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**INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION SCIENCES**

**FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION**

**DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING**

**THE EFFECT OF LISTENING TO AUDIOBOOKS ON ANXIETY AND  
DEVELOPMENT OF LISTENING AND PRONUNCIATION SKILLS OF HIGH  
SCHOOL STUDENTS LEARNING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE**

**MASTER'S THESIS**

**Ayhan BULUT**

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**BURSA ULUDAĞ ÜNİVERSİTESİ**  
**EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ**  
**YABANCI DİLLER EĞİTİMİ**  
**İNGİLİZ DİLİ EĞİTİMİ BÖLÜMÜ**

**SESLİ KİTAP DİNLEMENİN İNGİLİZCE'Yİ YABANCI DİL OLARAK ÖĞRENEN**  
**LİSE ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN DİNLEME VE TELAFFUZ KAYGISININ YANISIRA**  
**DİNLEME VE TELAFFUZ BECERİLERİNE ETKİSİ**

**YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ**

**Ayhan BULUT**

**BURSA**

**2019**

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Bu çalışmadaki tüm bilgilerin akademik ve etik kurallara uygun bir şekilde elde edildiğini beyan ederim.

  
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Tez Başlığı: Sesli kitapların kapsamlı dinleme stratejisi olarak kullanılmasının İngilizce'yi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen lise öğrencilerinin dinleme ve telaffuz kaygısının yanısıra dinleme ve telaffuz becerilerine etkisi

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25.07/2019

## YÖNERGEYE UYGUNLUK ONAYI

“Sesli kitapların kapsamlı dinleme stratejisi olarak kullanılmasının İngilizce'yi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen lise öğrencilerinin dinleme ve telaffuz kaygısının yanısıra dinleme ve telaffuz becerilerine etkisi” adlı Yüksek Lisans tezi, Uludağ Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü tez yazım kurallarına uygun olarak hazırlanmıştır.

  
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Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı'nda 801510016 numara ile kayıtlı Ayhan BULUT'un hazırladığı "Sesli kitapların kapsamlı dinleme stratejisi olarak kullanılmasının İngilizce'yi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen lise öğrencilerinin dinleme ve telaffuz kaygısının yanısıra dinleme ve telaffuz becerilerine etkisi" başlıklı Yüksek Lisans çalışması ile ilgili tez savunma sınavı, 25/07/2019 günü 13:00/14:00 saatleri arasında yapılmış, sorulan sorulara alınan cevaplar sonunda adayın tezinin ~~başarılı/başarısız~~ olduğuna ~~oybirliği/oyçokluğu~~ ile karar verilmiştir.

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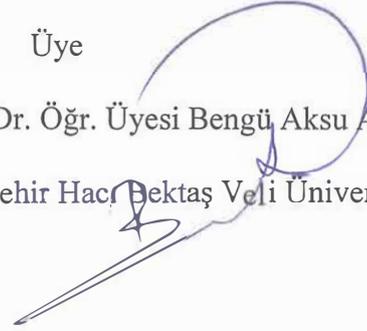
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## **ABSTRACT**

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### **THE EFFECT LISTENING TO AUDIOBOOKS ON ANXIETY AND DEVELOPMENT OF LISTENING AND PRONUNCIATION SKILLS OF HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS LEARNING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE**

In spite of being primary receptive and productive channels of human communication, research has displayed that listening and speaking skills are still problematic areas in language classrooms in Turkey. A large body of research has also shown that one of the prominent affective factors which are influential in the development of language skills is anxiety. Besides, the language teaching literature suggests that integration of technology to the learning process and exposure to target language contribute to language learning. Due to this situation, the current study attempts to investigate the effects of listening to audiobooks in Reading while Listening mode as an Extensive Listening strategy on high school English as a

Foreign Language learners' listening comprehension skill, pronunciation accuracy, foreign language listening anxiety and foreign language pronunciation anxiety as well as to investigate the correlational relations between these variables. The study was carried out at Konuralp Anatolian High School in Akyazi, Sakarya with 109 participants in the 2018-2019 academic year spring semester.

The study adopted a mixed-method research design. Data collection instruments consist of listening comprehension tests, pronunciation accuracy tests, Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale, Measurement of Pronunciation Anxiety in Foreign Language Classroom, and a follow-up survey for eliciting learners' views about audiobooks. The pre-post conditions of experimental and control groups were compared quantitatively by using statistical procedures after the experimental group participants have listened to audiobooks for eight weeks, one for each week. Finally, follow-up qualitative data were subjected to content analysis.

The results showed that listening to audiobooks has a positive impact on the improvement of learners' listening comprehension skills and pronunciation accuracy. Besides, the study revealed that the experimental group's FLLA and FLPA levels decreased more significantly than the control group. Moreover, the participants displayed positive views on the use of audiobooks as language learning materials. Finally, negative correlations were found between both listening comprehension and FLLA, pronunciation accuracy and FLPA.

*Keywords:* accurate pronunciation, audiobook, FLLA, FLPA, listening comprehension skill

## ÖZET

Yazar	: Ayhan BULUT
Üniversite	: Uludağ Üniversitesi
Ana Bilim Dalı	: Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı
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### **SESLİ KİTAPLARIN İNGİLİZCE'Yİ YABANCI DİL OLARAK ÖĞRENEN LİSE ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN DİNLEME VE TELAFFUZ KAYGISININ YANISIRA DİNLEME VE TELAFFUZ BECERİLERİNE ETKİSİ**

Araştırmalar göstermektedir ki insan iletişiminin birincil alıcı ve ifade edici kanalları olmalarına rağmen dinleme ve konuşma becerileri hala Türkiye'deki İngilizce sınıflarında sorunlu dil alanlarıdır. Yine birçok araştırma göstermiştir ki dil becerilerinin gelişimi üzerinde etkisi olan önemli duyuşsal faktörlerden biri de kaygıdır. Ayrıca, dil öğretim literatürü teknolojinin öğrenme süreçlerine entegre edilmesinin ve hedef dile maruz kalınmasının dil öğrenimine katkı sağladığını öne sürmektedir. Bu sebeple, bu araştırma kapsamlı dinleme stratejisi olarak sesli kitap dinlemenin İngilizce'yi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen lise öğrencilerinin dinlediğini anlama ve doğru telaffuz etme becerileriyle yabancı

dilde dinleme kaygıları ve yabancı dilde telaffuz kaygılarına etkisinin yanısıra bu deęişkenler arasındaki korelasyonel ilişkileri ortaya çıkarmayı amaçlamaktadır. Çalışma, 2018-2019 akademik yılı bahar döneminde, Akyazı'nın Sakarya ilçesindeki Konuralp Anadolu Lisesinde, 109 öğrenciyle gerçekleştirilmiştir.

Araştırma deseni olarak karma metod seçilmiştir. Araştırmada kullanılan veri toplama araçları dinlediğini anlama testleri, doğru telaffuz testleri, Yabancı Dilde Dinleme Kaygısı Ölçeđi, Yabancı Dil Sınıfında Telaffuz Kaygısı Ölçeđi ve öğrencilerin dil öğrenimi için sesli kitapların kullanımı hakkındaki görüşlerinin yoklandığı açık uçlu sorulardan oluşmaktadır. Deney grubu katılımcılarının sekiz hafta boyunca her hafta birer sesli kitap dinledikten sonra, deney ve kontrol grubu katılımcılarının ön ve son test durumları istatistiksel yöntemlerle nicel olarak karşılaştırılmıştır. Son olarak, uygulama sonunda açık uçlu sorulardan oluşan anketten toplanan nitel veri içerik analizine tabi tutulmuştur.

Sonuçlar, sesli kitap dinlemenin öğrencilerin dinleme ve doğru telaffuz becerilerinin gelişmesi üzerinde olumlu etkisi olduğunu göstermiştir. Ayrıca, sesli kitap dinleyen öğrencilerin dinleme ve telaffuz kaygılarının, dinlemeyenlere göre daha fazla azaldığı ortaya çıkmıştır. Bunun yanında sesli kitapları dinleyen öğrenciler, sesli kitapların dil öğrenim materyali olarak kullanılması konusunda olumlu görüş bildirmişlerdir. Son olarak, öğrencilerin dinleme becerisi ve dinleme kaygısı ile doğru telaffuz becerisi ve telaffuz kaygısı arasında negatif korelasyon bulunmuştur.

**Anahtar sözcükler:** dinlediğini anlama becerisi, dinleme kaygısı, doğru telaffuz, sesli kitap, telaffuz kaygısı

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## TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT.....	v
ÖZET .....	vii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	ix
TABLE OF CONTENTS .....	x
LIST OF TABLES .....	xiii
LIST OF FIGURES.....	xv
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS.....	xvi
Chapter 1.....	1
Introduction.....	1
1.1. Introduction .....	1
1.2. Background of the Study.....	1
1.3. Statement of the Problem.....	8
1.4. Significance of the Study .....	11
1.5. Research Questions.....	12
1.6. Conclusion.....	12
Chapter 2.....	14
Literature Review .....	14
2.1. An Overview of Listening Skill.....	14
2.1.1. Importance of listening.....	18
2.1.2. Listening comprehension .....	19
2.1.3. Listening comprehension process .....	24
2.1.4. Extensive listening.....	31
2.1.5. Reading while listening.....	34
2.2. An Overview of Speaking Skill.....	36
2.2.1. Importance of speaking skill.....	41
2.2.2. Components of speaking skill.....	41
2.2.3. Pronunciation.....	43
2.2.3.1. Components of pronunciation.....	46
2.2.3.1.1. Segmental features of pronunciation .....	46
2.2.3.1.2. Suprasegmental features of pronunciation.....	48
2.2.3.2. Factors that affect pronunciation.....	50
2.3. An Overview of Anxiety in Language Teaching.....	51

2.3.1. Foreign language listening anxiety .....	54
2.3.2. Foreign language pronunciation anxiety .....	56
2.4. An Overview of Audiobooks in Language Teaching .....	58
2.4.1. Audiobooks and Listening Skill .....	61
2.4.2. Audiobooks and Pronunciation Skill .....	63
2.4.3. Audiobooks in Balancing Anxiety .....	65
Chapter 3.....	67
Methodology .....	67
3.1. Introduction .....	67
3.2. Research Design .....	67
3.3. Research Setting .....	68
3.4. Participants .....	68
3.5. Materials and Instruments Used in the Study.....	70
3.5.1. Audiobooks.....	70
3.5.2. Listening comprehension tests.....	71
3.5.3. Pronunciation assessment materials.....	71
3.5.4. Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale (FLLAS).....	72
3.5.5. Measurement of Pronunciation Anxiety in Foreign Language Classroom (MPA- FLC).....	72
3.5.6. Questionnaire of learners' views about audiobooks .....	73
3.6. Data Collection Procedures .....	73
3.7. Conclusion.....	75
Chapter 4.....	76
Data Analysis .....	76
4.1. Introduction .....	76
4.2. Data Analysis Procedures .....	76
4.3. Results.....	79
4.4. Conclusion.....	101
Chapter 5.....	102
Conclusion .....	102
5.1. Introduction .....	102
5.2. Discussion of Findings.....	102
5.3. Pedagogical Implications .....	106
5.4. Limitations of the Study.....	108

5.5. Suggestions for Further Research.....	109
References.....	111
APPENDICES .....	150
Appendix A: Sample word content analysis of audiobooks .....	151
Appendix B: Pre-listening comprehension test.....	152
Appendix C: Post-listening comprehension test .....	154
Appendix D: Sample phonetic transcription of voice recordings .....	156
Appendix E: Sample audiobook worksheet.....	157
Appendix F: Survey of participants' views about listening and pronunciation skills and use of audiobooks for language learning .....	158
Appendix G: Pre and post FLLAS and MPA-FLC questionnaires.....	160
Appendix H: Survey use permission correspondences.....	163
Appendix I: Research permission document from Sakarya Governor Office .....	166
Appendix J: Research permission document from Institute of Education Sciences .....	167
Appendix K: Detailed information about the audiobooks .....	168
Appendix L: Highest frequency words from audiobook scripts .....	169
Appendix M: Read-aloud pronunciation assessment sentences.....	171
Appendix N: Data Collection Schedule.....	172
CV .....	173

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. <i>Grade and gender information about the participants</i> .....	70
Table 2. <i>Reliability analysis of pre and post FLLAS and MPA-FLC questionnaires</i> .....	78
Table 3. <i>Normality test results of listening comprehension scores, pronunciation accuracy scores, FLLA and FLPA levels</i> .....	80
Table 4. <i>Correlation between listening comprehension scores and pronunciation accuracy scores</i> .....	80
Table 5. <i>Correlation between FLLA and FLPA levels</i> .....	81
Table 6. <i>Correlation between FLLA levels and listening comprehension scores</i> .....	81
Table 7. <i>Correlation between FLPA levels and pronunciation accuracy scores</i> .....	82
Table 8. <i>Measure of association test of FLPA levels and pronunciation scores</i> .....	83
Table 9. <i>Normality test results of pronunciation scores, listening comprehension scores, FLLA and FLPA across gender</i> .....	84
Table 10. <i>Comparison of male and female learners in terms of pronunciation scores, listening comprehension scores, FLLA levels, FLPA levels</i> .....	85
Table 11. <i>Normality test of pre-listening and post-listening scores for experimental and control groups</i> .....	86
Table 12. <i>Analysis of difference between pre and post listening test scores across groups</i> ....	87
Table 13. <i>Normality test for pre and post pronunciation scores across groups</i> .....	89
Table 14. <i>Difference between experimental and control groups in pre and post pronunciation test scores</i> .....	89
Table 15. <i>Homogeneity statistics of FLLA and FLPA levels of experimental and control groups</i> .....	91
Table 16. <i>Normality test of FLLA and FLPA levels within groups</i> .....	91
Table 17. <i>Analysis of difference between pre and post FLLA levels across groups</i> .....	92
Table 18. <i>Difference between pre and post FLLA levels across gender</i> .....	93
Table 19. <i>Statistics of difference between pre and post FLPA levels across groups</i> .....	94
Table 20. <i>Statistics of difference between pre and post FLPA levels across gender</i> .....	95
Table 21. <i>Do you think your listening comprehension skill has improved?</i> .....	98
Table 22. <i>Do you think your pronunciation ability has improved?</i> .....	98
Table 23. <i>Do you think your FLLA has decreased?</i> .....	99
Table 24. <i>Do you think your FLPA has decreased?</i> .....	99
Table 25. <i>Do you want to continue listening to audiobooks?</i> .....	99

Table 26. *Are there occasions that you do not want to speak English in classroom because you think your pronunciation is bad?.....*100

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. <i>Scatter plot of FLPA level and pronunciation accuracy scores</i> .....	83
Figure 2. <i>Mean difference of pre and post listening comprehension scores across groups</i> .....	88
Figure 3. <i>Mean differences of pre and post pronunciation test scores across groups</i> .....	90
Figure 4. <i>Mean differences of pre and post FLLA levels across groups</i> .....	93
Figure 5. <i>Mean differences of pre and post FLPA levels across groups</i> .....	95

## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

- CLT: Communicative Language Teaching  
DCT: Dual Coding Theory  
EFL: English as a Foreign Language  
EL: Extensive Listening  
ELT: English Language Teaching  
ESL: English as a Second Language  
FLA: Foreign Language Anxiety  
FLCA: Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety  
FLLA: Foreign Language Listening Anxiety  
FLLAS: Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale  
FLPA: Foreign Language Pronunciation Anxiety  
IL: Intensive Listening  
IPA: International Phonetic Association  
L1: First Language  
MANOVA: Multivariate Analysis of Variance  
MoNE: Ministry of National Education  
MPA-FLC: Measurement of Pronunciation Anxiety  
RAT: Receiver Apprehension Test  
RwL: Read while Listening  
SPSS: Statistical Package for Social Sciences  
TEOG: Transition from Primary Education to Secondary Education System  
TL: Target Language  
YDS: Yabancı Dil Sınavı

## **Chapter 1**

### **Introduction**

#### **1.1. Introduction**

This chapter consists of sections that present the background of the study, statement of the problem inquired, the study's significance, and research questions. In short, the chapter presents the background information about the study by acknowledging the problems and concepts which are investigated by targeted research questions.

#### **1.2. Background of the Study**

Today, the English language is commonly used in many countries all over the world for various communicational purposes ranging from informing the consumers about the ingredients of chewing gums to the management of international affairs of states. So, teaching and learning English have become a priority in educational curriculums including Turkey, especially since 1997, when the Turkish Ministry of National Education (MoNE) went through a reform called "The Ministry of Education Development Project" which made English a compulsory subject for all learners starting from 4<sup>th</sup> grade. Moreover, it was the year when the conception of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) was first introduced to Turkish English Language Teaching (ELT) community (Kırkgöz, 2005). Since then, there have been many changes in the language teaching policy of the Turkish educational system in order to meet the needs of globalization and to keep up with contemporary practices; the current goal in ELT in Turkey is set to train individuals as global citizens as declared in "Turkey's Education Vision 2023" by MoNE in 2018. Moreover, it is prescribed in the same document that language learning will be supported by online and mobile technologies and the language skills which the learners need urgent development will be improved preemptively. These notions proposed by MoNE are taken into consideration in specifying the topic, and the scope of the current study in that technology aspect is fulfilled by the treatment of listening to

audiobooks via smartphones and primary skills and language aspects that need to be improved are diagnosed as listening comprehension skills and pronunciation quality by the preliminary inquiry.

In spite of its necessity -or even its imperativeness for several reasons, learning English is not an easy process, and it takes a long time to master it. For instance, Karahan (2007) states that most of the learners in Turkey begin learning English at high school or even as early as when they are at pre-school; however, a great portion of them stand far from the expected proficiency level both in receptive and productive skills. According to Doğançay-Aktuna and Kızıltepe (2005), the reasons behind this fact can be counted as learners' attitudes towards the target culture and language, the intensity of motivation, English classroom anxiety and feelings of learners about English instructor. Hence, learners must strive for achieving a certain level of English, primarily in four skills.

Among the four skills, the primary channels which the learners have to make use of from the very beginning of their language learning journey are listening and speaking. According to Renukadevi (2014), when individuals establish communication, listening and speaking constitute 75% of it (listening 45%, speaking 30%). The importance of listening is pointed out by Vandergrift (1999), who suggests that listening is an immensely integrated skill since it is the first receptive skill that learners develop. The integrated quality of listening skill determines the achievement of other main language skills, especially of speaking and pronunciation skills (Harmer, 2007). Also, Renukadevi (2014) states that other language skills are stimulated by listening in the first place. Likewise, Rost (2011) suggests that speaking proficiency is guaranteed by proficiency in listening. However, teaching listening skill has not taken much attention from researchers (Clement, 2007), and it is not only difficult to learn but also to teach (Walker, 2014). Takkaç and Akdemir (2015) put forward that different strategies must be drawn on to teach listening. Moreover, Pan (2016) asserts that English listening

improvement relies not only on classroom training but also practices of learners outside the classroom. Thus, the current study adopts the technique of listening to audiobooks to make learners listen to authentic comprehensible input outside the classroom as an EL technique.

Human beings speak for a range of reasons such as socializing, replying to others, asking for something, expressing their emotions and ideas, etc. and an important aspect of speaking English is its pronunciation as Setter and Jenkins (2005) emphasize that pronunciation plays a subtle role in prosperous communication both receptively and productively. Pronunciation is a major element of speaking skill which also ensures the intelligibility of message intended to be conveyed; according to Jenkins (2000), wrong articulation of such core sounds of English as consonants and vowels frequently causes miscommunication when speakers interact in the target language (TL). Likely, Isaacs (2008) points out that individual sounds make the most significant contribution to the intelligibility of speakers, followed by speech clarity and word stress features. Moreover, Munro and Derwing (2006) propose that some segmental errors cause reduced comprehensibility and intelligibility. Likewise, Prator (1967) points out to the fact that phonetic abnormalities in which phonemic or phonetic deviations occur are often the reason behind unintelligibility over half a century ago.

Despite its importance, Kelly (1969, cited in Isaacs, 2009) analyzes the language teaching history and concludes that pronunciation is the “Cinderella” area that has been subordinated to other language skills and aspects. Yet, with the reign of CLT, which centers the communication and views pronunciation as a core element of it, pronunciation instruction has taken its long-deserved place in language teaching curriculum (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin, 1996). The studies conducted on pronunciation skill have primarily focused on theoretical aspects, specific techniques to teach pronunciation and utilization of technology to teach pronunciation (Hişmanoğlu, 2006; Blanche, 2004; Saran, Seferoğlu & Çağiltay, 2009).

Besides, according to Coniam (2001), researchers prefer focusing primarily on segmental features in their studies, including the current study, since they are comparatively easier to explain and work on objectively than prosodic features. Moreover, it can be noted that the teaching program designers in Turkey have realized the importance of pronunciation instruction in that the 2018 Secondary School English Subject Teaching Program includes pronunciation as a separate skill area in the learning objectives along with reading, writing, speaking and listening. Moreover, one may observe that the students' course book has pronunciation practices of basic segmental and suprasegmental features at the end of every unit which they previously lack (e.g. Bulut, Baydar Ertopçu, Umur Özadalı & Şentürk, 2018).

Of the several reasons behind the failure in language learning, affective factors stand out (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986). According to Dornyei (2003), these affective variables are motivation, anxiety status of learners, and learning strategies that differ in every individual learner. Anxiety, which is the affective variable focus of the current study, has been attempted to be identified and to be explained by many researchers in ELT. For Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986), Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA) is a special type of apprehension unique to English as Second Language (ESL) and English as Foreign Language (EFL) concepts. Moreover, FLA is defined as a situation-specific anxiety type (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989), which affects learning negatively or positively depending on its level (Scovel, 1991).

The literature suggests that speaking is the most anxiety-provoking skill of all four main language skills (Young, 1990). Nevertheless, speaking is not the only skill that generates anxiety for learners. For instance, Hilleson (1996) observed miscellaneous types of anxiety that are related to basic language skills; the study revealed anxiety not only related to speaking and listening but also writing and reading. Similarly, Baran-Lucarz (2011) points out that speaking and listening are the most anxiety-breeding skills among learners. Hence, FLA can be viewed as an umbrella anxiety type, which can be divided into more specific areas of

skills. Although FLA has been examined thoroughly, there is a dearth of studies in Foreign Language Listening Anxiety (FLLA) and Foreign Language Pronunciation Anxiety (FLPA). Bekleyen (2009) states that some learners feel anxious in language learning situations in general, whereas some others experience anxiety only in skill-specific situations like speaking and listening. Bekleyen (2009) further explains that FLLA is a kind of anxiety which arises when the learners are required to listen. To measure FLLA, Kim (2000) developed an inventory, Foreign Language listening Anxiety Scale (FLLAS) and Kimura (2008) approved its validity in his study. Moreover, Elkhafaifi (2005) investigated the constructs of FLA and FLLA and concluded that they are distinct but related phenomena. MacIntyre (1995) believes that FLLA roots in learners' worry of misunderstanding and their fear of being laughed at if they do not interpret the message correctly. Vogely (1998) argues that FLLA might impede speech production since a learner must understand the things said to react verbally. The other skill-specific anxiety that will be investigated in the current study is FLPA. Szyszka (2011) argues that the production of segmental and suprasegmental phonological features might be physically affected by anxiety. Similarly, Öztürk and Gürbüz (2014) reveal that fear of articulating English words inaccurately provokes speaking anxiety among learners. Yet, in spite of many researches on ESL or EFL pronunciation needs, strategies, perceptions, attitudes and instructional techniques, there is no empirical and theoretical conceptualization of FLPA except for the pioneering research series of Baran-Lucarz (2013, 2014, 2016) who developed and tested the validity and reliability of Measurement of FLPA in Foreign Language Classroom (MPA-FLC) inventory's construct.

Another key concept that has guided the current study is exposure to TL as mentioned above. According to Al-Zoubi (2018), exposure to the TL is one the most eminent keys for developing four main language skills and Aktuğ (2015) argues that exposure limited to the classroom hours is not sufficient for language learning. Besides, according to Rost (2006),

listening is difficult for learners due to the major factor of lack of exposure to TL. Moreover, Rogerson-Revell (2011) suggests that exposure to TL is critical for pronunciation learning. Thus, learners must keep taking comprehensible input in when they leave the classroom; at that point, the term Extensive Listening (EL) comes into play as an auxiliary technique. EL is found to be effective in enhancing language learners' motivation and pronunciation knowledge (Vo, 2013), language achievement (Onoda, 2012) and in expanding learners' general knowledge of TL (Ucan, 2010). Likely, Renandya (2011) notes that EL helps learners master many aspects of the TL. Therefore, additional exposure to the English language outside the classroom can be hypothesized to foster learners' language skills. Also, there are some criteria reported for selection of EL materials. First of all, the difficulty of the listening materials' content must be appropriate for the learners' proficiency levels. As Krashen (1985) proposed in his Input Hypothesis, the comprehensible input must be slightly above the existing proficiency level of learners, which in turn presents a challenge for learning. Secondly, the authentic listening materials must be entertaining in that those materials were found to be motivating if they are so (Ur, 2007 cited in Bozan, 2015), so that learners can fully benefit from it. Thirdly, TL subtitles and visual aids to the listening materials were found to be increasing the effectiveness of them (Markham, Peter & McCarthy, 2001; Aksu-Ataç & Günay-Köprülü, 2018). Another point that must be taken into consideration in selecting the EL material is the speech rate of the narrator in the listening material; fast speech rate can harm comprehension (Zeng, 2007). Therefore, audiobooks utilized in the current study have been selected with regard to the criteria above.

The history of technology and language learning relationship dates back over 5,000 years ago when the writing was developed by humanity (Kern, 2011) and the rapid improvement of technology, especially with the invention of the computer and internet, has led a new era called "Information Age" (Uzun, 2015). Furthermore, Arnold and Ducate

(2015) assert that technology has changed the teaching practices exquisitely and profoundly with no doubt. The integration of technology into language teaching classrooms and language learning situations has been proven to be effective by many scholars (Genç İlter, 2015; Cohen, Manion, Morrison & Wyse, 2010). Pim (2013) points out that technology integration encourages learners and even instructors who do not feel confident with their language skills. Even, Aydın (2018) concludes in his review that the utilization of technology helps learners overcome FLA. Bull and Ma (2001) point out that technology provides a vast of resources for language learners, and audiobooks are one of them. Audiobooks, also referred to as narrative books or talking books, are recordings in the form of cassettes, CDs, or digital files.

Audiobooks have long been used by disabled people who cannot read printed books (Engelen, 2008). However, they are also used as educational tools for improving reading, listening, pronunciation, etc. (Cardillo, Coville, Ditlow, Myrick & Lesesne, 2007). Studies have shown how effective they can be for language learning (Mazouzi, 2016). For instance, audiobooks play a substantial role in expanding the reading ability of learners (Serafini, 2004). Moreover, Saka (2015) revealed in her study that audiobooks accommodate truly good examples of accurate pronunciation which might contribute to learners' pronunciation level; they create an array of opportunities to hear the ideal pronunciation of words both on prosodic and segmental levels (Cardillo et al., 2007). Additionally, according to Bomar (2006), listening to audiobooks helps to broaden vocabulary acquisition and improves reading fluency.

Moreover, Sternberg (2004) proposes that the human mind processes aural and visual information through disparate channels. Thus, Reading while Listening (RwL) to the same script simultaneously which complies with the tenets of Dual Coding Theory (DCT) (Paivio, 2007), has been proven to be effective for listening comprehension (Chang & Millett, 2013). Tragant and Vallbona (2018) reported in their study that learners attribute improvement of their pronunciation skill to RwL practices. Ranto Rozak, Saleh, Bharati & Sutopo (2019)

point out that RwL might be an effective technique to lower FLLA. However, there is scarce research that investigates the effectiveness of RwL on FLPA, more specifically via audiobooks within the ELT literature. Inspired by this situation, the present study aims to address this limitation and attempts to provide insight into this area of language teaching by investigating RwL's effect on FLPA.

Today's dominant population of learners comprises of Generation Z, screen-oriented generation, and they mostly live in realms of digital platforms of every kind. Moreover, Reinders and Cho (2010) note that learners in the specific context of Korea do not take opportunities for practicing English afforded by the internet, magazines, or TV outside the classroom. Hence, they argue that providing exposure through EL via learners' mobile phones seemed like a logical choice in their study in that it encourages the learners to control their independent learning and makes them feel comfortable with it. Likewise, captioned audiobooks, as the treatment of this research, serve as technological learning materials which the learners will access via their smartphones as an EL activity.

In sum, listening and speaking- more specifically pronunciation, are the primary elements of human communication. Comprehending what is heard and pronouncing the words accurately while speaking are indispensable skills required to be competent while communicating in TL. Literature has revealed that anxiety types specific to these primary skills are significant factors affecting their development. Therefore, this study sets out to explore the effects of listening to audiobooks with RwL mode as an EL activity on high school EFL learners' listening comprehension, pronunciation accuracy, FLLA and FLPA. Moreover, correlational relationships between listening comprehension skill, pronunciation skill, FLLA, and FLPA will be scrutinized. Lastly, learners' views about using captioned audiobooks outside the classroom as language learning materials will be unearthed.

### **1.3. Statement of the Problem**

The researcher has come across plenty of incidents that the learners have trouble in comprehending the instructors, peers, and listening materials and in articulating English words when they speak or read aloud throughout his teaching experience. Furthermore, the teachers who work at the same institution have apparently been in consensus on the problem that learners are able to perform relatively better in reading comprehension, writing, vocabulary, and grammar sections whereas they often fail to carry out listening and speaking tasks which do not overlap with the core objectives of communicative design of language teaching framework. The results of the skills exams conducted as an official requirement at the school confirm the issue that learners experience difficulty more in speaking and listening comprehension activities than reading comprehension and writing tasks. Moreover, some of the learners often complain about being not able to understand what the teacher says followed by confusion and emotional reactions; they are also unwilling to respond to questions orally mostly defending themselves by saying that their pronunciation is bad. Moreover, the researcher has observed anxious behavior among some of the learners, and the potential sources were debated at occasional intervals with the learners and colleagues. The discussions often center on the lack of exposure to spoken English. Likely, a preliminary inquiry by the researcher revealed that the most difficult language skills and areas from the perspectives of the learners are listening skill, pronunciation ability, and grammar learning. The preliminary inquiry also suggested that listening and speaking situations generate the highest anxiety for learners and a great proportion of the learners reported that they do not want to speak in the classroom due to their bad pronunciation.

Furthermore, the impact of affective factors like anxiety on any learning process, including the specific situation of language learning is beyond question (Krashen, 1982). Therefore, these particular language areas, skills and anxiety status of learners must be facilitated and equilibrated to overcome problems and to attain success in learning English as

a foreign language. Hence, the motivational departure point of this study has been grounded upon the indisputable importance of listening skill and pronunciation ability in the current English classes which are driven by communicative approaches as well as upon the fact that anxiety and lack of exposure might be the factors which hinder these language skills.

Sert (2010) verifies the difficulties university-level learners experience in speaking and listening skills when they enroll at ELT programs by reasoning the situation by the lack of mainstream assessment of these skills; yet, learners master grammar, vocabulary and reading comprehension in English since the Foreign Language Exam (YDS) in Turkey necessitates proficiency in these language areas. Moreover, Türk (2009) points out that the majority of classroom time is used in writing and reading practices, whereas listening and speaking exercises are ignored in general. This problem is common even at the high school level where the schools accept learners in accordance with their test scores at Transition from Primary Education to Secondary Education System (TEOG) as a study by Gömleksiz and Aslan (2017) revealed that listening, speaking and writing skills are ignored due to the fact that these skills are not included in the TEOG exam. Further, learners claimed that they skip most of the listening tasks in the classroom and that they focus on the multiple-choice test solving techniques. So, it can be suggested that the potential sources of problems related to listening and speaking skills might lay in previous learning experiences at high school or earlier which later grow like a snowball into higher education levels. Therefore, the current study postulates that the exposure deficiency of the learners might have kept the learners stuck at low proficiency levels, especially in listening and pronunciation skills.

Also, teachers debated the difficulties they face in their teaching experience in the regular council meeting of English teachers in Akyazı district during the fall semester of the academic year 2018-2019, and a majority of them have reported problems concerning their students' listening comprehension and speaking ability. Moreover, the teachers asserted that

the learners become tongue-tied especially when they are urged to read aloud sentences containing complex words and numbers; they continued by stating that their students suffer from FLA in general which impedes their motivation and performance. Considering Shumin's (2002) argument that the learners might get tongue-tied when they are anxious, the problems stated by the teachers sound logical, which increases the suspicion that the situation is related to skill-specific anxiety and lack of exposure to TL. Moreover, listening comprehension problems, pronunciation problems, and especially anxiety constituents of these skills are investigated mostly at university levels. Therefore, the current study aims to contribute to studies conducted at the high school level.

#### **1.4. Significance of the Study**

Listening and speaking are core skills both in daily life in native language communication and in the foreign language learning process. Listening is vital, especially in language classrooms, since it is the primary channel which lays the foundation to other language skills. Mentioned about speaking, the importance of sound production cannot be underestimated. Hence, it can be suggested that the current study is significant since it attempts to investigate the effectiveness of a particular material treatment in fostering these inseparable basic receptive and expressive language skills. Furthermore, skill-specific debilitating anxiety related to these language areas can be the supreme cause of failure in language acquisition and it has been suggested by previous studies that anxiety level must be balanced as much as possible to remove its adverse influence on learning. Moreover, learning English in EFL contexts like Turkey can be problematic due to several reasons. One of these several reasons can be noted as exposure to authentic spoken English is limited, and classroom hours might not meet the required amount. So, audiobooks might serve as an alternative comprehensible input supplement outside the classroom. Moreover, the study is significant in that it aims to reveal if skill-specific anxiety and a particular skill are correlated

and if increase in the performance in a particular skill helps to balance the skill-specific anxiety.

Besides, there is a scarcity of studies conducted on the effects of utilizing audiobooks on FLLA and FLPA directly or indirectly in the existing literature (Chang, 2010). Thus, the current study aims to provide evidence to the existing literature from an Anatolian high school EFL context as well as to unearth learners' views about using audiobooks as language learning materials.

### **1.5. Research Questions**

The research questions were formulated as follows to attain the research goals:

1. What are the correlational relationships between listening comprehension skill, pronunciation accuracy, FLLA and FLPA of high school EFL learners?
2. Does listening to audiobook affect listening comprehension skill of high school EFL learners?
3. Does listening to audiobook affect pronunciation accuracy of high school EFL learners?
4. Does listening to audiobook affect foreign language listening anxiety of high school EFL learners?
5. Does listening to audiobook affect foreign language pronunciation anxiety of high school EFL learners?
6. What are high school EFL learners' views about using audiobooks for language learning?

### **1.6. Conclusion**

This chapter presented the background of the study by elaborating the key terms, statement of the problem, the significance of the study, and it finally introduced the research questions formulated to attain research objectives. Next chapter will present a detailed

overview of the research variables and related literature involving the studies conducted to explore their nature.

## Chapter 2

### Literature Review

#### 2.1. An Overview of Listening Skill

Listening is a receptive skill in which a listener operates mental processes to decipher verbal symbols. The definition and conceptualization of listening skill have been modified by many researchers in the course of changes in ELT literature. As can be traced back to very first concepts, listening was initially regarded as acoustic signals recorded in the brain in the 1900s (Rost, 2002). After a few decades, with the advancement in the information about the human brain, it was redefined as an unconscious process which was led by subconscious cultural schemata. With the introduction and widespread usage of telecommunication systems, listening started to be regarded as the success of transmission and recreation of messages. The views that accept listening to include listener's personal experience and cultural significance of speech behavior followed these previous concepts in the 1960s and 1970s respectively ending by the definition "input's parallel processing" in 1980s and 1990s. The dominance of CLT led O'Malley, Chamot, and Kupper (1989, p.434) to redefine listening as "an active and conscious process in which the listener constructs meaning by using cues from contextual information and from existing knowledge while relying upon multiple strategic resources to fulfill the task requirements." A decade later, Vandergrift (1999) defined listening skill as an active and complex process that the listener must discriminate the sounds, interpret intonation and stress, comprehend grammatical structures and vocabulary and interpret the message within current and wider socio-cultural context. Furthermore, Byrnes (1984) notes that listening is a highly complex activity of problem-solving which can be divided into specific sub-skills such as recognizing partial components of language and memorization of them. In this sense, listening is profoundly different from hearing. Kline (1996) suggests that hearing is only the reception of sounds. Contrarily,

listening involves attachment of meaning to the sound, which means hearing is a passive process whereas listening is an active one. So, it might be incorrect to handle listening as a passive skill (Anderson & Lynch, 1988; Lindsay & Knight, 2006). Moreover, the distinction between hearing and listening is explained by Mashori (2004) who suggests that hearing refers to the ability to notice the linguistic elements within a sound stream and figuring out the meaning of a specific phrase or sentence by using background and linguistic knowledge. However, listening refers to a more complex ability to relate a specific sentence or phrase to what is said previously or to comprehend its communicative function. In addition to this, according to Anderson and Lynch (1988), understanding does not necessarily take place only when the speaker says; connections must be made by the listener using his or her previous knowledge while trying to figure out the message which is delivered by the speaker.

Within the simplest claim, real-time communication cannot be achieved without two basic components: listening and speaking. Krashen (1982) suggests that the most important skill to be mastered in language learning is listening since writing and speaking will come naturally after listening is mastered enough in his “Natural Order of Acquisition Hypothesis”. Also, Rost (1994) proposes that listening is of the key importance in language learning since it provides input for the learner to be modeled when producing output. The learner must understand the input, which is taken through listening correctly in order for learning to take place. Hence, it can be assumed that a core prerequisite of speaking or writing, production or output, is listening. In short, of the two basic components of communication, listening comes first in order to achieve a certain level of successful interaction. In the process of listening, the receiver must differentiate between sounds in the perception phase and then process them to figure out the grammatical structures and vocabulary, decipher the intonation and stress and finally, s/he must recognize and figure out what is conveyed in accordance with the current and larger social context of speaking (Wipf, 1984).

Furthermore, Rost (2011) clarifies listening orientations in a broader sense as follows:

1. *Receptive orientation* means taking in the things that the speaker utters
2. *Constructive orientation* means establishing and representing the meaning
3. *Collaborative orientation* means mediating meaning with speaker and replying
4. *Transformative orientation* means creating meaning through association, empathy, and imagination

Even though listening has a well-established central importance with an appropriately structured instruction in second and foreign language learning today, it was one of the most neglected language areas in the ELT field, especially before the late 1960s (Morley, 2001; Field, 2002; Nunan, 2002; Rubin, 1995). Up to the realization period, instructors and researchers had dealt with the listening as a means of introducing new grammar and vocabulary through inauthentic materials Field (2008). Furthermore, English has been taught for many different purposes throughout the teaching and learning history such as providing exposure to the sounds, communicating with native speakers and maintaining the lecture situations (McDonough & Shaw, 1993).

Furthermore, various types of listening exist throughout the listening literature. They differ in nature and method with reference to the purpose and situation. For example, Kline (1996) emphasizes that “informative listening” is a way of expanding knowledge which can only be achieved by vocabulary, focused concentration, and memory. This type of listening is common in lecture and getting direction situations. Nation and Newton (2009, cited in Mohamed, 2018) suggest that “rational/interactional” type involves a two-way process which usually happens in the interaction of real-life situations where a dialogue or a conversation exist. Another type of listening is identified by Derrington and Groom (2004) as “appreciative/aesthetic” listening. In this type, the listener enjoys what s/he listens since the topic catches his or her attention, such as listening to music, poem, or other literary works.

Moreover, the “critical/inferential” listening type is defined by Wilson (2008) and Brown (2001) as analyzing every word that is heard to read between the lines, namely, the underlying messages. It also includes grasping the psychological status and intention of the speaker when s/he speaks which can be observed in political speeches. Moreover, listening for the main idea or specific information involves searching for the main theme of the topic (Wilson, 2008). Listening to flight number at the airport or listening for a specific term in a lecture situation can be counted as of this type.

In addition to all the points mentioned above, the functions of language must be considered because listening occupies a large proportion of a functional communication conjuncture. Thus, the purpose and mode of using the language vary according to the function the situation requires. People use different functions of language in different contexts and needs. The functions of the subject are divided into two major categories which are “interactional” and “functional” (Brown & Yule, 1983). Interactional function refers to the purpose of managing social relations and personal belief in which primary focus is the person rather than the information. In other words, this function refers to the primary objective of maintaining social relationships. However, the transactional function of language use refers to the usage of language in order to transfer facts and propositions such as explanations, giving directions, giving instructions, giving descriptions requests, etc. which primarily focuses on message and content rather than social relationship. Furthermore, according to Anderson and Lynch (1988), main purpose of listening can be either transactional where the goal is to transfer or exchange information successfully, or interactional where the goal is to maintain or establish social communication. Richards (1990) addresses that both of the functions are involved in the listening process together in many situations. Particularly, in the context of language learning classroom, effective learners need to use both functions, in order not only

to communicate with their friends and teachers but also to do the tasks and acquire or modify new information to create new concepts.

**2.1.1. Importance of listening.** Listening is the primary skill that constitutes people's daily communication. The notion can be supported by Guo and Wills (2006) who state that people gain a tremendous proportion of their education, understanding of human affairs and the world, information, values, and ideals through listening. Miller (2003) also emphasizes that more than 40% of communication on a daily basis is occupied by listening followed by speaking, which constitutes 35%. Similarly, Nunan (1998) notes the importance of listening by stating that learning cannot take place without listening to linguistic input and listening is prerequisite for speaking.

Nonetheless, listening is not important solely for real life; it also is crucial for the classroom environment, especially in the EFL context. According to Nunan (1998), listening is the most critical skill in the classroom since it constitutes more than 50% of the total duration that learners deal with the TL in the foreign language classroom. Being able to read, write and speak can be devoted as knowing a language by many, however, if one lacks a threshold in the level of listening skill, s/he cannot communicate effectively after all. Rost (1994) emphasizes the importance of listening skill stating that it provides input for the learners; it enables teachers to navigate their learners' attention to new forms to be taught; it challenges learners to understand and use the authentic spoken language. In other words, listening to spoken language creates a means of interaction among the learners and teachers. Viewing from a broader perspective, Wallace, Stariha and Walberg (2004) argue that listening skill is important for the learners since they get information and acquire a deeper understanding of the TL through it. As for the young learners who cannot speak or write yet, listening can be seen as a primary channel to let them gain input. Additionally, for the

intermediate and advanced learners, listening can play a crucial role to foster their vocabulary size and grammatical knowledge belonging to academia.

Besides, in the cases when learners have problems in comprehending what they listen to, they tend to get frustrated and demotivated, eventually losing attention and performing worse than expected, is a well-known phenomenon. However, listening is somehow ignored by the instructors on behalf of speaking since it requires a long time with plenty of practices (Rivers, 1983). Therefore, along with speaking skill, learners should develop a good listening skill to sustain communication both in social context and classroom (Anderson & Lynch, 1988).

**2.1.2. Listening comprehension.** The definition of the term “listening comprehension” has varied within the literature. Chastain (1971) defines listening comprehension as the capability to understand the native speaker’s speech at a normal pace within a listening incident. Parallel to this, Sariçoban (1999) proposes that listening comprehension is the ability to understand and classify the things others utter. The process proposed contains identifying the speaker’s pronunciation along with the accent, lexis and grammar, and grasping the meaning delivered. Listening comprehension is defined by Morley (1991) in a broader sense as the process of mediating between sounds and the building of meaning. This means a listener in a social context or a learner in class first receive the sounds and then try to extract meaning from them. Apart from these definitions, more sophisticated definitions can be found in the literature. For example, Dirven and Oakeshott-Taylor (1984) argue that listening comprehension is a complex process that cannot be understood by merely looking at the linguistic knowledge and clues; non-linguistic clues and knowledge of the world must be taken into consideration in the process, too. Byrnes (1984) is of a similar view by evaluating listening comprehension as a complicated process which requires the listener to use all types of knowledge readily exist to understand what is heard. In other words, listening

comprehension involves grasping of words chunks, clauses, and larger discourse components rather than merely perception of sounds. Likely, Hauser, Hughes (1988) views listening comprehension as an active process that requires the listener to be active to construct the ultimate meaning, which later is negotiated by the speaker and the listener. In order to make this possible and feasible, teachers should create instruction contents which are appealing and interesting.

It has been proposed that there are two major skills concerning listening comprehension (Hughes, 1991). They are “macro-skills” and “micro-skills”. Macro-skills are explained as a listener must listen for specific information, gist or the general idea in a speech situation. Macro-skills can be elaborated into five elements:

1. *Establishing the main idea*: The main idea is an important component of a listening text since it comprises all the key points in it. So, understanding the main idea of a listening text helps the listener to remember crucial information rather than analyzing the whole text.

2. *Identifying specific information*: Specific information is the component that builds up the main idea. It can be said that specific information which can be found by asking why, how, when, who, what, how much, how many questions are the clusters that make up the whole meaning.

3. *Making inference*: Inference can be defined as making predictions depending on the facts and information. In other words, learners draw implied or unstated information out of a listening text. This skill provides learners to go beyond surface meaning.

4. *Identifying reference*: Referencing provides the information needed to interpret the connection between words and parts of speech. It helps the learner to connect words or parts of speech by using the signals.

5. *Vocabulary*: Words are the building blocks of communication. Vocabulary is the set of words which are known by the users of a language.

The second main skill is the micro-skill which can be defined broadly as interpreting the intonation patterns like rhythm and stress; recognition of structure functions like imperative or request; recognition of discourse markers like oh, well, finally, now.

Still, there are some problems and difficulties frequently reported in listening comprehension and they must be essentially cited shortly. For instance, according to Pourhosein Gilakjani and Ahmadi (2011), learners of English as a foreign language have problems in listening comprehension since they are overloaded with grammar, reading, and vocabulary. Bingöl, Çelik, Yıldız and Mart (2014) list some problems that the learners might face in listening comprehension with their sources.

1. *Quality of recorded materials*: The encoding quality of listening materials that are used in the classroom and the loudspeakers' quality can greatly impact listening comprehension.

2. *Cultural differences*: If the learners are not familiar with or a total stranger to the listening text and its cultural background, it is highly probable that they have difficulty in understanding it. In other words, familiarity with the material's cultural features is a prior condition. So, teachers should provide background knowledge about what is to be listened in advance.

3. *Accent*: It is suggested by Munro and Derwing (1999) that heavy accented speech in a listening material may cause impairment in comprehension. The suggestion can be supported by Goh (1999) who alleges that 66% of learners think the accent is one of the most noteworthy factors that affect listening comprehension.

4. *Unknown words*: If the listening text contains familiar words in familiar contexts, it has the potential to arouse interest and motivation among learners, leading to better comprehension.

5. *Pace and length of listening*: Comprehension of longer listening texts varies according to the level of learners. For example, lower-level learners are likely to fail when they listen and do the tasks for more than three minutes. The shorter the listening text is, the easier it becomes for the low-level learners to achieve understanding and doing the tasks. Likely, Underwood (1989) suggests that speech speed is an important factor that affects comprehension. Learners are likely to have problems in understanding the words they hear if a speaker speaks fast. In real-life situations where the listener does not have control over the speech speed of the speaker, learners' tendency to have difficulty in understanding the speech increases.

It is stated by Ur (2007) that a few of the major problems the students face in listening are catching the sounds, figuring out the stress and intonation, dealing with the noise, comprehending and predicting the words, exhaustion, using environmental clues and accent factor. She also maintains that every EFL learner does not have the same ability to deal with the TL as their native language and she explains the potential reasons behind it. First, the learners of a TL can notice the words in written form or when they are pronounced in a slow pace though they cannot do it if the speaker speaks too fast. Secondly, due to the fact that colloquial usage and sound combinations contribute a lot to understanding, learners have difficulty in grasping what is said if they lack knowledge of these components. Thirdly, trying to understand every word they hear, which is a common tendency especially among lower-level learners, has the potential to paralyze understanding of incoming utterances. Moreover, she suggests that being unfamiliar with the accents, stress and intonation, collocations, idioms and proverbs along with the inability to use visual clues may pose difficulty in listening comprehension for learners of English. Furthermore, according to Underwood (1989), the factors affecting the listening comprehension are delivery speed, not having chance to ask for repetition, insufficient vocabulary, not being able to follow transitional signals, deficiency in

contextual knowledge, concentration and trying to grasp each word coming in. Likely, according to Yagang (1993), there are four major sources that may make listening comprehension problematic, which are the speaker, the listener, the physical environment and the message itself. Similarly, Boyle (1984) assumes that listening comprehension is affected by the speaker, the listener, medium of communication and the environment. Teng (2002) acknowledges these factors by adding the stimulus factor for listening class context.

Another main listening problem which arises in learning English for the speakers of other native languages is the sound system of native and English language. Such problems exist to a large extent among Turkish EFL learners. For example, the sounds /ð/ as in “these” and /θ/ as in “thing” do not exist in the Turkish language sound system (Yavuz, 2006). So, Turkish learners of English potentially confuse these sounds with their closest sounds of /d/ and /t/. For instance, the word “those” might be interpreted as “doze” and “three” can be interpreted as “tree” creating great confusion for the listeners.

Listening comprehension problems may arise due to the fact that orthographic and articulatory representations of English words differ. Walker (2014) points out that one of the most significant factors that cause difficulty in listening comprehension is that the words in English are mostly not pronounced the way they look in print. In other words, spoken language is different from the written form which causes confusion for the learners in listening.

Furthermore, Hasan’s (2000) study on the learners’ perceptions of listening comprehension problems reveals that such factors as inconvenient classroom condition, lack of visual aid, unknown vocabulary, unclear pronunciation and high speech rate, unappealing topics and longer listening text are the main problem sources concerning listening comprehension. Further, Graham (2006) indicates in her study that most of the learners report that they suffer from low listening ability, the difficulty of the tasks and not knowing the

effective listening strategies. In another study conducted by Hamouda (2013) shows that pronunciation, lack of vocabulary, the pace of speech, different accents, concentration deficiency, anxiety, and low-quality sound recording are major problems in listening comprehension. Moreover, Yıldırım (2013), who investigates the student and teacher perceptions about listening comprehension problems, concludes that students do not experience as much problem as the teachers assume in listening. The result may indicate that students are not aware of their listening comprehension problems, unlike their teachers do. Likewise, Renandya (2012) show that complex sentences are the most problematic factor in listening comprehension from the students' view; yet teachers think that the most problematic factor is fast speech which students regard as one of the least problematic ones. Finally, according to Zeng (2007), the speed of speech is the most problematic factor in listening comprehension, whereas unfamiliar pronunciation poses the least problem for learners.

**2.1.3. Listening comprehension process.** To be able to understand the nature of understanding an oral utterance, the process of listening in detail must be examined. Underwood (1989) states that there are three consecutive stages in the process of receiving a spoken utterance. The first stage, which is hearing, is the one that sounds are received through auditory organs to be stored to organize as meaningful units. This is done by using the listener's background knowledge of the language, too. In this stage, the information which is just stored does not stay in storage for a long time. Lado (1965) argues this temporary nature of short-term memory by saying in foreign or second language learning, the input is available for a shorter time. So, one of the greatest obstacles for especially foreign language learners is that they might miss the new incoming information since they are striving to organize and understand the previous sound data taken. After organizing the sounds s/he hears in the first stage, the listener sends the organized information to the short-term memory and s/he deals with it in there. In the second stage, the listener compares and checks the sounds and words

with his or her previous knowledge, which is already stored in long-term memory, which allows him or her to grasp the meaning. The nature of this stage makes especially lower-level listeners vulnerable to a big problem which is missing the second set of information if it arrives at the short-term memory since they would still be busy with the previous one. In the third and the last stage of processing, the listener establishes the meaning of an utterance and sends the information to the long-term memory to be kept or be used later. The data is shown to be stored as meaning rather than exact words. Goh (1997) explains in a study that more than 30% of the listeners do not remember the exact words or chunks which they just heard despite understanding and recalling the meaning, after another set of data is given. The reason behind this is that short-term memory has a certain capacity. Therefore, listeners code what they hear into meanings into the long-term memory and recall them as meanings rather than words. Clark (1977) suggests in alignment with the view above that after receiving the raw speech sounds, a listener labels them in the working memory and tries to organize them according to their phonological representations and identifies the function and content of them. After the listener has identified the meaning of a sound, s/he sends it to the short-term memory and erases the sound representation of it. For this, the listener does not retain each word characterized by sounds, but the meaning of the whole. Morley (1991) agrees by stating that raw speech sounds being moved into short-term memory after getting into sensory memory as acoustic signals. Here, the signal is analyzed and clustered into parts to find relative meanings within the short-term memory. If any related meaning is not found in the short-term memory, long-term memory is searched for links in the next step. Finally, a proposition and meaning are attached and it is sent to the long-term memory by relating new information for use.

Moreover, Anderson and Lynch (1988) propose that listening comprehension is a complex cognitive process that the listener forms meaning from the input. Likewise,

Anderson (1983, cited in O'Malley et al., 1989) explains the stages listening process in three respective steps: "Perceptual processing", "parsing" and "utilization". Perceptual processing refers to the process in which the listener focuses attention to the incoming listening material and sounds and retains them in echoic memory. In parsing, the listener uses messages and words to form a meaningful mental representation of them to form propositional representations which are alterations of the original message to an abstraction. Finally, the utilization stage involves relating a mental representation of what is listened to the existing knowledge. By doing so, learner's comprehension is enhanced and information is likely to be retained. Furthermore, Nunan (2001) points out that there are six stages in a listening situation which occur in rapid succession. These stages are as follows in order:

1. *Hearing*: This stage refers to the phase that the sound waves arrive at one's sensory receptors and the listener does not necessarily pay attention to the content.

2. *Attention*: This stage refers to the process of selecting the stimuli to focus on.

3. *Understanding*: The listener starts decoding the sound patterns, words and other symbolic clues by using his or her current and previous knowledge. Indeed, this stage involves basically retaining the meaning in and sending the information to the long-term memory by finding relevant existing knowledge.

4. *Remembering*: When the information arrives at the long-term memory, it is literally saved to the storage for future use after finding a suitable meaning to attach. The reason for recalling something different when urged to is that human brain stores information selectively. So, when one tries to recall the stored information, s/he most probably would remember quite different things from the original input.

5. *Evaluating*: At this point, the message which has just arrived is weighed by the listener so as to decide if there is bias or prejudice in it. In other words, the listener constantly tries to decide if the incoming message worth listening or not. Nonetheless, an effective

listener utilizes this function later than a less effective listener since it causes the processor to stop taking new messages coming as soon as it starts.

6. *Responding*: This stage involves an act of checking the correctness of what is heard and the meaning constructed both by the speaker and listener. So, two-way feedback is required in order to confirm the intended and perceived message.

As for the order of goals, Rost (2002) presents the rankings as lower-order, third-order, second-order and finally first-order goals of listening comprehension; ranging from understanding sounds that the speaker uses to responding to relevant facets of what is heard. He concludes that in order to achieve first-order goals, listeners must achieve at least a certain level of lower-order goals. It can be understood from this that one cannot achieve a higher-order goal unless s/he cannot go beyond a threshold of lower-level bounds.

Comprehending what is listened is affected by knowledge types (Chamot, 1995). There are two basic types of knowledge that are utilized during listening which are “declarative knowledge” and “procedural knowledge”. Within a broad framework, declarative knowledge consists of images, vocabulary and concepts, which are stored in the form of schematic networks. However, procedural knowledge, which consists of cognitive and physical skills, along with strategies is retained as a production system. These terms are important for listening comprehension since it is pointed out by Chamot (1995) that listening comprehension is achieved by procedural knowledge with the purpose of acquiring declarative knowledge. These knowledge patterns are also manifested by other scholars like Ur (2007) and Buck (2001). To them, there are two distinct types of knowledge utilized in listening comprehension. They are linguistic knowledge which can be described as involving discourse features and semantics, grammar structures, vocabulary and phonology knowledge; and non- linguistic knowledge which consists of topic, context and world knowledge. These two knowledge types contributed to the field by these scholars can be illustrated by bottom-

up, top-down and interactive processes the last of which is an extension and combination of the former two processing types.

It is pointed out by Morley (1991) that bottom-up processing is initiated by an external source. In other words, bottom-up processing is the part of the process that the data taken is understood by converting sound patterns into words, meaning, and grammatical relationships, etc. leading to an understanding of the message. Furthermore, Buck (2001) states that the processing starts from the lowest level to the peak level of detail in bottom-up processing. The lowest level here can be thought of as decoding the sounds into phonemes in order to identify words. Next, the processing continues by the syntactic level which leaves the part of the play to the semantic level in which a literal explanation of meaning is arrived. As a final step, an interpretation of what is meant to be conveyed in the immediate context is deciphered by the listener. In alignment with this view, Carrel (1988) points out that understanding a message by a listener starts from the smallest part of letters, sounds and words to larger ones such as phrases, sentences, paragraphs and so on. Scholars like Carrell (1988) and Brown (2001) view this processing as data-driven and text-based since these terms refer to making use of the new data to understand the message. Decoding in the bottom-up process is the core of this view since the meaning of a message is grasped by understanding the whole, starting from the smallest cluster. Richards (1990) explains the bottom-up processing as analyzing the input data to identify familiar vocabulary, distinguishing the segments of speech to process each word as a separate unit, use of phonological signals or indicators to recognize focus of information in speech, and using grammatical signals or indicators to organize the data into constituents. When all the views are taken into consideration, one can assume that bottom-up processing requires a listener to have a well established grammatical and lexical competence, since both are the departure points of analyzing the incoming data.

On the other hand, top-down processing involves the procedures that the listener must predict and infer the meaning by considering the facts, propositions, and expectations (Chaudron & Richards, 1986). This view indicates that since a listener has various types of knowledge, one of which is world knowledge, it is possible to understand a word's meaning without decoding its sound patterns. Indeed, bottom-up processing cannot be thought of a true representation of listening comprehension in real-life situations as it is possible to comprehend a word without decoding its sounds (Buck, 2001). Thus, top-down processing is linked to the fact that one comprehends what s/he listens depending on an inner basis of knowledge which was previously retained as global knowledge and expectations. These prior or background knowledge might exist in the form of discourse knowledge, knowledge belonging to the context, schemata and scripts (Richards, 1990). Schemata at this point can be defined as the neural network of concepts, contexts and words, etc. For example, Rumelhart (1980) defines the term schemata as a structure of data to represent cumulated concepts which are stored in the memory. So, a listener using top-down processing can be said to be relying heavily upon his or her schemata in the processing mechanism.

Buck (2001) supports the nature of processing above by adding that those various knowledge types do not apply in a provisional order which means there is no fixed order of application of them when a listener is involved in a comprehension situation. A listener may utilize his or her knowledge randomly or simultaneously according to the immediate need of listening content. To exemplify, one can use syntactic knowledge to identify a word or phrase in order to understand what s/he has heard. Then, s/he can utilize context knowledge to reach a clearer interpretation. Another supporting idea is of Anderson and Lynch (1988), which proposes that meaning of any utterance, cannot completely be found within the words, rather it is also found in the listener's head. They suggest that a successful listener is the one who is able to make use of the knowledge outside and inside his or her head to understand what s/he

hears. Likely, according to Richards (1990), two major processing types mentioned above are combined together in a cooperative manner in order to understand spoken language by the listener or they may be subordinated to each other depending on the purpose of the listening (Vandergrift, 2004). Therefore, interactive processing can be defined as an extension of bottom-up and top-down strategies in listening comprehension.

Listening strategies also play a vital role in the listening comprehension process. The scholars are mostly in consensus regarding the main strategy categories used by the listeners in listening circumstances which are “cognitive strategies”, “meta-cognitive strategies” and “socio-affective strategies” (Rost & Ross, 1991; Bingöl et al., 2014). Derry and Murphy (1986) suggest that cognitive strategies involve understanding and keeping input in long or short-term memories. They are mainly problem-solving activities that are used by the learners to obtain skill or knowledge. Moreover, cognitive strategies are defined as mental processes which involve utilization and manipulation of materials presented for learning (O’Malley & Chamot, 1990; Abdalhamid, 2012). Meta-cognitive strategies are defined by Rubin (1988) as controlling techniques utilized by the learners to manage their learning by planning, reviewing, evaluating and modifying. In other words, meta-cognitive strategies provide learners to be aware of what they listen to (Holden, 2004), so that they can plan, monitor and evaluate the incoming information (Bingöl et al., 2014). Consequently, learners who can make use of meta-cognitive strategies are able to learn faster and organize the knowledge better, build self-esteem, ask for help from peers, teachers and families, evaluate their own learning (Wenden, 1998) and using meta-cognitive strategies increases self-confidence and motivation in task completion (Salatacı, 2002). Unfortunately, the degree and amount of using meta-cognitive skills vary in compliance with skill levels of learners. For example, O’Malley et al. (1989) prove that higher proficiency listeners make use of repair strategies which is adhered to meta-cognitive strategies in order to switch their focus back to the activity they are

doing when a failure of comprehension arises. However, it is proven that less efficient listeners cannot do this and stop listening. Furthermore, Henner Stanchina (1987) shows that skilled learners are able to explain what they listen to through using prior knowledge to establish theories on listening text, keeping making prediction and integrating the incoming information with the previous ones, making inferences to assign to missing parts, evaluating the predictions made until by, and finally promoting the theories. Lastly, socio-affective strategies are used by the learners so as to cooperate with others around, check understanding and reduce anxiety (Abdalhamid, 2012). It is stated by O'Malley and Chamot (1987) that social and affective strategies have the utmost effect on learning among all other listening strategies. Habte-Gabr (2006) suggests in the framework of socio-affective strategies that learners must know how to reduce anxiety and to increase motivation, confidence to foster their listening skill. Additionally, it is suggested by Krashen (2002) that high affective filter blocks the input so the information cannot reach the brain. Therefore, it can be concluded that however the learners are motivated and set ready to achieve listening in the desired way, the materials meet the requirement of being comprehensible; the learners cannot achieve a satisfactory level of listening comprehension unless they have a moderate affective filter, that is to say, unless they have a convenient manipulation ability of socio-affective strategy.

In short, in a listening situation where a speaker transfers a message by encoding the meaning with sounds, a listener who handles the incoming messages using either strategy, is an active participant of the delivery process by using both bottom-up processing in which s/he decodes the phonemes, words and syntax, and top-down processing in which s/he understands the context, previous experiences, world knowledge, and other knowledge types in order to construct meaning of the message arrived.

**2.1.4. Extensive listening.** As this dissertation involves EL, also referred to as listening for pleasure often, it is necessary to address technical aspects of it.

Renandya (2012) states that all kinds of activities can be integrated into an EL exercise which gives the learners the opportunity to obtain enjoyable and comprehensible input. EL technique can be implemented both in and out of the classroom as long as the materials, which are abundant thanks to technology nowadays, are clear to understand, suitable to learners' proficiency level and enjoyable. Moreover, Vo (2013) suggests that EL materials must fulfill the features like letting learners choose the materials themselves which in turn increases motivation. Lynch (2009) agrees with Vo by stating self-selection of material and planning the listening time of their own allow learners to be more motivated. Therefore, learners may eagerly listen to the material they have selected themselves leading enjoyment and language improvement. Another feature of EL is allowing learners to practice different accents, cultures, etc. as suggested by Gilliland (2015).

There is also another type of listening which is labeled as Intensive Listening (IL). The difference between them is documented as learners should comprehend the specific meaning of every fragment of speech in IL, whereas they are expected to understand the global or main idea of a listening text in addition to seizing it in EL (Pourhosein Gilakjani & Ahmadi, 2011). In other words, IL is more demanding since the learners have to identify specific information, focus on vocabulary, syntactic features, phonemes, etc. and complete various tasks related to them. However, EL refers to listening casually, mainly for pleasure and for an overall meaning of what is going on in what is heard. In the same vein, Al-Jawi (2010) indicates that EL refers to listening for longer texts usually for pleasure and joy by having leisure; however, IL mostly demands to be more concentrated and it usually dedicates not for leisure but for achievement and task completion. According to Jones (2008) and Chang and Read (2006), listening parts are mostly ignored even though they exist in the teaching curriculum and they argue that teachers conduct IL exercises only which provoke stress and demotivation unlike the EL practices that usually create motivation, relief and

pleasure particularly because learners choose their own materials. Despite the differences, extensive and intensive listening should both be implemented by the course designers according to Pourhosein Gilakjani and Ahmadi (2011). They suggest both the techniques are essential in cultivating learners' listening skill in that IL achievement can be fostered by the help of EL activities.

Learning situations are facilitated in lots of ways when EL is implemented. First of all, according to Krashen (1985), acquiring a language is possible by solely one way that is receiving comprehensible input and understanding it which implies that listening is the primary channel in language acquisition. EL provides, in Krashen's terms, a whole range of input which contributes the learners' language skill improvement. To begin with, the motivation factor can be discussed as it has stupendous effects in learning. According to Vo (2013), EL materials such as movies, TV shows, audiobooks, radio programs, etc. are motivating and they increase involvement. EL materials of this kind, particularly the ones with multimedia support, keep the listeners engaged with the listening activities. Hence, motivation and self-engagement factors have a great potential to expand learners' listening comprehension and to make the learners feel autonomous regulating their own literacy (Holden, 2008 cited in Bozan, 2015). Movies, for example, are splendid EL materials that potentially raise learners' interest and motivation creating a beneficial side effect of performing better in the classroom (Ryan, 1998). Another study on the effect of EL with self-selected materials on language achievement by Onoda (2012) reveals that the EL group has outperformed the control group who takes only news-clip tasks. Besides, it has been proven that learners' motivation and confidence has increased compared to the condition at the beginning. Ucan (2010) also investigates the effect of EL on sixteen EFL learners. The study reveals that it broadens learners' vocabulary size, increases comprehension of listening, makes them more comfortable when listening and expands general language knowledge.

Likewise, Yeh (2013) asserts that abundant comprehensible aural input via EL exercises at the appropriate level of learners helps them develop listening comprehension. Furthermore, listeners can realize collocations, grammatical structures and so on when they start understanding what they listen to in an EL situation, which later allows them to process information automatically (Waring, 2010). Vo (2013) suggest that EL appropriate to the learners' proficiency levels contributes a lot to intonation, stress and pronunciation knowledge of learners as well as ensuring the learners to continue learning.

Due to the fact that not all the learners learn the same way, it is important to select the method and materials in language teaching and learning considering the individual differences. EL overcomes this difficulty by letting the learners choose their own EL materials. Holden (2008) states that it is more viable for teachers to take individual differences into consideration with EL than with IL when selecting materials. According to Renandya (2011), EL has enormous effects on language learners since it improves learners' ability to cope with speaker's speech rate, improves learners' word recognition ability, expands listening vocabulary, fosters listening fluency and grants learners opportunity to experience a higher level of linguistic comprehension.

**2.1.5. Reading while listening.** The treatment that will be used for the experimental group in the current study comprises of audiobooks provided with subtitles. Therefore, it is necessary to refer to the concept of RwL. The term RwL, as the name itself, suggests is the practice of reading and listening to the same text simultaneously in order to achieve a fluent listening (McMahon, 1983, cited in Woodall, 2010). Application of the technique is generally in the form of recording of a text and simultaneous silent reading of it which enables the learners to identify sound and letter relationship, along with speech rate, rhythm and the genuine stream of language (Chang, 2009).

The gains of RwL, in which verbal and written forms are presented together, are based on the DCT (Paivio, 2007). In this theory, it is demonstrated that two different sources of information work in a distinct but complementary manner which as a result potentially facilitates text comprehension. The benefits of RwL can be presumed on the ground of DCT as written and aural input are simultaneously presented to the learners, an implementation which is used in the native language (L1) literacy development, particularly for reading remedy, enhances comprehension (Beers, 1998).

Another grounded theory that supports the efficiency of RwL is Vygotsky's "Zone of Proximal Development", which suggests that learners, especially younger ones, can learn better from a more proficient peer than they can achieve alone (Vygotsky, 1978). This socio-cultural view suggests that the recorded text might act like a teacher or an experienced peer who assists the learners in achieving a higher language achievement (Woodall, 2010). The social role of a more experienced collaborator or teacher adheres to audio recording material itself in this assumption, even though it barely is a mechanical element.

The studies conducted on the effectiveness of RwL have validated its influence on the language areas ranging from vocabulary acquisition, listening and reading comprehensions, listening and reading fluencies to affective, motivational factors. For example, it is proven that learners who perform RwL sessions at home outperformed the learners who only read in terms of fluency (Blum, Koskinen, Tennant, Parker, Straub & Curry, 1995). Similarly, Chang and Millett (2013) point out that the learners who listen and read to audiobooks at the same time improve their listening fluency. In another study it has been concluded that among the learners who are exposed to three modes of input which are reading only, listening only and RwL, the ones who have taken the treatment in the RwL mode have understood the story better and have learnt far more new vocabulary than listening and reading only groups (Brown, Waring & Donkaewbua, 2008). Likely, RwL is found to be more influential on

incidental vocabulary acquisition than reading or listening only (Webb & Chang, 2012). Moreover, Shany and Biemiller (1995) have found that RwL group scores twice the teacher-led reading group does in listening comprehension measures in their study. Additionally, Chang and Millet (2014) show that RwL strongly aids listening and reading comprehension by helping the learners to make better connections between orthographic and phonological strains along with allowing them gain a better sense of the rhythm of the language. Apart from the comprehension, fluency, which is a term suggested to be different from comprehension process (Woodall, 2010), is related to a higher level of linguistic awareness since fluency requires automatic decoding thanks to which the learners can focus on the meaning of the text or speech rather than sounds or word fragments. Chang's (2009) study proves that RwL technique has a direct positive effect on listening fluency. After comprehension and fluency, the final potential impact of RwL to be mentioned is on affective aspects. According to Renandya and Jacobs (2016) engaging the learners with EL activities helps them develop positive attitudes to language learning. In another study, (Lightbown, 1992) it is also revealed that RwL is a good pedagogical implementation to make the learners, who reported that they enjoyed it a lot, develop positive attitudes towards English language. Similarly, Tragant, Munoz and Spada (2016) report that young learners who joined RwL conferences develop more favoring attitudes towards learning English than teacher instructed listening programs. Finally, RwL is found to be effective best with lower proficiency learners (Mareschal, 2007).

## **2.2. An Overview of Speaking Skill**

Speaking skill is defined by many scholars, most of whom agree on certain aspects of it. Chaney (1998) defines speaking as the operation of the building and conveying meaning using verbal and non-verbal patterns in a variety of contexts. In other words, speaking is forming meaningful utterance by combining sounds in a systematic manner. In the same vein, speaking is defined as a two-way mechanism consisting of the accurate exchange of opinions,

emotions or simply information (Torky, 2006). Therefore, speaking is oral interaction which is the typical way of delivering information, conveying the thoughts and feelings that are thought by many language learners as the most important aspect of language learning and the only indicator of success in learning.

Departing from the definitions available above, the nature of speaking skill can be conceptualized by stating first that it is one of the main skills in communication. Rivers (1983) states that people use speaking twice as much as writing and reading in their typical daily communication, which ranks the highest after listening. Moreover, speaking is considered as the most complex and challenging skill language learning by Nunan (2003, cited in Kayi, 2006). Therefore, speaking, as defined by many scholars previously, can be said to involve expressing ideas, feelings and information exchangeably between two interlocutors.

According to Martinez Flor, Uso-Juan and Soler (2006) an utterance in speaking is demanding in this sense due to the fact that it requires not only being linguistically legitimate but also being pragmatically correct. In other words, an utterance cannot be evaluated by the criterion of being syntactically appropriate alone; contextual requirements must also be considered. Besides, Finnochiaro and Brumfit (1983) emphasize that to be able to utter in the TL, a learner has to be able to use the articulatory organs such as jaw, lips, tongue, etc. effectively. Also, a learner must be aware of the pertinent functional use of language that can variably be shaped according to need and context, as well as the lexical and grammatical features. Another point addressed is that a learner must be able to direct their thoughts in accordance with the flow of communication and what other speaker says. Zhang (2009) argues that speakers have to master speech components as pronunciation, intonation, stress, proper prestige of language as well as non-verbal components some of which are body language, facial expressions, mimics, gestures and their correspondence varieties between

cultures. In short, mastery of speaking a foreign language is heavily demanding and developing competence in it compels practicing a long time (Luoma, 2004).

Along the continuum of shifts in speaking skill's place in language teaching and learning, two important terms which are linguistic competence and communicative competence that explain the rationale of theories' frameworks emerge and they are needed to be referenced in that they are indispensable to understand the reasons behind favoring fluent oral communication recently. Linguistic competence is defined by Chomsky (1965) as a scheme of linguistic knowledge which all of a language's speakers possess. This system is universal for all humans regardless of their race, physical and personal characteristics, social, economical and intellectual status. Furthermore, this universal linguistic knowledge is suggested to be innate, which means it is encoded in every human being's brain; thus, using this "Language Acquisition Device", one produces infinite numbers of sentences owing the finite numbers of structural rules. On the other side, communicative competence is defined by Hymes (1971) as the appropriate use of the grammatical sentences in accordance with the context, hearer, time, and place; in other words, speakers need to use both linguistic competence and communicative competences in a specific situation in which linguistic competence guides what and they say; communicative competence guides when, where and how they say. Canale and Swain (1980) take this definition further by suggesting four explanatory elements of communicative competence which are grammatical competence, strategic competence, discourse competence and sociolinguistic competence. Therefore, it can be proposed that communicative competence incorporates linguistic competence and they have to exist for a higher level of communication performance in that the latter supports the former by providing structural knowledge and the former supports the latter by social, contextual knowledge.

As emphasized in this paper previously, listening comprehension skill is another factor that has a vast effect on speaking skill in that listening comprehension and speaking proficiency are closely related. For instance, Doff (1998) notes that learners are not able to promote their speaking skill if they do not possess sufficient listening ability. Moreover, Bozorgian (2012) has found in a study that listening scores of learners correlate positively with their speaking scores. Furthermore, Shumin (2002) points out that in a speaking lesson, learners who are in the speaker position can exchange information with others only if the others comprehend adequately to reply. The roles in speaking classes as speakers and listeners change the lead continuously; thus, a good speaker necessarily is a good listener, too.

It is highly possible for any English instructor to encounter learners who suffer from difficulty in speaking skill in class and there can be countless of visible or invisible factors that threaten this skill. For instance, Tuan and Mai (2015) suggests that there are such factors as affective ones, listening proficiency, feedback given while speaking activities, performance condition which affect learners' speaking skills. Each speaking task requires different performance conditions such as time constraints, planning, quality demand of performance, the extent of support; these conditions influence the oral performance of learners in speaking (Nation & Newton, 2009, cited in Mohamed, 2018). In a similar vein, Brown (2001) suggests that learners' speaking performance is drawn back due to their fear of being incorrect, foolish and incomprehensible to others. A majority of learners are anxious in the classroom, particularly when they are prompted to speak without preparation (Liu, 2006). This condition of being anxious usually leads learners to be tongue-tied or left speechless (Shumin, 2002). Moreover, high anxiety arises a feeling of failure among learners affecting their speaking ability negatively (Bashir, Azeem & Dogar, 2011). Motivation seems to one of the most significant affective components in which any increase might help overcome the difficulties stemming from nervousness. Besides, progress in learning a language, including speaking

skill begins with the action of taking risks fearlessly (Zhang & Jia, 2006). If learners feel threatened by failure, they tend to avoid talking and stay silent, which means they do not take risks, with the fear of being criticized by others. Hence, instructors must consider promoting motivation in order to improve speaking skill. Taking it more specifically, developing motivation and positive attitudes to a language is important in order to make learners sensitive to pronunciation and accent aspects of language (Merisuo-Storm, 2007).

Another factor that hinders the speaking ability of language learners is linguistic elements such as phonology, grammar, lexical knowledge, semantical knowledge and psychological factors (Mahripah, 2014). Similarly, according to Saunders and O'Brien (2006) correct use of the linguistic form is vital for speaking proficiency. Namely, learners might fail to promote speaking ability due to lack of grammar, vocabulary and phonological knowledge along with shyness and use of mother tongue in speaking classes. Moreover, however it is difficult for learners to apply it in speaking (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011), correct use of grammar, vocabulary repertoire which plays as a role of building bricks of language (Nation, 2001) and correct pronunciation which promotes intelligibility (Goh, 2007) are vital elements of language that contributes a great deal of quality to speaking ability. Due to the well-known fact that English is not a perfect-fit language which means its orthography is different from the way it is pronounced, learners, particularly the one who learn it as a foreign language experience a great deal of difficulty in speaking it. Furthermore, some words that are similar in spelling can even be pronounced differently because of their word class, surrounding context such as tenses and phonemes before or after a certain syllable. Thus, it is usually problematic for learners to discriminate how to articulate words in English. Such incompetence of phonology and syntax might cause undesired results in speaking ability whereas competency in grammar might contribute to speaking fluency of learners (Latha, 2012).

**2.2.1. Importance of speaking skill.** The value of speaking in any language learning is beyond price inasmuch as communicating fluently is the main basis for almost any learner. Language learners mostly attach higher priority to speaking skill naturally because it is the active channel of expressing a message. For instance, Widdowson (1990, cited in Kaddour, 2016) points out that learning the linguistic forms which may help only with comprehending written and spoken languages is not a convenient achievement since it cannot meet the need of interaction with other people in the TL. That is to say, learners wouldn't be urged to explain a syntactic rule outside the classroom, rather they need to express their demands, ideas and exchange information.

The importance of speaking derives from the fact that it is a fundamental tool to affect listeners. In other words, speaking is important for learners both in class and social environment outside which involves the situations of making friends, having something at the restaurant, getting someone to do something, job interviews, etc. It is discovered that people who are good speakers of English in previous educational background are more likely to hold opportunity of finding jobs and getting promotions, as well as of having further education (Baker & Westrup, 2003, p.5) by virtue of the fact that most of the labor and education institutions stipulate condition of having an acceptable level of English.

**2.2.2. Components of speaking skill.** Mastery of any language requires repetition and practice as the proverb suggests "practice makes it perfect". So, repetitive practices constitute the core of learning English in this sense. The complex process of learning how to speak English fluently involves basic proficiency in vocabulary, grammar, fluency and pronunciation (Syakur, 1987); therefore, these key components should be spoken of to reach a better understanding of what speaking is.

Vocabulary is the first component of speaking skill, which is the raw material of speech production, metaphorically. Speaking is more or less about using the power of words

like any other main skill. Hence, lexical memory and richness of words, namely building blocks, are vital for comprehensible and high-quality speaking competence. Both in written and oral performance of learners, words are of usually the most significant facet of production quality since the more vocabulary learners retain, the more easily and more properly they can express themselves and the prevalent principle of being able to understand and conduct discourse in daily life generates the natural outcome that the words must be familiar and simple. As disclosed, words are the bricks of the speaking building, which entails deep and practical knowledge of spelling, pronunciation and meaning of them. In addition, vocabulary is regarded as a set of lexemes containing individual words, chunks, and idioms (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, cited in Kunitake, 2006) which loads learners with an even more burden of interpreting literal and figurative meanings of them. Considering the vocabulary as the incorporation of meaning, words' forms as written and oral may lead confusion, especially among beginner levels. At very first steps of learning, the learners of English are exposed to oral representations of vocabulary. Later, orthographic representations of the words intercede making themselves more valuable than the oral representations when they step forward to expand their proficiency to advanced levels by silent reading, by which they are exposed to written forms of words (Hiebert & Kamil, 2005). This natural transition may cause disorientation among learners in terms of mental vocabulary concepts at the beginning.

The second imperative component of speaking is grammar, which gives learners ideas about how to arrange the vocabulary they have following sets of rules. It can be defined as a systematic approach to predict and understand the interlocutors' language knowledge. Purpura (2004) considers that this can be done by sets of assumptions and rules which formulate well-formed speech in a language. So, grammar can be regarded as sets of rules which let us put the words together to form larger units.

Another fundamental component of speaking is inarguably pronunciation, which allows learners to form decent and clear language in speaking performance. The term pronunciation is defined as the practice and meaningful use of TL's phonological aspects in speaking and interpreting these phonological aspects in discourse (Burgess & Spencer, 2000). It can be assumed that despite learners' limited grammar and vocabulary knowledge, prudent pronunciation and intonation allows them to carry out effective communication. Moreover, Gilbert (2008) argues that pronunciation corresponds to learning and training explicitly English style of making thoughts of the speaker easier to follow rather than practicing lists of sounds and words in isolation. Additionally, Fraser (2001) suggests that pronunciation component of speaking involves all the elements that make the speech fluently comprehensible such as articulation of phonemes, rhythm, stress, intonation as well as body language, gestures, and eye contact.

**2.2.3. Pronunciation.** Pronunciation, as mentioned in the speaking section, is of prime importance when speaking skill and communication are examined in depth. The lexical meaning of pronunciation is “the act or manner of pronouncing something” (Merriam-Webster Dictionary, 2019). Thus, pronunciation can be defined as the production of correct sounds of a language through articulatory organs of the vocal tract (Ogden, 2009) both in isolated words and in larger units concerning the flow of speech. Richard and Schmidt (2002) define pronunciation as a mechanism for producing particular sounds. Additionally, Otlowski (1998) defines pronunciation as the tone of uttering words in an accepted manner. An extension of this definition is that pronunciation is the process of generating sounds by the speakers to produce meaning (Yates & Zielinski, 2009). Furthermore, related aspects of pronunciation involve segmental elements like vowels and consonants; suprasegmental elements like stress, intonation, rhythm and timing (Hişmanoğlu, 2006). Unless all these

aspects of pronunciation appear in harmony together, problems and difficulties in comprehending the utterances of a speaker may arise.

Pronunciation is an important factor that positively contributes to speaking ability (Sihombing, 2014). The hypothesis of Yates and Zielinski (2009) reflects the pronunciation's contribution to intelligibility of a speaker best; they allege that it is still possible to understand learners who have proper pronunciation despite their failure in other operations of language; nonetheless, it is impossible to understand the poor pronunciation of learners even though they utter sentences with perfect grammar and extensive vocabulary. Therefore, poor or unintelligible pronunciation causes confusions, misunderstandings and breakdowns in communication any of which are undesired conditions even though the speaker uses a high level of vocabulary and grammar. Similarly, Fraser (2000) believes that pronunciation is the most important aspect of speaking skill on account of the fact that, without a decent pronunciation, a speaker cannot be understood correctly in spite of a flawless performance and accuracy in vocabulary, grammar, etc. She thinks, among all other aspects of speaking, pronunciation is the most laborious skill to master and continues by arguing that pronunciation has the highest effect on listener's judgment about the speaker and the speaker's competence in other skills. Accordingly, Gelvanovsky (2002) believes that pronunciation contributes to social prominence and value. Moreover, the way a speaker articulates sounds reveals his or her social status and where s/he has come from. In other words, pronunciation gives the listener clues about the speaker's social status, identity, overall language proficiency in addition to letting the listener infer the regional characteristics of the speaker.

Poor or unintelligible pronunciation has adverse consequences on overall language skill since it compels listeners to struggle to figure out what is said and it even may result in communication breakdown or misunderstanding at best. Thus, if a speaker has a decent

pronunciation ability, a listener discerns speaker's overall language ability more efficiently; indeed, a listener is more likely to tolerate grammatical failures as long as the speaker's pronunciation is fine (Pourhosein Gilakjani, 2012). Moreover, good pronunciation contributes greatly to learners' confidence, whereas learners who have a limited and low-quality pronunciation gradually deprive of self-confidence, which affects learners' judgment on their abilities negatively. The term "good pronunciation" here, does not necessarily refer to native-like production of sounds; rather, it must be regarded as listener-friendly and attaining intelligible pronunciation since exact native-like pronunciation is not a reasonable and realistic objective for it might be unreachable for many of the learners (Seidlhofer, 2005).

It can be argued that a decent pronunciation contributes to communication to an immense extent by allowing the listeners to comprehend the utterances easily. The gravity of pronunciation in speaking skill can also be understood well by the statement of Lund (2003, cited in Zhang, 2009) who stresses that we can use simple vocabulary and grammar structures to be understood better; per contra, we cannot use simple pronunciation. That is to say, such aspects of speaking as complex vocabulary and grammatical structures can be simplified in order to increase the degree of comprehensibility, yet it is not possible to do so for pronunciation since the simplification of pronunciation may hamper intelligibility instead of assisting it.

In sum, regarding the evident significance of pronunciation for good communication, Miller (2004) thinks that problems in pronunciation cause breakdowns in conversation and he further advises balancing pronunciation instruction with other language skill instructions in language classrooms. Besides, Isaacs (2009) suggests teaching pronunciation with a focus on form manner without detracting from communication orientation; further, since we have a cumulative empirical evidence scheme of pronunciation features that affect intelligibility or commit to communication breakdowns (Hahn, 2004), those identified features of

pronunciation must be pointed in form-focused instruction and they must be ordered appropriately in a syllabus regarding insight into learnability and teachability issues (Trofimovich, Gatbonton, & Segalowitz, 2007)

**2.2.3.1. Components of pronunciation.** As the worldwide use of English increases, the need of interacting with others and exchanging messages in English on an international scale, regardless that the speakers are native or non-native deepens day by day. Repeating once more, current trends view pronunciation as being intelligible, comprehensible and interpretable rather than being native-like that is regarded as an unrealistic goal (Burns, 2003). Burns further explains intelligibility as the production of sounds in a way that they can be realized as English; comprehensibility as comprehension degree of what the speaker says; and interpretability as the understanding of the speaker's purpose of speaking. Moreover, she points out that there are two fundamental features that the pronunciation is composed of which are segmental and suprasegmental; without a certain accomplishment both in segmental and suprasegmental levels, one cannot recognize or produce sounds in communication properly (Mei, 2006). Segmental and suprasegmental features of pronunciation are explained individually in the next sections since the breadth of the current study covers analysis of pronunciation features for evaluation of pronunciation accuracy of the subjects.

**2.2.3.1.1. Segmental features of pronunciation.** Segmental level, also called as micro-level, refers to the aspects of the sound system which relates to the phonemic level of words such as consonants and vowels individually (Seferoğlu, 2005). Thus, segmental level involves phonemes, which is individual vowels, consonants or combination of them, at the micro-level, for instance, /w/ in 'wall' and /æ/ in 'cat'. These small particles of words can change the meaning when misarticulated as in the examples "lamp-ramp" and "sit-seat" (Burns, 2003). Consonants can be either voiced or unvoiced as in /v/ in "van" and /f/ in "fan" respectively. Vowels are single sounds and they can be short and long as /ɛ/ in "set" and /u:/ in "blue"

respectively. In situations where vowels are combined they constitute diphthongs and triphthongs as /aɪ/ in “white” and /aʊə/ in “power”.

Consonants are defined as the sounds which are produced by narrowing or closing the vocal tract (Crystal, 2008). Yule (2006) demonstrates that most of the consonants are produced by blocking or compressing the airflow at certain points. According to Roach (2000), consonants are distinct from vowels in that free passing of air through larynx to lips is not possible for consonants. This procedure of obstruction through the mouth of a speaker involves modifications and combinations of articulatory organs such as tongue, teeth, lips and palate and consonants are more or less common in all languages, unlike the vowels which vary a lot in different dialects (Radford, Atkinson, Britain, Clahsen & Spencer, 1999).

A vowel is produced without the obstruction of air stream coming from lungs; rather it is produced by narrowing in the pharynx and oral cavity by tongue’s front, center and back in the palate’s front, center and back (Verma & Krishnaswamy, 1989, cited in Alkumet, 2013). The distinguishing factors of vowels stem from the regulatory alterations of resonating chambers like mouth, pharyngeal and nasal cavities by modifying the tone. Therefore, it can be said that vowels are produced by the adjustment of tongue, lips and soft palate. Vowels are necessarily louder and clearer than consonants due to the fact that the airstream is pushed out through vocal cavities with no closure unlike the consonants and they can be perpetuated thanks to their continuant nature. This characteristic of vowels attributes them the quality of bearing splendid information about prosodic features, emotional signals and speaker’s identity (Werker, 1993).

In addition to the aforementioned points related to the vowels, there are categorical distinctions between them due to their idiosyncratic structures (Ramamurthi, 1998, cited in Alkumet, 2013). In this respect, vowels can be divided into three categories in terms of being solitary or compound. A monophthong, also called as a pure vowel, remains constant and

stable as long as the airstream is available since the articulation organs stay in the starting position however long they are wished as in /ɪ/, /i:/, /ɛ/, /ɜ/, /ʌ/, /ɑ:/, /ʊ/, /u:/, /ɔ/, /ɔ:/, /æ/, /ə/ sounds. A diphthong, also called as a vowel glide, is the speech sound that starts as a pure vowel but moves to another vowel later. Therefore, diphthongs are the intentional glides from the starting vowel to another within the same syllable using the same batch of breath since a pause between the initial and glided vowels results in hearing two discrete pure vowels. Moreover, diphthongs can be fronting like /eɪ/, /ɔɪ/ or retracting like /aʊ/, /əʊ/ in terms of the ending vowel's position.

In addition to diphthongs, triphthongs are another combination of pure vowels, and as it can be anticipated, they are the most complex vowels in English. It basically includes an additional finishing vowel in addition to a diphthong cluster. Roach, (2000) states that a diphthong is a glide to a vowel which is different from the starting one, then gliding again to another vowel without suspension. Besides, they are difficult to discriminate in speech and not common in English.

As opposed to the detailed descriptions above, O'Connor (1980, cited in Alkumet, 2013) argues that a detailed description of movement and posture of tongue in articulating specific vowels do not help one to pronounce precisely since the modification of the tongue might be too slight and impossible to feel or observe although patterns produced are distinguishable. Therefore, this suggestion can be interpreted as knowing the theoretical representations of sounds may not help learners to master pronunciation since they do not contribute practically to the development of pronunciation.

*2.2.3.1.2. Suprasegmental features of pronunciation.* Pennington and Richards (1986) view suprasegmental features of pronunciation as stress and intonation of syllables, words, phrases and sentences. Scilicet, suprasegmental characteristics of pronunciation, which play an essential role in English language prosody since English is a stress and syllable-timed

language, are related to macro-level of pronunciation. Burns (2003) emphasizes that stress, intonation and linking are the major units of suprasegmental features of pronunciation.

On account of the fact that a word is an extended series of the unrestrained number of sounds rather than a party of separate sounds, stress is defined as “relatively louder emphasis on a syllable or word” (Verma & Krishnaswamy, 1989, p.41). Therefore, word stress is the pronunciation component that is related to the emphasis put on a particular sound in a syllable as well as on a particular word in a sentence. So, stress is a suprasegmental feature that relates to the notion of highlighting a fraction within a syllable of a word or a word of a sentence by putting a stronger emphasis on it when articulated in comparison to other syllables or words and stress is transcribed as /' / in International Phonetic Alphabet. A further explanation suggests that production of stressed syllables requires more muscular energy (Roach, 2000; Crystal, 2008). The effort spent is drawn from more air, which is pushed out of the lungs. Thus, the effort that is spent slightly more than articulating non-stressed syllables results in the emergence of the word stress; consequently, stressed syllables consistently appear to be louder, longer, clearer and higher-pitched (Fasold, 2006, cited in Alkumet, 2013). Finally, it can be argued that pitch, length and loudness can be counted as the features that create the eminence on the stressed element; however, pitch stands out significantly in terms of recognition of stress whereas the others are usually subtle.

According to Kenworthy (1987, cited in Pourhosein Gilakjani, 2012), foreign language speakers are mostly incomprehensible to the native speakers due to nothing else but the false usage of the stress within words. Henceforth, along with the accurate pronunciation which refers to the high-quality in segmental level, stress is also a crucial element that belongs to suprasegmental in production and comprehension levels of utterances.

Intonation in pronunciation refers to the variations in the tone of the voice (Kelly, 2000). Similarly, (Wong, 1987) defines it as the results of changes in pitch of voice. In other

words, intonation is the adjustment of the voice frequency (i.e., bass or high pitch) when producing speech. There are two types of intonations addressed in the linguistics literature, which are falling and rising intonations. Falling intonation is more common in English than the rising intonation; it functions as a message encrypting device in situations like statements, special questions, exclamations, imperative utterances. Rising intonation, on the other hand, is a quite complex phenomenon. It is used for expressing a diverse range of hints such as moods of the question, surprise, hesitation, interest, suggestion, request, readiness, politeness, insecurity, etc. Thus, the rising intonation phenomenon can be said to be bound to circumstances (Laszlo, 2014).

Linking characteristic of pronunciation refers to joining the last sound of a word to the first sound of the word coming after it to sustain connected speech. For instance, /gri:n/ and /aɪz/ are pronounced as a whole /gri:naɪz/. With relation to linking, assimilation can occur when joining two neighboring sounds; for instance, when /dɪd/ and /jə/ are linked in speech, two words drop down into one composition of sounds and pronounced as /dɪdʒə/.

**2.2.3.2. Factors that affect pronunciation.** The ultimate purpose of learning a language is to communicate effectively by understanding and speaking the TL accurately which in turn obliges the teachers and learners in the instruction environment to focus extensively on listening and intelligible pronunciation skills; as Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011) suggests, speaking is the primary channel in language coming far prior to written form. There always lays the possibility that one encounters learners who suffer from problems concerning TL pronunciation due not to lack of knowledge about the language structures but to unfamiliarity with the sound system that sounds bizarre to them (Rivers, 1986). The factors related to roots of these problems, which are empirically proven except the individual aptitude or endowment in discriminating sounds can be briefly summarized as: 1)

native language interference, 2) age factor, 3) personality, attitude and motivation, 4) phonetic instruction and 5) amount of exposure.

In an ESL environment, exposure to the TL which the learners have to use in their daily life is not a problem. However, if the context of learning is EFL like the case of Turkey, they lack interaction opportunity and the only input they get might be the formal instruction in the classroom. Moreover, even the exposure in the classroom is at risk due to the fact that English teachers at state schools use their mother tongue in nearly half of the instruction time (İnan, 2016) and a great majority of the English teachers consider that allowing the students to use their mother tongue is beneficial during the English classes (Solhi & Büyükyazı, 2011). Thus, focused IL practices and teacher talk may not be sufficient for acquiring accurate and intelligible pronunciation. Thus, although it is not the one and only necessity, exposure is a substantially contributory factor for mastering pronunciation (Kenworthy, 1987). Moreover, the very rare opportunity of face-to-face contact with native speakers of English in EFL context, learners are destitute of non-linguistic elements such as gestures, facial expressions, and body language even if they somehow find a way to practice segmental and suprasegmental features of the TL. Therefore, the power of appropriate utilization of non-verbal components such as body language must not be undervalued since it constitutes nearly half of the communication matters, followed by voice and tone (Mehrabian, 1971).

### **2.3. An Overview of Anxiety in Language Teaching**

Anxiety is a ubiquitous emotion and it is a feeling of apprehension in obscure events or insecurity. Hilgard, Atkinson and Atkinson (1971, cited in Scovel, 1991) define anxiety as a psychological strain which involves apprehension and a nebulous fear related to an object. However, there is a discrepancy among researchers so as to the exact definition of anxiety. For instance May (1977, cited in Bekleyen 2011) argues that anxiety is a reaction to a threat to values of individuals which are perceived as essential for their survival as personalities;

Spielberger, (1983, cited in Horwitz et al., 1986) argues that it is an idiosyncratic experience of tension, apprehension, worry and nervousness with physical reaction of autonomic nerve system. Moreover, Horwitz (2001) notes that anxiety, a widespread problem among learners which affects language learning negatively, is revealed to be explored by heaps of studies by many scholars. In short, a broad definition can be given for anxiety by summing the key points proposed by the literature that it is a subjective feeling that usually contains a state of trepidation, fear, uneasiness, worry and tension against an object or situation even with no reason. According to Vasa and Pine (2004), the structure of anxiety is explained by three main dimensions: behavioral, physiological and cognitive. Behavioral dimension of anxiety refers to impatience, irritability and avoidance from threatening situations (Kennerly, 1990); psychological dimension involves observable somatic or physiological indicators of an anxious person such as emotiveness, restlessness, heart poundings, jitteriness, aches in muscles, mouth dries, clammy hands, vertigoes (Piechurska-Kuciel, 2008); and cognitive dimension is related to how a person approaches or processes the threatening stimuli, information or situation and to when a person judges an event as threatening and oneself as not capable of dealing with it (Pekrun, 1992). Likely, Kayaoğlu and Sağlamel (2013) draw a categorical manifestation of language anxiety symptoms including physical, linguistic, behavioral and cognitive natures. In addition to Piechurska-Kuciel, such symptoms as revulsion, trembling, weak knees, sweating, dry mouth, shaking hands and voice cracks are reported to be related to the physiological symptoms which are associated with anxiety by Boyce, Albert-Morgan and Riley (2007). Therefore, anxiety in question is observable not only behaviorally and cognitively but also physically.

In order to construct a better conceptualization for the current study, types of anxiety must be presented as well. There are three types of anxiety are agreed on by the researchers in language teaching literature. The first is trait anxiety, which is related to a stable, permanent,

mostly unchangeable personal state of being prone to be anxious regardless of time and place (Phillips, 1992). The second is state anxiety, which is defined as a temporary, transitory and fluctuant feeling arising in particular conditions or situations that decreases or even perishes over time (Young, 1991). The third and final type of anxiety is situation-specific anxiety which resembles to trait anxiety. Yet, situation-specific anxiety emerges solely in a specific situation without applying for all situations (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991), unlike the state anxiety. For instance, a learner may get nervous only in speaking activities despite feeling comfortable when dealing with other language skills in class. Horwitz et al. (1986) consider that Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety (FLCA) matches perfectly to the nature of situation-specific anxiety. Moreover, there are reported to be two categories of anxiety types on the condition of facilitating or debilitating learning process. According to researchers, facilitating anxiety keeps learners motivated and striving to perform well and overcome the anxiety; however, debilitating anxiety is excessive in amount and results in poor language achievement (MacIntyre, 1995; Trang, Moni & Baldauf, 2013).

FLA refers to the type of anxiety specifically related to language learning axiomatically in the classroom environment. According to Horwitz et al., (1986) FLA is a peculiar sequence of beliefs, self-perceptions, behaviors and feelings that appear in the classroom where an exclusive process of language learning is carried out. Furthermore, they report that speaking in front of others in the TL is the most threatening requirement in language learner; this fact poses problems in language teaching practices where the contemporary views of language teaching underline communication primarily. Likewise, Young (1990) and Phillips (1992) propose that speaking is the most anxiety-raising skill of all the main skills. There is a satisfactory body of research on the topic of anxiety related to foreign language learning and teaching in the literature whose scopes vary in related areas. To illustrate, such subject matters as anxiety levels (Hu & Wang, 2014; Er, 2015), the effect of

anxiety on learners and its sources (Kitano, 2001; Gürsoy & Akın, 2013), anxiety and language achievement (Şener, 2015), anxiety and oral performance (Toth, 2012), anxiety and self-efficacy (Güngör & Yaylı, 2012), anxiety and emotional intelligence (Rouhani, 2008), anxiety and learner autonomy development (Savaşkan, 2017) and so on have been investigated. However, studies on anxiety concerning specific language skills are not exorbitant both in international and national scales (Duman, Göral & Bilgin, 2017). Such skill-specific anxiety types as reading anxiety (Huang, 2012), English teachers' speaking anxiety (Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002), foreign language listening anxiety (Melanlioğlu, 2013) and writing anxiety (Atay & Kurt, 2006) have been investigated by researchers.

**2.3.1. Foreign language listening anxiety.** FLLA can be seen as a situation-specific anxiety related uniquely to the anxiety in a listening situation. However a large body of research mainly focuses on speaking (Cheng, Horwitz & Schalert, 1999), writing (Cheng, 2002), and even reading (Sellers, 2000), the studies on the FLLA are limited (Ko, 2010). This oversight on FLLA, particularly in EFL situations, could be due to the fact that EFL instructors tend to appreciate other receptive and productive skills more than listening skill.

FLLA, also referred to as receiver's apprehension, is a type of skill-specific anxiety which is related to learners' fear and nervousness in a foreign language learning process where they are expected to comprehend what they listen to. Likely, it is defined as the fear of misinterpreting or failing psychological accommodation to the speaker's messages (Wheless, 1975). Over a decade later, Preiss, Wheless and Allen (1990, cited in Kim, 2000) review the affective variances of anxiety as listening effectiveness, processing anxiety, information processing efficiency, cognitive complexity and education level; however, the affective variances of anxiety concept is studied in the L1 acquisition context. When it comes to foreign language acquisition, anxiety has a more prominent place since the ability of encoding and decoding simultaneously in the TL cannot be reached for a long time especially at the

beginning. Meyer (1984, p.343) terms this case as task overload; listening occurs essentially fast in real-time and learners usually have little or no control over it; the process is slowed more unless it is communicative or productive; learners fall further and further behind the speaker failing to catch speaker's utterances. Meyer further describes task overload as "beat the clock" strategy, which ultimately frustrates learners and leads to failure.

Nord (1978), who instinctively pointed out to the presence of anxiety in listening comprehension situations, was among the first scholars who anticipated so. In the same vein, Horwitz et al. (1986) note that listening can be anxiety-provoking as well as other language skills and testing. Likely, Kim (2000) suggests that anxiety impedes listening comprehension in English. Similarly, Zhou (2003) states that FLLA correlates negatively with listening comprehension and the utilization of effective listening strategies. Moreover, it is found that listening comprehension is hampered if learners have the apprehension of failure to comprehend or they are urged to respond (Nagle & Sanders, 1986). Similarly, Eastman (1991) reveals that the learners who remain concentrated during listening comprehension perform better than those who are anxious or stressed.

As for the potential sources of FLLA, studies reveal various relevant elements. For example, Scarcella and Oxford (1992) state that unfamiliar or difficult tasks pose anxiety for learners; Gönen (2009) suggests that such factors as text characteristics, lack of clarity lack of visual aid and nature of speech affect FLLA among learners. Xu (2011) reveals that an approach which orients teacher to the center might increase anxiety among learners. Moreover, Kim (2000) shows that factors related to the characteristic of text, personal characteristics and process-related features. Similarly, Vogely (1998) categorizes the anxiety sources in a study as characteristics of input, characteristics of processing, instructional variances and attributes of learners or teachers. Goh (2008) also states that positive comments from teacher promote self-confidence of learners as well as lowering FLLA. Additionally,

Zhou (2003) points out the source of FLLA as learners' insufficient knowledge of strategy use.

Scholars explain a whole range of solutions to high FLLA. Sevik (2012) suggests preparing a physically comfortable listening environment, utilizing superior quality listening materials and using enjoyable activities, including songs and games in order to accommodate FLLA. Arnold (2000) suggests that visualization practice helps learners to reduce their FLLA. Furthermore, Oxford (1993) emphasizes that creating a friendly and threat-free atmosphere in the classroom makes the learners feel more secure, which in turn reduces the anxiety that interferes with learners' comprehension.

**2.3.2. Foreign language pronunciation anxiety.** As recited many times before, speaking anxiety is a common problem in language classes since speaking takes place in real-time and mostly unrehearsed (Ay, 2010). Moreover, Öztürk and Gürbüz (2014) that pronunciation sub-skill ranks the highest factor in speaking anxiety among learners. According to Woodrow (2006), giving presentations in front of other class members is the most anxiety-provoking situation for learners. Some studies conducted on the issue reveal that learners feel anxious when they are asked to fulfill an oral task (Zheng, 2008) and high anxiety decreases the self-confidence of learners (Park & Lee, 2005). Moreover, Aydın (2008) points out that if the learners have communication apprehension, even the talkative ones remain silent in listening and speaking activities.

Speaking anxiety stems from several factors related to the nature of speech production circumstances and researchers practically agree on most of these factors. To illustrate, Young (1991) identifies six sources of anxiety which are observed in speaking tasks that are personal and interpersonal relationships, student and teacher interaction, teachers' belief about language learning, students belief about language learning, testing and classroom activities. Likely, Lui (2006) suggests that learners experience anxiety in speaking classes due to the

factors as lack of practice, limited lexical repertoire, lack of proficiency in speaking, making mistakes, etc. Awan, Azher, Anwar and Naz (2010) also endorse the sources of speech anxiety that are specified as speaking in front of the other students in the first place, followed by making grammatical errors, the pronunciation of words and impotence to express oneself. Subaşı (2010) investigates the sources of speech anxiety in Turkish EFL context and reveals that role of negative evaluation and learners' self-perception of speaking skill triggers speech anxiety.

The conceptualization of FLPA, an exclusive compound of skill-specific anxiety of speaking skill, is not shaped thoroughly since it has been realized only recently that it has its roots in depths of causing communication apprehension. The only comprehensive definition of FLPA is proposed by Baran-Lucarz (2014, p.453) as:

“FLPA is a multidimensional construct referring to the feeling of apprehension experienced by non-native speakers in oral-communicative situations, due to negative or low pronunciation self-perception and to beliefs and fears related to pronunciation. Its occurrence is evidenced by the typical cognitive, physiologic or somatic, and behavioral symptoms of anxiety”

The studies concerning FLPA are rather scarce. In fact, Baran-Lucarz (2013, 2014), Kralova, Skorvagova, Tirpakova and Markechova (2017) and Yağız (2018) who studied the reliability and validity of Turkish version of MPA-FLC stand out with their substantial contribution to the establishment of FLPA framework as a skill-specific type of affective condition. Baran-Lucarz developed MPA-FLC and has sought for relations of FLPA with the willingness to communicate in a foreign language and reported the possible sources of FLPA as beliefs about the foreign language pronunciation learning and fear of negative evaluation. Kralova et al. investigated the efficiency of psycho-social training on reducing the FLPA and developed FLPA (FLPA) inventory for use in their research.

Studies conducted on FLPA in Turkey are quite limited as well that they can literally be counted with the fingers of one hand. Coşkun (2011), who investigates the attitudes of pre-service English teachers to pronunciation points out that having native-like and intelligible pronunciation, targeting to help students acquire native-like pronunciation and being of the opinion that teaching pronunciation is imperative were among their preferences. In another study in which the participants are pre-service teachers, Kafes (2018) demonstrate that they bear a moderate level of FLPA. However, pre-service teachers of higher proficiency levels show higher FLPA unlike the lower proficiency pre-service teachers and the reason for the finding was hypothesized by the researcher as when pre-service teachers progress to more advanced levels of proficiency, their awareness and concern of having proper pronunciation increase. Eventually, it increases their FLPA probably since they supposedly seek for perfection. Yağız (2018) conducts a study to adapt Baran-Lucarz's (2014) MPA-FLC into Turkish context and reveals that the Turkish version of MPA-FLC inventory's model fit indices, internal consistency and validity of the scale as well as confirmatory factor analysis results are satisfactory and it could be used by the researchers who are interested in FLPA in foreign language learning classrooms.

#### **2.4. An Overview of Audiobooks in Language Teaching**

One of the most remarkable factors that expedite the language teaching process is the instructor's selection of methodology in and outside the classroom (Ahmadi, 2017). Therefore, instructors play a mediating role in the implementation of activities along the learning process by having convenient access to computers, a substantial element of today's technology, and these devices are regarded as valuable instructional instruments (Becker, 2000). In other words, technology provides unlimited sources for language learners (Bull & Ma, 2001) and instructors should advocate their learners to discover activities through technological devices such as computers to improve their language learning (Harmer, 2007;

Genç İltter, 2015). Similarly, Tomlinson (2009) suggests that online materials create motivation for a learner to continue learning more. Additionally, Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011) are of the opinion that vast teaching materials are presented through technology and learning experience is brought to learners' own world through them. Thus, it can be asserted that technology is an inseparable part not only of our daily lives but also of the teaching and learning practices (Ahmadi, 2018). Technology takes its place in the teaching curriculum as being integrated to it and this blending is an important notion for instructors at every stage of preparation and teaching processes (Eady & Lockyer, 2013).

Due to the fact that Generation Z, a term which corresponds to the individuals who were born between 1995 and 2010, are true digital natives and they are exposed to social networks intensively, internet and mobile systems from very early ages (Francis & Hoefel, 2018). Therefore, those relatively younger members of today's society part in the educational institutions where they learn second or foreign languages as the current century's requirement and it should be borne in mind that Generation Z individuals can be labeled as screen-oriented. The fact that Generation Z individuals are the audience of today's language instructors, the integration of technology to teaching conditions is vital.

Technology has the potential to alter any methodology in the application (Pourhosein Gilakjani, 2014). Although today's learners have born into the technological world, they still may not be able to use it skillfully (Bennett, Maton & Kervin, 2008); learners call for meaningful development of technology knowledge to be able to amplify their learning (OECD, 2010). According to Golonka, Bowles, Frank, Richardson and Freynik (2014), technology and pedagogy interaction explored by many researchers can be reviewed by stating that improvements in technology might urge the instructors to change or to adjust their teaching strategies and activities to utilize the sources at maximum effectiveness and the innovations in technology might also multiply learners' motivation and interest.

Utilization of such technological tools as podcasts, social networks, chat applications, blogs, movie clips, dialogue excerpts, audio stories, etc. essentially means working with authentic materials. Authentic materials are the samples produced to fulfill social purposes within the language community and they are not categorically designed for teaching purposes; they can be in the spoken or written forms (Gardner & Miller, 1999). In other words, authentic materials comprise conventionally natural language used by native or competent speakers of a language. Tomlinson (1998) claims that a textbook, a cassette, a handout, a newspaper, a CD-ROM, a video or even a paragraph written on board that involves original representatives of language use can be counted as authentic material. There are criteria suggested for selecting the authentic materials in furtherance of their effectiveness, such as authenticity, accessibility, appropriateness, applicability, adaptability (Segni, 2009). As for the types of mainly used authentic materials which are proven to be effective, one may find songs (Yüksel, 2016), videos (Chan & Herrero, 2010), radio and podcasts (Gündüz, 2006), movies (Mishan, 2005), audiobooks and audio stories (Serafini, 2004) throughout the literature. Audiobooks must particularly be elaborated since the treatment used in the current study is subtitled audiobooks.

Audiobooks also referred to as “talking books”, was introduced by the American government around the 1930s to help blind people read under the name of “Books for the Adult Blind Project”. The name “audiobook” was coined in 1970s with the emergence of audiocassettes (Rubery, 2011). Audiobooks have gone through several changes in content and platform for playing; the very first recorded spoken texts were literary works such as Shakespeare’s sonnets. Later, many companies were established to make a profit from recording and selling poems, short texts and plays. This era was followed by the introduction of audiocassettes, which has been replaced by CDs and the spread of the internet, letting individuals download any content anywhere at any time (Rubery, 2011). Baskin and Harris

(1995) state that first literature was heard but not read; this notion is adopted by the digital narrative innovation, audiobooks, which are full of opportunities with the narrated literature ingredients.

In spite of its initial commercial and entertainment purposes, the use of audiobooks has far gone beyond them. For instance, they are considered as powerful literacy tools and as fructuous sources of input in foreign language learning course (Serafini, 2004) and they are used as authentic materials at all proficiency levels (Wolfson, 2008). Hett (2012) state that audiobooks are useful tools for enhancing literacy among learners; Stone-Harris (2008) suggest that listening to audiobooks improve reading comprehension of struggling readers and kids. O'Day (2002) suggests that using audiobooks in language teaching classrooms improves learners' word recognition and vocabulary acquisition as well as serving as an imitation model for fluent reading. Moreover, Serafini (2004) who explores the benefits of audiobooks in language teaching states that using audiobooks provides the opportunity to read fluently, to focus on content instead of structure, to be exposed to new vocabulary and to engage with literature making the learning process enjoyable. The studies that probe the effectiveness of audiobooks center upon their positive impact on reading and listening skills (Blum et al., 1995; Türker, 2010; Whittingham, Huffman, Christensen, & McAllister, 2013). Additionally, some studies discover the contribution of audiobooks to the pronunciation of words at segmental and suprasegmental levels (Takan, 2014; Couper, 2003; Saka, 2015). Besides, audiobooks might help to overcome the fossilization problem since the narrators are native speakers and learners have the opportunity to imitate and rehearse the recording however long and intense they wish; there is evidence that utilization of audiobooks enhances EFL learners' pronunciation quality (Tagninezhad, Khalifah, Nabizadeh & Shahab, 2015; Saka, 2015).

**2.4.1. Audiobooks and Listening Skill.** Developing an adequate listening skill background is not an easy task both in EFL and ESL contexts. According to Rost (2006), the

main factor that yields difficulty in listening skill development is insufficient oral exposure to the TL. Likewise, Turkish EFL learners also suffer from lack of exposure problem mainly due to the fact that high stake assessments applied for the entrance of higher education settings are deprived of listening, speaking and writing skills evaluation; rather the tests involve barely reading comprehension, grammar and vocabulary knowledge. Therefore, students have problems in these skill areas when they start the next education levels. According to Sert (2010), learners have difficulty in coping with listening, speaking and writing classes when they start ELT programs at university. Similarly, Ulum (2015) reveals in his study that a great majority of the university students reports that they did not have the opportunity to practice the listening skill in the classroom.

Considering the points above, exposure to the TL in language teaching and learning process is vital. Wilson (2008) suggests that a good listening material must feature entertainment, interest, cultural accessibility, density, appropriate language level, good recording quality, a balanced number of speakers, appropriate speech rate, clear and various accents and cultural accessibility which are readily present in audiobooks. Doff (1998) thinks that the materials recorded by native speakers, like audiobooks, act like vehicles that bring the native speakers into the classroom. Hence, these materials serve as a comprehensible input alternative especially to non-native teachers in EFL context. Rubery (2008) believes that listening to audiobooks is more feasible than merely reading aloud since listening to audiobooks is not restricted in time and space. In other words, reading aloud necessitates face-to-face encounter nonetheless audiobooks are accessible to anyone and at anywhere via computers, multimedia players, cassettes, CDs, smartphones, etc. Another advantage of listening to audiobooks, which is reported by Wolfson (2008), is that they are recorded by professional narrators, actors or actresses and even by the authors of the texts. Furthermore, if the recorded text is accompanied by the written text, learners have the opportunity to

substitute the visual understanding of orthographic representations with the auditory correspondents. Moreover, audiobooks mostly consist of literary works in the form of stories ranging from the very own culture of learners to foreign ones. Therefore, they give information about the target culture and contribute to cultural awareness among learners (Loukia, 2006). Also, according to Verdugo and Belmonte (2007), audio stories present linguistic forms in the context of the narrative and daily life realms, which supports the comprehension of TL.

The research conducted on the effectiveness of listening to audiobooks in the language learning process on listening comprehension shows that it contributes to listening skill among language learners. Mohamed (2018) proves that audiobooks are beneficial materials to foster listening comprehension. Additionally, According to Grover and Hannegan (2005), Kartal and Şimşek (2017) and O'Day (2002) who inspect the effects of audiobooks on listening skill reveal that they are helpful for learners' listening and reading comprehension. Similarly, Talalakina (2010) points out that listening to audiobooks contributes to overall listening proficiency in the academic setting.

In sum, the literature suggests that listening to audiobooks is an effective way to improve listening comprehension ability in the TL.

**2.4.2. Audiobooks and Pronunciation Skill.** In spite of the fact that audiobooks are valuable materials for teaching and learning language learning, the perlocutionary relations with main language skills, peculiarly pronunciation competence, are not sufficiently investigated by the researchers of the field.

Rogerson-Revell (2011) views exposure to TL as an important factor contributing to learning pronunciation; exposure, which potentially improves the acquisition of TL's sound system, might be communication with a native interlocutor in ESL situations or it might be in the form of recorded texts in EFL situations. Couper (2003) and Peterson (2000) are among

the researchers who investigate the relationship between pronunciation and listening comprehension and they investigate the effects of listening to recorded texts on pronunciation quality. They reveal that simultaneous listening and reading to the same text boost learners' pronunciation awareness of the TL.

Despite the fact that pronunciation is an inseparable component of communication at the recognition and production levels, namely listening and speaking respectively (Celce-Murcia, 1987), the number of studies conducted to seek for the relationship between exposure to extensive recorded texts and pronunciation quality is very limited at the international scale as well as in Turkey. Taghinezhad, Khalifah, Nabizadeh and Shabab (2015) explore the impact of listening to audiobooks on recognition and production of English language sounds and they conclude that the learners who take the audiobook treatment improve in terms of sound recognition. However, sound production ability of the learners does not show any progress. Moreover, Çakır (2012) investigates the effect of EL technique on the development and correction of pronunciation among learners and proves that listening to selected audio materials in the form of stories enhances learners' pronunciation of the words that are previously problematic for them. In another study conducted in Turkey, Saka (2015) who explores the effect of listening to audiobooks on university-level learners' sound recognition and production abilities reveals that implementation of audiobooks enhances pre-intermediate learners' pronunciation recognition and production skills. Additionally, she notes that learners have positive attitudes towards the use of audiobooks for developing English language pronunciation. Similarly, Takan (2014) researches the effect of spoken reading exercises adapted from the students' course book on pronunciation skill of high school EFL learners reveals that after listening to audio forms of the usual reading exercises, participants produce more accurate pronunciation.

**2.4.3. Audiobooks in Balancing Anxiety.** However audiobooks' effects on listening comprehension and pronunciation skill have been investigated many times so far, their effects on anxiety are not inquired sufficiently. That is to say, there are only two works (Chang, 2010; Ranto Rozak et al., 2019) that investigate the indirect effect of extensive listening on FLLA; and there is limited research that inquires the effect of listening to audiobooks on FLPA, to the best knowledge of the researcher.

Aktuğ (2015) emphasizes that language teaching is limited to forty minutes of formal instruction in the classroom, which is not sufficient to learn a language. In other words, in an EFL environment, learners have to deal with the language more outside the classroom to be exposed to TL. The importance of exposure to the TL outside of the classroom in the language learning process is pointed out by Krashen (1988) who agrees to the probability of informal exposure would aid learning but raises the concern that learners should involve directly in listening and speaking activity incidents in order to maximize the benefits of exposure. For instance, Berber (1997) notes that exposure to the TL via TV news helps learners to alleviate difficulties encountered by the learners and it facilitates learning. These outside the classroom materials, situations or tools might also be the internet, music, radio, face to face interaction with native speakers, movies, books, magazines, newspapers or audio versions of these, etc. (Lindgren & Munoz, 2013; Pearson, 2003). In addition to language achievement, Kunt (1997) concludes in a study that learners who are exposed to TL more often show lower anxiety when they use the language. Likely, Kim (2005) argues that FLLA negatively correlates with the amount of TL exposure among language learners.

Moreover, learners are usually exposed to non-authentic materials in the classroom environment which are comprehension focused rather than being meaning-focused (Ranto Ranto Rozak et al., 2019); comprehension focused materials create demotivation among learners (Tuanany & Bharati, 2017). According to Nation (2007), the ultimate quality of the

listening exposure is affected by the meaning-focused input, especially in EFL listening instruction. Extensive listening to such types of aural materials which also appeal to learners' interests and levels not only in classroom boundaries but also outside might serve as a contributory activity. Likely, assuming that FLLA might be adjusted under the condition that listening comprehension is improved Chang (2010) recruited college students and the study revealed that although the participants' listening comprehension advanced, meantime their FLLA increased too.

There is a gap in the literature concerning FLPA. This gap is filled by a limited number of scholars such as Baran-Lucarz (2014), Kralova et al. (2017) and Kafes (2018). The gap is even deeper when EL, RwL and audiobooks are concerned since the effects of listening to audiobooks on FLPA has not taken much attention so far to the best knowledge of the researcher. Therefore, the current study is one of the early insights, whether listening to audiobooks with the RwL mode decreases FLPA or not.

## Chapter 3

### Methodology

#### 3.1. Introduction

This section introduces the methodological conceptualization of the current study as well as the research structure chosen for it. Besides, the context and the participants of the study are presented in detail. Then, the instruments and materials used for data collection and the procedures followed while collecting data are presented.

#### 3.2. Research Design

According to Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998), combining or integrating the components of quantitative and qualitative methods ensures the strength of a study. Thus, the mixed-method design was chosen for the current study due to the fact that it offers more comprehensive means of approving findings compared to quantitative and qualitative methods can do alone (Creswell, 2003) in that researchers can use both types of data to validate one another. Moreover, triangulation contributes to the internal and external validity of measurements on behalf of generalizability by utilizing multiple methods (Dornyei, 2007). Besides, qualitative data in a mixed-method serve as an efficient way to reduce the possibility of systematic bias which offers evidence for strong validity in the cases which they lead to the same results with the quantitative data.

The objectives of the current study, which is to investigate the effects of listening to audiobooks centrally, necessitates the quasi-experimental research design in which the target variable is manipulated consciously while the other variables are kept constant (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). A quasi-experimental design is an effective procedure to obtain inferences from the effects of a specific treatment (Shadish, Cook & Campbell, 2002). Additionally, Dornyei (2007) recommends that quasi-experimental designs must include a control group to exclude possible changes in external variables.

Moreover, the data collected for the study includes more than two variables, which ultimately allows the researcher to expand the scope of the research objectives. Therefore, any finding will be presented by using the appropriate method as long as the data are consistent.

### **3.3. Research Setting**

This study was conducted in the 2018-2019 academic year spring semester at the state high school Konuralp Anatolian High School, in Akyazı district of Sakarya, Turkey, where the students take obligatory English classes 4 hours per week at 9<sup>th</sup>, 10<sup>th</sup>, 11<sup>th</sup> and 12<sup>th</sup> grades. The students enrolled at the school with their TEOG points except for the current 9<sup>th</sup> graders. The curriculum used by the school is designed under the pedagogical and descriptive principles of The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), and the classroom practices and materials like course books and multimedia support used are determined by MoNE. The curriculum adopts the principles of CLT as the approach in the center and promotes communicative competence of students by suggesting the integration of technology and authentic materials with the classroom applications.

### **3.4. Participants**

According to Dornyei (2007), although it is the least desirable one, convenience sampling is the most widely used sampling strategy at the post-graduate level of research. In convenient sampling strategy, researchers use those who are available to them since it is time, cost and effort effective yet at the expense of credibility (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Moreover, Teddlie and Yu (2007) suggest that convenience sampling involves picking participants who are easily accessible and willing to participate. So, convenient sampling strategy was used in the selection of participants. Moreover, considering the quasi-experimental nature of the study is open to the threat of non-equivalent external conditions for both experimental and control groups, the participants of the research were selected among

the same instructor's classes in order to minimize the changes in fixed variables such as instructional and environmental conditions within the formal English course progress.

The participants of the study were the students of Konuralp Anatolian High School; 111 students, who are at the elementary level volunteered to participate in the study; 2 participants from the experimental group declared not having listened to audiobooks during the treatment process, thus they were excluded from the participant list. Therefore, the final number of participants was 109. The number of participants was sufficient for multivariate analysis procedures for both quantitative and experimental data considering that scholars are in consensus that using 30 participants for correlational analysis, 15 participants in each of the experimental and control groups in quasi-experimental designs and 100 participants for multivariate procedures yield valid results Dornyei (2007). Despite the fact that the students participated in the study voluntarily, selecting the eager participants only might have harmed the generalizability and validity of the results (Brown, 2004) since they might were motivated to improve their language skills already, unlike the reluctant ones. Therefore, the assignation of participants to experimental and control groups was made as randomly as possible, excluding the ones who announced not to participate due to technical or personal issues beforehand. Moreover, a safe margin was left to compensate for any unforeseen circumstances like drop out or disqualified data the participants produce by keeping the number of participants as high as possible at the initial stage of the study. The demographic information about the participants is presented in Table 1.

Table 1

*Grade and gender information about the participants*

Groups			Gender		Total
			Male	Female	
Experimental Group	Grade	9 <sup>th</sup>	11	24	35
		10 <sup>th</sup>	5	13	18
		11 <sup>th</sup>	1	1	2
	Total	17	38	55	
Control Group	Grade	9 <sup>th</sup>	21	16	37
		10 <sup>th</sup>	7	5	12
		11 <sup>th</sup>	2	3	5
	Total	30	24	54	
Total	Grade	9 <sup>th</sup>	32	40	72
		10 <sup>th</sup>	12	18	30
		11 <sup>th</sup>	3	4	7
	Total	47	62	109	

### 3.5. Materials and Instruments Used in the Study

Audiobooks were the treatment of the quasi-experimental part of the current study. Besides, listening comprehension tests, pronunciation accuracy tests, FLLAS, MPA-FLC and a survey for eliciting learners' views about using audiobooks in language learning were used as data collection instruments.

**3.5.1. Audiobooks.** The audiobooks were chosen per the criteria mentioned in the introduction chapter. They were in the audio embedded video formats with subtitles on the screen. The audiobooks were of various literary works appropriate to the learners' proficiency

levels and they were downloaded from open source Youtube channels (See Appendix K and Appendix A for detailed information about audiobook files). Moreover, a standard construct worksheet for each audiobook was prepared by the researcher to let the audiobook listeners do the activities related to listening comprehension and pronunciation (See Appendix E).

**3.5.2. Listening comprehension tests.** The listening comprehension tests used in the current study was taken from an institution called “Anglia Examination England” which franchises English proficiency exams for various fields, including universities in Europe, Asia, and America. Besides, the organization submits accreditation with CEFR levels. Therefore, it can be assumed that the listening tests they produce are valid and reliable assessment tools in checking listening comprehension ability of EFL learners.

The researcher has received permission via e-mail to obtain and use the test for data collection for the current study. Two separate elementary level sample listening tests have been taken from the website of the organization under the category of general English (See Appendix B, Appendix C). Each of the two equivalent tests contains three sections that assess listening comprehension. They were applied as before and after intervention listening comprehension tests. The reason behind selecting two equivalent listening comprehension tests prepared by the same institution rather than using the same listening test both for pre-experimental and post-experimental applications was to prevent the remembering factor.

**3.5.3. Pronunciation assessment materials.** First of all, a list of 56 highest frequency words was obtained from the audiobook scripts by text analysis, which would be read aloud and be recorded by the learners before and after the intervention. The rationale behind choosing the highest frequency words can be explained as the more times the participants come across a word, the more familiar they might get with it. The frequencies, count of occurrences of selected words in the audiobook scripts and their Corpus of Contemporary American English ranks are presented in the Appendices section (See Appendix L).

After identifying the most frequent words occur in the audiobook scripts, two distinct passages were created using them by the researcher to enable learners to sense them in at least sentence context. One of the passages created was used for before intervention pronunciation accuracy assessment and the other was used for after intervention pronunciation accuracy assessment. Using different passages constructed by the same words was an attempt to prevent remembering factor. See Appendices section for the passages (Appendix M)

**3.5.4. Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale (FLLAS).** Since the emergence of the Receiver Apprehension Test (RAT) that was designed for L1 listening apprehension by Wheelers (1975), the biggest step in assessing listening anxiety has been taken by Kim (2000), who developed a foreign language listening anxiety measurement questionnaire, specifically for the foreign language learning environment. The original FLLAS was a 5-point Likert type questionnaire which consisted of 33 items and its overall internal consistency value was .93. The questionnaire was used later by such researchers as Kimura (2008) and Zhang (2013) in FLLA studies. Kılıç (2007) has attempted to adapt it to the Turkish EFL context. He reported that the final Turkish version of FLLAS consists of 24 items explaining 8 factors after dimension reduction procedures and its internal consistency value was .86 which indicates that it is a reliable instrument for measuring FLLA in Turkish EFL context. The sub-factors of the inventory are: 1) The effect of topic, time, pace and vocabulary, 2) Confidence in listening proficiency, 3) Role of pronunciation, stress and intonation, 4) FLLA in authentic contexts, 5) FLLA in lecture situations, 6) Fear of incomprehension, 7) Effect of visuals and 8) Negative self-evaluation. So, the Turkish version of FLLAS was utilized as a data collection instrument for identifying the FLLA status of learners in the current study (Appendix G). Permission has been granted by the developer of the instrument via e-mail (Appendix H).

**3.5.5. Measurement of Pronunciation Anxiety in Foreign Language Classroom (MPA-FLC).** Unlike the FLLA, FLPA is a relatively new construct that measures level and

sources of the anxiety specific to situations where individuals pronounce TL words in EFL context. The instrument MPA-FLC was developed by Baran-Lucarz (2016), who finalized it by adjustments under previous quantitative and qualitative findings (2013, 2014). The Turkish version of the scale was adapted from the original scale by Yağız (2018). The final version of Turkish MPA-FLC is a 6-points Likert-type, 25-item scale with 5 factors and the Cronbach's Alpha value of it is .84, which indicates that it is a reliable instrument. The sub-factors of the scale are 1) Classroom anxiety and FL oral performance apprehension, 2) Fear of negative evaluation related to pronunciation, 3) Pronunciation self-efficacy, 4) Pronunciation self-image and 5) Beliefs about pronunciation. Hence, the instrument was utilized to identify the FLPA levels of the learners (Appendix G). Permission was granted by the developer of the instrument via e-mail (Appendix H).

**3.5.6. Questionnaire of learners' views about audiobooks.** The self-report open-ended questionnaire consists of 17 questions formulated by the researcher within the coverage of the current study to seek further information about listening comprehension skill, FLLA, pronunciation ability and FLPA of learners from their pure perspectives as well as to unearth opinions of the intervention group about the use of audiobooks as a language learning material outside the classroom. The reported views constituted the qualitative section of the study. Wording rules, understandability, and clarity of the questions issues were taken into consideration while preparing the open-ended questions; then, they were reviewed by two experienced English teachers and their suggestions were taken. After minor changes related to the use of loaded words and double-barrel questions, the questionnaire was distributed to 10 students who were not included in the participants and they were asked if the questions are clear to understand. Finally, the researcher decided on the final version of the open-ended questionnaire (Appendix F).

### **3.6. Data Collection Procedures**

The current study was launched in the middle of the 2018-2019 academic year spring semester after being granted the required permissions from Uludag University Institute of Educational Sciences and Sakarya Provincial Management Office of Ministry of National Education (Appendix I, Appendix J). Initially, the students were briefly informed about the study and its components. The voluntary students were assigned as randomly as possible to experimental and control groups to eliminate motivational factors that might affect the results. Besides, the participants were warned occasionally that the data they provide and the result would completely be confidential and would not be used for any other purpose other than doing the necessary analyses for the study. Similarly, it was emphasized that the scores they get from listening comprehension tests and pronunciation accuracy tests would only be used for the research purpose and they had nothing to do with their formal English course to eliminate the potential extra anxiety that would arise due to test conditions. A schedule was prepared by the researcher, which illustrates the procedural timeline of the actions and the school management was informed about the conducts at each step (See Appendix N). The voluntary students, as well as their parents, were informed about the procedure and a consent form was distributed to be signed both by the students and their parents, which was a principal ethical requirement. Then, the participants who volunteered to take part in the study were made acquainted with the key terminology of the study components to make sure them about what they would be dealing with during classroom hours which lasted a week. Next, the pre-experiment listening comprehension test was applied using the smartboard in a classroom in two consecutive sessions, each of which took approximately 20 minutes. Then, pre-experimental anxiety questionnaires were distributed to the participants; the completion of the anxiety questionnaires took approximately 30 minutes. Meanwhile, pre-experimental pronunciation test sentences were sent to participants via WhatsApp mobile application, and they were asked to read aloud the sentences while recording and to send the recorded voice

file to the researcher via the same platform. It was reminded to the participants that they must articulate the words as natural and comfortable as possible at their usual pace without rehearsing or forcing themselves to pronounce accurately.

Now on, the participants recruited for the experimental group began taking the eight-week treatment during which they listened to one audiobook per week. The audiobooks were sent as digital files in the format of “mp4” to the experimental group participants via their smartphones. The participants listened to each audiobook at least twice and did the activities provided by worksheet prepared for each audiobook. Each story was discussed with the experimental group participants at the end of a classroom hour every week. When the treatment phase was over, post-experimental listening comprehension test, post-experimental pronunciation test, post-experimental anxiety questionnaires were applied following the same procedures as the pre-experiment. Finally, the questionnaire of learners’ views about the use of audiobooks was distributed to all participants, including both the experimental and the control groups. They were asked to respond to questions in written form and to hand the questionnaire in to the researcher.

Besides, all the instructions and questions in the questionnaires and scales were provided in the native language of the participants to allow them to understand the items amply and express their views freely.

### **3.7. Conclusion**

The methodology chapter presented a methodological framework that the study adopts as well as the information about the setting and the participants of the study, the instruments used in the study and the procedures conducted to carry out the research. The next chapter provides an analysis of the data concerning research questions.

## Chapter 4

### Data Analysis

#### 4.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the data analysis procedures utilized to find answers to related research questions and the results of the analyses.

#### 4.2. Data Analysis Procedures

It was thought to appropriate to begin introducing data analysis by presenting the scoring of listening comprehension and pronunciation tests. First of all, listening comprehension tests used in pre-experimental and post-experimental phase consist of three sections; Section 1 includes five multiple-choice comprehension questions; Section 2 consists of a dictation passage in which ten words are deleted; Section 3 consists of ten True-False statements. The maximum score that can be obtained from the tests was 50. The researcher evaluated the test papers by cooperating two English teachers.

Fulcher (2003) illustrates two broad pronunciation assessment scale development approaches; intuitive approach involves judgments of a committee of experts to develop criteria. The second one, empirical approach, involves methods like scaling descriptors or development of a scale with a data-driven manner, where data is drawn on to establish criteria elements. However, Major (1987, cited in Munro & Derwing, 2011) points out that traditional assessment of pronunciation in which a group of experts listen to speakers in the same order and judge their pronunciation accuracy has several shortcomings due to same sequence effect and being able to listen to each speaker only once which threatens the consistency of their judgments. Furthermore, North (2000) suggests the researchers who are interested in pronunciation assessment identifying aspects of pronunciation such as vowels, consonant, stress, intonation, etc. and developing a checklist or scale. Additionally, Isaacs, Trofimovich and Chereau (2015) notes that another method for phonological analysis is a

data-driven one in which the spoken product is transcribed phonetically as accurately as possible; once the phonetic transcription is done at the level particular for the purpose, the data speaks for itself, in a manner of speaking (See Appendix D). Thus, the evaluation was done through phonetic transcriptions of the speech recordings with reference to the Handbook of the International Phonetic Association (IPA) (1999) to set the ground for a higher objectivity. Furthermore, two novice English teachers incorporated in writing transcriptions to prevent potential rater bias. In the transcription process, the researcher transcribed both the pre-experiment and the post-experiment recordings provided by the participants according to segmental level transcription rules consulting to two English teachers. The transcriptions were written with a narrow scope at the consonant and vowel level; diacritics and prosodic features like word stress, sentence stress, linking, etc. were not transcribed since they are redundant for the purpose of the study. Once the transcribed data were ready, the number of each participant's correctly articulated words were counted and noted both for pre and post transcriptions. Moreover, the possible variations of pronunciation were reviewed through online dictionaries (e.g., Cambridge Online Dictionary, Oxford Online Dictionary) and the accent varieties, particularly as American and British as well as the discrepancies resulting from weak versions, assimilation and linking features of speech, were taken into consideration while scoring the correctly pronounced words. For instance, the word "were" can be pronounced as /wɜːr/ American English, /wɜː/ in British English or /wɛr/ in the weak form variation in speech; all the variations were treated as correct. There are 56 words which were the focus of the current study extracted from the audiobooks; thus, the maximum score that can be attained by the participants was 56.

Once the scoring of the listening comprehension and pronunciation accuracy tests were over, the collected data from the tests and questionnaires were entered into Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software version 23, a commonly used statistics

application for data analysis in social science studies. The missing values across the cases and variables concerning the FLLAS and MPA-FLC questionnaires were replaced by the mean values of the series. To do so, EM Estimator analysis (Lange, Little & Taylor, 1989) is run for both FLLAS and MPA-FLC data sets. The results indicated that the missing values were distributed randomly and they can be replaced by the mean values (Pre-experiment questionnaire  $p=.05$ , Post-experiment questionnaire  $p=.48$ ). Moreover, Cronbach's Alpha test was conducted to estimate the reliability of FLLAS and MPA-FLC questionnaires implemented both before and after the intervention. The Cronbach's Alpha values for FLLAS and MPA-FLC questionnaires' internal consistency were all perfectly satisfactory as presented in Table 2.

Table 2

*Reliability analysis of pre and post FLLAS and MPA-FLC questionnaires*

	Pre-FLLAS	Pre- MPA-FLC	Post- FLLAS	Post- MPA-FLC
Cronbach's Alpha	.95	.95	.87	.93

According to Büyüköztürk (2012), T-tests require three assumptions met; first, the groups, mean scores of which are compared must be independent of each other; second, the groups must have approximately the same variances regarding the dependent variable; third, the target variable must be normally distributed across the participants. Moreover, the suggestions of Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson and Tatham (2013) were taken into consideration in deciding the normality patterns. Therefore, before running any correlation and T-test procedures, these presumptions were calculated to proceed. If either of these assumptions was violated, alternative non-parametric statistical procedures were operationalized.

The quantitative data set consisted of the data obtained from pre and post experimental tests and questionnaires. Several SPSS statistics such as descriptive statistics, normality tests, homogeneity tests, one-way ANOVA, independent-samples T-tests and paired-samples T-tests, Mann-Whitney U test, Kruskal-Wallis test, Wilcoxon test and parametric/non-parametric correlation calculations were utilized.

Following the handing out the survey of learners' views about using audiobooks for language learning, 73 questionnaires were returned by the participants (38 from the experimental group participants and 35 from the control group participants) to the researcher. The qualitative data were analyzed by using content analysis procedures. First, the researcher read the data obtained from open-ended questionnaires and then coded the categories and notions to the digital environment. After than that, the data were interpreted by the researcher using keywords and notions mentioned by the participants in that they were assumed to be the representatives of the common points of views of the learners concerning the target research issues. Moreover, categorical answers such as yes/not sure/no and agree/no idea/disagree were coded into numbers and analyzed by SPSS. The qualitative data let the researcher take a deeper insight into listening comprehension skill and pronunciation ability of participants as well as eliciting experimental group participants' views about audiobooks

### **4.3. Results**

#### **1. What are the correlational relationships between listening comprehension skill, pronunciation accuracy, FLLA and FLPA of high school EFL learners?**

First of all, a normality test was run. Next, parametric or non-parametric correlational calculations were utilized in accordance with the normality test results.

Table 3

*Normality test results of listening comprehension scores, pronunciation accuracy scores, FLLA and FLPA levels*

	Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.
Pre-pronunciation Test Scores	.896	109	.000
Pre-FLPA Levels	.981	109	.131
Pre-listening Test Scores	.973	109	.026
Pre-FLLA Levels	.980	109	.092

Considering that the Shapiro-Wilk normality test revealed significance values of .026 for listening comprehension scores and .000 for pronunciation scores ( $p < .05$ ), normal distribution assumption was not met to conduct parametric correlation test. Therefore, Spearman's non-parametric correlation test was run.

Table 4

*Correlation between listening comprehension scores and pronunciation accuracy scores*

	Pre-pronunciation Test Score	
	Correlation Coefficient	.721**
Pre-listening Test Score	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	109

The results indicate that there is a strong correlation ( $p = .00$ ,  $p < .01$ ) between listening comprehension scores and pronunciation accuracy scores of participants in the positive direction ( $r = .721$ ).

Since the FLLA and FLPA levels of participants were normally distributed ( $p=.09$ ,  $p=.13$ ,  $p>.05$ ), Pearson correlation test was run.

Table 5

*Correlation between FLLA and FLPA levels*

		Pre-FLPA Level
	Pearson Correlation	.724**
Pre-FLLA Level	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	109

The results of Pearson correlation test indicate that FLLA and FLPA of the participants are strongly correlated in the positive direction ( $p=.00$ ,  $r=.724$ ).

Further, Spearman's correlation calculation was run since listening comprehension scores were not normally distributed to reveal the correlational relationship between FLLA and listening comprehension scores of the participants.

Table 6

*Correlation between FLLA levels and listening comprehension scores*

		Pre-FLLA Level
	Correlation Coefficient	-.551**
Pre-listening Test Score	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	109

Spearman's correlation analysis indicates that there is a strong negative correlation between FLLA level and listening comprehension test scores of the participants ( $p=.00$ ,  $r=-.551$ ).

FLPA and its relationship with pronunciation scores of the participants were analyzed using the Spearman's correlation analysis, which is reported to yield reliable results with skewed data sets (Dornyei, 2007) considering that the pronunciation scores were not normally distributed.

Table 7

*Correlation between FLPA levels and pronunciation accuracy scores*

		Pre-FLPA Level
	Correlation Coefficient	-.318**
Pre-pronunciation Test Scores	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001
	N	109

The analysis reveals that participants' FLPA levels and pronunciation accuracy scores are negatively correlated ( $r=-.318$ ). However, the scatter plot (Figure 1) shows that there is no perfect linear negative relationship between FLPA levels and pronunciation accuracy scores.

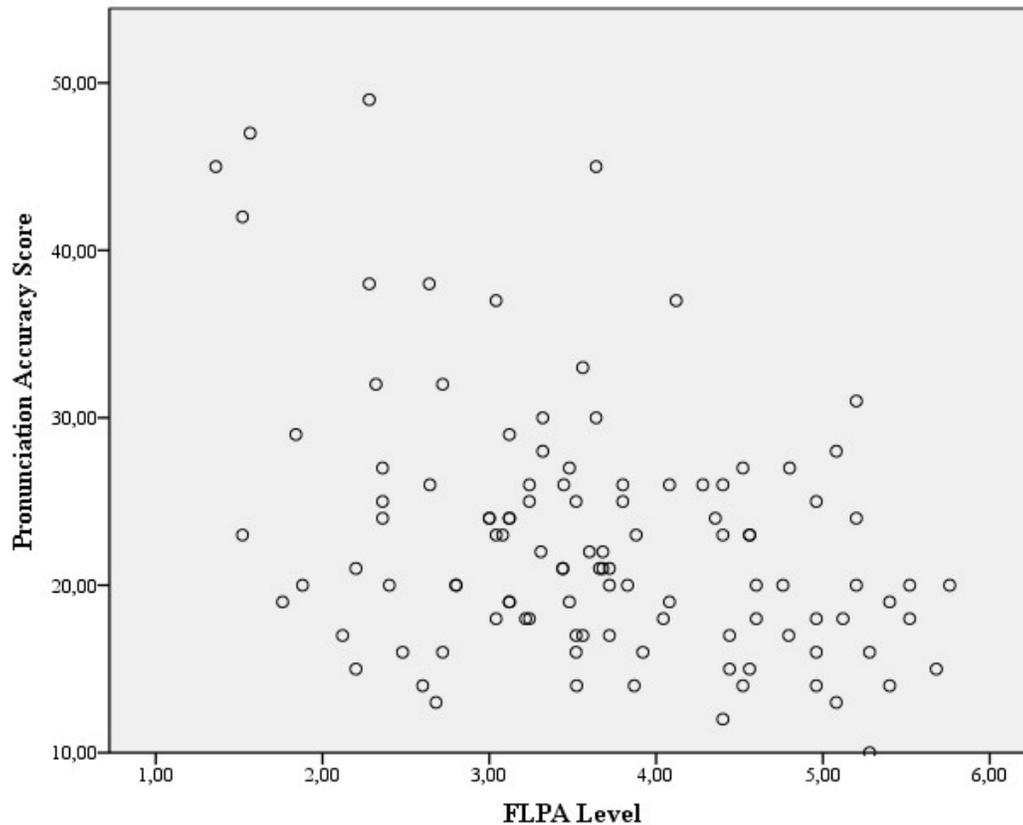


Figure 1. Scatter plot of FLPA level and pronunciation accuracy scores

Some researchers argue that anxiety and test performance usually show a curvilinear relationship (Hopkins, 1998). Besides, since moderate levels of anxiety maximize the test performance, a U shaped anxiety curve is common (Abrahimi, Cholmsky & Gordon, 2001). Therefore, the measure of association test was run to see the effect size with reference to Vogt's (1999) suggestion.

Table 8

Measure of association test of FLPA levels and pronunciation scores

	R	R Squared	Eta	Eta Squared
Pre-FLPA Levels * Pre-pronunciation Scores	-.393	.154	.538	.289

The  $r^2$  value indicates that FLPA explains its relationship with pronunciation accuracy only by .15, which is a low proportion.

A further analysis was run to figure out if the male and female learners differ from each other in terms of listening comprehension scores, pronunciation accuracy scores, FLLA and FLPA. Parametric and non-parametric tests were utilized to reveal if any difference exists across the genders. First, the homogeneity of the gender groups and the normal distribution of the variances were calculated and the tests were run in accordance with the homogeneity and normality results. The male and female groups were found to be homogenous, although the distribution of some of the target variables was found to be skewed.

Table 9

*Normality test results of pronunciation scores, listening comprehension scores, FLLA and FLPA across gender*

	Gender	Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.
Pre-pronunciation Scores	Male	.879	47	.000
	Female	.911	62	.000
Pre-FLPA Levels	Male	.987	47	.888
	Female	.964	62	.069
Pre-listening Test Scores	Male	.967	47	.208
	Female	.967	62	.099
Pre-FLLA Levels	Male	.973	47	.355
	Female	.961	62	.044

Therefore, Mann-Whitney U non-parametric test was run to figure out if listening comprehension scores, pronunciation accuracy scores, FLLA levels and FLPA levels are different across gender.

Table 10

*Comparison of male and female learners in terms of pronunciation scores, listening comprehension scores, FLLA levels, FLPA levels*

	Pre-pronunciation Scores	Pre-FLPA Levels	Pre-listening Scores	Pre-FLLA Levels
Mann-Whitney U	1395.500	978.500	1344.000	982.000
Wilcoxon W	2523.500	2106.500	3297.000	2110.000
Z	-.377	-2.928	-.694	-2.907
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.706	.003	.488	.004

Mann-Whitney U test reveals that there is no significant difference between the listening comprehension scores of male and female participants ( $p=.48$ ,  $p>.05$ ). Moreover, the results indicate that there is no significant difference between male and female participants' pronunciation scores ( $p=.70$ ,  $p>.01$ ). However, the results indicate that male and female participants differ from each other significantly concerning their FLLA ( $p=.00$ ,  $p<.01$ ). Descriptive statistics results show that male participants have a mean FLLA level of 3.07, while female participants have a mean FLLA level of 3.47. Therefore, it can be proposed that female participants experience significantly higher FLLA than male participants do. Another variable that the researcher tried to figure out if it differs across genders was FLPA levels. The results show that there is a significant difference between male and female participants in terms of their FLPA ( $p=.00$ ,  $p<.01$ ). The descriptive statistics reveal that male participants

have a mean FLPA level of 3.29 and female participants have a mean FLPA level of 3.91.

Therefore, it can be assumed that female participants experience a higher level of FLPA than the male participants do, which applies the same results with the FLLA levels.

## **2. Does listening to audiobook affect listening comprehension skill of high school EFL learners?**

The quasi-experimental data consists of two data sets which are obtained from pre-experimental and post-experimental implementations of the same or similar instruments. Therefore, to reveal the effect of treatment on the experimental group, which was listening and reading the same audiobook script simultaneously as an EL technique in this case, parametric and non-parametric paired tests were operationalised on the condition of meeting the normal distribution and homogeneity assumptions.

Homogeneity of the variances assumption across the experimental and the control groups for both pre-listening and post-listening were met with significance values of .84 and .98 respectively ( $p > .05$ ). Besides, Shapiro-Wilk's normality test indicated that pre-listening scores are normally distributed for both groups ( $p = .300$ ,  $p = .153$ ,  $p > .05$ ), whereas post-listening scores are not normally distributed within the control group ( $p = .04$ ,  $p < .05$ ); Table 11 shows the results of Shapiro-Wilk normality test.

Table 11

*Normality test of pre-listening and post-listening scores for experimental and control groups*

	Groups	Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.
Pre-listening Test Scores	Experimental	.974	54	.300
	Control	.967	53	.153
Post-listening Test Scores	Experimental	.968	54	.162
	Control	.954	53	.040

Therefore, the Mann-Whitney U test was run due to the control group's violation of normal distribution parameters in the post-listening test.

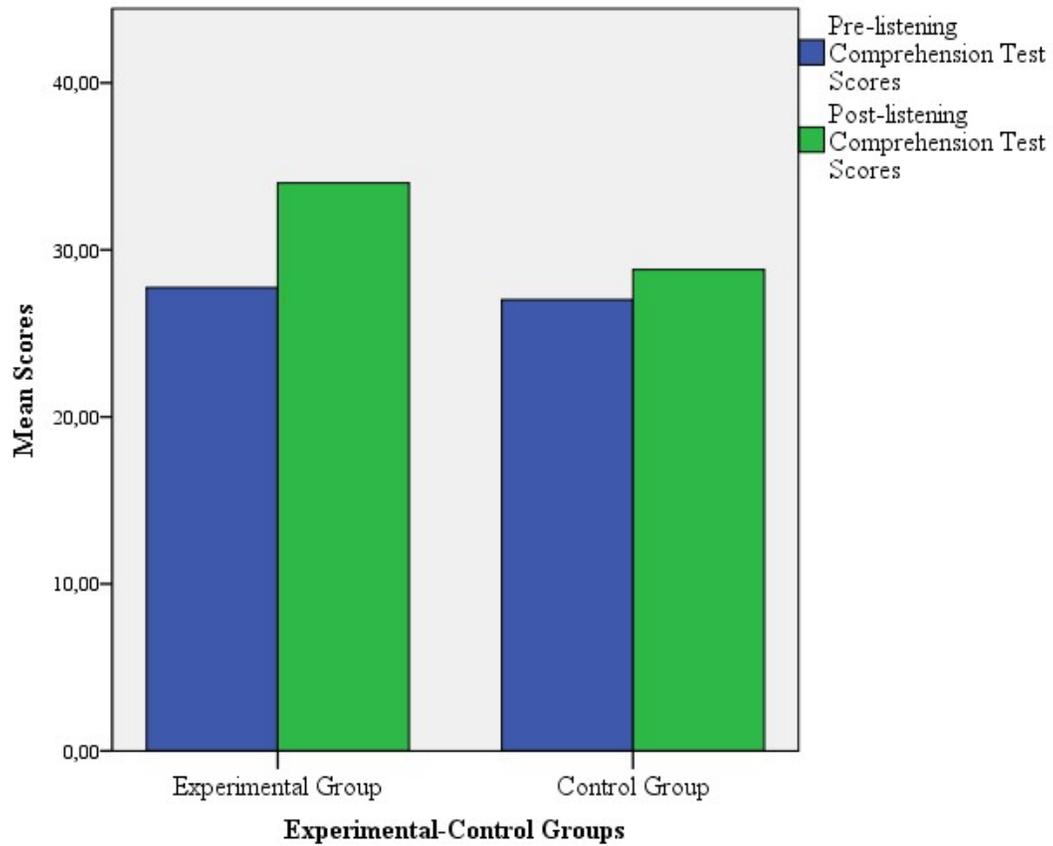
Table 12

*Analysis of difference between pre and post listening test scores across groups*

	Pre-listening Test Scores	Post-listening Test Scores
Mann-Whitney U	1391.500	911.500
Z	-.569	-3.246
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.569	.001

The significance value of the analysis for pre-listening scores is .569 ( $p > .05$ ) which can be interpreted as experimental and control groups do not differ in pre-listening test scores; however, post-listening scores of experimental and control groups are significantly different with a significance value of .001 ( $p < .01$ ).

The mean of the post-listening test scores of the experimental group increased by 6.25, while the control group's mean score increased by 1.79. So, it can be concluded that the participants who had listened to audiobooks performed better in post-listening comprehension test than the participants who had not. The following chart (Figure 2) illustrates the before and after intervention listening comprehension test scores of experimental and control groups.



*Figure 2. Mean difference of pre and post listening comprehension scores across groups*

### **3. Does listening to audiobook affect pronunciation accuracy of high school EFL learners?**

Homogeneity and normality tests were utilized for pre and post pronunciation tests to conduct comparison tests.

Table 13

*Normality test for pre and post pronunciation scores across groups*

	Groups	Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.
Pre-pronunciation Test Scores	Experiment	.933	43	.015
	Control	.813	41	.000
Post-pronunciation Test Scores	Experiment	.967	43	.245
	Control	.841	41	.000

Although homogeneity assumption was met across the experimental and control groups and target variables, normal distribution assumption was heavily violated except for the pronunciation accuracy scores of the experimental group in post-test ( $p=.245$ ,  $p>.05$ ).

Therefore, Kruskal Wallis non-parametric comparison test was run to reveal whether the experimental and the control groups contrast in pre-pronunciation and post-pronunciation test scores.

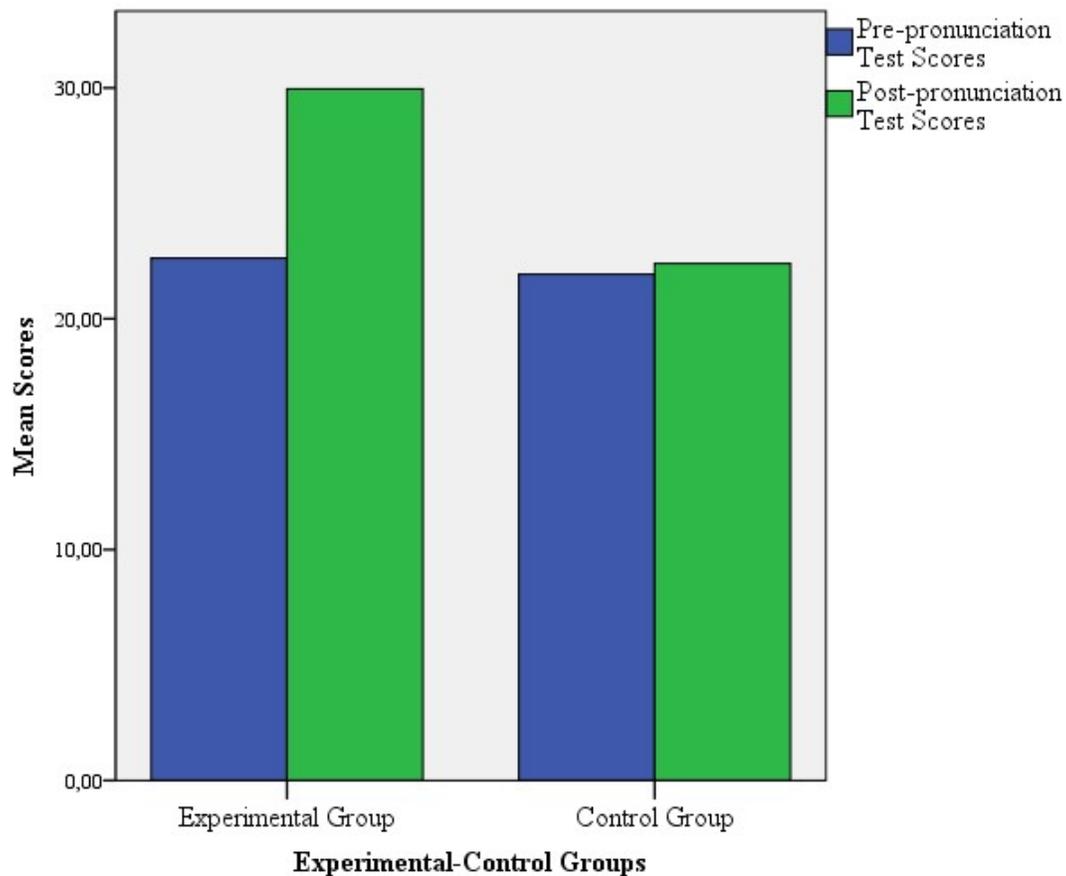
Table 14

*Difference between experimental and control groups in pre and post pronunciation test scores*

	Pre-pronunciation Test Score	Post-pronunciation Test Score
Chi-Square	.021	20.227
df	1	1
Asymp. Sig.	.884	.000

The analysis shows that experimental and control groups do not differ from each other in pre-pronunciation test scores ( $p=.884$ ,  $p>.05$ ) while they are significantly different from each other in post-pronunciation test scores ( $p=.000$ ,  $p<.01$ ).

The descriptive statistics indicate that the initial mean pronunciation test scores of both groups were close to each other ( $M=22.62 \approx M=21.92$ ); however, experimental group's post-pronunciation test mean score increased by 7.32 while the control group's post-pronunciation test mean score increased by .46. Figure 3 shows the improvement of both groups.



*Figure 3. Mean differences of pre and post pronunciation test scores across groups*

The last analysis related to quasi-experimental data consists of two distinct independent variables, which are FLLA and FLPA levels. The questionnaires were administered before and after the intervention to the experimental and the control groups. Therefore, homogeneity of experimental and control groups and normal distribution assumptions should be met to conduct paired-samples T-test. Otherwise, non-parametric

repeated measure tests must be run. Table 15 and 16 present the homogeneity and normality test results.

Table 15

*Homogeneity statistics of FLLA and FLPA levels of experimental and control groups*

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Pre-MPA-FLC	Based on Mean	.101	1	107	.751
Post-MPA-FLC	Based on Mean	.008	1	107	.928
Pre-FLLAS	Based on Mean	.259	1	107	.612
Post-FLLAS	Based on Mean	.015	1	107	.903

Table 15 shows that experimental and control groups met the assumption of homogeneity of variances ( $p > .05$ ).

Table 16

*Normality test of FLLA and FLPA levels within groups*

	Groups	Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.
Pre-MPA-FLC	Experiment	.978	54	.436
	Control	.980	55	.481
Post-MPA-FLC	Experiment	.966	54	.132
	Control	.982	55	.563
Pre-FLLAS	Experiment	.976	54	.351
	Control	.973	55	.240
Post-FLLAS	Experiment	.959	54	.064
	Control	.933	55	.004

Shapiro-Wilk normality test indicates that the variables were normally distributed except for the control group's post-FLLA levels ( $p=.00$ ,  $p<.01$ ). Hence, paired-samples T-test was run to investigate the difference between pre and post FLPA levels; nonparametric Wilcoxon test was run to see the difference between pre and post FLLA levels of experimental and control groups.

#### **4. Does listening to audiobook affect foreign language listening anxiety of high school EFL learners?**

Table 17

*Analysis of difference between pre and post FLLA levels across groups*

Groups		Post- FLLAS*Pre-FLLAS
Experiment	Z	-3.950 <sup>b</sup>
	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
Control	Z	-1.667 <sup>b</sup>
	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.096

Wilcoxon test results indicate that pre-FLLA and post-FLLA levels of the experimental group are significantly distinct ( $p=.000$ ,  $p<.01$ ), whereas control group's pre and post FLLA levels are not significantly distinct ( $p=.096$ ,  $p>.05$ ). The descriptive statistics results of MANOVA revealed that the experimental group's FLLA levels decreased more significantly ( $MD=.30$ ) than the control group's FLLA levels ( $MD=.07$ ). Figure 4 illustrates the FLLA status of the participants by the histogram before and after the treatment measurements.

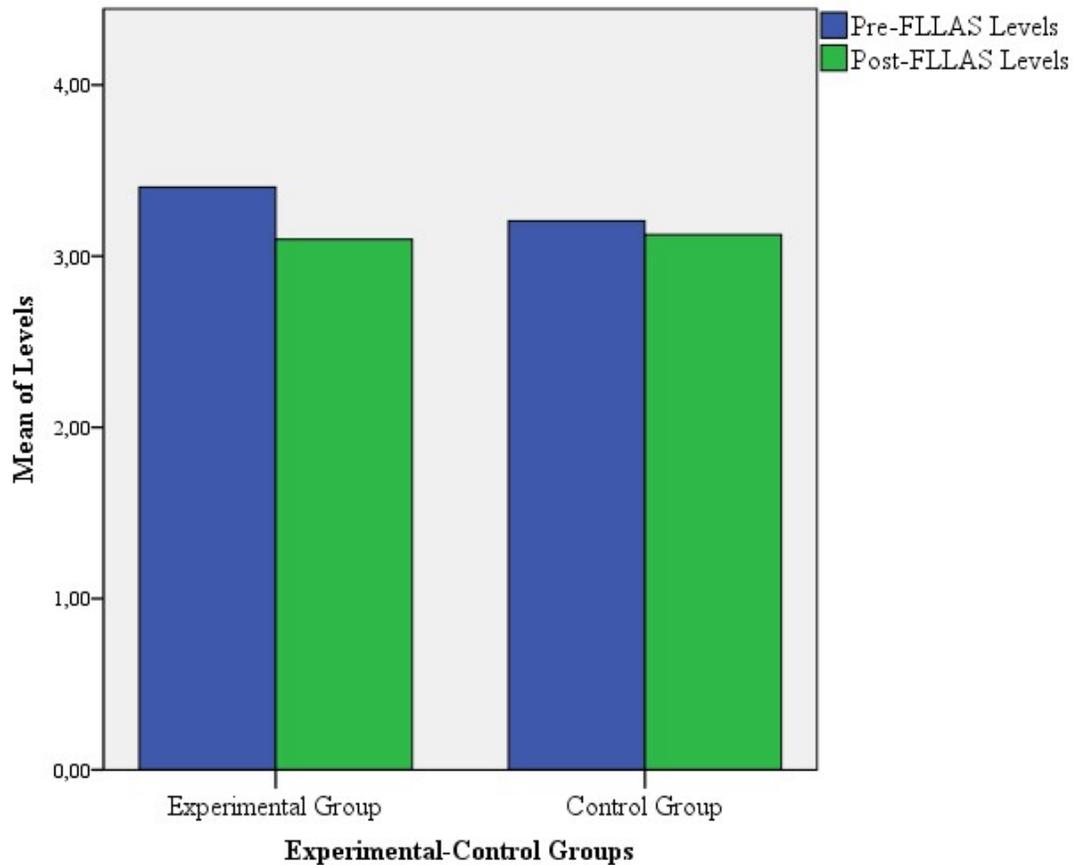


Figure 4. Mean differences of pre and post FLLA levels across groups

To deepen the investigation, non-parametric Wilcoxon two related-samples test was run to see whether the experimental group's FLLA level decrease ratio was different at the gender level. The results are presented in Table 18.

Table 18

*Difference between pre and post FLLA levels across gender*

Gender		Pre-FLLAS*Post-FLLAS
Male	Z	-1.019 <sup>b</sup>
	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.308
Female	Z	-3.835 <sup>b</sup>
	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000

The results reveal that male and female participants in the treatment group are significantly different in FLLA decrease ( $p=.000$ ,  $p<.01$ ). When the descriptive statistics are analyzed, it is seen that male participants show slighter decrease in FLLA levels ( $MD=.09$ ) than female participants do ( $MD=.40$ ).

### **5. Does listening to audiobook affect foreign language pronunciation anxiety of high school EFL learners?**

As it was shown in Table 15 and 16, the experimental and the control groups were homogeneous and FLPA levels were normally distributed. Therefore, paired-samples T-test was run to see if the treatment was effective in adjusting FLPA levels of experimental group participants.

Table 19

*Statistics of difference between pre and post FLPA levels across groups*

Groups	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pre-MPA- Experiment FLC-Post- MPA-FLC	.29533	.67888	3.197	53	.00
Pre-MPA- Control FLC-Post- MPA-FLC	.03861	.69034	.415	54	.68

Paired-samples T-test results in Table 19 indicate that the experimental group's mean levels of pre and post FLPA are different with a significance value of .00 ( $p<.01$ ), whereas the control group shows no difference across both implementations ( $p=.68$ ,  $p>.05$ ). The histogram provides a summary of the decrease in both groups in Figure 5.

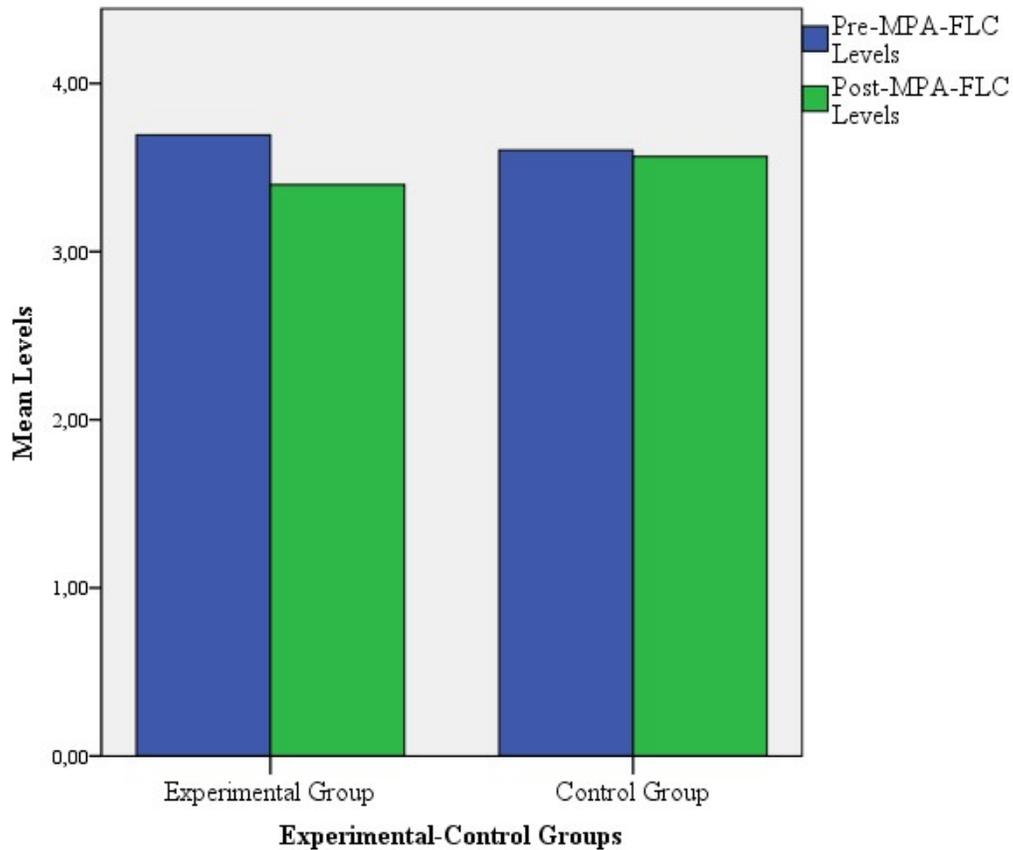


Figure 5. Mean differences of pre and post FLPA levels across groups

Additionally, a further paired-samples T-test was conducted to reveal any difference between pre and post FLPA levels of experimental group members across gender.

Table 20

Statistics of difference between pre and post FLPA levels across gender

Gender		Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Male	Pre-FLPA – Post-FLPA	.15537	.56686	1.130	16	.275
Female	Pre-FLPA – Post-FLPA	.35963	.72263	3.027	36	.005

The results presented in Table 20 reveal that female participants' FLPA levels have decreased more significantly (MD=.35,  $p=.005$ ,  $p<.05$ ) than the male participants' FLPA levels have (MD=.15,  $p=.275$ ,  $p>.05$ ).

## **6. What are high school EFL learners' views about using audiobooks for language learning?.**

First of all, the most commonly mentioned good sides of audiobooks are as follows:

1. *Listening to audiobooks helps learners gain phonological awareness.* Since the narrators speak out the stories in the audiobook with careful and clear pronunciation, the learners reported that they realized many words that the narrator pronounces differently than they do.

2. *Contents of the audiobooks are enjoyable.* The audiobooks consisted of famous literary works by various authors. The participants reported that they enjoyed the content and liked listening to them.

3. *The audiobooks provide different accents and tones.* The audiobooks are read by male and female narrators in British and American accents. The learners reported that they enjoyed listening to different accents as well as the intentional accent changes made by the narrators to enhance the reality of characters in the stories.

4. *The language and content of the audiobooks are comprehensible and clear.* The participants mentioned that appropriate level and clear sounds helped them understand the stories better which makes them happy. Indeed, one of the participants reported, "I felt that the sentences are translated in my head themselves and it became easier to understand the story". The clear articulation of narrators even fascinated Participant 10 who reported, "I felt like a foreigner was talking in front of me while listening to audiobooks. That felt strange." Additionally, participants reported that they liked the chance of pausing to look up the unknown words as well as the subtitles, which helped them understand the stories better.

The negative sides of the audiobooks reported by the participants are as follows:

1. *Audiobooks are too long in duration.* The participants found the length of the audiobooks too long and boring as it was cited by a majority of the learners. Some of them suggested listening to shorter but multiplexed stories.

2. *Audiobooks lack visuals.* Each audiobook used in the current study contains only a few theme pictures as visual in the background of subtitles. Therefore, some of the participants declared that they would prefer more visuals. In addition to these, some of the participants reported that there were many words that they did not know and they did not understand the story. Therefore, selection of the audiobooks must be made carefully to prevent boredom probability and to eliminate the negative effect of the inappropriacy of the level.

Moreover, the audiobooks might be the longest-lasting English language exposure flow most of the learners had ever experienced. Some of them reported that they realized their actual English level as Participant 24 expressed, “I laughed at myself when I realized how ridiculous I pronounce some words.” Most of the participants also reported that they felt stressed with the fear of not being able to understand initially. Even, one of the participants reported that he/she found the voice tone of the narrator funny. Despite the obstacles at the beginning of the treatment period, the participants seem to settle easy as they progress. The question asked to elicit what and how they felt while listening to audiobooks revealed that the majority of the participants liked listening to audiobooks. As Participant 15 declared, “I sometimes felt bored but seeing that I can understand better later, I felt happy and my confidence increased”; the improvements in their sound awareness and listening comprehension increased their self-confidence, affecting their anxiety status indirectly. In the views part, many participants reported that they feel more comfortable and the fear of not being able to understand decreased after starting to understand the stories. Besides, the

participants reported that conscious effort to correct their pronunciation mistakes after realizing them while listening to the audiobooks affected their FLPA levels indirectly as well.

The qualitative data encoded into SPSS approve the findings as well. For example, 84.2% of the experimental group members reported that their listening comprehension skill has been fostered after listening to audiobooks for eight weeks.

Table 21

*Do you think your listening comprehension skill has improved?*

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Yes	32	84,2
No	6	15,8
Total	38	100,0

Likely, 92.1% of the participants reported that their pronunciation is better than before, either on the awareness or the production scale.

Table 22

*Do you think your pronunciation ability has improved?*

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Yes	35	92,1
No	3	7,9
Total	38	100,0

Likely, the percentage of the experimental group participants who think that their FLPA has decreased was 55.3%; and 63.2% of them reported that their English FLPA has decreased.

Table 23

*Do you think your FLLA has decreased?*

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Yes	21	55,3
No	17	44,7
Total	38	100,0

Table 24

*Do you think your FLPA has decreased?*

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Yes	24	63,2
No	14	36,8
Total	38	100,0

The qualitative data results corroborated the findings of the quantitative design; therefore, it can be suggested that the results of quantitative and qualitative data were in line with each other which ensures that the assessment and evaluation were valid.

Table 25

*Do you want to continue listening to audiobooks?*

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Yes	24	64,9
No	13	35,1
Total	37	100,0

Furthermore, the majority of the participants think that audiobooks are good materials to learn English and to improve language skills. Lastly, 64.9% of the experimental group participants reported that they want to go on listening to audiobooks, some of whom put forward conditions such as shorter duration, more visual aids, etc. However, a few participants reported that they would rather watch videos or movies than listen and read to audiobooks.

Table 26

*Are there occasions that you do not want to speak English in classroom because you think your pronunciation is bad?*

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Yes	44	61,1
No	28	38,9
Total	72	100,0

Besides, 61.1% of the participants manifested that they do not want to speak in the classroom due to their bad pronunciation by depicting fear of making a mistake and being humiliated by friends as reasons. Indeed, Participant 32 reports, “I do not pronounce a word correctly even if I know how it is pronounced intentionally since it might sound funny to other people and they laugh.” This finding verifies the notion that pronunciation is a substantial element which determines a learner speaks in the classroom or not.

Additionally, the categorization of the possible sources failure in pronunciation ability turned out as 1) insufficient practice, 2) lack of self-confidence, 3) difficulty of producing English sounds and 4) lack of previous acquaintance with pronunciation. Participant 23’s declaration is noteworthy in approving the fourth factor “My pronunciation is bad and not sufficient. This is because I had never been made aware of pronunciation previously. When I

started to get familiar with it in high school, it seemed like a stranger to me.” So, raising phonological awareness and exposing the learners to spoken language is vital in developing pronunciation skills from early stages of education.

#### **4.4. Conclusion**

This chapter presented the data analysis processes and the statistical results in a quite detailed manner. The next chapter will extend the results obtained from several analyses to the discussion level.

## Chapter 5

### Conclusion

#### 5.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the interpretation and discussion of the results that the quantitative and qualitative data provided by referring to previous findings of related studies. Additionally, pedagogical implications, limitations of the study and suggestions for further research sections are introduced.

#### 5.2. Discussion of Findings

The study submits a variety of findings ranging from the correlations between language skills and skill-specific anxiety to the effectiveness of audiobooks in language learning.

A great deal of the participants of the current study expressed in the qualitative data that they are afraid of speaking in the classroom due to their spoilt pronunciation to avoid being humiliated and being laughed at by their friends. This finding overlaps with the findings of Kayaoğlu and Sağlamel (2013) and Savaşçı (2014). Moreover, as an extension of this argument, participants tend to compare themselves with others in the class, which determines whether they speak or not. Namely, the participants who think that their pronunciation skill is above average are eager to speak whereas the ones who think that their pronunciation skill is worse than the most of the class members tend to refrain and stay muted.

The correlational relationships of listening comprehension, pronunciation accuracy, FLLA and FLPA levels of high school EFL learners were investigated and the results showed that there is a strong relationship between listening comprehension ability and pronunciation accuracy of the learners. The finding confirms the findings of Bozorgian (2012) and Damiati (2007). Similarly, Morris and Leavey (2006) suggest that listening instruction directly affects the phonological awareness of the learners. Likely, the finding is in line with the result of

Ziane's (2011) study, which revealed that aural exposure affects learners' pronunciation development positively. Therefore, this finding of the current study confirms the assumption that listening comprehension is a prerequisite skill for sound production quality and it is imperative to consider developing listening skill in combination with speaking skill (Lynch, 2009). In other words, listening comprehension and pronunciation accuracy go hand in hand; neither of the skills can be improved in isolation from each other. Furthermore, a strong positive correlation was found between FLLA and FLPA levels of the learners. A similar finding was reported by Baran-Lucarz (2013) who implies that FLLA of the learners correlates positively with their pronunciation perception. Therefore, it can be asserted that they are closely related to each other and facilitating one would affect the other positively as well. Besides, the positive correlation between FLLA and FLPA can be the explanation of the result of the current study that both FLLA and FLPA levels of the experimental group learners have decreased approximately parallel to each other after the treatment.

Moreover, a strong negative correlation was found between FLLA and listening comprehension skill. Likely, FLPA levels of learners correlate with their pronunciation accuracy in a negative direction, although its correlation coefficient value was low. Both findings are congruent with the findings of several scholars who concluded that FLLA affects listening comprehension and FLPA affects pronunciation ability negatively (Gönen, 2009; Horwitz et al., 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991; Kim, 2000; Elkhafaifi, 2005; Kimura, 2008; Golchi, 2012; Zhou, 2003; Kralova et al., 2017; Kralova & Mala, 2018; Szyszka 2011; Dalman, 2016). However, some learners are found to have both low anxiety levels and low scores. Chang (2008) argues that in such situations, the reason might be that those learners view learning the TL little important. In other words, they do not care about learning English so that they have no reason to worry about it. A more detailed analysis of the FLLAS and MPA-FLC scales showed that female learners bear higher FLLA and FLPA, although they do

not show difference in terms of listening comprehension and pronunciation accuracy scores; the finding is also cross-validated by a separate section of questionnaire in which the learners report an overall level concerning their FLLA and FLPA as well as other language skills and areas. This finding is in line with the findings of Chang (1997), Cupurdija (2012), Golchi (2012), and Tercan and Dikilitaş (2015) although it is in contrast with Taghinezhad, Abdollahzadeh, Dastpak and Rezaei (2014) who found no statistically different levels of FLA across genders.

The results obtained from the experimental data indicate that the learners who have listened to subtitled audiobooks as an EL strategy for eight weeks significantly improved in terms of listening comprehension and pronunciation accuracy in English. This finding supports the findings of several studies (Kartal & Şimşek, 2017; Selma, 2015; Laroui, 2015; Mohamed, 2018; Saka, 2015; Takan, 2014; Couper, 2003; Motallebi & Pourgharib, 2013). Besides, female learners' pronunciation accuracy has improved significantly more than male learners' pronunciation accuracy has. Also, the qualitative data of this research confirms the effectiveness of audiobooks in enhancing listening comprehension and pronunciation ability of the participants.

Furthermore, the experimental group participants' FLLA and FLPA have decreased considerably in contrast to the control group after the treatment. This finding is in contrast with the conclusion of the study of Chang (2010), who found no significant FLLA decrease among learners after the one-year intervention of extensive listening. He concluded that FLLA is a facilitative compound in listening comprehension; however, the current study revealed FLLA as a debilitating factor rather than a facilitative one in terms of listening comprehension competence, unlike Chang's conclusion. Besides, the result of the current study, which is one of the early studies to investigate the effect of audiobooks on FLPA, indicates that listening to audiobooks helps learners to balance their FLPA levels. The

qualitative data provide remarkable reasons for this result as several participants cited that they gradually felt more comfortable with trying to understand a flow of spoken text and they gained awareness of TL pronunciation as well as correcting some of their pronunciation mistakes. Therefore, the fear of not being able to understand what is heard and fear of making mistakes when pronouncing English words might have decreased in time fostering self-confidence and facilitating anxiety related to listening and pronunciation situations. Likewise, it was stated by the learners frequently that they had realized many pronunciation mistakes they had been making, which they had never noticed before. Hence, they reported that they felt like starting to learn something about English and felt less nervous when they pronounce the words in English after directing special attention to segmental components of pronunciation.

Furthermore, it was found that female learners' FLLA and FLPA levels decreased more significantly than male learners. Campbell (1999) revealed in a study that after a training intervention in language teaching, male learners' anxiety levels slightly increased while the female learners' anxiety levels slightly decreased. Likely, the initial FLLA and FLPA levels of the female learners were significantly higher than the male learners' FLLA and FLPA; however, female learners' FLLA and FLPA levels significantly decreased while the male participants showed a slight decrease in FLLA and FLPA levels in the current study. Therefore, it can be assumed that female high school EFL learners are more anxiety-sensitive than male learners concerning language skills.

Furthermore, the results suggest that 64.9% of the participants who have taken the audiobook treatment are eager to continue listening to the audiobook since they find them beneficial tools for language learning and for improving basic language skills and the finding is congruent with the findings of Laroui (2015). However, some controversial opinions emerged from the data. For instance, a few of the participants who have listened to

audiobooks strongly object the efficiency of them; their main concern is not being able to understand what they listen to. Possibly, they are the ones, who have not reached a certain threshold in listening comprehension skill as one of the participants supports the possibility by stating “Audiobooks are good materials to improve listening, but the ones who have not been able to attain a certain level of proficiency may not be able to understand them.”

### **5.3. Pedagogical Implications**

The results of the study offer numerous implications for teachers in the first place as they are primarily responsible for guiding the learners of English classes and for material designers. The first and above all implication that the current study reveals can be said to show inestimable cruciality of exposure to the English language outside of the classroom due to the reality that one of the most prominent disadvantages of EFL contexts like Turkey is the lack of learners’ opportunity to interact in English language both receptively and productively. In other words, most of the learners lack comprehensible input, which is the primary channel that opens to development of other language skills. The learners consider that classroom instruction can be adequate only for constructing a basis for further development even though the teacher speaks English only in the classroom and further development involves personal practice outside the classroom mostly. Moreover, considering the fact that 9<sup>th</sup> Grade English course book (2018) contains only 99 minutes of listening practice content for a whole academic year, teachers must consider integrating extra tasks to increase the time and amount of exposure. Therefore, as Büyükyavuz and İnal (2008) and the implications of the current study suggests, teachers should encourage and guide their students to perform out-of-class listening and speaking activities. Besides, coursebook developers might consider adding short audio or animated stories with related receptive and productive exercises for each unit. Indeed, audiobooks are found to be effective and motivating authentic materials with comprehensible and enjoyable content and English language instructors who teach

teenagers at high schools might also integrate audiobooks to their formal teaching plan either as intensive or extensive techniques.

Besides, learners must be awarded little achievements in listening activities or lecture situations in order to adjust the learners' fear of incomprehension; learners must also be encouraged to speak even if their pronunciation is not adequate to minimize the fear of being humiliated by others which in turn creates the opportunity to practice their pronunciation as well. Indeed, teachers might begin with themselves by self-humiliation of self-pronunciation as Demirezen (in his lectures) suggests, to make the learners feel more comfortable. A further implication for the teachers is that they must take the gender of their students in consideration when the anxiety factor is concerned since female learners tend to be more sensitive to anxiety.

The teachers and the students must be conscious of the close relationship between listening comprehension and pronunciation. The teachers must direct equal focus on listening activities and complementary production activities which stimulate pronunciation awareness at least within the theoretical frame in that it might change the pace of listening activities which are usually viewed as passive practices. Therefore, speaking activities should be integrated with the listening tasks as much as possible to maximize the positive relational consequences. Also, teachers must keep in mind that listening and pronunciation abilities go hand in hand; a deficiency in one can be the predictor of the other's inadequacy.

Also, making the learners listen to audio stories with an RwL mode extensively with minimal pronunciation practice tasks are proven to be effective in raising phonological awareness and rehabilitation of the learners' pronunciation errors; therefore, the teachers should incorporate audiobook exposure with structured pronunciation activities to promote accurate pronunciation.

In short, teachers play the key role in guiding the learners in practicing listening and pronunciation in English and they must take the responsibility of supporting the learners with comprehensible input as much as possible. Reciting again, audiobooks are empirically proven in the current study to be effective in promoting listening comprehension and pronunciation skills of the learners, which in turn decreases the FLLA and FLPA. Teachers can use audiobooks with subtitles in a video format as supplementary materials and design activities based on them within the regular teaching process. However, there are some drawbacks of using audiobooks, such as being boring and unattractive due to lack of visuals except for theme pictures. Furthermore, learners think that 1-hour recordings are too long to concentrate on the story. Therefore teachers should find ways to enhance the visual deficiency by, for instance, selecting animated audio stories and choose shorter, unaccented stories instead of the long ones in duration as the participants suggest in the qualitative data. Besides, teachers should keep in mind that choosing the content which is appropriate to the learners' proficiency level must be of the highest priority among all the criteria for audiobook selection as Saka (2015) emphasizes, too.

#### **5.4. Limitations of the Study**

Although the current study provides some empirical findings involving the effectiveness of audiobooks on learners' FLLA, FLPA, listening comprehension, and pronunciation ability as well as having a deeper insight into these skills and anxiety levels, there were some limitations that put the generalizability of the findings at risk.

First of all, the study was conducted in only one high school and the participants were the students of it. This fact puts the generalizability of the findings in danger combined with the fact that the studies investigating the effectiveness of audiobooks on language skills are quite limited in Turkish high school context. Besides, the majority of the participants were at the elementary level in terms of English language proficiency; there was no chance to

compare the effectiveness of audiobooks across proficiency levels. Furthermore, the convenient sampling method was used, although it is the least desired one. Besides, the first condition of participation in the study was voluntariness despite the experimental and control groups were appointed randomly to a great extent. Both conditions have their own drawbacks: 1) undesired or involuntary placement in the experimental or control group might affect the results, 2) sampling the voluntary participants only might affect the results as Brown (2004) warns that voluntary learners are already motivated and closer to success in any treatment. Moreover, the treatment of the quasi-experimental design of the current study lasted eight weeks, which can be disputed as too short to reach valid conclusions. Another weakness of the study stems from the plurality of the variables investigated by the researcher. As a result of this fact, the variables were scrutinized superficially, in a sense.

Finally, despite the experimental group participants' attestation and completing the worksheets prepared for each audiobook, whether all of them truly listened to audiobooks or not could not be authenticated personally since the structure of the study required them to listen to audiobooks outside the school.

### **5.5. Suggestions for Further Research**

As stated before, the current study is the first within the literature to unearth some facets of target variables. For instance, experimental group participants who have taken the audiobook listening treatment for eight weeks show a decrease in their FLLA and FLPA. These results must be validated or objected by further research in other Anatolian high school contexts. Moreover, further studies must be conducted in other high school types to reveal more empirical evidence on the topic by extending the treatment duration up to at least one semester. Besides, one of the most frequently utilized multiple comparison categories in the ELT field is the proficiency level of the learners. Further research can focus on the

proficiency level variable to figure out whether it is a distinctive factor in audiobooks' effects on language skills.

Also, because the scope of the current study is too broad and it is capable of merely having an overview of relationships and effectiveness perspectives, further research might fill in this gap by focusing narrower language aspects but in detail. Moreover, regarding the feedback from the experimental group participants, further research should also aim to explore the most effective technological authentic input sources such as podcasts, internet video news, mini clips, short films, movie or series chapters, etc. by verifying that the recipients are truly exposed to the treatment. The effects of such authentic extensive listening materials on other language skills, components, or areas can also be explored with further research. Indeed, considering that the current study has revealed grammar learning as the third most difficult language area, further research must be carried out whether listening to audiobooks helps learners acquire syntactic rules.

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**APPENDICES**

**Appendix A: Sample word content analysis of audiobooks**

## Batman Begins

Total word count :	4479
Number of different words :	818
Complexity factor (Lexical Density) :	18.3%
Readability (Gunning-Fog Index) : (6-easy 20-hard)	3.1
Total number of characters :	39038
Number of characters without spaces :	21265
Average Syllables per Word :	1.43
Sentence count :	1119
Average sentence length (words) :	6.61

## Appendix B: Pre-listening comprehension test

### Section L1 (10 marks)

Listen to these six conversations and put a tick (✓) in the box that shows the correct answer to the man's question. The first one is done for you as an example.

A. What job does Stefan want to do now?










B. What did the boys do yesterday?










C. What did Elsa buy at the school shop?







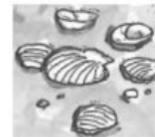



D. What did Lucy paint a picture of?










E. What did Sabrina wear to the party?










F. How much did Dan pay to go to the theatre?

£6.00

£6.50

£7.00

£7.50

**Section L2 (20 marks)**

Listen to this passage and write the missing words in the spaces given.

**Australia**

Australia is the smallest continent in the world but it is also the (example) biggest island. Many people think that Sydney is the capital (1) \_\_\_\_\_, but in fact the capital is Canberra. The word 'Canberra' means 'meeting place', a good name because it is (2) \_\_\_\_\_ Sydney and Melbourne. People know more about Sydney. The (3) \_\_\_\_\_ and the opera house are very famous and Bondi Beach is popular with locals and tourists.

Most big towns in Australia are on the coast but if you (4) \_\_\_\_\_ towards the centre of the country, you will see the *real* Australia, (5) \_\_\_\_\_ nothing grows. There, you will find miles of desert and rock. This is the (6) \_\_\_\_\_ of the aborigines, the first people who lived in Australia. Their history goes back (7) \_\_\_\_\_ 50,000 years.

Sheep farms are an important part of Australian modern (8) \_\_\_\_\_. Some of the farms are so big that the farmers need a plane to get to the (9) \_\_\_\_\_ shops and the children often study at home on the internet because the schools are (10) \_\_\_\_\_ far away.

**Section L3 (20 marks)**

Listen to the passage about the singer songwriter Taylor Swift and decide if the sentences are true or false. Put a tick (✓) in the correct column. There will now be a 30 second pause to allow you to read the questions.

		True	False
1.	Taylor Swift's birthday is in December.		
2.	Taylor has two older brothers.		
3.	Her grandmother was a singer.		
4.	Taylor first sang in public at age 10.		
5.	She won a singing competition.		
6.	She learned the guitar quickly.		
7.	She wrote <i>Lucky You</i> in 2000.		
8.	She stayed with RCA Records for one year.		
9.	She has written six albums.		
10.	'1989' has sold 6 million copies.		

**Appendix C: Post-listening comprehension test**

**Section L1 (10 marks)**

Listen to these six conversations and put a tick (✓) in the box that shows the correct answer to the man's question. The first one is done for you as an example.

**A. What is John's favourite subject at school?**

history

biology

Japanese

maths





**B. What did Paul do with his friends yesterday?**







**C. What did Diana take to the picnic at the beach?**







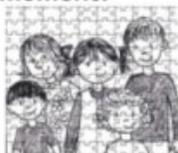
**D. What did Annie find on the beach?**







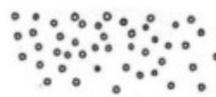
**E. What is Leanne playing with at the moment?**







**F. What's the weather usually like in Coaltown in the winter?**



## Section L2 (20 marks)

Listen to this passage about caves and write the missing words in the spaces given.

## Caves

Caves are holes or hollows <sup>(example)</sup> under the surface of the Earth. The biggest ones are in rock called limestone and <sup>(1)</sup> \_\_\_\_\_ of them are huge. The world's biggest cave <sup>(2)</sup> \_\_\_\_\_ to be in Malaysia. You can fit several football pitches in it. Now people have <sup>(3)</sup> \_\_\_\_\_ a cave in Vietnam which is even bigger. It is 700 meters long and 400 meters wide. It is big <sup>(4)</sup> \_\_\_\_\_ to fit more than 40 Boeing 747 aeroplanes inside it.

All caves begin as small holes in the rock. Rain water gets inside and <sup>(5)</sup> \_\_\_\_\_ the hole bigger until it becomes a cave. Nearly every country in the world has caves. They were the <sup>(6)</sup> \_\_\_\_\_ kinds of houses for people. Now wild animals often make them into <sup>(7)</sup> \_\_\_\_\_ homes. One of the animals you <sup>(8)</sup> \_\_\_\_\_ find in a cave are bats. They fly in and out at night to find food. They are really <sup>(9)</sup> \_\_\_\_\_ and sometimes their caves are very smelly. Many caves, however, are popular with tourists who <sup>(10)</sup> \_\_\_\_\_ them to watch the wildlife.

## Section L3 (20 marks)

Listen to the passage about Gia Coppola and decide if the sentences are true or false. Put a tick (✓) in the correct column. There will now be a 30 second pause to allow you to read the questions.

		True	False
1.	Gia was born in California.		
2.	Gia's mother was a film producer.		
3.	Gia's father died before she was born.		
4.	Gia's mother married again in 2000.		
5.	Gia enjoyed high school.		
6.	Gia studied photography in New York.		
7.	James Franco wrote the book <i>Palo Alto</i> .		
8.	The book was about actors in Hollywood.		
9.	Cinemas first showed the film in 2014.		
10.	Empire film magazine hated the film.		

### Appendix D: Sample phonetic transcription of voice recordings

Group	Participant	Pre-pronunciation Transcription	Post-Pronunciation Transcription	Correct Transcription
E	P4	<p>*men se blæk kæstəl tri: oult housəs          aroont          *went msait ru m slooli asket tjildərən          hou wer          *den prɔfəsər foont red blu:t dɔ:t feis          went wan          *sudenli sɔmtmk laik bik dok muvet          watə ren ewer          *pi pəl wa ntid si terəbəl ais          *wen dar kem seit kənev wat mast          veri wel          *nau tam pt tmk bek əgem bɪfɔ:t          lɔŋ nau</p>	<p>*əuld mæn mu:vt slooli around blæk          kæstəl sɔ: bik dɔ:t          *deɪ pɔt sɔmtmk laik dɔg msaid ru m          den ræn ewer          *tri: tjildrən wa ntid si: tmk wen wont          wan haʊsɜz          *mast faʊnt ais watə nait          *nɔ: prɔfəsər nju: wat pi pəl seit red          blu:t feis veri wel          *sɔdənlɪ kem bek əgem ask haʊ          terəbəl wer bɪfɔ:lɔŋk tam</p>	<p>*mæn sɔ: blæk kɑ:s(ə)l (kæ:s(ə)l) θri:          əʊld (oʊld) haʊzɪz əraʊnd          *went msaid rʊm (ru:m) sləʊli (slooli)          ɑ:skt (æskt) tjɪld(ə)rən haʊ wɜ:(r) (wɜr)          *ðen prəfəsə(r) faʊnd red blɔd dɔ:(r) feɪs          went wait          *sʌd(ə)nli sɔmθɪŋ laik bɪg dɔg (dɑ:g)          mu:vd wɜ:tə(r) (wa:tə(r), watə(r)) ræn          əwer          *pi:pəl wɔntɪd si: terəb(ə)l aɪz          *wen deɪ kem seɪd nju: (nu:) wɔt (wat)          mast (məst) veri wel          *nau tam pʊt θɪŋ bæ:k əɡen bɪfɔ:(r) lɔŋ          (lɑ:n) naɪt</p>

## Appendix E: Sample audiobook worksheet

### Batman Begins Worksheet

1. Sesli kitabı dinlemeden önce, karşılaşabileceğinizi düşündüğünüz kelimeleri ve anlamlarını not edin.

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2. Videoyu izlerken sorulara İngilizce ya da Türkçe cevap verin.

1. What does Ducart want Bruce to find on the mountains after he saved Bruce from prison?
2. How does Bruce escape from Ra's al Ghul's place?
3. What was Bruce afraid of when he fell into well when he was a child?
4. What does Crane's poison smoke do to people?
5. How does Ra's al Ghul plan to kill people in Gotham? Can he kill people in the end?

Dinlediğiniz hikayeyi Türkçe ya da İngilizce anladığımız şekilde özetleyin.

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Aşağıdaki cümleleri, videoyu tekrar açarak, okuyucuyla eş zamanlı olarak birlikte sesli okuyun. Okuyucunun hızına ve tonlamasına uymaya çalışın. 3 tekrar yapın. Cümleler hikâyenin başıdır.

Bruce Wayne was in prison in Bhutan, a country far away from his home in Gotham City in America.

One day, he was waiting for breakfast with all the other prisoners.

They stood in lines. After a long time, Bruce got his plate of horrible food.

He took the plate and walked to a table. A very big man stood in front of him.

'Give me your food,' said the man. 'No,' Bruce said.

The man hit Bruce in the face. Bruce dropped his plate and fell to the floor.

When he got up, there were seven big men in front of him. Two of them took Bruce by the arms.

He used his legs - hard - and they fell.

## Appendix F: Survey of participants' views about listening and pronunciation skills and use of audiobooks for language learning

Grubunuz:  Deney  Kontrol

### YAZILI GÖRÜŞME SORULARI

#### İngilizce Dinleme Becerisi ve Kaygısı (Deney ve Kontrol dolduracak)

1. Sizde sınıfta yaptığımız İngilizce dinleme etkinlikleri ve öğretmenin İngilizce konuşması, dinleme becerinizi geliştirmek için yeterli mi?

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2. Dinleme etkinliklerinde ya da öğretmen İngilizce konuşurken sizi en çok endişelendiren nedir?

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3. Dinleme becerinizi geliştirmek için neler yapıyorsunuz?

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4. Dinleme becerinizin kötü olduğunu düşünüyorsanız sebepleri sizce nelerdir?

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#### İngilizce Telaffuz Becerisi ve Kaygısı (Deney ve Kontrol dolduracak)

1. Sınıf içinde İngilizce konuşmanız istendiğinde, İngilizce telaffuzunuzun kötü olması yüzünden konuşmak istemediğiniz oluyor mu?

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2. Sadece sınıf içi etkinliklerle İngilizce telaffuzunuzu geliştirebileceğinizi düşünüyor musunuz?

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3. İngilizce telaffuzunuzu geliştirmek için bireysel bir çaba sarfediyor musunuz? Neler yapıyorsunuz?

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4. İngilizce telaffuzunuzun kötü ya da yetersiz olduğunu düşünüyorsanız sizce sebepleri nelerdir?

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Grubunuz:  Deney  Kontrol

**İngilizce Sesli Kitaplar (Sadece Deney dolduracak)**

1. Sesli kitapları dinledikten sonra dinlediğinizi anlama becerinizde bir gelişme olduğunu düşünüyor musunuz?

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2. Sesli kitapları dinlemenin kelimeleri daha doğru telaffuz etmenize yardımcı olduğunu düşünüyor musunuz?

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3. Sesli kitapları dinledikten sonra telaffuz kaygınızda bir değişiklik oldu mu?

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4. Sesli kitapları dinledikten sonra dinleme kaygınızda bir değişiklik oldu mu?

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5. Sesli kitap dinlemenin hoşunuza giden yönleri nelerdir?

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6. Sesli kitap dinlemenin hoşunuza gitmeyen yönleri nelerdir?

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7. Sizce sesli kitaplar İngilizcenizi geliştirmek için iyi birer araç mı?

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8. Sesli kitapları dinlerken neler hissettiniz?

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9. Temel dil becerilerinizi geliştirmek için sesli kitap dinlemeye devam etmek ister misiniz?

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*Ekleme istediklerinizi, başka bir kağıda yazıp bu kağıtla beraber verebilirsiniz. Cevaplarınız için teşekkürler ☺*

## Appendix G: Pre and post FLLAS and MPA-FLC questionnaires

### YABANCI DİLDE DİNLEME KAYGISI VE YABANCI DİL SINIFINDA TELAFFUZ KAYGISI ANKETİ

#### Bilgilendirilmiş Onam Formu

Değerli katılımcı,

Bu anket İngilizce dersinde dinleme kaygınız ile, telaffuz kaygınızı ölçmek için hazırlanmıştır. Vereceğiniz cevapların **gerçeği yansıtması**, araştırmanın doğru sonuç verebilmesi için çok önemlidir. Vereceğiniz cevaplar, kişisel ve kurumsal bilgileriniz hiç bir şekilde hiç kimse ile **paylaşılmayacaktır**. Ankete katılarak, araştırmacının verdiği bilgileri **kesin gizlilik çerçevesinde** araştırmasında kullanmasına izin vermiş sayılırsınız.

Anket 3 bölüme oluşmaktadır. 1: Kişisel Bilgiler, 2: Yabancı Dilde Dinleme Kaygısı Ölçeği, 3: Yabancı Dil Telaffuz Kaygısı Ölçeği

Vereceğiniz gerçek düşüncenizi yansıtan cevaplar için şimdiden teşekkürler.

Ayhan BULUT

#### 1. BÖLÜM: KİŞİSEL BİLGİLER

Cinsiyetiniz:  Erkek  Kadın

Aşağıdaki İngilizce dil becerilerinizin her birinin size göre ne kadar kolay ya da zor olduğunu belirtiniz.

Dilbilgisi Kurallarını Öğrenme	<input type="radio"/> Çok Kolay	<input type="radio"/> Kolay	<input type="radio"/> Orta	<input type="radio"/> Zor	<input type="radio"/> Çok Zor
Kelime Öğrenme	<input type="radio"/> Çok Kolay	<input type="radio"/> Kolay	<input type="radio"/> Orta	<input type="radio"/> Zor	<input type="radio"/> Çok Zor
Okuma Becerisi	<input type="radio"/> Çok Kolay	<input type="radio"/> Kolay	<input type="radio"/> Orta	<input type="radio"/> Zor	<input type="radio"/> Çok Zor
Yazma Becerisi	<input type="radio"/> Çok Kolay	<input type="radio"/> Kolay	<input type="radio"/> Orta	<input type="radio"/> Zor	<input type="radio"/> Çok Zor
Dinlediğini Anlama Becerisi	<input type="radio"/> Çok Kolay	<input type="radio"/> Kolay	<input type="radio"/> Orta	<input type="radio"/> Zor	<input type="radio"/> Çok Zor
Telaffuz Becerisi	<input type="radio"/> Çok Kolay	<input type="radio"/> Kolay	<input type="radio"/> Orta	<input type="radio"/> Zor	<input type="radio"/> Çok Zor

İngilizce dersinde yapılan aşağıda verilen etkinlikleri yaparken ne kadar kaygılanıyorsunuz? (başarısız olmaktan korkup geriliyorsunuz?)

1. Hiç kaygılanmıyorum 2. Biraz kaygılanıyorum 3. Orta derecede kaygılanıyorum 4. Çok kaygılanıyorum 5. Aşırı kaygılanıyorum

1. Yazma etkinliklerinde (kitabın yazma bölümleri)	1	2	3	4	5
2. Sessiz okuma etkinliklerinde (okuyup anlama etkinlikleri)	1	2	3	4	5
3. Dinleme etkinliklerinde (öğretmeni dinlerken ya da dinleyip cevaplamamız gereken etkinlikler olduğunda)	1	2	3	4	5
4. Genel olarak konuşma etkinliklerinde (sorulan sorulara sınıf içinde sözlü yanıt vermeniz gerektiğinde)	1	2	3	4	5
5. Sesli okurken ya da sorulara sözlü olarak cevap verirken telaffuz etmekte zorlandığınız kelimeler olduğunda	1	2	3	4	5

Sınıf dışında ne sıklıkla biriyle yüz yüze ya da telefonla arayarak İngilizce konuşursunuz?(Yazışma değil)

Hiç bir zaman  Yılda bir kaç kere  Ayda bir kaç kere  Haftada bir kaç kere  Her gün

#### 2. BÖLÜM: YABANCI DİLDE DİNLEME KAYGISI ÖLÇEĞİ

- 1 = Kesinlikle katılmıyorum  
2 = Katılmıyorum  
3 = Kararsızım  
4 = Katılıyorum  
5 = Kesinlikle katılıyorum

1. Kelimeler benim telaffuz ettiğimden farklı şekilde telaffuz edilirse, anlamakta zorlanıyorum.					
2. Birisi İngilizce'yi çok hızlı konuştuğunda, tüm konuşulanları anlamayaçağımdan endişeleniyorum.					
3. İngilizce dinlerken, konuya aşına değilsem kaygılanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
4. İngilizce dinlerken kaçırduğum kısımları tahmin edebiliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
5. İngilizce dinlerken konuşan kişinin dudaklarını ya da yüz ifadesini göremezsem endişeleniyorum.	1	2	3	4	5

6. İngilizce dinleme sınavları esnasında, her kelimeyi anlamazsam kaygılanıyorum ve kafam karışıyor.	1	2	3	4	5
7. İngilizce dinlerken, kelimeleri birbirinden ayırt etmekte zorlanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Sınıfta yazılı metin olmadan İngilizce dinlediğimizde endişeleniyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Bana verilen İngilizce sözlü talimatları anlamakta zorlanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
10. İngilizce dinlerken kendime güveniyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
11. İngilizce dinlerken bazı konularda yeterli temel bilgiye sahip olmadığımı düşünüp korkarım.	1	2	3	4	5
12. İngilizce’de önemli bilgileri dinlerken, düşüncelerim iç içe geçiyor ve birbirine karışıyor.	1	2	3	4	5
13. İngilizce’de duyduklarımı düşünecek zamanım az olduğunda endişeleniyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
14. İngilizce dinlerken, kendimi içeriği anlamadan, kelimeleri tek tek çevirmeye çalışırken buluyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Duyduğum İngilizce konuşmaların hızını kendim belirleyemediğimde endişeleniyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Benim dışımda herkesin İngilizce konuşan kişinin ne dediğini anladığını düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
17. İngilizce’de dinlediğim şeyi anlayıp anlamadığımdan emin olamadığımda huzursuz oluyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Bir dinleyici topluluğunun (sınıf gibi) üyesi olarak İngilizce dinlemekten korkmuyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Telefonda İngilizce konuşan birisini dinlediğimde veya böyle bir durumu hayal ettiğimde endişeleniyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Yeni bilgileri İngilizce dinlemek beni rahatsız ediyor.	1	2	3	4	5
21. İngilizce dinlerken anlamadığım kelimelerle karşılaştığımda kaygılanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
22. İngilizce’de vurgu ve tonlamaya alışığım.	1	2	3	4	5
23. İngilizce dinlerken kelimeleri genelde anlıyorum ancak tam olarak konuşmacının ne demek istediğini anlayamıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
24. İngilizce bir dileme parçasındaki anahtar bir kelimeyi yakalayamadığımda, konuyu anlayamayacağımdan korkuyorum.	1	2	3	4	5

### 3. BÖLÜM: YABANCI DİL SINIFINDA TELAFFUZ KAYGISI ÖLÇEĞİ

- 1 = Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum  
2 = Katılmıyorum  
3 = Kısmen Katılmıyorum  
4 = Kısmen Katılıyorum  
5 = Katılıyorum  
6 = Kesinlikle Katılıyorum

						
						
						
1. İngilizce derslerinde genellikle kendimi rahat hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Sınıf ortamında İngilizce konuşmam istendiğinde kalp atışlarımın hızlandığını (ya da başka endişe belirtilerini) hissedebiliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. İngilizce bir metni yüksek sesle okumam istendiğinde utanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Konuşmanın az, yazmanın ise daha fazla olduğu derslerde (ör. dilbilgisi veya kelime ağırlıklı) kendimi daha rahat hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Derste öğretmenden sonra söyleneni tekrar etmem istendiğinde genellikle utanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Öğretmenin sorularına İngilizce cevap verirken öğretmenle göz temasından kaçınıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Telaffuzumu geliştirmeyi dilbilgisi ve kelime bilgimi geliştirmekten daha zor buluyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Telaffuzumun sınıf arkadaşlarıma oranla daha düşük seviyede olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. (th) ve (w) seslerini telaffuz ederken tuhaf/komik görünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. Öğretmenin telaffuza özel önem vermediği İngilizce derslerinde kendime daha çok güveniyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. İngilizce sesleri/kelimeleri Türk aksanıyla telaffuz ederken kendimi rahatsız hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. Yüksek sesle İngilizce bir metni okurken kendi sesimi duymaktan hoşlanmıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. İngilizce konuşurken doğal değilmişim gibi geliyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. Sınıf arkadaşlarımdan beni telaffuz hatası yaparken duymasını istemem.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. Bazı İngilizce kelimeler ağızdan tuhaf çıkıyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. Sınıf arkadaşlarımdan İngilizce telaffuzumu tuhaf ya da komik bulmalarından korkuyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6

17. Öğretmen derste telaffuz hatalarımı düzelttiğinde geriliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. Bazı İngilizce sesler bana tuhaf geliyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. İngilizce'nin telaffuzunun Türkler için zor olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. Başkalarının İngilizce telaffuzumu duydıklarında hakkımda ne düşünecekleri beni kaygılandırıyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. İngilizce telaffuzum kabul edilebilir düzeyde değildir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. Ders esnasında, İngilizce bir kelimeyi yanlış telaffuz etmem genellikle beni rahatsız ediyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. Bir telaffuz hatası yaptığımda geriliyor ve öğretmenden utanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24. Sınıfta diğer öğrencilerin beni dinlediğini bilmek beni geriyor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. Dilbilgisi veya kelime hatasından ziyade telaffuz hatası yaptığımda daha çok utanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Katılımınız için teşekkürler.

## Appendix H: Survey use permission correspondences



**Mehmet Kılıc**

You and Mehmet aren't connected on Facebook

Yardımcı Doçent Doktor at Gaziantep Üniversitesi  
Studied FLED at Boğaziçi University

WED 10:53 AM

Saygıdeğer hocam,  
Uludağ Üniversitesi İngiliz Dili Eğitimi bölümünde  
yüksek lisans yapmaktayım. 2007 yılında  
Türkçeleştirdiğiniz Yabancı Dilde Dinleme Kaygısı  
Ölçeğini tez araştırmamda kullanmak için izin  
istemek üzere ulaşmaktayım.  
Teşekkür eder çalışmalarınızda kolaylıklar dilerim.

WED 8:07 PM



Tabi ki

You can now call each other and see information like Active Status and when you've read messages.



Kolay gelsin



Oktay Yağız  
Alıcı: ben

18 Kasım Paz 01:23 ☆ ↩ ⋮

Ayhan bey,

İlginize teşekkür ederim, sormadan da kullanabilirsiniz atıf yaptıktan sonra. Telaffuz konusu çok önemli olmakla birlikte yaygın bir şekilde ihmal edilen bir saha, o yüzden bu alanda çalışmak size yeni pencereler açacaktır diye düşünüyorum. Baran-Lucarz ın "Conceptualizing and Measuring the Construct of Pronunciation Anxiety: Results of a Pilot Study" isimli makalesi için ben de kendisinden dil ve kültür adaptasyonunda kullanmak üzere izin istemiştim, kendisi de olumlu yanıt vererek çalışmanın yeni olduğunu ve farklı ortam ve dillerde de kullanılması gerektiğini söyleyerek çalışmamı desteklemişti. Yukarıda yazdığım makale **Classroom-Oriented Research Reconciling Theory and Practice** adlı kitabın 39. uncu sayfasında bulunuyor. (kitap internette de indiriliyormuş pdf halinde, okumanızı tavsiye ederim bir şekilde. burada da görüleceği üzere, ölçeğin son hali 40 maddeden oluşuyor, benim faktör analizi ve güvenilirlik süreçleri neticesinde Türk öğrencilerce pek anlamlı olmayan maddeleri (.30 altındaki maddeler) ölçmece arkadaşlara da danışarak çıkarmak zorunda kaldık ve makaledeki ekte gördüğünüz son hali geçerlik ve güvenilirlik açısından kabul edilir bir düzeye geldi. Ölçek 5 faktörden oluşuyor tüm süreçler sonunda elde ettiğimiz 25 maddelik ölçeğin 5 faktörlü madde dağılımı aşağıdaki şekilde:

RE: Workflow Notification - Contact **Nathan Pollock**

21 Ara 2018 13:41



Dear Ayhan, Thank you for your email. You may use that paper for research, however could I ask what sort of research this is? Kind Regards, Nathan Nathan Pollock

**Ayhan Bulut**

21 Ara 2018 13:52



Thanks for your reply and granting permission. The study will seek relations between listening comprehension skill and other variables, such as anxiety, time sp

**Nathan Pollock**

21 Ara 2018 14:26



That sounds like a very interesting study. We would be interested in the results once they are completed if possible. Kind Regards,

**Ayhan Bulut** <ayhan.bulut1989@gmail.com>

21 Ara 2018 15:16



Alic: Nathan

I will definitely inform you about the results as soon as I finish it.  
Thanks for your concern and help.  
With regards,

Ayhan

---

**From:** Nathan Pollock <nathan.pollock@anglia.org>**Sent:** Friday, December 21, 2018 2:26 PM**To:** 'Ayhan Bulut'

## Appendix I: Research permission document from Sakarya Governor Office

T.C.  
SAKARYA VALİLİĞİ  
İl Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü

Sayı : 29065503-44-E.7426172

11/04/2019

Konu: Anket Uygulaması Ayhan BULUT

### VALİLİK MAKAMINA

Bursa Uludağ Üniversitesi, Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı, yüksek lisans programı öğrencisi Ayhan BULUT'un tezi kapsamında "*Sesli Kitapların Kapsamlı Dinleme Stratejisi Olarak Kullanılmasının İngilizceyi Yabancı Dil Olarak Öğrenen Lise Öğrencilerinin Dinleme ve Telaffuz Becerilerine Etkisi*" konulu Araştırma talebi, adı geçen Üniversitenin 08.03.2019 tarihli ve 9080 sayılı yazıları ile bildirilmiştir.

Söz konusu anket çalışmasının, Akyazı Konuralp Anadolu Lisesi öğrencilerine, eğitim öğretimin aksamasına mahal vermeden gönüllülük esasına dayalı olarak, okul yönetiminin belirleyeceği zaman ve şartlarda 2018-2019 eğitim öğretim yılında uygulanması, çalışmada sadece ekteki mühürlü anket sorularının kullanılması ve yasal gerekliliğin ilgili okul müdürlüğüne yerine getirilmesi kaydıyla Müdürlüğümüzce uygun görülmektedir.

Makamlarınızca da uygun görülmesi halinde olurlarınıza arz ederim.

Fazilet DURMUŞ  
İl Milli Eğitim Müdürü

OLUR  
11/04/2019  
Abdul Rauf ULUSOY  
Vali a.  
Vali Yardımcısı

Resmî Daireler Kampüsü B Blok 54290 Adapazarı / SAKARYA  
Elektronik Ağ: <http://sakarya.meb.gov.tr>  
e-posta:

Ayrıntılı bilgi için: Hakan GÜL Memur  
Tel : (0 264) 251 36 14-15-16 Dahili:1231  
Faks: (0 264) 251 36 114

Bu evrak güvenli elektronik imza ile imzalanmıştır. <https://evraksorgu.meb.gov.tr> adresinden 19ad-2d06-32ba-ac3e-3dfb kodu ile teyit edilebilir.

## Appendix J: Research permission document from Institute of Education Sciences



T.C.  
BURSA ULUDAĞ ÜNİVERSİTESİ  
Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Müdürlüğü



Sayı: 20585590-302.14.02/530  
Konu: Ayhan BULUT'un Uygulama İzni

19/02/2019

### YABANCI DİLLER EĞİTİMİ ANABİLİM DALI BAŞKANLIĞINA

Anabilim Dalımız Yüksek Lisans öğrencisi Ayhan BULUT'un "Sesli Kitapların Kapsamlı Dinleme Stratejisi Olarak Kullanılmasının İngilizceyi Yabancı Dil Olarak Öğrenen Lise Öğrencilerinin Dinleme ve Telaffuz Becerilerine Etkisi" konulu tez çalışması Üniversitemiz Sosyal ve Beşeri Bilimler Araştırma ve Yayın Etik Kurulu'nca incelenmiş olup, alınan karar ekte gönderilmektedir.

Bilgilerinizi ve öğrenci ile danışmanı Doç.Dr.İlknur SAVAŞKAN'a bildirilmesi konusunda gereğini rica ederim.

Prof. Dr. Kazım YOLDAŞ  
Müdür

Ek :  
1-Yazı Aslı  
2-Karar Örneği (1 Sayfa)

*Bu Belge, 5070 sayılı Kanun hükümlerine uygun olarak elektronik imza ile imzalanmıştır.*

U.Ü. Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Görükle Kampusu 16059 Nilüfer/BURSA	Bilgi için: Ali ALKIŞ
Tel : 0224 2940975 Faks: 0224 2940975	Memur
e-posta : egtbil@uludag.edu.tr Elektronik Ağ: www.uludag.edu.tr	Tel : 0224 2942883

Bu belge UDOS ile hazırlanmıştır. Teyit için: [https://udos.uludag.edu.tr/teyit/?Tw\\_szc3CQkOPEQ\\_vMJoYew](https://udos.uludag.edu.tr/teyit/?Tw_szc3CQkOPEQ_vMJoYew)



## Appendix K: Detailed information about the audiobooks

<sup>#1</sup> *Information about the Audiobooks*

Audiobook Title	Author	Level	Word Count	Length of Audiobook
The Pit and the Pendulum	Edgar Allan Poe	Elementary	1284	17m
The Masque of the Red Death	Edgar Allan Poe	Elementary	666	9m
The Last Leaf	O. Henry	Elementary	754	13m
Five Children and It	E. Nesbit	Elementary	3478	55m
Down into the Maelstrom	Edgar Allan Poe	Elementary	1214	16m
Dracula	Bram Stoker	Pre-intermediate	6119	1h14m
Batman Begins	Goyer David	Pre-intermediate	4479	1h02m
The Call of the Wild	Jack London	Pre-intermediate	4727	56m

□

**Appendix L: Highest frequency words from audiobook scripts**

Words	Count of Occurrences	Frequency of Occurrences	Corpus of Contemporary American English Rank
said (say)	418	2%	19
then	203	1%	77
very	191	0.9%	105
went (go)	125	0.6%	35
man	122	0.6%	94
now	108	0.5%	1906
what	104	0.5%	34
day	100	0.5%	90
dog	95	0.5%	754
asked (ask)	89	0.4%	131
must	86	0.4%	224
saw (see)	84	0.4%	67
again	83	0.4%	184
back	81	0.4%	108
room	79	0.4%	228
houses	71	0.3%	258
see	70	0.3%	67
eyes	69	0.3%	243
terrible	67	0.3%	1958
time	65	0.3%	52
suddenly	63	0.3%	958
came (come)	61	0.3%	70
like	61	0.3%	208
ran (run)	61	0.3%	202
water	61	0.3%	227
away	60	0.3%	270
night	59	0.3%	209
old	59	0.3%	152
wanted (want)	59	0.3%	83
put	58	0.3%	151
red	58	0.3%	598
children (child)	56	0.3%	115
long	56	0.3%	255
knew (know)	55	0.3%	47
moved (move)	55	0.3%	207
well	54	0.3%	644
castle	53	0.3%	8973
found	52	0.2%	95
big	51	0.2%	162
people	51	0.2%	62
white	51	0.2%	302
door	50	0.2%	344
face	50	0.2%	331
slowly	50	0.2%	1226
around	49	0.2%	265

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blood	48	0.2%	693
something	48	0.2%	143
three	48	0.2%	135
black	47	0.2%	254
how	47	0.2%	76
professor	47	0.2%	828
were (be)	45	0.2%	2
thing	42	0.2%	97
when	42	0.2%	57
before	40	0.2%	220
inside	39	0.2%	967

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### Appendix M: Read-aloud pronunciation assessment sentences

Before Intervention	After Intervention
*The man saw a black castle and three old houses around it	*The old man moved slowly around the black castle and saw a big door
*He went inside a room slowly and asked the children how they were	*One day, he put something like a dog inside the room and then ran away
*Then professor found red blood on the door and his face went white	*Three children wanted to see the thing when they went to white houses
*Suddenly something like a big dog moved out of the water and ran away	*They must have found eyes in the water at night
*People wanted to see its terrible eyes	*Now, professor knew what people said about the red blood on his face very well
*When the day came he said he knew what he must do very well	*Suddenly, he came back again and asked how terrible they were before a long time
*Now it was time to put the thing back again before the long night	

### Appendix N: Data Collection Schedule

Procedure	Date/ Period
<b>Before Intervention</b>	
Collection of Informed Consent Forms	February 28- March 4
Informing the Learners about the Key Terminology of the Study	March 4-9
Pre-experiment Listening Comprehension Test	March 12
Pre-experiment Pronunciation Accuracy Test	March 22-24
Pre-experiment Anxiety Questionnaires	March 26
<b>Audiobooks Delivered to Students in Experimental Group</b>	
Five Children and It	April 6
The Last Leaf	April 13
The Pit and the Pendulum	April 20
Batman Begins	April 27
Down into the Maelstrom	May 4
Dracula	May 11
The Masque of the Red Death	May 18
Call of the Wild	May 25
<b>After Intervention</b>	
Post-experiment Listening Comprehension Test	May 28
Post-experiment Pronunciation Accuracy Test	May 30-31
Post-experiment Anxiety Questionnaires	May 31
Questionnaire for Learners' Opinions about Audiobooks	June 10-14

**CV**

**Doğum Yeri ve Yılı:** Antalya / 1989

**Öğrenim Gördüğü Kurumlar:**

Lise : Aksu Anadolu Öğretmen Lisesi, Antalya (2004-2008)

Lisans : Hacettepe Üniversitesi, ELT Bölümü, Ankara (2008-2013)

Yüksek Lisans: Uludağ Üniversitesi, ELT Bölümü, Bursa (2015-)

**Bildiği Yabancı Diller:** İngilizce

**Çalıştığı Kurumlar:**

Dokurcun Çok Programlı Anadolu Lisesi, Sakarya/ İngilizce Öğretmeni (2013-2018)

Konuralp Anadolu Lisesi, Sakarya/ İngilizce Öğretmeni (2018-Halen görev yapmaktadır)

## ULUDAĞ ÜNİVERSİTESİ

## TEZ ÇOĞALTMA VE ELEKTRONİK YAYIMLAMA İZİN FORMU

Yazar Adı Soyadı	Ayhan BULUT
Tez Adı	Sesli kitapların kapsamlı dinleme stratejisi olarak kullanılmasının İngilizce'yi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen lise öğrencilerinin dinleme ve telaffuz kaygısının yanısıra dinleme ve telaffuz becerilerine etkisi
Enstitü	Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü
Anabilim Dalı	Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı/ İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bilim Dalı
Tez Türü	Yüksek Lisans tezi
Tez Danışman(lar)ı	Doç. Dr. İlknur SAVAŞKAN
Çoğaltma (Fotokopi Çekim) izni	<input type="checkbox"/> Tezimden fotokopi çekilmesine izin veriyorum <input type="checkbox"/> Tezimin sadece içindekiler, özet, kaynakça ve içeriğinin % 10 bölümünün fotokopi çekilmesine izin veriyorum <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Tezimden fotokopi çekilmesine izin vermiyorum
Yayımlama izni	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Tezimin elektronik ortamda yayımlanmasına izin veriyorum

Hazırlamış olduğum tezimden belirttiğim hususlar dikkate alınarak, fikri mülkiyet haklarım saklı kalmak üzere Uludağ Üniversitesi Kütüphane ve Dokümantasyon Daire Başkanlığı tarafından hizmete sunulmasına izin verdiğimi beyan ederim.

Tarih : 07.08.2019  
İmza : 