self-awareness and recognize the skills that they need to improve their language proficiency. According to Graham (2006), the fact that learners record their voice during online communication raises their awareness towards their form and structure of their language production which in turn enhances their speaking skills.

#### **2.6.3.1 Previous Studies on CMC**

There have been several studies to unveil the effect of CMC on oral communication by comparing face-to face communication with CMC and their findings show a positive effect of CMC use on language learning. Chun (1994) conducted a study to reveal the impact of CMC on learners' interactive oral skills. The findings demonstrated that CMC tasks influenced the development of interactive oral skills. Similarly, Beauvois (1997) investigated the value of CMC on learners' oral achievement. Eighty-three students of fourth-semester French classes participated in the study and they were divided into two groups as CMC and f2f groups. Both groups were provided the same content including the same grammar and tasks. The participants took three speaking exams and their performance was graded in terms of pronunciation, accuracy, and content. The findings proved the positive impact of CMC on oral skills. In another study, Heift and Vyatkina (2017) compared CMC and f2f instruction. They advocated that CMC enables more time to organize ideas including an opportunity for self-evaluation and revision. Besides, similar to f2f communication, CMC enhances the participation of the learners in oral practice (Chun 1994; Kern 1995).

It might be difficult especially for large classes to practice the target language because it is not possible to give learners equal chances to speak because of the time constraints. Some students are more introvert and they are dominated by extrovert students in the classroom. Therefore, it might be useful to benefit CMC tools to give introvert learners more chances to practice the target language. According to Warschauer (2001), although some students are more dominant in face-to-face instruction, students in CMC activities have equal chances to participate in lessons. CMC hence allows students in large classes to have more opportunities to practice oral skills (Meskill and Anthony, 2005).

Graham (2006) elaborated that online learning environments facilitate learning by providing students the opportunity to interact outside the classroom. By utilizing online interaction, learners may practice the language more. Barrs (2012) examined the impact of CMC on enhancing communication outside the classroom. The findings revealed that CMC offers an efficient environment for learners to use the target language. Blake (2000) examined the discourse in chat windows to reveal how they contribute to language learning. The findings demonstrated that CMC enhanced the use of target language outside the classroom.

CMC can also boost the collaboration among students as they share their experience with each other and/or ask for assistance. Harasim (2007) stated that students learn better when they collaborate through CMC activities. Walker and White (2013) advocated that CMC expedites learning process as people start working together. Because of the internet, people all around the world may interact with each other and learn in a collaborative environment. In addition, Kitade (2000) examined the effects of CMC (using internet chat) on students' interactions in language learning. The findings illustrated that CMC was useful in that it increased the amount of comprehensive interactions and collaborative learning among students. Zorko (2009) examined the use of wiki in language learning. The findings indicated that students showed a more collaborative attitude, and they learned from peers and interaction with the teacher. Therefore, Zorko assumed that the wiki is useful to increase collaboration in language learning. Nguyen (2008) stated that CMC makes it easier for language teachers to prepare meaningful and engaging activities that inspire learners to interact and learn from each other. Junco, Heiberger, and Loken (2010) unveiled the impact of using "twitter" on students' learning and engagement. Their findings indicated that

the use of the social media increased the contact between students and promoted communication and active learning among them.

Learning environment has an important role in increasing learners' motivation and willingness to practice. There is accumulating evidence that CMC provides a motivating learning environment that is conducive to language learning (Chien and Liou, 2002; Donaldson and Kotter, 1999; Vallance, 1998; Yang, 2001;). Lee K.W. (2000) advocated that the internet has a crucial role in increasing motivation in language learning. Beauvois (1998) illustrated that students are more enthusiastic in the CMC context than face to face communication. According to Hirvela (2006), communicating through computers enhances learner's willingness to use the target language. Similarly, Young (2003) demonstrated that the use of the internet was effective in motivating students to learn English. He contended that because of the technology and virtual environment, the learning process became more active and less stressful. He also illustrated that computer-mediated communication had an impact on improving communication skills, and it created an environment where students expressed themselves better.

However, not all studies find conclusive results in favor of CMC. For example, Abrams (2003) investigated the effect of CMC on learners' language performance with regard to lexical and syntactic complexity in speaking skills. The participants were divided into three groups. Each group was assigned some reading texts that they were required to read and discuss their content in different times and settings in order to prepare for the follow-up oral discussion. While the control group was taking regular class instruction, the synchronous group was given 100 minutes to discuss the reading in WebCT chat site one day before the oral discussion. On the other hand, the asynchronous group was provided one week to carry out the discussion in WebCT bulletin board. In the oral discussions, the participants were responsible for the readings assigned. The analysis of the performance of learners on oral discussion sessions showed that even though the synchronous group delivered the best performance, there was not a notable difference in terms of lexical and syntactic complexity.

## **2.7 The effects of CMC on Oral Fluency, Accuracy, Anxiety, and Students' Attitudes towards CMC**

### **2.7.1 Fluency and Accuracy**

The impact of CMC on language learning, particularly on oral skills, has long been investigated. There is some evidence that suggests that CMC can improve learners' accuracy and fluency in the target language.

Gromik (2012) conducted a study to unveil the effect of asynchronous communication on learners' fluency. The finding of the study illustrated that the participants' speech rate enhanced at the end of the treatment. Even though some of the participants' development might result from the familiarization with the task and the technology, Gromik advocated that the rise in the speech rate was the consequence of asynchronous videos.

The use of asynchronous multimedia-based oral communication (AMOC) can enhance accuracy in speaking as well. Engin (2014) examined the impact of AMOC (through creating digital video tutorials) in an ESL writing lesson. Results showed that students had positive attitudes towards the effect of AMOC in developing their linguistic accuracy. According to Engin (2014), in the preparation stage, learners were careful about the content and accuracy of the language because of their awareness towards audience. In other words, learners were monitoring their language while recording their videos because they were sharing them with others. Therefore, this awareness increased their focus on accuracy.

Aboudaif and Kassem (2018) investigated the impact of BL on Saudi EFL learners' accuracy and fluency at the university level. In this study, students in the experimental group got both face-to-face instruction and online instruction. Both qualitative and quantitative data results illustrated that compared to face to face instruction, accuracy and fluency of students improved more through blended instruction.

Özdener and Satar (2008) attempted to explore if CMC technologies assist teachers to deal with some challenges that they encounter in their classes. They argue that it is difficult for language teachers to promote learners' speaking skills because classroom time is not enough to practice and enhance fluency. Another challenge for teachers is to establish a balance between fluency and accuracy. Their findings showed that CMC might be an alternative to overcome those challenges for Turkish students. They also



reported that CMC might be beneficial in overcoming foreign language speaking anxiety. Also, it might be also beneficial to provide extra time to practice the language.

### **2.7.2 Anxiety**

CMC can decrease anxiety and promotes communication between teachers and students (Kamhi-Stein, 2000). Young (2003) investigated the effects of integrating the internet into language learning. The findings revealed that the integration of technology turned the passive learning process into more active learning because it provided an environment in which students explored the new language in a more relaxed setting. The study also indicated that in addition to reducing anxiety, CMC offered learners an environment where students could easily express themselves. It also contributed to learners' development of skills, such as critical thinking, oral skills. Freiermuth (2001) found that learners felt more relaxed in online chat and they did not avoid speaking because of their language deficiencies. Masson (2010) searched the effect of using video-based messages on speaking skills. One-hundred and seven participants were expected to upload weekly online journals through a web tool called "eyejot". The online journals required them to exchange ideas with the teacher. The findings indicated that the participants expressed their positive attitudes towards the impact of the treatment on developing speaking skills. The results also showed that the use of technology was effective in decreasing the speaking anxiety level.

### **2.7.3 Learners' Attitudes towards CMC**

Several studies have been conducted to unveil students' perceptions of using technology to improve their language skills (e.g., Encalada, 2019; Kırkgöz, 2011; Shih, 2010). The bulk of these studies indicated that students have positive attitudes towards the use of CMC tools to enhance their language skills. For example, in a study conducted by Shih (2010), a blended instruction was applied which included both online and face to face instruction. Forty-four senior university students participated in the study. The data were collected through peer and instructor feedback, interviews, self-reflection, and a learning satisfaction survey. The survey results illustrated that learners were content with the blended instruction and they believed that it was useful in helping them improve their language proficiency. Similarly, Encalada (2019) investigated the attitudes of EFL learners towards the use of self-recording videos and their impact on improving their speaking skills. In the study, the students were required

to record a video about the content of the week and upload it to the Moodle platform. The findings showed that students had positive attitudes towards the integration of video recording in their classes. Most of the participants expressed that using self-recording videos were beneficial for pronunciation. Some students also mentioned its effect on reducing their anxiety levels, enhancing their learning, and providing real practice.

Kırkgöz (2011) attempted to explore whether blended learning in an English-speaking course contributes to students' oral skills. She pointed participants of the study had positive attitudes towards the integration of technology in their courses. The interviews with the students indicated that they believed the use of technology help them improve their oral skills and provide an innovative learning experience for them. The learners could also recognize the areas they needed to improve. She also reported that there was a significant improvement in students' oral skills. Özdener and Satar (2008) investigated students' perceptions of voice chat applications and its effects on improving their language skills. Findings showed that most of the students had positive attitudes towards CMC applied through chat windows. They expressed that chatting in English was an enjoyable experience for them., and it was also effective in improving their language skills, such as reading, writing, speaking, and pronunciation. Besides, some students stated that it was useful to enhance their vocabulary knowledge and practical skills. Nguyen (2011) studied students' perceptions of the effectiveness of CMC for collaborative learning. Most of the students had positive attitudes towards the technology-equipped course. They stated that it was useful for their computer skills and collaborative learning. Also, they were volunteered to attend similar courses in the future and suggested them to the next generation.

As the literature suggests, CMC environments can be integrated into language teaching and learning. Learner perspectives of CMC are mostly positive and they believe that it reduces anxiety and enhances language skills, especially speaking skills. Even though there is a consensus over the positive attitudes of learners towards the use of technology in language classes, the impact of CMC on speaking ability is less straightforward. Özdemir (2018), for example, found that the students who conducted video-recording tasks did not significantly outperform the control group in speaking proficiency test. She, however, measured speaking skills in terms of overall oral

proficiency using the average scores of two independent raters. Undoubtedly, the reliability of the findings of such studies is dependent on the assessment skills of raters.

Another way to examine the effect of video recording on oral proficiency is to measure it in terms of language accuracy and fluency using robust data analysis techniques such as the number of error that students make or the number of syllables that they produce per minute. Such data analysis techniques are relatively more objective and more likely to result in reliable outcomes.

It is important to bear in mind that both fluency and accuracy are the main subskills of speaking proficiency, and as such, their development is one of the main objectives of language teachers. However, there is usually a trade-off between accuracy and fluency (Skehan, 1998). If students focus on accuracy, fluency may decrease. Similarly, if they use a spontaneous flow of language, their accuracy may decrease. Thus, there is a need to look for new ways to improve both accuracy and fluency simultaneously. Of interest is to know if CMC could help language learner develop both their fluency and accuracy without one being achieved at the cost of the other. Thus, this is one main objectives of the present study: Also, further studies are required to reveal the effect of CMC on speaking anxiety in learning contexts such as prep schools where students' motivation gradually waives off as the terms progress. In the light of discussion made above the following research questions are presented:

1. To what extent do video-recorded speaking tasks affect students' speaking fluency?
2. To what extent do video-recorded speaking tasks affect students' accuracy?
3. How do video-recorded speaking tasks affect students' anxiety?
4. What are Turkish language learners' attitudes towards video-recorded speaking tasks?

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **METHODOLOGY**

This section introduces the design of the study and elaborates on the participants and context of the study, procedures and instructional intervention, and sources of data. This section also provides detailed information about data collection and analysis as well as reliability of the data collection instruments.

#### **3.1 The Design of the study**

The present study employs a mixed methods research design. According to Johnson, et al. (2007: 123) defined a mixed methods research as “the type of research in which a researcher or team of researchers combine elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches for the broad purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration”. Both qualitative and quantitative data were collected to examine the effects of blended instruction on speaking fluency, accuracy, anxiety, and students’ perceptions of video-recorded speaking tasks.

Following a quasi-experimental design, participants were divided into a control and an experimental group. The experimental group completed some video-recording tasks and the control group continued with their regular face to face classes. To find out if video recording had any statistically significant effects on students’ fluency and accuracy, a pre-test, posttest method was applied. Similar pre-test and post-test procedure were applied to detect possible changes in students’ anxiety levels in the two study groups. Following Özdemir (2018), qualitative data were obtained through students’ reflections and semi-structured interviews that were administered to the experimental group only.

#### **3.2 The Participants and Context of the Study**

The participants were 28 Turkish language learners of which 14 were female and 14 were male. They were studying English in two intact classes at the tertiary level of English language program. At this level, students develop their language knowledge and experience from A2 to B1 level. The 28 students in two intact classes were equally

divided into the experimental and control groups with 14 students in each group. There were five male and nine female students in the experimental group. The control group included nine male and five female students. The ages of the students ranged between 18 and 22. The participants in this study are considered homogeneous because students in both classes were placed in the same level by taking similar exam results and they were almost at the same age. They had similar backgrounds in terms of language learning. Based on their performance on the placement test, they were put at lower intermediate level at the beginning of the academic year.

This study was conducted in an English preparatory program at tertiary level in a foundation university in Istanbul, Turkey, during the first quarter of the 2019-2020 academic year. The research was carried out after the approval of university authorities taken from the director of the English preparatory program and the Ethics Board Committee. The English preparatory program, where the study was conducted, was accredited by the Commission on English Language Accreditation (CEA) organization that is one of the valued English education quality certificates. The program aims to prepare students for a successful academic life and the necessary language skills for real-life situations. The program takes one year to equip students with the necessary skills in academic studies and social circumstances. In this program, newly registered students can start their undergraduate programs on the condition that they take two proficiency tests, a placement exam and an exemption exam, and achieve the expected scores in these exams. The placement exam consists of reading and writing tests. Students' scores on this exam will determine their place and level in the preparatory classes as well as specifying the students who can take the exemption exam. Students who receive 45 and above are allowed to take the exemption exam. The exemption exam aims to test reading, writing and speaking skills. Students who receive 60 and above can start their courses in their departments. However, the ones who get under 60, are placed in the preparatory program. The English preparatory program consists of five levels and in each level, students take eight weeks of instruction. Students who are in the English preparatory program are expected to complete the fifth level so as to pass the preparatory program and continue their studies in the undergraduate program.

At each level of the English preparatory program, students take two different courses: main course and reading-writing. The level three program consists of twenty-five

hours of instruction a week, which includes ten hours of reading-writing lesson as well as fifteen hours of the main course. Main course hours are mostly shared by two instructors. One of them teaches grammar for ten hours while the other is responsible for teaching listening and speaking skills for five hours a week. In the present study, ten hours of grammar instruction was given by a native speaker English instructor and five hours of listening and speaking classes were given by a Turkish instructor in the both experimental and control groups. The instructor of listening and speaking classes allocated two hours for listening exercises and three hours for speaking exercises.

Convenience sampling technique was employed to choose the classes. In convenience sampling, the participants are chosen from the population who can be easily reached and are convenient at the time of the research (Etikan, Musa and Alkassim, 2016). In the current study, the participants were selected from the available population at level three of an English preparatory program. One of the classes was assigned to the present researcher at the beginning of the term and another level three class, which was similar to the researcher's class, was selected based on the observations of the researcher and consultations with the teachers. Both classes had a Turkish and native English instructor for the main course. The researcher informed students in two different classes about the purpose and procedure of the study. Students were told that the purpose of the study is to find out if video-recorded speaking tasks have any effect on their speaking skills. Students were also informed that participation in the research was voluntary and it would not affect their grades. The consents of all the participants were also collected before the onset of the study.

### **3.3 Procedures and Instructional Intervention**

Two intact classes were selected as the experimental and control groups. Because the researcher was not teaching in both of the classes, she could not select the experimental group randomly in this study. In other words, the researcher was assigned a coursebook class sharing it with a foreign partner, but she had also another class in which students did not have any native English instructor. In order to create equal chances for students and attain more reliable results, the researcher chose a level three class where a Turkish and native English instructor shared the lesson based on her observation and consultation with teachers. In this class, the Turkish instructor was teaching three hours of speaking and two hours of listening skills, and the native English instructor was

teaching ten hours of grammar. To achieve the research goals, the researcher had to choose her own class as the experimental group because the research required assigning some video-recorded speaking tasks that could be achieved by the researcher. The participants of the experimental and control groups were randomly placed in level three classes by the school administration by taking similar exam results.

Before the onset of the study, the participants of the experimental group (N=14) were informed about the opportunity to practice oral skills outside the classroom following the classroom activities. To familiarize the students with the task procedure, the students in the experimental group were introduced to the application (i.e. Flipgrid) used in the study. The researcher shared her earlier experience with ACMC speaking tasks with the experimental group. She illustrated some pictures and videos taken by other students in another class and showed them how ACMC speaking exercises are conducted.

In the study, both the experimental and control groups used the coursebook to do speaking activities in class. The content and number of teaching hours for speaking skills in each class were the same. During the treatment, the students in the experimental group received both f2f instruction and online tasks to support speaking practice in class. In addition to f2f practice, the participants of the experimental group were responsible for a weekly video-recorded speaking task outside of the class assigned by the researcher. They had recorded six videos by the end of the study. As for the control group (N=14), they solely received the traditional classroom-based instruction, which was f2f. They were responsible for the weekly speaking tasks to practice oral skills, including pair work, group work, or presentation for three hours of class time a week. During the speaking practice, they had a chance to interact with their peers and the instructor.

### **3.3.1 Online Instruction in the Experimental Group**

#### **3.3.1.1 Flipgrid Application**

Flipgrid is a free online application and a social learning platform where learners shoot videos and share them with their classmates or the community in Flipgrid (see [flipgrid.com](https://flipgrid.com)). In this application, educators may create grids, add topics and invite learners. It is also easy to access the web tool through a flip code or a QR code. Besides,

learners may easily access this application through their computers, tablets, or mobiles and they can shoot a video anytime and anywhere. This tool is used by educators to engage students outside the class and build their confidence and creativity. It is used to motivate learners to speak outside the classroom and provide them with more exposure to the target language. Also, learners can watch their own videos and educators can provide feedback through Flipgrid. As well as watching their own performances, learners can also watch videos of other participants. Figure 3.1 below illustrates the Flipgrid.

**Figure 3.1: Flipgrid Social Learning Platform and Class Login**



Once educators prepare a Flipgrid task, they can share the code with the class and invite students to sign up for free through their school email addresses. Only the ones who enter the code can take a video or watch other participants' videos. In other words, merely students in a class can see the videos, which helps students feel safer in the platform.

### 3.3.1.2 Video-Recording Tasks

Participants of the experimental group were required to complete six tasks outside the class by using the application. The instructor (researcher) restricted the video length in most of the tasks in order to encourage students to speak faster and improve their fluency. The video length was decided according to the task they were assigned. The subjects of these tasks are presented below. Each week, only one task was used. Table 3.1 illustrates weekly online assignments. The tasks will be explained in the order they were applied during the experiment.



**Table 3.1: The Subject of Video-Recording Tasks**

Task	Subject
1	Ice-breaker: Introductions
2	Celebrations: Organizing a party
3	Work: Describing a dream job
4	Problems: Giving an advice
5	Interview: Interests
6	Vacations: Describing a place

### **Task 1-Introductions**

Following a short introduction of the application, the participants of the experimental group signed in the web tool through their mobile phones. In order not to experience technical problems on the first task, they were expected to record their first videos in the schoolyard. The first task was allotted to introduction since students, who came from different regions of Turkey, were newly registered for the first academic year and they had not known each other before. They were expected to introduce themselves including the information, such as their department, hometown, hobbies. During the first assignment, the students who were hesitant to reveal their faces on the camera were allowed to use some functions, such as using stickers, filters, emoji on the video to hide their faces. However, they were encouraged to take a selfie with their friends before uploading the video in order to help them become more comfortable in front of the camera and motivated with peer support. They were also allowed to pause the video for brainstorming while speaking which made them feel more comfortable. However, for the next videos, they were encouraged to shoot the video with fewer pauses. After the first assignment, some of the videos were watched in the class and feedback was provided by the instructor.

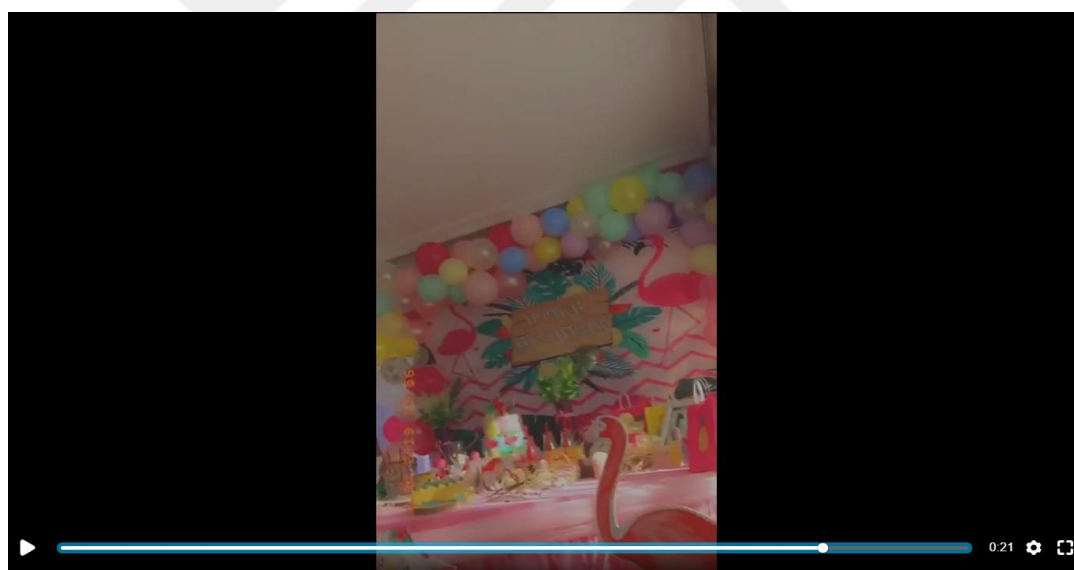
### **Task 2- Celebrations: Organizing a party**

The unit of the coursebook was about celebrations. The grammar topics of the week were “present continuous (future meaning) and be going to”. As a face to face speaking activity, all participants of the both experimental and control groups talked about

celebrations in their own countries, such as weddings, local festivals, family celebrations, school and university events, birthdays, religious festivals and new year as a pair activity. As the class presentation, students arranged a dinner, invited their partners to the dinner, and acted their arrangement in front of the class.

In addition, following the face to face speaking activities, the members of the experimental group were assigned the following activity by using Flipgrid. They were given a situation about their best friend's birthday party, and they were asked to organize a birthday party and a gift, and invite their friends to the party by giving details on the setting, payment for the gift, and things to bring to the party. Because of shooting a video outside the school for the first time, the video length was not restricted to encourage students to speak as much as they can. However, they were expected to shoot at least one minute. Figure 3.2 below illustrates one of the students' videos taken at a birthday party.

**Figure 3.2: A Video Taken at a Birthday Party**



### **Task 3- Work: Describing a Dream Job**

The unit topic was about jobs and the reading text of the coursebook was about the happiest jobs. The grammar of the week was “must, have to, can, will and might”. During the face to face speaking activities, both the experimental and control groups talked about the happiest, the safest and the most dangerous jobs. As a class presentation, they acted a job interview. In addition to f2f classroom activities, the

experimental group was assigned a video recording task about their dream jobs. They were required to describe their dream job in details including advantageous and disadvantageous of the job, working hours, salary, workload. The instructor (researcher) restricted the video length to two minutes.

#### **Task 4- Problems: Giving Advice**

The unit topic of the coursebook was about problems and giving advice. All students in both groups read a text about how to deal with life's little problems. As for grammar topics, they studied should, may, might, simple past and past continuous. As a class speaking activity, students were given some problems and asked to present the problems to their partner and their partner was expected to advice on the problem. Besides, they studied some expressions to show sympathy and they were supposed to use these expressions in their class presentation. For the class presentation, they were given some cards which included some bad news. Students were required to tell their partner about something bad that happened to them and partners were asked to show sympathy and give some advice. In addition to the F2F activities, as an online activity, the experimental group was assigned to record a video to give advice to the instructor on a family problem. They were allowed to take one-minute-video. The situation was given below.

Situation: "I live with my family and they want me to live with them until I get married. However, I am tired and bored with living with them. I need to start living alone".

#### **Task 5- Interview: Interests**

After reading a text about unusual degrees, such as football studies, toy design, ceramics, and citrus studies, participants of both groups did various in-class speaking practice about leisure activities. Also, they studied some expressions for telephone calls. As a class presentation, they were asked to use expressions and make a phone call on some situations given by the instructor. As an online practice, the experimental group was given some questions about their interests, leisure activities, and they were expected to do an interview with a classmate randomly assigned. The instructor (researcher) restricted the video length to two minutes.

### Task 6-Vacations: Describing a place

It was a short teaching week because students had two days off in week 7. By considering the holiday and the unit topic which was about vacations, the online task was designed accordingly. Students were taught relative clauses as the grammar topic. After doing various speaking activities about their holidays in class, the experimental group was assigned the following speaking activity. Since they were off on Thursday and Friday, they were asked to describe a place they visited. It might be their hometown or other cities that they had traveled. Students were encouraged to use relative clauses while performing the task. Being able to take the videos wherever they want provided students a chance to illustrate the places they talked about. The instructor (researcher) restricted the video length to two minutes. Figure 3.3 shows a place that a student visited and Figure 3.4 illustrates a favorite cafe of one of the students visited below.

**Figure 3.3: A Place Visited**



**Figure 3.4: A Favorite Café of a Student**



### **3.4 Sources of Data**

The present study followed Özdemir (2018: 49) while gathering the data and “the data were elicited through four data collection instruments; speaking tasks, Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), semi-structured interviews and students’ reflections”. The quantitative data were obtained from pre- and post-speaking tasks and FLCAS that were employed in both experimental and control groups. As for qualitative data, semi-structured interviews and students’ reflections were employed in the experimental group. Sources of data were presented in details below.

#### **3.4.1 Speaking Tasks**

To find out if video recording had any statistically significant effects on students’ fluency and accuracy, all participants (N=28) of the experimental and control groups received a pretest and a posttest before and after the treatment. The pre-test was carried out before the treatment to measure if oral fluency and accuracy of both groups were comparable with each other from the outset of the study. To find out the potential changes in the learners’ performance on speaking tasks in two groups, all participants (N=28) were given a post-test at the end of the study. Participants received no feedback at the end of the pre-test and the post-test. Both of the speaking tasks were recorded on the researchers’ computer in her office. After each speaking task, the recordings were transcribed and analyzed manually.

In both pretest and posttest, the same questions were used and to include level-appropriate questions in the speaking tasks, questions were prepared with the help of the level coordinator (see Appendix A). The speaking tasks consisted of six main subjects; describing personality, traveling, giving advice, free time activities, imaginary situations, and talking about the future. Each main topic included follow-up questions. Some of the prompts that were used to elicit students answers were as follows; “Describe one of your good friends”, “Think of a time you had a wonderful journey”, “What do you enjoy doing in your free time?”, “What would you do if you won the lottery?”

### **3.4.2 The Questionnaire (FLCAS)**

To find out if video recording had any statistically significant effects on anxiety, a questionnaire of language anxiety was used in the experimental and control groups (N=28). The students took the questionnaire twice, once as a pre-test one day before the study started and once as a posttest in the last week of the study. Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) was originally developed by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986). However, to avoid any misunderstanding because of the language that was used in the questionnaire, a Turkish version of FLCAS was used in the present study. This version of FLCAS was translated by Aydın (1999) and employed by Özdemir (2018). The questionnaire consisted of thirty-two items on a 5-point Likert scale that ranges from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). It aims to explore the students’ attitudes and feelings towards learning and speaking English (see appendix B). Some of the items in FLCAS were exemplified as “I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class”, “It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language”, “I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class”, “I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in language class”. To address the confidentiality of the students they were asked to assign numbers rather than using their names while answering the questionnaires.

### **3.4.3 Experimental Group Interviews**

In order to get the perceptions of the experimental group about the video-recorded speaking tasks and blended instruction, a semi-structured interview was employed on the last day of the study. Eight randomly selected participants out of fourteen students

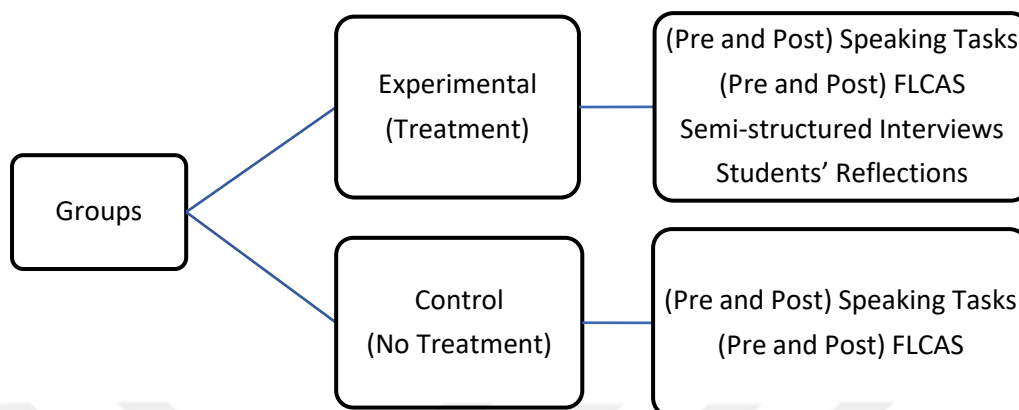
in the experimental group attended the interviews. The interview questions were originally developed by Hung (2010) and adapted from Özdemir (2018) (Appendix C). Some of them were exemplified as “Before this course, what did you know about Flipgrid?”, “What did you benefit from this project?”, “Did video recording speaking tasks help you learn in this class?”

The interviews were carried out in Turkish to make communication easier for students while expressing their opinions without any language barrier. The students who attended interviews had an opportunity to comment orally on the subjects that they forgot mentioning in written reflections or could not express themselves because of the language expected in students’ reflections. To address the confidentiality of the students, they were called as “Student A, Student B...” during the interview and each student was interviewed alone. Interviews sessions took roughly five minutes per participant and they were recorded on the computer in the researchers’ office. The interviews were transcribed manually by the researcher.

#### **3.4.4 Students’ Reflections**

In order to obtain more data on the perceptions of students, the experimental group (N=14) was expected to write a paper about their experience in the use of video-recorded speaking tasks. The students’ reflections employed in this research were adapted from Hung (2010), and Özdemir (2018) (see Appendix D). Students were given 35 minutes in the classroom on the last day of the treatment to reflect and express their opinions about video recordings to practice the language outside the classroom environment. They were encouraged to reflect both their positive and negative opinions of video recordings, and their experience throughout six weeks. During the writing task, the students could use a dictionary and ask vocabulary when needed, but they were not interfered while writing in order not to affect their opinions. To address the confidentiality of the students, they were asked not to write their names on the papers. Figure 3.5 illustrates sources of data below.

**Figure 3.5: Sources of Data for Experimental and Control Groups**



### **3.5 Procedures for Data Collection and Analysis**

The researcher collected the data from September to December in the first quarter of 2019-2020 academic year (seven weeks) at the English preparatory program of a private university in Istanbul. Before the treatment, participants of the experimental group agreed to upload a video each week and they were informed that the tasks would not be graded. The necessary guidance was given to the experimental group and some practice sessions were held to familiarize student with the application and how to use it. All participants of the experimental and control groups were informed about the pre-test and post-test stages of speaking tasks and FLCAS. The necessary arrangement for the speaking pre-test was made and each participant was assigned a time slot.

On the first day of the experiment, both a speaking task and FLCAS were held. The participants of both groups (N=28) were given FLCAS as a pre-test in order to have insights on students' speaking anxiety levels. Besides, all students took the speaking task as the pre-test. Each student was allocated approximately five minutes for the task. The speaking task was recorded with the permission of participants and later transcribed and analyzed to measure learners' speaking fluency and accuracy. No feedback on participants' performance was given during or after the speaking task.

During the experiment, learners in the control group followed their coursebook syllabus and carried out speaking activities in the classroom. The students in the experimental group, however, got blended instruction which included both following



their classroom syllabus as well as six online tasks to support their speaking practice. Video assignment of each week was closely related to the weekly topic covered in the coursebook. Therefore, they did not get extra support. Participants were allowed to redo their recordings before uploading them on the online tool. However, they were encouraged not to read from a script during their recordings. After they completed each video recording, the instructor sent them a brief feedback through Flipgrid in order to help them recognize their mistakes and correct them.

In the last week of the study, to find out the impact of the treatment, the participants of both groups took another speaking task (post-test) and FLCAS (post-test). The pre-test and post-test scores were statistically analyzed through SPSS 15.0. Next, eight participants from the experimental group were randomly selected for the interview to unveil learners' attitudes towards video-recorded speaking tasks. The interviews were carried out in Turkish so that participants could express their opinions easily, and they were recorded to be transcribed, translated and analyzed. On the last day of the study, the students in the experimental group (N=14) were asked to write a reflection paper in order to express their experience on blended instruction (see appendix D).

### 3.5.1 Data Analysis

To analyze the quantitative data for oral fluency, accuracy, and speaking anxiety, the statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS) 15.0 was used. To find out if video recording had any statistically significant effects on students' fluency, the data were obtained from oral tasks (pre-test and post-test) and the potential changes in the learners' performance on speaking tasks in two groups were analyzed and compared. After the normality check for each group, independent t-tests were run for both groups. Following Ellis (1990), fluency was measured as the number of syllables per minute as illustrated in the Table 3.2 below.

**Table 3.2: Measure for Fluency**

Speech rate	Calculated by counting the number of syllables divided by the total number of minutes (Ellis,1990).
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To measure the effects of video-recorded speaking tasks on the accuracy, the transcribed data from the oral tasks were used again. A normality test was run for both groups and the results illustrated that the data of the pre-test of the control group deviate from a normal distribution. Therefore, the researcher used the Mann-Whitney-U non-parametric test for the pre-tests of both groups. Because the data for the post-test were normally distributed, an independent t-test was run for both groups. Following Ellis, Li and Zhu (2018) accuracy was measured as the number of errors divided by the total number of words. It is illustrated in Table 3.3:

**Table 3.3: Measure for Accuracy**

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Errors per hundred words	Calculated by counting the number of errors divided by the number of words (Ellis, Li and Zhu, 2018)
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To answer the third research question, and unveil the effect of video recordings on speaking anxiety, pre and post-tests of language anxiety in two groups were analyzed and compared by using SPSS program. The scale included 32 items and the participants scored on a 5-point Likert scale. Strongly disagree was given 1 and strongly agree was given 5. A normality test was run for both groups and the results showed the data were normally distributed. Thus, an independent t-test and a paired-sample t-test were performed on the participants of both groups to identify the impact of the treatment on reducing anxiety.

To find out students' attitudes towards video-recorded speaking tasks, the data collected through student interviews and students' reflections were transcribed by the researcher. Coding was applied in the data analysis. The recurring themes and patterns were excluded from the data and the related parts were added to the emergent themes and patterns to be used during the discussion with another rater. After both transcribed interviews and reflections were examined by the researcher and the other rater separately, the main themes were compared for the inter-rater reliability. Based on the emerging themes, the learners' attitudes towards video-recorded speaking tasks were presented.

### **3.6 Reliability of the Data Collection Instruments**

#### **3.6.1 Speaking Tasks**

Speaking task questions were prepared with the help of level coordinators in order to measure if learners achieved the level expectation. At level 3, students develop their language knowledge and experience from A2 to B1 level. As the speaking goal, students are expected to start, maintain and close simple conversations on different topics. Considering that the English preparatory program was accredited by the CEA organization and follow CEA during question preparation, the speaking task questions were appropriate for the level expectation.

#### **3.6.2 FLCAS**

FLCAS is a highly acclaimed test to measure learners' anxiety (Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope, 1986). To avoid any misunderstanding because of the language used in the questionnaire, a Turkish version of FLCAS was used in this study. The Turkish version of the anxiety scale was recommended by Aydın, et al. (2016) who examined its reliability and validity. They compared English and Turkish versions of FLCAS in their study and found that both versions of the test are reliable in terms of internal consistency. Further supports for the reliability of Turkish version were also reported in other studies. Bas (2013) measured the internal consistency in the Turkish version as 0.93, Batumlu and Erden (2007) as 0.90, and Özdemir (2018) as 0.91. Because the Turkish version shows high reliability and validity, it was selected in order to measure the anxiety level of Turkish EFL learners. In the present study, the Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient of the 32 items in the scale was measured as 0.92.

#### **3.6.3 Students' Reflections and Interviews**

In the qualitative data analysis, the researcher and another rater separately examined and coded students' reflections and interviews that had been transcribed before, and they compared the main themes for the inter-rater reliability. Areas of controversy where disagreement arose between the raters were discussed and resolved. The fact that both raters came up with almost similar results also proved the reliability of the qualitative data results.

## CHAPTER 4

### RESEARCH FINDINGS

This chapter presents the results of analyses of both quantitative and qualitative data obtained through Speaking tasks, Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), semi-structured interviews and students' reflections. As for quantitative findings, this chapter presents the findings elicited from the pre-test and post-test to reveal the impact of blended instruction on EFL learners' speaking fluency, accuracy and foreign language speaking anxiety. The qualitative data were collected through semi-structured interviews and students' reflections were transcribed and analyzed to clarify the perceptions of the experimental group on the video-recorded speaking tasks.

#### 4.1. Findings on Learners' Fluency

The first research question aimed to find out about the influence of video-recorded speaking tasks on students' speaking fluency. Following Ellis (1990), fluency was measured as the number of syllables per minute. Table 4.1 shows the descriptive statistics for the pre-test and posttest scores of both the experimental and control groups. As the data reveals, the mean score of the experimental group in the pre-test was considerably lower than that of the control group ( $M = 75.60$  vs.  $M = 90.59$ ). Even though the mean score of the control group was higher than the experimental group at the pretest stage, the experimental group passed the control group and continued its ascending trend ( $M = 124.03$  vs  $M = 86.66$ ).

**Table 4.1: Descriptive Statistics for Experimental and Control Groups**

Group	N	Pretest		Post test	
		M	SD	M	SD
Experimental	14	75.60	23.27	124.03	29.76
Control	14	90.59	25.08	86.66	24.49

Shapiro-Wilk test was run for the pre-test data to detect normality and the results showed the data were normally distributed ( $p = 0.489$  and  $p = 0.799$ , respectively). In order to see if the two groups were statistically comparable, a t-test was run for the pre-test scores of the two groups. Table 4.2 below shows the results of independent sample t-test score. As the table shows, there were no statistically significant differences between the two groups at the beginning of the study,  $t(26) = 0.296$   $p = 0.113$ .

**Table 4.2: Independent T-Test Results for Pretest Scores of Experimental and Control Groups**

Group	N	M	SD	Std. Error Mean	df	<i>t</i>	F	<i>p</i>
Experimental	14	75.60	23.27	6.22	26	-1,639	0.296	0.113
Control	14	90.59	25.08	6.70				

An independent sample t-test was also applied to the posttest scores of the two groups in order to find out if the treatment was effective in terms of improving learners' fluency. Table 4.3 below shows the results.

**Table 4.3: Independent T-Test Results for Posttest Scores of Experimental and Control Groups**

Group	N	M	SD	Std. Error Mean	df	<i>t</i>	F	<i>p</i>
Experimental	14	124,03	29,76	7,953	26	3.628	0.641	0.001
Control	14	86,66	24.49	6,547				

As the results showed, there was a statistically significant difference between both the experimental and control groups,  $t(26)=.641$   $p=0.001$ . In other words, the experimental group significantly outperformed the control group in terms of fluency.

## 4.2. Findings on Learners' Accuracy

In order to find out the impact of video-recorded speaking tasks on the students' oral accuracy, the data obtained from the students' pre-test and post-test speaking tasks were analyzed. Following Ellis, Li and Zhu (2018), accuracy was measured as the number of errors divided by the total number of words. In order to decide on the appropriate test (parametric or nonparametric) for comparing the means of the experimental and control groups, the test of normality was run for both the experimental and control groups. Table 4.4 and Table 4.5 below shows the results of Shapiro-Wilk normality test on the pretest and the posttest data for the experimental and control groups.

**Table 4.4: Tests of Normality for the Experimental Group**

	Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistics	df	Sig.
Pre-test	.973	14	.919
Post-test	.941	14	.435

**Table 4.5: Tests of Normality for the Control Group**

	Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistics	df	Sig.
Pre-test	.746	14	.001
Post-test	.876	14	.051

As the results show, the normality was violated at the pretest level for the control group,  $p=.001$ . Therefore, the decision was made to use nonparametric Mann-Whitney-U test to compare the means of the two study groups. Table 4.6 shows the results of Mann-Whitney-U test.

**Table 4.6: Mann-Whitney-U Test Results for Pretest Scores of Experimental and Control Groups**

	Pre-test
Mann-Whitney U	59.000
Wilcoxon W	164.000
Z	-1.792
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.073
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.077 <sup>a</sup>

As the table shows there was no statistically significant difference between the accuracy scores of the experimental and control groups at the pre-test stage  $U = 59.00$   $p = .077$ . In other words, the two groups were statistically comparable from the outset of the study.

A Shapiro-Wilk test was also run for the posttest scores of the participants and the results showed that accuracy scores obtained from post-tests were normally distributed ( $p=0.435$  and  $p=0.051$  for the experimental and control groups respectively). Independent sample t-test was used to compare if the differences in the accuracy scores of the experimental and control groups were statistically significant. The results showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the experimental and control groups  $t(26)=3.828$   $p=.001$ . In other words, the experimental group significantly outperformed the control group in terms of accuracy at the end of the treatment. Table 4.7 shows independent t-test results for posttest scores of experimental and control groups.

**Table 4.7: Independent T-Test Results for Posttest Scores of Experimental and Control Groups**

Group	N	M	SD	Std. Error Mean	df	<i>t</i>	F	<i>p</i>
Experimental	14	6.21	2.12	.568	26	-3.872	3.828	.001
Control	14	11.76	4.91	1.313				

### 4.3. Findings on EFL Learners' Speaking Anxiety

A speaking anxiety questionnaire was administered before and after the treatment to both the experimental and control groups. Below is the descriptive statistics of the two groups. Table 4.8 below illustrates descriptive statistics for pre-test and post-test of the experimental and control groups.

**Table 4.8: Descriptive Statistics for Experimental and Control Groups**

Group	N	Pretest		Post test	
		M	SD	M	SD
Experimental	14	2.41	.649	2.10	.606
Control	14	2.57	.603	2.44	.625

The mean scores of the experimental group at the pre-test ( $M = 2.41$ ,) and post-test ( $M = 2.10$ ,) stages indicate that the anxiety level decreased after the treatment in the experimental group. The descriptive statistics of the control group at the pre-test ( $M = 2.57$ ,) and post-test ( $M = 2.44$ ,) stages show that there was a reduction in the mean score of the control group as well. This might be because the students in this group became familiar with the school and the setting of the study as time passed by and therefore, they were less anxious.

A Shapiro-Wilk test was used for both groups to detect normality. In the experimental group, the pre-test significance value was  $p = .876$  and post-test significance value was  $p = .218$ , which indicated that anxiety scores obtained from pre-test and post-test were normally distributed ( $p > .05$ ). Similarly, the pre-test significance value of the control group was  $p = .778$  and post-test significance value was  $p = .730$ , which means learners' results were normally distributed as well ( $p > .05$ ).

In order to find answer to the third research question and find out if there was a significant difference between anxiety levels of the experimental and control groups, independent t-tests were run. Table 4.9 shows that there was no significant difference between the two groups before the onset of the study  $t(26) = .000$   $p = 0.522$ . As Table 4.10 shows, the results of the independent t-tests for the posttest scores shows that the



was no statistically significant difference between the two groups,  $t(26) = .066$ ,  $p = 0.154$  at posttest stage either.

**Table 4.9: Independent T-Test Results for FLCAS Pretest Scores of Experimental and Control Groups**

Group	N	M	SD	Std. Error Mean	df	<i>t</i>	F	<i>p</i>
Experimental	14	2.41	0.649	0.173	26	-0.650	0.000	0.522
Control	14	2.57	0.603	0.161				

**Table 4.10: Independent T-Test Results for FLCAS Posttest Scores of Experimental and Control Groups**

Group	N	M	SD	Std. Error Mean	df	<i>t</i>	F	<i>p</i>
Experimental	14	2.10	0.606	0.161	26	-1.467	0.066	0.154
Control	14	2.44	0.625	0.167				

Even though there was no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups at the posttest stage, in order to measure the change in the anxiety level of the experimental group and control group from pre-test to posttest stage, paired samples t-tests were run for both groups.

Table 4.11 shows the results of paired samples t-test results for FLCAS for the experimental groups. The t-test results illustrate that there was a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test, for the experimental group  $t(13)=4.232$ ,  $p=.001$ . These results suggest that the treatment has a positive effect on EFL learners' speaking anxiety.

**Table 4.11: Paired Samples T-Test Results for FLCAS of the Experimental Group**

Group		N	M	SD	Std. Error Mean	df	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
EG	Pretest	14	2.41	.649	.173	13	4.232	.001
EG	Posttest	14	2.10	.606	.161			

EG: Experimental Group

A paired-sample t-test was also conducted to examine whether there was a statistically significant difference in the anxiety level of the control group. The t-test results indicated no statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test,  $t(13)=-.978$   $p=.346$  for this group. Table 4.12 shows the results of paired samples t-test results for FLCAS of the control group.

**Table 4.12: Paired Samples T-Test Results for FLCAS of the Control Group**

Group		N	M	SD	Std.Error Mean	df	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
CG	Pre-test	14	2.57	.603	.161	13	.978	.346
CG	Post-test	14	2.44	.625	.167			

CG: Control Group

#### **4.4. Findings about the Learners' Attitudes towards Video-Recorded Speaking Tasks**

In order to find an answer to the fourth research question, interviews were conducted with eight randomly selected participants of the experimental group. Also, students' reflections were written by all participants of the experimental group (N=14) at the end of the experiment. The interviews and students' reflections were transcribed and coded manually. After both transcribed interviews and reflections were examined by the researcher and the second rater separately, the main themes were compared for the inter-rater reliability. The researcher and the second rater did not use any predetermined codes or themes, but the codes appeared during the content analysis.

Following the analysis of the main themes by the researcher and the second rater, 13 categories and 24 related themes were found and they were presented and explained below.

#### **4.4.1. Effects of Flipgrid on Students' Academic Performance**

Effects of Flipgrid on students' academic performance are divided into two subheadings. The first includes language skills such as speaking, listening, writing, and language subskills such as grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation. The second includes other pedagogical effects of Flipgrid such as feedback, extra speaking practice, and meaningful homework.

##### **4.4.1.1. Language Skills**

**Speaking.** Statements about the positive effect of video recording were made with regard to fluency. Seven students out of fourteen in the experimental group reported that Flipgrid tasks had a considerable effect on their fluency because they started to talk more and faster in their last videos. In the first weeks, they had difficulties in speaking fluently because of lack of practice. However, they stated that Flipgrid tasks helped them improve their fluency afterward. The following extracts demonstrate the effects of online tasks on students' speaking fluency:

*I think this app helped me improve my speaking fluency. I can speak more fluently with foreigners whose mother tongue is English. (Student C, semi-structured interview)*

*I can speak easily now thanks to Flipgrid tasks. In the past, I was thinking of what to say before I talked. When my teacher gave me homework in Flipgrid, I did not just do homework. I also did some speaking practice. I love this application. I think everyone should download and use this application to improve their English and speak fluently. (Students' reflections)*

*Flipgrid tasks were beneficial for fluency. Since I speak more fluently, my self-confidence has also increased. Additionally, I could speak more. For example, I could speak for only one minute in the beginning, but later I could talk two and a half minutes in my recordings. (Student G, semi-structured interview)*

*I suggest using Flipgrid to everyone who wants to speak fluently. It is especially useful for the beginners and lower levels; however, upper intermediate and advance levels might also practice business English. (Student H, semi-structured interview)*

*Actually, Flipgrid is the easiest way to improve our speaking through homework. (Students' reflections)*

**Listening.** Learning from peers is considered as an effective technique in language learning. By means of the Flipgrid tasks, students may benefit from their peers. In the weekly Flipgrid task, students in the experimental group reported that they watched their peers' videos before they recorded their own videos. Six students out of fourteen stated that listening to their friends were very useful for their preparation. In addition, they stated that listening to their friends were effective in improving their listening skill. The following extracts illustrate this:

*Watching videos of my friends and listening to their videos carefully helped me improve my listening skills. I think listening to peers at the same level improves our listening skills a lot. (Student G, semi-structured interview)*

*Before I recorded the videos, I had watched my friends' videos. Their videos were guiding me about what I needed to do. (Student F, semi-structured interview)*

**Writing.** Students mostly have difficulties in generating ideas both in speaking and writing. Nine students in the experimental group, however, stated that weekly Flipgrid tasks were effective in improving their writing skills because it helped them with brainstorming. Before they recorded the tasks, they wrote a script for each task and while writing it, they brainstormed about the topic and organized their ideas, which were useful for their writing skills. The following extracts indicate this:

*There was a preparation stage before recording videos. Taking some notes and preparation for the videos was beneficial a lot. Sometimes, preparation for a video task took me all day. (Student A, semi-structured interview)*

*The feedback provided for each video was very helpful because they were mostly about grammar. Learning my mistakes in grammar also improved my writing skills. (Student D, semi-structured interview)*

*In the first videos, I prepared a script not to forget the things I want to say, but later I started to speak spontaneously. (Student E, semi-structured interview)*

*I was doing some brainstorming before I recorded the videos. After revising them, I was shooting the videos. (Student H, semi-structured interview)*

#### **4.4.1.2. Language Subskills**

According to the students' reports, the flipgrid tasks were useful to practice grammar structures because they revised the grammar topics before they prepared their speech. The video task each week required students to use the grammar and some useful expressions that had been studied in class during the week. Ten students out of fourteen in the interviews and students' reflections mentioned the positive effect of Flipgrid tasks on using grammar correctly. The following extracts exemplify this:

*Flipgrid tasks were beneficial to use grammar correctly. In my first video recording, I just focused on vocabulary, but in the second, third and fourth videos I paid more attention to grammar. In the last videos, I started to pay attention to prepositions. In my final video, I realized that I could use all grammar structures correctly. (Student G, semi-structured interview)*

*In the Flipgrid tasks, we were asked to use some grammar structures and expressions. We were given some example sentences, so we could use the required grammar and expressions in our videos. (Student H, semi-structured interview)*

*In the assigned Flipgrid tasks, there were some grammar structures that we were supposed to use. I could not record without getting ready. In the first videos, I revised the grammar first, and then I recorded them. Flipgrid tasks helped me see variety in grammar structures. (Student D, semi-structured interview)*

The video-recorded speaking tasks also allowed students of the experimental group to check the unknown words before the task and practice them through recordings. Once they were assigned a weekly video-recorded speaking task, they prepared and organized their speech before they recorded it. As they mentioned, during their preparation they needed to check on some words which helped them learn and practice new vocabulary. However, in f2f teaching and learning, they did not have enough time

to check vocabulary and use them in their sentences. Eleven students out of fourteen who participated in the interview and wrote reflections underscored the effectiveness of the application in learning or revising vocabulary. The following extracts exemplify this:

*I realized that Flipgrid tasks required us to use some expressions and vocabulary in a correct way. By means of those tasks, I have noticed that although I have been speaking English since my childhood, I have always been making mistakes about some words or expressions. This app helped me use vocabulary properly. (Student B, semi-structured interview)*

*I knew some words, but I sometimes needed to look up some other words while recording. (Student F, semi-structured interview)*

*Flipgrid tasks were useful to learn new vocabulary because when I studied new words about the topic, I could easily memorize them. (Student H, semi-structured interview)*

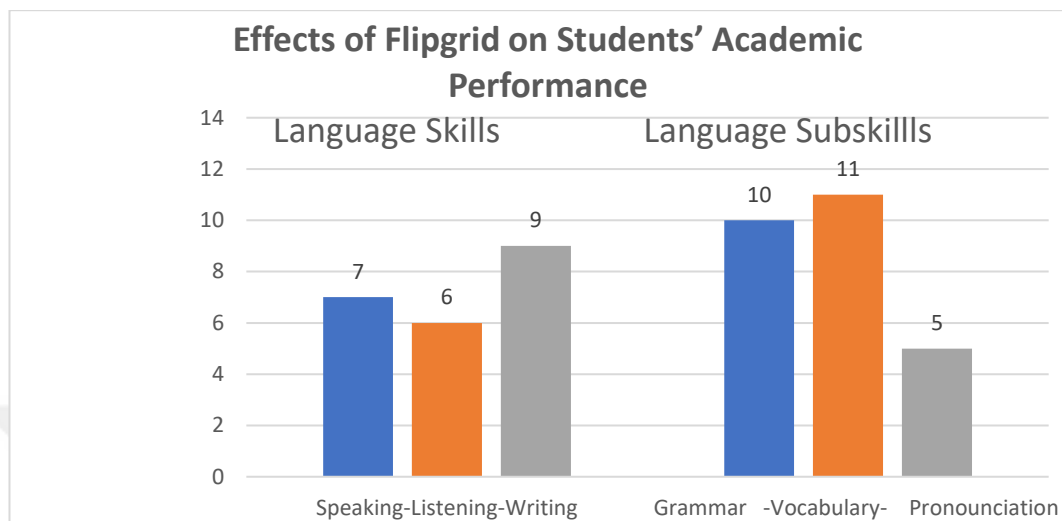
Another important effect of Flipgrid tasks was on the students' pronunciation. In class, students do not have enough time to check pronunciation in speaking activities. In addition, they do not have a chance to listen to their own performance. Online tasks can provide students with more time and allow them to carry out self-assessment. Having a preparation time before uploading the video tasks allowed students in the experimental group to check the pronunciation of the words. In addition, they could watch their own performance before and after they uploaded the video. Hence, they could correct and re-record their videos if they mispronounced any words or they recognized their mispronunciation after they uploaded the video. Five students out of fourteen pointed out the positive effect of Flipgrid tasks on their pronunciation. Below are some of their statements:

*I heard my voice and pronunciation through Flipgrid videos and I tried to pronounce better each time. It helped me develop my pronunciation. (Students' reflections)*

*Flipgrid tasks improved our pronunciation, of course, with the help of our teacher because our teacher sent us feedback. Therefore, we could correct our mistakes. (Students' reflections)*

Figure 4.1 illustrates categories, themes, and number of students who found Flipgrid useful for academic performance in the experimental group (N=14).

**Figure 4.1: Effects of Flipgrid on Students' Academic Performance**



#### Language Skills:

**Speaking:** Increasing fluency in the target language

**Listening:** Watching peer videos, learning from peers

**Writing:** Brainstorming, writing a script before recording

#### Language Subskills:

-Revising and practicing **grammar** of the week

-Checking unknown **vocabulary** and practicing new words

-Checking **pronunciation** and correcting mispronunciation

#### 4.4.2. Other Pedagogical Effects of Flipgrid

**Feedback.** In the application of Flipgrid, there is the feedback option and instructors can send either oral feedback or written feedback. When the instructor comments on the performance, the system automatically sends it to students' email addresses. During the treatment, following the students' recordings, the instructor (researcher) sent each student a written-feedback through Flipgrid. The feedback provided included any sort of mistakes on vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, the content and the length of the performance. Thirteen out of fourteen students in the experimental group reflected on the significance of instructors' feedback. Below are some of their statements:

*I have to say that feedback was very beneficial, and it helped me correct my mistakes. When I got a notification on my phone, I immediately checked my -email. Receiving the feedback through -email was a very useful feature of Flipgrid. (Student G, semi-structured interview)*

*The feedback I received was very useful. I noticed my mistakes through the feedback and I corrected my mistakes and rerecorded some videos. (Student H, semi-structured interview)*

*The feedback I received from you increased my self-confidence. (Student F, semi-structured interview)*

*My teacher's feedback for Flipgrid tasks was very helpful because I needed someone to correct my mistakes. (Students' reflections)*

Students also pointed out the effectiveness of online tasks for self-awareness. During the speaking activities in class, students do not have much chance to assess their own performance and recognize their inadequacies by themselves. Instead, they can get either a peer-feedback or a teacher-feedback. Nevertheless, the classroom time may not be enough to give feedback during the speaking activities or each student may not have an equal chance to get feedback on their performance. However, through the Flipgrid tasks, each student could watch their own performance and if they were not content with it, they could re-record the video. When they watched their own video, they could recognize their own mistakes and try not to repeat the same mistakes in the other videos. Two students out of fourteen stated the importance of watching their own performance to notice their mistakes. The following extract demonstrates this:

*Watching my own videos and my friends' videos a couple of times were beneficial to realize our mistakes. (Student G, semi-structured interview)*

**Extra speaking practice.** In Turkey, EFL learners have limited exposure to the target language and suffer from restricted language instruction. In other words, neither in the classroom nor outside of the class EFL learners have enough time or equal chances to practice the target language. Therefore, it is necessary for educators to provide them with more speaking practice. Online platforms are some of the ways that allow students to have more practice. By means of weekly-Flipgrid tasks, each student in the experimental group had an equal chance to speak in the target language. As well as more exposure to the target language, they got more language instruction. Nine students out of fourteen reported in the students' reflections and interviews that Flipgrid tasks were beneficial for speaking skills because they provided more opportunities to practice the language outside the class. The following extract exemplifies this:



*Flipgrid tasks helped us improve our English because we do not come together to practice speaking English outside the class. We did Flipgrid tasks outside the class, which made them more valuable. I think they were more useful than speaking with friends in class. I think the application helped me think in English while expressing myself. When we go abroad, the most necessary skill is speaking. (Student A, semi-structured interview)*

*These tasks should be assigned to other levels, as well. There might be appropriate tasks for each level. This application aroused the feeling that I was doing a real-life activity rather than doing homework. (Student A, semi-structured interview)*

**Meaningful Tasks.** Revision made Flipgrid tasks meaningful for learners in the experimental group. They were assigned Flipgrid tasks about the unit topic that they already covered in their classes. Giving students tasks on the unit topic reinforced what they had studied in the classroom environment. Three students out of fourteen in the experimental group stated that Flipgrid tasks helped them revise what they had studied during the week. The following extract display this

*Flipgrid topics were good and beneficial to do a revision. (Students' reflections)*

Task repetition made Flipgrid tasks meaningful for students. Five students both in the interviews and the students' reflections emphasized that the feature of re-recording in Flipgrid relieved them because if they were not content with their performance, they could re-record the videos. However, in f2f teaching and learning, they did not have a chance to retry a performance. Many students acknowledged that they re-recorded the videos many times until they were satisfied with their performance. The following extract displays this:

*It was easy to record videos. If you had terrible performance, you could re-record your videos. (Students' reflections)*

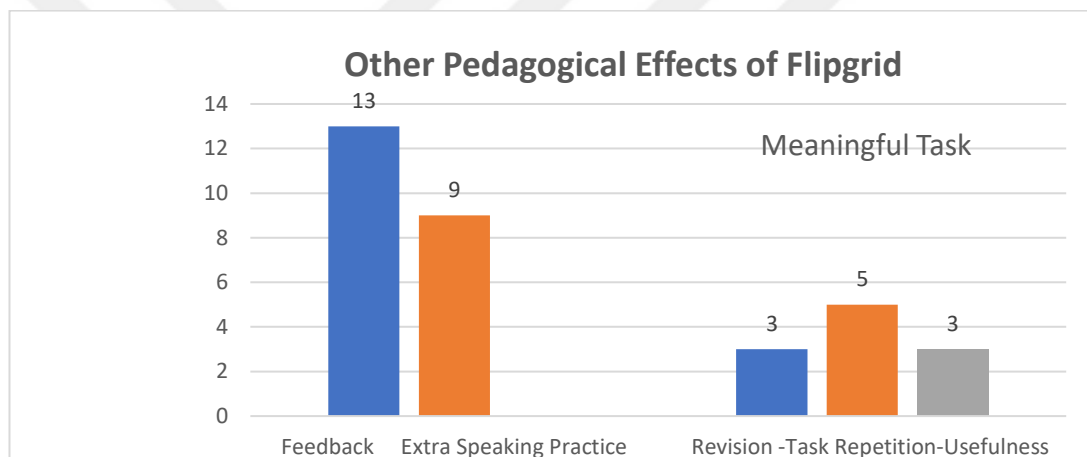
The usefulness of Flipgrid tasks made them meaningful for students. Even though three students started using the application initially with some negative attitudes, their subsequent attitudes changed as they came to realize the usefulness of it. The following extracts are examples to this.

*At the beginning of the term, our teacher introduced a new application called Flipgrid. At first, I did not understand the reason why we should use this application. However, now I understand the reason. This application is very useful and very important for our improvement. (Students' reflections)*

*I didn't know Flipgrid before and I never tried it before. I avoided trying it at the beginning because it required talking to others through videos. I was afraid of speaking English. However, it helped us improve our speaking skills. (Student E, semi-structured interview)*

Figure 4.2 illustrates categories, themes, and number of students who find Flipgrid useful for other pedagogical effects in the experimental group (N=14).

**Figure 4.2: Other Pedagogical Effects of Flipgrid**



**Feedback:**

- \*Feedback provided by the teacher
- \*Self-awareness on their own performance

**Extra speaking Practice:**

- \* Outside class speaking practice

**Meaningful Task:**

- \***Revision** of topics studied in the class
- \***Task Repetition**
- \*Realizing **usefulness** of the task

#### 4.4.3. Effects of Flipgrid on students' personal skills

**Anxiety.** Most of the students at lower levels suffer from anxiety when talking in the target language because they do not feel confident enough. However, nine students in the experimental group reflected that even though they felt nervous in class activities, they felt more relaxed in the Flipgrid tasks because they were recording alone and they did not feel like being watched. Most of the students reported that Flipgrid tasks helped them feel less anxious. Below are some of their statements:

*Flipgrid is the most useful app I have ever used. This app makes me more relaxed and I can speak easier now. In the past, I needed to think before I spoke. (Students' reflections)*

*At the beginning of this term, I was very nervous when I was speaking English. Taking the videos alone comforted me, and I am more self-confident now, so I can speak easily. (Student D, semi-structured interview)*

*I was shy about speaking English before doing these tasks. However, now I feel less anxious while talking in English with someone. I feel more relaxed when I speak English with a foreigner or a person from my country. (Student C, semi-structured interview)*

*I avoided speaking English at the beginning of the level. I was constantly afraid of making a mistake. Therefore, in the first weeks, I prepared a script and I recorded my video later, which comforted me. (Student E, semi-structured interview)*

*Many people have a fear of speaking in the target language because they avoid making mistakes when they are talking. This application helps them overcome that difficulty, so it is very meaningful homework. (Students' reflections)*

**Self-confidence.** Another positive social aspect of *Flipgrid* was boosting students' self-confidence. Nine students out of fourteen stated that *Flipgrid* tasks were effective in boosting their self-confidence in speaking because when they improve their speaking skills, they felt more self-confident. The following extracts exemplify this:

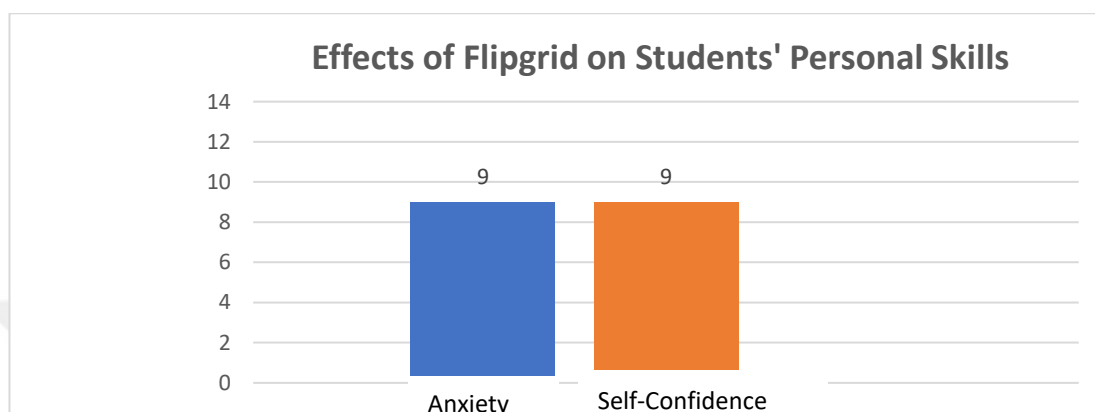
*My self-confidence increased because I was recording the videos alone. There were some grammar structures that we were required to use in the Flipgrid task. Searching about some topics alone and working on the grammar structures on my own helped me feel more self-sufficient which resulted in self-confidence. (Student D, semi-structured interview)*

*This app helps to improve self-confidence. Many people have a fear of speaking because they are afraid of making mistakes when they are talking. With the help of this application, they might overcome this problem. (Students' reflections)*

*This app helps me feel self-confident because I speak on my own and I feel relaxed. As a result, I improve my speaking skills. (Students' reflections)*

Figure 4.3 illustrates categories, themes, and number of students who found Flipgrid useful for personal skills in the experimental group (N=14).

**Figure 4.3: Effects of Flipgrid on students' Personal Skills**



**Anxiety:**

- Fear of speaking in the target language
- Feeling nervous and avoiding making mistakes in class
- Feeling more relaxed alone through online tasks

**Self-Confidence:**

- Feeling more self-satisfied

#### 4.4.4. Effects of Flipgrid on Students' Social Skills

**Social Skills.** Three students reported that Flipgrid tasks were beneficial for social skills, as well. The application provided them with an environment to socialize with their friends using the online platform outside the class. In addition, they came together to interview each other and watch their videos together. The following extracts indicate this:

*Flipgrid tasks were useful for our friendship because we could check and record videos together. (Students' reflections)*

*We recorded a lot of videos and watched them together, which improved our social skills. (Students' reflections)*

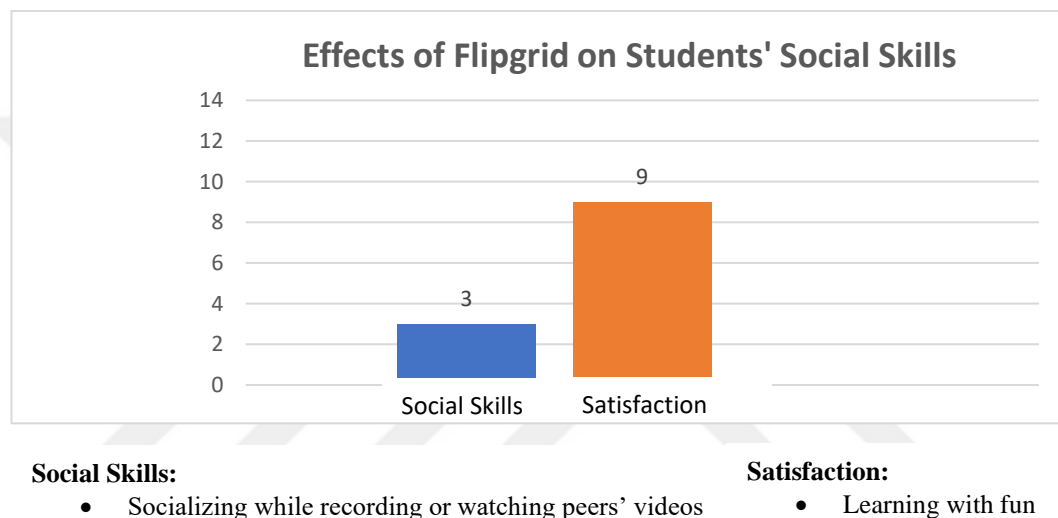
**Satisfaction.** Learning with fun makes the learning process more effective for students. Nine students out of fourteen stated that they had a lot of fun while recording their videos and watching their friends' videos. They said that they sometimes watched videos many times. They also stated that they found the Flipgrid tasks very enjoyable. The following extracts exemplify this:

*It was enjoyable to share videos and watch friends' videos. It was also an instructive app. We could use some enjoyable effects and emojis which made the tasks fun. (Student H, semi-structured interview)*

*Using effects and filters made the videos more fun and more attractive. (Student G, semi-structured interview)*

Figure 4.4 illustrates categories, themes, and number of students who find Flipgrid useful for social skills in the experimental group (N=14).

**Figure 4.4: Effects of Flipgrid on Students' Social Skills**



#### 4.4.5. Technical Considerations

**Feasibility.** Both in the interviews and the students' reflections, eight students pointed out the feasibility of Flipgrid. Having the application on their phone made the tasks practical because it enabled students to record the video tasks anywhere and anytime. Student comments in the interviews and students' reflections indicated that taking their videos outside the class made the speaking practice more enjoyable because the learning process was more authentic outside. It allowed them to illustrate the setting, such as a neighborhood, a birthday party, or a café. Finally, a student in the experimental group stated that it was free, so they did not have to pay for the application. As the student stated, it was not easy to find a useful and free application to improve speaking skills. The following extracts display this:

*Using phones is very practical to record videos because I record the videos wherever I want. (Students' reflections)*

*Recording videos in Flipgrid were really easy for us because of our generation. (Students' reflections)*

*I could record a video easily because we used our phones to record videos whenever and wherever we wanted. It was very practical. (Students' reflections)*

*I never heard of Flipgrid before. I was looking for an application to improve my speaking, but applications were mostly required payment. This application that you suggested was free and it was very helpful. (Student H, semi-structured interview)*

**Technical Problems.** Flipgrid is a very easy application and it is practical to record videos. This was indicated by some students in the interviews and students' reflections who stated that they never faced any technical problems while using the application. Despite the positive comments of these students in terms of technical issues, three students out of fourteen claimed that they encountered technical problems. In the students' reflections, they stated that they tried a couple of times in order to upload their videos. The following extracts exemplify both positive and negative experiences:

*I recorded videos easily and I did not encounter any technical issues. (Students' reflections)*

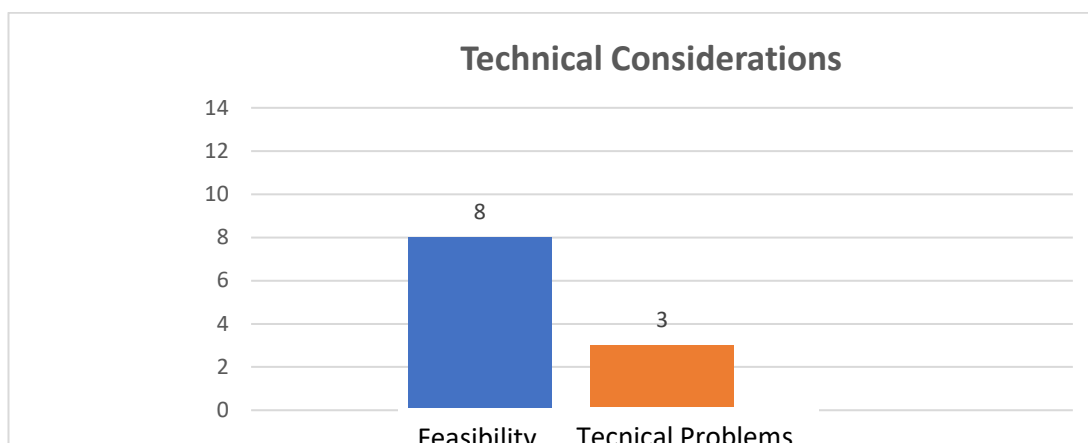
*There were some technical issues in this application. When I tried to upload my video, I failed and I tried many times. (Students' reflections)*

*While I was recording my video for the first time, I had some difficulties. (Students' reflections)*

*Sometimes I had some technical problems, but Flipgrid was a new experience for me. Although it seemed difficult at the beginning, it improved our language. (Students' reflections)*

Figure 4.5 illustrates categories, themes, and number of students who stated technical considerations about Flipgrid in the experimental group (N=14).

**Figure 4.5: Technical Considerations**



**Feasibility:**

- Practical
- No constraints of time and place
- Free

**Technical Problems:**

- Troubles encountered while uploading the videos

To sum up, the data in this study were collected through speaking tasks, a test of anxiety, student interviews and students' reflections. The results obtained from pre and post speaking tasks indicated that the experimental group surpassed the control group in terms oral fluency and accuracy. The results of FLCAS showed that the utilization of blended instruction was effective in reducing students' speaking anxiety. In addition, the data collected through students' reflections and interviews showed that the experimental group developed a positive attitude towards video-recorded speaking tasks. The findings underscored the importance of blended instruction as a positive instructional tool for EFL learners.

## CHAPTER 5

### DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The main objective of the current study was to unveil the effects of video-recorded speaking tasks on learners' speaking fluency, accuracy, anxiety, and their perceptions of using video-recorded speaking tasks. In an attempt to find answers to the research questions, the data were gathered through four different sources that were speaking tasks, a test of speaking anxiety (FLCAS), student interviews, and students' reflections (see Özdemir, 2018:49 for a similar methodology). In this section, the findings of the study will be analyzed and discussed in further details with respect to each research question. Next, implications and suggestions, as well as the limitations of the study will be presented.

#### 5.1. Discussion of Research Questions

##### 5.1.1. Research Question One

The first research question tried to unveil the effects of video-recorded speaking tasks on students' speaking fluency by comparing the results from pre and post speaking tasks. As mentioned in chapter three, participants of the experimental group were assigned weekly video-recorded speaking tasks following the in-class speaking activities. It was hypothesized in hypothesis 1 that the integration of digitalized speaking tasks into face-to-face instruction would provide more exposure to the target language outside the classroom, which would result in a more fluent speech in the experimental group. The descriptive statistics for the pretest and posttest scores of the experimental and control groups indicated that the mean score of the experimental group was considerably lower than that of the control group ( $M = 75.60$  vs.  $M = 90.59$ ) at the beginning of the study. However, in the posttest, the experimental group mean surpassed that of the control group with a large margin ( $M = 124.03$  vs  $M = 86.66$ ). The findings also showed that at the end of the treatment there was a statistically significant difference between the two groups, ( $p = 0.001$ ). In other words, fluency of the experimental group increased significantly at the end of six weeks of the treatment. Therefore, hypothesis 1 was confirmed.



Several reasons could account for the change in the fluency of the experimental group. First of all, ACMC tasks provided learners in the experimental group with more exposure and extra practice for the target language since they were expected to use the language outside the class through video-recordings. Thus, the development in fluency might be the result of more practice in the target language outside the classroom. There is a link between practice and automatization, a required element for fluency. This happened because the constant retrieval of linguistic elements through practice facilitates the proceduralization of declarative knowledge and results in more fluent speech (DeKeyser, 1998). In other words, more practice will enhance fluency because it improves automaticity (Segalowitz, 2003). According to Thornbury (2005), once the automaticity of language production has enhanced, L2 speakers' fluency also increases. Similarly, Skehan (1998) asserts that the ability to use the language appropriately depends on using the language with some ease and speed. If an L2 speaker focuses on meaning more than the structure, he displays skilled behavior. Skehan (1998) resembles that behavior to driving a car or playing a musical instrument. The more learners practice the target language, the more they become skilled performers and improve their fluency. Therefore, it might be assumed that participants in the experimental group could have been more skilled performers because of the extra practice they did.

Qualitative data analysis also confirmed that video-recorded speaking tasks had a considerable effect on learners' fluency. Seven students out of fourteen in the experimental group stated in semi-structured interviews or students' reflections that they had difficulties in speaking because of the lack of practice at the beginning of the study and they had to prepare a script and practice it for many times before they recorded it. However, they recognized the fact that they could speak and record spontaneously in a couple of weeks, which also increased their self-confidence. Because of feeling more self-confident, they could speak more and faster, especially in the last videos, so these video tasks helped them improve their fluency. On the other hand, the participants of the control group had just a chance to practice the target language in the classroom. Therefore, they were exposed to the target language less than their counterparts, and it was limited to the classroom activities and they probably did not use the target language outside the classroom.

In addition, the development in fluency might have stemmed from pre-task planning and task repetition. Different types of planning, such as pre-task planning and within-task planning can promote fluency (Ellis, 2009). Having plenty of time for pre-task planning allowed students in the experimental group to arrange their time as they needed, and to prepare their script before the actual performance. During the preparation time, being able to check the unknown words, revising the useful language could have allowed to use the language with ease and increased their speech rate.

As the qualitative data also showed, many students stated that they revised the grammar and vocabulary during the preparation time and could use them in video recordings. However, learners of the control group had a restricted chance to prepare and plan the task before their performance. Although they were given a planning time to get ready before some speaking tasks in the classroom, it is still questionable if it was enough for each student to feel ready for the performance. In addition, as mentioned in the literature review, task repetition has a positive effect on fluency (Bygate, 2001; Bygate and Samuda, 2005; Lynch and Maclean, 2000). The qualitative data also confirmed that many students acknowledged that they re-recorded the videos many times until they were satisfied with their performance. The more they repeated the same speech, sentence structures, and vocabulary, the faster they performed in the videos. Besides, they could watch their videos and their friends' videos as many times as they wanted to and learned from them.

Bohlke (2014: 126) also provided further evidence to support the link between task repetition and fluency. "When they repeat the task, the cognitive demands are lessened, conceptualizing becomes more automatized". Since students in the experimental group both performed and listened to the target language many times either through their recordings or through their friends' videos, they might have spoken easier, became more automatized, and faster. However, in f2f teaching and learning, the participants of the control group could neither retry a performance, nor listen to all of their friends' performance because of the time constraints in the classroom. Besides, they could not watch their own performance or repeat the same structures and vocabulary. As a result, the increase in learners' fluency in the experimental group may be the result of both pre-task planning and task repetition.

Lastly, the development in the fluency of the experimental group might have stemmed from topic familiarity. As mentioned in the literature review, Bui (2014) claimed that

topic familiarity enhances learners' fluency because topic familiarity both prepares learners for the task and helps them with the whole process of speaking because it speeds up the conceptualization and the formulation processes in Levelt's (1989) speaking model. According to Skehan (1998), L2 learners' restricted processing capacity causes challenges for them. In other words, it results in a lower speech rate, more pauses, and a shorter speaking time especially when they deal with unfamiliar topics. Students in the experimental group were given weekly recording assignments as follow-up activities to the classroom activities on familiar topics and structures covered in the classroom. Namely, students were familiar with the topics and the expectations of the tasks. Therefore, being familiar with the topics might have a positive effect on their cognitive processes and might result in more fluent speech.

### **5.1.2. Research Question Two**

The second research question looked for the effect of video-recorded speaking tasks on students' accuracy by comparing the results from the pre and post speaking tasks. It was hypothesized in hypothesis 2 that integrating online speaking tasks into face-to-face teaching and learning would raise awareness on learners' accuracy and promote it in the experimental group. The findings suggested that there was a statistically significant difference between the experimental and control groups. In other words, the experimental group significantly outperformed the control group in terms of accuracy. Therefore, hypothesis 2 was confirmed.

To begin with, students' awareness towards language structures may have been raised through teachers' feedback or students themselves as they rerecorded and watched their videos. As mentioned in chapter three, the participants of the experimental group received individual feedback following their weekly video-recorded tasks. Although both the control group and experimental group had a chance to get a peer or individual feedback during the in-class activities, the time constraints and a large number of students in the class reduced the frequency and intensity of such corrective feedback. In addition, video-recorded speaking tasks raised learners' awareness of their weaknesses because participants in the experimental group could watch their videos before and after submitting them. Young and West (2018) pointed out that video recording is used by teachers and learners to gain self-awareness and recognize the skills that they need to improve. If learners become aware of their own errors, they start to self-correct (Willis, 1998). It could be argued that audio and video recording

extended the self-monitoring of speaking by the experimental group and made them focus on linguistic areas, vocabulary and grammar that they felt needed further attention (Thomson, 1992). Therefore, the reason why the accuracy of the experimental group developed could have been that their awareness was raised towards their weaknesses, one of which was language accuracy. On the other hand, unlike the experimental group, the participants of the control group might not have been aware of their weaknesses unless the teacher provided feedback in the classroom, which is argued above and which is comparatively less frequent than the experimental group.

As stated in the literature review, asynchronous communication provides learners with more time (Graham, 2006). Blended learning offers more thinking time for reflection for students who suffer from little thinking time in f2f activities (Sharma and Westbrook, 2016). Providing learners with time for planning and preparation had a positive impact on producing more complex grammar and elaboration during oral production (Crookes, 1989). To be more precise, as Goh (2007) pointed out, pre-task planning assists learners to develop certain aspects in speaking performance. It promotes learners to use appropriate grammar structures. Learners in the experimental group had plenty of time for preparation before recording their videos. As qualitative data also showed, students had a chance to revise the target grammar and structures studied in class, and they could also brainstorm and prepare their speech beforehand. Besides, providing them with preparation time allowed them to conceptualize (decide what to say) and formulate (decide how to say) their ideas without experiencing time-pressure (Levelt, 1989). On the other hand, participants of the control group did not have time lag to revise the target structures, conceptualize and formulate their speech. As a consequence, offering the experimental group more time might have encouraged them to revise the target grammar structures and expressions, and revision might have enhanced the accuracy of the experimental group.

Last but not least, as mentioned in the literature review, task repetition has a positive effect on oral accuracy as well. Task repetition provides learners with opportunities to reformulate grammatical forms and use it more appropriately (Ahmadian, 2012). As the qualitative data shows, the participants in the experimental group could practice what they have studied before recording the speaking tasks and if they were not content with their performances, they could build on the target grammar structures, and re-record the same tasks. It is likely that the repeated retrieval of the same language

structures may have strengthened the form and meaning mapping in the memory (de Bot, 1996) and results in more in-depth learning of those structures. However, participants of the control group did not have a chance to repeat the same task because classroom time was limited and it did not allow for any task repetition. As a result, task repetition could have had more positive effect on the accuracy of the students in the experimental group.

### **5.1.3. Research Question Three**

To answer the third research question which investigated the influence of video-recorded speaking tasks on anxiety, a questionnaire of speaking anxiety (FLCAS) (Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope, 1986) was used. It was hypothesized in hypothesis 3 that integrating online instruction into face-to-face teaching and learning could decrease learners' L2 speaking anxiety levels in the experimental group. Although the results of the independent t-tests showed that there was no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups, the results of paired-samples t-tests indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of the experimental group. These results suggested that the utilization of blended instruction was effective in reducing students' foreign language speaking anxiety. Therefore, hypothesis 3 was confirmed.

As stated in the literature review, Krashen's affective filter hypothesis (1982) claims that learners with a low level of anxiety are better in second language acquisition because anxiety can enhance the affective filter and creates a mental barrier that impedes language acquisition. As mentioned before, the experimental group was supported through video-recorded ACMC tasks. Therefore, the decrease in the anxiety level might be related to the role of the environment associated with the use of technology. To be more precise, the experimental group was provided with a friendly and less-pressured environment through video-recorded ACMC tasks. The importance of having a positive learning environment has been underlined by earlier studies. Leong and Ahmadi (2017), for example, found that learners who had low self-confidence, low motivation, and high anxiety had difficulties in their oral performance even if they were competent enough in terms of linguistic skills. Therefore, they suggested provision of a friendly environment to deal with these difficulties. As suggested by Stollhans (2015), ACMC tools offer learners a chance to rerecord their performance and practice before they come up with their final recording. Therefore, it

is effective to provide a less pressured environment. The qualitative data also showed that participants of the experimental group rerecorded their performances as many times as they needed. Even though some students felt nervous in in-class activities, they felt more relaxed in the video-recorded speaking tasks because they were recording alone and they did not feel like being watched. Video-recorded speaking tasks were also effective in boosting their self-confidence, which eventually decreased their anxiety level. Most of the students' statements about their feelings also supported the hypothesis that the use of video-recorded speaking tasks helped them feel less anxious. However, the learners in the control group were not provided with an environment where they could feel relaxed to express themselves. They just had a chance to practice the target language through in-class activities in front of their friends and teacher. Ur (1996) pointed out that the reason why some learners avoid speaking is that they experience the fear of making mistakes and being criticized by their peers. As stated earlier in the literature review, Leong and Ahmadi (2017) claimed that the fear of making mistakes and being criticized by their peers also cause inhibition. Therefore, these students try to avoid drawing the attention of other people. Even if they want to express their opinions, sometimes they are inhibited.

Providing the participants of the experimental group with equal chances to practice the language through CMC could have been another reason for decreasing their anxiety level. As mentioned in the literature review, Özdemir (2018) underlined the importance of giving equal chance for each student in speaking classes, but she also complained about the limited time available for in-class activities. As Warschauer (2001), argued some students are more dominant in face-to-face instruction, but students in CMC activities have equal chances to participate. CMC provides students in large classes with more opportunities to practice oral skills (Meskill and Anthony, 2005). Participants in the experimental group had more opportunities to deal with L2 speaking anxiety through video-recorded speaking tasks. On the other hand, as mentioned before, students in the control group could just practice the target language in the class environment. Because of some factors, such as time constraints, classroom size, dominant students in the class, they had a limited chance to practice the language, though.

In addition, unlike the control group, providing learners in the experimental group with extra activities on familiar topics might have had a positive effect in decreasing their anxiety levels. Bui (2014), for example, pointed out that familiar topics can decrease learners' speaking anxiety because familiar topics enhance willingness, readiness, and confidence to speak. Therefore, this results in a longer performance, especially in low intermediate students. As mentioned in the literature review, when learners do not know what to say, which words and language forms they need to use, it is difficult for them to express themselves in a foreign language (Baker and Westrup, 2003). The qualitative data also showed that assigning the video-recorded speaking tasks on familiar topics relieved students and facilitated their performance because they had previously studied the unit topic, grammar structures, vocabulary and some expressions in the classroom. Nevertheless, the learners of the control group were not assigned extra tasks on familiar topics. To sum up, having a chance for extra practice on familiar topics outside the classroom, having plentiful time to brainstorm, revising before the actual performance, being able to rerecord as many times as they needed, being alone while recording the video, and having equal chances to practice might have contributed to overcoming L2 speaking anxiety.

#### **5.1.4. Research Question Four**

To respond the fourth research question that investigated the attitudes of the experimental group towards the online speaking exercises, the data were elicited from students through interviews and reflections in the experimental group. The findings of the qualitative data showed that the experimental group developed a positive attitude towards video-recorded speaking tasks. Almost all students found them effective for their academic performance, personal skills, and social skills. In addition, even though a few students experienced some technical problems, most of the students emphasized the feasibility of Flipgrid as an online tool that is very practical and useful to practice speaking outside the classroom.

Most of the students in the experimental group emphasized the positive impacts of APMC speaking tasks on their academic skills. More specifically, learners felt that these tasks were useful to improve their language skills, such as speaking, listening, and writing; and language subskills, such as vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation. These tasks also facilitated their learning by providing an efficient environment for teacher feedback, self-assessment, extra speaking practice and they were meaningful

tasks for revision and task repetition. Many other studies also reported positive effects of CMC tools on improving language skills. Özdener and Satar (2008), for example, reported the positive effects of CMC tools on improving learners' language skills, such as reading, writing, speaking, pronunciation, and vocabulary knowledge. King (2016) showed that a blended approach enhances the learning process by providing learners with opportunities to work on different types of activities, such as listening to an audio, watching a video, and reading a text. It also offers an efficient environment to give and receive individual or collective feedback (Badawi, 2009), to gain self-awareness and recognize learners' weaknesses (Young and West, 2018), to practice speaking through voice or video recording (Çakır, 2016), to work on relevant sources for extra practice which is not possible to do in classes due to the time constraints (Sharma and Westbrook, 2016).

As for the impact of video-recorded speaking tasks on emotional aspects of students, the findings of the study indicated that these tasks were effective in decreasing learners' speaking anxiety and increasing their self-confidence. Many students are afraid of making mistakes and being criticized by their peers (Ur, 1996). In other words, they suffer from fear of speaking in the target language and making mistakes. This may lead to speaking anxiety. However, as findings show, the participants in the experimental group claimed that video-recorded speaking tasks helped them deal with this anxiety. Being able to take the videos alone and revise the target language before they come up with their final recording helped them feel safe. Also, they felt more relaxed and self-satisfied because they could speak easily.

As for the impact of video-recorded speaking tasks on social skills, the findings indicated that these tasks provided the students with an environment to socialize with their peers outside the class and learn the language with fun. Being able to record the videos or watch them together improved both their friendship and social skills. As they stated during the interviews, most of the students enjoyed sharing videos and watching their friends' videos. In addition, being able to use some emojis, effects, filters while recording videos made these tasks more enjoyable. Özdemir, (2018) also found that developing language skills and learning with fun through ACMC tasks made learners more satisfied with their progress. Similarly, Motteram and Sharma (2009) elaborated online learning as a platform where learners have a chance to interact with their teachers or friends. Kamhi-Stein (2000) also found that CMC activities promote



interaction between teachers and students. They also facilitate learning by providing students with the opportunity to interact outside the classroom (Graham, 2006).

As mentioned before, students in the experimental group used Flipgrid as an online tool in order to do weekly ACMC speaking tasks, so it is expected that some students experience some technical issues. The findings showed that three students out of fourteen encountered some technical problems. As they stated in the students' reflections, they tried a couple of times to upload their videos. However, most students in the experimental group found the online tool feasible because it was very practical for them to record the videos by using their mobiles without having any constraints of time and place. Also being able to re-record the videos if they needed relieved them. The findings also indicated that taking their videos outside the classroom made the speaking practice more enjoyable for them because it made their learning process more authentic. It was also a free application that enabled them to do more practice outside the classroom.

## **5.2. Implications and Suggestions**

The present study holds important implications for language teaching. First of all, ACMC provides the practice that learners in EFL settings need to improve their speaking skills. Due to being in a foreign language context, Turkish EFL learners have limited exposure to the target language and suffer from restricted language instruction. Their language practice is mostly restricted to the classroom. The results of the present study offer an alternative way to practice the language outside the classroom.

Also, the results of the current study showed that both oral fluency and accuracy of the experimental group enhanced at the end of the treatment. Both fluency and accuracy are the main subskills of speaking proficiency, and their development is one of the main objectives of language teachers. However, if students focus on a higher accuracy, fluency may decrease. Similarly, if they use a spontaneous flow of language, their accuracy may decrease (Skehan, 1998). Therefore, it is important to find out new ways to improve both accuracy and fluency simultaneously. Regarding the results of this study, it can be inferred that integrating online instruction into f2f instruction may assist learners to increase oral fluency and accuracy simultaneously, which offers insights for language teachers as well as curriculum designers. ACMC speaking tasks

might be used alongside the course book materials to help students develop their fluency and accuracy as well as their speaking skills in general.

Moreover, the results of FLCAS showed that the use of blended instruction was effective in reducing students' foreign language speaking anxiety in the experimental group after the treatment. Therefore, FLCAS might be of value in learning contexts, where learners are more reserved and feel reticent to share their ideas. It could help learners to come over their anxiety and take more active role in their language learning process. Moreover, the positive attitude created through APMC may be carried over to the other activities and be expanded to a longer period of time. Further research needs to shed light on this.

Finally, another implication of this study derives from students' attitudes towards APMC speaking tasks. Almost all of the students in the experimental group declared the benefit of feedback for their progress that they were provided at the end of each digitalized speaking exercise. Therefore, it is safe to say that APMC provides the opportunities for the language teachers to provide more fine-tuned and surgical feedback to students' errors which otherwise may not be possible in on-line spontaneous language use during the classroom. They can, of course, receive teacher or peer feedback on their performance if the time and classroom size allow, but it may not be as detailed as they are offered through APMC tasks. In addition, as students stated in the interviews and students' reflections, similar digitalized speaking tasks might be integrated into other levels regarding the objectives of each level at English preparatory programs. Therefore, APMC speaking tasks may be added to the curriculum and/or assessment as productive speaking tasks, which might be an alternative to productive written tasks.

As a consequence, the present study has promising implications for curriculum designers and language teachers who want to utilize blended instruction as an instructional tool for EFL language learners. These implications might also provide insights to the future researchers in a similar field who aim to conduct further research on the blended instruction.

### **5.3. Limitations**

The main objective of the current study was to examine the effect of language exposure and practice outside the class through video recording tools on speaking skills. The researcher attempted to investigate the effect of online speaking exercises on speaking fluency, accuracy, anxiety, and students' attitudes towards these speaking exercises. Although the study has accomplished its objective, some limitations need be considered.

The first limitation of the study was the context of the study. The study took place in an English language preparatory school of a private university in Istanbul. The findings underscored the importance of blended instruction as a positive instructional tool. However, because the study was conducted in higher education, the benefits of the blended instruction for speaking skills may not be generalizable to other EFL settings. Also, the limited number of participants (N=28) restrict the generalizability of the findings. Considering that only level three students participated in the study, a greater number of students from different universities and different levels could have produced more reliable and generalizable results. A larger population would safeguard the findings against individual features of the participants.

Another point to consider is that the present study lasted seven weeks because of the academic calendar of the English preparatory program in which the study took place. If it had been conducted in a longer period, the results of the study could have been different. Thus, the future researchers in this area are advised to conduct a longitudinal study, which may yield more precise results. In addition, in the current study following a quasi-experimental design, participants were divided into a control and an experimental group. The learners in the experimental group were provided a blended instruction which included both following their classroom syllabus as well as six online tasks to support their speaking practice. The learners in the control group, on the other hand, followed their course book syllabus and only carried out speaking activities in the classroom and they were not assigned any out-of-class activity. A more valid result of the effect of video-recording on speaking proficiency could have been achieved if a third study group had been chosen to carry out classroom-based exercises and some follow-up outside speaking activities without using any technology. Therefore, future researchers can conduct studies with a greater number of students including more research groups and a wider range of outside class activities, such as

synchronous speaking tasks, asynchronous speaking tasks, dialogues with peers without using any technological tools.

Finally, the change in speaking skills was measured by analyzing students' accuracy, and fluency in this study. Future studies can be conducted to explore the effect of CALL on speaking skills by examining the possible changes in the other linguistic features of oral production such as speech complexity. Similar studies can also be conducted to investigate the use of technology to improve language skills other than speaking, such as reading, writing, listening and vocabulary.

#### **5.4. Conclusion**

The main purpose of the present study was to investigate whether combining online instruction with the f2f instruction promotes learners' oral fluency, accuracy, and decreases anxiety. The results obtained from pre- and post-speaking exams indicated that the experimental group surpassed the control group in terms of oral fluency and accuracy. The results of FLCAS also showed that the use of blended instruction was effective in reducing students' anxiety. In addition, the data collected from their reflection and interviews showed that the experimental group developed a positive attitude towards video-recorded speaking tasks. The findings underscored the importance of blended instruction as a positive instructional tool for EFL learners.

In light of the findings of this study, curriculum and material developers and teachers can integrate blended instruction in the curriculum. To improve productive skills in language learning, it is common to assign language learners writing tasks, such as productive written tasks and process writing, but they are not mostly assigned speaking tasks outside the class to improve their productive skills. ALCMC speaking tasks might be an alternative to written tasks. Language learners, for example, may be required to complete at least one video-recorded speaking task per week and it may be a part of the assessment. Once students are assigned meaningful and authentic tasks through ALCMC tools, they may practice the language more and learning will not be restricted to the classroom environment. Besides, practicing speaking skills with more authentic tasks may be efficient not only to prepare learners for real-life situations but also to improve their creative skills. The fact that they arrange their time and place themselves, they may become more autonomous learners. The more they become autonomous

learners, the more self-confident they may become, which in turn affects their speaking skills positively.

With the advancements in technology, new trends in teaching and learning have been flourishing. Many online tools and applications serve educational purposes and using them through mobiles makes our lives easier and takes the learning outside the classroom. Many educational institutions have already started to benefit from various educational tools in line with their mission and vision. Some educational institutions are implementing flipped classrooms, and some of them benefit from other web tools like Moodle, LMS. With the developing technology, online education is becoming popular and the integration of technology has become essential for face to face education.

Because of the unprecedented pandemic, new coronavirus, the immediate shift has occurred both in the work-life and education. In other words, both work life and education continue mostly via online platforms in the whole world. Distance education has gained importance and it is being carried out via virtual classrooms. Synchronous and asynchronous lessons have suddenly taken more important places in education. In order to enhance the efficiency of distance education, many online tools provide opportunities to support synchronous classes and some of them might be useful to improve language skills. In the future, online platforms will probably continue to be important and support both face to face education and distance education. It is predicted that hybrid and flipped classrooms that include both face to face and online instruction will become more invaluable. Therefore, studies that investigate the new teaching models such as online education, hybrid learning, flipped learning, and blended learning like the present study need to flourish. It is also worthwhile exploring the usefulness of online tools in improving speaking skills, which is necessary both for daily communication, and professional life. In this regard, the present study and its findings can be considered as a timely contribution to the body of research in the future direction of language education.

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## **APPENDICES**

### **APPENDIX A (Pre-Post) Speaking Task Questions**

#### **DESCRIBING PERSONALITY**

1. How many good friends do you have? Describe one of your good friends.  
Do you share everything with your best friend? Why / why not?  
What do you do if your best friend lies to you?

#### **TRAVELLING**

2. Think of a time you had a wonderful journey.  
Where did you go?  
Who did you go with?  
What was so good about the journey?  
Would you like to have a similar journey again? Why / why not?

#### **GIVING ADVICE**

3. I am going to tell you a situation and I need your advice:  
“I want to lose weight and I start a diet every Monday morning and quit in the afternoon.”

#### **FREE TIME ACTIVITIES**

4. What do you enjoy doing in your free time?  
Do you like watching movies?  
What kind of movies do you like?  
What is the best movie you have ever watched? Why do you think so?  
Do you like doing sport? Which one?

#### **IMAGINARY SITUATIONS**

5. What would you do if you won the lottery?  
Would you help the poor? Why / why not?  
Would you donate some money to a charity? Why / why not?  
What would you do if you found out that your best friend won the lottery?  
What would you do if he/she didn't give you any of that money?

#### **TALKING ABOUT FUTURE**

6. What will you do after you graduate from school?  
If someone offers you a job abroad, will you accept it? Why / why not?  
Do you want to continue with your education after you graduate from university?  
If “yes”: What do you want to study? Why / Why not?

## APPENDIX B

### B. Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale Turkish Version

Aşağıdaki her bir ifadeyi okuduktan sonra şu seçeneklerden birisini işaretleyiniz.  
Hiçbir ifadeyi boş bırakmayınız.

1. Hiçbir zaman 2. Nadiren 3. Bazen 4. Sıklıkla 5. Her zaman

1	İngilizce konuşurken kendimden emin olamıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
2	İngilizce derslerinde hata yapmaktan korkuyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
3	İngilizce derslerinde sıra bana geldiğini bildiğim zaman heyecandan ölüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
4	İngilizce derslerinde öğretmenin ne söylediğini anlamamak beni korkutuyor.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Haftada daha fazla İngilizce ders saatimin olmasını isterdim.	1	2	3	4	5
6	İngilizce dersi sırasında kendimi dersle hiç de ilgisi olmayan başka şeyleri düşünürken buluyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Diğer öğrencilerin İngilizce derslerinde benden daha iyi olduklarını düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
8	İngilizce derslerinin sınavlarında kendimi endişeli hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
9	İngilizce derslerinde hazırlıksız konuşmak zorunda kaldığımda paniğe kapılıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
10	İngilizce derslerinde baş arısız olmak beni endişelendiriyor.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Yabancı dil dersleri konusunda bazılarının niye endişe duyduklarını anlayabiliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
12	İngilizce derslerinde bazen öyle heyecanlanıyorum ki, bildiğim şeyleri bile unutuyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
13	İngilizce derslerinde sorulan sorulara gönüllü olarak cevap vermekten sıkılıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
14	İngilizceyi, ana dili İngilizce olan insanlarla konuşmak beni heyecanlandırıyor.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Öğretmenin hangi hatalarını düzelttiğini anlamamak beni endişelendiriyor.	1	2	3	4	5
16	İngilizce derslerinde, önceden çok iyi hazırlanmış olsam bile derste heyecanlanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5

17	İngilizce derslerine girmek istemiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
18	İngilizce derslerinde konuştuğum zaman kendime güvenmiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
19	İngilizce öğretmenim yaptığım her hatayı düzeltmeye çalışıyor.	1	2	3	4	5
20	İngilizce derslerinde sıra bana geldiği zaman kalbimin hızlı hızlı attığını hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
21	İngilizce sınavlarına ne kadar çok çalışırsam kafam o kadar çok karışıyor.	1	2	3	4	5
22	Kendimi İngilizce derslerine çok iyi hazırlanıp gitmek zorunda hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
23	Her zaman diğer öğrencilerin benden daha iyi İngilizce konuştuğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
24	Diğer öğrencilerin önünde İngilizce konuşurken kendimi çok tedirgin hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
25	İngilizce dersleri o kadar hızlı akıp gidiyor ki sınıfa ayak uyduramamaktan korkuyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
26	İngilizce derslerinde konuştuğum zaman hem sıkılıyorum hem de kafam karışıyor.	1	2	3	4	5
27	İngilizce derslerine girerken kendimi çok rahatsız ve güvensiz hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
28	İngilizce öğretmenimin söylediği her kelimeyi anlayamadığım zaman paniğe kapılıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
29	İngilizce konuşabilmek için öğrenmek zorunda olduğum kuralların sayısının çok fazla olması beni kaygılandırıyor.	1	2	3	4	5
30	İngilizce konuştuğum zaman diğer öğrencilerin bana güleceğinden endişe duyuyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
31	İngilizceyi, ana dili İngilizce olan insanların yanında kullanırken rahatsız oluyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
32	İngilizce öğretmenimin cevabını önceden hazırlamadığım sorular sorduğunda heyecanlanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5

## APPENDIX C

### C. Semi-Structured Interview Questions

1. Before this course, what did you know about Flipgrid?
2. What did you benefit from this project?
3. Did video recording speaking tasks help you learn in this class?  
If it did, in what ways?
4. In your opinion, how can video recording speaking tasks help  
improve your English-speaking skills in this class?
5. What components of video recording speaking tasks were most  
useful?
6. Are there any other thoughts about video recording speaking tasks  
that you would like to share?

## APPENDIX D

## D. Reflections

This paper aims to help you reflect on our project. Please do not share your name.

Please write about 100 English words to reflect on your Flipgrid experience this semester. You can talk about ANYTHING related to your Flipgrid experience.

For example, what do you like about it and what don't you like about it?

How does it improve your speaking?

How helpful is teacher feedback?

Does it help with your self-confidence? Etc.

Thank you for your participation.



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## **CV**

Gülden Gündoğan

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### **A. EDUCATION**

M.A – Istanbul Sabahattin Zaim University, English Language Education, 2020, Turkey

The Five Year Combined B.A.& M.A. - Bilkent University, English Language Teacher Education, 2011, Ankara, Turkey

### **B. ACADEMIC EXPERIENCE**

Instructor, İstanbul Bilgi University, English Preparatory School, Since 2014, Turkey.

Instructor, Istanbul Gelisim University, English Preparatory School, 2013-2014, Turkey.

English teacher, Bilkent Erzurum Laboratory School, 2011-2013, Turkey.

### **C. INTERESTS**

Technology in Learning English as a Foreign Language, Mobile-Assisted Language Learning, Computer-Mediated Communication, Blended Learning

### **D. PUBLICATIONS**