



**THE EFFECT OF TECHNOLOGY-BASED MATERIALS ON
VOCATIONAL HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS' LISTENING SKILL**

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ÖZ

Dinleme, günlük iletişimde ve eğitim sürecinde önemli bir role sahiptir. Bunun yanı sıra, pek çok eğitimci tarafından özgün materyallerin yabancı dil eğitiminde etkili kaynaklar olduğu düşünülmektedir. Buradan yola çıkarak çalışma, özgün materyallerin EFL sınıflarında öğrencinin dinleme yeteneği üzerindeki etkisini incelemeyi ve öğrencilerin ve öğretmenlerin dinleme aktivitelerinde teknoloji tabanlı özgün materyal kullanımı hakkındaki algılarını ortaya çıkarmayı amaçlamaktadır. Çalışmada, karma araştırma yöntemi benimsenmiştir. Türkiye’de bir meslek yüksekokulunda öğrenim gören 176 öğrencinin katılımcı ile yürütülen bu çalışmada, öntest ve sontest sonuçları ile nicel veriler elde edilirken, öğretmenlerin ve öğrencilerin teknoloji temelli özgün materyal kullanımıyla ilgili algılarını öğrenmek amacıyla yapılan yarı yapılandırılmış görüşmelerden nitel veriler elde edilmiştir. Nicel verilerin istatistiksel analizleri SPSS 25 programı üzerinden incelenmiş, nitel verilerin analizinde içerik analizi kullanılmıştır. Sonuçlar, hem teknoloji tabanlı özgün materyallerin hem de ders kitabı tabanlı materyallerin dinleme becerisinin geliştirilmesinde etkili olduğunu göstermiştir. Fakat, teknoloji tabanlı otantik materyallerin nicel sonuçlarda ders kitabı tabanlı materyallerine göre az farkla daha etkili olduğu görülmüştür. Görüşmelerden elde edilen sonuçlar ise, katılımcıların çoğunun teknoloji tabanlı otantik materyalleri daha çok tercih ettiğini ve bunları kullanırken öğrencilerin daha motive olduğunu düşündüklerini göstermektedir.



Anahtar Kelimeler : Dinleme anlama becerisi, web 2.0 araçları, özgün materyal, ders kitabı tabanlı materyal

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ABSTRACT

There is an assumption that technology-based materials are acquisition-rich input, and listening plays a significant role in daily communication as well as the education process. This study aims to examine the effect of technology-based materials on the student's listening ability in EFL classes and elicit students' and teachers' perceptions about the use of technology-based materials for the development of listening skills. In the current study, a mixed-methods research design was adopted. Quantitative data was gathered through pre and posttest results with the participation of 168 pre-advanced English students studying in a vocational high school in Turkey. Qualitative data were obtained from the semi-structured interviews conducted at the end of implementation to identify the teachers' and students' perceptions about the use of technology-based materials. The quantitative data were examined through statistical analyses via SPSS 25, and content analysis was employed to analyze the qualitative data. The results indicated that both technology-based materials and textbook-based materials helped listening skill development. Technology-based materials proved to be slightly more effective than textbook-based materials in quantitative results. Moreover, this study also shows that most of the respondents preferred technology-based materials over textbook-based materials and were motivated in the classroom when using them.



Key Words : Listening comprehension skill, web 2.0 tools, technology-based material,
textbook-based material

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This chapter lays the groundwork for the following sections by providing the overall information about the thesis and outlining the thesis plan. The chapter has been divided into three parts. The first part deals with the background of the study. Then, the aim of the study is presented along with the problem statements and expectations from the study. Lastly, the findings and the significance of this study to the subject area are discussed.

1.1. Background of the Study

Teaching languages has long been a question of great interest in a wide range of fields from psychology to neurology. Especially, teaching languages to people living in a community in which the target language is not spoken on a daily basis is at the heart of continuing concern within the field of English as a Foreign Language (EFL).

Unlike other teaching domains like history or math, language teaching has undergone many changes with diverse lecturing methods. In math or other quantitative sciences, the methods are relatively the same: ‘present, practice, and produce’ circle. However, the situation is entirely different in the ELT field. Throughout its 300 years of history, ELT has adopted a plethora of teaching methods and approaches such as grammar-translation method, audio-lingual method, silent method, community teaching method, communicative teaching method, task-based approach etc. Without a shadow of a doubt, the most significant change has come out following the emergence of technology integration into language classrooms. Some scholars called these new types of language classrooms as ‘language laboratories.’ In this respect, it is essential to explain the effect of technology integration on language learning and its approaches. Particularly, the importance attributed to one of the most critical skills, listening skills, remains incapable in all these approaches. When more closely analyzed,

many language teaching models are scarcely allocated for listening activities, and listening skill development is still questionable. The present research set out to unravel the EFL learners' one of the biggest communicational problems: listening comprehension skill development and to seek a solution for it. In this part, the historical developments of English Language Teaching (ELT) methods and the background information about the field are going to be clarified.

At the early stages of ELT, a static flow of lessons could be seen while it is unlikely for today's dynamic classes. According to Moore, language teaching history dates back to the 1700s. (Moore,2013) At that time of the 18th century, English gained importance when the British Empire had started to prosper.

An arousing need for communication with world nations had compelled people to learn English efficiently. According to Thanasouls (2011), the first appearance of the language teaching method was full of grammatical rule dictation, memorization of new vocabulary, sentence structures, and translation of texts. This method is also known as the classical method. Towards the end of the 19th century, linguists renamed this method as the Grammar Translation Method (GTM). The aforementioned approach attached priority to reading and writing rather than daily communicative skills: listening and speaking. The initial aim of language education was to read and comprehend the statements on the commercial and political messages. In the beginnings of the 20th century, the Direct Method (DM) was proposed by Charles Berlitz (Thanasouls, 2011). This method defended teaching through using the language within a context and in a natural implicit way instead of translation of literary texts and interpretation of grammatical structures.

For a long time, DM stayed at the dominant position in language teaching contexts as it gives priority to the usage of English. Thus, people can observe the reflection of language in their lives, which was compulsory at that time. However, still, DM had some failures which were welded from the practicality problems, and some alternative methods came out. The Russian psychiatrist and educator Georgi Lazanov (1979) put forward the 'suggestopedia' method for relaxation to acquire the language. The learner is provided with the most relaxed situation in the learning context, and many scholars supported that the learner could become 'suggestible' only if this context was supplied (Thanasouls, 2011). Subsequently, Silent Method started to be used to improve problem-solving skills when a task is assigned to learners; teachers stay silent and do not utter any guiding statements to students. In contrast,

learners should cooperate and solve the task. During that time, the Audio-Lingual Method (ALM) -army method- was adopted. It was a quick method to learn languages and to help soldiers to seem like native speakers. Drilling technique, which includes excessive repetition in the pathway of education, was used. The emergence of ALM also coincided with the rise of behavioristic theory in educational contexts. The school of behaviourism aroused at those times. Soon afterwards, communicative language teaching (CLT) appeared as an opponent to behaviourism. CLT method is primarily dealing with the communicative function of the language. Communicative competence accompanied by practical and usage of language is one of the most outstanding features of CLT (Thanasouls, 2011). When we get closer to the millennium years, language teaching methods have evolved to mixed methods. This era is also called the 'post-method era' signifying the term after the dominance of any techniques. With this era, language teachers started to combine several methods in one class in accordance with the learner's needs such as passing an exam, getting a license degree, conducting trade and work agreements, etc.

There was a time when people utilized technology only for insignificant purposes; however, nowadays, the domination of technology pervades many domains. It has started to lead the daily lives of society so immensely that people have begun to change their thinking styles, understandings, and processing ways. Nowadays, it is impossible to dial a fried without the help of a smart phone's directory. This vast social upheaval touched upon also the way language is taught by renovating and modernizing the language teaching atmosphere. Three hundred years of ELT history has been revolutionized since the technology intervened in the discipline of language teaching. Many methods, techniques, and approaches have undergone some alterations through the years to be able to meet the changing needs of the learners. It is such a change that was applying digital materials in the class are accepted as usual (Bax, 2011). When a random language class is analyzed, language teachers have started to combine traditional lecturing flow with the new applications available on computers and the internet. The situation is in the way of turning a necessity as people cannot survive without handling the technology in language learning processes. Here, a new stage for ELT has started. In this modern era, devices are used prominently by creating enjoyable learning atmospheres, activities, and fruitful tools. The implementation conducted in this study takes its roots from technology use in language education and seeks an answer for issues like efficiency.

With the technology arousal, a new method named Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) has started to be used since the 1980s, and now it changes its face to Information

and Communication Technology or what is known as ICT. CALL also has another transition to Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL) with remarkable developments in the mobile industry. In both ways, numerous applications and tools embrace learners, and they make the learning process less agonized. The tools or applications are generally designed in a way that cheers the learners and motivates them to learn. Just for the same reason, digital video games have been started to be used in the teaching language process. Many teenagers express the cruciality of video games in developing their vocabulary knowledge. The vast interest growing specifically for the digital platforms also encouraged the developers and producers. A considerable influx and bombardment of new tools were an inescapable end. Now, it has not got an end; the growth of the era continues. A wide range of different tools is still in use. Each tool is good for one, two, or three skills at the same time. As an example for that: online dictionaries, Edmodo, Microsoft office and translators are suitable for writing skills; Facebook, blogs, interactive books are suitable for developing reading skills; Voki, Cambly, Skype are useful tools for developing speaking skills; YouTube, Lyrics Training, Voscreen are useful tools for developing listening skills.

Being aware of the vast importance of technology on language teaching, the present study aims to evaluate the efficiency of using technology in developing listening skills in this study. While doing that, a compulsory function of listening skill is emphasized; to communicate with people and understand what is said under the circumstances of the given contexts resembling real communication dialogues. Effective listening is achieved by making use of authentic audios which are produced in the target language without educational intentions or concerns. These include genuine conversations, songs, and short cuts from various films. Being one of the core units of the language, listening is at the vital position of both communication types: daily life and academic contexts. Listening skill development is necessary for English as a Foreign Language (EFL) education to suitably communicate with others. That is why, the critical aspect of the present study is selected as listening skill. The research includes an implementation in which the experimental group and control group are exposed to two different types of materials for the twelve-week semester. In the experimental group, a specially designed lesson plan applying Web 2.0 tools are used. The web-tools that are used in the study (YouTube, Lyrics Training, Voscreen) are a selection from a variety of counterparts. Another focal point of interest in this study is authentic material usage. With the authentic materials explicitly produced for the sake of language education, EFL learners can experience the real language used outside of the

language class. To elaborate, the primary scope of this study is to detect if there is a significant difference between practicing listening with technology-based materials and textbook-based materials on the development of vocational high school students' listening skills. It is also intended to explore the participant students and instructors' perceptions about the usage of technology-based materials in listening activities. Despite this research not being based on a representative sample, it is to be hoped that some of the findings from this research may apply to EFL listening activities conducted in other vocational high schools in Turkey.

The findings of this study can help language learners, teachers, and organizations, in general, to better understand the effect of technology-based listening materials usage. Furthermore, insights into this can help provide teachers with a theory-supported pedagogical model for how they should design listening tasks to help students and how they should choose useful listening materials for classroom use. In addition to this, it can provide organizations insights on how to design more effective listening skill development processes for students. Shortly, the primary benefit of this study is assumed to be highlighting the efficiency of modern educational methods like technology integration in the classroom and also assessing the technology-based materials' effectiveness.

The remaining part of this thesis proceeds as in five chapters. The first chapter introduces the scope of the study. The second chapter is dedicated to a review of the literature part. Existing literature on language skills in general, listening skills, the most common listening problems among EFL learners, and technology use in listening skill development are the main issues addressed. Chapter three begins by laying out methodology of the study, and looks at how the data collection and analysis procedures are operationalized. In the fourth chapter, which is the results part, the findings of the study are presented. The fifth chapter, which is the discussion part, is concerned with the findings of the study with an argumentative manner. Finally, the research is summarized, and conclusions are drawn.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

As being one of the core units of the language, listening has a crucial role both in the daily flow of life and in academic contexts. Listening means understanding incoming stimuli and perceiving the information. However, Turkish EFL learners face severe troubles in listening comprehension. Despite its significance and struggle the learners experiencing, listening has

been continuing to be a neglected skill in Turkish EFL contexts. The biggest problem occurs as a result of insufficient exposure to the target language. English has been taught since the 4th grade in Turkish primary schools. In 2013, the English Language Teaching program was started to be applied at an earlier grade, which is 2nd grade. Despite long years of language education, students somehow reach a success level on paper, but they still cannot communicate in the desired way, even in the most straightforward conversations. Only if going abroad and exposing to the target language can students enhance their communicative skills (Kızıldağ, 2009). There are many possible reasons for it such as the students' readiness, learning experience, motivation, curriculum, teaching methods, and teaching materials. Considering the situation mentioned above, it can be concluded that learning and teaching English in Turkey is compulsory. In this English learning and teaching context, teaching aids, i.e., materials, are one of the most critical factors. In all grades of schools, the materials and aids used in the language teaching process are crucial because learners will experience the language with those materials, and that will shape their impressions of English. For that reason, the materials that are used in language classes must be a good representative of real-life English usage. The easiest way to create a real communicative atmosphere in language classes is to use authentic materials in the classroom activities. By adopting authentic materials, the time spent on real communication situations increases, and learners have the opportunity of being exposed to the original language.

With the enhancements in language learning facilities of the technological era, there are numerous ways for integrating different types of materials into class and developing learners' listening skills in various ways. Technology, basically web tools, provides numerous opportunities. These opportunities can be counted as fruitful both for learners and teachers. For the learners who live in an environment where English is not spoken officially, there is a great variety of applications to practice speaking and listening with the native speakers of English. From the teachers' aspect, there are also a considerable number of applications to enrich the lessons and meet all of the learners' needs no matter what learning style they have. Teachers also make use of these applications to connect the lesson and real life. With the help of these applications, the lesson does not end at the class, continues outside the class in many contexts; at home, at a café, at the bus, and in other places. Moreover, these applications address many skills, maybe one or more than one skill at one time, during the teaching process. When the Turkish context in vocational high schools is analyzed, it is observed that technology is used too inadequately to cope with the era's needs

efficiently. If the integration of some technological tools into classes is considered, these schools pace a step behind the average pace of other schools in Turkey.

Together with this, the Turkish language education system also lacks an efficient methodology for skill training. Mostly, educational foundations and schools prefer curricula that focus on grammar and vocabulary competence; in other words, language literacy initially. However, enough care is not attributed to communicative skills: speaking and listening. In the educational goals of many language institutions in Turkey, speaking and listening are generally background skills that learners are not expected to develop. Thus, many of the learners prefer focusing on grammatical competence as the easiest way to pass their English courses. Hence, a huge communication problem arises in learners' real-life communications in the target language. Vocational schools are let alone, and also in language teacher education programs, students have difficulty in communicative skills. This study is set out to find a solution to that problem not from all aspects but with a limited opportunity for developing listening comprehension skills of the vocational high school learners. From a general point of view, the language education system has many failures in the Turkish context. The main reason for choosing this topic is to solve these problems and to be more specific listening skills problems of vocational high school students.

The underlying reason behind Turkish students' communication skills inability is the lack of practice. Learners do not have an opportunity to use language in their environment, or they do not listen to the original language from native speakers at an appropriate frequency. These are essential skills in language education. The main aim of teaching a language is to train learners with adequate skills to use language in real contexts. From this aspect, listening has an essential place in both daily life and academic contexts. Without listening, a connection with the environment cannot be built. According to some linguists, language can be best learned via being exposed to it and using it. Starting from this point, without exposing learners to genuine speaking dialogues with native speakers of the target language, their listening skills do not proceed. However, today in the Turkish context, most of the course materials are filled with materials that are not genuine.

With the excessive influx of learning English, linguists developed materials for people all over the world. Those materials are produced for educational purposes solely. The most outstanding features of these materials are being slower than the actual speed of the dialogues, containing limited structures and vocabulary accordingly with the learner's level, longer pauses between the speeches, long pauses between the syllabuses. Those features

make the textbook-based materials less representative of the real-life language. Thus, the learners can get baffled when they face the real language in the streets, videos, and films. Most probably, they have difficulty in recognizing words. In return, comprehension of statements becomes difficult. To eliminate this problem, linguists and language teachers constructed a new tradition of adopting authentic materials in the lessons. This movement got its sources from the view that suggests the sooner student faces with the original language, the higher communicative competence level they can attain. So, they prefer using materials that are not produced for the sake of education. They prefer using genuine materials extracted from the daily lives of native speakers; books, magazines, newspapers, law scripts, films, songs. This view was accepted by a large group of educators and linguists, but still there some other educators who use the textbook-based materials in their lessons. The main argument of textbook-based material proponents is that these materials are not practical for use. For most of the low proficiency level students, these materials can be above their proficiency level. All in all, this study aims to enhance the time spent on technology-based material usage in vocational high school English lessons. This prospective study is designed to investigate technology-based materials' efficiency on vocational school students' listening success and then collect the ideas of participants and instructors about their experience in the implementation process.

1.3. Aim of the Study

This study was designed to investigate the efficiency of technology-based materials on listening success. The study addresses Turkish language learners' inadequacies in communicating with the natives of English and aims to solve that problem. The detected communication breakdown is assumed to be because of the lack of listening comprehension skills and fluency in speech. Also, inadequate opportunities to reach the technology-based materials courses are counted as the other source of the learners' communicational problems. The abovementioned factors are tried to be eliminated in this study with a suggested lesson plan outline.

By applying those materials, the present study seeks answers for the following questions:

1. Is there a significant difference between the listening skills of the participants before and after the implementation process?

2. What are the perceptions of the participants about the technology-based materials for the development of listening skills?
3. What are the perceptions of the participating instructors about the technology-based materials for the development of listening skills?

1.4. Significance of the Study

Studies that have been done about listening skills in ELT education already showed the importance of listening skills not only for academic purposes but also daily life occasions. Since listening has such importance in the foreign language education process, knowing alternative ways for how listening skills can be developed and eliciting participants' ideas about the new ways are essential. Furthermore, it is also vital to know what teachers think about different listening methods.

Technology usage in ELT courses is a much-debated subject, and there are lots of publications, many research studies, and various congresses on this topic. The most important reason for that interest in technology is because of the fact that it can remarkably change the way techniques are applied in English language courses. Another dimension of the study is that it provides new insights into listening skill development in Turkish language teaching programs. For the listening skill development, many contributions are going to be made by this study as it tries to bring novelty to the classical language course in Turkey in terms of physical context and material types. The study deals with the physical context as it renovates the way materials are used in an ordinary classroom. Some technological tools are integrated into the classroom. Secondly, the material type is changed with the replacement of technology-based materials. Up to now, in many education programs in Turkey, the use of technology-based materials has not been supported. Hence, the findings should make an essential contribution to the field of English Language Teaching.

Previous studies about technology usage in 21st century classes demonstrated that the technology-enhanced teaching environment is more fruitful than a lecture-based classroom. Since catching up on the era's requirements is very vital, developing studies about the different sides of the story is necessary. The reason why this study is critical is the shortage of studies about integrating web 2.0 tools in the listening activities in Turkish EFL context. Despite some existent studies, none of these is about the technology-based and technology-

based materials usage in class. For that reason, additional research was needed to clarify the relation of these factors with the listening skill development.

Many linguists stated that there are more non-native speakers than native speakers of English in the world now. One of the main reasons behind non-native speakers' increase is the rapid development of technology. Enhanced opportunities to reach native sources and materials accelerated the expanding ratio of people learning English. From this point of view, this study sheds a light on a new pathway to a much-debated topic with technology-based materials integration. Furthermore, it is vital to know what teachers and students think about technology-based materials. With the semi-structured interviews, this study aims to clarify teachers' and students' perceptions about the implementation. In an ordinary EFL context, the learners are going through an education that lacks real practice with natives. As so, in the Turkish educational context, the situation of reaching technology-based materials is not much observed. The amount of technology-based material usage in extensive listening is dependent on the learner. It changes by the learner's enthusiasm. Generally, teachers do not allocate time for technology-based materials in the English courses, and they follow the textbook-based materials created for the syllabus in many educational contexts from high school to university. The sole aim behind that is to keep up with the syllabus determined by the Ministry of National Education (MEB). In the abovementioned context, educational activities are conducted to be able to catch the syllabus steps; if not, teachers get behind with the pace of education, and that, in return, causes lower points in high stakes exams.

In conclusion, this study can be very beneficial to explore the effect of using technology-based materials on listening skill development. This research is possibly among the first examples of research that has an experimental and qualitative design intricately.

1.5. Assumptions

1. All the students and teachers in the study participates in the study willingly, honestly, voluntarily, and with full motivation.
2. The methods are appropriate for gathering data on the relation between the technology, web 2.0 tools, and technology-based materials usage in the listening skill development in the Turkish EFL context.
3. All participant students are at the same proficiency level in English.
4. The pre-listening test measures the students' level of listening comprehension skills.

5. The post-listening test measures the students' endpoint level at listening comprehension skill; thus, it measures the effect of technology-based materials and technology usage on listening skill development.
6. Activities and materials in lesson plans are suitable for the students' level.
7. The lesson plan, which is designed for the experimental group, tests similar skills with the course book's lesson plan.
8. Semi-structured interview questions are appropriate to clarify participants' perceptions about their experiences in this study.

1.6. Limitations

All studies contain erroneous points in it; nobody can say there is a flawless study on earth. Some assumptions about the operation of the study are listed before; however, there may be other criteria that can reduce the validity and reliability of the study. Those limitations are listed below:

1. The participants of this study are only limited to EFL first-year students and teachers at a vocational high school in the Turkish context. For this reason, findings cannot be generalized to all EFL contexts in Turkey.
2. Another limitation is the number of participants. The number of participants is bounded by the present vocational high school's freshman students.
3. The results may not be generalized to all-time spans as it is conducted in the 2019-2020 academic year.
4. The experimental process of the study lasts a full term. Thus, teachers can be reluctant or bored to apply technology-based materials and may not operate the activities efficiently.

1.7. Definitions

Listening comprehension skill: Vandergrift (2006) specifies it as “a complex, active process in which the listener must discriminate between sounds, understand vocabulary and grammatical structures, interpret stress and intonation, retain what was gathered in all of the above, and interpret it within the immediate as well as the larger sociocultural context of the utterance” (p. 168)

Web 2.0 tools: A variety of websites and applications that allow anyone to create and share online information or material they have created.

Technology-based material: Listening materials that are conveyed to students via some Web 2.0 tools.

Textbook-based material: “Fabricated materials which are designed for foreign speakers; they are not real texts; designed for language students” (Harmer, 2018).



CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter gives some insights into listening comprehension skills and listening material types in order to present the background of the study. A more detailed look at each concept is included under each heading.

This study takes its source from the theoretical frameworks of necessary language skills, language acquisition theories, listening comprehension skills, brain processes in listening skills, and instructional methodology. In this chapter, these frameworks are eliminated. Related studies are presented under these titles: Basic Language Skills in Language Competency, Language Acquisition Theories, Stages of Second Language Development, Listening Comprehension Skill in EFL, Hearing vs. Listening, Importance of Listening, Listening Process, Listening Comprehension Models, Factors Influencing Listening Comprehension, Most Common Listening Comprehension Problems, Building Listening Comprehension Skill in EFL, Use of Materials in Listening Skill Development Process, Use of Technology in Language Teaching, Web-Based Language Teaching and Learning, Web 2.0 Tools and Foreign Language Education, Advantages and Disadvantages of Web 2.0 Technologies, Recommendations for the Successful Integration of Technology, Theoretical Background for the Use of Web 2.0 Tools in FLE.

2.1. Basic Language Skills in Language Competency

Speaking, listening, reading, and writing abilities are the four primary skills that are expected to be met by a language learner to be counted as an efficient language speaker. As for pre-written times, only speaking and listening is enough to know a language; however, in today's world, other competencies are also required to be counted as a language speaker. Studies

regarding the Internet supports for second language teaching and learning have also been focused on one or more of the four skills.

Developing a language requires giving equal importance to each skill and improve them to the utmost degree. As in daily communication and academic contexts, lots of challenging occasions can emerge. This is the case specifically in any academic contexts. For a learner be competent in academic English he/she should be competent at developing the specialized language and choosing the right vocabulary relevant to the subject, understanding and making the most effective use of the study materials, writing well-structured and coherent essays, communicating their needs to the supervisors, interpreting assignment works and selecting the appropriate material for the work and working productively and cooperatively with peers. On the same issue, Aydogan, (2014, p. 672) stated his ideas as: “English is not the medium of instruction except for some private and State universities with some certain percentages. Therefore, many students do not have sufficient language skills to comprehend lectures, textbooks, and take part in discussions, or generate satisfactory written work where they are the share memorizers of rules and instructions.”

Language skills are commonly accepted in two dimensions: macro skills and micro-skills. Macro skills can be sorted as speaking, listening, reading, and writing. The micro-skills can be sorted as grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and spelling. Scholars who are studying in the EFL field accept the macro skills as the initially essential skills to teach. According to them, four macro skills are connected and thus cannot be separated in the teaching process. They are connected in two ways, which are classified as receptive skills and productive skills. Listening and reading are receptive skills where communicators do not pay any effort to produce. Moreover, the way those skills are used also creates a distinction, if they are produced orally or in written form. Listening and speaking are oral skills, while reading and writing are written skills.

Several theories exist about how to involve language skills in the language education process. As an example, whole-language theorists harshly suggest that each skill of the language is related to each other and thus all skills are intertwined. They further assert that in language classrooms, learners should be provided with the opportunity to experience and use all macro language skills at the same time via a content in which a meaningful, practicable, and cooperative activities are conducted (Taylor, 2007). These activities should appeal to learners’ areas of interest, and the central topics that they include should be linked with their background knowledge (Freeman and Freeman, 2011).

The skills-based approach attributes the same rate of importance for each language skill. This skills-based approach takes its roots from behavioural psychology, as Abdel-Salam El-Koumy (2002) said. It has some principles that constitute the basics, which can be counted as; the whole is equally important as its parts; spoken and written languages are different; oral language acquisition comes before the literacy; language learning is teacher-directed and fact-oriented; students' errors are not welcomed and should be eliminated. Starting from these points, proponents of the skills-based approach accept language as a continuum created by separate skills. Each skill is divided into fragments and thus it is assembled from subskills. These subskills are to be equally taught in the correct order. Furthermore, the assessment should include all skills discretely. Though recently emergence of several diverse teaching methodologies, no single methodology is chosen to be the one most adequately addressing the needs of all English-language students. Each one offers different qualities, and they attract different practitioners. Not all practitioners come to a common point on the best teaching method. On the contrary, according to Wilhoit (1994), a skillfully combined method integrates the essential points of each method, which can complement one another, together shaping a cohesive, pragmatic, and favourably motivational teaching strategy.

2.1.1. Listening

Listening comprehension skills is an abounding part of the language upon which we should go through in all details. Peköz (2009) stated that “listening cannot be separated from the expressive aspects of oral communication. It is impossible to "teach listening" separately from speaking or set aside a portion of the instructional time for listening instruction and ignore it the rest of the time. Listening is as much a part of group discussions, dramatic play, or puppetry, for example, as the dialogues and actions created. When children develop their communicative powers, they also develop their ability to listen to valuably and receptively.” (p.70). Richards (1983, cited in Omaggio, 1986, p. 126) claims that there are some micro-skills that a learner should have to be able to understand the messages in a regular communication cycle. “The listener must retain chunks of language in short-term memory, discriminate among the distinctive sounds in the new language, recognize stress and rhythm patterns, tone patterns, and intonational contours, recognize reduced forms of words, distinguish word boundaries, recognize typical word-order patterns, recognize vocabulary, detect keywords, such as those identifying topics and ideas, guess the meaning from context, recognize grammatical word classes, recognize basic syntactic patterns, recognize cohesive

devices, and detect sentence constituents, such as subject, verb, object, prepositions.” (Richards, 1983 as cited in Omaggio, 1986, p. 126)

The importance of listening in daily communicational cycles has been proved by many studies. As Renukadevi (2014) stated: “Listening, the fundamental language skill, is consistently interrelated and intervened with the other language skills-speaking, reading, writing.” (Renukadevi, 2014, p. 1). According to Seferoğlu and Uzakgöre (2004), listening is generally an interactive process” (p. 2). The language users do not only listen but give oral and nonoral responses. When a new language is acquired, the listening skill must be developed first as it is a receptive skill. This macro skill firstly develops in humans; other skills are successive ones. In other words, humans can acquire pronunciation, vocabulary, syntax, stress patterns, and the conveyed message only through listening skills.

2.1.2. Speaking

Another part of language which is accepted as the productive and communicative skill is speaking. In real-life communication, all language skills are used to a specific extent. In this cycle, speaking can be regarded as the most critical skill in many societies. For example, in Turkish society, what a language learner is mainly expected to accomplish is to speak in the target language. Likewise, being competent in a language is associated with the speech competency in that language. Differing ideas exist about the order of different skills development. Some scholars believe that listening and speaking consequently occur, whereas the opposing view holds co-occurrence of speaking and listening skills. According to Tavil (2010), speaking and listening co-occur in daily life. When people try to learn a language, they generally desire to be able to communicate in this language. Raimes (2014) stated that “Listening and speaking are, regardless of the people using it, at least as important as the other skills to communicate.” Another common notion about speaking is that it is a skill that an individual cannot develop without acquiring listening skill and compiling some information about speaking features initially. There should be some input before producing an output. In other words, learners must crawl before they manage to walk. Here, it can be put in that way; the use of any skill can entirely naturally lead to the use of others, like in the example of listening and speaking.

In a normal communication cycle, a speaker should understand the message and respond suitably so that healthy communication is created. On that issue, Dell Hymes (1971) defined communication in terms of competency. According to him, communicative competence

refers to the language user's grammatical knowledge of syntax, phonology, morphology, as well as social knowledge about how and when to use language correctly. Communicative competence can be accepted as the proof of the language knowledge of the speaker, in other words describing what a language user knows.

An enumerable number of difficulties exist in conducting speaking activities at the foreign language education classes. The biggest problem is learners' lack of willingness towards speaking activities. Many language learners in the Turkish EFL context do not voluntarily engage in speaking activities in their lessons. When some competitor activities are integrated, learners might display more willingness in order to achieve success in such activities. Within this framework, listening and speaking skills should not be regarded discretely.

2.1.3. Reading

Reading is the second receptive skill that is acquired through education in written texts. The acquisition of reading develops distinctly from listening and speaking skills. However, it is linked with other skills such as writing as a macro skill and vocabulary and grammar as micro-skills. Aydoğan (2014) also assume that if a speaker is living in a society that has highly developed literary traditions, his/her reading skill also develops along with listening and speaking skills' developmental process. Reading can accelerate the time spent on vocabulary knowledge construction. Furthermore, in turn, that will help developing listening comprehension at the later stages of language proficiency, especially.

Another critical issue about reading is its relationship with other competencies, such as vocabulary competency. Research has proved that there is a correlativity between word knowledge and reading comprehension (Hoover and Gough, 1990); and that when L2 readers' vocabulary is improved, their reading comprehension is also improved (Pressley, 2012).

2.1.4. Writing

Much like listening and speaking skills, reading, and writing skills are accepted as interrelated. Writing is a productive skill in written mode. Like listening skill writing is also more complicated than it seems at first, and often seems to be the hardest of the skills, even for native speakers of a language, since it involves not just a graphic representation of

speech, but the development and presentation of thoughts in a structured way. When the listening and writing skills are compared, it can be clearly seen that writing appears later than listening in a language development process. The basement of the language is a good metaphor for listening skill. Without having sufficient listening stimuli, a proper language is not expected. This is one of the reasons why the present study is built on listening skill comprehension.

2.2. Language Acquisition Theories

Language acquisition has continued to be an argumentative topic in the EFL field since English has become a lingua franca in the 1800s; yet, a variety of confusing and conflicting concepts still exist. The generalizability of much-published research on this issue is problematic. Moreover, the academic literature on language acquisition has revealed the emergence of several primary schools of thought for the process of acquiring language. In his work, Brown (2000) classified these primary schools of thoughts under three categories: behaviourism (or structuralism), rationalism and cognitive psychology, and constructivism (Brown, 2000).

In the ELT field, the behaviourist thought of school has, in a sense, become synonymous with B. F. Skinner, who is the most well-known scholar at the topic. From his point of view, language can be acquired through some intentional contingencies of reinforcement. Getting feedbacks accordingly with the target language utterances makes the learners more integrated into the language, in support of which Skinner maintained his theory by arguing that some other higher-order thinking skills like critical thinking could also be developed in this way by installing chains of behaviour in learners' minds through some replicated exercises and reinforcement. The reinforcement can be conducted in three ways; positive, negative, and punishment (Skinner, 1978). The supporters of the behaviourist thought of school also argue that language can be acquired via imitating the things they hear, and they can develop habits in the foreign language by routine practice.

Based on this notion, language curricula have been developed. Most parts of these curricula are divided into drilling and practice activities. They include positive reinforcement practices like funny graphics for the right answers and the negative items for the wrong answers. However, as time passed, the applicability of this teaching style had started to be disputed as mere imitation can cause defects in real communication at times. This type of curricula turned out to be insufficiency over their incapability in real language situations.

When it comes to other theories about language acquisition, two dominant thoughts tend to collide with each other. The inadequacies of the behaviourist view make cognitive psychology to evolve as a reaction to it. Arguments claimed by two well-known scholars Chomsky (2006) for cognitivism and Skinner (1978) for behaviourism contradict with each other. According to Chomsky (2006), in order for acquiring a language, infants are not necessarily exposed to the language; however, Skinner (1978) suggests the opposite view, advocating the necessity of environmental language exposition. In contrast, Chomsky (2006) argued that children do not have to be exposed to prior listening input to learn and use the language. He commenced his arguments by reducing the importance attributed to reinforcement in language acquisition. According to him, children can acquire the language independently from those methods; they have an innate faculty to be able to acquire language. This innate faculty is known as the basics of the nativist theory. Unlike other acquisition theories, nativism advocates the power of the innate mechanism in the language learning process, even in the contexts that lack environmental stimuli. In other words, children can acquire a language without having exposed to efficient language practice or observations. It is assumed that second language learners creatively use their skills of cognition to figure out the target language rules themselves. When they notice a pattern, they construct their own rules in accordance with these repeated patterns. The mechanism functions this way; going back and changing the rules when a flaw is detected (Ertmer & Newby, 1996). Thus, errors are assumed to be beneficial. Moreover, in his later studies, Chomsky (2006) stated that: "We have a built-in structure which makes this language acquisition possible" (p. 167). The name he coined for this innate ability was the Language Acquisition Device (LAD), some disputes over which still continue.

The cognitive theory applies to the processes of human thought development, and hence, the main aim is to identify the way people understand and reconstruct knowledge upon consulting to the background information they had in their minds. This theory disaffirms the necessity to teach grammatical order of the target language. In this theory, prior knowledge and experiences are essential in order to acquire a second language by detecting the differences of lexical expressions, meanings, and structural rules between the mother and target languages. Depending on the cognitive competence which comes from the background information, language learners can grasp target language structures and their differences with their mother tongues, shift the language, and reconfigure the target language's rules from the basics of the first language (Berman, 2004; McLaughlin, 1987 as cited in Lyster,

2007). A recent study reported by Schmidt (1992, as cited in Kumaravadivelu, 2006) also supports the cognitive hypothesis. Schmidt (1992, as cited in Kumaravadivelu, 2006) stated that "There is little theoretical support from psychology on the common belief that the development of fluency in a second language is almost exclusively a matter of the increasingly skillful application of rules" (p. 377). The cognitive theory is accepted as a new perspective on second language learning. All in all, the significant impact of the cognitive theory on the EFL field is that it has enlightened how background information helps second language acquisition.

In addition to the three schools of thought, Stephen Krashen's input hypotheses (1982), Lenneberg's critical age hypothesis (1967), the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis (1956), Schwartz and Sprouse's Full Transfer hypothesis (1994, 1996), and Selinker's universal grammar hypothesis (1972) are prominent theories concerning the second language acquisition.

Another theory about language acquisition is about the age of the learner. This theory, put forward by Lenneberg (1967), offers a critical age definition for the most effective time of language learning. According to theorists, this is called a critical period, and if the learner is above this period, the learning process becomes less efficient and less fertile. In his argument, Lenneberg (1967) acknowledges what Chomsky said in 1959 and stated: "Language acquisition device, like other biological functions, works sufficiently only when it is stimulated at the right time." Other scholars who worked on the biological foundations of language acquisition had argued that language learning could be divided into two parts; children learning and adult learning (Paradowski, 2008). In the same vein, Cichetti and Cohen (2006) stated that genetics is also an active factor in the critical periods. That is to say; there is a biological factor that is non-intervened; no matter how much effort is paid, adult learners cannot acquire the language as efficiently as children who are under 12 acquire.

Lenneberg (1967) has stated that children fulfil their critical gap by the age of twelve. Before this age, the stimuli may not be taken sufficiently, or learner may have some biological disorders, and at those situations, acquiring a language fully remains as a dream. After puberty, the ability to process and learn a language swiftly is diminished. Lenneberg put the importance of this fact by saying; "language-learning blocks rapidly increase after puberty" (p. 176). This argument gives rise to many other sub-disputes. (Lightbown & Spada, 2013; Han, 2004). Contrary to what has been said by Lenneberg, Han (2004) argued that there are

some examples of adult learners that refute the Lennerberg's claim. Those learners are well equipped with the second language, and their process has started after puberty.

Stephen Krashen is major linguist mastered in language acquisition; his sayings and theories are used as a fixtured topic in the primary curricula of ELT field. He proposed five preliminary theories that have considerably enlightened the language learning process. Those theories are mostly derived from and associated with psychology. These five currently used hypotheses are (Krashen, 1982): comprehensible input, natural order, acquisition versus learning, affective filter, and monitor function hypotheses.

Comprehensible input hypothesis overlays on the topic of course development. In other words, how educational steps are extended is the fundamental point. To be able to scaffold the language learner's mind efficiently, the topics should be presented in a gradually increasing difficulty, and each step should challenge the learner's mind towards the step ahead. This gradual increase order is called as 'i+1' by Krashen (1982). To a great extent, this configuration is put forward to expand learner's current level a step forward to what is already known. On the same issue, Richard-Amato (2010) offered an equation for the meaning of *i* is "distance between actual language development" and (+ 1) is "the potential language development" (p. 42). The actual concern of this theory is to improve the learner's language level at a comprehensible rate.

The comprehensible input hypothesis has some points in common with the natural order hypothesis. Both hypotheses claim that there is an order that language learner follow. Krashen (1992) stated, "Students acquire (not learn) grammatical structures in a predictable order" (p. 52), which opened a gateway to many harsh arguments in the language learning field. After the occurrences of several criticisms, he continued his argumentation by saying that following this order is not necessary in teaching the language; in other words, language can be taught in many different topics order. What he assures on that point was that all developments in language acquisitions follow a predictable pattern. This pattern may also be the same in second or other foreign language acquisition processes.

The comparison of acquisition and learning employs some features of cognition. The cognitive processes both conscious and unconscious are the main differences between acquisition and learning. According to Krashen, learning is a 'learned system' of process. In this process, purposeful elements come together like the teacher, learner, motivational causes; thus, creating a state of mind that is ready to intake what is taught. Learning occurs with the help of apparent teaching methods and corrective feedback given back to them. In

the ‘acquisition’ process, however, the situation is the opposite. The learners are unaware that they are going through some developmental steps in the language. Developmentally with the environmental stimuli, learner builds the foundational knowledge of the language. This building event generally occurs in the very first part of people’s lives.

The next hypothesis has its roots in psychology. Krashen stated that the existence of an active filter which is interlinked with the emotional side of the brain is possible. This affective filter can block the language learning process by dominating the learner’s comprehension with the help of some human biological features. Caviness (2009) stated, "perhaps Krashen was onto the currently referred function of the limbic system in the brain—the area that transacts emotion and that now is believed to process all information to some extent before it enters the cortex for conscious thought processing" (Caviness et al., 2009). Many other biologists also assert this processing as a fact functioning within the brain and learning domain. Krashen explicitly stated the denotation of the word ‘effective’ in his later studies as; "the effect of personality, motivation, and other affective variables on second language acquisition" (Krashen, 1992, p. 57). The same issue was also studied and analyzed by Dulay and Burt (1977) before Krashen’s thesis. They slowly worked upon the effect of emotions like motivation, stress, self-confidence and attitude on the second language acquisition. In the same vein, Harley (2000) stated that children who learn the language in natural settings and more relaxed social environments are more successful than those who learned in strictly ruled classrooms. As they interact with speakers of the native language with the aim of playing games, so they do not feel anxiety and stress.

The monitor hypothesis shares the same roots with the affective filter hypothesis. Both of them derive from the psychological domains of language learning. According to Krashen, humans have an automatic corrective device for language errors in their brain. This device is called ‘monitor’ by Krashen (1982). Whenever an erroneous structure is uttered, speakers correct it. Moreover, even before uttering, words are sifted out this monitor. According to Krashen, time, form and knowledge rules are monitored closely, and language is regulated.

One of the most influential theories of second language acquisition is the Full Transfer hypothesis of Schwartz and Sprouse (1994, 1996). The main argument of the theory is that, when a language learner sets out to learn a language, initial stages of language learning process overlays on the properties of mother language. As a result of this situation, language learner constructs the new language’s grammatical structures based on the false starting, which is full of mother language effect. Schwartz (1998) named this situation as failure-

driven development which is enough for describing the false start of the language learning process. Based on the theory of transfer, a different theory is put forward by Schwartz and Sprouse (1994). They studied the language learning process of a Turkish man working at German-spoken context, and he based a study on this longitudinal process. The main topics that are carefully examined were acquiring L2 German word order, vocabulary usage, the addition of affixes to the words. Upon the results of the study, he proposed that L1 grammar constitutes the Interlanguage (IL) grammar in the first place. After a while, acquiring the correct word order takes place, in any case.

The effect of mother tongue in the second language acquisition process is a much-debated issue. On that issue, Selinker (1972) proposed the term for the period when the target language is acquired to some extent, and the mother language effect continues on the general speech. As an example, Turkish language learners are able to construct adjective clauses to express the plurality of certain things like an apple. They can say three apples but the ‘-s’ ending is not followed where it should have. ‘Three apples’ is an excellent example for interlanguage occasion where a learner covers some ground in the target language but cannot be able to split with the mother tongue rules. In their mother language, Turkish learners do not add the plural suffix when they remark the number of the items. According to Selinker & Gass (2001), in the interlanguage process, learner’s mind utilizes some brain appliances like overgeneralization, language transfer, second language learning and communication strategies. Likewise, Han (2014) stated that an interlanguage system obliges the transfer of training in the second language learning process, communication in the target language with the native speakers of it, and delivery of meanings transferred from the first language to the second language in order to review them according to the linguistic rules. In other words, interlanguage is a state of language which constructs a new language with the occurrences of some transmission errors of the first and second language.

Numerous appealing theories about language acquisition have been put forward by scholars, among which another commonly accepted theory is the Universal Grammar theory. Universal Grammar theory embeds the structural properties which can be found in all languages. According to the nativist theory of language learning, this kind of information is naturally what children have access to when they come to life. This term is also defined in another theory as ‘language acquisition device’ which is innately found in every newborn. However, this argument is open to numerous debates nowadays.

The latest language acquisition theory that drives attention is constructivism based on two critical scholars' views; Jean Piaget and Lev Vygotsky. The constructivism view sees language acquisition as a part of social interactions. According to the view, learners acquire the language when they collaboratively and interactively engaged in social practices in the school or any environment. Today, many studies or projects promoting Internet usage as a medium at ELT classes have been based on constructivism. For example, Eggen and Kauchak (2011) stated that the way technology is used in schools is seen as a guided discovery learning approach which may encourage students to develop their problem solution way.

All previously mentioned theories are helpful in enhancing second language learner's motivation. By using cognitive theory, as an example, learners can get more willing to participate in a target language environment, and thus, they can be exposed to a variety of comprehensible input, such as audio and visual that relate to their first language background. Recent advances in technological means for studying the brain's functions have provided advantages in understanding how such sensory data is processed. This new body of knowledge offers insight regarding the integral nature of auditory and visual stimuli.

In sum, the researchers claimed different theories about language acquisition in first and second languages. Nativist scholars proposed an innate capacity for language acquisition. On the other hand, constructivists insist on the effect of environmental factors like communicating with family and friends. In the present study, the constructivist theory is selected as the basic framework for the listening activities prepared for the control group.

2.3. Stages of Second Language Development

The present study is conducted on Turkish EFL learners' listening development process. Some factors affecting second language acquisition are dominant in the present study, too. For that reason, having some knowledge about second language development is essential in order to assess participants' listening skill development.

Language acquisition comprises five stages according to Shafer (2007), which are occurrences of cooing, babbling, one-word utterances, telegraphic speech and normal speech, taking place in line with biological developmental order. This order pertains to the first language acquisition. Especially the first three stages are unique to when any language system is established in the infant's brain. At the earlier stages of speech, infants react to the

stimuli sent by their parents or environmental occurrences by creating sounds similar to 'coo'. Later, the babbling stage, consisting of the vowels and consonants combinations begins. Bruning (2011) and Shafer (2007) reported that towards the end of their first year, infants start to utter some words, but it is limited to the words, with no sentences uttered. The usage of words for the specific occasions proves that some mental processes have started in the infant's brain. Towards the ends of the second year, children combine three or four words that substitute the whole sentence's meaning. Then the telegraphic speech phase starts with the missing grammatical rules and lack of meaning. Before the beginning of the preschool, children acquire the capacity to produce typical sentences (Bruning, 2011). On the same issue, according to Rice (2013), children can get in the situations that enable them to interact with real language, and recurrent practices make their language evolve toward normal speech gradually. In short, language practices start with the ability to listen. When there is no listening situation or listening ability at the initial stages of language learning, developing a language can get difficult (Deiner, 2009).

2.4. Listening Comprehension Skill in EFL

The process of listening comprehension should be well internalized to achieve an understanding of the language learning process thoroughly. Up to now, many researchers have upheld a similar idea (Lynch, 2004; Chamot, 2008; Ivers, 2003). In this section, the history of listening comprehension skill and the importance of it in the EFL context is going to be elicited along with some theoretical frameworks.

Languages are devices for communication. Some scholars assume that the emergence of a protolanguage dates back as early as the appearance of humankind. Human beings are in need of this device as long as they exist, and they have produced many languages during their ongoing existence. In this respect, it can be easier to understand the importance of language as a tool for communication. According to Gilakjani and Ahmadi (2011), we spent different shares of time for each skill in a regular communication cycle; 40-50% for listening; 25-30% for speaking; 11-16% for reading; and about 9% for writing. Starting from this point, we can say that we mostly listen, analyze, and understand the messages of interlocutors other than ourselves before we speak. Thus, listening constitutes the base in the natural communication order.

Over many years, the listening skill had been affected by the rooted changes in the ELT field more than any other skill. Teaching English for communication started to take charge of a

significant function in all countries that teach English as a second or foreign language. As the changes were built upon the communicative function of the language, listening skill became an indispensable part of the language teaching programs and started to be covered in most language courses. This instant uptrend towards using Communicative Language Teaching in the late 1970s aroused the educators' need for teaching listening. In the 1990s, with the sufficient care is given to listening skill, aural comprehension had a unique place in second and foreign language learning (Morley, 2001; Rivers, 1981; Richards & Rodgers, 2001). This was the beginning of the listening comprehension era among the researchers' topics in foreign language education (e.g. Field, 2008; Rost, 2002; Vandergrift, 2006).

Education means raising people compatible with the era. So, to be able to overcome the tough requirements of the era, language teachers should pay massive amount of attention to communicative outputs of the educational process delivered. Communicative competence lays the foundation of language education in the modern era of language teaching tradition. In this vein, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is the most applied approach which emphasizes the functional and communicative potential of the language. The communicative approach entails the use of the target language not only as a lesson topic, but as a means of interacting with people, as well; the focus is not necessarily on grammatical structures and linguistic functions, but authentic use of the language in an interactive context in order to generate real meaning (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011; Richards, 2006).

"Educated people know how to pay attention to others and the world around them. They work hard to hear what other people say. They can follow an argument, track logical reasoning, detect illogic, hear the emotions that lie behind both the logic and the illogic, and ultimately empathize with the person who is feeling those emotions." (Cronon, 1998, p. 2) The listening qualities mentioned by Professor Cronon represent significant communication objectives for educated adults. Boyer, of the Carnegie Foundation, affirms this need: "To succeed in college, undergraduates should be able to ... listen with comprehension" (1987, p. 73). Other educators agree that active listening is essential to undergraduate success (Chang & Millet, 2014). Wolvin & Chernin (2008) argues that listening is the foundation of critical thinking and is "a stronger factor than reading skills or academic aptitude in the achievement and retention of college students" (p. 32).

The importance of listening in communicational contexts is stated in various articles by many linguists. Even the governments stated the need for effective listeners in society. The U.S. Department of Labor legitimized listening, along with other competencies in

mathematics, reading, writing, and speaking, as a superior ability that every graduate should hold in order to perform capably at the professional life (National Education Goals Panel, 2010). To deal with impaired listening processes in the workplaces, Wolvin and Chernin (2008) recommend that institutions of higher education should involve comprehensive listening instruction in their curricula, as a result of this enabling those joining to the society to become more sufficient listeners and more qualified communicators.

Various scholars claim that students give more time to listening which is used as a tool to learn things than any of the other communication abilities (Davis, 2001), “yet few have opportunities at the undergraduate level to develop listening as a fundamental ability for learning” (Thompson et al., 2004, p. 226). Part of the reason for this lack of listening instruction is that the scholars did not agree on a single definition of listening or reach a consensus about the most suitable approach for teaching it.

Regarding the researchers claims, the place of listening in overall language competency can be clearly understood. Under this heading, the listening skill and its importance in overall language competency are recognized and discussed in a detailed way under the following subtopics; hearing vs. listening, the importance of listening, the biological background of the listening process, listening comprehension models, factors influencing listening comprehension, language learners’ listening comprehension problems.

2.4.1. Hearing vs. Listening

Linguists have not agreed on a single definition of listening or its twin ‘hearing’. The difference between hearing and listening should be apprehended primarily, in order to attain a through insight about the place of listening comprehension skill in ELT. At that point, Kline (2002) asserts that learning and teaching listening effectively is a continuum which requires being conscious of the distinction between hearing and listening. He clarifies this distinction with the following sentences: “Hearing is the reception of sound; listening is the attachment of meaning to the sound. Hearing is passive, and listening is active” (p. 7). Being at the same opinion, Rost (2002) states the difference as follows: “Hearing is a form of perception. Listening is an active and intentional process. Although both hearing and listening involve sound perception, the difference in terms reflects a degree of intention” (p. 8).

Earliest definitions (Rankin, 1969; Lewis, 1958) revolved around listening primarily as *a mixture of associated cognitive functions like attention, comprehension, and memory*. Nowadays, however, listening has been accepted as a *complex cognitive, psychological, and behavioural activity*, whose meaning is not so simple to express (Brownell, 2002). It is accepted as an intricate activity that has cognitive, psychological, and behavioural roots. Thus, not surprisingly, linguists cannot come to the same point in defining listening skill. There are numerous definitions of listening so far. One of which is listening is the process of receiving, constructing meaning from, and responding to spoken and/or nonverbal messages (Wolvin, 2011).

Listening skill is regarded as a gift bestowed to humans by many scholars. Flowerdew and Miller (2005) assert that human beings come to the world with an inner ability to hear sounds or environmental stimuli. According to them, all children listen and observe the language initially to the occurrence of speech. In the second step, they only start to speak. Reading and writing are successive skills that come following the acquirement of listening and speaking skills. Thus, it is estimated that of all the language skills, listening is the precursory one to appear (Lundsteen, 1979). Gass and Selinker (2001) claimed that a new-born baby admits the feasible input from the environment. In the same breath, the observations of eyes and ears will flourish to some improvements in the understanding of the infant that is interrelated with language and general comprehension abilities. On the other way around, when the parent does not pay enough attention to children's received input ratio, the child may come across with some problems in operating a language system mentally or increasing an inner language function at the later stages of life (Gass & Selinker, 2001). All in all, acquiring a language as a newborn or as an adult is mainly shaped with the input process, and this is also related to brain activities during the acquisition time.

Some scholars in the International Listening Association put stress on the listening preparation process while defining listening in general. They also stated that there are personal and contextual filters that affect listening efficiently. In their opinion, self-assessment and goal setting is also another critical factor in the listening process. In this integrative listening model (ILM), listening is seen as a dynamic, interactive process of integrating appropriate listening attitudes, knowledge and behaviours to achieve the selected goal or goals of a listening event" (Thompson et al., 2004). That ILM offers several stages for developing effective listening skill; those stages start with the preparation part and end with goal establishing part.

Rost (2002) implied the variances found in the definition of listening along with the expert areas of the scholars and educators of the time. Rost (2002) provided examples for those definitions; in the 1900s, the scholars defined listening as "reliably recording acoustic signals in the brain" (p. 1). Along with the developments in the health sciences in the 1920s and 1930s, the structure of the brain had been analyzed more closely, and the listening was explained as "unconscious process controlled by hidden cultural schemata" (p. 1). When the telecommunication industry leapt forward in the 1940s, listening was seen as a "successful transmission and recreation of messages" (p. 1). When the dates drew near to these days, listening had gained a new form; "parallel processing of input". With the beginning of the millennium era, communication had gained tremendous attention and listening is seen as an active process that is conducted in context. Chamot (2008) accepts listening skill 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 fulfil the task requirements" (p. 434). Vandergrift (2006) states that listening is "a complex, active process in which the listener must discriminate between sounds, understand vocabulary and grammatical structures, interpret stress and intonation, retain what was gathered in all of the above, and interpret it within the immediate as well as the broader socio-cultural context of the utterance" (p. 168).

All in all, most of the scholars had come to a common point about the definition of listening, which is the dynamic nature of the listening. It is now well established from a variety of studies that listening cannot be done through the passive situation of the listener; listeners should be active, and they should be open to contextual information. (Lynch, 2004; Lindsley & Knight, 2006). If the listener takes part actively in the process of listening linguistically and uses his/her non-linguistic knowledge to follow up the message that the speaker intends in a conversation, if s/he listens, replies, and asks/answers questions, it is active listening (Lindsley & Knight, 2006, Littlewood, 2004). As Lynch (2004) stated, understanding is not something that happens because of what speaker says, the listener needs to make connections between what s/he hears and what s/he already knows, and at the same time he/she tries to comprehend the meaning negotiated by the speaker.

2.4.2. The Importance of Listening

Many researchers have described and emphasized the importance of listening in the language acquisition process and other contexts (Mendelson, 1994; Guo & Wills, 2006). Over the

importance of listening in many aspects of the life, Mendelson (1994) stated that “of the total time spent on communicating, listening takes up 40-50 %; speaking 25-30 %; reading 11-16 %; writing about 9 %” (p. 9). In the same vein, Guo and Wills (2006) stated that “it is the medium through which people gain a large proportion of their education, their information, their understanding of the world and human affairs, their ideals, sense of values” (p. 3). Generally, productive language skills like writing and speaking are accepted as a benchmark for knowing a language. However, they are useless when the efficient communication is not produced. In order to get an efficient production, listening skill is compulsory. More than 50% of the time that students spend on communicating in a foreign language will be spared to listening (Nunan, 2015).

Listening is also at a critical position in the classroom context. On this issue, Rost (2002) has suggested some statements; listening is the only way to get input in the classroom. Also, spoken language in classroom constructs the challenge that needs to be overcome by the student. Listening is valuable for teachers to get the attention of students on new grammatical structures. (p. 141-142). A recent study by Yıldırım (2013) involved approximately 400 B1 level EFL learners and 45 teachers in Turkey. The main aim of this study was to compare teachers’ ideas about the students’ listening problem and students’ perceptions of their listening. The most prominent finding to emerge from the analysis is that EFL learners stated that they do not go through listening comprehension problems as repeatedly as their teachers think. From the opposite point of view, these findings may show that teachers are more conscient about students’ listening comprehension problems than their students. Moreover, another finding of this study is that teachers reached a consensus about the importance of listening skill, and they all considered listening as a fundamental skill for their students.

In sum, there is a clear consensus among linguists that listening skill is compulsory to be competent in a foreign language, without which effective communication cannot be produced. Effective communication depends on developing both listening and speaking skills together (Lynch, 2004). Finally, some scholars claim that there is a link between students’ personal development and their listening abilities. According to them, students develop their vision through listening activities (Wallace, Stariha & Walberg, 2004). Listening skills are essential for learning purposes since through listening, students obtain data and develop a vision.

2.4.3. The Biological Listening Process

Different theories exist in the literature regarding developing listening comprehension skill. Berninger (2000) argued that listening comprehension takes advantage of some aural and visual systems founded in the human brain to achieve initiating stimulation. Using and producing a language is a fact that prospers the speaker's mental and conversational ability. Listening comprehension feeds from such sensory input; thus, "comprehensible input" is a remarkable constituent relating to listening recognition in language acquisition (Krashen & Terrell, 1983). Priorly, Bloomfield (2009) stated that the target language acquisition process has to start with listening to the native speakers' utterances and have a chance to grip the meanings and imitate the sounds. This statement is suggestive of first language acquisition when infants watch the adults' body language, listen to every environmental stimulus and try to understand each one's meaning.

Data from several studies suggest that listening takes place at two dimensions: getting a message via listening to the general flow of the speech and getting the message via analyzing the smallest details in the speech. These two dimensions of listening are called top-down and bottom-up listening (Berne, 2004; Flowerdew & Miller, 2005; Rost, 2002).

Many linguists had come up with their definitions for those listening strategies. For example, Brown (2000) described top-down processing as "using our prior knowledge and experiences; we know certain things about certain topics and situations and use that information to understand" (p. 2). That is to say; people use the background knowledge to understand the upcoming stimuli. In other words, people construct their bridge to outside World by using their schemata, the previous knowledge they gain throughout their life. This processing type is known as 'top-down'.

Receiving and internalizing outsider messages have different variations. Another type of gaining a message from the outside is the 'bottom-up' processing. Brown (2000) had also defined this process; "using the information we have about sounds, word meanings, and discourse markers like first, then and after that to assemble our understanding of what we read or hear one step at a time"(p. 2). According to him, short term memory is utilized in this processing type. We hear the extrinsic stimuli; we break down the sentences into words. Then we can combine the meaning of each word. The process is similar to interpreting type when we have distinct meanings and combine them to a sole meaning. Both processing types are useful at different times. According to Tsui and Fullilove (1998), upper-level language learners utilize top-down processing while beginners use bottom-up processing more. The

main reason behind this may be the fact that beginners are too new to differentiate the sounds while upper-level students are good at it.

Various scholars put different arguments about most-preferred processing types forwards. According to Vandergrift (2006), learners apply top-down or bottom-up process above the other depending on the carried intention of listening. Moreover, he continues the statement by implying that people resort to both processes together in daily life listening contexts. Cahyono and Widiati (2009) put a vital idea on the same issue; using both bottom-up and top-down processes and harmonizing the new information with the knowledge that they already know to understand the message open the door to be a successful listener. With regards to that, both bottom-up and top-down processing is necessary for active listening to take place. Namely, “students must hear some sounds (bottom-up processing), hold them in their working memory long enough (a few seconds) to connect them and then interpret what they have just heard before something new comes along. At the same time, listeners are using their background knowledge (top-down processing) to determine meaning concerning prior knowledge and schemata” (Brown, 2006, p. 3). Anderson and Lynch (2003) put forward the four needed phases of the listening process at a regular communicational situation: The spoken signals must be identified from the midst of surrounding sounds. The continuous stream of speech must be segmented into units, which have to be recognized as known words. The syntax of the utterance must be grasped, and the speaker’s intended meaning has to be understood. Furthermore, linguistic knowledge must be applied in order for formulating a correct and appropriate response to what has been said (p. 4).

‘Decoding’ and ‘codebreaking’ are significant terms adopted by many scientists in defining the listening process. Cook (2001) defined the difference between them; decoding is used for processing language to get the message, whereas codebreaking is used for processing language to get the rules. According to Cook (2001); “teaching involves both getting students to decode messages from language and to code break the language system from what is heard” (p. 102). In short, the listening process has an intricate type. In order to better understand the listening process better, some listening comprehension models are offered by different scholars. Those models are going to be explained under the following subheading.

2.4.4. Listening Comprehension Models

Considering the complexity of listening comprehension skill and scholars’ continuous endeavour to enlighten the listening process, many models for the listening process that are

proposed by different scholars are not surprising. Among them, Wales & Marshall's (1966), Morton & Patterson's (1987), and Goss's (1982) are the most eminent ones. Wales & Marshall's model (1966), shown in Figure 1, shows a bottom-up process that functions over the surface structure, deep structure and semantic interpretation, respectively. Goss's model (1982, see Figure 2), concentrates merely on the interpretation of meaning.

The 'schema' in the listening process is a frequently stressed phenomenon in most recent studies. In Morton & Patterson's model (1987) it is proposed that the phases of the parser, semantic analyzer and linguistic processing are influenced by the listener's knowledge of the world. In the same vein, several models also accept schemata as a significant impact on the listening process. Sanders (2010) argued that the listeners make deductions about the heard data dependently to their background knowledge.

Another model proposed by Morton & Patterson's (1987) assumes the human brain consists of some word recognition devices named as logogens. In their view, those devices offer more complex processing than one-sided bottom-up process. At the following stages, simultaneous operation of a parser (syntactic analyzer) and a semantic analyzer come. At the last phase, the linguistic processing occurs, where the listener can understand and perform an instruction. The most significant criticism raised against this model is its bottom-up nature. Below, visualized versions of these three models are given.

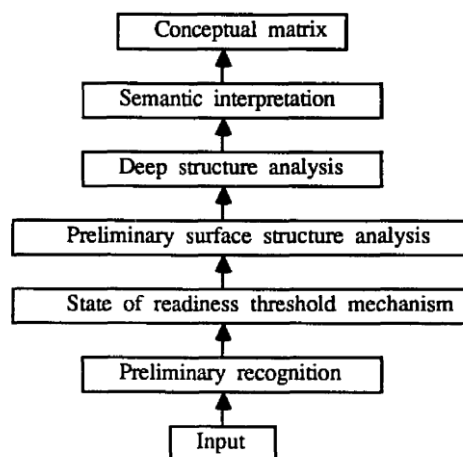


Figure 1. Wales; Marshall's (1966) Model of listening comprehension

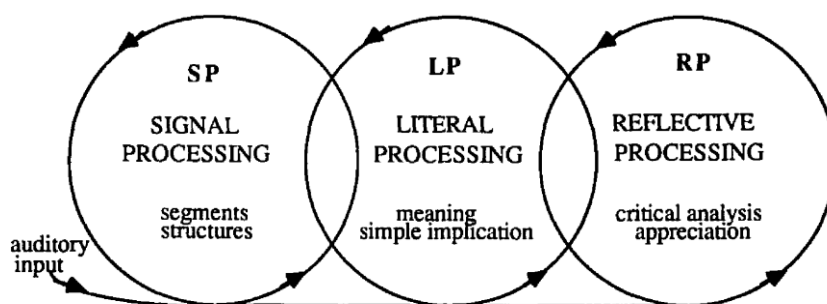


Figure 2. Goss's (1982) Model of listening comprehension

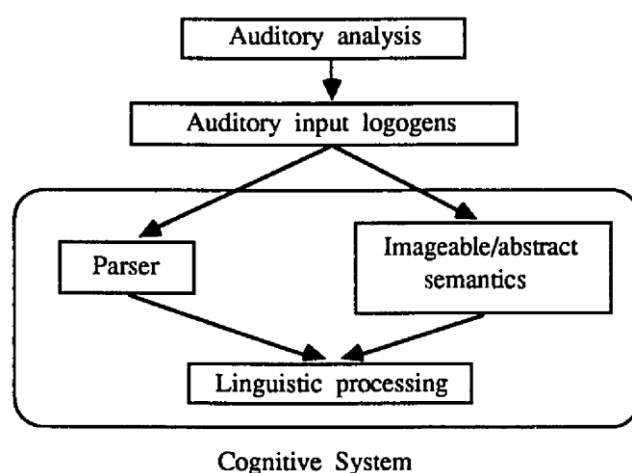


Figure 3. Morton & Patterson's (1987) Model of listening comprehension

All in all, listening comprehension process is an intricate process which is still tried to be enlightened. Various theories exist, but the exact way of listening comprehension is not something upon which we may easily reach a consensus. In this chapter, some explanations towards understanding the nature of listening comprehension were presented in the light of three different points of view.

2.4.5. Factors Influencing Listening Comprehension

A conceptual information lack exists in defining particular aspects of listening comprehension and identifying underlying parameters. Several studies on listening skill have unveiled a consensus about some factors affecting listening comprehension (Rivers, 1981;

Boyle, 1984; Samuels, 1984; Powers, 1999). The common effective factors can be classified as; listener factors, speaker factors, stimulus factors, context factors.

Both Boyle (1984) and Samuels (1984) regard background knowledge as one of the listener factors which influence listening comprehension. Thus, some of the listening research should be directed toward examining the effect of the specific listener factor, i.e. background knowledge, on listening comprehension in order to provide empirical evidence for theoretical construction and also offer instructional guidance to materials writers and classroom teachers.

In Table 1. Some scholars' findings of common listening difficulties are summarized:

Table 1

Literature Review on Most Common Listening Difficulties

Listener factors	Speaker factors	Stimulus factors	Context factors
Language facility, including phonological, lexical, syntactic, semantic, pragmatic knowledge (Rivers; Boyle)	Language ability: native speaker vs nonnative speaker (Boyle)	Discussion topic (Samuels)	Type of interactional event (Rivers; Samuels; Power)
Knowledge of the world (Boyle; Samuels)	Accent/dialect (Boyle; Power)	The abstractness of material (Boyle; Power)	Distraction during listening (Power)
Intelligence (Boyle; Samuels)	Speed of delivery (Boyle; Power)	The vagueness of words (Boyle; Power)	The interval between listening and testing (Power)
Physical condition (Boyle; Samuels)	Degree of pauses and redundancies (Boyle; Samuels; Power)	Presentation mode: audio-only vs audio and visual (Boyle; Power)	Note-taking (Power)
Metacognitive strategies (Samuels; Power)	Prestige and personality (Boyle; Samuels)	Acoustic environment (Boyle; Samuels; Power)	
Motivation (Boyle; Samuels)			

The table presented above summarizes the most common listening difficulties that are encountered by second language listeners. As it can be seen clearly, listener factors are reported more frequently than other factors by several researchers. Followingly, speaker factors, stimulus factors, and context factors succeed. Putting differently, the factors can also be classified into two groups as internal and external factors.

2.4.6. Language Learners' Listening Comprehension Problems

Listening is classified as one of the most challenging skills to acquire for language learners by various researches conducted on foreign or second language acquisition field (Goh, 2000; Guo & Wills, 2006). Because of the curriculums' intense focus on written competency at language like grammar, reading and vocabulary, foreign language learners of English have severe difficulties in listening comprehension (Gilakjani & Ahmadi, 2011). Ur (2007) claimed that learners are better at dealing with some features of listening comprehension than others. To that effect, arduous features of the listening process are: "hearing sounds, understanding intonation and stress, coping with redundancy and noise, predicting, understanding colloquial vocabulary, fatigue, understanding different accents, using visual and aural environmental clues" (Ur, 2007, p. 11-20). Upon his studies in this field, Underwood (1989) collected the usual problems of students that they go through in listening process: high speed of speech, unrepeatable speech, insufficient vocabulary knowledge, not being able to realize transitions, insufficient contextual knowledge, insufficient concentration, and effort to comprehend each word.

Lynch (2004, p. 5-6) described successful listening in four different ways in which students may or may not be able to comprehend the speech: the listener cannot hear the speech well; speech is delivered well, but the listener cannot understand because of syntactical or semantic problems. The speech is correctly heard; however, the listener has become disinterested intentionally or unintentionally, and lastly, the listener gets the message entirely and focuses on constructing a logical interpretation.

Among the most severe difficulties that language learners from different language families encounter in listening comprehension process is the unfamiliar sounds that appear in the target language but not in their native language, and this gives rise to listening problems. As an example, though Turkish and English have resembling consonants, some consonants of English are different from those of Turkish such as /θ/ (thumb) or /ð/ (those). The common point of these consonants is the fact that they are produced with the tongue tip between the teeth (Yavuz, 2006). Yıldırım (2013) stated the general problem Turkish EFL learners experience in listening as: "In Turkish, the closest sound for /θ/ is /t/ which may confuse Turkish students when they hear the word 'three'. Since the /θ/ sound does not exist in Turkish, students may understand it as the word 'tree' or vice versa. Similarly, , students can misunderstand the sound /ð/ since they may think it is /d/, so when the students hear the word

‘those’ they may think the word that they hear is ‘doze’. The use of intonation, stress and rhythm may also prevent learners’ from understanding of spoken English.” (p.2102)

One of the most common difficulties for students of a foreign language in listening to native speakers is that they spend more time on comprehending the incoming stimuli than the native speakers of that language. When they face environmental sounds or different accents, they can get more confused than native speakers. If the situation is encountered in their first language, foreign language speakers can handle it, while in a foreign language they cannot do so. Thus, Ur (2007) suggested four clarifications for this problem of language learners: Foreign speakers are able to recognize the words in written form, but not audible because of the fast delivery of a speech or their insufficient vocabulary knowledge. Learners lack information at sound-combinations, lexis and collocations. So, they cannot get support from the ability to guess the missing parts. Learners are not familiar with informal or slang vocabulary. Moreover, language learners try to understand every word they hear. Many scholars still support her arguments.

Being familiar with the daily used forms of language is essential for speakers of a language in order to have enough communicational skills. If it is not the case, language speakers can fall into errors in the communication breakdown moments; the guessing ability disappears and processing the message with top-down abilities becomes impossible. Thus, being familiar with the commonly used idioms, proverbs and collocations are vital in language learning. Moreover, some other language features can support the speaker to handle communication breakdown moments. These features are generally about the usage of the sound in speech delivery process. They can be listed as; intonation, stress, rhythm, and pauses. Usage of them can significantly affect the understanding of certain situations. Different accents do not pose a threat for understanding the message in speakers’ mother tongue. On the other hand, the different accents they are exposed to could be problematic for many language learners in the second language since especially in EFL context students are not used to hearing the target language from the environment, let alone the other dialects of the target language. However, in today’s world, where the dominant language is English, language learners should also be provided with the education of different accents used widely on different parts of the world as it can become an obligation anytime (Ur, 2007; Underwood 1989).

Foreign language speakers spend much more effort to understand the language clues and environmental signs than native speakers of that language. According to Ur (2007), EFL

learners can already do so in their L1, but they cannot have the opportunity to understand these visual clues in the target language context, a process in which learners work hard to comprehend the messages coming from the rapid speeches of the native speakers and catch the little details. On that issue, Ur (2007) suggested that “their receptive system is overloaded” (p. 21). By saying overloaded, the Ur refers to the previously existing schemata of the learners which are fulfilled with the information of the mother tongue. This overloaded information causes them to be extra stressful on duty to handle it. Since listeners try to catch most of the details in a text while listening in a foreign language, they spend more effort than a native speaker does. One of the possible explanations made on this issue is that maybe the EFL learners try to match each words’ literal meaning but do not pose an effort for understanding the overall unity of the sentence and see the contextual meanings of the words. This situation inevitably leads the learner to miss the pragmatic meaning of what has been said. Therefore, communication errors and breakdowns start to emerge. At this point, the affective filter suggested by Krashen (1982) can be the main reason for this being over stressful and forthcoming listening failure. According to Krashen, the psychological situation of the learner affects the quality of the language learning process. Namely, if the negative feelings are the dominant ones at the time of the foreign language activities (listening, speaking, etc.), the learner succeeds sub-normally. That is to say; the learners perform unhealthier than their actual language level.

Different theories exist in the literature regarding the problems of EFL learners while doing the listening. A large and growing body of literature concentrating on the effect of phonological features and background knowledge of the listeners (Markham, 2000) rate of speech (Conrad, 1989; Derwing & Munro, 2001; Yıldırım, 2013; McBride, 2011) has investigated the problems EFL learners go through in listening occasions, in addition to those; some other studies focused on the vocabulary (Kelly, 1991; John & Dudley-Evans, 1998).

Some scholars apply to the learners’ perceptions while investigating the reason behind the most common foreign language listening problems. According to their idea, how learners define the problem may give clues for the actual reason for the listening comprehension problem. There is a large volume of published studies describing the role of EFL learners’ listening comprehension problems by regarding students’ perceptions of the actual problem. Graham (2006) worked upon the EFL learners’ ideas about the failures and successes of themselves. Thus, she had revealed the relationship between the EFL learners’ perception of

self and their rate of success. Before the work of Graham, the role of self-perception in EFL success was mostly unknown. At this study, the target language was French, and the participants were high school students. Questionnaires and interviews were used to obtain the participants' responses. The themes identified in these responses showed that some of the main problems of students were to endeavour to hear and understand each word separately, handle with the delivery of the speech. Some other types of problems stated by the participants were the difficulty of the tasks and lack of effective listening strategies. Upon examining the same issue, Goh (2000) developed a new method based on cognitive processes of listening activity and came up with three phases for the listening process: perception, parsing, and utilization. In this study, the participants were Chinese students, and they were learning English in an EFL context. Upon conducting some interviews and questionnaires, the study identified ten problems that students experienced during listening comprehension process. Ten main themes are listed below, see Table 2.

Table 2

Problems Related to Different Phases Of Listening Comprehension

Perception
Do not recognize words they know
Neglect the next part when thinking about the meaning
Cannot chunk streams of speech
Miss the beginning of texts
Concentrate too hard or unable to concentrate
Parsing
Quickly forget what is heard
Unable to form a mental representation from words heard
Do not understand subsequent parts of input because of earlier problems
Utilization
Understand words but not the intended message
Confused about the key ideas in the message

In 2000, Hasan published a paper in which he described Arabic EFL learners' insights and views about the primary reason for listening comprehension problems during real communications. According to the responses gathered from participants, burdensome listening tasks and activities, the fast speakers, the complexity of the message, the listening text itself, listeners' approach to the message, and lack of listening strategies, appear to be closely linked with the main listening comprehension problems.

Speaking of the educational problems that lead to listening comprehension problems students identified those shortages as uninteresting topics, long listening texts, poor voice quality, slippery pronunciation, absence of visual aids, unfamiliar vocabulary, and speech rate (Hasan, 2000). Hamouda (2012) analyzed the data from 60 EFL Saudi learners and concluded that significant listening comprehension problems that EFL learners experience were not being familiar about different pronunciation types or accents, high speed of speech, insufficient vocabulary, lack of concentration, being in a worrying psychological situation, and low quality of recording if the text is recorded.

2.5. Building Listening Comprehension Skill in EFL

A gap still exists in the instruction of listening skill development to be thoroughly competent in the target language though the importance of listening skill in ELT process is approved by many scholars and educators (Morley, 2001). Until the end of 1960s, the listening skill was even disregarded; the number one focus was on developing reading and grammar. Moreover, teaching listening was not accepted as a requirement for language teaching (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). In his book, Field (2008) has also claimed that “in the early stages of ELT, listening chiefly served as a means of introducing new grammar through model dialogues” (p.13).

In a nutshell, academic literature on listening comprehension skill in ELT has revealed the emergence of several different teaching methods. In the first part of the present thesis, many of those methods were clarified tediously. Those methods, in line with their perspectives, all put the listening skill into different places. Many of them have different ways of dealing the listening skill development. As an example, the most popular ELT method at the initial times, the grammar-translation method, accepts the language as a group of rules that needs to be memorized and acquired. By this way, learners are expected to be competent in reading and understanding the literary works in a foreign language. In this method, the primary aim is to be competent in written contexts; thus, listening has never had its due attention. Hence, language teachers were also unknowledgeable in teaching listening skill (Flowerdrew & Miller, 2005). According to them, students are only obliged to listen to the rules about the target language’s structure, and nothing more is provided for them. Intending to reach to the best method of listening comprehension skill development, some methods like language-centred, learner-centred, learning-centred have continued to be adopted. In the following

subheadings, those methods for building listening comprehension skill is going to be elaborated in a detailed way.

2.5.1. Language-Centred Methods

One of the prevailing linguistic theories that embodies language in the centre of education is audiolingualism. This method seeks to create opportunities for learners to practice pre-selected, pre-sequenced linguistic structures through form-focused exercises, assuming that a preoccupation with form will ultimately lead to L2 mastery (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). The teacher's task is to introduce grammatical structures and vocabulary items one at a time and help learners practice them until they internalize the L2 system. Thus, knowing language forms are deemed as more important than practising in those types of methods.

2.5.2. Learner-centred Methods

Learner-centred methods are accepted as communicative methods that are produced to provide opportunities for learners to practice preselected linguistic structures and communicative notions through function-focused activities. It is believed that a preoccupation with form and function will ultimately lead to L2 mastery. The teacher's task is determined as presenting formal and functional items sequentially to the learners. Moreover, the teacher helps learners drill new patterns until they internalize the L2 system. At a conference on Applied Linguistics in 1969, significant changes took place in terms of the position of listening in language learning. The conference was useful in terms of shifting the first tendency in second and foreign language teaching from a teacher-oriented perspective to individualized language learning perspective, and language learning processes started to evolve from passive to an active and complex receptive process. With this process, listening comprehension skill is started to be seen as a fundamental skill, and real language use for real communication in the classroom is supported (Morley, 2001).

2.5.3. Learning-centred Methods

The "natural approach" seeks opportunities to make learners participate in open-ended meaningful interactions through language learning tasks, assuming that a preoccupation with meaning-making will ultimately lead to L2 mastery. Another name that is provided for the natural approach is the Direct method (DM). In the chronological order, this method

supervened on the grammar-translation method. What DM asserts is at a completely different direction than GTM. A significant difference between these methods is the way they see the language acquisition method. According to DM, a second or foreign language can only be acquired through the way mother language is acquired: exposition to the language. In this method, the teacher's role is assigned as creating conditions in which learners engage in meaningful problem-solving activities. For listening in foreign language education, Rivers (1981) stated: "Listening comprehension increases with growing familiarity with the vocabulary and structures of the language" (p. 199). Previously mentioned language teaching methods were the leading methods, and since then, many other methods have also been utilized, and the number of them has gradually increased. These various methods have different perspectives on foreign language education, most of which focus on the importance of providing the best way to communicate efficiently in the target language (Larsen-Freeman, 2003).

No method can be utilized solely in the actual classroom because their development does not depend on the classroom experience or any scientific experimentation. Most of the scholars or practitioners adopted the GTM and DM into their classrooms directly without having an experimental basis. Thus, creating a classroom environment that is unrealistic and not applicable (Nunan, 2015; Richards, 2006). A study made by Swaffar & Arens (2005) showed that the practitioners who say they are following the classroom procedures of sole teaching method are not actually following a sole method tediously, even syllabus designers and textbook producers do not strictly follow the underlying theoretical principles of a given method (see also Kumaravadivelu, 2006). As a result, a general belief towards "the conviction that no single perspective on language, no single explanation for learning, and no unitary view of the contributions of language learners will account for what they must grapple with daily" has started to show up (Larsen-Freeman, 2003, p. 150). So, with the latest trend in diversifying the classroom methods, the era of post-methods is proved to be beneficial as the utilization of several methods to get the maximum efficiency in teaching showed a greater profit in language acquisition.

The relatively new trend of 'post-method' searches for an alternative to the method rather than an alternative method. Kumaravadivelu presented the term method as "consisting of a single set of theoretical principles derived from feeder disciplines and a single set of classroom procedures directed at classroom teachers" (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 29), and he defined the post-method as the construction of classroom procedures and principles by

the teacher himself/herself based on previously gained experiential knowledge and specific strategies. To define the difference between method and post-method more clearly, he used the concept of “knowledge-oriented” theories of pedagogy for defining method and “classroom-oriented” theories of practice for defining post-method. Regardless of the type of the method, listening skill development requires material usage compulsorily, especially if the mentioned education is conducted at an EFL setting. In the following chapter, the use of materials in the listening skill development process is going to be discussed, along with different material types.

2.6. Material Usage in the Listening Skill Development Process

Language learning environments can vary, but the need for assisting materials does not change. Regardless of the country that language learning happens, all learners need to hear the target language via some assistant listening materials. Those materials that can be utilized in listening comprehension development process can be divided into several groups. Different kinds of listening materials will be described in detail under two subtitles, which are visuals and authentic materials.

2.6.1. Visual Materials in Listening Skill Development

Powers (1999) contributed to the listening comprehension field by making a brief outline of the things that affect listening comprehension. Besides, in a similar study Boyle (1984) argued that the support of gestures and visuals is also among the active factors. Below, several research studies are presented. These researches set about to analyze the role of visual cues in listening skill development.

Visual prompts have continued to be a point of research of various studies. Their main aim is to reveal how visual prompts function at L2 listening comprehension. Corbett (2003) studied the students’ test scores differentiation via only audibly implementation versus video formatted implementation of the same test. In the same vein, Arnold & Brooks (2006) analyzed the impact of pictured materials on listening comprehension. The studies mentioned above revealed the indispensable role of visual prompts on L2 listening comprehension capability.

Other visual signals which are delivered through the speaker’s body language are also beneficial to figure out the upcoming message. An example for these visual signals can be

lip movements, used by listeners to comprehend, specifically at the intensely noisy contexts. A typical result taken from these studies was that the integration of visuals increases the understandability of the messages in an L2 communication cycle.

In contrast to earlier studies, Gunter's study (2001) opened a different perspective to the visual's usage at listening comprehension process. She argued that the visuals do not help learners to develop L2 listening comprehension level. She compared the participants' understanding levels of some news distributed in three different ways; audial, accompanied by pictures and accompanied by videos. Data demonstrated that the message is hardly comprehended in the picture accompanied news. Furthermore, the levels of audio script read alone type are detected as the most successful way of conveying the message.

The studies about the effect of the visuals on listening comprehension have continued. In an experimental study, employing three different implementations, Mueller (1980) studied the effect of timing of visual on the listening comprehension skill. In the first implementation, visuals were given before listening. Second, the visuals were given after listening. The latest implementation included no visuals. Data proved the afore-given visuals as the most effective one. The results drawn from this study suggest that giving visual cues in advance helped to use background information in the listening comprehension process. The similar results were obtained in many different studies. Kwon (2019) found similar results positively enhancing listening comprehension rates. Again, Batty (2017) found that seeing and hearing the native speakers' dialogues increased the scores of a listening comprehension test more significantly than merely hearing the dialogues. Sueyoshi (2004) conducted a study to analyze the effect of videos on listening comprehension. The study showed that videos could promote comprehension of listening texts in the target language. The motivation factor might constitute the underlying reason behind these results. When learners watch something, they get more engaged in the message. The situation is opposite for the only hearing audience. Overall, motivation increment also triggers the learners' confidence increment.

Together these results provide valuable insights into the adoption of the visuals in the process of developing listening comprehension. Initially, the use of pictures and videos is a novel way of training students' specific listening comprehension skills. However, in the selection and preparation process of this visually enhanced curricula, tedious work is required. Moreover, if the visuals are chosen suitably for students' interests and aims, they can function as a scaffold for learning. Finally, utilizing visuals in the listening process can improve students' motivation.

2.6.2. Authentic materials in Listening Skill Development

Authentic materials are among the most commonly used materials in educational contexts in many EFL settings. Shrum & Glisan (2015) noted that it is necessary for learners who want to study in an English-speaking country to learn how to listen to lectures and take notes, to understand native speakers in different types of speech situations, and to comprehend radio and television broadcasts. The most effective tool to accomplish this is authentic material (Richards and Schmidt, 2002). According to Richards and Schmidt (2002), authentic materials are the audio/video recordings of a conversation that are produced by the native speakers of the language. Silber (2013) defined authentic language as the written or spoken language which is created by a native speaker of the language in which it is produced.

Authentic materials can help motivate learners by creating a real-life situation and interaction in their classes. Celce-Murcia (2001, p. 29-42) stated that language teachers should integrate suitable materials and tasks in their classroom activities. Teachers should be able to decide what to do and what to use in their language classes to enhance the quality of their language teaching and learning. By doing it, language becomes more exciting and motivating for students; besides, students may be more successful in attaining language skills. Narrowing down to the Turkish EFL context, higher institution programs provide courses about managing maximum efficiency in the lessons with suitably designed classroom materials. In the same vein, Berardo (2006) put the importance of authentic materials by stating that authentic materials enable learners to interact with the original language and content rather than the form. Learners learn a target language as it is used outside the classroom. When teachers choose materials from different sources, they should note that the goal should be comprehending the meaning not the form.

An advantage of adopting authentic materials is that they supply examples of the hesitations, false starts, filled and empty pauses and so on, which symbolize the natural speech of the natives. It is, therefore, a much fruitful practice to introduce pieces of authentic listening at an early stage of learning, alongside scripted texts, to help learners to become familiar with the real cadences of the target language (Field, 2008). Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011) claimed the view that technology opens the doors to limitless authentic resources and brings learning experience to the learners' world. In other words, by using technology, many authentic materials can be provided to learners, and they can become a source of motivation for learners to learn the target language.

2.7. Technology-Based Language Teaching

Increasing interest in technology inverted classes has also affected the language teaching field. Different researchers in the ELT field have their own definitions of technology. Dockstader (2008) described technology integration as the use of technology to modernize and uplift the educational environment. Its support to teaching continues both in class and outside the class through new opportunities for learners to complete assignments on the computer rather than the usual pen and paper. In fact, according to Kartal (2005), language teaching requires the use of technology more than other disciplines in social sciences, the accurate way of language teaching has long been debated in the EFL field. To date, little evidence has been found associating the perfect way for teaching a language to the learners at different language spoken contexts. More recently, the effect of the growing trend towards integrating technology into ELT classes can be felt in numerous aspects. Nunan (2015) asserted that alloying listening activities with technology created a new trend to redesign today's second language curricula. When looked more closely, it can be seen that the actual purpose behind the integration of the technology into language classes is to present comprehensible input in an efficient way. What Bruner said in 2009 is somewhat equal to that view. Bruner (2009) alleged that the integration of technology into language classes had altered the way of learners' approach to comprehensible input.

Many contrary arguments exist about integrating technology into the classroom. Viewed from the history of the use of technology in language learning, a range of different technical applications have been engaged in the language classes. In 1989, a hypothesis by Krashen for second language acquisition posited that a certain amount of comprehensible input as provided through carefully chosen technological applications would contribute to second language improvement. In the same vein, Butler-Pascoe and Wiburg (2003) stated, "technology can provide students with language experience as they move through the various stages of language acquisition" (p. 9). Another view about technology integration claims that just providing access to technology is not adequate; meaningful development of technology-based knowledge is substantial for the learners of English in order to maximize their learning (OECD, 2010).

Technology has numerous effects on language teaching methods. Mainly, the applications have immensely modulated English teaching methods. Many alternatives with positive effects are presented by the innovative technology; thus, making teaching exciting and more productive in terms of language development. Unlike traditional classrooms where teachers

are at the stage by themselves and give lecture through using the board, technology-based lessons assist learners with multimedia appliances. Through this way, a learner can get to know about the relevant vocabulary and language forms. The application of multimedia also makes use of authentic materials like print texts, film. With the help of authentic materials, learners can quickly analyze the target language structures (Arifah, 2014).

Some studies about technology integration are as follows: Dawson et al. (2013) claimed that using technology can modify learning environment from a teacher-centred setting to the learner-centred one; which, in turn creates positive changes due to the enhancing practice time given to students. The new technology-based learning environment created a working class in which many meaningful tasks are attained. By doing this, the technology-based lessons also accomplished to place the responsibilities of their learning on learners' shoulders. Drayton et al. (2010) also supported the view that technology-based classrooms enhanced the learners' responsibility. Learners have started to learn individually and to obtain responsible behaviours. By this way, learners can draw their self-direction in their learning process. According to Bull and Ma (2001), technology provides unlimited resources to language learners. Harmer (2007) and Genç İter (2015) underlined that teachers should find suitable activities to use in the teaching process by using the computer. Clements and Sarama (2003) also pointed out the importance of technology by implying the importance of suitable technological materials usage in the classes. Harmer (2007) brought another perspective to the technology by emphasizing its cooperative nature in bringing the learners together and helping them to enjoy the activities.

The usage of technology offers numerous profitable traits which can be directly utilized in various language teaching settings. Specifically, it offers much more fruitful communicative interaction in the target language than it could be done in any traditional language classes (Chirimbu & Tafazoli, 2013). Even though using technology may constitute a vital part of English language teaching and learning activities these days, some side effects stemming from its implementation also exist. Considering the negative aspects during the technology implementations, and presuming the potential flaws are the critical factors in applying CALL effectively (Saeedi, 2013). Techno-centrism and the lack of experimentation should be considered before jumping into establishing a technology-based curriculum (Plana & Ballester, 2009; cited in Saeedi, 2013, p.46).

Technology invasion in language classes has been seen in many ways. Some uses of technology in language teaching like language laboratories, Computer-assisted language

learning (CALL), and use of the internet are going to be elicited under following subheadings.

2.7.1. Language Laboratories in Language Teaching

One of the most outstanding applications of technology in a language class is 'language laboratory', proposed by Krashen in 1992. Language laboratory has had a long history in providing listening comprehension input and facilitating foreign language learners' to be exposed to the audio recordings of the target language. The roots lay behind language laboratory comes from the Audio-lingual method (ALM), which was shaped before World War II. The most prominent feature of ALM was exposition to the target language audio recordings. The learners initially listen, follow and analyze speech features of the target language and then they are expected to produce similar patterns in their speech. In the ALM method, learner's competency at the prosodic features of language is of vast importance.

The origin of language laboratory dates back to Edison's phonograph invention at around 1870s. Since then, the developments in this equipment's technology from primitive to complex phonograms have changed its place in the language teaching field. Lastly, their place has evolved to what they have been known today as our deluxe language laboratories (Kitao, 2001). During their progressive process, phonograms have also been used for preserving disappearing language recordings. Some of these languages were some African tribal languages, Indian, and Polynesian languages (Jonassen, 2004).

In 1990, John E. Gardner from the University of California conducted a study based on his courses in two different universities. At that time, he was teaching Chinese concurrently in San Francisco and at the University of Pennsylvania, using a kind of phonogram. In his class which is conducted in the University of Pennsylvania, any problems with pronunciation or pitch were not detected (Jonassen, 2004). Thus, as a conclusion phonograph was considered as a useful tool to be used in foreign language instruction in the late nineteenth century; the main argument behind it was that they could preserve the language and play it. Another point obtained from the findings of the Jonassen's study is that language instructors also accepted that if something was recorded, it could be used over and over again, which is very useful for language acquisition.

The years following 1920, the equipment phonogram became more and more complex. The TV arose and the tape recorders followed these advances. The language laboratories were

mainly constructed on these technological tools that advanced promptly up to World War II. Radios also became predominantly standard, and they were utilized in foreign language instruction processes. All in all, the recording industry grew flourishingly by the beginning of 1920s. An English language instructor from Yale University, Reinhold Freudenstein, who had made use of records to teach foreign languages for a long time, underlined four essential features of using records in language teaching which still prevail in today's language laboratories. These features can be counted as; records always play the same model; machines never get tired, machines cannot replace teachers, native speakers of the target language should be used for recordings. (Kitao, 2001).

Thus far, several studies have begun to examine the use of language laboratories. One of these was conducted in 1930 by Waltz, who taught Irish dialect and articulation rules to American students. Upon his research on the language laboratories, Waltz concluded six features of using these language laboratories as follows: opportunity to listen to many native speakers, elimination of other students' incorrect pronunciation, opportunity to listen to and practice the lesson many times, a decrease in the teachers' burden of doing drills, opportunity to prepare for the class enjoyably, opportunity to test listening and speaking (Waltz, 1930, as cited in Jonassen, 2004).

Upon the results of another study conducted by Waltz (1932) again; it was argued that language laboratories provide a consistent, correct model, which the students can use for practice in privacy; help motivate students, because they can see their progress; free classroom time for other types of work; save the teacher's energy. Though this study did not include any foreign language teaching process, it proposed significant evidence for teaching pronunciation with the help of language laboratories.

In every seed of good, there is always a piece of evil, so does language laboratories. Besides all of the abovementioned features, some negative sides of language laboratories were also explored. Miller (2015) proposed a variety of disadvantages of using language laboratories. Upon the results of his study, he listed the deficiencies of language laboratories as:

- Students needed to study reading most.
- Students could not imitate utterances correctly by themselves.
- Students cheated on the timecards.
- Students tended to study without the records since pauses after the utterances were too long, and so using the records was time-consuming.

- Because of the poor quality of the recordings, there was much distracting background noise through the earphones.
- Students without language laboratories showed a more considerable improvement in their grades (Miller, 2015).

In short, roots of language laboratories along with their advanced audio-visual equipment, and lately addition of computers date back to the equipment of *phonograph* invented by Edison (1888). In the initial times of its usage, phonographs were only used for protecting and replaying the sound. However, in the developmental process, it became available to record sounds and replicate those recordings swiftly, and sound can be preserved for a longer period all of which paved the way for widespread use of phonographs and other similar tools in foreign language learning. In the later steps, phonographs were started to be used in foreign language education curricula, because when recorded, they did not exhaust, and students could listen to the recordings whenever they want. At the evaluation stage, students could record their voices while practising what they had learned, and teachers evaluated their efforts. Over time, unique materials started to be used with the development of recorded materials until the end of the nineteenth century. The range of facilities and equipment for language laboratories blossomed after 1920. When World War II ended, the use of language laboratories in language education extended step by step. Later, the method had been converted into *computer-assisted language teaching* (CALL). In the following subheading, the use of computers is going to be elicited clearly.

2.7.2. Use of Computers in Language Teaching

Any transformation from one paradigm to another is a threatening and challenging process. This is also the case in the language education pedagogical process. Since the first appearance of a need for teaching a foreign language to people, the ideal method of conducting it has been discussed. Moreover, changing life conditions and technology invasion affected the language learning process. Throughout the world, approval of learning a foreign language, such as English and French, has aroused, and it not only turned into a growing trend, but also became a necessity to communicate with the rest of the world. Learning English has become more and more essential in the world because English is undeniably the most important international language in this decade (Pennycook, 2017; Crystal, 2012). Therefore, learning a foreign language has started to represent not pacing back with the other nations and contemporaries. Thus, language scholars and researchers'

jobs evolved to combine technology and language. Facing a technology revolution on such a scale, the scholars in the education field have to apply the requirements of technology in the pedagogical process in order to promote the growth of literate and communicative generations. Up to now, several e-learning technologies have been developed to be utilized in the educational context. Their individual area of usage is different from each other, but they are still operable in many stages of language education.

The purpose of following subheading is to provide sufficient background information about the history, types and three phases of Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) in language courses, mainly English. Moreover, the merits and barriers of applying technology in language classes are mentioned based on the various research articles.

2.7.3. Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) in EFL

Several scholars had given various names to use of computers in language education. In this chapter, several definitions of CALL and its developmental history are going to be presented. Levy explained Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) as “the search for and study of applications of the computer in language teaching and learning” (Levy, 2006, p.1). In his definition, technology is used as a symbolic term. However, the name of the method counts only on the “computer” as a technological tool while the term CALL enfolds many other applications under the name of Information and Communication Technology (ICT). The name of CALL has changed a couple of times before settling down to its final definition. Furthermore, Computer-Assisted Instruction (CAI), Computer-Assisted Language Instruction (CALI), and Technology-Enhanced Language Learning (TELL) were the names used before the beginning of 1990s (Davies & Higgins, 1982).

The computer is accepted as one of the most significant inventions of the present era. According to Kelm (1992) "computer-assisted class discussions may promote student participation, reduce anxiety, and increase identification of language errors" (p. 441). Use of computers in language learning started with the French language teaching efforts of a university in Canada. Under different names and in several parts of the world, the educational activities which were enhanced with the computers to teach some languages (i.e. English, French, Chinese, Arabic, Italian, Spanish) has continued in the 1980s.

According to one review article about the usage of technology in pedagogical occasions, the use of technology has some phases each with different impacts on the instructional process.

According to it; “the gradual development of the role of the technology in language courses has known a few different phases. Each phase relates to a certain level of technology and the pedagogical level” (Tafazoll & Golshan, 2014, p.33). The phases of CALL can be categorized as following: behaviouristic CALL, communicative CALL, integrative CALL (Warschauer, 2009).

In the behavioristic phase of CALL, the application was seen as a programmed education based on behaviourism, and it was also seen as the improved data processing complexity (Carmona, 2011). In this phase, activities cover drill and practice applications which are conducted through computers. Thus, computers replace the teachers’ role in the instructional process (Maddux & Johnson, 2013). According to Dina and Cironei (2013), this computer integration has some advantages: timeless access to the learning materials, offering immediate feedback, and individual progress rate.

The second phase of CALL is the communicative CALL which developed at the same period with some of the significant ELT theories. When communicative approach had been put forward by some scholars as a criticism to the behavioristic approach, the advocates of communicative CALL had argued that computer-based education should be built upon promoting intrinsic motivation and interactivity between learner-computer and learner-learner (Han, 2009). The primary focus of communicative CALL is to make students use the language forms, not the correctness of the forms. The most prominent applications that are used for communicative CALL were concordancer software to find the vocabulary use, computer games and text reconstruction programs. All those programs aim to make learners use the language in the first step.

The last phase of the CALL is integrative, which focuses on the socio-cognitive aspect of language learning. Handling with speaking, listening, writing and reading skills at the same time, this phase aims to integrate new technologies in the language classrooms. This phase can signify the language teaching technologies that are used today. Using computers in educational processes comes along with many advantages and disadvantages. In the following subheading, those advantages and disadvantages are going to be discussed.

2.7.3.1. Advantages and Disadvantages of CALL

Being such a widely used method has come with many advantages and disadvantages. Under this heading, some advantages and disadvantages of using CALL in language education are

going to be elicited. Among many scholars like Lee (2000), Warschauer (2006), Singhal (1997, as cited in Wang, 2016) defined some benefits of integrating computers in the teaching process (Tafazoll & Golshan, 2014, p.34). Those advantages can be aligned in a long list.

One of the main advantages of adapting CALL in language education is multimodal practice with feedback which is positive or negative and automatically corrective learners' online exercises. Moreover, CALL provides an opportunity to individualize activities in a large class, gives way for exchanging e-mail which allows real, natural communication (Warschauer, 2009). In typical CALL classrooms, pair or small group work on projects are shared, which means more interaction in the lesson (Lee, 2000; Wang, 2012; Gillespie, 2006; Murphy, 2006).

The second most significant advantage of CALL is the fun factor which enhances motivation (Lee, 2000; Galavis, 1998), variety in the resources available and learning styles used (Han, 2008, AbuSeileek & Abu Sa'aleek, 2012). Besides, students experience the exploratory learning with large amounts of language data. In some occasions, CALL lessons include simulations of phenomena in motion through animation (Dina & Cironei, 2013, p. 251). Thus, learners' academic ability increases (Galavis, 1998; Lee, 2001).

Adapting CALL in classrooms means a shift from teacher-centred to learner-centred approaches in language learning and teaching (DEECD, 2010). The shift to learner-centred classrooms can be counted as another advantage. As a result of learner-centred lessons, anxiety among learners decreases (Levy, 2006; Chapelle, 2001; Braul, 2006; Ozerol, 2009). This, in turn, can be regarded as helpful for both the students and the teachers (Wang, 2006).

CALL enhances global understanding (Lee, 2000), participation in the target language culture and adoption of it (Wang, 2016; Shyamlee & Phil, 2012, p. 151-153) by interacting with one another cheaply, quickly and reliably from all over the world (Cabrini Simões, 2007). It also provides independence from classrooms - learning anytime, anywhere (Han, 2008). Moreover, the teaching resources can be stored for a longer time and shared by other teachers and students (AbuSeileek & Abu Sa'aleek, 2012).

Use of CALL has many advantages as mentioned above, on the other hand, several disadvantages of CALL also exist. Scholars, more or less, come to a consensus about the disadvantages of CALL the most significant of which is the lack of infrastructure to develop CALL classrooms. Moreover, it is time-consuming to reach the information at times (Wang,

2016) due to lack of access to a reliable Internet connection (Coghlan, 2004). Financial barriers are another disadvantage of applying CALL (Han, 2008, p. 42-43; Gündüz, 2005; Wang, 2012; Warschauer & Meskill, 2000; Gips et al., 2004; Lai & Kritsonis, 2006). Moreover, according to AbuSeileek & Abu Sa'aleek, computers are unable to handle unexpected situations due to technological barriers, which means computers can only do what they are programmed to do (AbuSeileek & Abu Sa'aleek, 2012, pp.30-32).

One of the most critical drawbacks is the lack of teachers with sufficient training about the proper application of CALL (Baylor & Ritchie, 2002; Romano, 2003). Moreover, some teachers' negative attitude towards technology is a disadvantage (Selwyn, 2011; Beggs, 2000; Dawes, 2001; Fang & Warschauer, 2004; McGrail, 2005). Moreover, some teachers believe the deterioration of the teacher role in the CALL learning process (Dina & Cironei, 2013, p. 251).

There are some disadvantages for the students, too. Many data proved that students have adjusting problems to computer use (AbuSeileek & Abu Sa'aleek, 2012; Wang, 2012, pp.156-157). Moreover, limitless sources of data can cause unsuitable interactions (like sexist, racist or discriminatory content) of the children with these critical data. Facing with different level of dataDistractions that come out of internet surfing which can be time-consuming (Corrêa, 2001). Lastly, excessive individualization of learning can lead to denial of the teacher (Dina & Cironei, 2013, p. 251).

Considering all of these side effects, utilizing CALL as an educational method has continued to be a debatable topic. With the advances in technology and internet dominance over all the world, use of the internet in foreign language teaching become widespread. In the present study, computers and internet are used in combination with each other. The use of the internet is the following step of CALL. In the following subheading, the use of the internet is going to be discussed.

2.7.4. Internet Use in Language Teaching

The dominance of the Internet in educational areas is an important topic with the last developments in the 21st century and has been studied by many researchers. When carefully analyzed, the Internet has a vital role in several dimensions of education from homework assignments to online assessments and in all instructional levels from kindergarten to the PhD level. As an example, many instructors get help from various internet sites such as

Edmodo and Facebook. Ariew and Ercetin (2004) were among researchers who investigated the adoption of the Internet. They studied whether different types of hypermedia annotations facilitate reading comprehension for intermediate and advanced ESL students. They reported that "hypermedia reading had a positive impact on the participants' attitudes towards reading on the computer." Owston and Wideman (1997) studied writing skill's development level via using some web tools. The study lasted three years. The sample students were at elementary school. The experimental study included 52 students with access to the internet and 58 students without access to the internet. The data showed that "writing quality improved significantly in the high-computer-access school. Therefore, it is useful for English language teachers to explore the actual efficaciousness of Internet-supported language instruction. Taken all of these studies into account, internet usage has developed students' language skills in different aspects. In the present study, the aim is to develop students' listening skills as accomplished in the abovementioned studies.

2.8. Web-Based Language Teaching

As an invention, internet permitted people to stay connected, share and contribute to the shared information as long as they have a connection. While doing these, the Internet does not discriminate people according to their nationality, educational status or religion. For some scholars, this abundance may cause information pollution. However, connecting distances is still an undefeatable feature of the Internet. The classroom now is a "virtual learning environment." Learning is no longer bound by space and time (Franklin & Peat, 2001). High rate of internet usage opened a gateway to the term "*Web-Based Education*". "Web-based education means the most extreme form of online education that uses streaming videos and the more advanced functionalities available in educational software and where there is no actual face to face contact between the teacher and the student." (Lynch & Lynch, p.2). Using the web in the educational cycles brings about some changes and developments in the web tools like web 2.0 tools. This new form of the web is going to be discussed in the upcoming subheading.

2.9. Web 2.0 Tools in Language Teaching

The quick development of web-based technology has increased the value of language education positively; this development has become significantly effective after the invention of web 2.0 technology (Luo, 2013). In the latest studies, Web-Based Language Learning

(WBLL) is used as an appealing research topic, and many scholars take up analyzing the topic profoundly. Many of these studies focused on the integration of web-based tools in language classrooms. The main optimistic feature of web-based technology is the fact that it is potent to break down the physical constraints of classrooms and to enable education to continue outside the class, too (Lai & Gu, 2011). Blended learning has sprung as a solution to the problematic class borders. Traditional face to face education occurring in a specific time and place both bore students and causes them to lose their interests in the target learning materials. In other words, blended learning has offered timeless education to learners. Thus, learners can get more chances to learn and practice the target language through interactive web 2.0 applications, and they can become more interested in the learning process. (Ghoneim & Elghotmy, 2016). WBLL, or connecting to peers via the internet and completing the activities collaboratively, can help learners to construct their target language knowledge (Lin, Shie & Holmes, 2017).

WBLL is in accordance with what one of the most credited schools of thoughts in EFL: constructivism. In the constructivist view, social interaction is more of an issue to human learning. According to Vygotsky's theory (1978), a term called "zone of proximal development" is significant in human learning. The term implies the learner's skills that are not acquired now but can be acquirable with the assistance of more knowledgeable others. In the same vein, the *interaction hypothesis* claimed by Long (1996) asserts that languages can only be learned through social interactions. This theory supports that more fluent speakers help to others those who are not equally well in fluency. During their target language interactions, they can get the new linguistic information provided by their interlocutors. Hence, by providing more efficient listening and speaking occasions, WBLL can enhance students' language learning chances.

In order to attain the opportunities mentioned above, web-based technology has been increasingly employed in language classrooms to enhance learners' L2 interactive competence. Though WBLL has become an appealing topic for researchers studying in the language teaching field, most of the studies are set on the theoretical frameworks, not on experiential data (Luo, 2013). The currently concluded studies belong to ten years before this day, and they may be erroneous in reflecting today's conditions. In order to keep up with the requirements of the era, more current studies are needed.

The ancestors of Web 2.0 can be traced back to the first conference done by using Web 2.0 tools. According to O'Reilly (2005), the idea of future dot-com businesses and the term Web

2.0 has aroused from that conference in 2004. However, the exact definition of Web 2.0 is still unsettled (O'Reilly, 2005; Warschauer & Grimes, 2008; Bloch, 2008; Lomicka & Lord, 2009). There are numerous definitions proposed by different sources. The definition offered by Wikipedia is that "'Web 2.0' refers to a perceived second generation of web development and design, that facilitates communication, secure information sharing, interoperability, and collaboration on the Internet. Web 2.0 concepts have led to the development and evolution of web-based communities, hosted services, and applications such as social-networking sites, video-sharing sites, wikis, blogs, mashup and folksonomies" (Wikipedia entry on June 13, 2009). Likewise, Tu, Blocher, & Ntoruru (2008) define Web 2.0 as "a Web technology that aims to enhance creativity, information sharing and collaboration among users" (p. 336). Zhang (2009) defines Web 2.0 as a set of brilliant technologies in rapid development.

The impact of Web 2.0 tools on SLA is so radical for the field (Warschauer & Grimes, 2008; Sturm et al., 2009). With all that shift in the Web 2.0 tools, SLA has started to move from a cognitive perspective to a social perspective, from classroom contexts to naturalistic settings, from an acquisition metaphor to a participation metaphor, and from theory-based learning to usage-based learning (Block, 2003; Wagner, 2003; Johnson, 2004). Interestingly, this change in SLA research seems to be parallel with many of the significant features of the Web 2.0 tool like the convenience of participation, communication, sharing information, and cooperation. On that issue, many scholars proposed that the use of Web 2.0 in SLA field has modified the language learning notion, curriculum design, and pedagogy (Sturm et al., 2009; Sykes, Oskoz, & Thorne, 2008; Warschauer & Grimes, 2008).

Web 1.0 tools are the primitive version of Web 2.0 tools. Web 1.0 tools enable people to surf on the internet mainly as passive connectors. However, today's Web 2.0 tools offer Internet users being a part of the world via contributing to the accumulation of the knowledge on the Internet (Faizi, 2018). Through connecting with other people, getting rid of their passive situation, and reading web content in novel ways, online readers today can comment, provide feedback and contribute their knowledge. An excellent example of this contributing technology is 'blogging'. Web 2.0 has also revolutionized the way people contact and communicate with each (Qarajeh & Abdolmanafi-Rokni, 2015). For instance, instead of reaching friends via their phone or email, nowadays people can keep in touch with their friends on Facebook, a popular social networking site, through which they can send messages or call each other and install their status via pictures, videos or sayings.

Most of the scholars and people in the education field support and choose their sides at innovations to encolour their teaching nowadays. Thanks to blessings of the era, a wide variety of choices to integrate into the class are available. The use of Web 2.0 tools is among these choices. As noted earlier, lots of advantages of using technology are present like increasing motivation, accessing to more authentic materials, and modifying the teaching styles. However, besides being such an essential assistant for language teaching, Web 2.0 also includes some tool which are not promising for teaching and learning purposes. Therefore, it is crucial to select the ones suitable for educational purposes. This chapter aims to introduce some of the most preferred Web 2.0 tools for teaching English as a foreign language. All the mentioned tools are determined after a meticulous process based on practical experiment and experience. The chapter may be useful for language educators by making them more knowledgeable about the possible uses of Web 2.0 tools and can provide them with the creative and practical ideas pertaining to the use of these tools in their teaching processes. Moreover, according to Murugesan (2007, pp. 34-35), Web 2.0 facilitates flexible web design, creative reuse, and updates, offers a rich, responsive user interface, enables collaborative content creation and modification, establishes social networks of people with common interests, boosts collaboration and enhances collective intelligence.

However, a sole consensus is not accomplished on the exact definition of Web 2.0. According to some scholars, the term refers to the second generation of the World Wide Web, provides a chance for people to get into contact and share information from afar. Several definitions of Web 2.0 can emerge depending on the way of approaching Web 2.0. Web 2.0 is defined as "a Web technology that aims to enhance creativity, information sharing and collaboration among users" (Tu et al., 2008, p.335). Creativity, information sharing, and collaboration are the critical points for their usage in English language teaching. With their dynamic structure, Web 2.0 tools have the power to change teacher and learner roles considerably. With the use of Web 2.0 tools, learner-centred education has become a reality (Lee & McLoughlin, 2007).

Besides the positive features attributed to technology usage in the educational process, there are also some critical studies that show the lacking points of the technology. Above all, trying to add a limitless number of the Web 2.0 tools into the curriculum of language teaching departments is not a feasible thing to do since research on the effectiveness of these tools for use in language classrooms is inadequate. The history of education is full of negative examples of enormous technology investment in the education field. As Schrum (2000)

stated the correct implementation of technology into the classroom is not easy, and the field is full of the impossible promises like technology makes students smarter, a miracle would come out with the use of technology in class. However, these promises are yet to be proved.

Various kinds of Web 2.0 tools have been created in the last decades, and they are available on the Web. These tools facilitate and promote communication and collaboration, and they are highly interactive and stimulate the user's active involvement and participation. Some of the most used Web 2.0 tools will be discussed in the sections below.

2.9.1. Social Network/Networking Sites

A social network is a WWW-based social structure made of nets. On each side of these nets, generally individuals, sometimes organizations have their nets, too. According to the data provided by Facebook, it has more than 200 million active users (Facebook, 2009), which makes it the largest social network in the world. Twitter is a different kind of networking site which provides its users with a social network and micro-blog services. The main feature of Twitter is that it allows its users to send messages and follow other people's messages known as *tweets*. Those tweets are generally but not necessarily on the trending topics.

Both teachers and students use social networking sites actively each and every day. People generally use these kinds of sites in doing their homework, interacting via messages, collecting information, and for many other reasons. The registered number of active users is vast. As stated in Wikipedia, numerous types of social networks are utilized for educational purposes. They have huge user numbers. *Academia.edu* is a social networking site for academics/researchers used by 18 million users. Another one, *Bebo*, has 117 million users. Other sites like *aNobii* and *Busuu* are about books and language learning community, respectively. *Classmates.com* consists school, college, work and the military participants; *ClusterFlunk* is an American network for students to share files with their peers; *CouchSurfing* is a worldwide network for making connections between travellers and the communities they visit; *Delicious* is a social bookmarking allowing users to locate and save websites that match their interests; *Dreamwidth* is on blogging; *Edmodo* is a social learning tool enabling networked learning; *English, baby!* is an EFL network; *Epernicus* is for research scientists; *Facebook*, *Gather.com* and *Goodreads* are on library cataloguing; *Google+* and *italki.com* are language learning social networks; 100+ languages, *Its my* and *LibraryThing* are useful for book lovers; *Linkagoal* is a goal-based social network; *LinkedIn* is a business and professional networking, and *Livemocha* is an online language learning

site. Each of these sites is used by over a million users. Another mostly used site is a new form of diary, blog. Blogs are modern notebooks of people and can be used for educational purposes among many others. In the next subheading, blogs and their educational uses are going to be elaborated.

2.9.2. Blogs

Another web tool that is widely used by learners is a blog, in its long name, weblog. “A blog is a frequently updated website that often resembles an online journal” (Ahluwalia et al., 2011, p. 30). According to Wagner (2003), a blog is a Website, created and updated by an individual through regular intervals. Some contents that can be found in a blog are commentary entries, event descriptions, and other visual materials. Question blogging, which is widely used for educational purposes, is a type of blog that answers questions. Blogs can also be created together with instructors and students (Wagner, 2003). The simple way of creating a blog makes it one of the easiest and most preferred web tools. To be able to use blogs, basic access to the Internet and general technology literacy would be enough. Stanley (2005) expressed his ideas on the same topic by saying that using a blog is as easy as using e-mail. Thus, it constitutes the most suitable platform to share students’ writings. Up to this point, several studies have put forward the claim that blogs positively and efficiently promote language learning and at the same time teaching (Betts & Glogoff, 2004; Bloch, 2008). Furthermore, many studies have asserted that blog usage in writing-related activities provides students with the opportunity to express their ideas freely and gives them more space to make arguments than traditional classroom-based lessons (Baggetun & Wasson, 2006; Bloch, 2008). Blogs increase the students’ chances of interacting with people from different backgrounds (Baggetun & Wasson, 2006; Richardson, 2006). Moreover, blogs have a storage opportunity. By using this feature, learners can trace back to their past works and reflect on their previous productions and on themselves. Thus, blogs promote the metacognitive strategy development of the learners by monitoring the progress on the blog. As most of the scholars claim, one of the most effective ways of learning is to reflect on one self’s development. (Richardson, 2006; Xie & Sharma, 2004). In the study conducted by Ahluwalia, Gupta & Aggarwal (2011), it was proved that students respond positively to the assignment given on the blogs. Literacy of Web 2.0 tools is essential for this study because Web 2.0 tools are intensively adopted in the implementation process. In the present study, the “vlog” is included as a type of Web 2.0 tools. Vlogs are a new form of a blog, and they

are useful for developing speaking and listening skills of EFL learners; that is why they are included in this study.

2.9.3. Podcasts

Another essential web tool that increases student interactivity during the learning process is the podcast. Podcasts are audio-based programs which are useful specifically for listening skill development. Podcasts can be updated based on some periods. Podcasts not only enable listening and speaking practices for language learners but also encourage reading broadly through interesting conversations on literary topics. Thanks to purposeful communicational advantages of podcasts, language learners apply to those tools very frequently. Stanley (2005) emphasized the advantages of podcasts by saying that students reach a wide range of possibilities for extra listening in and out of the class, which gives flexibility to the learner. On the other side, the learners who can understand advanced listening materials can proceed to authentic podcasts and thus, in turn, become more motivated to listen to the target language. The use of podcasts as a listening material can decrease the gap between the textbook-based materials used in most EFL settings and the original English used in real-life events. In the same vein, a study conducted by Jain & Hashmi (2013) showed that ELT podcasts accelerate the language learning process and provide a productive and collaborative learning atmosphere. Thus, in turn, better communication pushes up the achievement levels of English language learners. These positive results are especially useful in listening comprehension skill.

Numerous podcast contents are shared via various web tools. Some sample contents are interviews, idiomatic expressions with their usages, conversations between native speakers; careful listening required texts, lyrics, pronunciation of certain vocabulary, and stories (Jain & Hashmi, 2013). In addition to listening to other podcasters' works, students can also record their works and share it in the form of podcasts. Students can create podcasts in their area of interest, and that would be a beneficial tool for speaking practice for them. Learners get fully exposed to materials that enhance their verbal ability. Besides students, the teachers can also create their podcasts via podcast sites like *Podomatic*. The main benefit of podcasts to the instructors is their smooth way of conveying selected topic to the students.

The podcasts are generally uploaded in series, so they have a tendency to cover more than one episode, thus many of them can be published consecutively. Those successive episodes can be followed through several web tools like *Spotify*, *Fizy*, *Podcatalley*, and *Englishcaster*.

YouTube is currently the most popular site to post and view podcasts. The only essential thing is a device with an internet connection and those web tools installed to this device. The uploading process is straightforward as adjusting a podcasting software is enough to publish audio-works. When it comes to the content of the podcasts, there is a wide range of topics learners can discuss. New starters can observe the previously published podcasts and get inspired to develop their own. The duration of a podcast can range from a few minutes to an hour or more.

2.9.4. Multimedia Sharing Tools

Multimedia sharing tools are like endless oceans in today's circumstances. Both learners and teachers can share multimedia via numerous tools. The most used multimedia sharing tools are *Facebook*, *Edmodo*, *Google Drive*. "Google Drive is a cloud-based storage service for storing all kinds of documents. Teachers can use form and document sections of google drive in a variety of ways. They can create quizzes and lessons, including multimedia elements by using google forms. They can also use the document section of google drive for collaborative projects" (Başal & Aytan, 2014, p.373). Moreover, teachers can place on the web site all course material including syllabus, external links, reading materials except the required books, lectures, full instructions on all aspects of the class, quizzes/tests, videos and audio files, and so on. With the help of google drive, assigning homework to the students is more comfortable, especially for the writing assignments. For writing skill development, google drive would be a useful tool to make students work cooperatively. In the next subheading, the advantages and disadvantages of Web 2.0 tools are going to be discussed.

2.10. Advantages and Disadvantages of Web 2.0 Tools

It has been extensively admitted that technology integration yields better quality in the language teaching process (Cox et al., 2004; Hew & Brush, 2007; Pérez-Alvarez et al., 2017). Nevertheless, numerous fruitless implementations of technology usage exist although the significant share of investments are divided for this new way of teaching. It is evident that technology cannot be considered as a magic bullet to solve educational problems but rather as a powerful tool that can have both positive and negative impact, and that must be carefully exploited. So, there is a critical point to take into account in order to activate the educational power of technology. The way teachers infuse technologies into the curriculum and use technologies to transform their instructional practices is essential, and if only done

effectively, positive learning outcomes may be consolidated (Baylor & Ritchie, 2002; Compton, 2009; Somekh, 2008). In sum, it can be said that technology itself is not efficient but how it is used is more important.

There are some benefits of integrating Web 2.0 tools into instructional practices. As mostly reported, Web 2.0. tools are comfortable (Antenos- Conforti, 2009; Armstrong & Retterer, 2008), relaxed (Ducate & Lomicka, 2008), collaboration-oriented (Lee, 2009; Zorko, 2009), and community-based (Antenos-Conforti, 2009; Harrison & Thomas, 2009). In the learning environments, Web 2.0 tools can increase learner interaction and collaboration as well as output in the target language (Lee, 2006; Peterson, 2001), and positive learner attitudes (Antenos-Conforti, 2009; Armstrong & Retterer, 2008; Dippold, 2009; Ducate & Lomicka, 2008; Lord, 2008). Another advantage of Web 2.0 tools is to increase both learner interest and motivation in language learning (Pinkman& Gakuin, 2005) and cultural knowledge and cultural competence (Jauregi & Banados, 2008; Lee, 2009).

On the other hand, there are also various commonly reported drawbacks of Web 2.0 technologies. They can be arrayed as learner frustration resulting from their inability to distinguish between the standard and non-standard forms of the target language, which could ultimately affect their language use in other situations (Lee, 2006). They focus on meaning not on the accuracy of language output, acceptance of blogs as a private place to describe, explore, and express personal ideas and feelings (Ducate & Lomicka, 2008), and need for explicitly teaching learners how to interact on these technologies (Dippold, 2009).

2.11. Selection of Web 2.0 Tools

Integration of technology is inevitable today, but there remain some fundamental questions pertaining to how to integrate it and which characteristics should be paid attention through this integration process. Considering right and wrong implications of educational technologies into lessons, some points should be taken into account in those processes. In this section, some scholars' recommendations for suitable ways of integrating language into lessons will be presented. A collection of those recommendations is presented in the upcoming paragraphs.

Planning the Web 2.0 tool's integration process is the initial requirement. A technology plan which comprises framing strategies behind the technology purchases should be utilized (Pourhossein Gilakjani, Leong, & Hairul, 2013). A desgining coherent curriculum should be

well regarded as the preliminary step of the planning process. Universities should include technology as a requisite part of their teaching programs. Curriculum can and should be designed with learner-centred instruction methods in opposition to teacher-centred instruction methods.

From the instructors' dimension, teachers should be in the guide and facilitator roles in the class (Molaei & Riasati, 2013; Pourhossein Gilakjani, & Sabouri, 2017). They should know the most effective pedagogical approach during the technology integrating process (Pourhossein Gilakjani, Leong, & Hairul, 2013), and they should encourage their learners to use technology in the language learning process. Teachers should support the students with the simulations for using computer technology (MNE, 2008; Pourhossein Gilakjani, & Sabouri, 2017). Moreover, teachers should create technology-integrated lesson materials. These materials should concentrate on the target language structures. Furthermore, teachers and their colleagues should be in contact with using technology better. Professional development should be significantly regarded both to assure learners' learning and to change the technology competence of unknowledgeable teachers (Gilakjani, Leong, & Hairul, 2013).

If there is a lack of knowledge in teachers, the technology experts should provide extra assistance for unknowledgeable teachers who are willing to use it in teaching their English courses. In specified circumstances, enough support and technical assistance should be provided anytime for classes. Indeed, there are as many opponents as the number of proponents of Web 2.0 tools. Resistance to innovation is normal, and overcoming the resistance will be difficult in instructional field, as is true with many innovations in other fields. This section of the article reviewed some of the recommendations towards Web 2.0 tools usage.

2.12. Theoretical Background for the Use of Web 2.0 Tools in Language Teaching

With the expanding use of Web 2.0 tools in both daily life and educational processes, human interaction has increased immensely in those contexts. Unlike predecessor technologies used at initial times of this new era, people now not only read, and grasp information passively, but also actively create and share information and act in the process (Lomicka & Lord, 2009). Web 2.0 samples, on the one hand, are also highly interactive platforms that stimulate user involvement and participation in the development and maintenance of content. The Web 2.0 phenomenon facilitates learner advancement via highly interactive means, and the learner

mainly sets the speed of the interaction. All of these features make Web 2.0 a functional implementer of constructivist theory.

2.12.1. Constructivism and Language Teaching

Constructivism is a school of thought commonly accepted by many psychologists and educationists. It relies on both philosophy and psychology. The ‘constructivist’ theory accepts the learning process as the construction of knowledge. To put it differently, constructivism asserts “learners actively construct knowledge as they are trying to make sense of their experiences, learners form, elaborate and test candidate mental structures until a satisfactory one emerges” (Perkins, 1991, p.20). According to Fosnot (2013), constructivism is to actively construct knowledge and meaning from learners’ own experiences (Fosnot, 2013). Philosophically, it is asserted that reality may just be recognized by experience; thus, people create their reality (Satish and Munsung, 2004).

According to the constructivist theory of language learning, foreign language learners build their learning through experience, interaction and reflection as they regularly interact with new educational situations. Vygotsky claims that learning is a social negotiation of meaning. The gap between what is already known and the potential information can only be eliminated by interacting through language. This gap is called the zone of proximal development (ZPD). To put it differently, the problem-solving skill increases under adult scaffolding, guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers (Vygotsky, 1978, 1979).

Constructivism resists to the idea that an external reality independent of people’s mind exists. Instead, knowledge is constructed by each learner individualistically, thus the mind is not a tool for reproducing the external reality, but rather the mind produces its own; thus, the brain accepts the events in a unique conception (Leidner & Jarvenpaa, 2000). Thus, when the learners construct their information by their interaction with the environment, the concept of learner autonomy arises. Learner autonomy includes the power of learner for being aware of his/her learning requirements, ways, and goals as a learner, and reflect on these thoughts by reconsidering the most profitable approach for optimal learning. It may be the case that learner autonomy is best achieved when, among other things, the teacher acts as a facilitator of learning, a counsellor, and as a resource (Benson and Voller, 1997).

Jean Piaget is among the most popular constructivists. He firmly believed the invention and reinvention of knowledge by interacting with the surrounding world. Language is also

central to Piaget's theory of development and learning. According to him, language is a tool for children to make sense of their environment. He describes the developmental processes of the children phase by phase. These processes are assimilation, accommodation and equilibration, which are critical to the development and to advancing between stages. Children have schemes in which the knowledge is stored. The newly perceived objects and events are assimilated according to their existing schemes in the assimilation stage. At the second stage of accommodation, they modify the existing schemes according to the new experience. In the end, existing schemes and the more sophisticated mode of thought adopted by the new experience are resolved at an equilibrium (Piaget, 1973).

Howard Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences has similar points with the constructivist theory, which posited that each individual has a unique intelligence (Gardner, 2006). This situation is similarly mentioned in the theory of Constructivism. In Gardner's multiple intelligences theory, teachers are recommended not only to deliver the content but also distinguish the different learner intelligences. In this direction, the teacher are expected to colour the teaching strategy. This idea has common points with constructivist theory as it is of due importance for the learner's developmental styles.

One of the primary arguments of constructivist theory is that learning is an active and constructive process. By using their prior knowledge, learners construct their idea of reality. All of these processes shift the responsibility for learning from the instructor's shoulders to the learner's because learners are the major curators who create a reality from experience and prior knowledge. The Constructivist model in education field necessitates learner-centred education. According to the belief, the human brain tends to grasp the knowledge much better when encouraged to discover things by its own rather than prescribed.

Kuhn (1970) attributed the revolutions of the world to the individuals' experience with the world. Humans design the world consistently by restructuring their old thoughts. Kuhn's point of view has its roots in constructivism. According to Fosnot's (1996) claim, the truth can change in the flow of experiences. In constructivism, knowledge is temporary, developmental, and subjective. Also, Glasersfeld (1996) sees constructivism as the process of dynamic adaptation towards interpretations of experience.

2.12.2. Constructivism and Web 2.0 Tools

Over the changes in both daily life and instructional fields, constructivism offers a new teaching method for this new age of information. From the constructivist principles, it is so apparent that the constructivist education cannot be achieved in the classroom and by course books only. With the advent of the World Wide Web, the information is close at hand, and also learning is shaped by the individuals' way of reaching information. In educational processes, Web 2.0 tools act as strengthening power in learner's construction of meaning. It pushes the individual learner to create his/her meaning out of the content. Another estimation made over Web 2.0 is that it enhances the chances of learning by benefiting both learner and teacher in the teaching process.

The use of technologies such as the Internet, websites and virtual learning environments, the creation of 'microworlds' for learning, the application of collaborative learning, problem-based learning, the use of distance learning applications such as computer conferencing and videoconferencing could serve to implement the multiple constructivist learning conditions, which in return have the potential for revolution in the learning process (Driscoll, 2000; Can, 2006).

Unlike the traditional classroom's expert-learner relationship, it is proposed that the instructor should be in the role of student's facilitator in the way of developing various ideas. Thus, it can be accepted as a closure of the era called "teacher as only information-dispenser" (Brooks and Brooks, 1993). This common idea should be reshaped because learners should have personal responsibility for the learning process. With the spreading usage of online classes, learners started to follow the way of constructing their meanings without the help of the instructor. So, this creates the main framework of the relationship between Web 2.0 tools and the constructivism, both of which have a tremendous effect on language learning.

In constructivism, the education goal is to make learners actively engaged in absorbing new knowledge into their previous knowledge. Memorizing bits and pieces of knowledge lost importance when assimilating new knowledge on to the previously settled mindsets have become ubiquitous in language learning.

The roots of constructivism are embedded in the human's education. Enonbun (2010) described the relationship of constructivism with education; "clearly, the constructivist approach will open new avenues for learning as well as challenges for the instructor trying to implement it in the Global realm" (p. 24). Another advantage of technology that can be

converted to a constructivist feature is that education can be facilitated regardless of the geographical location by the unifying feature supplied by technology integration.

2.12.3. Related Studies

Since the listening material commonly found in textbook-based materials is different from the language in the “real world,” i.e. authentic material, these materials might do a less than adequate job at preparing learners for conversations and interactions in the “real world” outside the language-learning classroom. Starting from this point, the present study aims to examine the effect of authentic materials on listening comprehension skill. On that issue, many studies had been conducted up to now. Some of those conducted studies are documented in this chapter chronologically.

“Using Authentic Materials to Develop Listening Comprehension in English as a Second Language Classroom” is Metinee’s study conducted in 2000. The aim was to examine the influences of authentic aural materials on listening ability in students of English as a second language. Another purpose of the study was to identify the learning strategies used by ESL students experiencing authentic listening texts and to determine the influences of authentic materials on ESL students’ attitudes towards learning English. Participants were ESL students attending the High Intermediate Academic Listening and Vocabulary Development class at a language training centre. The sources of data for this descriptive study included interviews, questionnaires, and class observation. Analysis of the interviews and the self-evaluation questionnaire revealed that the use of authentic materials in this ESL classroom helped increase students’ comfort level and their self-confidence to listen to the target language. Analysis of the class observation and the learning strategy questionnaire revealed that ESL students usually paid attention when someone was speaking English. Students also relied on outside sources such as dictionaries, or other people such as relatives to understand unfamiliar words. Finally, analysis of the class observation and the interview with students revealed that the use of authentic aural materials in ESL classroom has a positive effect on ESL students’ motivation to learn the language. Recommendations are offered to ease learners’ frustration that resulted from the use of unfamiliar vocabulary and the speed of authentic speech.

In Sabet and Mahsefat’s (2012) study, titled “The Impact of Authentic Listening Materials on Elementary EFL Learners’ Listening Skills” research, the impact of authentic listening materials on listening skills of Elementary students at the university level was investigated.

Sixty university students were randomly assigned into two groups. One group was exposed to and received authentic listening materials (experimental group), and the other group received simplified listening materials (control group). A proficiency test, consisted of two sub-tests as listening comprehension and listening perception, was used as a pretest to measure the students' potential differences at the outset of the study. After the instruction sessions, the same proficiency test was administered for both groups. Besides, the students' feedback survey was given to the experimental group to evaluate their attitudes and opinions regarding the materials. Analysis of the quantitative data and comparing the mean scores of two groups via t-test showed that students who were exposed to authentic materials performed better in the posttest. The analysis of feedback survey also denoted their satisfaction and positive attitudes to authentic listening materials.

In Melanlıoğlu's (2013) study "Impacts of Authentic Listening Tasks upon Listening Anxiety and Listening Comprehension", the impacts of authentic listening tasks in listening teaching upon decreasing students' listening anxiety and increasing their levels of listening comprehension were investigated. A quasi-experimental design with pretest-posttest control groups was used. The study group consisted of eighth-grade students in a public school in Turkey. The "Listening Anxiety Scale for Secondary School Students" and "Listening Comprehension Tests" were employed in data collection. Findings of the research show that using authentic tasks for the listening skill in mother tongue education has a positive influence in terms of decreasing listening anxiety and improving listening comprehension.

"Using Authentic Material to Improve the Students' Listening Skill" is a study conducted by Yasser Mallapiang in 2014. In an experimental study, Mallapiang aimed to find out if authentic materials improve students' listening comprehension in terms of inferred meaning comprehension at the Second Year Students' of SMP Negeri 4 Makassar. The participants of the research is 30 students class in VIII grade in the academic year of 2014-2015. The instrument of this research is a listening test, namely, fill in the blank test. The finding of this research shows that the mean score of students on pre-test in utterance was 3.13 which was categorized as poor; however, in the post-test following the instructional process, their score increased to 6.3. The mean score on the pre-test, in conclusion, was 3, 53. This was categorized as very poor, and after post-test were, 6.8 become relatively good. The results of the study proved that use of authentic materials is one of the good techniques in teaching listening skill, and this technique has succeeded to improve the students' listening skill in

terms of inferred meaning comprehension at the Second Year Students' in SMP Negeri 4 Makassar.

In 2016, Azizah with the research titled "Authentic Materials for Developing Listening Comprehension", aimed to investigate the effects of the use of authentic materials in teaching listening to the English Department students of UIN Ar-Raniry, Banda Aceh. The purpose was to find out whether students who got authentic materials in their listening class would get better results compared to those who did not. The population of the study was all the second-semester students who took Listening 2; then two classes were selected using random sampling; the experimental class (EG) with 25 students and control class (CG) with 27 students. Data were collected quantitatively from the results of listening pre-tests and the post-tests while qualitative data was obtained from the questionnaire distributed at the end of teaching to identify the EG students' perceptions of the use of authentic materials in listening. The findings showed that the mean post-test score (82) from the EG was higher than that from the CG (71). According to the results from the t-test, the difference between the scores of two groups was significantly higher. This meant that the students who were taught adopting authentic materials get significantly better results in listening than those who were taught using the usual coursebook materials. The responses in the questionnaires showed that the students preferred the technology-based materials for learning listening skills as these materials were more exciting and more related to their real-life context so that it motivated them to pay more attention in the listening class and this also assisted them to improve their listening abilities.

In the same year, 2016, "The Effect of Authentic Aural Materials Use on EFL Learners' Listening Skills: Case of Second-Year LMD Students at Abou Bakr Belkaid University - Tlemcen" study was conducted by Aina. The main objective of this investigative project is to examine the use of authentic aural materials and their impact on second year LMD students' listening skills at the University of Tlemcen. A case study was conducted as research fieldwork. The data collected from 26 learners and 11 teachers using classroom observation, questionnaire, and proficiency tests were analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively. The triangulation of results revealed that teachers use different sources to obtain authentic aural materials. Obstacles related to the speed of delivery, pronunciation, and vocabulary were found to be the most frequently encountered by students when using these materials which were found to have a positive effect on their listening comprehension and motivation. This is why it is necessary to bring technology-based materials to the English

language classroom. Both learners and teachers were conscious of the value of authentic materials in enhancing the listening skill and recognized its role in the EFL teaching and learning process.

In 2017, Montaña conducted another research in that topic named “The Impact of Using Authentic Materials to Promote Listening Comprehension in 4th Grade Students”. This study included 4th grader participants from Prado Veraniego school where half of the students were selected randomly to get the information about their listening comprehension; afterwards, a pre-test (Cambridge English: Starters (YLE Starters), listening section) was placed to gather data about their listening comprehension before the implementation of authentic listening activities. Authentic videos were selected, taking into account students’ ages. They were played to practice students’ listening comprehension within the usage of TBL (Task-Based Learning) in order to include the task cycle (pre-task, while task and post-task) where students could know about the context, practice listening comprehension with the audio input and develop an activity related to the context. To gather the information and analyze the possible impact of implementing authentic TBL listening activities in 4th graders’ listening comprehension, three instruments were used: Teacher’s journal, Questionnaires and Classroom documents. After the sessions, the same test was applied to compare the results between the pre-test and the post-test. According to the results, it was evident that the authentic materials helped students’ listening comprehension as they had an excellent performance during the sessions because they learnt about a real context by learning the vocabulary of the context, watching an authentic video and performing a post-task related to the topic but also the analysis showed that most of the participants had improvements in the exit test.

Gündüz, Uzunboylu & Özcan (2017) investigated “The Influence of Authentic Materials on the Students Listening Ability in EFL Classes”. This study examined the influence of authentic materials on the student’s listening ability in EFL classes. Participants of the study consisted of 8 Turkish and 22 Cypriot pre-advanced English students studying in college. A five-point Likert questionnaire was administered in data collection procedure. The Independent Sample Test and One-Way ANOVA were applied to analyze the data. The results indicated that most of the participants benefitted from technology-based materials. The students were able to understand and use the language, and authentic materials were seen to be useful in the language classrooms, and also students were able to use the target language in real-life situations. However, this study also showed that some of the respondents thought that the artificial materials were better than

authentic materials as authentic materials made them feel frustrated in the classroom; and also some respondents were still not able to communicate in real-life situations.

Another study by Edrenius (2018) on this topic looked forward to teachers' attitudes toward authentic materials in listening to lessons. This study examined Swedish upper-secondary English teachers' attitudes toward authentic materials in listening lessons in order to shed light on whether or not teachers implement authentic material in their listening lessons and if so, the reasons teachers give for including authentic material. Data were gathered through a researcher-developed questionnaire followed by interviews with two practising teachers of English. The findings revealed that all of the participating teachers in this study ($n=10$) use authentic materials in their listening lessons and that the primary reasons for including such materials are that teachers find authentic material more exciting and that authentic material could be better aligned with students' interests, societal lives and future working lives.

Similarly, Dewi (2018) conducted a study named "Utilizing Authentic Materials on Students' Listening Comprehension: Does it Have Any Influence?". Similar with the present study, the purpose of Dewi's study was to investigate the influence of adopting authentic materials on EFL students' listening comprehension. The participants were the second-year students of Junior High School in Indonesia. The population of this study consisted of 190 students in parallel classes. Purposive sampling technique was used in this study. The participants were divided into two groups, and experimental research design was used. The instrument used in collecting data was a multiple-choice test. The total items of the test were 20 items. The finding showed that t -test (5.09) was higher than t -table (2.02) with the level of significance 0.05 and the degree of freedom (df) = 36. It shows that the hypothesis alternative (h_a) was accepted. The findings of that study showed that adopting authentic materials has an influence on students' achievement in listening comprehension.

Though it has some differences in terms of the visuality of the materials with the present study, "The Influence of Authentic English Video Clips on Students' Listening Comprehension" is another study conducted on this topic by Muslem *et al.* in 2018. The study investigated the effects of using authentic English video clips to improve listening comprehension among EFL students in Aceh, Indonesia. A quasi-experimental group design with non-randomized pretest-posttest control was employed. The sample of the study was 68 second-year students of State Senior High School 4 Banda Aceh. The experimental group was treated by using authentic English video clips, and the control group was taught by using audio compact disc (CD). A listening test was used as the data collection instrument. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was

used to analyze the data. Results showed that the use of authentic English video clips significantly improved students' achievement in listening comprehension in comparison to those taught by using audio compact disc (CD).

In a study by Polat & Erişti (2019), titled “The Effects of Authentic Video Materials on Foreign Language Listening Skill Development and Foreign Language Listening Anxiety at Different Levels of English Proficiency”, the effects of authentic video materials on foreign language listening skill and foreign language listening anxiety of students studying at different levels of English proficiency were investigated. The research designed as a pretest-posttest true experimental design with a control group was conducted on two experimental and two control groups. While the independent variables of the study were authentic videos and English proficiency levels, the dependent variables were effects of English listening on academic achievement levels and on English listening anxiety levels of the students. The participants of the research consisted of 100 randomly selected students, who have A1 and B1 levels of English proficiency, studying English preparatory program at the school of foreign languages at a state university. Data collection tools utilized in the study are the Key English Test (KET) and Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale (FOLLAS). The statistical analysis of the research data was carried out by using descriptive statistics, independent samples t-tests, effect size tests and correlation analysis. Findings showed that authentic video materials reflecting the real language and communication samples, have highly effective results on the development of English listening skills and lowering the foreign language listening anxiety of students who are A1 and B1 levels of English proficiency. On the other hand, as students' language proficiency improves, the impact of authentic videos increases. Finally, when it is compared to control groups, values obtained by the analysis revealed that there is a much stronger correlation among the development of listening, reading, writing and speaking language skills of experimental group students whose English listening skills have improved by using authentic videos.

Although there is a big deal of research on the effects of different kinds of authentic materials on the development of language skills in the international literature, the number of studies conducted to see the relationship between the development of foreign language listening skill and use of authentic materials is limited. In this context, this research is estimated to fulfil a significant need in the literature. Besides, it is expected that the findings of this research will be an essential guide to provide contributions for decision-makers, curriculum development experts, practitioners, teacher candidates and all the stakeholders in the field of foreign language education for improving the quality of teaching listening skill, which is one of the areas

experiencing severe problems in foreign language teaching and learning process. In sum, the studies and theories presented above likely to shed light on the importance of implementing technology-based materials within second language education processes, and it is hoped that they might help students to learn English and innovatively practise listening comprehension.



CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

The previous chapter presented the general picture of the study and the literature review about the topic and the related studies conducted previously to the present study.

This chapter provides a detailed explanation of the methodology followed the current research's design. Methods and procedures are described step by step within related subheadings, the method, participants, instruments, data collection procedures and data analysis techniques.

3.2. Method

In this study, the mixed-method design is used which is one of the most popular tools to conduct an experimental study for assessing teaching of a specific language skill and assessing its efficiency on students' development (Dörnyei, 2007). The experimentation of the methods for teaching language skills has been measured in mixed-method technique to be able to allow a more in-depth insight into the research topic in the most recent studies (Creswell, 2003). For this reason, the present study is crafted in line with the mixed methods design, which combines two basic research Ecoles: quantitative and qualitative research designs. The primary reason behind selecting this design is to enhance the reliability of the data and in turn, supporting the validity of the data. The purpose of this mixed-method study is to explore the effect of technology-based materials on participants' overall listening skill via analyzing participants' exams scores and semi-structured focus group interviews with the intent of clarifying the participants' and instructors' ideas about the technology-based materials. Qualitative data was collected through semi-structured focus group interviews conducted with participants and one-on-one interviews with implementer instructors. The

inner phase of the study is the part when quantitative data are collected and reported. Data collection tools for quantitative data include pre and posttests.

The study aims to assess the effect of technology-based materials on participants' overall listening skill, so the experimental group received listening activities based on technology-based materials. Meanwhile, the control group is exposed to the traditional way of teaching with textbook-based materials which are taken from the Interchange Intro course book (see Appendix A). Those interchange Intro activities generally include the audios which are specially produced for elementary level listening activities. Thus, they are far from real speech instances and can be named as textbook-based materials. Both of the groups are exposed to the same contents, activity types, visuality, and target structures. The detailed explanation of the lesson designs can be found in Appendix B.

In order to meet the objectives of the study, both groups were administered the pretest at the beginning of the implementation, and the posttest at the end of the implementation in order to analyze the participants' capacity in listening comprehension before and after the implementation. In the experimental part of the study, pre and posttests were used in a control group design. Experimental and control groups took both exams. Quantitative data which was collected through the students' pre and post-tests were analyzed using IBM SPSS 25.0. Descriptive statistics and independent-samples t-test were used in the analysis of quantitative data.

Quantitative analysis was the first step of the study. During the implementation, technology-based materials through the use of Web 2.0 tools were used for the experimental group's lessons for twelve-weeks. The experimental group received suggested activities and exercises which were conveyed through technology-based materials via a selection Web 2.0 tools: *YouTube*, *Voscreen* and *Lyrics Training*. Listening was the predominant skill in the implementation of both groups. However, both groups saw some visuals in specific activities. Every detail of the materials like contents, target structures, visuality, and activity types are identical.

The analysis stage started with analyzing pretest results on IBM SPSS 25.0 program. Frequency (n), percentage (%), mean and standard deviations were determined as required descriptive statistics. Then, a reliability analysis was performed to the pre and posttests. The reliability of the pre- and post-listening tests were done through Cronbach Alpha test, which analyzes the frequency of responses on each item. In order to determine whether there is a

semantic difference between the English levels before and after the implementation, the paired sample t-test was applied.

While investigating the effect of technology-based materials on participants' listening levels, mixed-pattern ANOVA (Repeated Measure ANOVA) analysis was applied for repeated measurements. Independent sample t-test was used in the analysis of independent groups in terms of test scores, and the paired sample t-test was used to compare the scores of the groups before and after the application. As a summary, Table 3 below shows the quantitative data collection tools;

Table 3

Research Design for Collecting Quantitative Data

Group	Pre-Test	Implementation	Post-test
Experimental	√	Activities based on technological materials	√
Control	√	Activities based on textbook	√

The second part of the study aims to integrate quantitative data with the qualitative one, detect the deficits of the implementation and to draw an overall picture of the efficiency of it. Qualitative data collection methods include qualitative data analysis which is mostly observation and interview. The data obtained by these techniques are organized, divided into categories with some computer programs. The eventual aim is to discover themes and to report the whole process (İlgar & İlgar, 2014).

Wolcott (1994), suggests three main ways for collecting data in qualitative data analysis; staying as loyal to the original form of data as possible and when necessary, presenting the data of what the participants in the research say directly to the reader with a descriptive approach (description), making a systematic analysis based on the researcher's first approach in order to reach some causal and explanatory results, and including researcher's comments in the data analysis process (researcher's comment) (İlgar & İlgar, 2014). Both of Wolcott classification and other classifications in the literature emphasize that three basic concepts essential for the researcher each in data analysis are the description, analysis and interpretation (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2011). Starting from this point of view, in the present study; description and researcher's comment method was used in the qualitative data analysis part. Description and data analysis were conducted after the content analysis.

Besides, the researcher's observation notes were included as the researcher's comment into the data.

At the second part of the present study, focus group design was selected because of many opportunities of this design. Focus group interviews provide lots of data to analyze; they generate not only narrative data but also some observational data about participants' body language (Merriam, 2009). Actively engaging in the conversation, being remote from participating, facial expressions, and the use of language are some of the different kinds of focus group data. Two focus group interviews were held with the experimental and focus group participants, respectively. In addition to them, semi-structured interviews with implementer instructors were held, and their thoughts about the technology-based materials were addressed.

The qualitative data collected through interviews were transcribed, and content analysis was applied. The definition of content analysis was claimed by Krippendorff (2004); the systematic reading of a body of texts, images and symbolic matter, not necessarily from an author's or user's perspective. Content analysis is used to interpret meaning from the content of text data, hence adhere to a naturalistic paradigm (Krippendorff, 2004). Content analysis has many advantages in the research process (Creswell, 2003); that's why the method was utilized in the study. The main advantage of content analysis is that it makes the data more apparent and shows the patterns in the data. Moreover, it helps to get the central aspect of the social interaction made in the interview. For these reasons, the qualitative data were summarized with the help of content analysis.

3.3. Participants

In the present study, nearly 170 participants, composed of both instructors working in the foreign languages department and vocational high school students, were recruited in 2019/2020 fall academic year. One hundred sixty-eight first grade students studying at a Turkish Vocational High School and three English instructors were recruited for this study. Because of the ease of access and for some administrative reasons, the participants were chosen through convenience or opportunity sampling, i.e. the participants were chosen between the groups that researcher can reach. This sampling procedure is "the most common non-probability sampling type in L2 research, where the important criterion of sample selection is the convenience to and resources of the researchers" (Dörnyei & Csizer, 2012, p. 81). "Convenience sampling (also known as Haphazard Sampling or Accidental

Sampling) is a type of nonprobability or nonrandom sampling where members of the target population that meet certain practical criteria, such as easy accessibility, geographical proximity, availability at a given time, or the willingness to participate are included for the purpose of the study” (Etikan et al. ,2017, 2).

All participants were at the same English proficiency level, which was the elementary proficiency level in English A1 listening tests. Control and experimental groups were selected randomly from 33 different sections, as a whole group. Thus, it is not possible to choose participants one by one randomly.

All (except for one) of the students were freshman newly graduated from high school and entered a vocational higher education currently. All of the participants were between 18 and 19 at the beginning of the study. All of the participants took part in the quantitative part of the study by attending pre and posttest results. Thus, the universe of the study was determined with a return rate of 168. Several students who could not participate in the pre- or post-listening tests were excluded from the study.

For the qualitative part of the study, the fourteen participants who participated in the initial part of the study were chosen randomly to conduct focus group interviews. Two focus interviews were conducted with seven experimental group participants and seven control group participants. The reason why a small size of the interview group was chosen was the expected difficulty in obtaining the qualitative data. The subjects were selected on the basis of the degree of homogeneity of their pre and posttest results. All participants included in those interviews were informed before focus group interviews, and their permissions were taken, before that step.

Another group of interviews were held with the instructors who participated in the study. Three foreign Language instructors working at the same Vocational High School were asked to participate in this study, and their consents were taken. They underwent face to face semi-structured interviews with the researcher, and their ideas about technology-based materials were addressed.

3.4. Data Collection Instruments

As it was mentioned before, a design of mixed-methods which had been selected for its reliability and validity was adopted in this study in order to gain more detailed data about the effect of technology-based materials on vocational high school students’ listening skill

development. Thus, the present study included quantitative and qualitative data forms. For the quantitative part of the research, significant data collection instruments were pre and posttest scores. Thus, quantitative data was collected through pre and posttest results, while qualitative data was collected through interview answers of participants and implementer instructors.

At the outset of the study, a pretest (see Appendix E) was applied to experimental and control groups. The pretest scores offered a general overview of the participants' initial listening levels. The content and question types of the pretest items were in line with the content of the activities adopted throughout the semester. After the pretest, the implementation was applied to both groups for twelve weeks. A listening lesson plan was conducted on the experimental group (see Appendix A). Some Web 2.0 tools for listening and related activities were integrated as a transmitter of the listening materials. This lesson plan was composed of three different Web 2.0 tools used in an interchanging manner. Throughout the 12-weeks-implementation, each web tool was applied at similar ratios; thus, each web tool was applied for four weeks. The schedule was created regarding a systematic path. In the experimental group's implementation, information completion, true/false, and short answer activities were applied similarly to the control group activities.

On the other hand, the study adopted a traditional lesson plan for the listening activities of the control group (see Appendix B). Control group participants were required to follow the traditional listening lesson plan offered by the coursebook *Interchange Intro*. Similarly, with the experimental group; information completion, true/false, and short answer activities were applied with the textbook-based materials offered in the coursebook. Moreover, the Web 2.0 tools were not used as a transmitter in the control group lessons, merely listening audios, and some unit-based videos were used in the control group listening activities.

At the end of the quantitative part of the study, the posttest (see Appendix F) was administered on each participant to see the difference in the pretest and posttest grades. Posttest scores were the primary data that offers the change in quantitative data. According to the analyses that were made on pre and posttest scores, the presence of a developmental pattern was detected.

To collect the qualitative data, two focus group interviews were carried out with fourteen (seven control, seven experimental) participants selected by random-sampling method. Moreover, semi-structured interviews were conducted with implementer instructors. The type of these interviews was a semi-structured one; thus, the interviewer and the participants

were not obliged to follow the rigid schedule of questions. The questions were shaped respectively with each answer in a flexible flow. The content of the interview questions was in fulfilment with the executions in the implementation and targeted to discover the participants' ideas about the usage of technology-based materials for listening comprehension skill development. For the interview prepared for instructors, reflective questions were included to have beneficial feedback about the use of Web 2.0 tools and technology-based materials both for professional use and in their foreign language teaching practices, and some obstacles they faced in adopting them.

As a summary, the following instruments were used as data collection instruments in the present study; pre and posttest scores, two focus group interview responses of participants, semi-structured interview responses of instructors.

3.5. Data Collection Procedures

Under this subheading, the steps that were followed to collect data in the present study were described. In order to test the reliability of the quantitative data collection instruments, a pilot study was made on pre and posttests. As Tashakkori & Teddlie stated, pilot studies are useful procedures as preparation of a full-scale study, regardless of paradigm (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). At the first step, the ideas gathered from three different language instructors were used to check the content and validity of the pre and the posttest, so the researcher consulted to the advisors about the reliability of the items. Since any mis-operating question or any semantic ambiguity in an item can create a misinterpretation in the mind of the participant, it may affect the result of the research. In light of the feedback taken from the advisors, some items were regenerated in order not to create any misleading points in the participants' pretest results.

Table 4

Scale Statistics of Pilot of the Pre- and Post-tests

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N of Items
Pilot pre-test	12,44	2,819	20
Pilot post-test	13,56	3,452	20

According to Connelly (2008), existing literature advises that a pilot study sample size is expected to be 10% of the universe size. After the completion of the necessary editing on the test, it was piloted with 27 vocational high school students, which response to the Connelly's (2008) suggestion for the pilot study's sample size. When the demographic and educational background of the pilot study's samples were analyzed, it could be seen that they correlate with the universe of the study as they also study in a vocational high school.

Upon conducting the pilot test, the raw data gathered from the pretest results were analyzed. The level of difficulty of test items (p) and the discrimination index (D) was assured, and in turn, the internal consistency of the test was measured. The test scores were calculated using the Cronbach's Alpha test, and its reliability was checked. The reliability statistics of the pretest was found 0,7 using Cronbach's Alpha test through the use of IBM SPSS 25.0.

The aim of the piloting of the pretest was to determine what type of problems the participants face with and which points lack in the test. In pursuit of the piloting process, the items with a value of the level of difficulty between 0.20 to 0.80 and the discrimination index higher than 0.25 were selected.

Below is the table of reliability statistics of pretest in the pilot implementation:

Table 5

Reliability Analysis of Pilot of the Pre- and Post-tests

	Cronbach Alfa	N of Items
Pilot pre- test	,606	20
Pilot post- test	,529	20

Likewise, Connelly (2008), Isaac and Michael (1995) suggested 10 – 30 participants for the pilot studies' sample size; Hill (1998) suggested 10 to 30 participants for pilots in survey research. However, Hertzog (2008) warns that this is not a plain or straight issue to conclude because these types of studies are influenced by many factors. Though the pilot study of the pretest showed an effective rate of reliability in Cronbach's Alpha (0,7), some other assurance was needed for the validity of the pretest questions. The underlying reason behind this opinion was to guarantee the reliability of one of the building blocks of the study: pretest.

For this reason, ten experienced teachers working as the instructors of the same samples were consulted about the reliability, and the validity of the pretest items and they were presented to the expert witness. On the light of their advice, some items were redesigned.

For the qualitative part of the mixed-method research design, two focus group interviews were carried out with a total of 14 participants from experimental and control groups who had already participated in the pretest and posttest. The focus group interviews of the experimental and control groups took place independently from each other. Additionally, three instructors who were experimental group-implementer were also interviewed about the implementation process. The participants for the interview were selected from experimental groups with simple random sampling. The questions posed to the participants during the interview were elucidative about the participants' affective thoughts about the listening activities in the implementation. What is different from the experimental part of the study is that the interviewees had the chance to liberally express not only their ideas, attitudes and beliefs about the use of Web 2.0 tools but also their opinions about the listening activities conducted throughout the semester. Before the sessions, the interviewees were asked if they wanted to hold the conversation in their native language (Turkish) or in English so that they might feel themselves more comfortable while expressing their opinions. Upon the general results, the interviews were held in their mother tongue.

It was not possible to reach each participant for the interview due to the time constraints, and the whole sample was not included. Another obstacle was settling the reliable conditions for each and every interview because the population is almost finite. This is also why most researchers use different sampling techniques, like convenience sampling (Explorable.com, 2009). Face-to-face focus group interviews were carried out with 7 of the interviewees for each group. The focus group members were chosen after an analytical elimination. In the selection process, Spradley's (2016) criteria like homogeneity, representative of the universe, sharing a similar background, willing to share ideas were considered.

Both of the groups were posed the same questions, which enables seeing the different point of views of the different groups if there were any. As the type of interview was a semi-structured one, a rigid, pre-defined framework was not followed in the interview. Contrarily, they were asked some questions about the Web 2.0 tools and technology-based materials, and they had an opportunity to change the flow of the interview with the content of the ideas they express. The answers to interview questions were recorded by using smart phones. The focus group interviews took about 50 minutes on average, and the talks were transcribed into

word files in order to realize the content analysis. The other leg of the data was collected through the interviews with the implementer instructors. They were asked the same content of the questions with the samples. However, the questions that were posed to instructors included the same questions from the pedagogical perspective.

In short, data collection procedures can be collected under the following procedures list:

1. Pilot studies of pre and posttests were conducted on similar subject groups.
2. Tests were revised after the pilot study results.
3. Participants took the pre-listening test.
4. Two groups underwent the implementation covering 12 lessons over three months.
5. Both groups took the posttest.
6. They have randomly selected fourteen students from both groups separately conducted two focus group interviews regarding their attitude towards the use of technology-based materials for the development of listening skills. Their voices were recorded.
7. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with implementer instructors regarding their perceptions about the use of technology-based materials for the development of listening skills. Their findings were transcribed.

3.6. Data Analysis Procedures

The present study included two different types of data: quantitative and qualitative. In this subheading, data analysis procedures going to be elicited. A series of procedures were followed to analyze the data. The quantitative data gathered from the pre and posttest were analyzed via the use of IBM SPSS 25.0. Descriptive statistics like means, frequencies and standard deviations were used in order to identify the effect of technology-based materials on the vocational high school students' listening comprehension skill.

At the beginning of the analyses, reliability analyses of the pre and posttests were performed, and then data applied to measure the English proficiency levels of the participants. The reliability of the pre and posttest were done through Cronbach Alpha test, which analyzes the frequency of responses on each item. In order to determine whether there is a semantic difference between the English levels before and after the application of implementation, the paired sample t-test was applied. While investigating the effect of technology-based material use on participants' English levels, mixed-pattern ANOVA (Repeated Measure ANOVA)

analysis was applied for repeated measurements. Independent sample t-test was used in the analysis of independent groups in terms of test scores, and the paired sample t-test was used to compare the scores of the groups before and after the application.

On the other hand, the qualitative data was generated from the audio-recorded answers of focus groups' participants and instructors were transcribed into written form. The questions posed during the interview were categorized based on the research questions, and the answers given by the interviewees were coded by making use of keywords. In line with the recommendations advised by Mackey & Gass (2005) and Dörnyei (2007), the transcriptions were coded with reference to the research questions. Through the analysis of these transcriptions by reading them multiple times, the themes and categories were detected according to the frequency of the expressions or opinions uttered by the interviewees. The content analysis method was employed, and some categories were discovered in the interview responses. The coded data and identified categories led to the interpretation of the interviews.

In sum, below is the data analysis steps that are followed.

1. For assessing the effect of technology-based materials on listening skill development; *mixed-pattern ANOVA (Repeated Measure ANOVA) analysis*,
2. For the analysis of independent groups' test scores; *independent sample t-test*,
3. To compare the scores of the groups before and after the experiment, *paired sample t-test*,
4. And for qualitative analysis; *content analysis* was conducted.

3.7. Conclusion

This research was conducted to explore the effects of technology-based materials on listening skills development of vocational high school students. Both quantitative and qualitative methodologies, or mixed-method, for conducting this research study were chosen in an effort to obtain a rich collection of data. As Miles, Huberman, and Saldana (2014) stated that mixing both genres of inquiry facilitates reinforcing the analytical findings, as well as gaining more analytic texture to research studies. Quantitative data was collected through pre and posttest results, while the qualitative data was collected through interviews conducted with the participants and the instructors. The interviews with students have a focus group design, whereas interviews with the instructors were done one by one. The data collected from both sets of qualitative interviews, and the statistical data generated by pre-

and post-tests have been explored through three research questions. Descriptive statistics like means, frequencies and standard deviations were used in order to analyze quantitative data. IBM SPSS 25.0 was adopted as the statistical programme. On the other hand, qualitative data were analyzed with content analysis.

This chapter mainly focused on the methodological constituents of the study. Firstly, the research design was described in detail. In what follows, background information about participants was elicited. Then, the data collection tools and procedures were explained step by step. Lastly, the procedures followed in order to analyze qualitative and quantitative data, and the schedule was delineated. In the following chapter, the result of the analysis is going to be presented in detail.



CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

4.1. Introduction

In this chapter, data analysis of quantitative and qualitative data collected through pretest results, posttest results, and interviews is going to be elicited in-depth, and the findings are going to be presented respectively. The quantitative data were analyzed through the use of IBM SPSS 25.0 while the qualitative data were examined by using content analysis method.

The researcher aimed to conduct an evaluation to examine the impact of technology-based material usage on students' listening performance by incorporating Web 2.0 tools in a vocational high school located in Balıkesir, Turkey. The use of Web 2.0 tools aimed to aid the students in the classroom in studying and practising listening with a more motivating way.

In the initial stage of the study, the participants were asked to take part in the pretest. On this process, they were informed about the aim of the pretest, which was to detect students' initial listening level. The students were in 6 different classes where the overall English competency level is estimated as the same. Upon gathering the pretest results, we see that there is a correlation between the average points of each class. However, this difference does not constitute a significant one. The detailed analysis gathered by looking at quantitative and qualitative data of the control and experimental groups are going to be imparted in this chapter.

The analysis of the data is done through pre and post-tests that are applied before and after the implementation. In order to analyze the data, the test results were transferred to IBM SPSS 25.0 program. Reliability analysis was performed to the pre-test and post-test data applied to measure the English levels of the students. Frequency analysis of demographic

data of students was conducted. Descriptive statistics of the pre-test levels of the experimental and control groups were determined, and whether there was a significant difference between each group was investigated, and it was determined that the English levels of both groups were close before application. It has been determined whether there is a difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the experimental and control groups before and after the implementation. The effect of technology-based material usage on the experimental and the control groups was investigated according to the change in the listening exam scores after the application. Descriptive statistics are specified as frequency (n), percentage (%), mean and standard deviation.

In this chapter, the results of the study are presented. Findings of the pre and posttests are displayed under the subheading titled 'The Results of the Research Question One' and the answers that the interviewees gave to the questions in the interviews are presented. The data gathered by semi-structured interviews are represented in two separate parts. In the first part, the results obtained from participants' interviews are presented under the subheading titled 'The Results of the Research Question Two'. In the second part, the results obtained from participating instructors' interviews are presented under the subheading 'The Results of the Research Question Three'.

4.2. The Results of the Research Question One

While investigating the effects of the use of original materials on students' English levels, the pre-test scores of the experimental and control groups were compared. Independent sample t-test was applied to the pretest scores of the experimental and control groups, and the results are given in the appendix.

When the results in the table are examined, the pretest mean scores of the experimental (63.98) and control (63.86) groups do not differ significantly before the implementation ($T(166) = .057$; $p = .995 > .05$). From these statistics, it can be seen that the English levels of the experimental and control groups are almost equivalent.

In order to determine whether there is a semantic difference between the English levels before and after the implementation of the technology-based material use on the experimental and control groups, the paired sample t-test was applied, and the results are given in the appendix.

According to the table, pre and posttest mean scores of the control group differ significantly in favour of the posttests. ($t(83) = -14.820$; $p = .000 < .05$). Similarly, the pretest scores of the experimental group prior to the application and the posttest mean scores made after the application differ significantly in favour of the posttests. ($t(83) = -13.927$; $p = .000 < .05$) From this data, we can see that both experimental and control groups resulted in with a degree of success (twenty points for each).

The changes within the experimental and control groups' pre- and post-tests scores were examined. After these examinations, comparisons between groups and between measurements were made. While doing this, both the measurements, according to the groups and the groups according to the measurements, were compared. For this purpose, mixed pattern ANOVA analysis was applied for repeated measurements in order to compare the changes before and after the implementation, and the results are given below.

When the data in the table (appendix) is examined:

1. According to the group line; it is understood that the mean scores of the students in the experimental and control groups before and after the application did not differ significantly. It is a rather remarkable result as data shows that there is no significant difference between the groups that used technology-based materials and those who did not.

Table 7

Average of Experimental and Control Groups Points (Regardless of Pretest-Posttest Discrimination)

Group	Mean	Std. Error	Measure	
			Pretest	Posttest
Control	73,39	1,052	63,98	82,79
Experimental	73,78	1,052	63,86	83,69

In other words, as seen in the table, it was determined that the total score averages of the experimental (73.78) and control (73.39) groups did not differ significantly without any pre-test-posttest distinction.

2. When the measurement (pretest-posttest) line is examined; it is obvious that the mean scores of pre and post-listening tests differ significantly without discriminating between groups. (Measurement = 410,388; $p = .000 < .05$). Thus, it can be concluded that both authentic and textbook-based materials usage were successful in the participants.

Table 8

Pretest-Posttest Mean Scores of the Students (regardless of Group Separation)

Test	N	Mean	Group	
			Control(N=84)	Experimental(N=84)
Pretest	168	63,92	63,98	63,86
Posttest	168	83,24	82,79	83,69

In other words, as shown in the table, the pre-test mean scores (63.92) of the 168 students differ significantly from the posttest mean scores (83.24) in favour of the post-tests. Thus, we can say that the success level is seen in both groups.

3. Measurement * When the group line is examined; it is understood that the change in the test score averages of the students in the experimental and control groups did not show any significant difference before and after the application. (Group * Measurement =, 282; $p = .596 > .05$)

Table 9

Pretest-Posttest Average Points According to the Groups of Students

Group	Measure	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Control	Pretest	63,98	1,482	61,063	66,913
	Posttest	82,79	,963	80,897	84,698
Experimental	Pretest	63,86	1,482	60,944	66,794
	Posttest	83,69	,963	81,790	85,591

Besides, when the effect size values of the study were examined, it was calculated as 001 for inter-group measurements, 712 for inter-measurements, and 002 for Group * Measurement common effect. When all three values are taken into consideration, it is understood that the effect between the measurements is high, the effect between the groups and the group * measurement common effect remains very low.

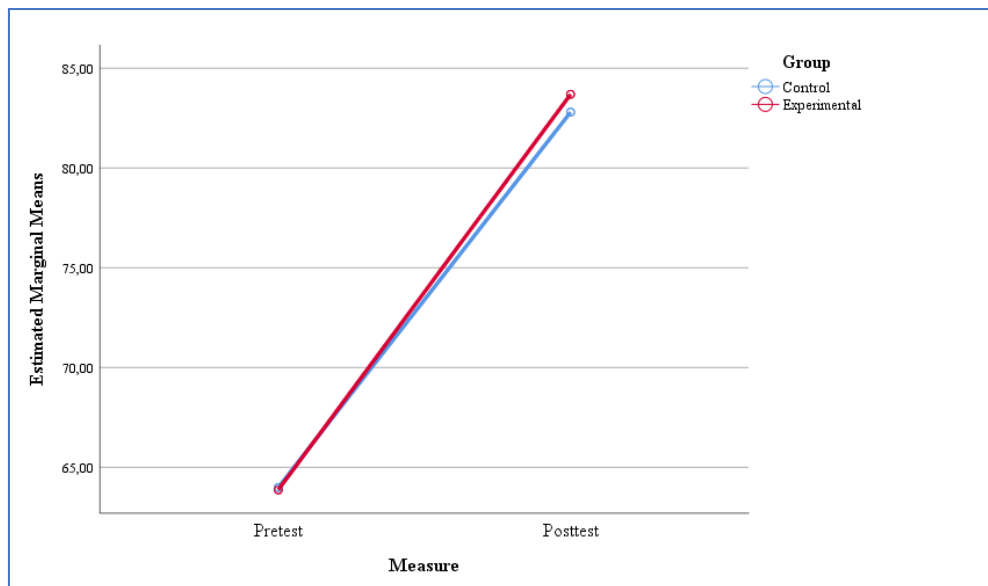


Figure 7. Pretest-Posttest Average Points According to the Groups of Students

The above graphic shows that the experimental group's endpoint score is 83,6 while the control group's scores come slightly after it, approximately one point (82,79). In average, the experimental group reached one point higher than the control group, but this difference does not constitute a significant one. So, a comparison of the two results reveals that the use of authentic and textbook-based materials in the Foreign Language listening skill development process have similar effects on increasing the participants' listening success. Thus, the first research question of the present study is responded with a negative response; a significant difference between listening tests scores of the technology-based materials-applied group and textbook-based materials-applied group was not detected.

4.2.1. Reliability Analysis

Reliability analysis is a type of analysis that measures the consistency of the responses to the questionnaire prepared according to a predetermined scale type. "In the researches, it is usually tested whether the data is in the degree of reliability appropriate for the analysis before the analyzes are performed. Reliability is a concept that demonstrates the consistency and internal harmony of all variables on a scale" (Kurtuluş, 2010, p. 184).

"Reliability can be defined as the consistency between individuals' answers to test items. Reliability is related to how accurately the test measures the property it wants to measure. Calculated as the reliability coefficient of the test (r), it is used to interpret to what extent the actual differences related to the test scores depend on the real and the degree of error factors. If the answers to the test items are three or more options, the Cronbach (α) coefficient is used" (Büyüköztürk, 2007, p. 169-170). "Alpha value calculated from a 15-item scale is called standard alpha, and if its value is above 0.75, its reliability is considered to be high, the reliability between 0.50 and 0.75 is considered to be medium, and less than 0.50. The Alpha coefficient calculated from a scale with more than 15 items is excellent reliability of 0.90 and above, high reliability of 0.70 to 0.90, medium reliability of 0.50 to 0.70, and low reliability of 0.50" (Hinton et al., 2004, p. 364). The results regarding the reliability of the pretest and posttest data applied to the control and experimental groups before and after the application are given below.

Table 6

Reliability Analysis of Quantitative Data

	Cronbach Alfa	Item Number
Control pre-test	,512	20
Experimental pre-test	,606	20
Control post-test	,524	20
Experimental post-test	,529	20

According to Hinton (2004), "if the standard alpha and its value are above 0.75, its reliability is considered to be high, the reliability between 0.50 and 0.75 is considered to be medium". When the reliability analysis results in the table are examined the reliability, the score turned out to be between 0.50 and 0.75; thus, it is understood that the data are measured reliably.

4.2.2. Frequency Analysis

The distribution of the participants' data, participants' demographic data and frequency analysis of participants' answers to the pre- and post-listening test questions are going to be elicited in this part.

4.2.2.1. Experimental and Control Group Distribution

As can be seen from the graphic, 84 of the students participating in the research constitute the control (50%) group. There are 84 students (50%) in the experimental group whose lessons are taught with the use of original materials thorough a selection of Web 2.0 tools like Youtube, Voscreen, and lyrics Training.

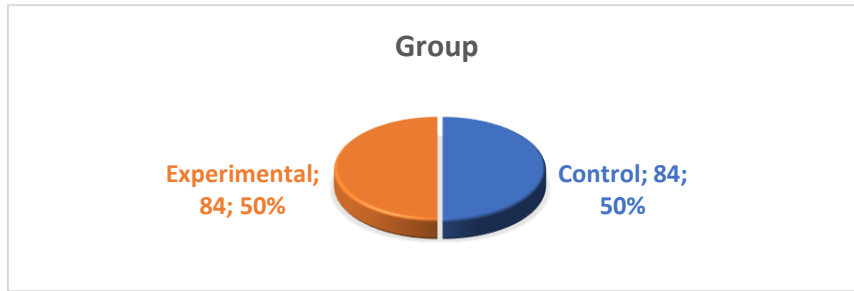


Figure 4. Experimental and Control Group Distribution

4.2.2.2 Frequency Analysis of Students' Answers to the Pre-Listening Test Questions

In order to analyze the efficiency of the test items, each item was analyzed in terms of the frequency of the responses. It can be seen from the statistics that some questions like ninth and fifteenth were answered by fewer participants than those of other questions. The main reason behind this could be stemming from several reasons, such as external voices, low sound quality or the difficulty of the question. Apart from those questions, the general distribution of the experimental and control groups seemed similar. In the graphic below, frequency analysis of the answers given by the students to the pretest questions is shown. More detailed analysis of the item frequencies was presented in Appendix H.

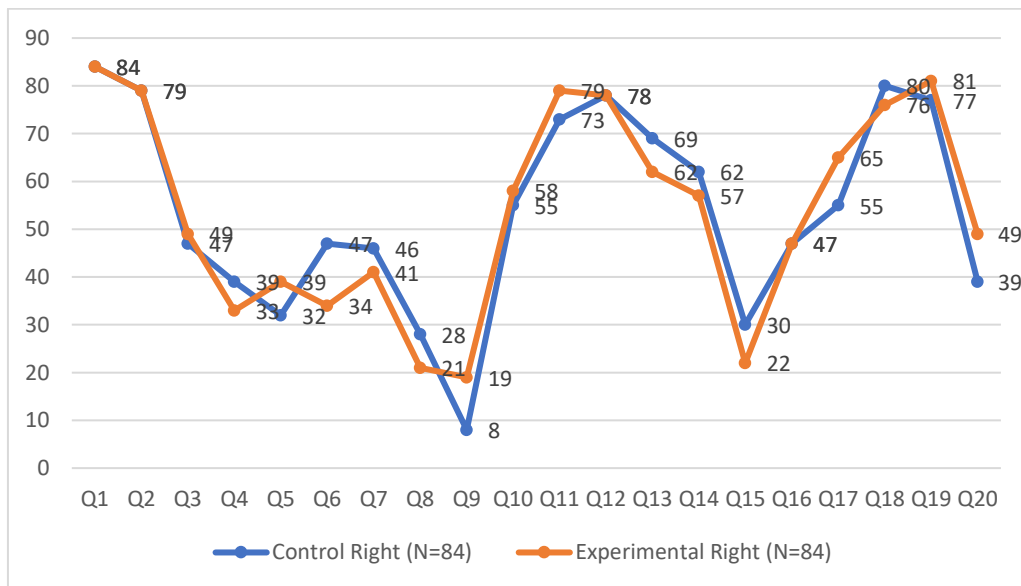


Figure 5. Correct Answer Numbers for the Pretest Questions

4.2.2.3. Frequency Analysis of Students' Answers to Post-Listening Test Questions

Similar to pre-listening test items, a frequency analysis of the answers given by the students to the post-listening test questions was also made, descriptive statistics were computed for each item. Detailed analysis of the questions was presented at Appendix H. Below, the graphic related to these results can be found;

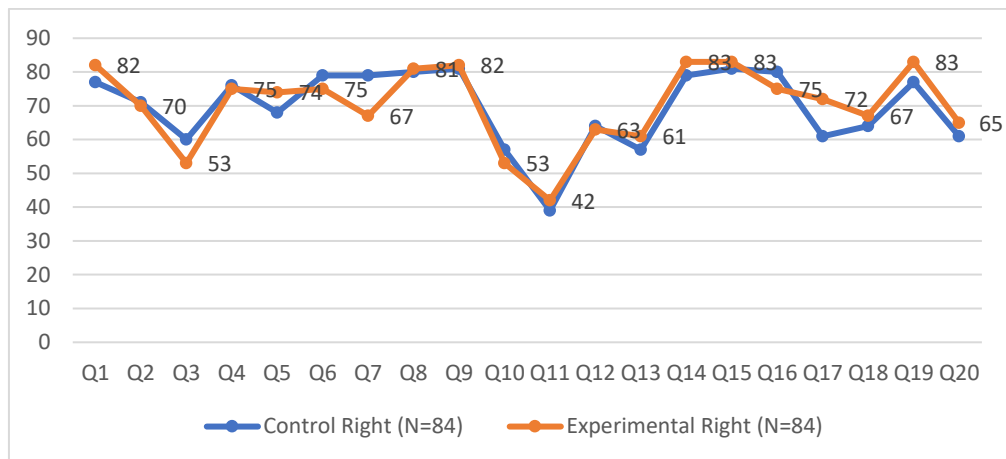


Figure 6. Number of Correct Answers Given to Post-Listening Test Items

What stands out in the graphic is that experimental and control groups' responses seemed to be distributed similarly. Closer inspection of the table shows that the eleventh question was answered less correctly than other questions. Data from this graphic can be compared with the data in Figure 6, which shows the similar distribution of both groups is dominant in both pre- and post-listening tests.

4.2.3. Normality Tests

In the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk normality tests applied to the pretest and posttest data, it is understood that the data are not normally distributed ($p < .05$). However, Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk normality tests may not be sufficient to assess the normality, so the histograms were also used to examine the data. When the histograms of the data are examined, it is seen that all data are close to the normal distribution.

As it can be misleading to decide based only on the results in normality tests, it is essential to look at the skewness and kurtosis values of the data in addition to the test results. The table which provides the skewness and kurtosis values of the data can be found in Appendix.

“It can be said that data with skewness and kurtosis values within the range of ± 1 are normally distributed.” (Hair *et al.* (2016), p. 54) When the skewness and kurtosis values are examined, it is understood that the values are in the range of ± 1 , and the data are assumed to be normally distributed.

While investigating the effect of the use of technology-based materials on students' English levels, mixed-pattern ANOVA (Repeated Measure ANOVA) analysis was applied for repeated measurements. Independent sample t-test was used in the analysis of independent groups in terms of test scores, and paired sample t-test was used to compare the scores of the groups before and after the application. In those analyses, the statistical significance value was accepted as $p < .05$.

4.3. Qualitative Data Results

In this part, the answers gathered from the interviews with the participants and the instructors were analyzed in order to elicit their perceptions about technology-based materials in the listening skill development process. The aim of this qualitative part is to provide more detailed data and contribute to the quantitative data. To put it differently, qualitative data is like a further investigation of the quantitative data. The findings of the interviews were presented in two separate parts: The Results of the Research Question Two and The Results of the Research Question Three. These parts scrutinize the results separately.

4.3.1. The Results of the Research Question Two

In order to reach an answer for the second research question, 14 students and instructors were interviewed, and related questions to elicit their ideas were posed. During the former part of January 2020, fourteen (8%) of the 168 students who took part in the study were interviewed in Turkish about their experience conducting listening activities during the 2019 Fall semester. Fourteen students were divided into two focus groups according to their implementation groups. The interview was semi-structured, and the researcher prepared fifteen questions, focusing on listening skill and technology-based materials. The interviews were conducted in the native language of the students in order to eliminate

misunderstandings caused by some linguistic and cultural barriers. All speeches are tape-recorded for transcription purposes. Qualitative responses given to the questions were analyzed by using content analysis to find regular themes related to the technology-based materials and listening in general. Participants and their responses are referred to with a number (e.g., Experimental participant 1: E1, control participant 1: C1).

After transcription, the participants' comments were put into categories based on common themes such as *low importance*, *rate of speech* or *motivation*. These themes were further combined into more general categories. After analyzing the quantitative data, reviewing the voice recordings from the fourteen participants who agreed to be interviewed proved the students' positive attitude towards the use of technology-based materials. This finding confirmed that their oral responses overlap with the researcher's belief that the participants see the technology-based materials more effective than the textbook-based ones. The interviews were carried out one week after the end of the implementation, so the experiences were still fresh in their minds. The discussion part presented below is based on the participant students' answers to the questions that are straightly related to foreign language listening.

When the responses to the questions were analyzed, several common points were identified. The responses of the interviewees were stable regarding the positive feelings of technology-based materials usage in English listening.

The first question was about the importance of listening skill in their foreign language learning journey. Some of the sample responses to this question can be found in appendices. When the answers of all participants to that question were analyzed, it was discovered that in both focus group and experimental group, nine out of fourteen (64%) students did not see the listening as an essential skill. It is also important to note that six participants, two of whom were in the experimental group, reported listening as *less critical than speaking* skill. Moreover, eight of the students stated the reason for its low importance as the *difficulty* of foreign language listening.

The second question dealt with the outstanding problems participants met in EFL listening activities. Ten (70%) of the participants admitted that they had severe problems in listening activities during the class. When the responses of the participants were analyzed, it was apparent that the high speed of speech is a fundamental problem in EFL students' listening. It is important to note that twelve of the fourteen (85%) respondents shared the same view about their listening problems, alongside other problems. Moreover, three of fourteen

students (20%) mentioned *lack of vocabulary knowledge*, seven of them mentioned pronunciation, three of them (20%) stated the *lack of grammar knowledge* and one (7%) stated *lack of problem-solving ability* as their particular listening problems. Therefore, it can be stated that as it is accepted most frequently, the rate of speech may be the significant reason about which learners may be anxious in listening to authentic English either in the form of a dialogue or in lecture form.

Another question that was posed to the participants were about their feelings towards their own progress in terms of listening comprehension skill if there were any. In the question, the participants were asked whether their English listening skills improved after the listening activities that they participated during the semester. As it was stated earlier, the question was posed to both experimental and control groups in order to see the discrepancies between two group's results. Nine of fourteen (64%) experimental and control group participants responded to the question with a positive answer by agreeing that they showed progress. Besides the general agreement, the way experimental group participants expressed their improvement was differed from the participants of control group. While five of seven (71%) experimental group participants mentioned the effective factors in their improvement, such as *good listening audios* and *motivation*, it was remarkable that none of the participants commented any negative emotions about their disbelief in their improvement. The general comment that can be drawn from the responses is that their thought processes seemed to correctly inform them they had achieved well, which, in fact, is true according to the improvements in the post test scores of the experimental group.

Another question was about the Web 2.0 tools that were used as the medium of technology-based materials. Participants were asked whether they have information about those tools, and if they had, what were their opinions about these tools' benefit to education. Two of the seven control group participants (28%), approved that they have heard the term Web 2.0. Four of the seven (57%) experimental group students gave affirmative responses to the question. It is also significant that the respondents, who answered the question positively, also mentioned about the benefit of these tools for educational purposes.

Another question posed to them was the effective ways to improve English listening. All of the respondents indicated that practising could help developing listening skills to a great extent. Several of those participants compared the level of their listening skills in the beginning of the term and their situations at the time of the interviews, and they remarked

the difference they had. The possible reason behind their statements of improvement may be the influence of the activities they did throughout the semester. So, it is possible to say that the experimental group's activities retained more in their minds than those of the control group because they remarked the activities more than control group participants did.

The next question, likely to be the most outstanding question in terms of the responses, was about the participants' motivation level. The total number of responses to this question was ten (71%). All of the experimental group participants indicated they liked the listening materials and the applications. One of the experimental group respondents found the applications to be valuable, and six of them felt they were important for improving their English. Moreover, all of them stated that they were highly motivated in those activities. On the other hand, not all control group participants indicated the same degree of motivational expressions towards listening activities.

During the interviews, five (71%) of the control group participants complained that they did have some problems in sustaining their interest level in the first weeks of the semester. They had several different reasons as to why they did not feel motivated as the first week. For instance, some said that the topics and the speeches in the audios were not appealing. In the same vein, as another control group interviewee said: "I was too bored to listen to the audios at times". This can be attributed to the idea that individual interest may develop over time if the participant feels that he has enough knowledge and trust in himself to accomplish the task (Harackiewicz and Hulleman, 2010). As Harackiewicz and Hulleman (2010) stated, situational interest may fade after being seen or experienced at a given time. As second control (C2) participant put it: "I cannot say I liked the listening activities much, they were as normal as the ones we did in our high school degree." He might have felt that he had a solid grasp of this type of listening activities. Unlike situational interest, individual interest may grow in time thanks to its novelty to him.

The situation can be seen in the experimental group's responses such as "Instead of listening to boring audio prepared for the lesson, it is more fun to listen to the English songs and movies. Maybe they speak very fast in movies and songs, but it also motivates us. Despite their quick speech, we guessed the words in between." Another experimental group participant commented that he felt motivated in the listening activities as he found them useful for him. This comment can be linked to what Schraw and Lehman (2009) stated about the positive effect of personal interest on learning. All of the experimental group participants

agreed that listening materials were very motivating, and that using them made them feel even more motivated to continue on their own.

Interestingly, there was also a different answer to that question. One control group participant remarked the decline in his level of interest after observing one counterpart's activity scores were higher than his. His self-efficacy could have been adversely affected to notice someone accomplishing the same tasks better than him. The present situation was put forward by Rueda (2011) as a performance goal orientation. He claims that motivation has a context-specific nature and that someone's self-efficacy beliefs in one subject area can differ from different components of the same subject. In other words, individuals may misinterpret their situation because of the external factors. The situation also refers to perceived situations or conditions.

When asked about the positive and negative sides of the listening activities they had completed this semester, the experimental group participants (six of seven) were unanimous in the view that using authentic English materials were the positive side. Only a small number (one out of seven) of experimental group respondents indicated that the technology-based materials constituted a challenge. On the other hand, four of seven control group participants stated they think general topics and the speech manner of the listening activities were boring.

The overall response of the experimental group to this question was very positive, whereas the control group's response was the opposite. Six of seven (85%) experimental group participants expressed that the listening audios were good. The noteworthy point is that one (14%) experimental group student stated the speeches in listening audios were very fast; they could not catch them. Four of seven (57%) control group respondent claimed that the listening audios were terrible. As two groups conducted the same activities with different listening audios, two discrete reasons emerged from this; first, the experimental group were in favour of the technology-based materials they were using. Second, the control group did not like the course book's listening audios.

Several participants (four out of fourteen, 28%) from different groups stated some problems caused by physical environment such as external voices. Two of the experimental group (28%) students indicated their uneasiness with the internet connection problems which delayed the completion of the activity.

The eighth question was about the things that need to be changed. The overall response rate of the question was inadequate. Six (42%) students expressed their ideas; as stated before control group students were not happy with the audios. Two of them stated they would change the coursebook's listening *audios*. One control group and two experimental group students stated that they would change the *topics*. Moreover, two experimental (28%) group students also claimed that they would change the speed of the speech of listening audio. Generally, technical problems were the most common answer given for this question.

Another question was about the technology-based materials. As the participants were not familiar with the term 'authentic', they were informed about what technology-based materials are and the definition of the technology-based materials beforehand. Upon gaining this knowledge, they commented on the question. As can be seen from the sample responses, both the control group and the experimental group participants favoured the technology-based materials with a rate of 64%. Five (71%) experimental and four (57%) control group respondents stated that they prefer technology-based materials to acquire English. Two (28%) of the control group respondents remarked that they would start with textbook-based materials because of their slow-flow; however, they would prefer technology-based materials in the remaining part of language learning. This may show that the participants had a common point in their material preferences.

The last question was about the participants' self-perceptions of their progress. The participants were asked to define how much their listening skills progressed after they had been exposed to the listening materials for a certain period of the term. The general idea taken from the above responses is that experimental group participants felt more developed as six (85%) experimental group respondents answered positively, whereas only three control group students claimed they thought they had developed. Even though it was not asked as a question during the interviews, several of the control group participants like participant C1 offered a change in the material type and stated that the use of technology-based materials would be more beneficial for their listening comprehension skill development. When we look at the general distribution of positive answers, the main underlying reason might be the fact that experimental group participants exposed to the real English, and they were more attracted by the technology-based materials than the control group; thus, they might have been more inclined to think positively about the technology-based materials. This situation supports the view of Flowerday, Schraw, & Stevens (2004)

about *situational interest*. According to those scholars, exciting and novel learning materials could help to acquire higher-quality talents, in speaking, listening, writing and reading.

The purpose of the qualitative part of the study was to address the participants' perceptions about the use of technology-based materials for listening skill development. For that reason, 8% of the participants was selected through some criteria homogenously and interviewed in two focus groups. Thus, the findings of the study were aimed to be deepened with a different type of data. During the implementation process, 50% of 168 participants were exposed to technology-based materials through some Web 2.0 tools for eight weeks. The other half exposed to the course books' listening materials. The topics and the types of activities were the same; the only differing ingredients were the authenticity of the listening materials and the Web 2.0 tools in conveying those materials to the participants. The interview questions were unveiling participants' ideas about their implementation process. The responses were analyzed, and central themes attained were sorted under below subheadings according to their frequencies:

1. Difficulties of foreign listening
2. Motivation levels according to the materials
3. Strengths and weaknesses of the materials
4. Preferences on material types
5. Participants' self-perception about their progress

The sequence of the interview questions aimed to prepare participants for the most critical questions that came in the latter part. So, in initial interview questions, focus group interviewers commonly agreed upon the difficulties they faced in general listening activities. The main difficulties they mentioned in their responses are *the rate of speed, low environmental conditions (external voices), lack of vocabulary and pronunciation knowledge*. Few of the participants mentioned *a lack of grammatical knowledge* as a difficulty.

The latter questions were more related to the second research question.

Data about the strength and weaknesses of the materials can be grouped under two categories for each group. Experimental group participants commonly stated the strength of technology-based materials as motivating; however, one (14%) experimental group student found the speeches in listening audios very fast and challenging to catch. On the other hand,

four of seven (57%) control group participants remarked the dullness of the textbook-based materials. Thus, from the general themes attained in this question, it can be concluded that technology-based materials' strength is *motivating*; however, their weakness is being *uncapturable*. Being *dull* is the main weakness of textbook-based materials.

The preferences of the participants showed a high rate (70%) of agreement on behalf of technology-based materials. Both groups participants stated that they would like to learn listening via technology-based materials. Another noticeable result was about the participants' self-perceptions about their development. More experimental group participants (85%) expressed that they felt developed by answering positively, whereas only three (42%) of the control group students claimed they thought they had developed.

4.3.2. The Results of the Research Question Three

In the semi-structured face to face interviews, the instructors who adopted technology-based material through technology were asked the way their students responded to the activities and students' motivation and engagement levels in the implementation process. By doing this, the differences between the responses of experimental and control groups' instructors were aimed to be sorted. Both experimental group instructors replied positively stating that their students showed positive attitudes towards listening activities. One of the experimental group instructors specified that the uses of audios from the sources that do not carry educational purposes in the classroom "are awesome support for learners" as they could have high engagement levels through a technology-integrated atmosphere. The other instructor specified that "experiencing natives' speech instances is useful for learning English dialect". They expressed that learners were co-operative, spontaneous and responsive in the activities. One of the instructors stated that students could get the maximum listening development benefit from technology-based materials used in the classroom. Students liked to participate in the class. Another experimental group instructor stated "Being exposed to technology-based materials, students associate the lesson topics with outside real-life language uses. Therefore, they got more motivated." These positive ideas of the experimental group instructors also reflect the Hedge's ideas. Hedge (2000) claims that if students are exposed only unnatural language in the language development process, their first encounter with English spoken in the real world can be demoralizing. On the other hand, the control group instructor stated that the students showed a sufficient degree of attention towards the listening activities; however, their attention started to decrease after the fifth week.

The researcher wanted to explore the implementer instructors thoughts about the technology-based material usage via Web 2.0 tools in listening classrooms. Instructors that applied technology-based materials in their lessons addressed the use of those materials positively. As Patel claimed in his 2013 study, "Teaching with technology creates (...) the classes lively and interesting" and "has its feature such as visibility and liveliness" (p.119). This view of Patel has also been demonstrated in the instructors' views. One of the instructors shared that the experimental group participants were "dynamic and enchanting, and in this way, learners' attention was never worn out in the classroom". It was found that experimental group participants were benefited from the utilization of Web 2.0 tools as a part of the classroom activities. Both of the experimental group instructors stated that technologically advanced classrooms helped them to develop excellent communication with students, and the engagement level in listening activities was remarkable.

As previously discussed, numerous benefits of adopting technology-based materials were stated in the interviews. Nevertheless, some drawbacks were noted by learners and instructors, too. As experimental group instructors mentioned "infrequent electric connection and slow internet" some significant problems in the implementation process; apart from those, students showed no negative attitudes in their classes. As one experimental group instructor expressed, few students complained about materials' rate of speed; however, that did not spoil the flow of the lesson. The teachers who were using course book's listening materials stated the topics did not attract students and in the latter parts of the application, they stated: "Students were lost."

4.4. Conclusion

In this part, the quantitative and qualitative results were elicited and discussed in depth. The results were discussed under separate subheadings. As a summary, three research questions were set up for the present study. Findings for Research Question One revealed the use of technology-based materials and textbook-based listening materials did not create a significant difference in the vocational high school students' experimental and control groups' listening test scores. The results related to Research Question Two regarding the participants' attitudes toward the use of technology-based materials showed a high rate of positive attitude, most of the students stated they would prefer technology-based materials rather than textbook-based materials as listening materials. Research Question Three aimed to determine if the experimental and control group implementers' ideas differed about the

teaching processes they conducted; however, as the results indicated, adding technology-based materials into listening classes generated more positive attitudes toward English listening mode on the side of the students. Given all findings, it can be claimed that both lesson types (using technology-based materials and textbook-based materials) were successful as the control group's score increased nine points, and experimental group's score increased ten points in average. Thus, the experimental group showed a development that is one point more on average. However, this one point improvement does not constitute a significant difference.

Participants' attitudes, on the other hand, showed a high positivity in favor of technology-based materials. Both students and the teachers expressed their preferences for technology-based materials. Ten of fourteen (70%) focus group interview respondents saw technology-based materials more motivating and useful for listening development. The implementers also gave preference to technology-based materials use by stating the tremendous motivational atmosphere created by the use of them.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION & CONCLUSION

Having mixed-method research design and the triangulation technique, this study consisted of quantitative and qualitative research with the aim of explaining the effect of technology-based materials usage on the development of vocational high school students' listening comprehension skill and teachers' and students' perceptions about technology-based materials. As presented in Chapter Four, the results relating to the effect of technology-based materials usage on vocational high school students' listening comprehension did not support the hypothesis introduced in Chapter One in terms of quantitative results. In light of the synthesis of qualitative and quantitative findings, Chapter Five summarizes and discusses the research outcomes for the three research questions, attempts to draw practical conclusions and offers some pedagogical implications to EFL educators. Additionally, suggestions for future research in WBLL area will be put forward to address methodological drawbacks in previous studies.

Concerning the first research question, the effect of technology-based materials on listening skill development, pre and post-listening test scores revealed that both groups attained success levels. The participants in the technology-based materials-applied group showed higher points compared to those in the textbook-based materials-applied group in the endpoint. However, this difference did not constitute a significance. Generally, growth of approximately twenty points in averages revealed that both techniques were successful in developing students' listening skill.

Considering the hypothesis presented in the first chapter, the researcher predicted that after twelve weeks, the participants exposed to technology-based materials would show higher development in their test scores. However, the results showed no significant differences between the two groups. In other words, the increased authenticity in listening materials had

little to do with the development of listening skill that the participants showed after twelve-week implementation. Several other factors can explain this result.

One possible reason may be the students' lack of adequate vocabulary, inability to grasp the utterances and fast rate of speech possibly made it difficult for the students to digest the message in listening texts. This note is justifiable given that, during the experimental period, some experimental group students commented that they could not wholly understand what the native English speakers said unless they heard it twice. The students lacked the academic and linguistic vocabulary; as a result, they may have felt frustration or anxiety in facing the real language taken directly from the noneducational sources. This finding supports what Lin (2002) stated, "the learning burden in acquiring the target vocabulary increase [s] to such an extent that some learners get too frustrated to go on" (p. 33). It also appears in foreign language listening activities. Hence, instructors adopt the suitable level of technology-based material to avoid the feelings of defeat or worry in the language learning process, as psychological barriers can wreck the learning as Krashen (1982) stated in his affective filter hypothesis.

Both types of participants who practised listening with technology-based materials and textbook-based materials reached to acceptable success levels. Their listening points increased about twenty points at the end of the semester. Thus, it can be concluded that practising listening is a key factor in developing EFL students' listening skill. In light of the findings of the present study, it can be concluded that no matter what type of listening material one practice with, practising listening helps developing listening skill. As Peterson (2001) stated, in order to develop EFL students' listening skills, more time should be spared for listening activities. In my view, in the Turkish context, the enhanced time for listening should start with the teacher's speech. Unfortunately, many learners in Turkish EFL context are familiar with the teacher type who does not use English as the medium of instruction in the classes. If the teacher uses target language in clarifications, activities and giving instructions, the time spent on listening will increase automatically.

The second question of the study sought to determine the attitudes of participants towards the technology-based material use for the development of listening skill. Thus, aiming to determine the differences in experimental and control groups. In this part, outstanding findings are going to be discussed.

One of the main questions in the interview was about the problematic sides of the listening activities. The interviewer asked participants' ideas about the negative sides of the listening activities they conducted during the semester. As for the problems, the experimental group stated rate of speech, insufficient knowledge of vocabulary and pronunciation. On the other hand, what the control group stated as main problems are; insufficient concentration, lack of grammatical knowledge, and lack of vocabulary knowledge. The distinction of the responses of the two groups can be observed clearly.

The responses collected from control group participants show that some students faced the usual problems experienced by EFL students in the implementation process. Underwood (1989) sorted these usual problems of students that they go through in the listening process. In the present study, what qualitative findings show relates to Underwood (1989)'s findings. Most of the control group students stated their problems as insufficient vocabulary knowledge, not able to realize transitions, insufficient contextual knowledge, insufficient concentration, and effort to comprehend each word. Moreover, some participants of control group complained about their lack of interest; underlying reasons for that may be the slow speech and low-level speech such as hearing only primary grammatical forms with the slowest rate of speech. These factors may bore students of listening to textbook-based materials. Another underlying reason can be attributed to Harackiewicz and Hulleman's (2010) claim. According to them, individual interest may disappear over time if the participant felt that he has enough knowledge and trust in oneself to accomplish the task (Harackiewicz and Hulleman, 2010). As Harackiewicz and Hulleman (2010) stated, situational interest may fade after being seen or experienced at a given time, which can be the case in the control group. The participants' responses may also shed light on the weaknesses of the implementation they were exposed to, and in turn, findings may help to determine points that should be renovated in the further studies.

When it comes to the findings of the experimental group interviews, quite a few (28%) participants from the experimental group stated that the rate of speech was too high to catch the meaning. What this participant stated is defining his inability to *decode*, as Cook (2001) defined. According to him; in order to teach listening to students, we should make them decode messages from language and to code break the language system from what is heard. However, as the participant stated, he could not decode what was heard. The participant's response, on the other hand, differs from what most of the other participants expressed for

the difficulties of listening to technology-based materials. Only two participants of seven expressed their uneasiness with the rate of speech.

According to overall content analysis findings, students did appreciate the usage of technology-based materials. There are several reasons for this finding. The underlying reason has its roots in psychological needs. Participants showed greater interest in what they were interested more. So, as the technology-based materials were more attractive to them, they desired to use them more. The underlying reason behind seeing technology-based materials attractive is that AM constructs solid examples for their future aims in language proficiency and seeing their goal can make them more motivated.

When it comes to the third question of the study, findings showed us the implementor instructors' ideas about the implementation from the pedagogical perspective. In all interviews conducted with three instructors, their responses were accepted as genuine ones. They were asked the same questions, and the differences in their thoughts were sought if there any. In this part, outstanding findings found in the responses of instructors are going to be discussed.

When the responses were analyzed, it can be seen that they were in favour of adopting technology-based materials that are suitable for learners' proficiency levels. The main reason behind that selection may be the instructors' common view about the prevailing number of technology-based materials' advantages over their disadvantages. In the same vein, some linguistics like Rost & Candlin (2014) and Brown (2000) supported the use of real-excerpt texts to develop learners' communicative skills further. According to them, the use of materials that do not carry pedagogical purposes helps students develop practical communication skills further, and they do not be baffled in real-life communications when interacting with native speakers of the language.

One other instructor put a different aspect to the advantages by saying that the use of technology-based materials increases students' cultural awareness. This view was supported by Rivers (1981). According to him, movies and series can be utilized as listening materials for the development of cultural awareness. In the same vein, another study conducted by Herron, Cole, Corrie, and Dubreil (1999) also demonstrated that learners had significant gains in overall cultural knowledge after watching authentic videos from the target culture.

Another advantage of technology-based material usage is as the experimental group instructor expressed; “our students told me that they got stressed and anxious when they hear the news on the TV in English. The fact that they cannot understand anything on TV made them super nervous all the time. However, when we started to apply beginner-level authentic level materials, they realized that they could do it, and their self-confidence was repaired.” As can be concluded from the response, technology-based materials help to build learners’ self-esteem in the learning process, which is of high importance.

What was inferred from the interviews with instructors is that teachers regard listening skill has significant importance in the language learning process, unlike what learners think about that issue. All three instructors considered listening as a fundamental skill to acquire other skills of the language. However, in focus group interviews, students did not give high importance for listening skill. This finding correlates with what Yıldırım & Şimşek (2011) found in their study. The study involved approximately 400 B1 level EFL learners and 45 teachers in Turkey. The main aim of this study was to compare teachers’ ideas about the students’ and students’ perceptions about listening. The study also found a consensus among teachers about the importance of listening.

All in all, to develop the communicative skills of the learners, help them to handle with spoken English outside the classroom, and prepare them to use English in real-life occasions teachers should pay much effort in encouraging their students to listen to real English excerpts. The results of the interview with the instructors revealed that the majority of instructors supported the use of different sources such as movies, songs, and news. What Underwood (1989, as cited in Vandergrift, 2012) claimed supports this finding. According to her, if learners are exposed to a range of authentic texts, they get to know different voices and accents. This would be, in turn, help learners develop their overall listening skills.

5.1. Limitations of the study

It was not possible to assess all vocational high school students at the same time. So, due to time constraints, a limited number of students from the first grade of a Vocational High School participated in the study. If more students from other vocational high schools had been included in the study, a broader perspective on the effect of technology-based materials on L2 listening skill could have been obtained. Thus, the generalizability of these results has certain limitations.

Another limitation of the study was that only the 8% (fourteen) of all participants were involved in the focus group interviews due to time constraints. If all students had been interviewed separately, and a more significant number of students had been involved in the interviews, much more detailed information about their ideas could have been obtained. The interviews were also conducted in a limited amount of time, which resulted in only a limited amount of information about the participants' ideas about technology-based materials.

In addition to the interviews, additional limitations were caused by the use of the listening tests as the quantitative data collection tools. In order to assess their internal consistency, the Cronbach's alpha test was run on these tests. However, the reliability of both tests was assessed as 0,5, which is accepted at the medium level of reliability. Dörnyei (2007) states that the reliability of the likerts may be assessed easily; however, achievement test's reliability is more challenging to assess. Thus, achievement test's reliability test results can be lower, as the knowledge level of the students cannot be assessed precisely.

5.2. Implications

It is possible to make several recommendations both to teachers and researchers in light of the findings of the current study. It is eminent to know that the technology-based materials can make a change on students' performance but also in their knowledge and interest; from this perspective, the result was positive. Their outcomes were observed in the post-task, and their interest was also taken into account from the interview results.

Control and experimental groups received different materials in listening activities: the experimental group had activities based on technology-based listening materials, and the control group had activities based on textbook-based materials in 12-weeks-implementation. One of the findings of analyzing the possible impact of implementing technology-based materials in listening activities in university-level students' listening comprehension was that comparing both groups, and there was an improvement on both groups' listening comprehension where that enhancement was shown in the tables described in the previous chapter. Even though it is important to highlight that the experimental group finished the implementation process merely one point ahead of the control group, they were more successful at the post-test compared to control group students.

The main pedagogical implications were drawn from the data created by instructors' responses to one-on-one interviews as their comments reflected the pedagogic notion and

years of experiences. The first implication was about the selection of suitable technology-based material. According to the data, teachers stated this point as crucial for listening skill development. If a wrong selection of material is made, this could create irreversible results as they may frustrate the learners with a high level of content. Moreover, the use of technology-based materials revealed positive results in terms of their engaging nature. Thus, to make the learning environment more enjoyable, such authentic materials like films, songs and vlogs can be integrated into the lesson plan.

The results of the present study also showed that in developing students' listening skills in foreign languages technology-based materials that are not created for educational purposes reflect the examples of natural language used in real life in a particular context and are very useful. Based on this result, it is considered that in our country where students have little or no options to experience English outside the school or classroom environment, dissemination of technology-based materials is necessary for language activities. Apart from materials, in-service training programs can be redesigned, and courses including tips to select suitable technology-based materials to be used in the teaching-learning process should be added.

This study focused on the effects of technology-based materials only on the development of foreign language listening skill. The effects of technology-based materials can be tested on other necessary language skills which are speaking, writing, and reading. As an addition to basic language skills, research related to the effects of technology-based materials or different kinds of technology-based materials on academic performance in areas such as pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar, which are considered sub-skills in language teaching can be conducted. Apart from that, different kinds of technology-based materials can be utilized in further studies. As an example of those different kinds; videotaped materials and new technological bodily-kinesthetic materials can be added.

The present research was carried out with the students who were learning foreign languages at the level of A1 English proficiency at a state vocational high school. The present research did not investigate any affective variable in conducting the process so that further studies can be done with a focus on the effects of technology-based materials on affective variables such as motivation, attitude, , self-efficacy, academic self-concept and so on. Those kinds of linking studies can diversify the literature on technology-based materials.

5.3. Recommendations for Further Research

Although the present study set out to analyze the efficiency of technology-based material down to the ground from the assessment of achievement to teachers' and students' ideas, several questions remain to be answered. Some possible topics emerged from the results which can be answered in future projects. As the question from this study was: How might the implementation of technology-based materials affect vocational high school students' listening comprehension? The variations of the research topics can be:

- Implementing different technology-based materials to practice students' listening comprehension (with videotaped materials and so on.).
- Implementing technology-based materials on other necessary language skills (reading, speaking and so on.)
- Implementing the study on students with different competency levels

5.4. Conclusion

The present study was designed to determine the effect of technology-based material usage on vocational high school students' listening comprehension skills. As the students' English listening and other language skills were lacking in this vocational high school, the purpose of the study was to ascertain whether practising with technology-based materials could raise their listening grades more than practising textbook-based materials. The research attempted to assess this effect by the pre and posttest implementations. The study has identified that both groups of participants applied different material types performed successfully, and there was no significant difference between their score developments. The second aim of this study was to investigate the attitudes of participants and instructors in the study about the listening materials they used throughout the semester. The research has also shown that the attitudes of participants apparently differed towards the motivational traits of these materials. Experimental group participants defined the technology-based materials more engaging while control group participants showed no positive comments for the motivational level of textbook-based materials. More importantly, both experimental and control group participants expressed their preferences towards technology-based material usage in the listening classes. The third significant finding was the instructors' comments on the pedagogical effects of the technology-based materials. In the same direction with the

participants, instructors also declared that the educational atmosphere of the classes was enriched through the use of technology-based materials.

When the results were obtained, one of the advantages of adopting technology-based materials was detected as the ability to practice listening comprehension with the materials from real contexts. At the same time, learners could interact with the native speakers of the videos, they also learnt about the context from the topics, but besides, their feelings were influenced by the sounds, the music or even the voice and intonation of native speakers. Also, it is important to implement technology-based materials in the listening classes, not only a couple of hours but it would be ideal to complete a whole academic year so students can become more familiarized with the language. In addition to enhancing the enjoyment through inclusion of more activities, those materials will also have an effect on their lives so they can practice outside the classroom; additionally, depending on the context, it can also change their point of view of the real world.

When all the findings are taken together, the following conclusions can be drawn from the present study; practising helps to develop listening skills of EFL learners no matter the type of the material one is practising. However, in a qualitative perspective, during the technology-based materials-used listening lessons the materials allowed learners to practice the language with content from the real world where they could learn from the topic, to socialize about that context in the post-tasks, to give their opinions and perspectives from the topics involved in the class. Furthermore, depending on the materials that are selected, student's motivation was also influenced. Students' responses in interviews were more in favour of adopting technology-based materials in their listening activities, and also implementer instructors supported the technology-based materials more than textbook-based materials because of the favourable teaching environment these materials provided.

In sum, this study has raised important questions about the efficiency of adopting technology-based materials for listening skill development in EFL classes. Although in the beginning, the present study had hypothesized in favour of technology-based material usage, the results showed that both material types were successful. In general, therefore, it seems that regardless of the type of materials used, practising affected students' listening level positively. Moreover, when the findings of the qualitative part were analyzed, the most outstanding data was the consensus among the students' and teachers' preferences towards the use of technology-based materials in listening activities. The present study has laid the

foundation for further research into technology-based material usage and its pedagogical implications.



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APPENDICES



APPENDIX 1: Weekly Plan for Experimental Group

Week	Topics	Instructional Activities	Listening Activity
1-2	Alphabet Greetings& farewells Numbers	-Pre-listening focus tasks -Listening for info -Completing the missing info in the table	-Linked sounds -Listening for the spelling of the names, phone numbers, e-mail addresses
3-4	Possessions Classroom objects Personal items Locations	-Pre-listening focus tasks - Matching	-Plural -s endings -Listening for the locations of objects
5-6	Cities and Countries Adjectives of personality and appearance	-Pre-listening focus tasks -Catching information about people's appearances	-Syllable Stress -Listening for countries, cities and languages; listening to descriptions of people
7-8	Clothing Colours Weather and seasons	-Pre-listening focus tasks -Listening for sequence -Numbering given pictures according to listened info	-The letters s and sh -Listening for descriptions of clothing and colours
9-10	Clock time Times of the day Everyday activities	-Pre-listening focus tasks -Listening for specific vocabulary	-Rising and falling intonation -Listening for times of the day -Listening to identify people's actions
11-12	Transportation Family relationships Daily routines Days of week	-Pre-listening focus tasks -Listening for time info	-Third-person singular -s endings -Listening for activities and days of the week

APPENDIX 2: Weekly Plan for Experimental Group

Week	Topics	Instructional Activities	Listening Activity
1-2	Alphabet Greetings& farewells Numbers	-Pre-listening focus tasks -Watching a Youtube video -Completing the missing info in the related activities	-Linked sounds -Listening for the spelling of the names, phone numbers, e-mail addresses
3-4	Possessions Classroom objects Personal items Locations	-Pre-listening focus tasks -Implementing Voscreen video and activity in the lesson - Matching	-Plural -s endings -Listening for the locations of objects
5-6	Cities and Countries Adjectives of personality and appearance	-Pre-listening focus tasks -Implementing LyricsTraining activities -Catching words in missing lyrics	-Syllable Stress -Listening for countries, cities and languages; listening to descriptions of people
7-8	Clothing Colours Weather and seasons	-Pre-listening focus tasks -Implementing a documentary in the lesson -Numbering given pictures according to listened info	-The letters s and sh -Listening for descriptions of clothing and colors
9-10	Clock time Times of the day Everyday activities	-Pre-listening focus tasks -Implementing VoScreen activities -Listening for specific vocabulary	-Rising and falling intonation -Listening for times of the day -Listening to identify people's actions
11-12	Transportation Family relationships Daily routines Days of week	-Pre-listening focus tasks -Implementing a song from LyricsTraining -Listening for missing lyrics	-Third-person singular -s endings -Listening for activities and days of the week

APPENDIX 3: Interview Questions for Students

Interview Form

Interviewee ____

Date:

Length of interview:

General Information

Gender:

Title:

Age:

1. How important is the foreign language listening skill for you?
2. What are the primary difficulties that you face in EFL listening activities?
3. Explain how much you feel your English knowledge has improved after listening activities of the semester.
4. Have you heard the term Web 2.0 before? Explain how it can be useful for educational purposes if it at all.
5. What are the effective ways to improve your listening comprehension?
6. Do you think that listening activities you conducted this semester were motivating and engaging?
7. What were the good and bad sides of the listening activities in the lesson?
8. What would happen if you wanted to change something in the listening activities done in the lesson?
9. Which one do you prefer for listening activities; the listening tracks taken from the coursebook or original materials such as movies, news and music?
10. Do you think the listening materials that were used in your listening lessons developed your listening comprehension skill?
11. Would you like to add anything else?

APPENDIX 4: Interview Questions for Teachers

Interview Form

Interviewee ____

Date:

Length of interview:

General Information

Gender:

Title:

Age:

- 1 How important is the foreign language listening skill for you?
- 2 What are the primary difficulties that your students face in EFL listening activities?
- 3 Explain how much you feel your students' English knowledge has improved after listening activities of the semester.
- 4 Have you heard the term Web 2.0 before? Explain how can it be useful for educational purposes if it at all.
- 5 What are the effective ways to improve students' listening comprehension?
- 6 Do you think that listening activities you conducted this semester were motivating and engaging?
- 7 What were the good and bad sides of the listening activities in the lesson?
- 8 What would happen if you wanted to change something in the listening activities done in the lesson?
- 9 Which one do you prefer for listening activities; the listening tracks taken from the coursebook or original materials such as movies, news and music?
- 10 Do you think the listening materials used in your listening lessons developed students' listening comprehension skill?

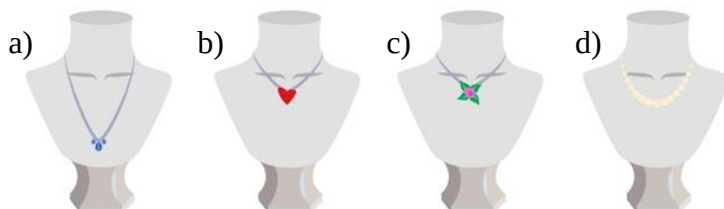
APPENDIX 5: Pretest

Name & surname:

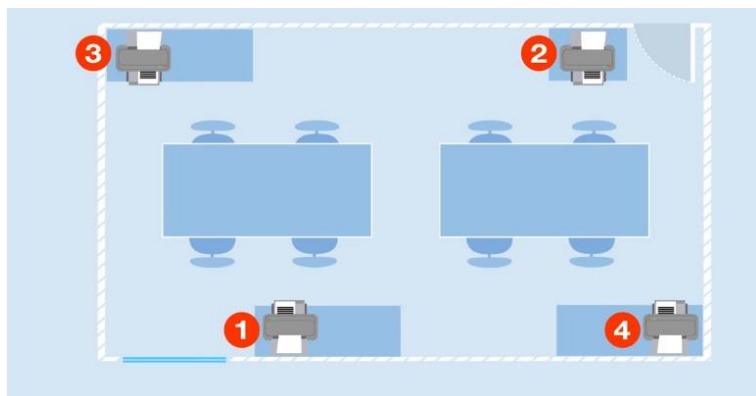
Questions 1-4 will be answered according to the first dialogue.

1. What is advert about?
 - a. two-bedroomed house
 - b. four-bedroomed house
2. How far is the house from Cambridge?
 - a. 30 miles
 - b. 13 miles
3. How old is the house?
 - a. 19 years
 - b. 90 years
4. What day can she see the house?
 - a. Tuesday
 - b. Thursday

5. Which necklace is he going to buy?



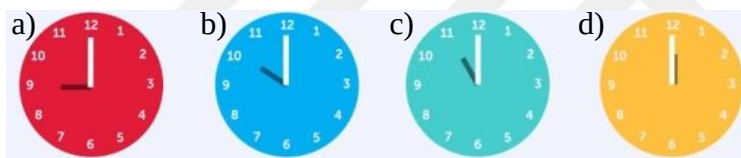
6. Where is the old printer? Choose 1,2,3 or 4.



7. When is he coming back to South Lake City? Check(✓) the correct answer.

Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday
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8. What time will the restaurant get closed?



Questions 9-12 will be answered according to the dialogue. Check (✓) true or false.

 T F

9. His father is interested in cars.
10. His mother is an artist.
11. Older sister is living abroad.
12. His brother is studying law school.

Questions 13-15 will be answered according to the dialogue. Complete the sentences with the correct words and circle it.

- | | | | |
|---|-------|----------|-----------|
| 13. He cancelled his appointment for... | today | tomorrow | yesterday |
| 14. Saturday morning is..... | full | empty | suitable |
| 15. His hurts. | foot | tooth | knee |

Questions 16 and 17 will be answered according to John's dialogue.

16. When does he work?
- a. Sundays and school holidays
 - b. Saturdays and school holidays
 - c. Saturdays and Mondays
17. What is his job?
- a. dentist
 - b. office manager
 - c. salesperson
18. Where is the woman from?
- a. US
 - b. Austria
 - c. UK
19. What is David wearing?
- a. red t-shirt with a black jacket
 - b. blue suit with a red tie
 - c. a blue hat with a redshirt
20. What does Pauline look like?
- a. She is tall, with red hair.
 - b. She is tall, with white hair.
 - c. She has long hair, with red lips.

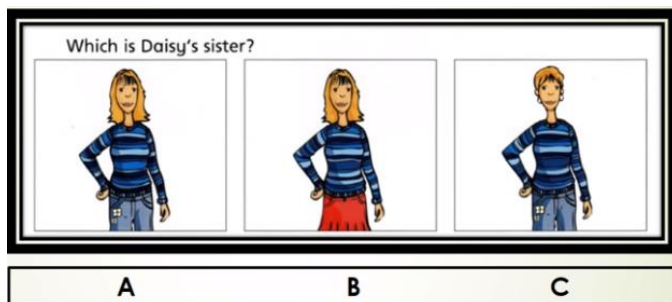
Good luck



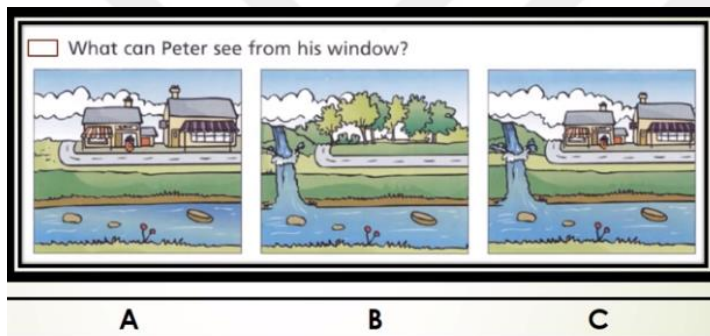
APPENDIX 6: Posttest

Name & surname:

1. Which is Daisy's sister?



2. What can Peter see from his window?



Questions 3-5 will be answered according to the dialogue.

3. Where is she working today?
- a. seaside b. inside c. outside
4. What is the weather like?
- a. snowy b. windy c. sunny
5. What is she wearing on her head?
- a. cap b. hat c. glasses

6. What is the daily schedule of the woman?

- a.

wake up at 7 a.m.	take a shower	eat breakfast	brush the teeth
-------------------	---------------	---------------	-----------------
- b.

wake up 7.30 a.m.	take a shower	have a sandwich	brush the teeth
-------------------	---------------	-----------------	-----------------
- c.

wake up at 7 a.m.	take a shower	Eat breakfast	brush her hair
-------------------	---------------	---------------	----------------

Questions 7-10 will be answered according to the dialogue.

7. Sunday is a day of _____. rest work test
8. Quite a few people go to Church on _____. Monday Sunday
Tuesday
9. On Monday, we go to school after the _____. weekdays week
weekend
10. Many people _____ Monday. love hate wait

Questions 11-14 will be answered according to the dialogue.

 T F

11. There are two living rooms in her house.
12. There is a couch in her living room.
13. She doesn't have any dishwasher.
14. They eat most of the meals at the kitchen table.

Questions 15-17 will be answered according to the dialogue.

15. How was the boy's summer?

- a. pretty tiring b. pretty awful c. pretty wonderful

16. Where is the boy's holiday place?

- a. Peru b. Zulu c. Sudan

17. What is his holiday place like?

- a. amazing, lots of history b. thrilling, lots of waterfalls c. amazing, lots of banks

Questions 18-20 will be answered according to the dialogue.

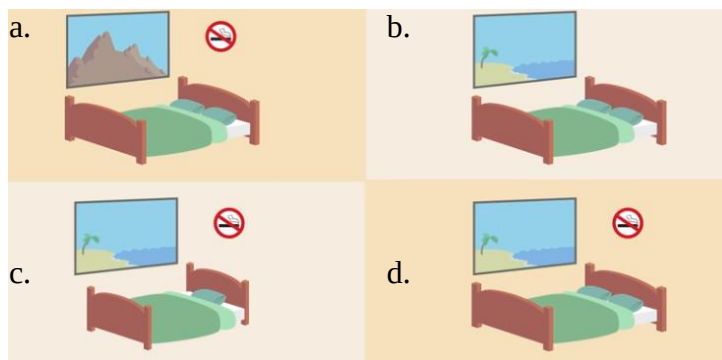
18. Which hotel is he going to stay?

- a. One-night Hotel b. Seaside Hotel c. Season Hotel

19. When is he going to stay at the hotel?

- a. 23rd of september b. 13rd of september c. 3rd of september

20. Which hotel room is he going to stay?



Good luck!

APPENDIX 7: Quantitative Data Statistics

Distribution of Experimental and Control Groups

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Control	84	50,0	50,0	50,0
	Experimental	84	50,0	50,0	100,0
	Total	168	100,0	100,0	

Table 10. Experimental and Control Group Distribution

Normality Tests

Group		Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df*	<i>p</i>	Statistic	df*	<i>p</i>
Control	Pretest	,126	84	,002	,968	84	,035
	Posttest	,136	84	,001	,952	84	,004
Experimental	Pretest	,108	84	,017	,978	84	,022
	Posttest	,133	84	,001	,943	84	,001

*df. degree of freedom

Table 11. Normality Tests

SKEWNESS AND KURTOSIS VALUES OF DATA

		N	Skewness		Kurtosis	
Group		Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Control	Pretest	84	-,554	,263	,651	,520
	Posttest	84	-,055	,263	-,875	,520
	Valid N (listwise)	84				
Experimental	Pretest	84	-,239	,263	-,429	,520
	Posttest	84	-,399	,263	,480	,520
	Valid N (listwise)	84				

Table 12. Skewness and Kurtosis Values of Data

PRETEST SCORES ANALYSIS FOR EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Pretest	Control	84	63,98	12,95915	,057	166	,995
	Experimental	84	63,86	14,17088			

Table 13. Pretest Scores Analysis for Experimental and Control Groups

PRETEST AND POSTTEST SCORES ANALYSIS OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

Group		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Control	Pretest	63,98	84	12,95915	-14,820	83	,000
	Posttest	82,79	84	9,16223			
Experimental	Pretest	63,86	84	14,17088	-13,927	83	,000
	Posttest	83,69	84	8,47104			

Table 14. Pretest and Posttest Scores Analysis of Experimental and Control Groups

**Mixed Pattern Anova Analysis of the Experimental and Control Groups
(Repeated Measure Anova)**

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	<i>p</i>	Partial Eta Squared
Group	12,574	1	12,574	,068	,795	,001
Test(pretest-posttest)	31339,360	1	31339,360	410,388	,000	,712
Test * Group	21,503	1	21,503	,282	,596	,002
Error(Test)	12676,637	166	76,365			

Table 15. Mixed pattern ANOVA analysis of the experimental and control groups (Repeated Measure ANOVA)

Frequency Data of Pre-Listening Test

1. What is the girl's name?
 - a. Lusiana
 - b. Luisa
 - c. Lousiana

Group			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Control	Valid	Wrong	0	0,0	0,0	0,0
		Right	84	100,0	100,0	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	
Experimental	Valid	Wrong	0	0,0	0,0	0,0
		Right	84	100,0	100,0	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	

Questions 2-5 will be answered according to the first dialogue.

2. What is advert about?

b. two-bedroomed house

b. four-bedroomed house

Group			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Control	Valid	Wrong	5	6,0	6,0	6,0
		Right	79	94,0	94,0	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	
Experimental	Valid	Wrong	5	6,0	6,0	6,0
		Right	79	94,0	94,0	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	

3. Where is the house?

b. 30 miles from the Cambridge.

b. 13 miles from the Cambridge.

Group			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Control	Valid	Wrong	37	44,0	44,0	44,0
		Right	47	56,0	56,0	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	
Experimental	Valid	Wrong	35	41,7	41,7	41,7
		Right	49	58,3	58,3	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	

4. How old is the house?

b. about 19 years old

b. about 90 years old

Group			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Control	Valid	Wrong	45	53,6	53,6	53,6
		Right	39	46,4	46,4	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	
Experimental	Valid	Wrong	51	60,7	60,7	60,7
		Right	33	39,3	39,3	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	

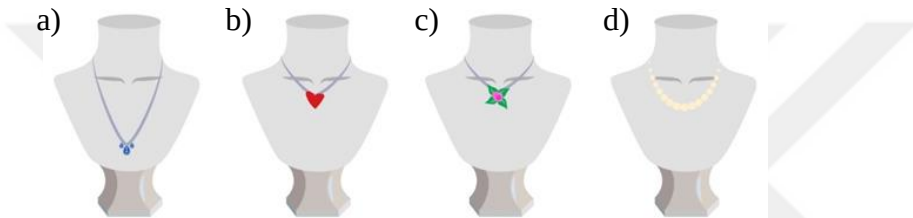
5. When can she see the house?

b. Tuesday afternoon

b. Thursday afternoon

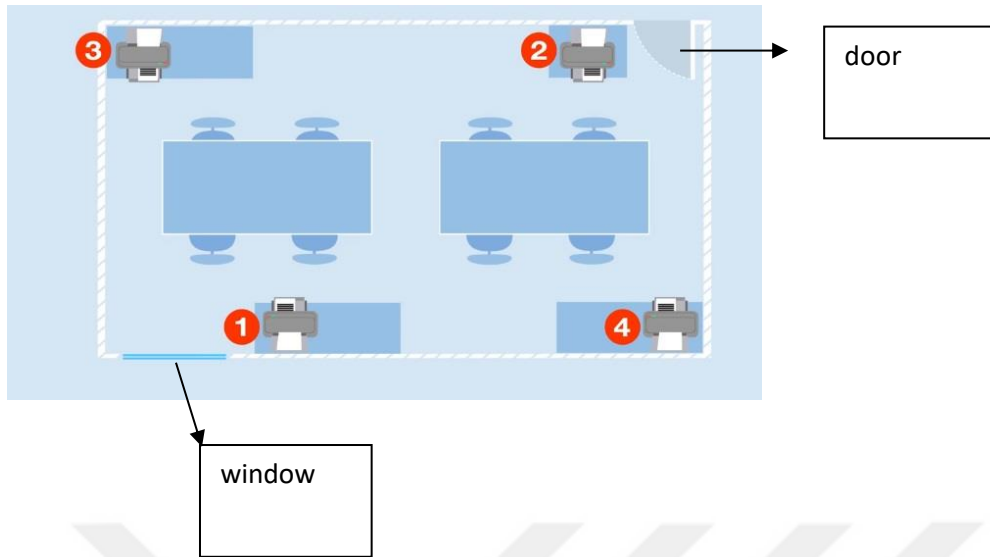
Group			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Control	Valid	Wrong	52	61,9	61,9	61,9
		Right	32	38,1	38,1	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	
Experimental	Valid	Wrong	45	53,6	53,6	53,6
		Right	39	46,4	46,4	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	

6. Which necklace did he buy?



Group			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Control	Valid	Wrong	37	44,0	44,0	44,0
		Right	47	56,0	56,0	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	
Experimental	Valid	Wrong	50	59,5	59,5	59,5
		Right	34	40,5	40,5	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	

7. Where is the new printer? Circle 1,2,3 or 4.



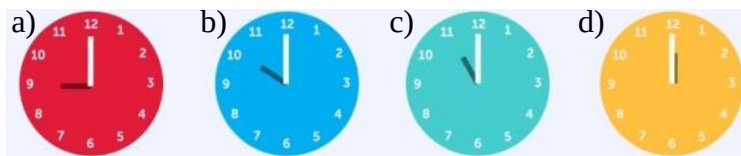
Group			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Control	Valid	Wrong	38	45,2	45,2	45,2
		Right	46	54,8	54,8	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	
Experimental	Valid	Wrong	43	51,2	51,2	51,2
		Right	41	48,8	48,8	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	

8. When is he coming back to the meeting? Circle the correct answer.

Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday
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Group			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Control	Valid	Wrong	56	66,7	66,7	66,7
		Right	28	33,3	33,3	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	
Experimental	Valid	Wrong	63	75,0	75,0	75,0
		Right	21	25,0	25,0	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	

9. What time will the restaurant get closed?



Group			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Control	Valid	Wrong	76	90,5	90,5	90,5
		Right	8	9,5	9,5	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	
Experimental	Valid	Wrong	65	77,4	77,4	77,4
		Right	19	22,6	22,6	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	

Questions 9-12 will be answered according to the dialogue. Check (✓) true or false.

 T F

10. His father is interested in cars.

Group			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Control	Valid	Wrong	29	34,5	34,5	34,5
		Right	55	65,5	65,5	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	
Experimental	Valid	Wrong	26	31,0	31,0	31,0
		Right	58	69,0	69,0	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	

11. His mother is an artist.

Group			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Control	Valid	Wrong	11	13,1	13,1	13,1
		Right	73	86,9	86,9	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	
Experimental	Valid	Wrong	5	6,0	6,0	6,0
		Right	79	94,0	94,0	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	

12. Older sister is living abroad.

Group			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Control	Valid	Wrong	6	7,1	7,1	7,1
		Right	78	92,9	92,9	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	
Experimental	Valid	Wrong	6	7,1	7,1	7,1
		Right	78	92,9	92,9	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	

13. His brother is in law school.

Group			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Control	Valid	Wrong	15	17,9	17,9	17,9
		Right	69	82,1	82,1	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	
Experimental	Valid	Wrong	22	26,2	26,2	26,2
		Right	62	73,8	73,8	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	

Questions 14-16 will be answered according to the dialogue. Complete the sentences with the correct words and circle it.

14. He cancelled his appointment for... today tomorrow yesterday

Group			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Control	Valid	Wrong	22	26,2	26,2	26,2
		Right	62	73,8	73,8	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	
Experimental	Valid	Wrong	27	32,1	32,1	32,1
		Right	57	67,9	67,9	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	

15. Saturday morning is.....

full

empty

suitable

Group			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Control	Valid	Wrong	54	64,3	64,3	64,3
		Right	30	35,7	35,7	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	
Experimental	Valid	Wrong	62	73,8	73,8	73,8
		Right	22	26,2	26,2	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	

16. One of his started to hurt.

feet

teeth

knees

Group			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Control	Valid	Wrong	37	44,0	44,0	44,0
		Right	47	56,0	56,0	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	
Experimental	Valid	Wrong	37	44,0	44,0	44,0
		Right	47	56,0	56,0	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	

17.What does she need?

- a. table, sofa and chairs
- b. lamp, rug and chairs
- c. suitcase, lamp and sofa

Group			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Control	Valid	Wrong	29	34,5	34,5	34,5
		Right	55	65,5	65,5	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	
Experimental	Valid	Wrong	19	22,6	22,6	22,6
		Right	65	77,4	77,4	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	

18. Where is the woman from?

- a. US
- b. Austria
- c. UK

Group			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Control	Valid	Wrong	4	4,8	4,8	4,8
		Right	80	95,2	95,2	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	
Experimental	Valid	Wrong	8	9,5	9,5	9,5
		Right	76	90,5	90,5	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	

19. What is David wearing?

- a. red t-shirt with a black jacket
- b. blue suit with a red tie
- c. a blue hat with a red shirt

Group			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Control	Valid	Wrong	7	8,3	8,3	8,3
		Right	77	91,7	91,7	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	
Experimental	Valid	Wrong	3	3,6	3,6	3,6
		Right	81	96,4	96,4	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	

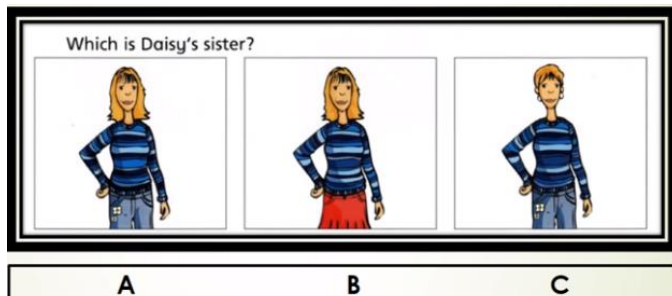
20. What does Pauline look like?

- a. She is tall, with red hair.
- b. She is tall, with white hair.
- c. She has long hair, with red lips.

Group			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Control	Valid	Wrong	45	53,6	53,6	53,6
		Right	39	46,4	46,4	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	
Experimental	Valid	Wrong	35	41,7	41,7	41,7
		Right	49	58,3	58,3	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	

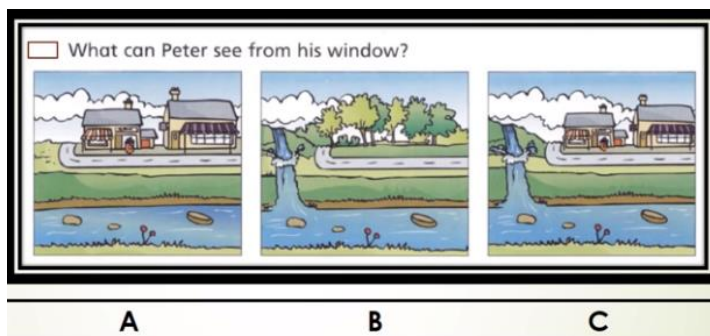
Frequency Data of Post-Listening Test

11. Which is Daisy's sister?



Group			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Control	Valid	Wrong	7	8,3	8,3	8,3
		Right	77	91,7	91,7	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	
Experimental	Valid	Wrong	2	2,4	2,4	2,4
		Right	82	97,6	97,6	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	

12. What can Peter see from his window?



Group			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Control	Valid	Wrong	13	15,5	15,5	15,5
		Right	71	84,5	84,5	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	
Experimental	Valid	Wrong	14	16,7	16,7	16,7
		Right	70	83,3	83,3	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	

Questions 3-5 will be answered according to the dialogue.

13. Where is she working today?

b. seaside

b. inside

c. outside

Group			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Control	Valid	Wrong	24	28,6	28,6	28,6
		Right	60	71,4	71,4	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	
Experimental	Valid	Wrong	31	36,9	36,9	36,9
		Right	53	63,1	63,1	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	

14. What is the weather like?

b. snowy

b. windy

c. sunny

Group			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Control	Valid	Wrong	8	9,5	9,5	9,5
		Right	76	90,5	90,5	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	
Experimental	Valid	Wrong	9	10,7	10,7	10,7
		Right	75	89,3	89,3	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	

15. What is she wearing on her head?

b. cap

b. hat

c. glasses

Group			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Control	Valid	Wrong	16	19,0	19,0	19,0
		Right	68	81,0	81,0	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	
Experimental	Valid	Wrong	10	11,9	11,9	11,9
		Right	74	88,1	88,1	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	

16. What is the daily schedule of the woman?

- a.

wake up at 7 a.m.	take a shower	eat breakfast	brush the teeth
-------------------	---------------	---------------	-----------------
- b.

wake up 7.30 a.m.	take a shower	have a sandwich	brush the teeth
-------------------	---------------	-----------------	-----------------
- c.

wake up at 7 a.m.	take a shower	Eat breakfast	brush her hair
-------------------	---------------	---------------	----------------

Group			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Control	Valid	Wrong	5	6,0	6,0	6,0
		Right	79	94,0	94,0	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	
Experimental	Valid	Wrong	9	10,7	10,7	10,7
		Right	75	89,3	89,3	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	

Questions 7-10 will be answered according to the dialogue.

17. Sunday is a day of _____. rest work test

Group			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Control	Valid	Wrong	5	6,0	6,0	6,0
		Right	79	94,0	94,0	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	
Experimental	Valid	Wrong	17	20,2	20,2	20,2
		Right	67	79,8	79,8	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	

18. Quite a few people go to Church on _____. Monday Sunday
Tuesday

Group			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Control	Valid	Wrong	4	4,8	4,8	4,8
		Right	80	95,2	95,2	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	
Experimental	Valid	Wrong	3	3,6	3,6	3,6
		Right	81	96,4	96,4	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	

19. On Monday, we go to school after the _____ weekdays week
weekend

Group			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Control	Valid	Wrong	3	3,6	3,6	3,6
		Right	81	96,4	96,4	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	
Experimental	Valid	Wrong	2	2,4	2,4	2,4
		Right	82	97,6	97,6	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	

20. Many people _____ Monday. love hate wait

Group			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Control	Valid	Wrong	27	32,1	32,1	32,1
		Right	57	67,9	67,9	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	
Experimental	Valid	Wrong	31	36,9	36,9	36,9
		Right	53	63,1	63,1	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	

Questions 11-14 will be answered according to the dialogue.

 T F

11. There are two living rooms in her house.

Group			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Control	Valid	Wrong	45	53,6	53,6	53,6
		Right	39	46,4	46,4	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	
Experimental	Valid	Wrong	42	50,0	50,0	50,0
		Right	42	50,0	50,0	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	

12. There is a couch in her living room.

Group			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Control	Valid	Wrong	20	23,8	23,8	23,8
		Right	64	76,2	76,2	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	
Experimental	Valid	Wrong	21	25,0	25,0	25,0
		Right	63	75,0	75,0	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	

13. She doesn't have any dishwasher.

Group			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Control	Valid	Wrong	27	32,1	32,1	32,1
		Right	57	67,9	67,9	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	
Experimental	Valid	Wrong	23	27,4	27,4	27,4
		Right	61	72,6	72,6	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	

14. They eat most of the meals at the kitchen table.

Group			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Control	Valid	Wrong	5	6,0	6,0	6,0
		Right	79	94,0	94,0	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	
Experimental	Valid	Wrong	1	1,2	1,2	1,2
		Right	83	98,8	98,8	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	

Questions 15-17 will be answered according to the dialogue.

15. How was the boy's summer?

- a. pretty tiring b. pretty awful c. pretty wonderful

Group			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Control	Valid	Wrong	3	3,6	3,6	3,6
		Right	81	96,4	96,4	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	
Experimental	Valid	Wrong	1	1,2	1,2	1,2
		Right	83	98,8	98,8	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	

16. Where is the boy's holiday place?

- a. Peru b. Zulu c. Sudan

Group			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Control	Valid	Wrong	4	4,8	4,8	4,8
		Right	80	95,2	95,2	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	
Experimental	Valid	Wrong	9	10,7	10,7	10,7
		Right	75	89,3	89,3	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	

17. What is his holiday place like?

- a. amazing, lots of history b. thrilling, lots of waterfalls c. amazing, lots of banks

Group			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Control	Valid	Wrong	23	27,4	27,4	27,4
		Right	61	72,6	72,6	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	
Experimental	Valid	Wrong	12	14,3	14,3	14,3
		Right	72	85,7	85,7	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	

Questions 18-20 will be answered according to the dialogue.

18. Which hotel is he going to stay?

- a. One-night Hotel b. Seaside Hotel c. Season Hotel

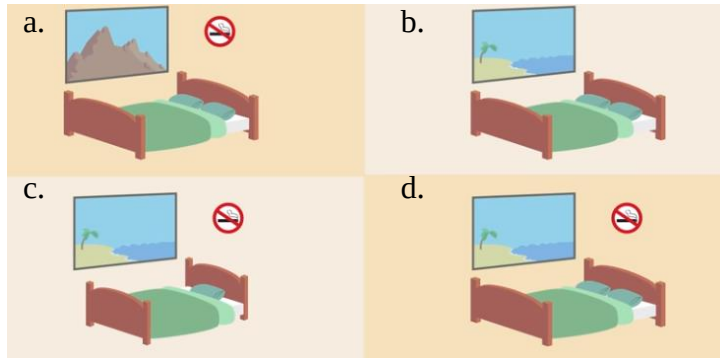
Group			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Control	Valid	Wrong	20	23,8	23,8	23,8
		Right	64	76,2	76,2	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	
Experimental	Valid	Wrong	17	20,2	20,2	20,2
		Right	67	79,8	79,8	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	

19. When is he going to stay at the hotel?

- a. 23rd of September b. 13rd of September c. 3rd of September

Group			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Control	Valid	Wrong	7	8,3	8,3	8,3
		Right	77	91,7	91,7	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	
Experimental	Valid	Wrong	1	1,2	1,2	1,2
		Right	83	98,8	98,8	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	

21. Which hotel room is he going to stay?



Group			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Control	Valid	Wrong	23	27,4	27,4	27,4
		Right	61	72,6	72,6	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	
Experimental	Valid	Wrong	19	22,6	22,6	22,6
		Right	65	77,4	77,4	100,0
		Total	84	100,0	100,0	

APPENDIX 8: Responses Collected Through Interviews

Table 19: Participants' Feelings about the Importance of Listening Skill

Interview Question	Participant Response
Question 1: How important is the foreign language listening skill for you?	C3: "I cannot say it is the priority. I think speaking is much more important." <i>Low importance</i>
	E7: "Not the most important but has some importance." <i>Low importance, experimental</i>
	E1: "I think it would be vital for personal communications abroad, but now we do not need that much." <i>Low importance</i>

Table 20: Participants' Feelings about Listening Difficulties

Interview Question	Participant Response
Question 2: What are the primary difficulties that you face in EFL listening activities?	C4: "While listening to English audios, one of the things that I get nervous about is that I cannot catch the words in the high rate of speech flow so I cannot understand the text." <i>Rate of speech</i>
	E7: "Maybe I can say that English people speak very fast in their native languages." <i>Rate of speech,</i>
	E1: "While listening to English, it reflexively creates stress in my mind when I do not know the meaning of a word. Also, the stress factor affects me when I catch one part of the speech. Then, all the remaining part flows away as I cannot focus again" <i>Rate of speech</i>

Table 21: Participants' Feelings about Knowledge Improvement

Interview Question	Participant Response
Question 3: Explain how much you feel your	E4: "I think it improved a lot because I see that I listen with my heart this semester and I realize the difference in the

English knowledge has improved after listening activities of the semester.	listening activities and listening exams.” <i>motivation</i>
	C7: “I think it improved my English because I understand more now.” <i>improvement</i>
	E1: “I heard good listening texts; how do they speak how do they link the sentences. Thus, it changed me a lot especially when I think of the first listening exam; we took on the first day of the semester” <i>listening audios</i>

Table 23: Participants’ Feelings about *Web 2.0 Tools*

Interview Question	Participant Response
Question 4: Have you heard the term Web 2.0 before? Explain how can it be useful for educational purposes if it at all.	C4: “No, I never heard of that.” E7: “I think we mentioned it in one of our classes. Maybe they are the applications that we use in phones and computers. In educational purposes, they can refresh the learning environment, which is already really boring.” <i>Learning atmosphere</i> E1: “Yeah, I have heard. Also, we did some of them in our listening classes too. I think they are useful as they help to get attention of the audience.”

Table 24. : *Participants’ Feelings about Effective ways of Developing Listening*

Interview Question	Participant Response
Question 5: What are the effective ways to improve your listening comprehension?	E4: “Practicing a lot.” C7: “Our teachers always say to watch TV series and movies. We generally do not obey this.” E1: As an example, the things that we do in the classroom. I mean, listening to English songs, watching their movies, enhancing the time you spent on English basically.”

Table 25: *Participants' Feelings about Motivation*

Interview Question	Participant Response
Question 6: Do you think that listening activities you conducted this semester were motivating and engaging?	E4: "Yes, we believed in ourselves we can also speak like this. How beautiful they speak!" C2: "I cannot say I liked the listening activities much; they were as normal as the ones we did in our high school degree." E7: "Yes. They really gave us the urge to learn the language. It is more logical to see such original materials from the beginning. I think if the students are exposed to the good examples at the beginning of the language learning process, those on the road will try harder to finish the road." C1: "Not really much." C7: "Especially the topics of the listening audios were boring, the reason behind this, maybe they were taken from the coursebook which was published decades ago."

Table 26.: *Participants' Feelings about Listening Activities*

Interview Question	Participant Response
Question 7: What were the good and bad sides of the listening activities in the lesson?	E4: "We learn better things, words and their real pronunciation. When we hear the use of words, that word can stay in our minds better. The only bad thing was the speech rate. I think our most important problem is not catching up with speed." E3: "Our friends who do not want to listen to the lesson can be more interested in the lesson thanks to these real English audios." E5: "We had a week listening about clothes and combinations. We later paired them with the pictures, where our

motivation was perfect, for example. We liked the clothes of the girl in the photo. Things were fun. However, internet connection problems were bad.”

C6: “I cannot say how to say, we were doing the listening activities just because they were in the coursebook.”

C7: “Some of my friends and I was counting the moments to end the activity, it was boring because of the audio. Another bad side was the external voices. For example, my teacher, the plane lands on the airbase while we are listening. We have to stop listening there.”

Table 27.: *Participants’ Thoughts about the Things that Must Changed*

Interview Question	Participant Response
Question 8: What would happen if you wanted to change something in the listening activities done in the lesson?	E1: “I would fix the technical problems we had during the lesson. For example, if we would do an activity; we waited for 10 minutes to open.” C7: “Obviously, we are exposed to easy English in the exams here. What we see in the lesson is also easy topics. I would change it.”

Table 28.: *Participants’ Feelings about Authentic and Textbook-based Materials*

Interview Question	Participant Response
Question 9: Which one do you prefer for listening activities; the listening tracks taken from the coursebook or original materials such as movies, news and music?	C4: “I think it’s my book teacher. In terms of learning, I mean learning from learning books to learn enough to pass exams in school. Because we are asked a low level in exams, so is the book. However, to get the language in a real way, authentic materials are required.” E3: “I think authentic materials. Because I believe the pronunciation of the original materials is more real.” E5: “Authentic materials.” C3: “Firstly, I would like to start slowly. However, it is certain that I am more

motivated with original materials. The speeches in the book are very boring.”

Table 29. *Participants’ Feelings about Materials Effect on Their Development*

Interview Question	Participant Response
Question 10: Do you think listening to materials used in your listening lessons developed your listening comprehension skill?	E5: “In my opinion, my listening has developed thanks to the activities we made in the classroom.”
	C1: “My grades went up at the end of the term, but I felt that if we had seen some real English materials, it would be more challenging and beneficial for our progress.”
	C6: “Initially, I got used to English speech patterns by listening to the audio; in the latter parts, I can say I got bored. The level could have been upgraded, to develop us more.”
	C3: “My general belief is positive; I feel I progressed in terms of listening. This is obvious from my points, also.”



GAZİLİ OLMAK AYRICALIKTIR..