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BOLU ABANT İZZET BAYSAL UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF GRADUATE STUDIES
DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION



CULTIVATING L2 ORAL FLUENCY: THE LEARNER
UPTAKE IN VIDEO FEEDBACK

MASTER OF ARTS

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Cultivating L2 Oral Fluency: The Learner Uptake in Video Feedback was submitted by **Merve KIYMAZ** and defended before the Examining Committee Members listed below in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of **Master of Arts** in the **Department of Foreign Language Education, Institute of Graduate Studies of Bolu Abant İzzet Baysal University** in **15.12.2021** by

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Merve KIYMAZ

ABSTRACT

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This study aimed at investigating the effects of video feedback on the development of L2 oral proficiency of the preparatory school students, specifically focusing on oral fluency, and exploring the perceptions of the students on the effectiveness of teacher video feedback required for an online speaking class. To this end, this study employed an action-based research methodology, adopting an explanatory sequential mixed-methods design. The study was conducted with 11 preparatory school students, all majoring in Political Science and Public Administration, in the second term of the 2020-2021 academic year. The quantitative data were collected through the analyses of the speaking scores assigned to the students by two raters using an analytic scale in a modified IELTS speaking module used before and after the video feedback intervention as the pre- and delayed post-test. Moreover, the participants' spoken discourse over the four weeks when the video feedback was received was quantitatively analyzed to see whether temporal measures of L2 oral fluency of the participants' differed due to the video feedback implementation. Finally, the qualitative data were collected via two semi-structured, focus group interviews with all the participants to explore their perceptions on getting teacher video feedback for their speaking class assignments. The quantitative findings revealed that receiving video feedback from their teacher resulted in a significant improvement in not only the participants' overall L2 oral proficiency but also L2 oral fluency. The quantitative findings also unveiled that receiving video feedback significantly improved the learners' temporal measures of L2 oral fluency. The qualitative findings uncovered the pedagogical affordances and challenges of the incorporation of video feedback regarding its broad benefits, its specific contributions to the participants as L2 speakers, and its limitations. Based on the findings, the present study offers highly important implications for theory, research, and pedagogy for SLA scholars, practitioners, and L2 learners.

KEYWORDS: Speaking, Foreign Language (L2) Oral Fluency, Video Feedback, Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL), Assessment

ÖZET

**İKİNCİ DİLDE SÖZLÜ AKICILIĞI GELİŞTİRME: VIDEO GERİ
BİLDİRİMDE ÖĞRENİCİ EDİMSSEL ÇIKARIMI
YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ
MERVE KIYMAZ
BOLU ABANT İZZET BAYSAL ÜNİVERSİTESİ
LİSANSÜSTÜ EĞİTİM ENSTİTÜSÜ
YABANCI DİLLER EĞİTİMİ ANABİLİM DALI
İNGİLİZ DİLİ EĞİTİMİ BİLİM DALI
(TEZ DANIŞMANI: DOÇ. DR. SEDAT AKAYOĞLU)**

**BOLU, OCAK - 2022
XII + 134**

Bu çalışma, video geri bildirimi uygulamasının hazırlık sınıfı öğrencilerinin genel İngilizce konuşma becerisine ve bu becerinin akıcılık boyutuna etkisini incelemeyi ve katılımcıların konuşma becerisiyle ilgili ödevlerine, öğretmenleri tarafından verilen video geri bildiriminin etkililiğine dair düşüncelerini elde etmeyi amaçlamıştır. Bu çalışmada eylem araştırmasına dayalı, açımlayıcı sıralı karma desen kullanılmıştır. Mevcut araştırma, 11 adet Siyasal Bilimler ve Kamu Yönetimi bölümü hazırlık sınıfı öğrencisiyle, 2020-2021 akademik yılının ikinci döneminde yürütülmüştür. Nicel veriler, video geri bildirimi uygulamasının öncesinde ve sonrasında ön-test ve geciktirilmiş son-test olarak uygulanan IELTS sınavı konuşma bölümünde katılımcılara iki adet değerlendirici tarafından, analitik bir ölçek kullanılarak verilen konuşma becerisi skorlarının analiz edilmesiyle elde edilmiştir. Bu skorların yanı sıra, dört hafta süren video geri bildirimi uygulaması esnasında, öğrencilerin sözlü söylemleri nicel bir şekilde analiz edilerek, ikinci dilde sözlü akıcılık boyutuna ait zamansal ölçümlerde, video geri bildirimine bağlı bir değişiklik olup olmadığı incelenmiştir. Yarı-yapılandırılmış iki adet odak grup mülakatı ile katılımcıların konuşma dersi ödevlerine öğretmenleri tarafından verilen video geri bildirimine dair görüşleri alınmış ve bu görüşler, araştırmanın nitel verilerini oluşturmuştur. Araştırmanın nicel bulguları, video geri bildiriminin katılımcıların genel ikinci dil konuşma becerisinin yanı sıra, ikinci dilde sözlü akıcılık boyutunu da önemli ölçüde geliştirdiğini göstermiştir. Ayrıca, nicel veriler, video geri bildirimi almanın katılımcıların ikinci dilde sözlü akıcılık boyutuna ait zamansal ölçümlerini de önemli ölçüde geliştirdiğini ortaya çıkarmıştır. Nitel veriler ise, video geri bildirimi uygulamasının sebep olduğu pedagojik olanak ve zorlukları; video geri bildirimine dair genel faydalar, ikinci dilde konuşma becerisi özelinde öğrencilere sağladığı katkılar ve sınırlılıklar kapsamında ortaya çıkarmıştır. Sonuçlara dayalı olarak, bu araştırma ikinci dil edinimi araştırmacıları, uygulayıcıları ve ikinci bir dil öğrenen kişiler için oldukça önemli kuramsal, metodolojik ve pedagojik çıkarımlar sunmaktadır.

ANAHTAR KELİMELER: Konuşma, Yabancı Dilde Sözlü Akıcılık, Video Geri Bildirimi, Mobil Destekli Dil Öğrenimi, Ölçme

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

ANOVA	: Analysis of Variance
CEFR	: Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
EFL	: English as a Foreign Language
ELT	: English Language Teaching
IELTS	: International English Language Teaching System
MALL	: Mobile Assisted Language Learning
L1	: First Language
L2	: Second Language
PSPA	: Political Science and Public Administration
SLA	: Second Language Acquisition
SPSS	: Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

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1. INTRODUCTION

The first chapter introduces the background, purpose, research questions, and the significance of the study at hand. At the end of the chapter, the definitions of the key terms used throughout the study are presented.

1.1 Background of the Study

“Do you *speak* English?” When we happen to learn whether someone knows a language, we typically pose this question using the verb *speak* instead of *know*. The question itself is self-evident in terms of the importance that we attribute to speaking. After all, the conversation is integral to human communication, helping people establish and maintain social interaction (Kormos, 2006). As such, it is possible to argue that speaking is of paramount importance for not only researchers but also the main subjects of this miraculously complex phenomenon, human beings.

Our intuitive beliefs about the importance of speaking in human communication are not limited to our mother tongue. Being able to speak a second language (L2) is one of the most desired goals, whereas mastery of other skills such as listening, or writing is usually secondary for most of the people (Kormos, 2006). This being the case, in a globalized world more than ever, to be able to speak English, which is considered the world’s first global language (Crystal, 2012) and coined as a *lingua franca* (Seidlhofer, 2006), has immensely appealed to the interests of people. Given that being able to speak English, the most dominant medium of communication in the globalized world we currently inhabit, has become a *sine qua non* of effective communication with the rest of the world. It is no surprise to see that this interest, in turn, has led second language acquisition (SLA) scholars to unravel the best predictors and main challenges of speaking proficiency in English.

The present study can be considered one of those scholarly SLA endeavors delving into speaking skill in English as an L2. As such, it investigates the effects of the incorporation of an innovative educational practice (i.e., asynchronous video feedback) into a fully online speaking class as a beyond-classroom speaking practice on the oral performance of L2 learners, specifically focusing on L2 oral fluency and learner perceptions in an English as Foreign Language (EFL) setting, namely Turkey. Basically, the current inquiry seeks to answer two questions: a)

what does it take to be a proficient speaker of an L2, referred to herein as EFL? and
b) how can L2 oral proficiency be improved via video feedback?

Speaking, regardless of being in a first language (L1) or an L2, is a skill that we, whilst quite aware of its significance, take for granted as it is an indispensable part of our daily lives (Burns & Seidlhofer, 2020). Yet, it entails cultivating a refined understanding of a set of complicated skills necessary for oral production and interaction and how, why, and when to communicate with other interlocutors (Burns & Seidlhofer, 2020). No wonder that, during learning an L2, speaking turns into a more challenging skill to master for several reasons (Bozatlı, 2003; Göktürk, 2016; Luoma, 2004; Mauranen, 2006; Murphy, 1991, Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2014). Zooming in on these reasons is particularly important for this study because it seeks to find a solution to the problems related to L2 speaking.

In their seminal study on communication strategies in L2, Dörnyei and Scott (1997) delineated four underlying reasons why speaking might be challenging for L2 learners: “a) resource deficits, b) processing time pressure, c) own-performance problems, and d) other-performance problems” (p. 183). As L2 learners often lack the complete knowledge of the L2 phonological system, lexis, and syntax, this incomplete L2 competence might hinder verbalizing their messages. What is more, L2 speakers usually need more time to process and plan their oral output in L2, frequently monitor themselves while speaking in L2 to check whether their speech is understandable and accurate to other interlocutors and might have a hard time to fully comprehend other interlocutors’ messages.

At this point, in addition to uncovering the cognitive-linguistic problems of L2 speaking well-delineated by Dörnyei and Scott (1997), it might be a good idea to refer to affectively challenging dimensions of L2 speech, namely Horwitz et al.’s (1986) *foreign language anxiety*. Taking a closer look at SLA studies specifically focusing on foreign language anxiety in recent decades, it might be argued that it impedes L2 learning (Teimouri et al., 2019) and specifically has a negative impact on L2 speaking through affecting verbal production abilities (Ellis, 2008; MacIntyre & Gregersen, 2012; Oxford, 2011), which stems from low levels of self-confidence in L2 speaking and a fear of losing face in public environments (Jackson, 2002).

In a nutshell, L2 speaking can turn into a highly face-threatening act as humans consider communicating in a foreign language as a form of self-expression. They might feel incompetent or insecure about their abilities to communicate their

messages to other interlocutors during L2 interaction, which, in turn, might frustrate them for projecting inaccurate self-reflection and induce anxiety (Williams et al., 2016).

Cognitive and affective factors are not the only ones that pose problems in L2 speaking. Spoken interaction is limited to only classrooms in EFL settings (Bresnihan & Stoops, 1996; Göktürk, 2016; Xiao & Luo, 2009), which is a serious limitation in terms of L2 oral proficiency development (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). Like other EFL settings, limited opportunities for speaking English outside the classroom pose serious problems in terms of speaking proficiency in Turkish EFL context (Toköz-Göktepe, 2014; Gençoğlu, 2011). It is obvious that despite the effort, budget, and time allocated for both formal and informal education, like many EFL contexts (e.g., China, Japan, and Thailand), Turkey suffers from not getting in return for what it has invested in English speaking proficiency development (Dinçer & Yeşilyurt, 2013). This problematic phenomenon regarding English speaking that is unique to EFL contexts such as Turkey is of utmost importance for the study at hand as it strives to extend speaking practice out of the classroom through asynchronous video feedback implementation, providing EFL learners with extra chances of practicing their speaking skills in English; hence, they can gain higher levels of L2 oral proficiency.

The question mentioned above, “how can L2 oral proficiency be improved via video feedback?” should be answered at this point in line with the aforementioned lack of opportunities for practicing English skills in EFL contexts. Many scholars firmly assert effective L2 learning should go beyond the classrooms and L2 learners are to be encouraged to immerse themselves in the target language as much as they can (Dörnyei & Skehan, 2003; Vaughan et al., 2011). Given its ubiquitous and accessed-on-the-go nature, *Mobile Assisted Language Learning* (MALL) can be a *panacea* for this problem. Kukulska-Hulme and Shield (2008) argue that MALL makes learning interactional and continuous across different contexts simply because it is “potentially available anytime, anywhere” (p.273). In this regard, MALL can be argued to augment the opportunities for practicing language skills at ease without confining them to physical classrooms. Specifically, MALL can offer innovative solutions to the L2 speaking problem unique to EFL contexts. Thus, this thesis provides a close examination of a novel incorporation of MALL (i.e., mobile-assisted corrective feedback in the form of videos) into an EFL

speaking setting and unearths its pedagogical affordances in terms of L2 oral proficiency, with a specific focus on fluency.

“I can speak the language fluently” (Kormos & Dénes, 2004, p. 145). In their ground-breaking paper on which temporal and linguistic variables predict native and nonnative speakers’ perceptions of fluency, this is Kormos and Dénes’ (2004) answer to the question the current study posed in the first place: “What does it take to be a proficient speaker of a second language (L2)?”. In the pertaining literature, it is a well-known fact that L2 oral fluency is an indispensable part of meaningful L2 communication (Suzuki et al., 2021). Moreover, the paradigmatic shift towards Communicative Language Teaching, emphasizing the language use for meaningful communication and fluency, rather than grammatical accuracy (Littlewood, 1981), highlighted the importance of fluency in L2 speaking one more time. Despite its extensively noted significance in L2 communication, Kormos (2006) states that although attaining a great deal of oral fluency is the ultimate goal of L2 learners, the question of automaticity has long been overlooked in L2 speaking. This gap in the literature paved the way for the current inquiry, and it strives to shed novel light on the development of L2 oral fluency, as one of the strongest predictors of L2 oral proficiency, through the implementation of asynchronous video feedback.

To sum up, Turkish EFL learners, together with their counterparts from other EFL countries, are not able to attain higher levels of L2 oral proficiency due to many reasons (e.g., cognitive and affective challenges regarding L2 speaking and limited chances for spoken interaction confined to only physical classroom settings). In this regard, answering the question of “what it takes to be a proficient L2 speaker” necessitates closer scrutiny in one best predictor L2 oral proficiency, namely fluency. A large body of research points out the need for practices that can offer more innovative solutions to this extensively cited problem of L2 speaking than traditional, face-to-face classrooms can. Thanks to the burgeoning proliferation of technology, incorporation asynchronous video feedback into speaking classes as an out-of-the-class practice, which finds its roots in MALL, might play a significant role in cultivating L2 oral fluency.

1.2 The Purpose of the Study

The main purposes of the current study were to explore the relationship between L2 oral fluency development and receiving asynchronous video feedback and

unravel the EFL learners' perceptions on receiving video feedback for their out-of-the-class speaking assignments, which had to be recorded asynchronously. In line with the purposes, the current inquiry addressed the following research questions:

1. How does asynchronous video feedback implementation contribute to the EFL learners' spoken performance?
 - 1a. How does asynchronous video feedback implementation contribute to the EFL learners' perceived fluency scores?
 - 1b. How does asynchronous video feedback implementation contribute to the EFL learners' utterance fluency measures?
2. What are the EFL learners' perceptions on utilizing asynchronous video feedback practice in their speaking classes?

1.3 Significance of the Study

This study implemented asynchronous video feedback practice as an extended speaking activity to investigate its impact on the oral proficiency of EFL learners, with a specific focus on fluency. The variables of the study were refined accordingly with the existing literature. In this sense, it is safe to argue that the current study's contribution to the literature is significant. Tseng and Yeh (2019) pointed out a need for more empirically tested feedback modality studies to investigate its effect on learners' speaking skills. In addition, which different feedback modalities can facilitate dimensions of learners' oral performance remains an under-researched area (Tseng & Yeh, 2019). To date, there have been only a few attempts at investigating the relationship between receiving video feedback and EFL speaking skill development (e.g., Huang & Hung, 2013; Toland et al., 2016; Tseng & Yeh, 2019; Xu et al., 2017); however, there is no such study channeling its focus on the causal relationship between L2 oral fluency and asynchronous video feedback. In this sense, investigating the effectiveness of video feedback on L2 learners' spoken performance, specifically focusing on fluency, a hard-to-conceptualize construct (Kormos & Dénes, 2004) and the essential prerequisite of proficient L2 speaking, is a considerably significant attempt to unveil the relationship between L2 oral fluency development and innovative corrective feedback practices.

Speaking is a multimodal act. Along with oral output, it includes various elements such as mimics and gestures. In this regard, just like this study did, utilizing asynchronous video feedback for asynchronously recorded speaking

assignments of L2 learners in a fully online environment such as emergency remote learning and teaching contexts and/or even in face-to-face classes as ample opportunity to interact beyond the classroom can promote opportunities for authentic speaking practice resembling face-to-face speaking environments, shared understanding in between interlocutors (Dahl & Ludvigsen, 2014) and negotiating meaning in interactions mediated by technological tools (Jovanovic & van Leeuwen, 2018). The complementary relationship between multimodality and EFL speaking and their effects on comprehensibility when used together have been explored from a myriad of angles (Canals, 2021). However, in the pertinent literature, only a few studies (e.g., Toland et al., 2016; Tseng & Yeh, 2019; Xu et al., 2017; Huang & Hung, 2013) examined the effectiveness of video feedback on EFL speaking performance, and none of them focused on L2 oral fluency development. Addressing this issue, this study can be considered pivotal in this respect.

L2 oral fluency is one of the variables of the current study. Understanding the nature of L2 oral fluency, a robust predictor of L2 speaking proficiency (Baker–Smemoe et al., 2014; De Jong et al., 2013; Tavakoli et al., 2020), is of utmost importance for building objectives of curricula and classroom practices related to oral fluency development (Suzuki et al., 2021). This study delved deeper into L2 oral fluency with its most salient types cited in the pertinent literature, namely *perceived fluency* and *utterance fluency* (Segalowitz, 2010, 2016) through a pre- and delayed post-test design and a micro-analytic discourse analysis of L2 learners' utterances in their recorded videos after getting video feedback each week, respectively. In their recently published comprehensive meta-analysis, Suzuki et al. (2021) reported that although a plethora of research was conducted to investigate listener-based judgments of fluency (i.e., perceived fluency), a large body of studies which associated perceived fluency with each component of utterance fluency revealed inconsistent results. Furthermore, *speed fluency* and *pause fluency* (i.e., types of utterance fluency related to its temporal features) was found to be in strong association with perceived fluency (Suzuki et al., 2021). This finding of such a comprehensive meta-analysis verified the findings of the study at hand as well. In this sense, a study this micro-analytic and correlational at the same time, covering the most essential types and measures of fluency together, is hard to find, fills a huge gap in the literature, and provides pausological researchers with a robust

research design, yielding reliable and valid findings to build more on their further studies.

Another dimension of this research project was that it explored the perceptions of EFL learners on receiving video feedback for their video-recorded speaking assignments. This part of the study can be considered highly significant as well because the user experience with such an innovative practice can inform further studies, curriculum developers, instructional designers and technology specialists, and teachers while designing and implementing video-mediated feedback in their contexts.

1.4 Definition of the Key Terms

The key terms that are used throughout the study at hand are provided below:

Speaking is defined as “oral language production” (Tarone, 2005, p.485).

Fluency is operationally defined as “the ability to talk at length with few pauses; the ability to fill time with talk; the ability to talk in coherent and semantically dense sentences; the ability to have appropriate things to say in a wide range of contexts; and the ability to be creative and imaginative in the language use” (Fillmore, 1979, p. 51).

L2 Fluency is referred to as “natural language use whether or not it results in native speaker-like language comprehension or production” (Brumfit, 1984, p. 56).

Perceived Fluency is defined as listeners’ inferences on “how efficiently the speaker encodes their intended message by paying selective attention to utterance features that they believe reflect the speaker’s efficiency of mobilizing L2 knowledge for speech production” (Suzuki et al., 2021, p. 436).

Utterance Fluency refers to “observable temporal features, such as pauses and hesitations, that

reflect the operation of L2 speech production mechanisms” (Segalowitz, 2010, 2016, as cited in Suzuki et al., 2021, p. 436).

Temporal Measures of Fluency are referred to as predictors of fluency that can be quantified and measured (Luoma, 2004).

Speech Rate refers to “the total number of syllables produced in a given speech sample divided by the amount of total time required to produce the sample (including pause time), expressed in seconds” (Kormos, 2006, p.163).

Mean Length of Utterance is defined as “the average number of syllables produced in utterances between pauses of 0.25 seconds and above” (Kormos, 2006, p.163).

MALL is defined as “the use of smartphones and other mobile technologies in language learning, especially in situations where portability and situated learning offer specific advantages” (Kukulska-Hulme, 2020, p.1).

Feedback in educational settings is operationally defined as “the information that comes from a channel (e.g., parent, teacher, book, experience, and self) in regards with the facets of one’s performing or understanding” (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p.81).

Corrective feedback refers to “any signal that a learner’s utterance may be erroneous in some way” (Nassaji & Kartchava, 2021, p.1).

Video feedback: There are three types of video feedback: *screencast*, *talking head*, and *combination screencast* (Mahoney et al., 2018). In the current study, the talking head version of video feedback was utilized, and it is referred to as “speaking to the camera about the student’s assessment and then making the video available to the student’ (Lamey, 2015, p. 692).

Learner uptake is referred to as “the extent to which learners respond to corrective feedback” (Basturkmen & Fu, 2021, p.375).

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND RELATED RESEARCH

This chapter, in turn, presents both theoretical and empirical literature regarding the variables of the study at hand. First, the Community of Inquiry Framework, which is used as the theoretical lens of the study, is dwelled on. Then, the theoretical underpinnings of mobile assisted language learning are presented. Subsequently, a discussion is provided for the relationship between mobile assisted language learning, L2 speaking, and feedback, along with the presentation of the findings of the most up-to-date empirical studies. Later, detailed background information on video feedback is presented. Afterward, the discussion on video feedback is narrowed down with a subheading that scrutinizes the relationship between video feedback and L2 speaking. Lastly, both theoretical and empirical L2 oral fluency research outcomes are dwelled on in a detailed manner.

2.1 Community of Inquiry Framework

Video feedback practice in educational settings finds its roots in numerous theoretical lenses such as Paivio's (1990) Dual Coding Theory, Mayer's (1997) Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning, and Garrison et al.'s (2000) Community of Inquiry (CoI) framework. Given that the study at hand strives to explore the pedagogical affordances of video feedback in an online L2 speaking classroom context with the aim of fostering connectedness to the classroom community, open communication, and increasing the proximity between the instructor and the students (i.e., *social presence*), identifying the needs of the students regarding online speaking classes and plausibly addressing those needs via conveying suitable information with the help of video feedback (i.e., *teaching presence*), and helping students engage in a reflective inquiry regarding their own L2 spoken performance via video feedback implementation (i.e., *cognitive presence*), it is informed by and grounded in CoI framework.

Community of Inquiry framework, which is a model of online education (Swan et al., 2009), is developed by Garrison et al. (2000) and has been extensively employed in both synchronous and asynchronous online learning settings to improve pedagogical practices (Alavi & Taghizadeh, 2013). The term *community* in the framework is referred to as “a way of talking about the social configurations

in which the enterprises are defined as worth pursuing, and the participation is recognizable as competence” (Wenger, 1999, p.5). From this perspective, creating and belonging to a community is of paramount importance regarding online education settings in that community might be considered as the *sine qua non* of an effective knowledge structure (Wenger et al., 2002). Laying its foundations in social constructivist philosophy which was informed by Lev Vygotsky’s and John Dewey’s ideas on collaborative learning via a zone of proximal development (Wells, 2000; Garrison, 2013) and meaning-making as a transactional effort (Garrison, 2011; Garrison, 2013), respectively, CoI framework might help researchers and practitioners conceptualize the complex structure of online learning settings and have a better understanding of the nature of the communities which are created in those settings (Conrad, 2009). CoI framework consists of three inter-related and dynamic sub-components: a) social presence, b) cognitive presence, and c) teaching presence (Akyol & Garrison, 2011; Garrison et al., 2001; Garrison, 2007; Garrison, 2013). All these presences are comprised of various sub-components and indicators. Figure 2.1. presents the presences of the framework altogether.



Figure 2.1. Community of inquiry framework (Garrison et al., 2000)

2.1.1 Social Presence

Being one of the sub-components of the CoI framework, social presence refers to perceiving individuals as real people in an online mediated communication (Garrison et al., 2000; Garrison & Arbaugh, 2007; Rourke et al., 1999). In other words, the construct of social presence can be described as the learners' ability to project their social and emotional identities (Garrison & Arbaugh, 2007) at a given platform. The construct of social presence is based on Mehrabian's (1969) famous *immediacy* concept, which was defined as "those communication behaviors that enhance closeness to and nonverbal interaction with another" (p. 203). Social presence consists of three categories: a) affective expression, b) group cohesion, and c) open communication (Garrison et al., 2000). Rourke et al. (2001) delineated several indicators of the three categories as shown in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1. The categories and indicators of social presence

Sub-components	Indicators
Affective Expression	• Expression of emotions • Use of humor • Self-disclosure
Group Cohesion	• Vocatives • Referring to group using inclusive pronouns (e.g., we, you, us) • Phatics/salutations
Open Communication	• Continuing a thread • Quoting from other's messages • Referring explicitly to each other's messages • Asking questions • Complimenting/expressing appreciation • Expressing agreement

Being a robust predictor of cognitive presence (Garrison et al., 2010; Kozan & Richardson, 2014) and teaching presence (Arbaugh, 2007; Garrison & Arbaugh, 2007), social presence is integral to the CoI framework; thus, it is crucial that it is

built, broadened, and maintained in fully online or blended learning communities (Garrison & Arbaugh, 2007).

Video feedback is often cited as an efficient means for conveying affective expression due to its nonverbal cues (Anson et al., 2016; Borup et al., 2014). What is more, learners often find video feedback to be effective at cultivating group cohesion in that it is considered by the students to increase rapport (Thompson & Lee, 2012; West & Turner, 2016) and make them feel closer to the feedback provider (Anson et al., 2016; Borup et al., 2014; Lamey, 2015). Lastly, video feedback was considered encouraging for open communication (Vincelette & Bostic, 2013) and fostering dialogue between the instructor and the students (Gonzalez & Moore, 2018). Hence, it is safe to argue that video feedback closely corresponds to the social presence sub-component of the CoI framework as it meets all the criteria entailed by the social presence concept.

2.1.2 Cognitive Presence

The second sub-component of the CoI framework is termed as cognitive presence. Cognitive presence is referred to as “the extent to which learners are able to construct and confirm meaning through sustained reflection and discourse in a critical community of inquiry” (Garrison et al., 2001, p. 11). Later, Garrison (2007) provided a similar definition, stating that cognitive presence is “the exploration, construction, resolution, and confirmation of understanding through collaboration and reflection in a community of inquiry” (p.65). Cognitive presence originates from Dewey’s (1933) ideas on reflective thinking, which paved the way for critical thinking later and was operationalized on a parsimonious model which is called Practical Inquiry (see Figure 2.2.) that consists of four levels of inquiry (Garrison et al., 2000). The phases in Practical Inquiry are conceptualized as triggering event, exploration, integration, and resolution (Garrison et al., 2000).

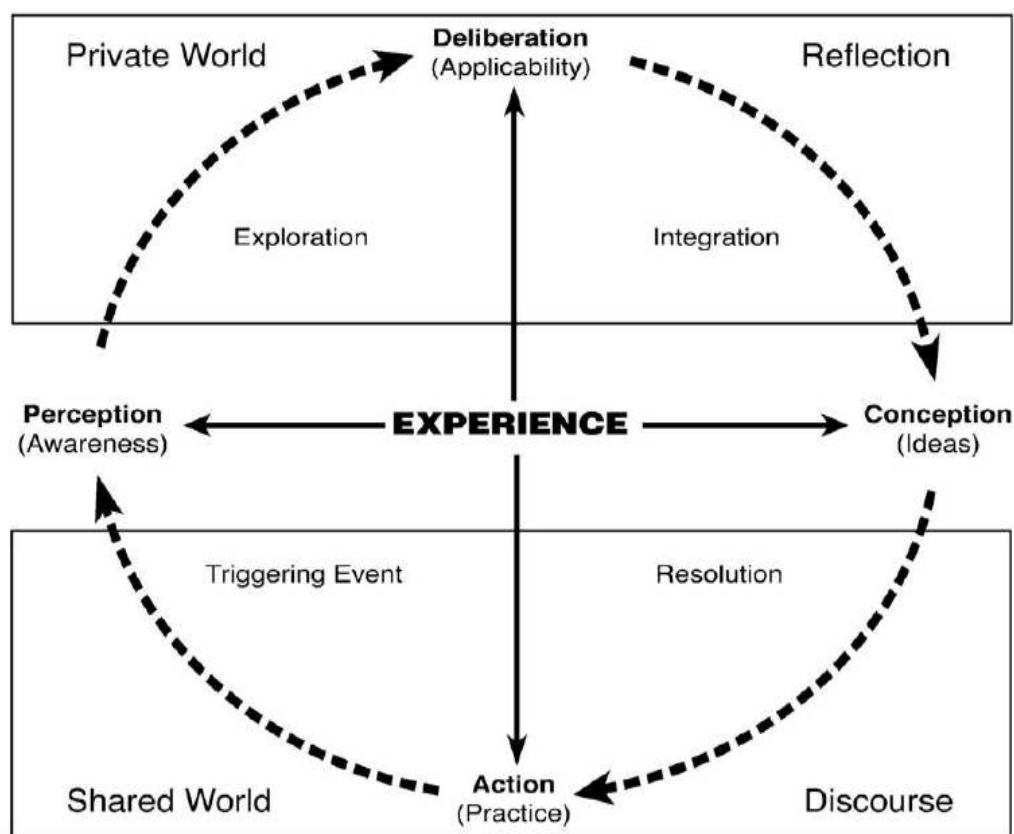


Figure 2.2. Practical inquiry model (Garrison et al. 2000, p.89)

As shown in Figure 2.2., the practical inquiry starts with identifying a problem called triggering event. Then, learners are provided with chances of exploring the problem via critical thinking in the exploration phase. Subsequently, meaning-making informed by the ideas that emerged during the second phase of the inquiry is initiated in the integration part. Lastly, learners transfer the newly acquired knowledge throughout the first three phases to educational or other settings in the resolution phase. Swan et al. (2009) contend that the inquiry process is cyclical rather than linear and add that a learner might revisit the previous phases whenever needed. Cognitive Presence consists of several descriptors and indicators (Garrison & Anderson, 2000). They are displayed in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2. Descriptors and indicators of cognitive presence

Phase	Descriptor	Indicator
Triggering event	Evocative (inductive)	- Recognize problem - Puzzle statement
Exploration	Inquisitive (divergent)	Divergence

		• Information exchange • Suggestions • Brainstorming • Intuitive leaps
Integration	Tentative (convergent)	• Convergence • Synthesis • Solutions
Resolution	Committed (deductive)	• Apply • Test • Defend

Video feedback could be a robust facilitator of cognitive presence in educational settings in two aspects. First, the content of the video feedback was found to address higher-order thinking skills in some of the studies (Lamey, 2015; Vincelette & Bostic, 2013) and be feedforward-oriented (Lamey, 2015). In other words, video feedback is holistic and addresses in-depth issues most of the time (Vincelette & Bostic, 2013); thus, it focuses on the improvement of future performance rather than focusing on mechanical errors such as spelling (Lamey, 2015). Second, a plethora of studies reported that video feedback was considered easy-to-understand (Borup et al., 2015; Ghosn-Chelala & Al-Chibani, 2018; Turner & West, 2013), which yielded a better understanding of the content (Turner & West, 2013). Several studies associated this easy-to-understand nature of video feedback with its nonverbal cues (Borup et al., 2015; Crook et al., 2012). Given that video feedback comprehensively addresses the phases of cognitive presence, it seems appropriate for fostering cognitive presence in educational settings.

2.1.3 Teaching Presence

Anderson et al. (2001) define teaching presence as “the design, facilitation, and direction of cognitive and social processes for the purpose of realizing personally meaningful and educationally worthwhile learning outcomes” (p. 5). From this perspective, teaching presence plays the role of catalyst between social presence and cognitive presence (Garrison et al., 2000) as higher-order learning entails not only interaction and discourse but also instructional design and organization, facilitating discourse, and direct instruction (Garrison, 2007).

Teaching presence is divided into a triad of sub-components: a) instructional design and organization, b) facilitating discourse (originally called ‘building understanding’), and c) direct instruction (Anderson et al., 2001). The first sub-component of teaching presence, instructional design, and organization, refers to materials preparation, selection and organization of the instructional activities, and evaluation of a given online course. The instructor is responsible for developing, coordinating, and evaluating the programs, all of which are done solely by the instructor (Anderson et al., 2001). This component of teaching presence is a strong predictor of an effective online course (Swan, 2003). The sub-component, which is called facilitating discourse, on the other hand, aims at escalating interaction among the learners and the instructor (Palloff & Prat, 2011). The examples of facilitating discourse can be considered introducing netiquette policy, observing and leading discussions in the forums of an online class, and providing students with timely and proper feedback (Anderson et al., 2001). The last sub-component of teaching presence is providing direct instruction. Via direct instruction, the instructor “provides intellectual and scholarly leadership” (Anderson et al., 2001, p. 8) and directly presents the selected content to the learners. The categories and indicators of teaching presence (Anderson et al., 2001) are presented in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3. The sub-components and indicators of teaching presence

Sub-components	Indicators
Instructional Design and Organization	• Setting curriculum • Designing methods • Establishing time parameters • Utilizing medium effectively • Establishing the netiquette
Facilitating Discourse	• Encouraging, acknowledging, or reinforcing student contributions • Setting climate for learning • Drawing in participants, prompting discussions • Assess the efficacy of the process
Direct Instruction	• Present content/questions

- Focus the discussion on specific issues
 - Summarize the discussions
 - Confirm understanding through assessment and explanatory feedback
 - Diagnose misconceptions
-

Teaching presence plays an important role in supporting social presence; therefore, cognitive presence (Garrison et al., 2010), and it regulates the three sub-components of the CoI (Akyol, 2009). In this regard, implementing educational practices that foster teaching presence might have important affordances. Video feedback could be considered as one of those educational practices cultivating teaching presence in several aspects. To illustrate, learners found video feedback to be useful and beneficial for their learning compared to other feedback modes (Borup et al. 2014; Lamey 2015; Mayhew 2017). In other words, video feedback was considered to be a necessary and plausible means for the students' learning, which shows high degree of teaching presence in video feedback implementation.

2.2 Mobile Learning

Surrounded by breakthrough technologies in a digital era, education has been deeply affected by those technologies and the affordances that they could offer more than ever. Mobile learning has emerged due to those breakthrough technologies and has become our everyday reality. Given that mobile technologies will grow and expand their areas of usability, Ally (2013) contended that “we have entered the mobile era” (p. 7), which will radically change the ways we live and learn (Kartcahava & Nassaji, 2021). Its escalating importance is being what is, and the term mobile learning needs to be concisely conceptualized (Laouris & Eteokleous, 2005); however, the scholars who have been working in the field have yet to agree on one clear definition of exactly what mobile learning is (Sharples et al., 2009). This is mainly due to the rapid advancements in the field and the vagueness of the term “mobile” (Kukulska-Hulme, 2009). Hence, various definitions of mobile learning have been offered in the pertinent literature.

One of those definitions that Crompton put forward (2013) conceptualized mobile learning as “learning across multiple contexts, through social and content interactions, using personal electronic devices.” (p. 38). Winters (2006), on the

other hand, provided a more comprehensive definition for mobile learning by presenting four categories of it:

- techno-centric
- learner-centered
- relationship to e-learning
- augmenting formal classroom education

Koole (2009) put forward the Framework for the Rational Analysis of Mobile Education (FRAME) model to explicate the various inter-related dimensions of mobile learning to improve practices and learning outcomes. In essence, Koole (2009) provided a reference point by the FRAME model for mobile learning, which provides learners with opportunities to interact with other people or information anytime and anywhere. The FRAME model comprises three main intersecting aspects: a) device aspect (D), b) learner aspect (L), and c) social aspect (S). As the main aspects intersect, they form intersections: a) device usability (DL), b) mobile learning (DLS), c) social technology (DS), and d) Interaction Learning (LS). The main aspects and intersections of the model were delineated to explain the personal and interactional nature of learning by a mediating effect of mobile devices' technical features (Koole, 2009). The FRAME model is displayed in Figure 2.3.

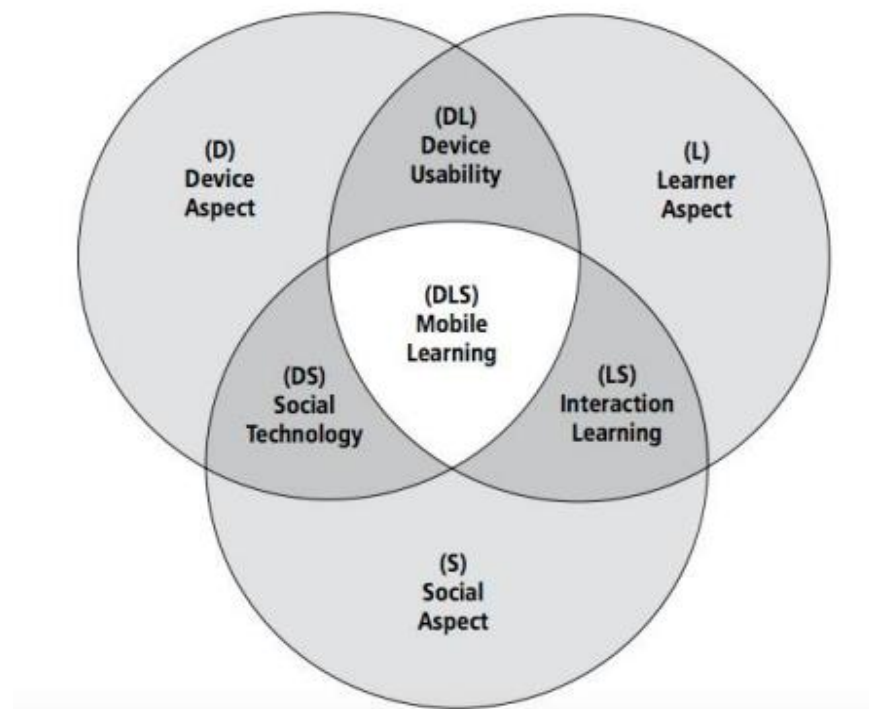


Figure 2.3. The FRAME model

2.2.1 Affordances and Limitations of Mobile Learning

Like many other technology-mediated contexts and implications, mobile learning also has its own unique affordances and drawbacks. Regarding its advantages, “portability, small size, freedom of access in both time and space, authenticity, situated learning” emerge as dominant themes for mobile learning (Kartchava & Nassaji, 2021, p. 520). In addition to those, another advantage of mobile learning that needs to be dwelled on is that it generally addresses the differentiated needs of learners, and by its very nature, is learner-centered (Corbeil & Valdes, 2007). What is more, learners may experience more sense of ownership regarding their learning as mobile learning is basically individualized (Traxler, 2007).

When it comes to the limitations of mobile learning, lacking a monitoring system and differentiated levels of technical competence of learners can be given as examples (Asabere, 2013). Moreover, the hardware problems regarding mobile devices might have a hazardous effect on learning (Wagner, 2005), which may even result in the failure of mobile implications (Mcconatha et al., 2008). From another perspective, mobile devices might be very tempting during class time, and learners might simply prefer scrolling down on various social media accounts or playing games over following the class (Hwang & Wu, 2014), which in turn might cause impediments on focusing on the course content (Burns & Lohenry, 2010) and lower levels of performance (Duncan et al., 2012).

2.3 Mobile Assisted Language Learning

Rooted in mobile learning, mobile assisted language learning (MALL) that utilizes mobile devices for L2 learning and teaching has recently appealed to the interests of SLA scholars (Burston, 2014; Hsu et al., 2012). Although not only our lives but also research on L2 learning have been permeated by the latest technologies, and the effects of MALL on L2 learning and teaching and its reflections on theory and empirical research have been started to be investigated for the last two decades (Burston, 2014). Given that MALL is still in its infancy period and a fast-growing field (Viberg & Grönlund, 2012), various categorizations and conceptualizations of MALL have been put forward; yet, there is a lack of a formal theory comprehensively explicating the nature of MALL (Kukulska-Hulme & Shield, 2008).

Although MALL is considered a sub-component of computer assisted language learning and mobile learning by some scholars (Caudill, 2008), two distinct features of MALL that makes it different from the other technology-mediated language contexts are for sure: “the use of hand-held devices in and out-of-class environment” (Burston, 2014, p. 345). By the same token, Kukulska-Hulme and Shield (2008) asserted that the portable and personalized nature of MALL that enables access for L2 learning across different contexts and timeframes is what makes it different from computer assisted language learning. Building more on the portability and personalized user experience, Kartcahava and Nassaji (2021) stated that “the continuity of access across contexts is assured not only by various mobile devices that range from e-book readers and tablets to MP3/4 players and smartphones but also by applications designed specifically for a particular purpose or in support of it” (p. 524). Palala (2011), on the other hand, pointing out the mobility of learners in MALL and combining it with that of a mobile device, defines MALL as “language learning enabled by the mobility of the learner and portability of hand-held devices” (pp. 76–77). As a final reminder, Kukulska-Hulme et al. (2015) highlighted the fact MALL should not be considered only a part of mobile learning via which learners utilize mobile devices in a formal classroom setting to learn a language, firmly asserting that MALL refers to “learners and language learning being mobile, moving between places, linking classroom learning with work, home, play, and other spaces and embracing varied cultural contexts, communication goals, and people” (p. 16).

2.3.1 Research on MALL and L2 Speaking

The effects of MALL on the development of L2 speaking skills have been gaining the attention of SLA scholars to date. To this end, several studies have been conducted. To begin with, Demouy and Kukulska-Hulme (2010) investigated the differentiated effects of using iPods/mp3 players and smartphones on the development of not only L2 speaking but also the listening skills of French L2 learners of English. The participants were divided into two groups, and they completed several listening and speaking assignments over six weeks. The first group did the assignments using an mp3 player while the latter utilized smartphones. The findings revealed that the first group enjoyed more the on-the-go nature of mobile devices and utilized them in various settings, whereas the second group preferred doing the assignments at home mostly. Demouy and Kukulska-

Hulme (2010) contended that although the settings where the two groups of mobile devices had been used varied, the use of mobile devices, including both types, helped L2 learners develop L2 listening and speaking performance.

By the same token, Ahn and Lee (2016) sought to explore the perceptions of 302 Korean EFL learners who were studying at middle schools back then on the effectiveness of a mobile application that was designed for developing speaking and pronunciation skills via an automatic speech recognition technology. The implementation of the mobile application took two weeks, and the participants were required to complete speaking assignments using the mobile application both in and out of the classroom. After the implementation, the participants were asked to fill in a survey regarding the effectiveness of the intervention. The findings pointed out positive user experience in that the participants found the automatic speech recognition mobile application to be a plausible means for developing their speaking and pronunciation skills, which also boosted their motivation towards learning English.

In a similar vein, Abdous et al. (2009) observed positive learning outcomes regarding both listening and speaking skills after implementing podcasts as an integrated activity into a formal classroom setting or an extended practice outside of the language classroom. The participants were American L2 learners of English, Japanese, German, French, and Spanish who were tertiary-level students. After the use of podcasts, they were asked to rate their own oral and production skills. The participants who had been using podcasts as an integrated practice in the classroom gave higher scores to their skills compared to the extended practice group and also noted that they thought the integration of podcasts into the L2 classroom improved their vocabulary and grammar skills as well.

Social Network Services (SNS) have been another area that gained the attention of scholars regarding teaching L2 speaking. To illustrate, Shih et al. (2015) conducted a study on the effectiveness of a mobile SNS on the development of spelling skills of Taiwanese EFL learners. After the six-week intervention, the findings of the post-test revealed a significant improvement in the spelling skills of the participants, and they also reported that they had a positive user experience with the mobile application overall.

Lastly, in one of the attempts to scrutinize the effects of video technologies on the speaking competence of Taiwanese EFL learners, Huang and Hung (2013)

recruited 17 Taiwanese EFL learners from an intact class at a university with various majors (e.g., marine sciences, chemistry, theater arts, etc.). They sought to explore their perceptions regarding joining a video-based online discussion forum and its perceived affordances on their L2 spoken performance. For fourteen weeks, the learners participated in a voice-based online discussion forum on Facebook. The findings revealed that Taiwanese EFL learners' public speaking skills significantly improved thanks to video technologies, and the online video-based forum granted them an opportunity for extended speaking practice.

2.3.2 Mobile Technology-Mediated Feedback and L2 Speaking

Compared to the research regarding the corrective feedback given in other technology-mediated contexts, it seems that comparably less research on mobile-assisted feedback exists in the pertinent literature, although there is evidence that it can enhance L2 learning (Kartchava & Nassaji, 2021). The research addressing the development of L2 speaking skills with the help of feedback given via mobile technologies is even less. In one of those few efforts to improve the L2 speaking skill with the help of mobile technology-mediated feedback, Liakin et al. (2017a) traced the L2 pronunciation development of the learners of French as L2 with a mobile text-to-speech synthesizer (TTS) called NaturalReader. Before the study started, the participants were divided into three groups: a) the first group receiving feedback from the TTS for the pronunciation assignments regarding the accuracy of the spoken performance, b) the second group receiving feedback from a teacher, and c) a control group receiving no feedback. The findings of the pre-, immediate post-, and delayed post-test showed that only the first and the second group showed statistically significant improvement in pronunciation skills. The researchers concluded that TTS implementation as an out-of-the-classroom extended practice could facilitate and supplement exposure to L2 input and provide students with further chances of practice in the target L2.

As for the global oral proficiency, Hsu et al. (2008) investigated the effectiveness of both spoken and written teacher feedback which was given at a platform called Evoca (i.e., an online audio recording and playing platform) on the global oral proficiency of ESL learners in an advanced English-speaking course. During the study, the participants were asked to keep audio blogs and answer the comprehension check questions for short listening excerpts using Evoca via their mobile phones. The teacher provided them with asynchronous oral or written

feedback, suggesting improvements for their oral performance and pointing out some crucial errors in the spoken performance of the learners that interfere with the comprehension and fluency. The findings revealed that students were extremely satisfied with getting such individualized feedback from their teachers and as well as the audio blogging process.

In a similar vein, Kim (2014) investigated the effects of online audio recording and various speech-to-text technologies (e.g., Vocaroo and VoiceThread) as an extended speaking practice outside of the classroom on the oral proficiency development of five tertiary-level ESL learners. During the study, the participants were required to record, practice, and listen to nine stories they produced, and they received written teacher feedback addressing pronunciation, vocabulary, and syntactic complexity issues. Their oral proficiency was tested four times and showed significant improvement in overall spoken performance as well as vocabulary, pronunciation, and syntactic complexity.

As it can be seen above, there has been no single study having addressed the effects of providing mobile technology-mediated feedback (herein, within the scope of this study, video feedback given by smartphones) on the L2 oral fluency development of EFL learners, analyzing its effects in terms of both utterance and perceived oral fluency. In this regard, this study seems to fill in a huge gap in the pertinent literature.

2.4 Video Feedback

Feedback is considered an indispensable part of learning and teaching (Hyland & Hyland, 2006). If reinforced with feedback, the learning outcomes of a task or an assignment yield better results and become more sustainable (Bloxham & Boyd, 2007; Hattie & Jaeger, 1998). Despite being a crucial part of learning and teaching that has a direct impact on learning outcomes, traditional assessment feedback is generally reported by students to be inefficient and unhelpful (Nicol, 2010). In this regard, student dissatisfaction with traditional modes of feedback has led researchers to come up with alternative modalities of feedback to better this vital educational practice. To this end, alternative types of feedback have emerged thanks to the burgeoning proliferation of new technologies. Video feedback is considered one of those alternative modalities of technology-mediated feedback. Compared to its written and audio equivalents, video feedback could have obvious pedagogical affordances regarding its clarity conveyed by speech (Borup et al.,

2011) and the verbal and nonverbal cues it has (Crook et al., 2012), which results in richer discourse for the feedback content (Elola & Oskoz, 2016).

Studies on video feedback have yet to reach a consensus on one definition of video feedback. Although there is no shared understanding of exactly what video feedback is, Mahoney et al. (2019) came up with three categories of video-based feedback in their comprehensive qualitative synthesis of video feedback in higher education: a) screencast feedback, b) talking head, and c) combination screencast. Cunningham (2019) defines screencast feedback as “the process of recording a digital display with voiceover” (p. 224). In other words, the instructor’s screen is captured with audio narration while commenting on a given assignment, which may or may not include nonverbal cues such as gestures. Unlike screencast feedback, talking head format refers to the kind of video feedback in which the feedback provider is “speaking to the camera about the student’s assessment and then makes the video available to the student” (Lamey, 2015, p. 692). The last version of video feedback is the combination of the two. That is, it “enables a small video recording of the marker to be displayed within a screencast, thus providing a physical representation of the marker in concert with the screen capture and audio narration of a traditional screencast” (Klappa, 2015, p.692). While pertinent literature has extensively explored the implications of screencast feedback and the combination screencast in various areas, including EFL settings, the effectiveness of talking head video feedback on EFL learners’ spoken performance, with a particular focus on perceived and utterance fluency, remains an under-researched area. Thus, the current study at hand seeks to explore the pedagogical affordances of receiving talking head video feedback for L2 monologic oral narrative assignments and student perceptions regarding this feedback mode. Delving deeper into the effectiveness of talking head video feedback on L2 speaking, particularly fluency, will shed novel light on innovative feedback practices in EFL settings and offer a solid base for how to utilize video feedback in L2 speaking classes.

2.4.1 Advantages of Video Feedback

A plethora of existing studies pointed out a strong correlation between student satisfaction and video feedback and reported that students prefer video feedback to written feedback (Anson et al., 2016; Grigoryan, 2017a; Lamey, 2015). This high level of student satisfaction with receiving video feedback could be closely associated with the advantages of video feedback. To illustrate, the main strength

of video feedback that was perceived by students was shown to be clear and easy-to-understand simply because of the delivery mode (i.e., spoken language) (Borup et al. 2014; Elola & Oskoz, 2016; Silva, 2012) in most of the empirical studies (Mahoney et al., 2019). As stated by Thurlow et al. (2004), nonverbal elements of communication often “communicate a range of social and emotional information” (p.49). In this regard, Crook et al. (2012) contend that the reason why video feedback is perceived to have more clarity compared to its counterparts is the nonverbal cues (e.g., tone of voice, gestures, and mimics) that can easily aid in conveying the content of the feedback and help students decipher and interpret the instructor’s message. Similarly, Nataksukasa (2021) draws attention to the potential of gestures for boosting student performance if used with verbal corrective feedback. In a similar vein, Thompson and Lee (2012) argue that video feedback doubles its pedagogical affordances in that it “allows instructors to model a reader response, with the addition of cues that have the potential to help students take in feedback as part of an ongoing conversation about their work instead of a personal criticism” (p. 3). In this regard, video feedback could be considered to better help students comprehend the intended message of the feedback.

Another perceived advantage of video feedback is considered to have more enriched content and carry more elaborative information compared to other feedback modalities (Anson et al., 2016; Crook et al., 2012). For instance, several studies that explored the content of the feedback artifacts showed that video feedback included many more words than written feedback (Borup et al., 2015; Elola & Oskoz, 2016; Thomas et al., 2017). Besides being plentiful in terms of word quantity, video feedback provides instructors with chances of embedding figures, diagrams, and demonstrations into their videos, which in turn enables students to comprehend a given task, assignment, or process better thanks to visualization (Crook et al., 2012). In the light of these findings, it can be concluded that video feedback includes textual, aural, and visual elements at the same time and provides learners with more enriched content in quantity and cues for better understanding.

The third self-evident advantage of video feedback is reported to increase student engagement with the feedback (Mahoney et al., 2019; Mayhew, 2017; Silva, 2012) and rapport (Anson et al., 2016; Borup et al., 2012; Elola & Oskoz, 2016). Crook et al. (2012) showed that students spent more time engaging with their video feedback while viewing their feedback videos several times and taking notes during

revising. What is more, video feedback enabled students to pause, resume, and view their video feedback anytime anywhere for multiple times, which turned out to be a perceived advantage by the students (Crook et al., 2012). Besides increased engagement with the feedback, video feedback also increased the rapport between the instructor and the students as it gave the impression that the teacher spent much more time on the students and provided them with personalized and one-to-one tutoring (Anson et al., 2016). All in all, video feedback seems to have the potential of building and maintaining stronger and more humane connections between a teacher and students and increasing the quality and quantity of time spent for revising a given assignment. A detailed categorization regarding the advantages of video feedback provided by Mahoney et al (2019) is presented in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4. Advantages of video feedback

	Findings	Video Feedback Format(s)
More extensive	Markers can convey more feedback, addressing more areas within allocated marking time frames.	Screencast Talking head
Greater detail	Markers can comment at greater length on concerns and can elaborate on positive aspects.	Screencast Talking head
Illustrative	Markers can demonstrate techniques, model responses, and include examples and resources.	Screencast
Feedforward-oriented	Markers can offer suggestions for improving future assignments, rather than simply identifying errors.	Talking head
Shifts focus from surface-level to substantive feedback	Markers comment on substantive areas of an assignment, with less emphasis on textual and referencing errors. Student revisions may also be more meaningful.	Screencast Talking head
Efficient marking times	Marking times for video feedback are typically less than or comparable to those for written feedback.	Screencast Talking head
Marker enthusiasm	Markers typically enjoy the use of video feedback and may even regain enthusiasm for marking due to the format's affordances.	Screencast Talking head

Improved student relationships with markers	Markers can offer conversational, natural feedback, express emotions, and use humor, thereby simulating a conversation, and fostering a personal connection.	Screencast Talking head
High level of acceptability to students	Student perceptions of video feedback are typically positive. Students often prefer video feedback to written feedback.	Screencast Talking head
Flexible access	Students can save, pause, rewind, and replay their feedback.	Combination screencast Screencast Talking head
Personal and individualized	Students feel valued as students and individuals, rather than a face in the crowd, and consider the video format more personalized than written feedback.	Combination screencast Screencast Talking head
Improved clarity	Students consider video feedback easier to understand and interpret than written feedback.	Screencast Talking head
Constructive and informative	Feedback is more useful, provides improved suggestions, and prompts consideration of future learning.	Screencast Talking head
Improved student engagement	Students spend longer reviewing and reflecting on their feedback, find feedback motivating, and may view feedback multiple times.	Screencast Talking head

2.4.2 Disadvantages of Video Feedback

The disadvantages of video feedback are twofold. First, video feedback, especially the talking head version, (Borup et al., 2014) may result in a negative emotional attachment (e.g., anxiety) with the instructor and feedback content itself due to its perceived personalized nature (Borup et al., 2014; Lamey 2015). Although being one of the most cited advantages of video feedback (Mahoney et al. 2019), its personalized nature may cause students to feel awkward and dismissive while viewing feedback video, as it is unidirectional by nature, whereas it resembles to its face-to-face counterpart at most (Lamey, 2015). In other words, a student may anticipate a dialogue or want to respond to criticism in the video feedback as it feels

like face-to-face interaction; yet, replying to the teacher or a dialogue is not possible with it.

The other extensively cited drawback of video feedback is that it is not as accessible and concise as written feedback (Borup et al., 2015). That is, Borup et al. (2015) reported that participants preferred text feedback to the video one as they easily reached and scanned the text feedback due to its more concise commentary. This perceived disadvantage of video feedback is closely associated with the talking head format. As argued by Lamey (2015), students might have a hard time locating the comments of the teacher within the relevant parts of the task or assignment in talking-head video feedback. Table 2.5. presents an overview of the disadvantages of video feedback provided by Mahoney et al. (2019).

Table 2.5. Disadvantages of video feedback

	Findings	Video Feedback Format(s)
Recording process	A quiet location free from interruptions is generally required. Recordings often cannot be paused or edited once completed. Markers may need to consider their setting (office/home) and personal appearance.	Screencast Talking head
Technical requirements	Video files can be large, leading to slow upload and download times. Video feedback cannot be produced without the appropriate software.	Screencast Talking head
Negative emotional reactions by markers	Markers may not be able to conceal unfavorable emotions (such as frustration) from students.	Talking head
Student preference for text	Some students may prefer text feedback to video feedback, finding it easier to access and refer to later.	Screencast Talking head
Student anxiety	Some students may feel anxious before viewing their feedback, and uncomfortable during viewing.	Screencast Talking head
Confronting and dismissive	Seeing and hearing feedback may be confronting for students, while the	Talking head

	conversational nature may feel one-sided and dismissive.	
Technical difficulties	Students can encounter difficulties downloading and watching video, such as file incompatibility and large file sizes. Staff can encounter difficulties recording feedback.	Screencast Talking head
Locating feedback within assignments	Students can find it difficult to match comments in talking head video feedback with the sections of assignment to which they refer.	Talking head
Fewer textual corrections	Video feedback can lack the volume of textual corrections, such as spelling and grammar, more easily provided in written feedback.	Talking head

2.4.3 Video Feedback and L2 Speaking

Video feedback has gained comparably less attention compared to other feedback modalities and their effects on L2 speaking skills. Although several scholars investigated the effectiveness of video feedback on the spoken performance for EFL learners (e.g., Toland et al., 2016; Xu et al., 2017), the relationship between the multimodal feedback (e.g., video feedback) and the development of L2 spoken performance, with a particular focus on its quintessential component -fluency- has remained under-researched to date.

In one of those few studies investigating the relationship between video feedback and spoken performance, Xu, et al. (2017) explored the perceptions of 35 Chinese EFL students regarding receiving MALL-based feedback given by two instructors using a social media application called WeChat. During twelve-week long semester, the participants were asked to complete five oral production tasks (i.e., completing a missing ending of 5 American soap opera excerpts), which were recorded as videos and submitted on their WeChat groups. Upon submission, the participants received either oral or written feedback on WeChat by their instructors, addressing pronunciation, content, and grammar in their spoken performance. The results gleaned from the post-study questionnaire, two student reflection forms, and interviews showed that students had a positive experience with receiving teacher feedback for their oral performance using WeChat and expressed further interest in receiving mobile-assisted feedback. What is more, students were found to gain

more self-confidence in speaking English, and the feedback process mediated by WeChat provided them with extra chances of practicing speaking skills outside of a formal classroom setting.

By the same token, Toland et al. (2016) sought to explore the perceptions of 129 undergraduate Japanese EFL learners on receiving mobile-video reflective feedback for their poster presentations in their action research. The findings indicated that mobile-video feedback was beneficial for improving the participants' overall presentation and spoken performance. Even though most participants found this feedback provision plausible and beneficial, they also expressed their concerns for public speaking anxiety and the privacy of their personal data.

Most recently, Tseng and Yeh (2019) investigated the effectiveness of video and written peer feedback on the English spoken performance of the participants and gleaned their preferences for each feedback mode. 43 EFL students who were studying at a Taiwanese university were divided into 10 video feedback and 11 feedback groups and produced video clips eight times. After submission, they received either video or written feedback from their peers that was given by using an oral presentation rubric, revised their assignments accordingly, and submitted their revised versions for the second round of feedback. The data were collected through “a) students' video clips before and after receiving peer feedback, (b) the video and written feedback they received, and (c) a survey which the students completed after receiving video or written feedback to examine their own English-speaking performance in terms of pronunciation, intonation, fluency, grammar, and word usage” (Tseng & Yeh, 2019, p. 145.) The results revealed that while written peer feedback was found to be more useful in terms of linguistic accuracy, video peer feedback was perceived to be more beneficial for improving the intonation. On the other hand, pronunciation and fluency did not significantly improve, according to the findings. Also, the participants reported that they would prefer written feedback to the latter one as it was more efficient and clearer for them.

Overall, the pertinent literature mentioned in detail on the effects of video feedback indicated a facilitative role of video feedback on the students' L2 spoken performance. Yet, little is known about the effects of oral teacher feedback mediated by video technologies on the L2 oral fluency of EFL learners and the students' perceptions regarding such a feedback provision. To this end, this study at hand seeks to fill this research gap.

2.5 Fluency

The term *fluency* originates from the Latin word *fluens*, which means *flowing freely* (Online Etymology Dictionary, n.d.). Likewise, fluency is defined with the words which have the meaning of *fluidity* and *flow* in many other languages (Koponen & Riggensbach, 2000). The etymology of the term points out that human beings attribute being able to produce utterances fluidly and eloquently to fluency. This being the case, the question that needs to be asked, then, what makes a speech a fluent one which sounds like it flows? This question has appealed to the interests of many scholars, and fluency has been investigated from various scholarly points of view. As it has been investigated from a wide array of perspectives, a consensus on one clear definition of fluency has not been reached yet (Kormos, 2006).

The term fluency is defined in a broad and narrow sense (Lennon, 1990, 2000). Fluency is equated, in the broad sense, to a high global proficiency in a foreign and second language (Chambers, 1997; Kormos, 2006). In a similar vein, Harrell (2007) defines fluency as a representation of a high level of expertise in a given language. One of the earliest and most broad conceptualizations of fluency was provided by Fillmore (1979, as cited in Kormos, 2006), who interpreted fluency in four dimensions. His four interpretations of fluency are presented as follows: a) being able to talk at length with few pauses and fill time with talk, b) being able to express a message in a coherent, reasoned, and ‘semantically dense’ manner, c) being able to know what to say in a wide range of contexts, and d) being able to be creative and imaginative in language use. According to Fillmore (1979), one needs to have all four dimensions of fluency to be considered a fully fluent speaker.

As for the narrow conceptualization of fluency, it is conceptualized as the “flow, continuity, automaticity or smoothness of speech” (Koponen & Riggensbach, 2000 p. 6). Richards and Schmidt (2002) provide a similar definition, touching upon not only the speech production part, but also the perceptual dimension of fluency, and arguing that fluency is “the ability to produce continuous speech without causing comprehension difficulties or a breakdown of communication” (p. 169).

2.5.1 Measures of Oral Fluency

Fluency is generally said to be a multifaceted phenomenon, which is hard to measure (Kormos, 2006; Lennon, 1990; Segalowitz, 2010). As it is widely accepted as a robust indicator of and one of the benchmarks for L2 communicative competence (e.g., Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

[CEFR], 2001), it is of paramount importance to delineate the ways of measuring it reliably (Tavakoli et al., 2020). According to Kormos' (2006) comprehensive review, SLA researchers have investigated the measures of L2 oral fluency in four aspects: a) temporal features of spoken performance, (e.g., Lennon, 1990), b) combination of temporal aspects of speech production with interactive features such as turn-taking (e.g., Riggensbach, 1991), c) the phonological features of fluency (e.g., Wennerstrom, 2000), and d) the analysis of formulaic speech in L2 (e.g., Ejzenberg, 2000; Towell et al., 1996). The empirical studies investigating the measures of L2 oral fluency can be categorized into three methodological approaches:

- The development of fluency was explored in a longitudinal fashion.
- Fluent and non-fluent speakers were compared.
- The fluency scores in a speaking test or task were correlated with temporal measures of fluency (Kormos, 2006).

The most investigated temporal measures of fluency in those are illustrated in Table 2.6., along with their definitions provided by Kormos (2006).

Table 2.6. Temporal measures of fluency

Measure	Definition
Speech rate	The total number of syllables produced in a given speech sample divided by the amount of total time required to produce the sample (including pause time), expressed in seconds. This figure is then multiplied by sixty to give a figure expressed in syllables per minute. Riggensbach (1991) suggested that unfilled pauses under 3 seconds should not be included in the calculation of speech rate.
Articulation rate	The total number of syllables produced in a given speech sample divided by the amount of time taken to produce them in seconds, which is then multiplied by sixty. Unlike in the calculation of speech rate, pause time is excluded. Articulation rate is expressed as the mean number of syllables produced per minute over the total amount of time spent speaking when producing the speech sample.
Phonation-time ratio	The percentage of time spent speaking as a percentage proportion of the time taken to produce the speech sample (Towell et al., 1996).
Mean length of runs	An average number of syllables produced in utterances between pauses of 0.25 seconds and above.

The number of silent pauses per minute	The total number of pauses over 0.2 seconds divided by the total amount of time spent speaking expressed in seconds and is multiplied by 60.
The mean length of pauses	The total length of pauses above 0.2 seconds divided by the total number of pauses above 0.2 seconds.
The number of filled pauses per minute	The total number of filled pauses such as uhm, er, mm divided by the total amount of time expressed in seconds and multiplied by 60.
The number of disfluencies per minute	The total number of disfluencies such as repetitions, restarts and repairs are divided by the total amount of time expressed in seconds and multiplied by 60.
Pace	The number of stressed words per minute (Vanderplank, 1993).
Space	The proportion of stressed words to the total number of words (Vanderplank, 1993).

Speech rate and mean length of utterance were shown to be the best predictors of oral fluency (Kormos & Denes, 2004; Kormos, 2006), followed by phonation-time ratio, which was also proved to be a robust indicator of fluency (Lennon, 1990).

2.5.2 Perceived Fluency and Utterance Fluency

In essence, fluency is a perceptual phenomenon in which interlocutors judge the other speakers' performance. That is, interlocutors make decisions on the effectiveness of the linguistic processing system manifesting itself in spoken discourse to rate the fluency level of the other interlocutors (Lennon, 1990; Suzuki & Kormos, 2020). Although fluency rate is mostly based on listeners' judgments, it is not solely limited to listeners' perceptions. Temporal aspects of spoken performance can also predict fluency. Segalowitz (2010, 2016) conceptualized L2 oral fluency, which is based on listeners' judgments and the temporal measures of spoken discourse as *perceived fluency* and *utterance fluency*, respectively, along with *cognitive fluency* comprising a set of processing skills and linguistic knowledge repertoire (De Jong et al., 2013). Being a strong predictor of L2 proficiency (Baker-Smemoe et al., 2014; Fulcher, 2003; Tavakoli et al., 2020), understanding the nature of L2 oral fluency by associating the listeners' judgments with the temporal behavior of spoken performance might be of utmost importance for successful L2 communication (Suzuki & Kormos, 2020).

The first conceptualization of L2 fluency is perceived fluency. Perceived fluency is defined as listeners' deduction of cognitive fluency from utterance fluency features (Segalowitz, 2010). Hence, it can be inferred that perceived and cognitive fluency are closely related, consisting of an underlying repertoire of linguistic knowledge and psycholinguistic processing skills (De Jong et al., 2013). In other words, listeners make intuitive decisions on "how efficiently the speaker encodes their intended message by paying selective attention to utterance features that they believe reflect the speaker's efficiency of mobilizing L2 knowledge for speech production" (Suzuki et al., 2021, p. 436). In their seminal study on the linguistic dimensions of perceived fluency and comprehensibility within the scope of L2 argumentative speech, Suzuki and Kormos (2020) show that perceived fluency is mainly related to pausing and speed of the spoken performance. Although being closely linked to the breakdown and speed measurements, perceived fluency is also associated with repair measures such as self-correction, to a lesser extent (Saito et al., 2018).

Utterance fluency (i.e., observable temporal features of speech), on the other hand, generally refers to measurable and observable behavior of spoken performance such as pausing or use of hesitation markers, underlying the L2 speech production system (i.e., cognitive fluency) (Suzuki et al., 2021). Compared to the other two components, utterance fluency has appealed to the interests of the researchers much more because it can be measured with objective, comparable, and quantitative methods (Tavakoli et al., 2020). Utterance fluency consists of a triad of observable measure components: a) speed, b) breakdown, and c) repair fluency (Kahng, 2018; Kormos, 2006; Tavakoli & Skehan, 2005).

Speed fluency generally refers to how fast a speaker delivers a speech (Tavakoli et al., 2020) and how dense the information is conveyed (Suzuki et al., 2021). Breakdown fluency is concerned with pausing behavior regarding its length and frequency, including filled and unfilled pauses (Suzuki et al., 2021). The final component of utterance fluency – repair fluency – is associated with "how much repair is used to correct, reformulate, and restore L2 utterances" (Tavakoli et al., 2020, p. 170). Repair fluency is often considered to be the most controversial subcomponent of fluency (Tavakoli et al., 2020), and it is reported to be in a complex relationship with perceived fluency (Bosker et al., 2013) and supplementary relationship with breakdown fluency (Williams & Korko, 2019).

because repair attempts might be an indicator of self-monitoring (Huensch & Tracy–Ventura, 2017; Hunter, 2017; Kormos, 2006) by making amendments on their utterances.

2.5.3 The Relationship between Utterance and Perceived Fluency

Studies on L2 oral fluency extensively reported that perceived fluency, speed fluency, and breakdown fluency are strongly associated with each other, and to a lesser extent, with repair fluency (Saito et al., 2018; Suzuki & Kormos, 2020; Suzuki et al., 2021). Although some utterance fluency measures can predict the scores for perceived fluency, a huge amount of variability in the results was found across many correlational L2 oral fluency studies (Bosker et al., 2013; Saito et al., 2018; Suzuki et al., 2021). To shed comprehensive light on this variance, Suzuki et al. (2021) point out three aspects of the degree of variability in correlation studies scrutinizing the connection between the utterance and perceived fluency in their seminal meta-analysis of correlational studies on the link between the utterance and perceived fluency,

First, the findings of the previous studies revealed inconsistent findings about the correlation between fluency scores and utterance fluency measures (Suzuki et al., 2021). While several studies indicated a higher correlation between perceived fluency scores and measures of speed fluency measurements than measures of breakdown fluency (Bosker et al., 2013; Kormos & Dénes, 2004), some other studies argued vice versa (Cucchiari et al., 2002; Suzuki & Kormos, 2020).

Second, studies selected different types of disfluency indicators, and this resulted in contradictory findings in terms of the association between repair fluency and perceived fluency (Suzuki et al., 2021). To illustrate, some studies preferred to use specific disfluency indicators (e.g., self-corrections) and significantly correlated them to perceived fluency scores (e.g., Bosker et al., 2013), whereas others utilized a composite measure of disfluency (e.g., disfluency rate) and reported no significant correlation between the perceived fluency scores and repair fluency measurements (e.g., Cucchiari et al., 2002; Kormos & Dénes, 2004; Suzuki & Kormos, 2020).

Third, the distinction between composite measures (e.g., mean length of runs and speech rate) and pure measures (e.g., pace) should be made (Bosker et al., 2013; Skehan, 2015; Suzuki et al., 2021; Tavakoli et al., 2020) as both have their distinct predictive strengths and weaknesses (Tavakoli et al., 2021). For instance, whereas composite measures of fluency can be a strong indicator of perceived fluency as

they encompass numerous aspects of utterance fluency all at once (Derwing et al., 2009; Kormos & Dénes, 2004; Rossiter, 2009), pure measures of utterance fluency can depict a more fine-grained picture of the underlying speech production processes (Huensch & Tracy–Ventura, 2017; Tavakoli et al., 2020). This being the case, selecting the appropriate measures of utterance fluency goes hand in hand with the studies’ purpose in the first place (Tavakoli et al., 2020). The primary studies associating listeners’ judgments with objective measures of fluency are categorized by Saito et al. (2018) summarized in Table 2.7.

Table 2.7. Summary of major L2 fluency studies on the relationship between perceived and utterance fluency

	Sample Size	Participant Proficiency Levels	Significant Predictors
Kormos & Dénes (2004)	<i>N</i> = 16	Intermediate L2 English learners Beginner L2 English learners	Speed fluency (speech rate, phonation time ratio, the mean length of run)
Derwing et al. (2004)	<i>N</i> = 20	Intermediate L2 English learners	Breakdown fluency (no. of pauses)
Rossiter (2009)	<i>N</i> = 24	Intermediate L2 English learners	Speed fluency (speech rate) Breakdown fluency (no. of pauses)
Bosker et al. (2013)	<i>N</i> = 38	Intermediate L2 Dutch learners Native speakers	Speed fluency (speech rate) Breakdown fluency (no. of silent pauses)
Préfontaine et al. (2016)	<i>N</i> = 40	40 L2 French learners	Speed fluency (mean length of syllables) Repair fluency (no. of repetitions /self-corrections) Breakdown fluency (no. of pauses) Speed fluency (articulation rate)

Most recently, there have been several attempts to associate perceived fluency rates with temporal measures of utterance fluency besides the seminal studies displayed in the Table 2.7 above. To begin with, Suzuki and Kormos (2020) investigated the correlation between the perceived fluency rates of 40 Japanese EFL learners in their argumentative speech excerpts and the linguistic aspects of

comprehensibility (i.e., complexity, accuracy, fluency, pronunciation, and discourse characteristics). The speech excerpts of the participants were analyzed objectively regarding the aforementioned linguistic aspects and were judged by 10 inexperienced native speakers of English as for the perceived fluency rates. The findings revealed that there was a strong correlation between the measures of comprehensibility and perceived fluency rates, and fluency was rated significantly less by the native speaker raters. What is more, perceived fluency was found to be mostly related to one dimension of breakdown fluency measures (i.e., frequency of mid-clause pauses), while articulation rate (i.e., one aspect of speed fluency) was found to be the strongest predictor of comprehensibility according to multiple regression analyses of the study.

Adopting a different yet related perspective, Saito et al. (2018) uncovered the “acoustic correlates of perceived fluency at different proficiency levels, and the role of learner variables (experience, age) in the attainment of various levels of L2 fluency performance” (p. 2). The spontaneous speech excerpts of 90 Japanese EFL learners were judged by 10 native speakers of English and, the fluency performance of the participants was investigated within the scope of linguistics characteristics and differentiated levels of oral proficiency. The findings were manifold: a) low and mid-level fluency performance of the learners had differentiated rates in terms of the number of final-clause pauses, b) mid and high-level fluency performance of the learners had differentiated rates in terms of the number of mid-clause pauses, and c) high, and native-like fluency performance had differentiated scores regarding the articulation rate.

In their groundbreaking meta-analysis, Suzuki et al. (2021) provided a highly comprehensive review of the correlational studies, which investigated the correlation between utterance and perceived fluency by reporting the correlation coefficients between the perceived fluency rating scores given by the listeners and the objective measures of utterance fluency in the correlational studies. The findings showed that there was a strong correlation between the perceived fluency rates and speed and pause frequency, along with a moderate correlation with pause duration, and a weak correlation with repair fluency. Besides, the studies’ methodological preferences were found to be the factor affecting the relationship between the utterance and perceived fluency as well.

3. METHODS

This chapter in turn presents the overall methodology of the current study with nine subheadings, namely the overall design of the study, research setting, participants, role of the researcher, data collection tools, data collection procedure, data analysis, trustworthiness, and ethical considerations of the study.

3.1 Research Setting

The current study was carried out at the School of Foreign Languages of a public university in the spring term of 2020-2021 academic year. The school has been offering an Intensive English Program to the newly accepted students who opt to study at the program for a year or to those for whom the program is compulsory -namely English Language Teaching (ELT) and Political Science and Public Administration (PSPA) students- if they cannot pass the English proficiency exam. The academic year at the program consists of two terms (i.e., fall and spring) and does not offer any courses in summer terms. The minimum number of the terms that can be spared at the program is two for the ELT and PSPA students and one for the rest. As the university's medium of instruction is Turkish, except for these two departments' students, attending the program is on a voluntary basis. The students who study at the program on a voluntary basis can take the English proficiency exam after spending one term at the program and can continue with their departmental studies if they can qualify for (i.e., if they can get 65 and above in the exam) while this is not possible for the ones for whom the program is compulsory. English proficiency exam is administered at the beginning of every fall term for ELT AND PSPA departments' students and at the beginning of every fall and spring term for the rest for whom the program is on a voluntary basis. The students who are enrolled in the program are required to sit for a placement exam conducted at the beginning of the fall term and placed accordingly in a class either at pre-intermediate and below, or intermediate and above level. These levels are called A (i.e., pre-intermediate and below) and B (i.e., intermediate and above) classes. As of 2020-2021 academic year, there are thirteen regular and three evening classes in the program. Students get 24 hours of English education each week. Three partner teachers teach in the same class, offering three different courses (i.e., Listening & Speaking, Reading & Writing, Grammar) and one serves as the advisor

of the class. These three courses have different syllabi and coursebooks. The total number of classes of Listening and Speaking and Reading and Writing courses are ten per se whereas Grammar classes take four hours a week. At the beginning of every fall term, only a main integrated skills coursebook based on American spoken corpus is used for six weeks. After the first eight weeks of the fall semester including the freshmen orientation and the first midterm weeks, classes are specialized in three aforementioned areas. Throughout the year, the students are required to take four midterms, eight quizzes and a proficiency exam conducted at the end of the spring term. All these exams are prepared and administered by the Testing Unit. The assessment criteria spread throughout the whole academic year are as follows:

- 4 midterms = 20%
- 8 quizzes = 20%
- Homework and participation (e.g., online assignments, portfolios, and active participation) = 20%
- Final proficiency exam = 40%

To sit for the final proficiency exam, all students enrolled in the program, including the ELT and PSPA students, are required to attend 85% of the classes and have an average grade of 40 and above in total of midterms, quizzes, homework, and class participation. Upon meeting these two criteria, students can sit for the final proficiency exam and must get at least 50 out of 100 in it. The average of the whole grade of the students must be 65 or above to qualify for graduating from the program. Upon successful completion, students get a certificate of appreciation whereas the ones who cannot meet the requirements of graduation can get only a certificate of participation.

The curriculum of the Intensive English Program under study is based on National Qualifications Framework for Higher Education in Turkey and the exit-level descriptor level of the program has been delineated as B1+ for the students who choose to study at the program on a voluntary basis and C1 for ELT and PSPA students within the scope of Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). The curriculum of the program is developed by the Curriculum Development Unit. The coursebooks that are being used at the program are presented by the Materials Development Unit to the rest of the instructors and are

decided to use by consensus. All the coursebooks are skills based, except for the ones which are used for the Grammar course. The content of the portfolio assignments is determined by both the Materials Development and Instructional Technologies Units.

Speaking classes at the school are offered for ten hours a week by a Listening and Speaking course instructor. A specialized book for listening and speaking skills published by a reputable international company is used at three CEFR levels (i.e., A2 and B1 for pre-intermediate and below classes, and B1 and C2 for intermediate and above classes). The main objective of the course to equip students with oral communication, public speaking and presentation skills, and listening comprehension skills that are needed in academic settings. The syllabi of the speaking classes are illustrated in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1. The syllabi of speaking classes

Fall Term			Spring Term	
1st Week	- English Proficiency Exam - Placement Exam - Orientation		Unit 6: Business	
2nd Week	Unit 1: All About You Unit 2: In Class	Workbook Weekly Assignment	Unit 6: Business Unit 7: People	
3rd Week	Unit 3: Favorite people Unit 4: Everyday life	Workbook Portfolio I	Unit 7: People Unit 8: The Universe	5 th Quiz
4th Week	Unit 5: Free time Unit 6: Neighborhoods	Workbook Weekly Assignment 1 st Quiz	Unit 8: The Universe Unit 1: Animals	
5th Week	Unit 7: Out and about Unit 8: Shopping	Workbook Weekly Assignment	Unit 1: Animals Unit 2: The Environment	Reading Day Portfolio V
6th Week	Unit 9: A wide world Unit 10: Busy lives	Workbook Portfolio II	Unit 2: The Environment Unit 3: Transport	6 th Quiz
7th Week	Unit 11: Looking back Unit 12: Fabulous food	Workbook Weekly Assignment	Unit 3: Transport	Portfolio VI
8th Week	Midterm I		Midterm III	
9th Week	Unit 1: Places	Online Assignments	Unit 4: Customs and Traditions	
10th Week	Unit 1: Places Unit 2: Festivals and celebrations	Online Assignments Weekly Assignment	Unit 4: Customs and Traditions Unit 5: Health and Fitness	Portfolio VII
11th Week	Unit 2: Festivals and celebrations Unit 3: The internet and technology	Online Assignments Portfolio III	Unit 5: Health and Fitness Unit 6: Discovery and Invention	7 th quiz
12th Week	Unit 3: The internet and technology Unit 4: Weather and climate	Online Assignments Portfolio IV	Unit 6: Discovery and Invention	Reading Day

13th Week	Unit 4: Weather and climate Unit 5: Sports and competition	Online Assignments Weekly Assignments	Unit 7: Fashion	
14th Week	Unit 5: Sports and competition Unit 6: Business	Online Assignments Weekly Assignment	Unit 7: Fashion Unit 8: Economics	Portfolio VIII 8 th Quiz
15th Week	Unit 6: Business	Online Assignments Weekly Assignment	Unit 8: Economics	
16th Week		Midterm II		Midterm IV
17th Week				Final Proficiency Exam

The class under study is an A (i.e., the classes which are at pre-intermediate and below level) class. The content of the speaking-focused activities and speaking portfolios of the A classes is illustrated in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2. The content of speaking-focused activities and portfolios

Fall Term			Spring Term	
Week	Speaking-Focused Activities	Portfolio Content	Speaking-Focused Activities	Portfolio Content
1	• Orientation • Proficiency Exam • Placement Exam		• Using signposting language • Introducing examples • Expressing general beliefs	
2	• Using everyday expressions • Asking for help in class • Responding to “<i>thank you and I’m sorry</i>”		• Linking ideas with transition words and phrases • Talking about advantages and disadvantages • Giving counter-arguments	Giving a presentation about a remarkable person and his or her work
3	• Show interest by repeating information and asking questions • Using expressions to show interest and surprise • Saying more than yes or no while answering questions		• Giving recommendations • Expanding on an idea	
4	• Asking questions in a clear way and being not too direct while asking them • Using expressions to show things uncommon • Responding to agree or show that you are listening	Interviewing your friend about his/her daily habits.	• Being polite in a discussion • Using adverbs for emphasis • Using phrases with that	
5	• Asking follow-up questions to keep a conversation going • Reacting to good and bad news • Using expressions to take time to think		• Problem-solution organization • Presenting persuasively	Giving a two-minute presentation about the human threats to endangered species

	Showing feelings while listening to someone			
6	- Explaining words using <i>a kind of, kind of like</i> - Using <i>like</i> to give examples - Responding with expressions like <i>you poor thing, good luck, etc.</i>	Searching about a country and presenting it to your friends	- Previewing a topic - Organizing ideas - Explaining how something is used	
7	- Use <i>anyway</i> to change a topic or end a conversation - Use <i>or something</i> and <i>or anything</i> to make a general statement - End yes/no questions with <i>or...?</i>		- Asking for opinions and checking information - Asking follow-up questions	
8	- Signposting an opinion - Organizing information for a presentation		- Using gerunds as subjects to talk about actions - Paraphrasing - Presenting reasons and evidence to support an argument	<i>“What do you think is the most serious problem in the world or in your country these days?”</i> Suggest solutions to solve the problem.
9	- Making suggestions - Agreeing and disagreeing			
10	Giving additional and contrasting information			
11	Linking words to explain cause and effect	Describing a festival/special day from a foreign country/culture		Interviewing with a male and a female to learn about their attitudes towards fashion. Video record yourself and your interviewees.
12	- Emphasizing a point - Asking for and giving clarification			
13	Giving advice	Choosing a natural disaster and explain its causes and effects.		Presenting your ideas about how to fight against a serious health problem (smoking/obesity/internet addiction/drug addiction) among teenagers
14	- Time order - Examples and details			
15	- Turn-taking - Showing levels of agreement			

As illustrated above, all the speaking portfolios are based on prepared speech. Options are quite limited when it comes to impromptu L2 speech production in and out of the class. Out-of-the-class speaking practices are supported by various extra-curricular clubs run by the instructors (e.g., Netflix Club and Conversation Club) and the peer teaching activity through which ELT students interact with the rest of the students at the program.

3.2 Design of the Study

This study aimed at coming up with a solution to the problem regarding EFL distance learning, namely, online speaking classes, which was the main issue of an organizational debriefing session held with student representatives of each class, managerial board, and instructors right after the first term of the 2020-2021 academic year had finished at the organization. During the session, almost all student representatives – including the representative of my class– mentioned the same drawback of online classes – not having any chance to practice speaking English; therefore, feeling like less proficient in the skill compared to the rest of the skills–, which rooted the need of conducting this research in the first place. Problematizing this phenomenon, this study scrutinized the practice of speaking in an online EFL class as an out-of-the-class activity, identified the relevant problems of the participants regarding the practice, aimed at creating possible chances outside of the online classroom to speak English via videos and lastly, shed light on the impact of video-mediated feedback on the practicing speaking English outside of the class.

To this end, keeping in mind that the current study's rationale stemmed from a problem and striving to immediately come up with a solution to it, action research (Kemmis et al., 2014), was utilized in this study. Kemmis and McTaggart (1988) defines action research as follows:

a form of collective, self-reflective enquiry undertaken by participants in social situations in order to improve the rationality and justice of their own social or educational practices, as well as their understanding of these practices and the situations in which these practices are carried out. (p.6)

At the outset of Covid-19 pandemic, we, as the instructors of the school, were not that ready for such a crisis. As for the online teaching, we immediately went for the best options sufficing to save the day, which indeed catered for our organization's immediate needs regarding emergency remote teaching. However, as the time went by and we continued emergency remote teaching in the fall semester of 2020-2021 academic year, several problems started to emerge. In our own experience with ERT as the instructors, it seemed to us that speaking skill was underestimated in our online classes due to numerous reasons (e.g., technical problems, students' unwillingness to communicate in an online class, etc.). What is more, at the debriefing session, the problem became more and more clear to us, by

student representatives' mentioning the same problematic part of speaking skill in online classes, which echoed our teacher intuition in the first place, which laid the foundations of the current study.

After all this experience, as the Instructional Technologies Coordinator and a speaking instructor of the school, I wanted to take the initiative to work out this problem as soon as possible. As Stringer (2014) suggests, action research always stems from an aim that is immediately either applied or practical. Suffice to say, spotting the relevant problem as one of the stakeholders along with the other stakeholders, seeking to come up with a solution, and choosing to act on with the stakeholders naturalistically pointed out a need for conducting action research. Central to its pro-active dimension, action research aims at intentionally becoming involved in a problematic phenomenon, come up with solutions and improve the current practices (Burns, 2010). In this sense, it is safe to argue that I, with all my diffuse roles in the current study, discovered a problem regarding our online educational practices at the school with my colleagues and students, and aspired to work out the problem with my students for better chances to speak English in a fully environment, which was an initiating act for a *group with a shared concern*, a term coined by Kemmis and McTargatt (1988, as cited in Stringer, 2014), collaboratively seeking solutions to its concern or problem.

Burns (1999), another prominent scholar in action research field, provides the definition below for action research:

a self-reflective, systematic, and critical approach to enquiry by participants who are at the same time members of the research community. The aim is to identify problematic situations or issues considered by the participants to be worthy of investigation in order to bring about critically informed changes in practice. Action research is underpinned by democratic principles in that ownership of change is invested in those who conduct the research (p. 5).

The definition provided above sheds particularly important light on the rationale of adopting an action-based inquiry for this study. Informed by my administrative experience at the school, I have always observed that a change that needs to be triggered at the school-level always starts with an idea that has been put forward by a colleague or a student representative. If the decision is made for an organizational change aligning with top-down chain of commands, the ownership of the change does not remain very long and we give up the practice sooner or later,

as far as I have observed up till now. In the light of my almost decade-long teaching and administrating experience, it became self-evident to me if I happened to conduct a study, I would do it to solve a problem with its stakeholders, democratically allocate the responsibilities, trigger agency of the students to take the initiative to solve a problem that is closely relevant to their learning, and in this way, help them internalize our proposed solution to our very own problem.

As it was previously stated, the problem regarding online speaking classes was organization-wide. Then, why did I choose to solve the problem in my own class rather than coming up with an organization-wide solution? Here, it might be a good idea to remind the readers with the fundamentals of research methods. In the first chapter of their book, Fraenkel and Wallen (2009) lay emphasis on the feasibility of a research study, stating a scientific research study is limited to the sources and time of the researcher. As this study was carried out during a pandemic, reaching out to large samples was not that easy; nevertheless, I, as the teacher-researcher, wished to conduct this study school-wide in the first place simply because it was our problem, not solely mine or my students. However, as I did not have enough time to provide video feedback to 363 students of sixteen classes at the school, and although requested, no voluntary speaking instructors attempted to give video feedback to their students, I opted out this option and went for classroom action research (Kemmis et al., 2014) via which we dug deeper into this proactive endeavor together with my students. Kemmis et al. (2014) elaborate on classroom action research as follows:

The emphasis is ‘practical’, that is, on the interpretations teachers and students are making and acting on in the situation. That is, classroom action research is practical not just idealistically, in a utopian way, or just about how interpretations might be different ‘in theory’, but practical in Aristotle’s sense of practical reasoning about how to act rightly and properly in a situation with which one is confronted (p. 11).

As pointed out in the quote, I also had very practical reasons to conduct this classroom action research. Emergency remote teaching being what it is, when the problems have started to emerge especially relevant to my context as a speaking instructor regarding ERT, conducting such classroom action research has provided me and my students with a practical solution during these hard times.

Action research is an iterative compilation of various processes. Stringer (2014) mentions the routinized nature of action research, encompassing an iterative routine of “look-think-act” (p. 4.). Stringer (2014) uses the metaphor of “helix” (p. 4) to depict the routine.

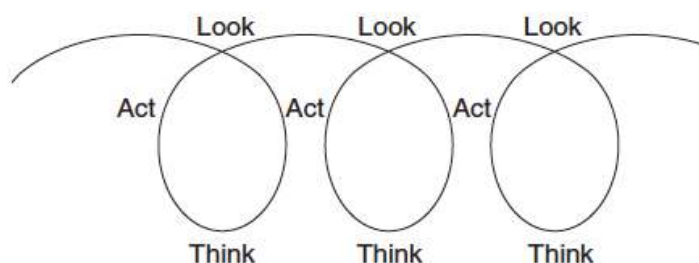


Figure 3.1. Action research helix

Although this helix depicts the routinized and iterative nature of action research well, there are some problems in the life that may entail more sophisticated research design (Stringer, 2014). As our classroom-based problem required more rigorous scrutinization due to the complex nature of speaking in a foreign language, I adopted a more sophisticated action research design, which best served to our needs. Five cyclical processes were taken into consideration, which were suggested by Stringer (2014) as follows:

- Design the study, carefully refining the issue to be investigated, planning systematic processes of inquiry, and checking the ethics and validity of the work
- Gather data, including information from a variety of sources
- Analyze the data to identify key features of the issue investigated
- Communicate the outcomes of the study to relevant audiences
- Use the outcomes of the study to work toward resolution of the issue investigated (p. 4-5).

In the light of these five processes, I first spotted the problem to be investigated in this thesis project. Then, I designed the methodology and outlined the timeline of the study, getting expert opinion during designing each step of the study so that credibility is ensured. After that, I collected data, using multiple sources (e.g., students’ first and second video assignments, demographic background questionnaire, the same IELTS speaking module as the pre- and delayed post-tests, and semi-structured focus group interviews). Later, the data were analyzed, and the

results were shared with the participants in a relatable manner. Lastly, in the light of the findings of this research, the benefits, and challenges of utilizing video feedback to foster oral fluency in L2 were communicated to the other stakeholders of the school, and how it could be integrated to the curriculum of the program was negotiated together.

3.3 Participants

This thesis study was conducted with 11 EFL students who were enrolled in the compulsory Intensive English Program offered by the School of Foreign Languages under study. This study employed convenience sampling strategy to choose the participants. Convenience sampling is one of the most practical strategies in research methodologies, utilizing the most available participants to the researcher (Dörnyei, 2007). Although convenience sampling might be time- and budget-efficient for researchers, the plausibility of the findings of a study that utilized convenience sampling might be subject to second thoughts (Miles & Huberman, 1994). There might be various reasons for researchers to employ convenience sampling rather than the rest. As Dörnyei (2007) explains, most of the studies are conducted under several financial and time constraints, which resulting in the tendency to choose the most available sample. Admittedly, as this study was conducted during a pandemic, my options were quite limited. Although I wanted to conduct a school-wide action research regarding my research problem in the first place, most of the potential participants were not available and willing to participate. One of the biggest assets of convenience sampling is that chosen participants are willing to participate in the study and in this way, they provide richer data (Dörnyei, 2007). After my open call for a need for such action research to figure out our problem, all my students showed willingness, wanted to take part in the study and become an active member of the process. As one the basic tenets of action research is to actively involve all the stakeholders in the study undertaken (Burns, 2009), it can be argued that convenience sampling spoke to the needs of the current action research.

The major of all participants was Political Science and Public Administration, and the participants were enrolled in the same class. The total number of the students in the class was 15. Although all students agreed to participate in the study after having been being informed about the purpose and the scope of it, two of them never turned the assignments in, and the other two partially

completed the assignments and dropped out during the study. Hence, a total of 11 students fulfilled the requirements of this research and became the participants of it. All participants are native speakers of Turkish and they have been learning English as a Foreign Language for 2-12 years. The students are aged between 18 and 23. Out of 11 students, 7 are females and 4 are males. They graduated from diverse high schools and reported that they had neither received video feedback nor video-recorded themselves speaking English before, except for only one participant who shot a video for an English course at the high school. Lastly, the students had never taken either a mock or real IELTS speaking exam before. Regarding confidentiality and ethical issues, a pseudonym was given to each participant. Even though I am both the teacher and researcher of the class and I know every student very closely, I decided to ask the students fill in a demographic background questionnaire to keep track and not to skip any demographic information that is crucial to the study. The demographic information about the students is displayed in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3. The demographic information of the EFL students

Name	Gender	Age	Type of High School	The Starting Age for Learning English	Video Feedback Experience	International English Exam Experience	Video Shooting while Speaking Experience
Kumsal	Female	20	Anatolian High School	9	No	No	No
Ada	Female	18	Anatolian High School	9	No	No	No
Deniz	Male	19	Vocational and Technical High School	11	No	No	No
Yağmur	Female	20	Private High School	8	No	No	Yes
Bulut	Male	19	Vocational and Technical High School	12	No	No	No
Doğa	Female	20	Basic High School	13	No	No	No
Nehir	Female	19	Religious Vocational High School	15	No	No	No
Tan	Male	21	Vocational and Technical High School	18	No	No	No

Güneş	Female	21	Basic High school	13	No	No	No
Çınar	Male	20	Vocational and Technical High School	20	No	No	No
Çiçek	Female	23	Religious vocational high school	21	No	No	No

3.4 Data Collection Tools

In this thesis study, both qualitative and quantitative data were collected to gain deeper insight into the phenomenon investigated. As for the data collection instruments, a demographic background questionnaire, the same speaking module of a public IELTS exam as the pre- and delayed post-test, four video assignments of each participant (i.e., the second drafts of each video assignment) and two semi-structured focus group interviews were utilized in the study. By using multiple data collection instruments, triangulation was ensured (Creswell, 2014). Figure 3.2. shows the data collection instruments of this study in a chronological manner.

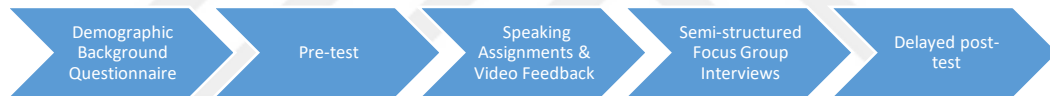


Figure 3.2. Data collection tools

3.4.1 Demographic Background Questionnaire

Although the teacher-researcher is quite familiar with the background of the student-participants, to thoroughly keep track of their demographic information and not to miss anything that is crucial to study, a demographic background questionnaire was designed by the researcher and utilized at the beginning of this study. The questionnaire consisted of seventeen questions about the name, email address, phone number, age, academic background, gender, the age they started to learn English, prior being abroad, intensive English program, and taking an international English exam experience, a priori experience of shooting video assignments while speaking English and receiving video feedback of the participants. Follow-up questions were added to yes/no questions to get richer information. The questionnaire was prepared via Google Forms and distributed through the class group on WhatsApp (See Appendix 4).

3.4.2 Pre-test and Delayed Post-test

With the aim of assessing the oral performance of the participants in L2, particularly fluency, a public version of IELTS speaking exam module was utilized and conducted as the pre-test before receiving the first video feedback and as the delayed post-test four weeks after the last video feedback. Upon getting the approval of Human Subjects Ethics Committee of Abant Izzet Baysal University, the same exam was used as the pre- and delayed post-test. The speaking exam consisted of three different sections. In the first part of the exam, participants were posed questions on more general topics; and in the second part, they were asked to accomplish the prompts of the task provided in the written task card. Lastly, the participants were required to elaborate on more abstract concepts which were related to the task in the second part. Both tests were conducted by the researcher herself on the Google Meet platform, and video-recorded after receiving the oral consent of each participant in order to be securely stored and then analyzed by the researcher as the first rater and a second rater working as an EFL instructor at the same school. The content validity of the test was ensured by getting a panel of experts' judgments and evaluations of the test. As the IELTS speaking module, by its nature, allows the test-takers to give answers in both monologic and dyadic ways, it was a plausible means for measuring perceived fluency and that's why it was chosen as the pre- and post-test. Although 11 students participated in this study, 8 of them took both tests.

3.4.3 Video Assignments

In this thesis project, four speaking tasks (see Appendix 7, 8, 9, 10) were assigned to the participants in consecutive four weeks. The topic of each task was determined by the researcher and all the tasks were based on the participants' monologue type of discourse as L2 monologic oral narratives are argued to be plausible means for measuring the fluency rates of the participants in a quantifiable and objective manner (Kormos & Denés, 2004). In video assignments, the students were expected to answer a question about their personal experiences in three minutes. While answering each week's question, participants were required to video-record themselves speaking English via their smartphones and send their video recordings to the teacher-researcher via WhatsApp direct messages. The reason why WhatsApp is used as the main learning management system is that the teacher-researcher knew that not all the students enrolled in her class had a

computer, and a stable Internet connection, but everyone in the class had a smartphone with a camera and had already been using WhatsApp for recreational and educational purposes. Having the policy of no student left behind, I opted computers out of this study for this reason. The reason why students were required to send their videos via direct messages finds its roots in my personal observation as the teacher of the class. Before video assignments, I used to assign some audio-recorded presentation assignments with the student-participants of this study, and while doing that, I realized a considerable number of the students were not willing to share their audio recordings on the class group of WhatsApp. This being the case, I decided to ask for video recordings individually. Although I had second thoughts about the security and privacy of the video data on WhatsApp, I decided that it would speak to our class' needs as it is ubiquitous and totally free. Besides, compared to other LMS platforms, WhatsApp had an obvious advantage of user familiarity as all the participants had long been using it. All in all, WhatsApp's advantages outweighed the disadvantages; hence, I decided to utilize it throughout the study.

3.4.4 Video Feedback

After getting each week's assignment, video feedback was provided with the participants in two or three days following the submission. All video feedback were produced on a platform called Loom. The duration of the feedback provided ranged from one to three and half minute at maximum. After shooting, the videos were turned into links so that they could be easily shared with the students via WhatsApp. The videos could be only viewed by the researcher and the participant to whom the link of the video was sent. As Cognitive Load Theory postulates, when a piece of information is conveyed via two different channels such as a video including subtitles, it results in too much load in human cognition to process (Mayer & Moreno, 2003). In the light of this theory, captions were removed from the videos. The content of the feedback included both implicit and explicit type of error correction regarding pronunciation, articulation of the segmentals and suprasegmentals and word choice. In order to increase the fluency rates in the spoken performance of the participants, I also provided the learners with useful formulaic expressions and gap-filling strategies.

3.4.5 Loom

As for providing video feedback, a video messaging platform, namely Loom, was utilized in this study. Since its foundation in 2015 as a workplace video messaging platform, Loom has attracted 12 million users and 200.000 companies, delineating its mission as follows: “Our vision is to empower effective communication, wherever work happens” (<https://www.loom.com/about-us>).

Although it is used by diverse enterprises all around the world, Loom serves to the educational purposes as well. Loom for Education is widely used by teachers, universities, and/or educational institutions using video messaging for classroom work. If signed in with a school email account, educational practitioners can have access to premium features such as unlimited videos up to 45-minute video recording length, up to 1 content creator with unlimited viewers, a personal, shared, and/or team library. As for the recording features of Loom for Education, HD video shooting as screen and cam recording, drawing tool and mouse emphasis, emoji reactions to the videos, password-protected videos, calls-to-action, and so on are available (<https://www.loom.com/education>).

I am the main user of Loom as the video feedback provider, and I would like to briefly mention my experience with the platform. First, I think it is safe to argue that the platform is the perfect fit for emergency remote EFL speaking teaching practice simply because it provides the EFL learners with an extended, out-of-the-class opportunity to record themselves using a camera while speaking English wherever and whenever they want as the platform has both totally free desktop and mobile apps, along with its Google Chrome extension, and to immediately receive feedback from their instructor. Given its ubiquitous and totally free nature, the technical problems regarding online speaking classes can be wiped away and a learner can speak English and get feedback on her/his spoken performance, which basically makes everywhere a speaking class for a learner. In this way, speaking practice, which is generally confined to a physical class in limited schedules, can be done anytime and anywhere.

To me, another crucial asset of Loom is that whenever a user happens to share a video on the platform, it generates links, and the links can be easily shared and embedded in numerous online platforms. This is a life-saving practice, as one can simply imagine, storing, uploading, and downloading videos can be a daunting task for users. Another important aspect of Loom is that I was notified of how many times and when my feedback videos had been watched, which provided me an

insider insight into the relationship between practicing and spoken performance as I simply assumed that the more the feedback videos had been watched, the more speaking practice might have been done. As my students did not have a Loom account, the views were anonymously shown up; however, as the feedback videos were named after their recipients' names, that did not cause any problems for the identification of the viewer.

Regarding my data security and privacy, the platform generates video links and only the person I sent the link was able to see it as I did not enable the option that my videos could be searched via online search engines. What is more, at the very beginning of this study, I have provided a tutorial session on cyber ethics to the participants and highlighted that my feedback videos are only for my students and educational purposes, and I do not consent that they share my videos with third parties. If not consented by the content creator, I highlighted the fact sharing the content with third parties would not be ethical and would be illegal. Although I could have secured my videos by password protection; it did not feel like it fitted in my teaching philosophy and research agenda. My initial aspirations in the first place to provide my students with any and every chance to speak and practice English, using a totally free, accessible to everyone who does not have a computer and/or other kinds of sophisticated technical equipment, open, ubiquitous, and asynchronous - especially for the students who are having hard times with a secure and sound Internet connection - platform, easing this hard time of pandemic at least a little bit for them. Hence, my feedback videos are not under password protection as I aspire my students to view them anywhere and anytime.

When it comes to the drawbacks of the Loom, the first issue that needs to be mentioned is that although the version of Loom for Education is allegedly free, it is not. The video recording length is up to 45 minutes in this package, which was not enough for the scope of this study. Hence, after conducting comprehensive SWOT analyses on various screencast tools, apps and websites and reflecting upon my extensive, a priori experience with various screencast tools, I decided that I would go for Loom Business Plan with its unlimited video recording length, to which I had to pay every month; nevertheless, it better served my purposes than any other during the process. The good news is that my students, as the viewers of the content, did not have to pay for anything meanwhile.

3.4.6 Semi-structured Focus Group Interviews

With the aim of eliciting the perceptions of the participants' regarding video feedback on their video-recorded spoken performance, two semi-structured focus group interviews were conducted. According to Stringer (2014), interviews are indispensable parts of action research, which can provide researchers with participants' insights into the phenomenon explored, representing their interpretation of the reality. Krueger and Casey (2000) postulate that interviews can be conducted with not only with individuals, but also with focus groups of six to eight people. The advantages of utilizing focus group interviews can be listed as: a) "taking the individual spotlight off one speaker who may get nervous or anxious about being interviewed" and b) "allowing ideas and thoughts to be triggered by what others in the group say" (Burns, 2010, p.77). Thus, focus groups instead of individual interviews were decided to be utilized in this study. All the participants volunteered to participate in the interview. The interviews were held in the native language of participants, namely Turkish, enabling them to express their opinions freely. Upon allocating equal number of the participants into each focus group, this study benefited from two focus groups.

The questions of the semi-structured interviews were adapted from Yiğit (2020) within the scope of the current study. After getting expert opinion on the questions to ensure face and content validity, necessary adjustments for wording were made. The interviews were held online via Google Meet platform due to the conditions of the pandemic. Six days before the interview day, all the participants were informed about the scope of the interview and asked whether they were willing to participate in it or not. All the 11 participants volunteered to participate in the interviews. The participants were assigned to their focus groups based on their schedule's availability. Both interviews were conducted on the same day at different hours. The first interview lasted one and a half hour while the other took one hour and twenty-three minutes. On the interview day, students were asked to click on the Google Meet link generated and shared by the researcher. Before video and audio recording of the interview, the consent of the participants was orally received one by one. After that, the recording and the interviewing process began. It should be noted that each question of the interview was started with a different participant to hear different voices, and getting an answer for each question, everybody was asked if they wanted to build more on what their peer had just stated. The researcher was just like facilitator and expressed her openness at the very

beginning of the interview for all kinds of comments regarding the video feedback including the negative ones. After the interviews, the recordings were stored in the personal computer and cloud of the researcher, which was under password protection. What is more, the recordings were uploaded to the personal cloud of the advisor of this thesis for him to review the data. No third parties were allowed to view the recordings.

3.4.7 Rating Scale

With the aim of assessing the spoken performance of the participants in the pre- and delayed post-tests, a public IELTS speaking scale which was adapted by Göktürk (2016) was utilized. Göktürk (2016) divided the criterion of Fluency and Coherence in the IELTS scale into two separate criteria as fluency and content development as her study was to investigate fluency in EFL speaking. What is more, she added short descriptors to every level of the scale to ensure interrater reliability at maximum, basing the descriptors on the Task Fulfillment criterion in the writing scale of IELTS (See Appendix 6). As the current study aspired to investigate the effectiveness of video feedback on L2 oral fluency, this rating scale was the best option for utilizing in the pre- and delayed post-tests.

3.5 Data Collection Procedure

This section seeks to cover how and when the data were gathered through multiple data collection instruments. As the rationale of this study has its roots in a classroom problem pointed out by the student-participants regarding online speaking classes, I set out to figure this problem out with this action research study together with my student-participants by using multiple data collection instruments in a specific order. Figure 3.3. depicts the data collection procedure.

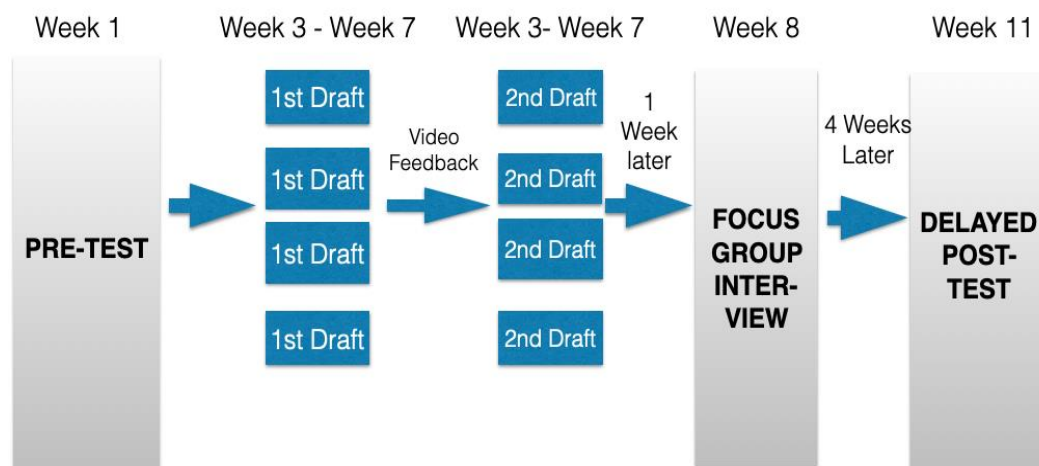


Figure 3.3. Data collection procedure

First, upon receiving the approval of the Human Subjects Ethics Committee of Abant Izzet Baysal University, the permission of the chair of the school at which this study was conducted was requested and granted. Later, the student-participants were informed about the aim and scope of the study, data collection tools, what they were required to do during the study, and confidentiality procedures by a video shot by me and an online informed consent form and asked for their consent. Back then, there were 15 students enrolled in the class and all of them wanted to participate in the study. Right after receiving their consent, the initial phase of the project began.

In the initial phases, four speaking tasks based on monologues were designed by the researcher and sent to four expert judges in the field for content and face validity checking. One of the experts is an associate professor of Second Language Studies whose scholarly work intersects oral fluency in L2 with teacher feedback. The other one is a full professor of English Language Teaching at a reputable university in Turkey. Furthermore, the chair of the school where this study was conducted, whose research interests mainly focus on oral fluency in L2, and a doctoral student at the Department of Applied Linguistics and Technology at Iowa State University who has been working on the measurement of speaking at online platforms were also consulted. The procedure of getting expert opinion was also applied to the rating scale to be used, the adapted version of a public IELTS speaking exam module as the pre- and delayed post-test, and the semi-structured focus group interview questions. While designing and deciding on all the data collection tools, the advisor of this thesis project carefully reviewed all of instruments and provided his expert opinion as well.

After carefully revising the data collection instruments and making the necessary adjustments pointed out by the experts, a rater to evaluate the students' performance on pre- and delayed post-tests was determined. The rater was a colleague of the researcher who has been working at the same school and offering only Listening and Speaking courses at various levels at the Intensive English Program. The rater had over fourteen years of experience of teaching mainly speaking and other skills at EFL contexts, prior experience with the rating of IELTS speaking module, and assessing EFL speaking skill. After receiving the consent of his on the rating, the rater was trained with a video tutorial on how to use the adapted version of the IELTS speaking module rating scale. Besides, the researcher (i.e., the first rater) and the second rater together watched two videos of two samples and assigned scores to the performance of the samples in the mini piloting process and exchanged ideas on their rating procedures.

Prior to the actual study, a video homework asking students to come up with a monologue of five minutes or so was assigned and video feedback given by the researcher to the three of the participants of this project. After carefully reviewing their comments on the topic of the assignment, their user experience with video recording and uploading it to an instant messaging tool (i.e., WhatsApp), and their process of getting video feedback, the length of the video assignments were reduced to three minutes at maximum, which had been planned to be five minutes at the very beginning of this study, and Loom and WhatsApp were decided to be the platforms as they are totally free, easily accessible to everyone in this study, and were found to be user-friendly by the participants of the mini piloting process.

Having been decided on the main platforms where this study was going to be conducted and the topic of video assignments, a video to inform the students about the scope and aim of the study, confidentiality procedures, and their participant rights was shot and shared on the class' WhatsApp group to make sure every procedure of the study was clear for the participants. After that, an online informed consent form was distributed via the WhatsApp group. There were 15 students enrolled in the classroom and all of them consented to participate in the study.

During the first week of the study, upon getting the participants' consent, an online demographic background questionnaire designed by the researcher was distributed. After the questionnaire, a public version of an IELTS exam speaking

module as the pre-test was given by the researcher and another teacher from the same organization online on a platform called Google Meet. While using Google Meet, the researcher used her institution's account to record and store the exam session in the school's cloud. The students were asked to come to the online speaking exam session one by one in the alphabetical order of their classroom attendance list. The whole speaking exam was recorded, and the participants orally consented to be recorded. The three steps of IELTS speaking exam (introduction, individual long run, and two-way discussion) were followed. After the exam finished, the recording was uploaded to the researcher's cloud and the exam was rated by the researcher herself and the second rater with prior experience with IELTS speaking exam.

Following this, four video assignments via which participants were asked to create three-minute monologues on various topics based on their personal lived experiences (see Appendix 7, 8, 9, 10) were assigned within four consecutive weeks. After receiving each video assignment, video feedback was immediately provided by the researcher to the participants. The timeliness of the feedback matters (Poulos & Mahony, 2008), that's why all the feedback was provided within two or three days upon receiving, which satisfies the criteria of feedback timeliness as feedback should be given within two weeks' time upon the submission of homework (Bohnacker-Bruce, 2013; Mulliner & Tucker, 2017). Upon getting video feedback, the students were required to submit the second draft of their video homework in three or four days following the first drafts which had to be revised in the light of the video feedback.

One week later of the last video assignment and video feedback, two semi-structured focus group interviews were conducted. With the help of the interviews, the participants' views regarding the whole process of preparing video assignments and getting video feedback on them, and their user experience with the online tools used in this study were elaborated. Four weeks later of the last video feedback treatment, the same IELTS speaking module was utilized as the delayed post-test and the spoken performance of the students were rated by the same rater in the pre-test and the researcher herself. This exam was also online, recorded upon the consent of the participants and stored in the school's cloud.

3.6 Data Analysis

In this study, both quantitative and qualitative data were utilized with an explanatory sequential mixed methods design (Creswell, 2014). As such, quantitative data were collected first, and then qualitative data were obtained. The data analysis followed this order as well. The quantitative part of the data consisted of participants' scores on the pre- and delayed post-tests, and the temporal features (i.e., speech rate and mean length of utterances) of the spoken discourse of the participants before and after getting video feedback. As for the qualitative data, two semi-structured focus group interviews were utilized to create a more flexible atmosphere compared to the structured ones (Edwards & Holland, 2013), aiming at providing the participants with a setting where they can freely share their perceptions.

When it comes to data analysis, inter-rater reliability between two untrained raters who rated the participants' spoken performance in the IELTS speaking module that was used the pre- and delayed post-test was calculated using a Pearson correlation coefficient. After ensuring inter-rater reliability, paired samples t-tests for comparing the pre- and delayed post-test speaking scores given by two untrained raters using the analytic scale were utilized. As for the analyses of the temporal measures of L2 oral fluency in the spoken discourse of the participants within the scope of each second draft of speaking assignments, the data were descriptively analyzed, and the normal distribution of the quantitative data was checked by running the Shapiro-Wilk normality test. Also, the sphericity assumption was also checked by using the Mauchly's W sphericity test. Subsequently, one-way repeated-measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) test was implemented to determine whether there were any differences in the measurements of L2 oral fluency throughout the weeks. Lastly, a post hoc test using the Bonferroni correction was executed to determine whether there was a significant mean difference between each pair of weeks regarding the speech rate measurements. All the statistical analyses were conducted through a statistical software package entitled IBM SPSS 28.0.0.0.

As for the qualitative data analysis, the data gleaned from two semi-structured focus group interviews were transcribed verbatim and analyzed via MAXQDA 2020. The steps that Creswell (2013) put forward were followed during qualitative data analysis. The steps are as follows:

- Step 1: organizing the data,
- Step 2: reading and memoing,
- Step 3: describing, classifying, and interpreting the data into codes and themes,
- Step 4: interpreting the data,
- Step 5: representing and visualizing the data (p. 182-188).

Descriptive coding as a first cycle method (Saldana, 2009) was utilized while analyzing the qualitative data. In this regard, initial codes were found and then clustered with other codes to form categories. Subsequently, the categories were re-organized to come up with themes. The steps of constant comparative method (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994) were taken for the whole qualitative data analysis process, which are as follows:

- “Inductive category coding and simultaneous comparing of units of meaning across categories
- Refinement of categories
- Exploration relationships and patterns across the categories
- Integration of data, yielding an understanding of people and settings being studied” (p.135).

The same steps were taken by another experienced doctoral researcher specialized in the field of English Language Teaching and this researcher also coded approximately %15 of semi-structured focus group interview transcripts to check “*intercoder agreement* – the percentage at which different coders agree and remain consistent with their assignment of particular codes to particular data – is an important part of the process” (Saldana, 2009, p. 27). The codes of both researchers were compared to determine inter-coder reliability, and the codes were found to be 94% consistent with one another, which seems to surpass the range of minimal benchmark for inter-coder agreement (i.e., 85–90%) that was offered by Saldana (2009). Lastly, one of the participant-students of the present study was also consulted, which is called *member checking* (Saldana, 2009), to validate the findings of the study at hand.

3.7 Trustworthiness of the Study

In any kind of scientific inquiry, utmost importance should be attached to the methodological validity and reliability within the scope of the nature of the

study that is being undertaken (Dörnyei, 2007). This being the case, one can simply notice the ways of validation and ensuring reliability differ across various research methodologies and paradigms. To illustrate, Guba and Lincoln (1982), in their seminal study in which they coined the term the *naturalistic inquiry*, creating a solid methodological and epistemological base for the qualitative paradigm, firmly assert that naturalistic inquiry axiomatically differs from *disciplined inquiry* – a term coined by Cronbach and Suppes (1969) –, resulting in varied preferred methods, instruments, and so on (Guba & Lincoln, 1982). What is more, Lincoln and Guba (1985) differentiate the credibility and plausibility of a study among these inquiries and delineate the trustworthiness of naturalistic inquiry and put forward the following criteria encompassing the trustworthiness of it: credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. As one can simply notice at this point, validity and reliability of disciplined inquiry have been replaced with the term trustworthiness in the naturalistic one. Action research can be considered to belong to mostly qualitative paradigm (Stringer, 2014) although it utilizes both quantitative and qualitative methodologies, including the mixed one (Craig, 2009), the term trustworthiness seems to be a better fit in explicating the credibility and legitimacy of an action research. In this sense, I strived to utilize the strategies ensuring trustworthiness as many as possible throughout the study.

Stringer (2014) defines credibility as the “plausibility and integrity of a study” (p. 52). Several procedures were put forward by Lincoln and Guba (1985) to ensure the credibility of a study: a) prolonged engagement, b) persistent observation, c) triangulation, d) participant debriefing e) diverse case analysis, e) referential adequacy and f) member checks.

Short visits to the research site and not having enough time with the participants might not suffice to refine grounded interpretations of the context (Stringer, 2014). Prolonged engagement needs to be ensured by investing enough time at the research setting with the participants so that the understanding of the research site and participants is enriched, and a relationship of trust can be built with the researcher and the participants, enabling the research to position herself/himself as the insider (Stringer, 2014). Before, during and after this study, I spent ten hours for thirty-three weeks with the participants until the academic year finished, created a WhatsApp group so that we could interact outside of the classroom, made myself available on the platform whenever a question popped up

regarding video assignments and anything related to our courses, and always tried my best to develop close rapport with the students. What is more, in my almost decade-long teaching experience at the same organization, I have always offered speaking classes and I am the instructional technologies coordinator of the school as well. This experience provided me with a first-hand insight into the practice of speaking in fully online settings, its pedagogical affordances, and challenges. In this sense, I consider myself an insider who have spent enough time with the participants at the research site, which helped me fully grasp the phenomenon explored in the study.

As for the second strategy that I used for more plausible and credible findings, I made sure to triangulate (Creswell, 2014) the data collection instruments by using multiple tools (i.e., pre-test, delayed post-test, the second drafts of all video homework, and semi-structured focus group interviews).

When it comes to the transferability criteria, describing the research context and the participants in a thick and rich manner might help other researchers determine the extent to which the findings of a qualitative study can correspond to their context (Stringer, 2014). Keeping this in mind, I provided readers with highly detailed descriptions of the university, school and class where this study was undertaken, and depicted the participants' characteristics and my positionality in this study. In this way, readers can make up their minds on the transferability of this study on their own.

In a qualitative study, what participants think about the research procedures and to which extent they find the study relevant to their contexts matters, which is generally referred as dependability (Stringer, 2014). As one can imagine, dependability is of utmost importance in action research as participants are also the stakeholders of the whole research procedure. With this in my mind, I shot a video refining all the details regarding the research problem, data collection instruments, and procedure in a relatable way and shared it with my students and partner teachers of our class and elicited their questions and comments before I undertook this study. Making every step and part of the study openly available to an inquiry audit (Stringer, 2014, p. 54), dependability criterion of the trustworthiness of the study is aimed to be met.

Lastly, with respect to the confirmability, Guba (1981) proposes triangulation, practicing reflexivity and a confirmability audit to ensure that

objectivity is placed on the data, not on the inquirer. In this study, the same triangulation processes were applied here. As for the practicing reflexivity, defined by Guba (1981) as follows:

Practicing reflexivity, that is, attempting to uncover one's underlying epistemological assumptions, reasons for formulating the study in a particular way, and implicit assumptions, biases, or prejudices about the context or problem (p. 248).

Guba (1981) suggests researchers keep a reflexive journal in the field to practice reflexivity. With the aim of ensuring reflexivity of myself as the researcher, I kept a reflexive researcher's journal throughout the study, frequently questioning my own position and practices, and the things I went through as well during the study.

3.8 Ethical Considerations

Ethics is a highly important, maybe the most important issue in a scientific inquiry. To ensure a morally right study, I sent a detailed overview of the current study with its all steps and procedures to Human Subjects Ethics Committee of Abant Izzet Baysal University. Upon getting the committee's approval, it was only after when I undertook the study. Prior to any treatment, I informed all the participants with a tutorial video regarding the scope of what I planned, why we should do this, the participants' role in the study, what was expected from them, what would be the possible outcomes of participating in this study, and the fact that participation was based on voluntary basis. What is more, they were informed about the fact that the whole process of submitting video assignments and getting video feedback would be awarded with extra ten points regarding participation in my class, and if dropped out or not volunteered, nothing would change for the participants in terms of course grading. The reason why I decided to shoot a video and introduce the scope and details of the study through it before distributing an informed consent form was to make sure every procedure was crystal-clear and the possible outcomes of participating in this study were well understood as we were not able to see each other physically due to the pandemic. Besides, I wanted to highlight my role duality as the teacher-researcher in this study and show that I would not diffuse my researcher positionality into my teacher role. Lastly, as human beings, we communicate with not only spoken and/or written language, but also with paralinguistic elements. With this in my mind, before giving out any online

written consent form, I just wanted to show all the details of the study and my role duality with my face, tone of voice, mimics, gestures, and body language so that we could have a more humane and clearer understanding of each other. I openly and deliberately posted the link of my video on the WhatsApp group that I shared with my students and partner teachers so that every stakeholder of this class could witness the process transparently.

A couple of days after the introduction video, I distributed an online consent form informing the participants about the aim, timeline, data collection procedures, potential benefits, and risks of participating in the study, and confidentiality. The consent form had to be online as we were not at the same place due to the pandemic. All participants were assured that, one more time, the participation in the study was voluntary; they had right to withdraw from the study anytime although they had showed consent in the first place; they might not answer some of the questions if they felt disturbed in the focus group interviews; pseudonyms would be used, and their personal and biographical data would not be revealed. What is more, as the whole study is based on videos, they were re-assured that the screenshots of their videos would have been used only if they had been blurred, and their audio recordings would not be shared with any third parties. The videos and demographic background questionnaires of the participants are kept in my personal computer and my personal cloud which are under password protection and no third parties have access to the computer and the video files. The videos were also uploaded to the advisor of this thesis' cloud to be reviewed, safely store, and manage the massive (i.e., 10,44 GB) video data. All in all, except for me and my thesis advisor, no one has access to the data of the participants. Lastly, anonymity of the participants was ensured by using pseudonyms for them throughout the study and the research setting was not revealed for the sake of privacy and my vulnerable position as a stakeholder of the organization.

4. RESULTS

This chapter in turn aims at presenting the findings of the current study in detail. First, the inter-rater reliability of the scores that were given by the raters is dwelled on. Then, the descriptive statistics and the results of the paired sample *t*-test for the perceived L2 oral fluency scores in the pre- and delayed post-tests are reported. Next, the findings of the one-way repeated-measures ANOVA test examining the utterance fluency regarding speech rate and mean length of utterance measurements during the video-mediated feedback intervention are presented respectively, along with the descriptive statistics, the normality, and sphericity test results of the main analysis. Following the main analysis results, the findings of the post hoc tests are presented. Subsequently, the results of the two semi-structured focus group interviews are reported. Lastly, the chapter concludes with a summary of the major findings.

4.1 Findings of Perceived L2 Oral Fluency Analysis

Regarding the measurement of perceived fluency, the same IELTS speaking module, which was conducted and rated by two untrained raters using an analytic scale, was implemented before and after the video feedback intervention as pre- and delayed post-tests. Before comparing the raters' scores, the Pearson correlation coefficient was measured between the composite scores assigned to the participants in the pre- and delayed post-tests to attest inter-rater reliability. Then, a paired sample *t*-test was conducted to see whether there was a significant difference between the composite, content development, and fluency scores of the participants in the pre- and delayed post-tests.

4.1.1 Inter-rater Reliability

In the study at hand, two untrained raters evaluated the spoken performance of the participants in pre- and post-tests using an analytic scale. As the raters' judgment might play a major role in the scores assigned to the participants, the reliability of the scores assigned by the raters was checked before video feedback intervention. To do so, the inter-rater reliability was examined by measuring the Pearson correlation coefficient between the composite scores assigned to the participants by two raters (see Table 4.1.). The Pearson correlation coefficient is .813, which indicates a high level of inter-rater reliability (Hatch & Lazaraton,

1991). What is more, the Pearson correlation coefficient obtained for the first and second rater is statistically significant with a p-value smaller than .05, which shows that the reliability of the test scores assigned to the participants by the raters is ensured.

Table 4.1. The inter-rater reliability results

		First Rater	Second Rater
First Rater	Pearson Correlation	1	.813*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.014
	N	8	8
Second Rater	Pearson Correlation	.813*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.014	
	N	8	8

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

4.1.2 Comparison of the Pre- and Post-test Scores

To examine the effectiveness of asynchronous video-mediated feedback implementation on perceived L2 oral fluency, the same IELTS speaking module was conducted as the pre- and delayed post-tests, and the oral performance of the participants was rated by two untrained trainers via an analytic scale. The participants' composite scores mean was the highest ($M=3.93$, $SD=1.08$), followed by the content elaboration mean score ($M=3.88$, $SD=1.16$), and the fluency mean score ($M=3.50$, $SD=1.31$) in the pre-test. In the post-test, the participants' fluency scores mean was the highest ($M=5.25$, $SD=1.16$), which was followed by the composite mean score ($M=4.94$, $SD=1.08$), and the content elaboration mean score ($M=4.69$, $SD=1.41$). Table 4.2. and Figure 4.1. present the descriptive statistics of the scores given by the raters in both tests.

Table 4.2. Descriptive statistics of the pre- and post-tests

	N	Pre-test				Post-test			
		M	SD	MIN	MAX	M	SD	MIN	MAX
Composite Score	8	3.93	1.08	3.00	5.50	4.94	1.08	3.50	6.50
Fluency	8	3.50	1.31	2.00	5.50	5.25	1.16	3.50	7.00
Content Elaboration	8	3.88	1.16	2.50	5.50	4.69	1.41	2.50	6.50

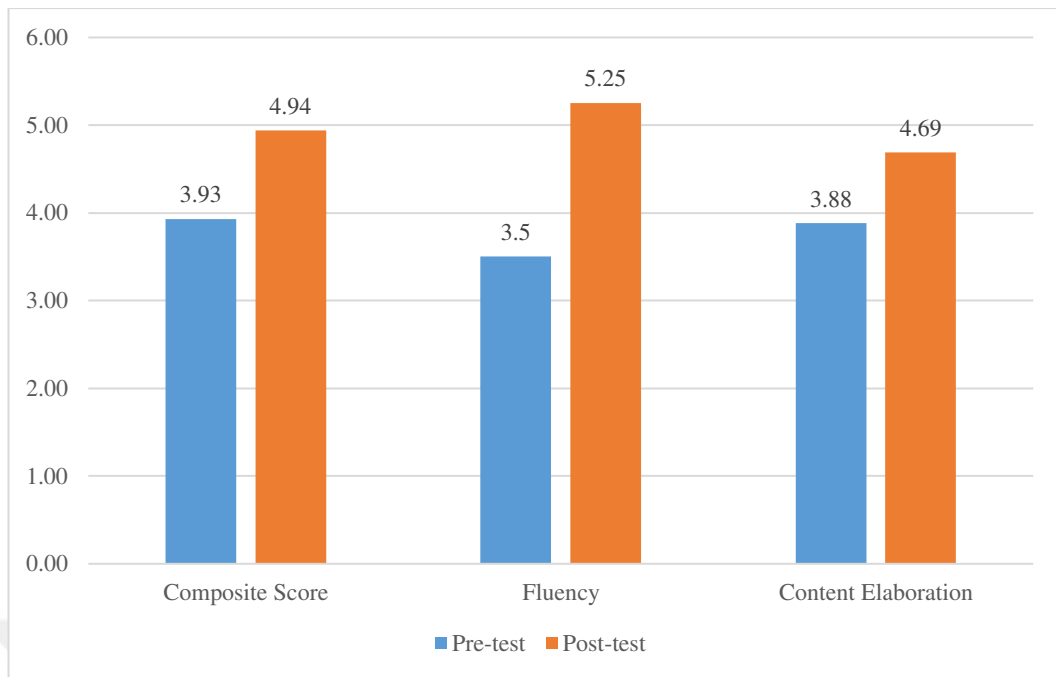


Figure 4.1. Descriptive statistics of the pre- and post-tests

To check whether there was a significant difference in the pre- and post-tests mean scores gained from the composite, fluency, and content elaboration criteria in the analytic scale, a paired sample t-test was run. The results pointed out a significant difference between the learners' composite scores in the pre-test ($M=3.93$, $SD=1.08$) and post-tests ($M=4.94$, $SD=1.08$), $t(7)=-4.32$, $p<0.5$. Accordingly, it can be concluded that asynchronous video feedback implementation improved the participants' overall speaking skills. Besides the composite score, the participants' scores obtained from the fluency criterion in the analytic scale in both tests were compared. The results showed that there was a significant difference in between the learners' scores that were obtained from the fluency criterion in the scale in pre- ($M=3.50$, $SD=1.31$) and post-tests ($M=5.25$, $SD=1.16$), $t(7)=-7.56$, $p<0.5$. In the light of this finding, it can be argued that the asynchronous video feedback intervention significantly increased the perceived L2 oral fluency. Lastly, the participants' mean scores from the content elaboration criterion in the analytic scale in both tests were also compared. The findings revealed a statistically significant increase in the learners' scores obtained from the content elaboration criteria in the scale from pre- ($M=3.88$, $SD=1.16$) to post-test ($M=4.69$, $SD=1.41$), $t(7)=-2.60$, $p<0.5$.

4.2 Findings of Utterance Fluency Analysis in Spoken Discourse

As for the utterance fluency, the learners' spoken discourse in the second drafts of video recording assignments after getting video-mediated feedback was analyzed in line with the temporal measures of fluency (i.e., speech rate and mean length of utterance). To examine whether there was a significant difference in participants' temporal measures of fluency during the video feedback intervention, a one-way repeated-measures ANOVA was run. Comparisons of the utterance fluency measures regarding the speech rate and mean length of utterance, respectively, were elaborated on in the upcoming sections.

4.2.1 Comparison of the Speech Rate Measurements

To find out whether there was a significant difference in the spoken performance of the participants regarding speech rate during the video-mediated feedback implementation, a one-way repeated-measures ANOVA test was executed. At the outset of the data analysis, the measurements of the participants' speech rate were descriptively analyzed (see Table 4.3. and Figure 4.2.). The week with the lowest score on speech rate was the first one, with a mean score of 2.03 and a standard deviation of .53. The first week was followed by the second week ($M= 2.52$, $SD=.47$) and the third week ($M=2.83$, $SD=.54$). The week with the highest score was the fourth one, and it had a mean value of 3.01 and a standard deviation of .55. In the light of the descriptive statistics analyses, it can be argued that video-mediated intervention increased the speech rate of the participants during the implementation.

Table 4.3. Descriptive statistics of the speech rate measures

	N	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	MIN	MAX
First Week	11	2.03	.53	1.53	3.21
Second Week	11	2.52	.47	1.63	3.15
Third Week	11	2.83	.54	1.86	3.76
Fourth Week	11	3.01	.55	1.13	3.84

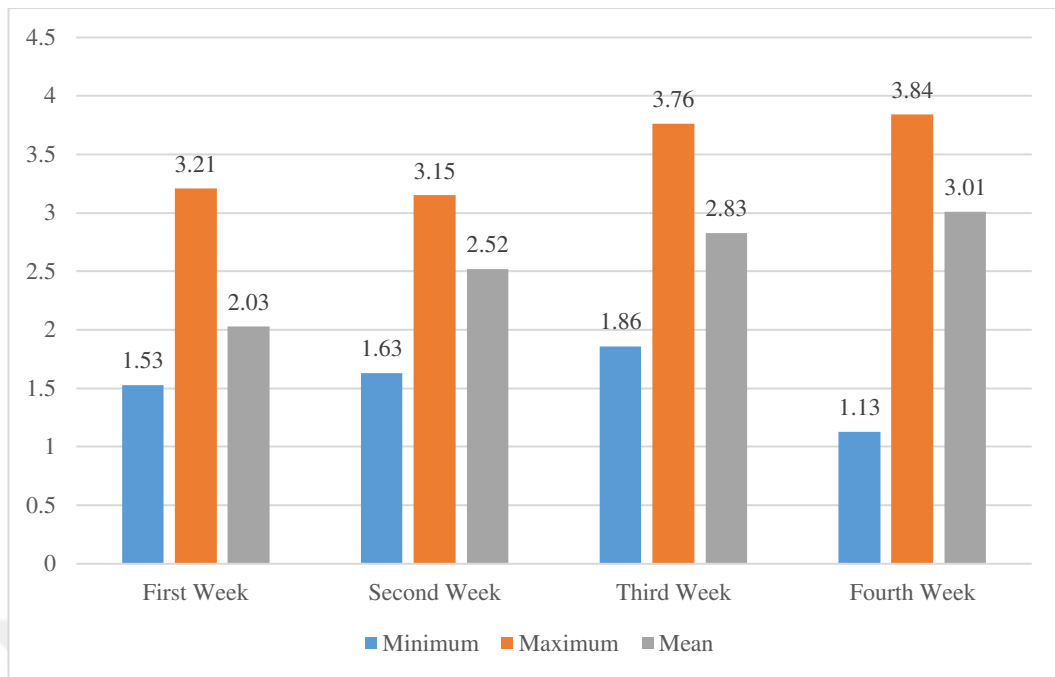


Figure 4.2. Descriptive statistics of the speech rate measures

After the descriptive statistics analysis, a Shapiro-Wilk normality test was conducted to see whether the measures of speech rate had a normal distribution. The findings of the Shapiro-Wilk normality test revealed the measures of participants' speech rate had a normal distribution with a p-value above .200. The speech rate measures of the participants after the first video-mediated feedback treatment were normally distributed with a p-value of .832. After the second treatment, the speech rate measures were normally distributed with a p-value of .702. It was also found out that the speech rate measures had a normal distribution after the third treatment with a p-value of .821, and lastly after the fourth treatment with a p-value of .636. Table 4.4. presents the Shapiro-Wilk normality test results.

Table 4.4. Normality test results for the speech rate measures

Speech Rate Measures	Shapiro-Wilk p-value
First week	.832
Second week	.702
Third week	.821
Fourth week	.636

The Shapiro-Wilk normality test results demonstrated that all measurements regarding the speech rate during the video-mediated feedback intervention had a normal distribution above the $p > 0,05$, which confirmed the normality assumption of the one-way repeated-measures ANOVA test.

With the aim of understanding whether there was a significant difference between the speech rate measures of the participants over the four weeks when the video-mediated feedback was implemented, a one-way repeated measures ANOVA was executed. Before conducting ANOVA, the normality assumption was checked. After finding out all the speech rate measurements in four weeks when the video-mediated feedback intervention was implemented were normally distributed ($p > 0,05$), the next step was to check the sphericity assumption. Mauchly's test of sphericity was conducted to see whether the sphericity assumption was confirmed or not. The findings of the Mauchly's test of sphericity showed that the sphericity assumption was confirmed for all the weeks with a p-value of .013.

Table 4.5. Sphericity test results for the speech rate measures

Within subjects' effect	Mauchly's W	Significance
Week	.189	.013

After the sphericity assumption test, the findings of the one-way repeated-measures ANOVA were further analyzed to see whether there was a statistically significant mean change regarding the speech rate measurements over the weeks when the intervention was implemented. The findings of the repeated-measures ANOVA indicated significant mean differences among the speech rate measurements of the participants throughout the weeks when the video-mediated feedback was received ($F(3,30) = 35.34$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta^2 = .779$), with a high effect size of 1.000 (see Table 4.6.).

Table 4.6. One-way repeated-measures ANOVA results

Source	F Value	Significance	Partial Eta Squared	Observed Power
Week	35.34	<.0001	.779	1.000

a: Computed using alpha = .05.

Following the repeated-measures ANOVA, a post hoc test using the Bonferroni correction was performed to determine exactly where significant differences regarding the speech rate measurements exist within the group over the weeks. The findings of the post hoc test revealed that there were significant differences in the speech rate measurements between not only the first and second week ($p=.005$), but also the second and third week ($p=.003$). However, no significant difference was observed between the third and fourth weeks ($p=.055$). Table 4.7. and Figure 4.3. display the findings of the post hoc test.

Table 4.7. Pairwise comparisons of the speech rate measures

Week Pairs	Mean	Mean Difference	Significance
First Week	2.03	-.049*	.005
Second Week	2.52		
Second Week	2.52	-.031*	.003
Third Week	2.83		
Third Week	2.83	-.019	.055
Fourth Week	3.01		

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b: Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

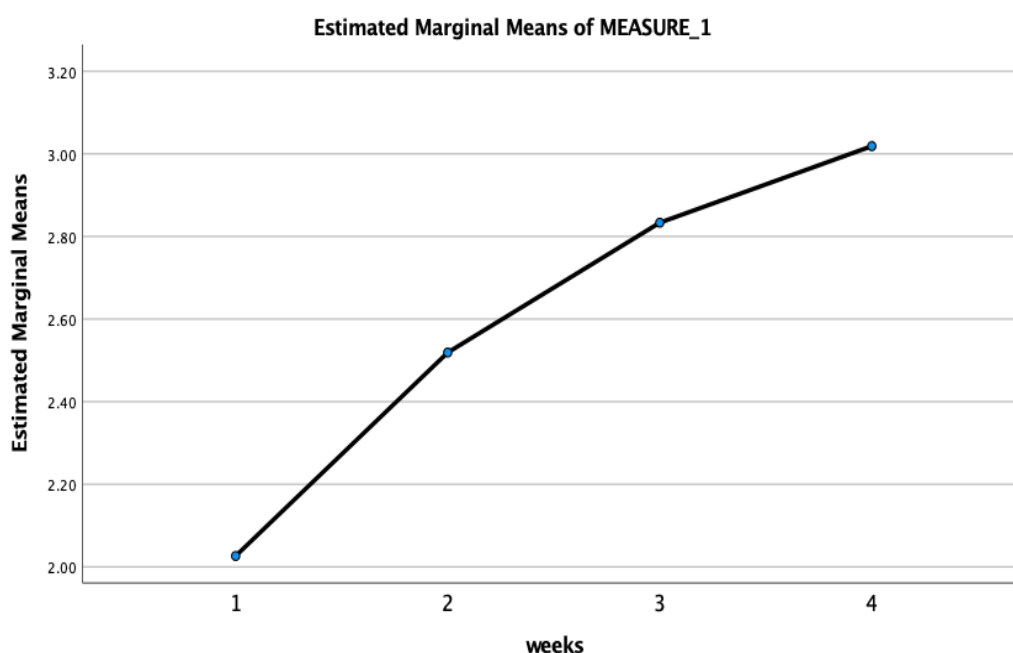


Figure 4.3. Estimated marginal means of the speech rate measures

4.2.2 Comparison of Mean Length of Utterance Measurements

Another temporal measure of utterance fluency that was investigated within the scope of this was the mean length of utterance. With the aim of understanding whether there was a significant difference in the spoken performance of the participants regarding the mean length of utterance throughout the four weeks, a one-way repeated-measures ANOVA test was executed. The following subheadings cover the descriptive statistics, normality assumption test, sphericity assumption test, and ANOVA results, respectively, based on the mean length of utterance measures.

First, the measurements of the participants' mean length of utterance were analyzed descriptively. The week with the lowest score on speech rate was the first one, with a mean score of 2.03 and a standard deviation of .53. The first week was followed by the second week ($M= 2.52$, $SD=.47$) and the third week ($M=2.83$, $SD=.54$). The week with the highest score was the fourth one, and it had a mean value of 3.01 and a standard deviation of .55. In the light of the descriptive statistics analyses, it can be argued that video-mediated intervention increased the mean length of the utterance of the participants throughout the four weeks. Table 4.8. and Figure 4.4. present the analyses of the descriptive statistics regarding the mean length of utterance.

Table 4.8. Descriptive statistics of the mean length of utterance measures

	N	M	SD	MIN	MAX
First week	11	9.57	2.38	5.56	20.92
Second week	11	11.62	4.10	6.16	19.95
Third week	11	13.57	4.97	7.29	22.72
Fourth week	11	15.77	5.28	6.94	23.56

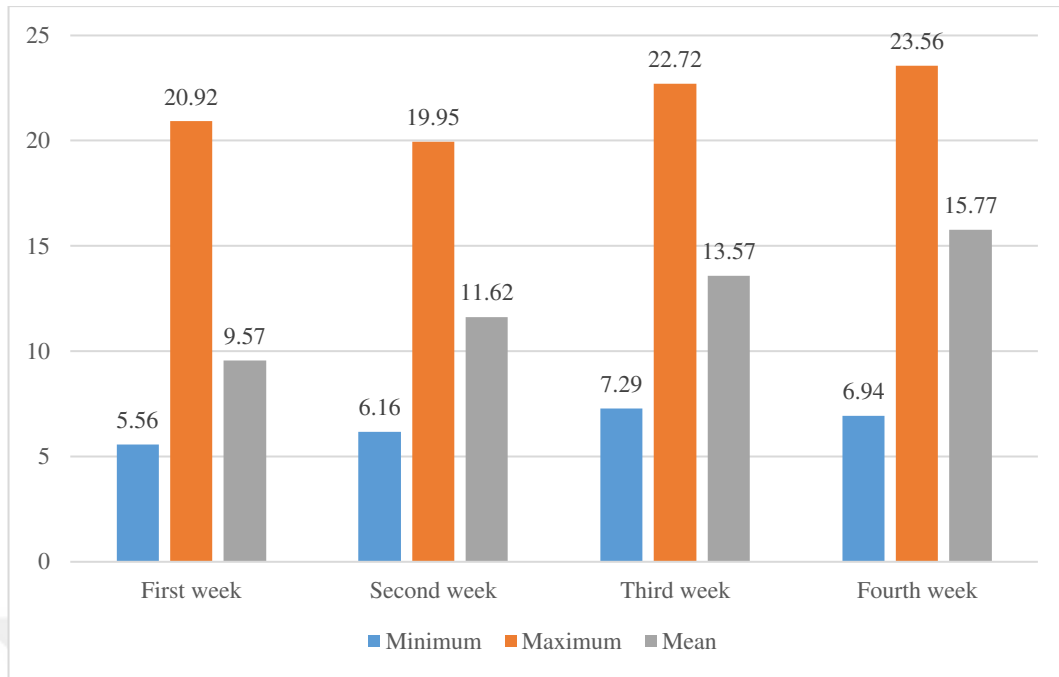


Figure 4.4. Descriptive statistics of the mean length of utterance measures

After analyzing descriptive statistics findings, the normality assumption was checked via executing the Shapiro-Wilk normality test. The findings of the Shapiro Wilk's normality test showed that the measures of participants' mean length of utterance were normally distributed ($p > .200$). The speech rate measures of the participants had a normal distribution after the first video-mediated implementation with a p-value of .335, the second video-mediated implementation with a p-value of .740, the third video-mediated implementation with a p-value of .638, and the fourth video-mediated implementation with a p-value of .401. The findings revealed that the normality assumption was confirmed for the one-way repeated measures ANOVA, with a p-value of above .05 for the mean length of utterance measures throughout the four weeks when the video-mediated feedback treatment was received. Table 4.9. presents the Shapiro Wilk normality test results.

Table 4.9. Normality test results for the mean length of utterance measures

Mean Length of Utterance Measures	Shapiro-Wilk p-value
First Week	.335
Second Week	.740
Third Week	.638
Fourth Week	.401

After the normality assumption test, the sphericity assumption of the one-way repeated measures ANOVA was tested. Mauchly's W test of sphericity was

executed to see the sphericity assumption was confirmed or not. The findings of the Mauchly's W test revealed that the sphericity assumption was confirmed for all the mean length of utterance measures with a p-value of .087. Table 4.10. presents the sphericity test results.

Table 4.10. Sphericity test results

Within Subjects Effect	Mauchly's W	Significance
Week	.330	.087

Later, the results of the repeated measures ANOVA were investigated to see whether there was a statistically significant mean change regarding the mean length of utterance measures throughout the weeks of intervention. The findings of the ANOVA revealed that there was a significant mean difference among the mean length of utterance measures of the participants throughout the weeks when the video-mediated feedback was received ($F(3,30) = 27.18$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta^2 = .731$), with a high effect size of 1.000. Table 4.11. shows the ANOVA results.

Table 4.11. One-way repeated-measures ANOVA results

Source	F Value	Significance	Partial Eta Squared	Observed Power ^a
Week	27.18	<.0001	.731	1.000

a: Computed using alpha = .05

After executing the ANOVA, a post hoc test utilizing the Bonferroni correction was conducted to see whether there was a significant mean difference between each pair of weeks regarding the speech rate measurements. As listed in Table 4.12., the findings demonstrated that the first and second week mean measurements of the mean length of utterance were not statistically different from one another ($p=.095$). However, statistically significant mean differences were observed between the second and third week ($p=.010$), and the third and fourth week ($p = .007$).

Table 4.12. Pairwise comparisons of the mean length of utterance measures

Week Pairs	Mean	Mean Difference	Significance ^b
First Week	9.57	-2.06	.095
Second Week	11.62		
Second Week	11.62	-1.95*	.010
Third Week	13.57		
Third Week	13.57	-2.20*	.007
Fourth Week	15.77		

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b: Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

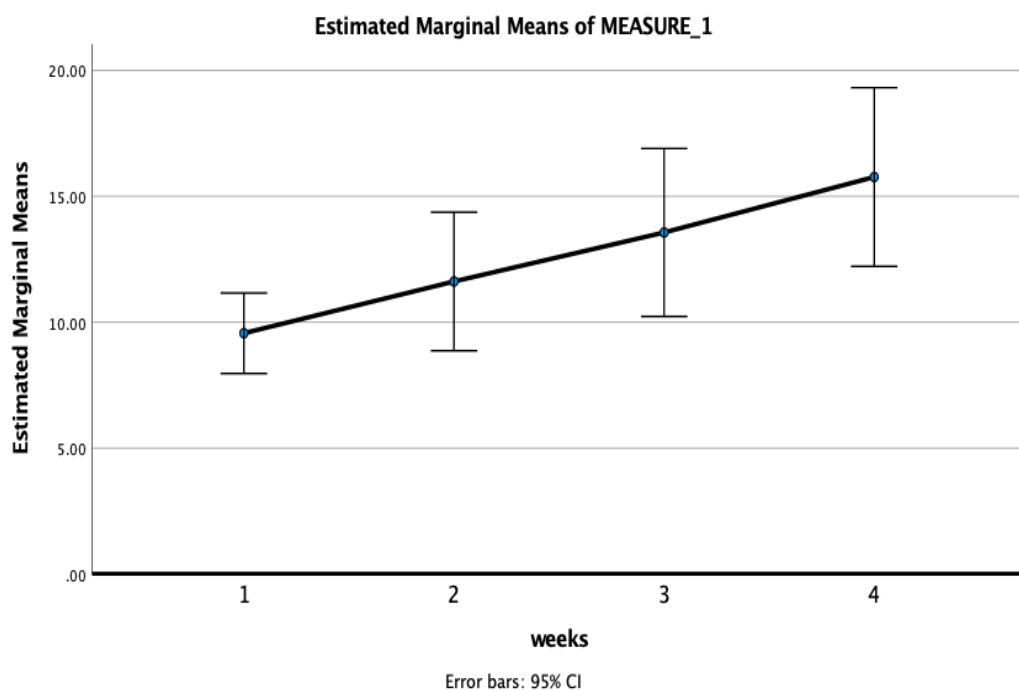


Figure 4.5. Marginal means of the mean length of utterance measures

4.3 L2 Learners' Perceptions on Receiving Video-mediated Feedback

The second research question of the current study sought to explore the opinions of the students on receiving video-mediated feedback for their video-recorded speaking assignments. To answer this question, two separate semi-structured focus group interviews were conducted with all the participants. The answers given during the interviews were descriptively coded. After descriptive coding, three emergent themes were found. The emergent themes were as follows:

- Broad benefits of receiving video feedback

- Contributions of video feedback to students as speakers
- Limitations of video feedback

In the upcoming sections, the themes are dwelled on in a detailed manner with their codes.

4.3.1 Broad Benefits of Receiving Video Feedback

In this part, the broad perceived advantages of receiving video feedback were touched upon. As a result, five codes emerged within the scope of this theme. Table 4.13. presents the codes in detail.

Table 4.13. Frequency of the codes for broad benefits of receiving video-mediated feedback theme

Codes (5 in total)	<i>f</i>
Providing better affective expression	23
Increasing teaching presence in distance education	15
Increasing rapport	14
Providing personalized communication	10
Boosting motivation towards the course	5
TOTAL	67

4.3.1.1 Providing Better Affective Expression

According to the data gained through the focus group interviews, the most frequent point that was specifically addressed by the participants was regarding the effectiveness of video-mediated feedback for transferring sentimental expression. Video-mediated feedback was considered useful in that it helped the participants spot the instructor's emotions accurately and judge the authenticity of the affective expression. For example, Kumsal expressed how seeing her teacher along with her gestures, mimics, and listening to the tone of her voice at the same time helped her refine her teacher's emotions accurately:

...When I received video feedback from my teacher, I watched and listened to her at the same time, and this was so helpful for me to understand how she was feeling about my assignment. For instance, while she was correcting my pronunciation mistakes in the videos, she opened her eyes and raised the tone of her voice to catch my attention. Also, I understood from her mimics and raised intonation that she liked some of my assignments very much.

Similarly, Ada elaborated on her ideas on how seeing and hearing the teacher at the same time made her feel that she was talking to a real person who had genuine emotions even though she was being educated in an emergency remote teaching setting, and watching the videos several times helped her catch the details about the teacher's emotions that had been missed in the first place:

...It felt like I was watching a real teacher. Along with her emotions, mimics, eyes...Even while correcting my mistakes, she was smiling, and I felt that she was affectionate, and she would tolerate me even though I made mistakes and gave me another chance to revise my assignment. From time to time, I viewed the videos several times to fully understand what she was saying, and each time I used to spot a different mimic and intonation in her tone of voice. I personally think that video feedback is way too better than face-to-face one as I cannot record what my teacher thinks about my assignment and how she feels about it and watch it several times in real life.

4.3.1.2 Increasing teaching presence in distance education

According to most participants, one of the obvious advantages of video-mediated feedback was to boost teaching presence in distance education by granting more opportunities for teacher-student interaction. Most of the participants stated that receiving video-mediated feedback made them feel like they were in a face-to-face class talking to their teachers. Besides, the learners considered video-mediated feedback as a befitting means for providing feedback for distant speaking classes. Some of the opinions of the learners on the impact of video-mediated feedback on teaching presence are as follows:

I was preparing myself for the university entrance exam, and I was all alone throughout this process. And I started my university education during a pandemic, during which I had to be at home all the time and all alone again. In this regard, video feedback made me feel like I was socializing with my teacher. I had a chance to speak English with my teacher, and I consider this as a chance since I have nobody around me speaking English. For a distance speaking class, receiving video feedback is a wonderful idea to speak with our teacher, and it felt like a real classroom speaking practice for me (Bulut). I cannot think of a better version of video feedback in distant education like this one. I mean, what else could it be done in a fully online setting? I shoot videos, and my teacher sends videos for feedback, and I revise my video and

send it to my teacher. I think this is the best way to interact with my teacher. Via videos, I can see her, listen to her, and vice versa (Toprak).

4.3.1.3 Increasing rapport

All students, regardless of their varied performances related to oral fluency after video feedback intervention, participated in this study reported that they had a very caring teacher who showed the courtesy to spend her considerable amount of time while shooting personalized feedback videos only for them. To illustrate, Yaprak expressed how grateful she was for the video feedback practice:

I would like to thank my teacher for caring for us this much. I mean, nobody would spend this amount of time on our development. I thank my teacher again. I really appreciate the effort she has made so far in shooting the video feedback. We have sent her only four videos, but she sent forty-four video feedback to us. This is incredibly hard work of my caring teacher.

Furthermore, Doğa expressed her gratitude to the teacher as being one of the most caring teachers ever in her entire life as she stated she had never had a teacher like this before, who cared about her performance in a course that much and strived to boost her performance with such detailed, personalized, and timely feedback:

In my entire life, I have never had a teacher this caring who cares very much about me and my performance. Also, I have never received feedback before from any of my teachers in such a systematic way. She has never been fed up with sending all those feedback videos to us, and she sent them to us immediately after we submitted our assignments. Also, her feedback videos were quite detailed, and she used my name throughout her videos and commented on my performance development throughout the videos. This is amazing. I would like to thank her from the bottom of my heart.

Lastly, in her own words, Kumsal considered the teacher “engaging” and “supporting” because she thought that her teacher was allocating much more time to her and her improvement compared to her partner teachers, which made her feel “closer to” the teacher.

4.3.1.4 Providing personalized communication

Overall, the participants reported that video feedback was a personalized means of communication. For instance, Bulut expressed how he felt happy when he viewed the teacher's feedback videos which had been shot only for him:

...I felt so happy when I received my feedback videos because the videos were only for me. I would prefer to receive video feedback from my teachers all the time as we connect with my teacher in a better way. We were not in the same place with her, but while viewing her videos, I felt that I was personally communicating with her on the screen.

Besides, Yaprak stated that she felt like she was getting extra attention for her endeavors while receiving video feedback. She further expressed her appreciation for videos that were only shot for her and shared with her as a direct message via an instant messaging tool, which felt like she was a very special person:

...My teacher was calling me by name and shooting videos only for me, and she was sending those videos to me via a direct message. This practice made me feel so grateful and privileged. I felt like I was getting a very personalized education, which made me feel special.

Lastly, although he stated he was not capable of directly contrasting video feedback to other feedback modalities as he had not had a chance to receive other types of feedback, Deniz mentioned that viewing the feedback videos felt like therapeutic sessions, channeling its focus on only himself and making him more reflexive about his spoken performance:

...I cannot compare video feedback to other feedback types such as written or audio ones as I received only video feedback. However, video feedback was like talking to a psychiatrist in a therapy. The teacher's focus was only on me and my performance. It helped me discover my mistake patterns in my spoken performance, and I reflected on my performance repeatedly, and I felt like I was an important person as I was receiving such personalized care.

4.3.1.5 Boosting motivation towards the course

Another advantage of video-mediated feedback was found to be increased motivation towards the course. According to the learners, the most important factor affecting their motivation towards the course was that they felt like they were being cared for by the teacher. One of the learners expressed how he appreciated that he

had a caring teacher who spent a lot of time and effort on preparing video feedback for them and how this motivated him in turn:

...Having such a caring teacher... Such an effort... I assume she spent an extremely high amount of time while she was shooting my feedback videos. I know that she cares about me so much. This caring attitude motivates me to study English more. I have started to attend her classes more enthusiastically and participate in our class discussions more (Rüzgar).

4.3.2 Contributions of Receiving Video-mediated Feedback to the Students as Speakers

As for the contributions that video-mediated feedback made to the learners as speakers of L2, four codes emerged after the data analysis. These codes were “Improving Fluency”, “Increasing Accuracy”, “Elaborating on the Content”, and “Soothing L2 speaking anxiety”. Table 4.14. illustrates the codes that emerged under this theme.

Table 4.14. Frequency of the codes for the contributions of receiving video-mediated feedback to the students as speakers theme

Codes (4 in total)	<i>f</i>
Improving fluency	53
Increasing accuracy	31
Elaborating on the content	21
Soothing L2 speaking anxiety	19
TOTAL	124

4.3.2.1. Improving Fluency

Eleven of the students commented on the effectiveness of receiving video-mediated feedback on their L2 oral fluency development. In other words, they said that noticing and correcting their mistakes after receiving video feedback granted them an opportunity to initiate and prolong an impromptu speech in English. To illustrate, Ada shared her observations of her own L2 oral fluency development during the video-mediated feedback practice:

Here, I would like to talk about my biggest weakness...pausing all the time while speaking English... I used to forget what I would say when I couldn't remember a word. That was my weakness. I have learned what to do if I can't remember a word while speaking, thanks to the feedback videos sent

by my teacher. I can feel that I pause less compared to my first performance. I think I improved myself a lot in that sense.

Similarly, two of the participants expressed how their first videos made them feel bad because of her disfluency and hesitation markers and how they increased their speech rate throughout the video feedback implementation:

When I contrast my first assignment with the last one, I can argue that I improved myself a lot. In my first video, I was too slow, and I used only a few words in a longer period, which made me sad. In my last video, I realized that I used a lot more words and sentences but in a shorter period. It is amazing, isn't it? I think I've turned into a faster speaker who can use many words together in a shorter time. My feedback videos helped me a lot become this fast, I guess. I mean, I tried to mimic my teacher's speech in the feedback videos, and I really believe that it was a useful strategy for me (Kumsal).

I couldn't agree more with Kumsal. I also watched my first and last performance and all the feedback videos before I came to this interview. I observed that I was pausing all the time in my first video simply because I was not able to find anything to say. I didn't even know how to start and conclude my speech at all. In my feedback videos, my teacher emphasized that I was pausing too much, and she shared some strategies and useful phrases with me. After some time, I realized that I was improving my spoken performance using those strategies mentioned in my feedback videos. Also, my teacher always noticed my improvement and praised me, which motivated me to perform better, to be honest. The problematic thing about my assignments was that I was pausing too much, and the duration of my assignments was quite short. Right now, I feel like I can speak English for a longer time and use more words and sentences in a given time limit with less pausing. That's all (Rüzgar).

According to almost all the participants, another perceived gain regarding fluency was that they were able to use formulaic expressions in their impromptu speech, which provided them with automaticity and increased speech rate. Doğa commented on her experience with being able to use formulaic expressions thanks to the feedback she received:

...Surely, I believe that the video feedback I received contributed to me a lot. For example, before I came to this interview, I watched my first and last performance and realized a huge difference between them. I mean, in my first video assignment, I realized that I spoke too slowly, and I totally forgot what I would say in the first place. I was hesitating too much, you know? With the help of the video feedback, I learned to use some strategies when I totally forgot about something to say. I have started to use some phrases such as “you know”, “let me think”, and “just a second” in order not to pause. What is more, I have learned how to start a speech, change the topic, and close it with certain phrases from my teacher’s feedback videos. Currently, I use them automatically without even thinking, and I think that this made me a faster speaker of English with fewer pauses. For example, whenever I finish a speech, I say, “that’s all I can say”, which is like a word for me. I never forget to use it at the end of my speech.

4.3.2.2. Increasing Accuracy

Another important aspect of video feedback implementation that was touched upon by the participants was increased accuracy. Çiçek observed that this increase was closely related to grammatical accuracy augmented by video-mediated feedback by comparing her first and last oral performance in her assignments:

When I watched my first and last performance in my second-draft assignments, I realized that I started to use the correct tenses and sentences structures more often in my last performance because I was taking all the feedback I had received till then into consideration and trying not to make the same grammar mistakes that I noticed in my assignments thanks to the feedback. I think I am now able to use grammatical structures in a more accurate way.

According to the students, another crucial point regarding accuracy was closely related to segmental and supra-segmental accuracy. One of the students stated that due to the multimodal nature of video feedback, she was able both hear and see the pronunciation of a sound and/or word, which helped her gain accurate pronunciation:

I really do not think my pronunciation would be that good if I happened to get written or audio feedback for my assignments rather than video feedback. When my teacher sent my feedback videos, I used to watch them

again and again to produce the sounds accurately, just like my teacher. Thanks to video feedback, I was able to both listen to her uttering the sounds and watch her mouth movements while articulating the sounds. Then, I tried my best to mimic her mouth movements while I was revising my homework for the second drafts. I think I have improved my pronunciation a lot while doing this (Güneş).

Similarly, Rüzgar mentioned speaking is a multimodal act and stated that noticing his pronunciation mistakes in a video was the best possible solution ever to her problems regarding pronunciation:

Before our video feedback practice, while speaking English, the pronunciation was real trouble for me. Feedback videos were like troubleshooting sessions for me, and I cannot think of a better alternative than receiving video feedback for improving my pronunciation. This is simply because we use our voice, mouth, and face simultaneously when we speak. Video feedback provided me with a chance to improve my pronunciation by granting me an opportunity to watch and listen to my teacher articulating the sounds. Finally, I was able to view the feedback videos whenever and wherever I wanted, which provided me with endless opportunities to practice.

Lastly, one of the students mentioned how both seeing and listening to the teacher in a video helped her notice accurate intonation and stress patterns while speaking English:

...The thing that I liked most about the feedback videos was being able to notice the correct intonation and stress patterns in my speech. I mean, my teacher showed me where to turn up and turn down my voice. In this way, I really felt like I was speaking with the correct melody, and I internalized the melody while speaking English. Currently, I intuitively know where to stress in a sentence or a syllable (Nehir).

4.3.2.3. Elaborating on the Content

Most of the learners complained about how they could not find anything to say in their first videos and how this changed throughout the video-mediated feedback implementation. Two of the students related this change to the video feedback they received, which helped them logically organize their ideas, and the

recommended phrases mentioned in the feedback videos for developing new ideas in a given speech (i.e., phrases for supporting and contrasting ideas, giving examples, and/or changing the topic), which they found very useful for elaborating on the content of their assignments:

...Surely, I think feedback videos contributed to me a lot. For example, before coming here today, I watched my first and last performance, and I realized that I could not find anything to say in my first video. I think this was because I did not know how to give examples and change the topic when necessary. In my feedback videos, the teacher recommended me to use some useful phrases to talk about different but related things. Also, she suggested me give examples and justify my reasons while making an argument and taught me how to do that using specific phrases. While submitting my second drafts, I always paid extra attention to using those phrases mentioned in the feedback videos. Throughout this practice, I started to do this automatically (Ada).

I think video feedback was very beneficial, especially for me. Before the video feedback implementation, I was able to answer an open-ended question such as “What do you do with your friends at the weekends?” with only a couple of sentences. That’s it. I was not able to say more as I had no idea about what I was going to say. Thanks to the video feedback, I learned to organize my thoughts logically. I mean, I learned how to begin and finish a speech in English. Before this, my ideas were free-falling while speaking and did not have a logical organization. After receiving feedback videos, I used the strategies that my teacher recommended me to use, which helped me prolong my speech for a topic using a lot of ideas. For example, I know how to support my ideas by giving a couple of examples, and while doing that, I use some exemplification strategies. This helped me a lot (Doğa).

4.3.2.4. Soothing Speaking Anxiety

Another perceived gain of receiving video-mediated feedback was found to be decreased speaking anxiety. For instance, one of the learners, stating that she used to be very afraid of making mistakes while speaking English, commented on her building up comfort throughout her assignments because she felt making a mistake while speaking English was not a big deal as she saw her teacher smiling even when she was explicitly correcting some of her mistakes:

...Well, when I started to learn English, I was so afraid of making mistakes while speaking that I remember that I used to avoid speaking English in class with my friends. Currently, I am not feeling as anxious as I did once while speaking. I still make mistakes while talking to someone, but...how can I say? I don't care about my mistakes that much. Even if I made a pronunciation or grammar mistake, the teacher's attitude towards me was so affectionate that I felt making a mistake while speaking English might not be the end of the world. Seeing her smiling while pointing out some of my mistakes eased my anxious soul. I think I am more comfortable with making a mistake while speaking English, thanks to the teacher's attitude that I was able to spot in the video feedback (Kumsal).

Besides, another learner mentioned how the asynchronous nature of video-mediated feedback eased her speaking anxiety as she was not under time pressure while correcting her mistakes for the second draft submissions. That is, she noted that the ephemeral nature of speaking in an L2, which makes it very challenging for most of the L2 learners, was eliminated and be turned into a reflexive practice with many rehearsal opportunities thanks to video-mediated feedback:

For me, the most problematic part of speaking English is to be able to speak within a given time limit. I mean, the time pressure makes me feel nervous, and in return, I am stuck and can't say anything because I feel more and more nervous as time passes. Feedback videos helped me a lot in that sense. I watched the videos again and again and shot my second draft videos at my own pace, without racing with time. I think the fact that I was able to watch the feedback videos whenever and wherever I wanted to relieve me, and I started to enjoy speaking English in a more relaxed way (Ada).

4.3.3 Limitations of Video Feedback

In the focus group interviews, most of the students commented on the effectiveness of video-mediated feedback implementation as an opportunity to practice the speaking skill while reaching fluency and accuracy at the same time, touching upon different aspects of the practice. Despite this overall positive attitude towards the video-mediated feedback, three of the students commented less favorably, pointing out some limitations of receiving video-mediated feedback, and suggested solutions for the problems encountered. These comments consisted of the last theme. Table 4.15. presents the codes that emerged under this theme.

Table 4.15. Frequency of the codes for the limitations of the video feedback theme

Codes (2 in total)	<i>f</i>
Lacking clarity	14
Lacking genuine interaction	8
TOTAL	22

4.3.3.1. Lacking clarity

While most of the participants found the video-mediated feedback easy to understand because of vocal and visual cues that it includes, one of the students reported that they had a really hard time understanding what the teacher was saying and watched the videos repeatedly to understand the feedback content:

...Well, the most important thing that I did not like about feedback videos was that they were very hard to understand. This has nothing to do with the teacher, by the way. In my own experience, I couldn't even understand some of the words that my teacher uttered in the feedback videos. For example, I was not able to understand one of the words my teacher used in one of the feedback videos. As I couldn't see the transcript of my teacher's speech, I couldn't look up this word in the dictionary. I repeatedly watched that part of the video to be able to understand the word from its spelling. I coded each sound to find the word. That took me too much time. However, after watching the feedback videos for three or four times, I was able to understand the words and sentences that I missed in the first place. Also, the sentences made some of the missing words obvious for me as well (Nehir).

An interesting point that needs to be dwelled upon here is that the student considers herself an under-achiever. Although she was placed in a class with their classmates who had more or the less same English proficiency level at the beginning of the semester, she labeled herself as a beginner-level student having limited listening skills and related this fact explicitly to the difficulty of understanding video feedback content:

...Umm, I have serious problems with listening to something in English. My friends in the class don't experience such difficulty, I guess. I think I am a little behind them because I have started to learn English this year, making me a beginner-level student. As I am a beginner-level student and have

serious problems with listening, I had a really hard time understanding what the teacher was saying in the feedback videos. When she sent me my feedback videos, I was not able to do anything else but try my best to understand the video during that day. I mean, it took me almost a day to understand a feedback video. It took me...a lot of time. I was paying extra attention to the pronunciation of the words and tried to make some notes; however, it was an exhausting and time-consuming task for me (Nehir).

Nehir and Ada came up with a solution to make video feedback content easy to understand and mentioned the necessity of including captions or a transcript of the teacher's speech. They reported that the content of the feedback might be clearer for beginner-level students as well in this way:

...Receiving feedback in the video format is...amazing. The teacher showed us our mistakes and shared useful strategies with us to help us become better speakers of English. But...how about this? It might be better in this way... I guess. What if we included English captions in the videos? I mean, the subtitles of what the teacher was saying in the videos...I think that would be better if we had such captions because English is written and pronounced differently, which makes it difficult for us to notice our mistakes in the first place. Subtitles would help notice the grammar and vocabulary mistakes as well (Ada).

I really had a hard time understanding some of the words that my teacher used in the videos. I had to both watch and listen to the video for hours to be able to understand that specific word. It took me too much time. I also got frustrated as I couldn't understand some parts of the feedback videos. How I wish we included a transcript of her speech along with the videos or videos included some sort of subtitles. In this way, I wouldn't be in trouble that much (Nehir).

4.3.3.2. Lacking genuine interaction

Another problematic part of video-mediated feedback practice was found to be a lack of genuine interaction. For example, two of the students stated that video feedback did not feel like a real conversation as it was unidirectional and monologue type of speech. In other words, they reported that they were anticipating a dialogue because of video-mediated feedback's nature, and further added that

video-mediated feedback did not grant them an opportunity for a genuine conversation as they and the teacher were basically speaking to themselves:

...Well, to be honest, there's nothing that I did not like about my feedback videos except for the fact that it did not feel like a real dialogue. What I mean is... I really believe that that would be way too better if we could receive our feedback face-to-face, talking to our teacher at our class. That would be a real dialogue. However, we are going through an emergency right now, everything must be distant and online, and there is no way to receive our feedback face-to-face. I think video feedback is the best solution for receiving feedback for our speaking assignments in distance education; however, it needs further optimization to be more genuine and interactive (Doğa).

The only negative part of video feedback was that it was like my teacher and I were talking to ourselves, although the assignment was about speaking. I think speaking requires both people to be at the same time and same place to have a real conversation. Videos are good, but they don't feel like I'm really interacting with my teacher at all (Nehir).

To figure this problem out, Doğa and Nehir suggested that feedback practice might be implemented as synchronous video-conferencing sessions with the teacher via a video-conferencing tool to make the interaction more genuine, humane, and dyadic:

I really find our feedback videos useful compared to other types of feedback. It's better to receive my feedback in the video format because we interact with our teacher more in this way. However, I think feedback videos are not as interactive as face-to-face conversation. Surely, feedback videos contributed to me a lot. Yet, I would prefer to receive my feedback in a live teleconferencing session with my teacher. In my opinion, having live feedback sessions with my teacher would better help me soothe my speaking anxiety, improve my speaking skills better and create a more interactive atmosphere, I guess (Doğa).

In real life, we speak with at least one another person, right? Our feedback videos did not feel like I was talking to a person because they were not synchronous; we were basically talking to ourselves. I think that would be wonderful if we made it live. I mean... we could have had online meetings

with our teacher and done the same thing, but together. That would make our speech more like a real-life conversation (Nehir).

Lastly, all the students who participated in the focus group interviews stated that they would prefer video feedback over other feedback modalities (e.g., text and audio) for their speaking classes in distance education settings and appreciated the opportunity of a more humane and personal interaction with the teacher which was provided especially during emergency remote teaching. However, they firmly asserted that receiving feedback face-to-face in a regular class would be their priority compared to video-mediated feedback.

4.4 Summary of the Results

This thesis study aimed at investigating the effects of providing video-mediated feedback with the L2 learners on their perceived and utterance L2 oral fluency measurements and exploring the perceptions of the participants on receiving video-mediated feedback for their asynchronously recorded speaking assignments. The findings of the study hand revealed highly important answers for SLA scholars, teachers, and learners.

First, the findings of the study showed that receiving video-mediated feedback for asynchronously recorded speaking assignments significantly increased not only the perceived L2 oral fluency but also the learners' overall speaking skills and content elaboration skills from the pre-test to post-test.

Second, the learners' spoken discourse analysis results revealed that receiving video-mediated feedback for L2 speaking assignments significantly increased the speech rate and mean length of utterance measurements over the weeks when the video-mediated feedback was received.

Lastly, the opinions of the participants regarding receiving video-mediated feedback for their asynchronously recorded speaking assignments were explored. The findings revealed that most learners considered video-mediated feedback a useful and plausible practice with both broad and L2 learning-specific gains. On the other hand, some participants commented less favorably on receiving video-mediated feedback, stating that it lacked clarity and genuine interaction. All in all, the participants of the current study pointed out that video-mediated feedback is the best possible option at hand; however, it is yet to be a panacea for all L2 speaking-related problems and practices. Table 4.16. presents a summary of the themes and

categories emerged under each theme during the qualitative data analysis, which were elaborated on in the previous sections in detail.

Table 4.16. Participants' perceptions on receiving video feedback

Themes	Codes
Broad benefits of receiving video feedback	Providing better affective expression Increasing teaching presence in distance education Increasing rapport Providing personalized communication Boosting motivation towards the course
Contributions of video feedback to students as speakers	Improving fluency Increasing accuracy Elaborating on the content Soothing L2 speaking anxiety
Limitations of video feedback	Lacking clarity Lacking genuine interaction

5. DISCUSSION

In this chapter, the results of the study are discussed referring to the pertinent literature. Subsequently, several pedagogical implications are suggested. Lastly, the limitations of the present study and recommendations for further studies are elaborated on in detail.

5.1 Discussion of the Results

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of video feedback on fostering L2 oral performance of Turkish EFL learners, with a particular focus on L2 oral fluency, and explore their perceptions on receiving video feedback for their online speaking class assignments. The findings of this study shed novel light on the pertinent literature of L2 oral fluency and video feedback as a part of mobile technology-mediated feedback.

To begin with, this study was pioneering in terms of investigating the effects of video feedback on L2 oral fluency development from both perceived and utterance fluency perspectives. As L2 oral fluency is accepted as the most robust predictor of L2 global proficiency (Baker–Smemoe et al., 2014; Tavakoli et al., 2020), analyzing the effects of video feedback on perceived and utterance L2 oral fluency via this study revealed highly important findings regarding the very nature of L2 speaking and its relationship with multimodal feedback. As such, one of the most important findings of the current study was regarding the perceived fluency rate of the participants. According to the results of paired sample t-tests, the perceived fluency scores, as well as the composite speaking, and content elaboration mean scores significantly increased from pre- to delayed post-test. What is more, the fluency scores of the participants were found to have increased at most in the post-test in accordance with the descriptive statistics results. In the light of these findings, the video feedback can be argued to increase not only the global oral proficiency of EFL learners but also affected the raters' judgments in a highly positive way as the fluency scores of the participants were the highest in the delayed post-test after the video feedback implementation.

This finding was chiefly congruent with the findings of the relevant studies investigating the effectiveness of video feedback on global L2 oral proficiency (Hung, 2016; Toland et al., 2017; Xu et al., 2017) and contradicted with some of them (e.g., Tseng & Yeh, 2019), and highlighted the fact that video feedback

implementation significantly increased not only the global L2 oral proficiency but also the perceived fluency rate at most. Possible explanations for the contradictory finding of Tseng and Yeh's study (2019) concluding that video feedback did not improve the fluency of Taiwanese EFL learners at all could be twofold: First, in Tseng and Yeh's (2019) study, the speaking performance was evaluated by the participants themselves using Hung's (2016) self-evaluation survey, which included generic statements (e.g., *'The feedback helped me to improve my pronunciation.'*) rather than delineating specific descriptors for the fluency criterion while the current study used a highly analytic scale developed by Göktürk (2016) to measure fluency more concisely. Second, as the raters in the above-mentioned study were the participants themselves and were untrained in terms of fluency scoring, this might have an extraneous effect on the rating process. Suzuki et al. (2021) firmly assert that the choice of the scale (i.e., analytic versus holistic) and who the raters are (i.e., trained versus untrained) strongly affect the scores given for the perceived fluency. In this regard, the reason why the findings of the study at hand regarding the development of perceived fluency contradicted with Tseng and Yeh's (2019) findings could be explicated by methodological preference differences rather than the perceived fluency measure itself. As a side note, the participants got the highest scores from the fluency criterion of the analytic scale in the delayed post-test, which strongly predicts the retention of L2 oral fluency.

Besides the effects of video feedback on cultivating perceived L2 fluency, the objective and temporal measures of fluency which comprise utterance fluency, were analyzed in the participants' spoken discourse, calculated, and compared to one another over the four weeks when the video feedback implementation was conducted. In the light of the one-way repeated measures ANOVA results, the most robust predictors of utterance fluency (i.e., speech rate and mean length of utterance) (Kormos & Denes, 2004; Kormos, 2006) scores significantly increased throughout the intervention procedure. The results of the post hoc tests indicated significant differences in the speech rate measurements between not only the first and second week ($p=.005$) but also the second and third week ($p=.003$). Yet, there was no significant difference between the third and fourth week ($p=.055$). As for the mean length of utterance, the analyses of the post hoc tests showed that the first and second week mean measurements of the mean length of utterance were not statistically different from each other ($p=.095$). Yet, there were statistically

significant mean differences between the second and third week ($p=.010$) and the third and fourth week ($p = .007$). Overall, the speech rate and mean length of utterance mean scores of the learners were found to show a tendency to significantly increase over the four weeks of video feedback intervention. These findings revealed that video feedback implementation significantly increased not only the perceived fluency scores but also the temporal measures of utterance fluency mean scores. As there is no such pioneering study like this one that scrutinized the effects of video feedback on perceived L2 oral fluency rates in the pertinent literature, it is not possible to compare these findings to any other studies.

Another seminal dimension of the current study was that it tracked L2 oral fluency development with both raters' judgments (i.e., perceived fluency) and objective measures (i.e., utterance fluency) throughout the video feedback intervention. The analyses of both types of fluency showed parallel results; that is, both perceived fluency scores in the pre- and post-test and utterance fluency mean scores (i.e., speech rate and mean length of utterance measures) over the weeks of intervention were found to have significantly increased. The inherent finding of the current study corroborates with most of the correlational studies, which correlated perceived fluency to utterance fluency measures (e.g., Saito et al., 2018; Suzuki & Kormos, 2020; Suzuki et al., 2021) and came up with a positive correlation in between those two. To put it simply, receiving video feedback for online speaking class assignments not only boosted the performance of the learners in terms of the objective's measures of fluency in the spoken discourse but also affected the listeners' judgments regarding participants' fluency in a positive way. As a side note, it should be noted that speech rate and mean length of utterance are composite measures, which can blur the results of objective measures of utterance fluency analyses as both are holistic measures rather than finely grained analytic ones (Suzuki et al., 2021).

Besides investigating the effectiveness of video feedback on L2 oral proficiency, with a specific focus on L2 oral fluency, this study aimed at exploring the perceptions of the participants regarding receiving video feedback. The qualitative findings gleaned from two semi-structured focus group interviews indicated some broad benefits of video feedback. This comprised the first theme of the data. The codes that emerged under this theme were as follows: providing better affective expression, increasing teaching presence in distance education, increasing

rapport, providing personalized communication, and boosting motivation towards the course. The first code was also observed in many other video feedback studies, which highlighted the fact that the teacher's tone of voice is quite beneficial to express her/his emotions accurately (e.g., Bissell, 2017; Brereton & Dunne, 2016; Lamey, 2015; Thompson & Lee, 2012).

Moreover, video feedback was found to enhance teaching presence in distance education in that the participants of the study considered this practice as a plausible and beneficial means for cultivating L2 oral proficiency in fully online speaking classes. This finding was not such a big surprise as numerous studies (e.g., Alvira, 2016; Gonzalez & Moore, 2018; Henderson & Phillips, 2015) also came up with the same conclusion regarding enhanced teaching presence with the help of video feedback. In other words, video feedback is considered as a suitable way of providing feedback by the students. However, this finding of the current study contradicted with Grigoryan's (2017a) result that showed that there was no statistically significant difference between the video and text feedback usefulness regarding student perceptions.

The participants of the current study reported that video feedback helped them feel closer to their instructor as also reported by Anson et al. (2016) and Borup et al. (2014). Besides, according to the qualitative findings, the video feedback intervention of this study increased the rapport between the students and instructor, which was also consonant with the results of Thompson and Lee (2012), and West and Turner (2016). The increased rapport between the learners and the instructor could be explained in that students of the current study perceived their instructor as more caring as they thought she allocated a considerable amount of her time for giving them video feedback. This caring teacher concept was also observed in Anson (2015) and Kim (2018). All in all, it is safe to argue that the positive relationship between the teacher and the students was built and broadened with the help of video feedback.

The fourth code emerged under the broad benefits of video feedback theme was by far the most frequently cited perceived advantage of video feedback. The participants of the current study, like the ones in many other different studies (e.g., Alharbi, 2017; Borup et al., 2013; Mayhew, 2017), found video feedback to have a very personalized nature. Most recently, video feedback turned out to be a lot more personal than face-to-face equivalents (Ryan et al., 2019).

The qualitative findings of the data also showed that video feedback boosted motivation towards the course, which comprised the last code of the broad benefits of the video feedback theme. This finding of the current study echoed the results of Yiğit (2020). In this regard, it can be argued that video feedback gave the impression that the interaction was very similar to the face-to-face class, which reinforced learning and, in turn, motivation towards the course.

The second theme gleaned from the findings of the qualitative data was the contributions of video feedback to the students as L2 speakers. Four categories emerged under this theme: increasing fluency, increasing accuracy, elaborating on the content, and soothing speaking anxiety. As for the increasing fluency category, it was not a big surprise to see that participants of the current study thought video feedback implementation contributed to their L2 oral fluency development as the perception showed parallelism to the quantitative findings of the data. As noted before, while Tseng and Yeh (2019) reported that the participants self-evaluated their spoken performance and thought that peer video feedback did not improve their L2 oral fluency at all, both quantitative and qualitative findings of the current study at hand claim vice versa. Apart from the explanations provided before, this contradiction might also stem from the feedback provider. That is, teacher video feedback was utilized in this study, while Tseng and Yeh (2019) made use of peer video feedback. Peers might not be competent enough to address fluency-related issues in a given spoken discourse, and that's why peer video feedback implementation was regarded as not useful for fluency development in that study.

Another category that emerged under the theme was increased accuracy. Most of the participants in this study agreed on the fact that video feedback helped them gain accuracy at both segmental and suprasegmental levels. The results were consistent with the findings from Hung and Huang (2015), arguing that video feedback increased the accuracy in pronunciation. What is more, the participants of the current study found video feedback to be helpful in terms of gaining more accurate intonation patterns of English, which was also observed in the findings from Tseng and Yeh (2019), stating that peer video feedback helped the participants gain accurate intonation. The learners' finding video feedback contributing to their accuracy can be explicated by the very nature of video feedback – showing and telling at the same time. In this regard, the findings of the current study were also congruent with the results by Crook et al. (2012), showing that the biggest asset of

video feedback in terms of L2 speaking was that it included both aural and visual cues that made the feedback more concise and clearer for the learners.

When it comes to the elaborating on the content category, some of the participants of the current study thought that video feedback was helpful for organizing their ideas logically, and the recommended phrases mentioned in the feedback videos for developing new ideas in a given speech (i.e., phrases for supporting and contrasting ideas, giving examples, and/or changing the topic), and tips for further assignments, which they found beneficial for elaborating on the content of their speech. This phenomenon might be due to two reasons. First, given that video feedback is more extensive (Mahoney et al., 2019) in terms of conveying much more content and addressing more issues in an allocated time for feedback compared to other feedback modalities. In other words, video feedback can contain more content in terms of quantity and quality, which might make the participants feel like they were learning useful phrases and words to keep up an impromptu speech. This finding was in line with the result by Anson et al. (2016) and Henderson and Phillips (2015) that video feedback was more extensive and detailed regarding content quality and quantity. Second, the feedforward-oriented nature of the video feedback (Mahoney et al., 2019) might provide the instructor with more opportunities to offer tips and suggestions for further improvements in the upcoming assignments, which might be perceived by the learners as very useful in terms of finding new topics to talk or navigating through the topics as the speech continues. This finding echoed what Lamey (2015) also came up with in his study.

As for soothing the L2 speaking anxiety, the participants mentioned how the teacher's comforting gestures (i.e., smiling) relieved them even when she was explicitly providing corrective feedback for their errors. This was the case in the study by Crook et al. (2012) and Séror (2012) as well. To put it simply, the use of gestures and mimics to express emotions, using humor and more conversational feedback content due to the nature of video feedback might foster a closer relationship between the teacher and the students, which in turn might ease the L2 speaking anxiety. Moreover, participants mentioned how the asynchronous nature of video-mediated feedback eased their L2 speaking anxiety as they were not under time pressure while revising their assignments. In other words, the ephemeral nature of L2 speaking, which makes it very difficult for most of the L2 learners, was eliminated and be turned into a reflexive tool with many rehearsal opportunities

with the help of video feedback. This might be explicated by the flexible access that video feedback provides, which was the case in many other studies as well (Crook et al., 2012; Lamey, 2015; Séror, 2012). That is, students were granted an opportunity to save, pause, and rewind the feedback as many as they wanted, which eliminated the time pressure and the anxiety stemming from that.

Lastly, the qualitative data analysis showed that video feedback implementation had two major limitations: lacking clarity and lacking genuine interaction. Regarding lacking clarity, it should be noted here that video feedback, especially the talking head version, is commented less favorably by the participants as it is difficult to locate the corrections in the sections of the video to which they refer (e.g., Henderson & Phillips, 2015; Lamey, 2015), which was also observed in the current study. The other perceived disadvantage of video feedback in this study was that it lacked genuine interaction. In other words, the participants anticipated a dialogue with the teacher or wanted to respond to her while viewing her feedback videos in the first place; but they could not do as video feedback was unidirectional and asynchronous by its nature. This finding corroborates with the findings of many other studies (e.g., Grigoryan, 2017a; Henderson & Phillips, 2015; Lamey, 2015).

6. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The current study aimed at investigating the effectiveness of video feedback on EFL learners' spoken performance, with a particular focus on L2 oral fluency and exploring the learners' perceptions on the implementation of video feedback. In the light of the findings of the present study, highly important conclusions were drawn for both SLA scholars and practitioners.

In an effort to investigate the effectiveness of giving video feedback for L2 monologic oral narrative type of speaking assignments that were given in a fully online speaking class on the development of L2 speaking performance, particularly fluency, an action-based, explanatory sequential mixed methods research design was utilized. Data were collected from 11 elementary-level Turkish EFL learners who were preparatory school students at a state university in the Western Black Sea region, Turkey. The researcher was also the speaking teacher of the participants. Before the video feedback intervention started, the learners were required to sit an IELTS speaking exam. After the exam, they were asked to record videos in which they would give an impromptu speech for a given topic over four weeks as an extra speaking practice outside of the classroom. The learners were notified that they would get extra ten points upon completion of all assignments. Upon submitting their first draft of their videos, the students got video feedback for their assignments, revised them, and submitted the revised version of their assignments as a second draft. One week after the last assignment and video feedback received, two focus group interviews were conducted to explore their opinions regarding receiving video feedback for their speaking assignments. Four weeks after the last video feedback implementation, the students sit the same IELTS speaking exam. The speaking exams were conducted and rated by the researcher herself and another speaking teacher who had been working in the language teaching field for fifteen years and had prior experience in conducting the IELTS exam.

As this study sought to investigate the effects of video feedback on L2 speaking skill, with a specific focus on L2 oral fluency, L2 oral fluency was investigated in two aspects: perceived fluency and utterance fluency. Given that these two aspects are the strongest predictors of L2 oral fluency in the pertinent SLA literature, they were chosen to be investigated in this study. L2 perceived

fluency was investigated using the same IELTS speaking exam as the pre- and delayed post-tests. The learners' spoken performance in both exams was rated by two raters using an analytic scale that was adapted from the public IELTS speaking module scale. Then, the scores given to the learners were quantitatively analyzed and compared by executing a paired sample t-test. The findings of the paired sample t-test revealed that the learners' fluency scores significantly increased at most, followed by the overall composite scores, and content elaboration scores, respectively, after the video feedback intervention was implemented.

Besides the perceived fluency, the present study investigated the utterance fluency measures of the learners. To this end, the spoken discourse of the learners in the second drafts of each week's speaking assignments over the four weeks was quantitatively analyzed in terms of speech rate and mean length of utterance, which are accepted as the most robust indicators of utterance fluency in the existing literature. The findings regarding the speech rate and mean length of utterance measures showed that these two strongest predictors of utterance fluency significantly increased over the four weeks of video feedback implementation. Overall, the quantitative analyses of the present study revealed that receiving video feedback significantly increased both perceived fluency scores and utterance fluency measures of the L2 learners.

In addition to quantitative analyses, the present study explored the perceptions of the learners on receiving video feedback for their online speaking class assignments. The qualitative findings of the two semi-structured focus group interviews that were conducted with all the participants unveiled three themes: a) broad benefits of video feedback, b) contributions of video feedback to the learners as L2 speakers, and c) limitations of video feedback. All in all, the findings indicated the plausibility of video feedback practice in both face-to-face and fully online L2 speaking classes.

6.1 Pedagogical Implications

The present study aimed at exploring the pedagogical potential of a novel instructional practice (i.e., video feedback) for the development of L2 oral proficiency with a specific focus on L2 oral fluency in a fully online setting. Hence, it shed novel light on the practice of teacher feedback, which is an inseparable part of learning and teaching, with the aim of improving the practice across various settings besides traditional face-to-face classrooms.

First, besides the theoretical implications, the study provides some practical and pedagogical implications for L2 teachers. The findings of the study revealed that teacher video feedback significantly improved both the overall L2 spoken performance and L2 oral fluency of the learners. Also, the participants commented on the plausibility of such a practice in fully online L2 learning settings and mentioned how satisfied they were with this practice. Based on these positive results, L2 teachers who teach either face-to-face or online L2 classes can easily make use of video feedback practice to grant their students more opportunities to expose themselves to L2 besides the formal classroom settings. As speaking is generally accepted as the hardest skill to master in a given L2, providing L2 learners with such novel implications like video feedback would make it easier for them. What is more, as L2 speaking is a multimodal phenomenon, it entails the teacher feedback to be more than text or sole audio. Given that video feedback is richer regarding its content full of verbal and nonverbal cues, video feedback practice can be utilized for L2 speaking development in both formal and informal classroom settings in this regard.

Secondly, this study at hand investigated the effects of video feedback given by the teacher on L2 oral fluency. Therefore, peer feedback can be further utilized to distinguish between the effects of teacher and peer feedback on L2 oral proficiency and fluency. Taking the huge amount of work and time that should be spent on such a practice into consideration, the feedback provision and organization of the peer groups should be well-delineated and some guidelines for peer video feedback should be provided with the students.

Lastly, this study was carried out during a pandemic when formal education had to be fully online, and some important conclusions can be drawn from the findings of the present study regarding the practice of giving feedback in fully online L2 settings. Given the fully online setting of this present study and its outcomes, instructional technology specialists and designers can design learning management systems where feedback videos can be easily embedded, stored, and sent to the students. In the light of the common themes that emerged from the pertinent literature of video feedback, one of the commonly cited problems with video feedback turned out to be related to technical problems such as shooting, storing, and sending feedback videos. In this regard, whenever technical assistance

is needed, the online learning support personnel could help the teachers and students better this pedagogically sound practice and make the most of it.

6.2 Limitations and Recommendations for Further Studies

Although the study at hand provides readers with in-depth insights into the phenomenon investigated, it has several limitations, which might be compensated by further research.

The findings of the study cannot be generalizable to other contexts as it utilized convenience sampling, although it might give an idea to further studies which have similar contexts. Convenience sampling is generally referred as “the least desirable but the most common sampling strategies” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 129). Although this study had no available other option but convenience sampling due to the pandemic, further studies might come up with more generalizable results by increasing the sample size and working with a more homogenous group determined by other types of sampling strategies.

This study investigated the effect of video feedback on the oral performance of L2 learners with a specific focus on fluency. The intervention phase lasted four weeks in the middle of the spring term. Further studies may investigate the effect of video feedback on L2 oral fluency with a more longitudinal design, beginning from the first term of the academic year. Thus, the retention of the learner uptake in mobile technology-mediated video feedback might be investigated in a more in-depth and temporal manner.

The findings of the study at hand indicated that there was a statistically significant increase in the fluency, content elaboration, and composite scores of the participants from pre- to post-test thanks to the video feedback intervention. This phenomenon can be explicated not only with the contributions of video feedback implementation to the participants L2 oral proficiency, but also with the possibility that they might have familiarized themselves with the IELTS exam from pre- to post test. In order to eliminate the effect of test familiarity, this study utilized a delayed post-test that was conducted four weeks after the last video feedback intervention. Further studies may also benefit from this strategy and employ a delayed post-test to depict the accurate effects of video feedback implementation on L2 oral fluency just like this study did.

The results of this study also showed that there were statistically significant increases in speech rate and mean length of utterance measures of the participants

over the weeks when video feedback was implemented. The increase in both measures might stem from both the video feedback intervention and the novelty effect of a new instructional tool, video feedback at the same time. However, the one-way repeated-measures ANOVA test results indicated a steady increase throughout the weeks regarding the speech rate and mean length of utterance measures. If the increase had been limited to only the very first weeks and then started to decrease, then it would have been plausible to conclude that there was a novelty effect. In this regard, it is safe to argue that the increase in the utterance fluency measures was not due the novelty effect of video feedback implementation. Just like the current study, further studies should look at the ANOVA test results to see the accurate effects of the intervention on their dependent variables.

The current study utilized single group pre-experimental research design to analyze the observed differences of L2 oral fluency before and after the video feedback intervention. This type of design has its own limitations, such as history, test effects, regression to the mean effects, and maturation (Marsden & Torgerson, 2012). In their small-scale systematical review of pre-experimental educational studies, Marsden and Torgerson (2012) state that the relationship between the observed differences and the intervention in such research design might possibly not indicate causality and recommend researchers have a randomized control group. As the current study had only a single group, it was not possible to control the aforementioned factors affecting the findings. Thus, further studies might have a randomized control group or at least a comparison group or to clearly see the effect of video feedback on L2 oral fluency; and in this way, they might control the extraneous variables which might affect the results.

This study utilized semi-structured focus group interviews to elicit the perceptions of the participants on getting video feedback. Focus group interviews come with their own advantages; however, two limitations that are solely exclusive to this kind of interview regarding elicitation of the content: a) groupthink, and b) domination of the discussion by a participant (Smithson, 2000). With an aim to eliminate the possible drawbacks, the current study initiated each question of the interviews with a different participant one by one. What is more, as the interviews were held online, the participants were frequently reminded of the '*raise hand*' button of the video conferencing platform in case any ideas popped up in their minds while their peers were talking. Further studies utilizing focus group

interviews might employ these strategies as well. The last limitation of the focus group interviews within the scope of this study was the number of interviews. Having at least four or five, preferably a few more focus groups including at least six participants is recommended to elicit rich and in-depth information (Dörnyei, 2007). As the number of the participants of the study was eleven, two focus groups, including five and six participants per se, were formed to satisfy both criteria. Larger samples would yield more focus groups with more people included in each group. However, it should be noted that including more than twelve participants in a focus group makes it hard for everyone to participate in the discussion (Dörnyei, 2007).

Interviews are suggested to be held in a relaxing and familiar atmosphere for the participants (Dörnyei, 2007). As this study was carried out during a pandemic, the semi-structured focus group interviews had to be online, which might have resulted in a perceived lack of proximity between the researcher and the participants; thus, the participants might not have shared all their opinions regarding the procedure. Researchers should take this possibility into consideration while organizing the setting and time of their interviews.

In classroom action research, the role duality of the teacher-researcher might cause researcher bias. To eliminate such a possible bias, this study did not include the video assignments as a part of assessment criteria; rather, it was conducted as an extra-curricular and out-of-the-class activity. Further classroom action research studies might benefit from this strategy.

Oral proficiency consists of four components: 1) appropriateness of fluency, 2) appropriateness and accuracy of vocabulary and grammar, 3) appropriateness of phonology, and 4) interactional competence (Ockey & Zhi, 2015). This study explored only one component of L2 speaking skill, namely fluency. The accuracy and complexity of spoken discourse of the participants regarding vocabulary and grammar before and after getting video feedback might be investigated as well. Furthermore, appropriate use of phonology might be dwelled on, and lastly, dyadic or group interaction between the interlocutors and the effect of video feedback on their interactional competence remains an understudied area that may shed novel light on the issue.

There are several types of spoken performance tasks (e.g., oral proficiency interviews, paired/group oral discussion tasks, simulated tasks, integrated oral

communication tasks, and elicited imitation tasks) (Ockey & Zhi, 2015), and the current study utilized monologue type of task. Further studies might employ different types of tasks and investigate the effect of giving video feedback on them.

Drawing on the Cognitive Load Theory (Mayer & Moreno, 2003), the study at hand did not include captions in the feedback videos. However, two participants strongly emphasized if the feedback videos had had subtitles, they would have been easier to follow. Further studies may include captions and further investigate the effect of video feedback with and without captions on L2 oral fluency within the scope of an experimental or a quasi-experimental study.

As the researcher of this study was the teacher of the participants at the same time, the perceptions of the teacher regarding giving video feedback were not included in the current study. However, further studies may include the opinions of the teachers on video feedback to delve deeper into the perspectives of all the stakeholders of the process.

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8. APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: Participant Information Form

GÖNÜLLÜ KATILIMCI BİLGİLENDİRME FORMU

Sayın Katılımcı,

Bu araştırma, Abant İzzet Baysal Üniversitesi Lisansüstü Eğitim Enstitüsü Eğitim Fakültesi Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Programı'nda, "Video Dönüt Uygulamasının İngilizce Hazırlık Okulu Öğrencilerinin İngilizce Konuşma Becerilerine ve Becerinin Kalıcılığına Etkisi" adlı Yüksek Lisans Tezi olarak Doç. Dr. Sedat Akayoğlu danışmanlığında Merve Kıymaz tarafından yürütülmektedir. Bu çalışmada, bir devlet üniversitesinin İngilizce hazırlık okuluna kayıtlı öğrencilerin İngilizce Konuşma ve Dinleme dersleri kapsamında hazırlayacakları dört adet İngilizce konuşma video ödevlerine alacakları dört adet video şeklindeki öğretmen geri bildiriminin, öğrencilerin İngilizce konuşma becerilerine ve bu becerinin kalıcılığına etkisinin incelenmesini ve öğrencilerin video şeklinde hazırladıkları İngilizce konuşma ödevlerine, video şeklinde öğretmen geri bildirimini almaları hakkındaki görüş ve önerilerinin alınmasını amaçlamaktadır. Bu araştırmanın verileri; katılımcıların demografik anket sorularına verdikleri cevaplar, araştırmanın başında ve sonunda uygulanacak adapte edilmiş bir IELTS Konuşma sınavından katılımcıların aldığı skorlar, katılımcıların dört adet video ödevinin ikinci taslakları ve araştırmanın sonunda gönüllü katılımcılarla yapılacak olan grup mülakatlarının analiz edilmesiyle elde edilecektir.

Bu araştırmaya katılım sağlamak gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Araştırmaya katılmayı reddetmeniz veya araştırmadan çekilmeniz, notlarınızda herhangi bir kesintiye, puan kaybına ve/veya cezai bir yaptırıma yol açmayacaktır. Sürecin istediğiniz bir anında, araştırmacıya herhangi bir neden veya koşul belirtmeden, araştırmadan ayrılabilirsiniz. Bu konuda size olumsuz dönecek herhangi bir sorumluluğunuz yoktur. Araştırmada size yapılan uygulamalar dışında herhangi bir rahatsızlık hissettiğinizde de araştırmayı bırakmanız mümkündür. Araştırmaya katılmayı reddetmeniz veya araştırmadan çekilmeniz, ileriki akademik gelişiminizde ya da işinizde hiçbir şekilde aksaklığa neden olmayacaktır. Bu yüksek lisans tezi, katılımcılar için herhangi maddi ve manevi bir risk ve dezavantaj oluşturmamaktadır. Araştırma sürecinde, ödevleri aynı hafta içerisinde ilk ve alınan video dönütlere göre düzeltilmiş ikinci versiyonlarıyla teslim etmek katılımcıların biraz vakitlerini alabilir. Bunun dışında katılımcıları olumsuz etkileyebilecek bir durum olmayacaktır. Yine de, araştırma sürecinde ortaya çıkan beklenmeyen herhangi bir zarar durumunda katılımcıların hepsine bilgilendirilme yapılacaktır. Araştırmada ters giden herhangi bir durumda her türlü sorumluluk araştırmacıya aittir. Bu araştırmada, katılımcıları olumsuz etkileyecek herhangi bir durum öngörülmemektedir.

Bu araştırmada elde edilecek olan tüm bilgiler ve kişisel detaylar gizli kalacak olup bilgiler kodlu olarak toplanacaktır. Ayrıca, araştırmada elde edilecek tüm bilgi, kişisel detay ve verilere araştırmacı haricinde başka hiç kimsenin erişimi olmayacaktır. Araştırma kapsamında elde edilen verilerin analiz edilebilmesi için,

APPENDIX 1 Continued

verilerin arařtırmanın řahsi bilgisayarında depolanması gerekmektedir. Bu arařtırma esnasında elde edilen tüm verilerin analizi için gereken sürenin yaklaşık bir sene olduđu öngörülmektedir. Bu nedenle, bu arařtırmadan elde edilen tüm veriler 30 Haziran 2022'ye kadar arařtırmanın řahsi bilgisayarında depolanacak ve katılımcıların tüm kimlik bilgileri saklı tutulacaktır. 30 Haziran 2022 tarihinden sonra bu arařtırma kapsamında elde edilmiř tüm bilgi, belge ve veriler kalıcı olarak silinecektir. Arařtırmanın sonunda, sonuçları görmeniz ve arařtırma hakkında bilgi almanız mümkündür. Bilgi talep edilmesi halinde, sizin katılımınızla elde edilen arařtırma sonuçlarının ve bu arařtırma sonuçlarının analiz edileceđi yüksek lisans tezinin birer kopyası verilebilecektir. Arařtırma sonuçları, istatistiksel yöntemler ve içerik analizi yöntemiyle analiz edilip deđerlendirildikten sonra yüksek lisans tezi olarak yayınlanacaktır ve bu yüksek lisans tezinde katılımcıların tüm kiřisel bilgileri gizli tutulacaktır.

Arařtırmanın kendisi ve katılımcı haklarınız ile ilgili daha fazla bilgi ve soru için, arařtırmacıya ulaşabileceğiniz iletişim bilgileri řu şekildedir:
Merve Kıymaz, Düzce Üniversitesi Hakime Freivas Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu,

Bu arařtırma, Bolu Abant İzzet Baysal Üniversitesi İnsan Arařtırmaları Etik Kurulu tarafından onaylanmıřtır. Arařtırmaya katılımınızla ilgili herhangi bir řikayetiniz varsa Etik Kurul Başkan bildirabilirsiniz. Her türlü řikayetiniz gizlilikle deđerlendirecek, arařtırılacak ve sonuç hakkında tarafınıza bilgi verilecektir. Arařtırmamıza ayırdığınız zaman ve göstermiř olduđunuz ilgiden dolayı teřekkürler.

Lütfen Gönüllü Katılımcı Bilgilendirme Formu'nu ve Katılımcı Onam Formunu dikkatle okuyup inceleyiniz. Gönüllü Katılımcı Bilgilendirme Formu sizde kalacaktır. Bu arařtırmaya gönüllü olarak katılmak isterseniz, arařtırma başlamadan önce Katılımcı Onam Formunu imzalamanız gerekmektedir.

Arařtırmanın kořullarını anladığımı ve arařtırmaya gönüllü olarak katılmayı taahhüt ederim.

İmza:

Adı / Soyadı:

Tarih:

APPENDIX 2: Informed Consent Form

ABANT İZZET BAYSAL ÜNİVERSİTESİ İNSAN ARAŞTIRMALARI ETİK

KURULU İAEK Karar No: 2021/138

ONAM FORMU Katılımcı Nüshası

Araştırmanın Adı: Video Dönüt Uygulamasının İngilizce Hazırlık Okulu Öğrencilerinin İngilizce Konuşma Becerilerine ve Becerinin Kalıcılığına Etkisi

	Evet	Hayır
Bilgilendirme Formunu okudunuz mu?	☐	☐
Araştırma projesi size sözlü olarak da anlatıldı mı?	☐	☐
Size araştırmayla ilgili soru sorma, tartışma fırsatı tanındı mı?	☐	☐
Sorduğunuz tüm sorulara tatmin edici yanıtlar alabildiniz mi?	☐	☐
Araştırma hakkında yeterli bilgi aldınız mı?	☐	☐
Herhangi bir zamanda herhangi bir nedenle ya da neden göstermeksizin araştırmadan çekilme hakkına sahip olduğunuzu anladınız mı?	☐	☐
Araştırma sonuçlarının uygun bir yolla yayınlanacağına katılıyor musunuz?	☐	☐
Yukarıdaki soruların yanıtları size kim tarafından açıklandı? Lütfen ismini yazınız....		

İmza:

Adı / Soyadı:

Tarih:

APPENDIX 3: Demographic Background Questionnaire

Demographic Survey

Bu formun amacı Bolu Abant İzzet Baysal Üniversitesi, Eğitim Fakültesi, Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Bölümü, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı'nda Doç. Dr. Sedat AKAYOĞLU'nun danışmanlığında gerçekleştirilen bir araştırmaya veri toplama sürecine gönüllü katılımı sağlamaktır. yüksek lisans tezi kapsamında gerçekleştirilecek olan bu araştırmanın amacı dönüt uygulamalarında video kullanımının İngilizce konuşma becerilerine etkisini incelemektir.

Bu çalışmada sizinle çok kısa bir anket yapılacaktır. Anketin tahmini doldurma süresi 2 dakikadır. Bu çalışmaya katılmakta gönüllülük esastır. Bu nedenle isterseniz çalışmaya katılmayabilirsiniz veya kayıt edilmiş verinizin silinmesini talep edebilirsiniz. Bu istek hemen yerine getirilecek ve sizin için herhangi bir olumsuzluk doğurmaz. Bu araştırma için bölümden gerekli izin alınmıştır. Ek olarak, araştırma için "Bolu Abant İzzet Baysal Üniversitesi Etik Kurulundan" izin alınmıştır. Çalışmada toplanan veriler sadece çalışmada ismi geçen araştırmacılar tarafından incelenecek ve üçüncü kişilerle asla paylaşılmayacaktır. Çalışma bittikten sonra araştırmacılar çalışmanın sonuçları hakkında bilgi alabilirsiniz. Bu sonuçlar ve aklınıza gelen herhangi bir başka soru için aşağıda bulunan e-posta adresleri aracılığıyla araştırmacılarla çekinmeden iletişime geçebilirsiniz.

Araştırmacı: Merve KIYMAZ
Elektronik posta adresi:

* Gerekli

Adınız-Soyadınız (Name-Surname) *

Yanıtınız

Elektronik Posta Adresiniz (Email Address) *

Yanıtınız

Telefon Numaranız (Telephone Number) *

APPENDIX 3 Continued

Telefon Numaranız (Telephone Number) *

Yanıtınız _____

Age (Yaşınız) *

Yanıtınız _____

Cinsiyetiniz (Gender) *

☐ 1. Kadın

☐ 2. Erkek

Kaç yaşında İngilizce öğrenmeye başladınız? (When did you start to learn English?) *

Yanıtınız _____

Mezun olduğunuz lisenin tam adını yazınız. Örneğin; Ankara Fen Lisesi (Write the full name of your high school, e.g. Ankara Science High School) *

Yanıtınız _____

Gönder

Google Formlar üzerinden ssle şifre göndermeyin.

APPENDIX 4: IELTS Speaking Module

Speaking sample task – Part 1

Part 1 Introduction and interview

[This part of the test begins with the examiner introducing himself or herself and checking the candidate's identification. It then continues as an interview.]

Let's talk about your home town or village.

- What kind of **place** is it?
- What's the most interesting part of your town/village?
- What kind of **jobs** do the people in your town/village do?
- Would you say it's a good place to live? (Why?)

Let's move on to talk about accommodation.

- Tell me about the kind of accommodation you live in?
- How long have you lived there?
- What do you like about living there?
- What sort of accommodation would you most like to live in?

Speaking sample task – Part 2

Part 2 – Individual long turn

Candidate Task Card

Describe something you own which is very important to you.

You should say:

**where you got it from
how long you have had it
what you use it for**

and explain why it is important to you.

You will have to talk about the topic for 1 to 2 minutes.
You have one minute to think about what you're going to say.
You can make some notes to help you if you wish.

Rounding off questions

- Is it valuable in terms of money?
- Would it be easy to replace?

APPENDIX 4 Continued

Speaking sample task – Part 3

Part 3 – Two-way discussion

Let's consider first of all how people's values have changed.

- What kind of things give status to people in your country?
- Have things changed since your parents' time?

Finally, let's talk about the role of advertising.

- Do you think advertising influences what people buy?



APPENDIX 5: IELTS Speaking Module Adapted Rating Scale

Band	Fluency	Content Development/ Elaboration	Lexical resource	Grammatical range and accuracy	Pronunciation
9	• speaks fluently with only rare repetition or self-correction; any hesitation is content-related rather than to find words or grammar • speaks coherently with fully appropriate cohesive features	• presents fully extended and well supported ideas using clear and appropriate statements	• uses vocabulary with full flexibility and precision in all topics • uses idiomatic language naturally and accurately	• uses a full range of structures naturally and appropriately • produces consistently accurate structures apart from 'slips' characteristic of native speaker speech	• uses a full range of pronunciation features with precision and subtlety • sustains flexible use of features throughout • is effortless to understand
8	• speaks fluently with only occasional repetition or self-correction; hesitation is usually content-related and only rarely to search for language	• presents a sufficiently developed and extended response to the question with relevant and supported ideas	• uses a wide vocabulary resource readily and flexibly to convey precise meaning • uses less common and idiomatic vocabulary skilfully, with occasional inaccuracies • uses paraphrase effectively as required	• uses a wide range of structures flexibly • produces a majority of error-free sentences with only very occasional inappropriacies or basic/non-systematic errors	• uses a wide range of pronunciation features • sustains flexible use of features, with only occasional lapses • is easy to understand throughout; L1 accent has minimal effect on intelligibility
7	• speaks at length without noticeable effort or loss of coherence • may demonstrate language-related hesitation at times, or some repetition and/or self-correction • uses a range of connectives and discourse	• presents and extends relevant main ideas although some ideas or points may not be fully developed	• uses vocabulary resource flexibly to discuss a variety of topics • uses some less common and idiomatic vocabulary and shows some awareness of style and collocation, with some inappropriate choices • uses paraphrase effectively	• uses a range of complex structures with some flexibility • frequently produces error-free sentences, though some grammatical mistakes persist	• shows all the positive features of Band 6 and some, but not all, of the positive features of Band 8

APPENDIX 5 Continued

	markers with some flexibility				
6	• is willing to speak at length, though may lose coherence at times due to occasional repetition, self-correction or hesitation • uses a range of connectives and discourse markers but not always appropriately	• presents relevant main ideas although conclusions may become unclear or repetitive	• has a wide enough vocabulary to discuss topics at length and make meaning clear in spite of inappropriacies • generally paraphrases successfully	• uses a mix of simple and complex structures, but with limited flexibility • may make frequent mistakes with complex structures, though these rarely cause comprehension problems	• uses a range of pronunciation features with mixed control • shows some effective use of features but this is not sustained • can generally be understood throughout, though mispronunciation of individual words or sounds reduces clarity at times
5	• usually maintains flow of speech but uses repetition, self-correction and/or slow speech to keep going • may over-use certain connectives and discourse markers • produces simple speech fluently, but more complex communication causes fluency problems	• presents some main ideas but these are not sufficiently developed	• manages to talk about familiar and unfamiliar topics but uses vocabulary with limited flexibility • attempts to use paraphrase but with mixed success	• produces basic sentence forms with reasonable accuracy • uses a limited range of more complex structures, but these usually contain errors and may cause some comprehension problems	• shows all the positive features of Band 4 and some, but not all, of the positive features of Band 6
4	• cannot respond without noticeable pauses and may speak slowly, with frequent repetition and self-correction • links basic sentences but with repetitious use of simple connectives	• presents a few ideas, which are largely repetitive and undeveloped	• is able to talk about familiar topics but can only convey basic meaning on unfamiliar topics and makes frequent errors in word choice • rarely attempts paraphrase	• produces basic sentence forms and some correct simple sentences but subordinate structures are rare • errors are frequent and may lead to misunderstanding	• uses a limited range of pronunciation features • attempts to control features but lapses are frequent • mispronunciations are frequent and cause some difficulty for the listener

APPENDIX 5 Continued

	and some breakdowns in coherence				
3	• speaks with long pauses • has limited ability to link simple sentences • gives only simple responses and is frequently unable to convey basic message	• may attempt to present a few ideas, but there is no content development	• uses simple vocabulary to convey personal information • has insufficient vocabulary for less familiar topics	• attempts basic sentence forms but with limited success, or relies on apparently memorised utterances • makes numerous errors except in memorised expressions	• shows some of the features of Band 2 and some, but not all, of the positive features of Band 4
2	• pauses lengthily before most words • little communication possible	• answer is completely unrelated to the task	• only produces isolated words or memorised utterances	• cannot produce basic sentence forms	• speech is often unintelligible
		1	• no communication possible • no rateable language		
		0	• does not attend		

APPENDIX 6: First Video Assignment

VIDEO ASSIGNMENT - 1

- 1) You are expected to record a video of yourself narrating the last movie/TV series that you have watched in English.
- 2) The length of your recording should not exceed 3 minutes.
- 3) You should shoot your video in only one shot without taking any breaks.
- 4) Any kind of memorisation or reading from a script will be subjected to the penalty of cheating which is a grade of zero on the entire assignment.



APPENDIX 7: Second Video Assignment

VIDEO ASSIGNMENT - 2

- 6) You are expected to record a video of yourself narrating **what you often do at the weekends with your friends**.
- 7) The length of your recording **should not** exceed 3 minutes.
- 8) You should shoot your video in only one shot without taking any breaks.
- 9) Any kind of memorisation or reading from a script will be subjected to the penalty of cheating which is a grade of zero on the entire assignment.



APPENDIX 8: Third Video Assignment

VIDEO ASSIGNMENT - 3

- 11) You are expected to record a video of yourself narrating your plans after you graduate from the university.
- 12) The length of your recording should not exceed 3 minutes.
- 13) You should shoot your video in only one shot without taking any breaks.
- 14) Any kind of memorisation or reading from a script will be subjected to the penalty of cheating which is a grade of zero on the entire assignment.

APPENDIX 9: Fourth Video Assignment

VIDEO ASSIGNMENT - 4

- 16) You are expected to record a video of yourself narrating your **last summer holiday**.
- 17) The length of your recording **should not** exceed 3 minutes.
- 18) You should shoot your video in only one shot without taking any breaks.
- 19) Any kind of memorisation or reading from a script will be subjected to the penalty of cheating which is a grade of zero on the entire assignment.



APPENDIX 10: Speech Excerpts over the Weeks

Week 1

Hello. Ms. Kıymaz...um...I...talk about what I do with my friends on the weekends. Before I start a I like to my friends.I'll expanding to meet my friends. Then we usually go to cafes restaurants and we usually eat buffalo cookies and cakes Etc. We usually drink iced tea and ummm...coke um bla bla bla...., and then we go to park. We take many things such as fast food....um... We usually go to cinema be like two films. Sometimes we watch TV at home. We go to...we go to the city center...give us an answer. I because the center is really beautiful and meet. We moreover, we go to rules because we like to animals, especially I liked animals such as cats.....um.. And next, we go to,... we do shopping....um...We try...um.. and many things for example, clothes, jewelry, and shoes hats, Etc. Um...Especially....especially....I like to try many things. I like to do shopping another, and let me think. We go to sleep. She's very beautiful and Meet. We take photos for example, beautiful photos and funny photos and just a second we go to mall mall, because mall is very beautiful. There are a lot of shops....Oops, one more,... therefore be go to in more and then we have a little fun together. It's over Miss. Kıymaz... have a good day.

Week 2

Hi, Ms. Kıymaz. I'm going to tell you about my favorite TV series..umhh....Before I start, I like to watch TV series,...mhhh..but I just like to watch Netflix TV series, because I don't like the Turkish ones.....You know..., first of all, my, all of my favorite, I mean, my favorite TV series is the hundred. The hundred is seven seasons, but I am in season six now. Umh....and my favorite TV, my favorite characters are Bill clerk and Okta Octavia. Actually, I liked them all and all the kind of season is the science fiction.Um, just a second.... There are a lot of different topics and there are a lot of amazing topics. And first of all, let me give you an example, eh, in 100, in the 100, uh,... in this space, people are sold to the world and many people try living in the world just the second. And they have very bad conditions. Therefore, many people die due to the bad conditions. Also men and more men have Wars happen in the TV, serious, how they were, the people don't give up. And another thing that I like about this TV series is that I am really impressed by the 100. Really?...um... If you haven't watched it yet, you should watch, I highly recommend it to you. The hundred is really brilliant and it is very, uh, excited, exciting. It is really beautiful. It is really great. And it is really splendid Ms. Kıymaz and that's all I can say, Have a good day.

Week 3

Hi, Ms. Kıymaz. I'm going to tell you about what I'm going to do after my graduation. So first of all, I really want to go with the Erasmus program. You know, I want to go abroad with AIESEC and...maybe after the Erasmus plus progra. Uh, I'm gonna follow a master's degree and maybe I can study at another university for my master's degree. And you know, I want to improve myself a lot. Uh, therefore I want to learn many languages such as Italian, French, English, et cetera, you know, and maybe I can work while I study, but you know, this generation, I mean, working while studying can be difficult. Uh, I don't like those difficult situations, but some people also don't like them, but I want to achieve those kinds of difficult situations, you know, difficult situations and conditions. Yeah, just the second. And other than that, I want to buy a home, you know, and I want to live alone and I want to organize my, I want to organize and decorate my home in a peaceful and beautiful manner. And other than that, I wanna take a motorcycle tour, eh, just a second. And I want to visit different places, you know, and I want to go to the Seasides like Italy, France, Spain, et cetera. And I want to travel many places with my friends. Of course. And that's all I can say, Ms. Kıymaz, have a good night. Thanks for listening to me.

Week 4

Hi, Ms. Kıymaz. Today, I'm going to tell you about what I did on last summer vacation. So, first of all, and last summer, I didn't go to a place because there was a worldwide pandemic because of coronavirus. And I used to work at a cafe and all last summer, almost every day, I worked at a cafe, but I used to feel good. You know, then I was rude while I was working. Of course I visited many places. Eh, for example, with my friends, we have visited many places. We went to cafes, we went to restaurants, *the vendor*, *Duran*, the shops and malls. So on and so forth, parks museums. Blah-blah-blah.... also, we went to many places with my family and we went with my family. We went to visit my parents. I mean, grandparents, but, you know, I don't like to visit my grandparents and everybody knows that, you know, and just a second and other things that I, well, sorry. And other things that I did in the last summer, I went to Seferihisar, uh, about a few days, you know? And in addition, I went to Düzce, of course, and I have visited my school, my university. And unfortunately I didn't go anywhere else. Um, last summer. And I'd like to go to Trabzon because my hometown is Trabzon, you know? And I have been to Trabzon only. Then I was a little child and that's all I can say, Ms. Kıymaz, have a good night. Thanks for listening to me.

APPENDIX 11: Focus Group Interview Questions

1. Video dönütlerle ilgili en beğendiğiniz nokta(lar) ne(ler)dir?
2. Video dönütlerle ilgili en beğenmediğiniz nokta(lar) ne(ler)dir?
3. Video dönütlerin İngilizce konuşma dersi kapsamında verilen ödevlerinizi düzeltmenize katkı sağladığını düşünüyor musunuz? Neden?
4. Video dönütlerin İngilizce konuşma becerilerinize katkı sağladığını düşünüyor musunuz? Neden?
5. Uzaktan eğitimin olduğu durumlarda, İngilizce derslerinde öğrenci-öğretici etkileşimini sağlamak açısından sizce hangi formattaki dönüt diğerinden daha etkili olur? Niçin?
6. Gelecekteki İngilizce derslerinizde hangi formatta dönüt almayı tercih edersiniz? Neden?
7. Video dönüt uygulamasının daha etkili olabilmesi için vermek istediğiniz öneriler var mıdır? Açıklayınız.
8. Video dönüt uygulamasıyla ilgili eklemek istediğiniz başka hususlar var mıdır? Açıklayınız.

APPENDIX 12: Author Consent for the Rating Scale

Merhaba Merve Hocam,

Bu ne güzel bir mesaj! Çok teşekkür ederim güzel yorumlarınız ve ditekleriniz için.

"Examining the Effectiveness of Digital Video Recordings on Oral Performance of EFL Learners" adlı çalışmamda adapte ettiğim Public Version of IELTS Speaking Scale'ini kendi tez çalışmanızda kullanmanız benim için uygundur. Referans verirken benim çalışmam ile beraber orijinal kaynağın da referansını vermeyi lütfen unutmayın.

Çalışmanız ile ilgili yardım edebileceğim başka bir konu olursa benimle yine iletişime geçebilirsiniz. Cep telefonumdan kontrol edebildiğim e-posta adresi

Tezinizde ve diğer akademik çalışmalarınızda bol şans dilerim.

Yazarmın Adı : Merve Hocam

Yazarmın Adı : Merve Hocam

National Education Expert
Republic of Turkey Ministry of National Education
Board of Education
Foreign Language Education Research and Development Center

APPENDIX 13: Author Consent for the Focus Group Interviews



Mehmet Fatih Yiğit

Alıcı: ben ▼

8 Mart Pzt 22:26 (10 gün önce)



Sayın hocam merhaba. Tez çalışmamla ilgili güzel düşünceleriniz için öncelikle teşekkür ederim. İsteddiğiniz formları elbette kullanabilirsiniz. Umarım güzel bir çalışma süreci geçirirsiniz ve bunda benim de bir faydam olursa bu beni mutlu eder.

Saygılarımla, kolaylıklar.

