

Effects of Strategy-Based Instruction on Listening Proficiency, Strategy
Use and Some Affective States of EFL Learners at Samara University

By

Kebede Bezabih Kibret

Addis Ababa University

School of Graduate Studies

Department of English

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By

Kebede Bezabih Kibret

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Declaration

I, the undersigned, declare that this thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university, and that all sources of materials used for the thesis have been duly acknowledged.

Name

Kebede Bezabih Libret

Signature

Place

Department of English
Addis Ababa University

Date of Submission

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Abstract

The object of this thesis was to investigate the effects of a strategy-based listening instruction (SBI) model on the listening proficiency, strategies usage, motivation, anxiety and beliefs of the EFL learners at Samara University. A pre-post quasi-experimental research design was adopted with 39 first-year undergraduate Biology major students in the experimental group (EG) and 40 in the control group (CG). Learners in the EG were taught a combination of listening skills and listening strategies through the SBI model for 12 weeks starting from the first of October to the end of February. Learners in the CG were taught only listening skills through the traditional teaching method.

The study used a combination of quantitative and qualitative approach, while prioritizing the former. The quantitative data were collected by using three instruments: a listening proficiency test, a listening strategy use questionnaire and an affective side of listening comprehension questionnaire. Whereas, the qualitative data were collected by using group discussion, learner diary and open ended questions. While the qualitative data were analyzed verbatim, All the pre-post quantitative data were analyzed with descriptive and inferential (parametric t-tests) statistics. Effect sizes were calculated to see the relative magnitudes of the treatment conditions implemented in the two classes.

In order to answer the first, second and third research questions, all the pre/post data were analyzed with descriptive and inferential (parametric t-tests) statistics. The results showed significant positive changes in the learners' listening abilities, strategies, motivation and anxiety after treatment. However, there was no significant difference in the two groups' post mean scores on the memory strategy category and the belief scales.

The results obtained from the qualitative data showed positive changes in listening abilities, strategies use, motivation, anxiety and beliefs of learners in the EG. Comments made by many learners in the group discussion, in the diary entries and in the open ended questions indicated that they enjoyed learning listening skill through the SBI model since it helped them aware and use of various listening strategies necessary for developing their listening abilities and decreasing their anxiety levels. Based on the findings, pedagogical implications for EFL learners, teachers/instructors, curriculum planners and ELT text writers are made. Directions for future research are also provided.

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List of Acronyms and Abbreviations

AAU:	Addis Ababa University
ASLCQ:	Affective Sides of Listening Comprehension Questionnaire
BALLI:	Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory
CALLA:	Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach
CG:	Control Group
CLT:	Communicative Language Teaching
EFL:	English as a Foreign Language
EG:	Experimental Group
ELT:	English Language Teaching
ESL:	English as a Second Language
FL:	Foreign Language
FLCAS:	Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale
FLLCAS:	Foreign Language Listening Classroom Anxiety Scale,
IDs:	Individual Differences
IELTS:	International English Language Testing System
LC:	Listening comprehension
LLS:	Language Learning Strategy
LLSs:	Language Learning Strategies
L1:	First Language
L2:	Second Language
MALQ:	Metacognitive Awareness listening Questioner
MOE:	Ministry Of Education
MMsR:	Mixed Methods Research
SBI:	Strategy-Based Instruction
SD:	Standard Deviation
SILL:	Strategy Inventory for Language Learning
SLA:	Second Language Acquisition
TL:	Target Language
TEFL:	Teaching English as a Foreign Language

Chapter One: Introduction

This introductory chapter first presents the general introduction of the study. It then explains the background, the problem statement, the research objective, the research questions, the research site, the significance, operational definitions, the scope and conceptual framework of the study. The last section outlines the reminding chapters.

1.1 General Introduction

The goal of learning a language is to develop learner's ability to use the target language (TL). By extension, the goal of learning English a second or foreign language (ESL/EFL) is to enhance learners' communication skills. Success in the current business, education, research and other fields depends largely on the good command of English. Ethiopian students learn English starting from primary to tertiary level to improve their communication skills. It is noteworthy that most human communication takes place using aural/oral (listening and speaking) as well as written (reading and writing) mediums.

In terms of use, however, listening is the most frequently used skill in academic and real-life areas. It is also a crucial skill in higher education classes where instruction is dominated by lecture methods (Feyten, 1991). These statements support the claim that “listening competence is universally larger than speaking competence” (Brown, 2001:247). But material designers and teachers have given little attention to the listening comprehension (LC) lessons in Ethiopia (Alemu, 2004; Mekasha, 2005; Girma, 2005).

Documents show that listening holds the least credit hours compared with other skills in the curriculum of English Language and Literature at Samara University. Experience also showed that the methods used in most English classes focused more on grammar, vocabulary and reading than listening skill. This skill was rarely taught in most English classes at Samara University. It is assumed, however, that if learners are not taught a variety of LC activities using effective teaching methods, their listening abilities might remain poor. The question is thus how to help learners increase their listening abilities

Learning strategy-based instruction (SBI) is considered one of the best ways to help learners solve many learning problems and thereby develop their abilities in all basic skills and other components (Oxford, 1990). However, little research has examined whether SBI makes LC

lessons easier, faster, more enjoyable and more effective for EFL learners. Hence, many scholars (e.g., Hassen et al., 2005; Field, 2008; Rost; 2011) call for more classroom-based intervention to examine EFL learners' strategies use, LC abilities and major affective factors that may hinder the learning processes and outcomes of listening skills. This study took place in the EFL context at Samara University to examine learners' LC abilities or proficiencies, strategies use and certain affective factors.

The main reasons for focusing on listening skill were that it (a) is the most often used skill in our daily communication; (b) is vital to attend academic courses offered in the class; (c) has been a neglected skill in the classrooms, (d) had received little attention in research and thus the least understood skill in the FL contexts. It was thus hoped that the study would fill the missing gap in the literature of second and foreign listening skill.

1.1.1 Background of the Study

Learning English as SL/FL has become the most important business for the current society. English has also become a necessary window to the world of research and store of information. Crystal (2003) explains that 50% of international organizations make use of English; at least 85% of the world film, 90% of published academic articles and 85% of the electronically-stored information in the world are written in English. Similarly, Cook (2008:200) reports that "English is a requirement for scientific writing and reading ... 86 per cent of research papers in biology are written in English and 97 per cent of those on cross-cultural psychology". These data indicate that learning English is not a choice but a must to access to the knowledge and information needed for development.

English was introduced in the Ethiopian education system during the period of Menilik which lasted over 100 years now (Heugh et al., 2007). Since then, English has been used in education, media and other areas. It has also been taught as a compulsory subject starting from primary to university classes. Moreover, English is used as a medium of instruction starting from secondary to university classes. It is thus assumed that learners' exposure to English as a subject and as a medium of instruction enables them to communicate in academic settings, at work place and in the society whenever English is necessary. But studies done before the 1990s show that the students' English ability had been poor (Stoddart, 1986 as cited in Heugh et al., 2007; Tekeste, 1990).

Quoting Stoddart (1986), Heugh et al. (2007:53) write that “students do not possess sufficient English even to understand what they hear from their teachers or read in their textbooks, let alone to participate actively through their own speaking and writing”. Major factors contributing to learners' poor English skills in previous curricula had been the grammar-based, exam-led instruction, inappropriate teaching materials and so on (Kifle, 1990; Berhanu, 1999; Awel, 1999). All the above indicate that English language teaching (ELT) before and during the Derg periods had different shortcomings.

When the ‘Derg’ government ended in 1991, the Ethiopian People’s Revolutionary Democratic Front formed a new Ministry of Education (MOE). The MOE has taken several steps to develop learners’ communication skills in English. Some of the steps taken by the MOE were (a) the preparation of new curriculum for English along with teaching materials more or less in line with the principles of CLT approaches, (b) the provision of awareness-raising seminars to teachers in line with the CLT approaches and (c) the implementation of CLT approaches in English classes in the country. However, there has been a significant change in the aims of ELT in Ethiopia until these days.

Many studies done since the 1994 have shown that most of the students had poor abilities in English (Berhanu, 1999; Awel, 1999; Alemu, 2004; Haregewoin, 2008). For example, Haregewoin (2003:3) says that “when most Ethiopian students come to colleges and universities, their abilities to listen to lectures and take meaningful notes seem to be inadequate”. A teacher at Samara University reported that “almost all of my students are unable to understand even short and clear instructions I often tell them to do certain activities in English classes” (May 29, 2014). Similarly, this researcher’s experience has shown that many students at Samara University had low listening abilities in English.

1.1.2 Statement of the Problem

A number of factors contribute to learners’ low listening abilities in English. Some of the most common ones are the use of (1) traditional teaching methods, (2) inappropriate teaching materials, (3) shortage of teaching time, (5) lack of learners’ motivation towards learning listening skill (6) difficulty of learning listening skill, (7) wrong beliefs about the teachability/learnability of listening skill and (8) many other individual difference variables. Experience also shows that many students at Samara University did not have the habit of

practicing listening activities. Hence, the majority failed to attend lessons delivered through lecture methods and to respond oral questions.

Research shows that the SBI model is one of the best ways to help learners solve many problems inherent in L2 learning and to enhance their listening skills (Goh, 2008). Effective SBI can have positive effects on learners' motivation, anxiety and beliefs (Oxford, 1990; Young, 1999). Researchers have proposed two major SBI models. One of these is the direct training model which involves an explanation, modeling, practice, and transfer of strategies to other learning tasks. The other is integrated model which focuses on applying strategies into every day regular lessons (Oxford & Crookall, 1989).

However, little research has examined the effects of SBI on the learners' strategies use and L2 proficiency. Besides, most previous studies were done in the Western society where the context is different from other contexts; therefore, the results may not be applied to EFL contexts (Lessard-Clouston, 1997). That is why Stern (1983:412) has already called for more studies "in different social contexts, under different language learning conditions, at different age levels and at different levels of proficiency". But little experimental research has been done to examine the effects of SBI on EFL learners' strategies use and LC abilities, meaning that "strategy instruction in the skill of listening is still very much in its infancy" (Macaro et al., 2007:182).

Some local studies (e.g., Gebremedihin, 1993; Birhanu, 1993; Girma, 1994) have begun to explore the Ethiopian learners' awareness of learning strategies since the early 1990s. Findings of these studies showed that most of their participant students had deficiency in strategies use for learning English and recommended strategy training to help EFL learners improve their abilities in English language skills. The above-mentioned local and abroad researchers have also call for more empirical studies into the effects of SBI programs on EFL learners' strategies use, English proficiency and other variables associated with language learning and learning strategies. This provides a good justification for the current researcher to conduct this study on listening strategies.

This study is quite similar to many other previous studies in terms of the research framework and procedures used to examine the different variables. But it differs from the previous studies in several aspects. This study (a) focused on learners' LC abilities, strategies use and some affective factors associated with learning LC simultaneously; (b) targeted to the EFL listening which is the

most neglected skill in research and instruction; (c) employed a long-term SBI model which is scarce in the previous research and (d) used a mixed methods research that many of the previous studies in these areas lacked.

1.1.3 Objectives of the Study

The next sections provide the main and specific objectives of the study

1.1.3.1 Main Objective

The main objective of this study was to examine whether a 12-week SBI program would enhance the listening comprehension abilities of EFL learners at Samara University.

1.1.3.2 Specific Objectives

The specific objectives of the study were to:

1. Investigate whether strategy instruction improves EFL learners' listening proficiency;
2. Examine whether strategy instruction increases learners' use of listening strategies;
3. Investigate if strategy instruction enhances learners' affects in learning listening skill;
4. Explore learners' views about the uses of learning listening skill through SBI model.

1.1.4 Research Questions

To achieve the research objectives, the following research questions were designed:

1. Is there a statistically significant difference in the post mean scores of the EG and that of the CG on the listening proficiency test?
2. Is there a statistically significant difference in the post mean scores of the EG and that of the CG on the listening strategies use questionnaire?
3. Is there a statistically significant difference in the post mean scores of the EG and that of the CG on the affective sides of listening comprehension questionnaire?
4. What are learners' views about the benefits of learning listening skills using SBI? 5.

1.1.5 Significance of the Study

Findings of the study may provide the following theoretical and practical significances:

1. Results of the study may provide its readers with some useful information about the values of SBI so that they can support or reject the claim that this approach can make language learning more effective, easier, faster, and more enjoyable, or more motivating.
2. Research on the effects of the SBI models into EFL listening proficiency is scarce in the literature. This study may add some theoretical knowledge to this area.
3. Teachers and/or instructors may also use information inferred from the study as a springboard to further examine the effects of the SBI models on other skills in English.
4. Since Samara University is a newly established higher learning institution, no research has yet been done on listening skill. Thus, interested researchers may use the result of the study as a guidance and source of information for their future academic research work.
5. Finally, the results may provide some information to the MOE so that they may use the insights obtained from the study to train the pre- or in-service English teachers.

1.1.6 Scope of the Study

This study has the following three major delimitation areas.

The first delimitation relates to the choice of participants for the study. Participants of the study were first year regular students enrolled at Samara University. Since the study set out to examine the effects of SBI program on learners' listening abilities, strategies use and certain affective factors, only first year students from one university participated in the study. This might reduce the amount of generalization and conclusive evidence.

The second scope area lies in the choice of a single skill in English. As noted earlier, most of the first year students had poor abilities in listening, speaking, reading and writing skills. However, it could be impractical to investigate all these skills in a single study. This study focused only on listening skill since it has received the least attention by researchers. Thus, findings may not provide sufficient evidence for other skills.

Finally, the third scope area relates to the choice of specific variables. Learning strategy and LC involve a range of complex variables. This study focused on learners' strategies use, listening abilities and certain affective factors associated with LC. Thus, results may not provide conclusive evidence for variables other than the aforementioned ones.

1.1.7 Definition of Key Terms and Acronyms

Research on learning strategy uses many technical terms which may convey different meanings for different people. Thus, definitions of key terms were presented as follow:

1. Listening comprehension (LC) in this study regards listeners' ability to listen to oral texts such as live speech, recorded materials or both, and extract information from these resources to complete listening activities during the pre-, while- and post-listening stages.
2. Language learning strategy in this study refers to the conscious behaviors or thought processes performing learning actions, whether they are observable or unobservable process that learners reported using to enhance their listening proficiency in English.
3. Strategy-based instruction (SBI) or training refers to an approach to raising learners' awareness of listening strategies and providing them with systematic practice, reinforcement and monitoring of their strategy use in learning listening lessons.
4. Listening strategies here refer to the steps, actions or procedures that are used by learners to (a) grasp or understand the main and specific ideas of listening texts (b) improve their LC abilities successfully and confidently, with little effort and short time as well as in a relaxed mood during and/or after listening to spoken English.
5. Listening proficiency in this study refers to the learners' scores on the IELTS tests before and after the study. IELTS stand for the 'International English Language Testing System' which is designed to measure the proficiency of non-English speaking students.
6. Affective factors in this study refer to learners' emotional or psychological states such as motivation, anxiety and beliefs. Motivation deals with: (a) how much learners in the EG are interested in the SBI processes and LC activities, (b) how long they are doing various LC tasks and (c) how good they are in using strategies to improve their LC performances or abilities. The term 'anxiety' refers to learners' feeling of tension, nervousness and worry about performing LC activities in the classrooms and 'beliefs' refers to learners' judgments, motivation, perceptions and attitudes towards the ease or difficulty of learning listening skills, the teachability or learnability of listening skills, the importance of learning listening skills and the benefits of SBI for developing LC abilities.

1.1.8 Theoretical Frameworks of the Study

Research is often conducted within a theoretical framework. Chamot et al. (1996:176) note that a "theoretical model in SLA is important as a base for explaining how a language is learned and how SL/FL can best be taught". Since the 1950s, cognitive psychologists, applied linguists and others have proposed many different theories for instruction purpose (Celce-Murcia, 1991). Behaviorist theory, cognitive theory, constructivist theory, CLT approaches and socio-cultural theory are to name only a few, which have been developed and used over the past decades.

Nevertheless, cognitive theorists stress that any complete theory of human cognition must include an analysis of the strategies learners use for thinking, remembering, understanding and producing language (Williams & Burden, 1997). Information processing model helps "better understand the mental processes involved in learning by analyzing constructs such as attention, perception and memory" (Usó-Juan & Martínez-Flor, 2006:9). This study used the information processing model cognitive theory as one of the theoretical frameworks. The rationale for the choice is presented below.

1.1.8.1 Information Processing Model of Cognitive Theory

The main reason for using cognitive theory was that most of the L2 learning processes are situated in this theory (Anderson, 2010; Rost, 2011). This theory considers human learning as a course of information processing which involves human being's limited capacity and the multistory of memory categories, namely short-term and long-term memory (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Anderson, 2005; Imhof, 2010). O'Malley & Chamot (1990:217) state that "Learning is an active and dynamic process in which individuals make use various information processing models". Learners can develop listening skills using declarative and procedural knowledge stored in their minds (Rost, 2011).

Declarative knowledge refers to any "information that consists of consciously known facts, concepts or ideas that can be stored as propositions. For example, an account of the tense system in English can be presented as a set of statements, rules, or facts, i.e. it can be learned as declarative knowledge" (Richards & Schmidt, 2010:156). Procedural knowledge deals with what learners know how to do something or how to solve learning problems using different

techniques. From the above angle, cognitive theory can be a useful theoretical framework of this study.

However, cognitive theory gives more attention to the internal processes than to the external factors and thus insufficient for research and instruction purposes. Brown (2000) argues that if researchers were to devise theories on SLA or teaching methods that are based only on cognitive processes, they would be omitting the most fundamental side of human external factors. Hence, the current study used learning strategy theory as a framework to compensate the missing elements in the cognitive theory.

1.1.8.2 Language Learning Strategy Theory and Research

The rationale for using learning strategy research as a theoretical framework was based on the claim that learning strategies are teachable and strategy instruction helps learners use a variety of strategies and improve their proficiency in the TL (Oxford, 1990; Cohen, 2001; Chamot, 2004). Language skills and strategies share conceptual commonalities (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Ellis (1994:712) notes that “They [strategies] are also used to refer to how they [learners] develop specific skills. It is possible, therefore, to talk of both ‘learning strategies’ and ‘skill-learning strategies’”. Learning strategies are made up of various invaluable activities drawing from different theories/approaches.

Some of the most common theories/approaches building learning strategy are schema theory (Young, 1999), social interactionist theory and humanistic approach (Williams & Burden, 1997), cognitive theory (Chamot & O'Malley, 1990), behaviorist theory (Griffiths & Parr, 2001) and CLT approaches (Richards, 2006). Success in an L2 is the cumulative effects of the (1) language aspects (basic skills and knowledge), (2) cognitive skills (mental activities), (3) affective factors (emotion and motivation), (4) social interaction (cooperating with others), (4) schema theory (activating background knowledge) and (5) CLT approaches (enhancing real-life communication). Each of these theories can contribute valuable insights into the teaching and learning of listening skills.

The general learning strategies involve various specific strategies and each has different functions in L2 learning process (MacIntyre & Noels, 1996). Cognitive, metacognitive, compensation and social strategies help develop L2 proficiency (Oxford, 1990). Learning

strategies are seen worthy of teaching and possibly teachable (Chamot, 2004); this might hold true for listening strategies. However, learning listening is a challenging task which may lead learners to be passive, unmotivated and anxious (Goh, 2008). These problems can be overcome by training learners with learning strategies. However, little research has examined the benefits of "learning strategies to other ID factors, most notably to motivation" (Dornyei, 2005:172).

Oxford et al. (1990) suggest researchers/teachers to include affective states such as motivation, beliefs, anxiety attitudes whenever they implement SBI programs in the learners' regular classroom lessons and examine the effects of the trainings on these variables. Hence, specific listening strategies were selected from Oxford's (1990) six strategy categories since it is the most comprehensive taxonomy to date. It is worth noting that this study used a quasi-experimental research design involving the pre/post data collection procedure. Details of the research design are described in chapter Four.

1.1.9 Organization of the Whole Study

The remainder of the study is organized into eight chapters. Chapter two and three will provide the reviews of literature on ESL/EFL listening skill and language learning strategies respectively. Chapter four describes the research design and methodology of the study. Chapter five deals with the pilot study. Chapter six explains the instructional materials, the treatment conditions, the data collection procedures, data validation techniques and other issues related to the main study. Chapter seven focuses on analyzing the data gathered in chapter six. The last chapter discusses findings of the study in line with the research questions, and presents the implications, limitations, recommendations and conclusion of the study. The next chapter deals with the review of literature on the ESL/EFL listening comprehension or skill.

Chapter Two: Review of Literature on ESL/EFL Listening Skills

Review of the literature is a precondition for doing empirical research. It helps synthesize and criticize previous research so that it can show the necessity of a proposed research (Creswell, 2009). In order to advance the collective knowledge of the present research topic, the researcher had to understand the strengths, weaknesses and meaning of existing literature in the field. The review of relevant literature included the definition of listening skill, models of listening comprehension, roles of listening, difficulty of listening skills, methods of teaching listening, affective sides of listening skill and chapter summary.

2.1 Definition of Listening Skill/Comprehension

Research on listening began in the 1920s when some scholars found listening to be the most frequently used skill in human communication (Wolvin, 2010). Feyten (1991:3) states that the "groundwork for the recognition of listening as a field of inquiry has been laid primarily in the late 1940s by the pioneering works of the 'fathers of listening', Brown, Nichols, and Weaver". The aforementioned and some other scholars began to recognize the importance of listening skill for academic and daily communication purposes. Since the 1970s, "there has been a steady increase in attention to the role of listening in language learning theory and pedagogy" (Morley, 1984:13). Scholars in cognitive theory, applied linguistics, communication theory and SLA areas have studied various features and processes of listening skills (Feyten, 1991; Field, 2008).

By looking at the definitions proposed by various L2 scholars, Rost (2011:1-2) mentions many definitions including: "Listening means catching what the speaker said. Listening is to get the speaker's ideas. Listening is decoding the speaker's messages. Listening means unpacking the speaker's content. Listening is harvesting what is in the speaker's mind". These definitions led Rost to conclude that although LC is recognized an essential part of L2 communication and a necessary part of acquiring an L2; it lacks a sound conceptualization in the SLA field.

Likewise, Cubilo & Winke (2013:372) note that "researchers have never agreed how the construct of L2 listening should be defined". Even some recent teachers including this researcher used to define listening as hearing sounds by assuming that the two terms are the same things. In the case above, Rost (2011) notes that a lot of people think that terms listening and hearing have the same meaning and can be interchangeable but people can hear something without thinking

about that and with thinking and understanding of information. But LC needs listeners not only to pay attention to the speaker's words or accents but also the intended messages and body language (e.g., gestures and facial expressions) simultaneously indicating that listening is more than simply hearing sounds (Brown, 1990). Whereas hearing is a unidirectional process of receiving audible sounds in a passive way. Rost (2011) explains hearing as

the primary physiological system that allows for reception and conversion of sound waves. The normal threshold for human hearing is about 20 micropascals - equivalent to the sound of a mosquito flying about 3 m away from the ear. These converted electrical pulses are transmitted from the outer ear through the inner ear to the auditory cortex of the brain. While hearing provides a basis for listening, it is only a precursor for it (11-12).

Hearing is a rapid, automatic, effortless physiological process of receiving sounds through the ear and the sound waves strike the ear drum and cause vibrations that are transmitted to the brain (Brown, 2001). But listening is :an intentional and controlled process which requires attentional capacity, expends energy, depletes self-regulatory strength and requires information processing across several modalities" (Imhof, 2010:98). Listening involves three basic stages: hearing, interpreting and constructing meanings based on physiological, psychological, contextual and other factors (Rost, 2011).

Anderson & Lynch (1988:11) mention "traditional and alternative views" about listening and listeners. The traditional view sees a listener as a tape-recorder who takes in and stores data in the same way as a tape-recorder but does not interpret and use the stored data. A listener as an active 'mental model' takes aural inputs, coherently interprets and combine new information with the prior knowledge to reach full comprehension of what had been heard. A listener as a 'mental model' emphasizes active interpretation and integration of the new with the prior knowledge. Many of the current definitions are based on the listener as a 'model builder'. For example, Rubin (1995:7) defines listening as "an active process in which listeners select and interpret information which comes from auditory and visual cues in order to define what is going on and what the speakers are trying to express". LC is also viewed as an interaction between the decoded language and the listener's prior knowledge (Lund, 1991). Vandergrift (1999) LC as:

anything but a passive activity. It is a complex, active process in which the listener must discriminate between sounds, understand vocabulary and grammatical structures, interpret stress and intonation, retain what was gathered in all of the above, and interpret it within the immediate as well as the larger socio-cultural

context of the utterance. Coordinating all of this involves a great deal of mental activity on the part of the listener (168).

Similarly, Buck (2001) describes listening as an active process in which listeners construct meanings based on their purpose for listening, attend to and process aural and relevant visual input, automatically in real time so as to understand what is stated and implied in the input. Rost (2005:503) also defines listening as “a complex cognitive process that involves receptive, constructive and interpretive aspects of cognition which are utilized in both L1 and L2 listening”. Most of the terms used in these definitions indicate that listening is not a passive but an active, complex cognitive process.

2.2 Cognitive Theory and Language Learning

It is known that learning is more of a function of a cognitive process in which learners are actively involved in constructing meanings throughout the learning process. Cognitive theory assumes that language learning involves active mental processes, rather than mere habit formation (Celce-Murcia, 1991). The theory focuses on internal processes since learning happens inside people’s heads and is the product of processing input and output (Ellis, 2003). It deals with accessing mental processes that were seen as "inaccessible to proper scientific investigation" by behaviorists (Williams & Burden, 1997:8). Unlike the behaviorists’ theory, cognitive theories view L2 learning as the acquisition of a complex cognitive skill, to learn a language is to learn a skill (Ellis, 1994).

Information processing is a core concept in cognitive theory as it describes how information is processed in human memory (Williams & Burden, 1997). Most psychologists view learning as "an active and dynamic process in which individuals use a variety of information and strategic modes of processing" (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990:217). Language learning processes are "mental activities related to comprehending and storing input in working memory or long-term memory for later retrieval" (Buck, 2001:104). Cognitive theory emphasizes values of informing learners the basic aspects of learning to help them build up their strategies (Williams & Burden, 1997).

Researchers claim that cognition and metacognition are essential for learning things (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). While cognition deals entirely with the act of knowing, metacognition entails thinking about thinking, or “an awareness of one's thought processes that evaluate the effectiveness of choices made in the present as well as the long range outcomes” (Curwen et al.,

2010:128). Flavell (1979) defines metacognition as people's understanding of the different factors (both internal and external) act and interact to affect the course, learning outcomes and cognition. The prefix 'Meta' means 'above' or 'beyond', so "'metacognitive' is used in information processing to indicate an 'executive' function, strategies that involve planning for learning, thinking about the learning process as it is taking place, ..." (Tavakoli, 2012:208).

It is noteworthy that the term 'metacognition' is not a single entity but an umbrella term covering different constructs such as metacognitive knowledge, prior experience, belief, affect and cognition. Each of these constructs, in turn, holds different specific constructs and each interacts during the learning process (Wenden, 1998). For example, metacognitive knowledge alone has three specific constructs: person, task and strategic knowledge (Flavell, 1979). Metacognition also interacts with other constructs like personality, affect and cognition. Williams & Burden (1997) explain the interrelationship of metacognition, affect and cognition as:

Metacognition...includes not only a knowledge of mental processes, as these are necessarily linked to and affected by emotions and feelings. It must also encompass a knowledge of factors relating to the self, and the way in which these affect the use of cognitive processes. Thus, an awareness of one's personality, feelings, motivation, attitudes and learning style at any particular moment would be included within a concept of metacognitive awareness (155).

It is noteworthy that the term 'metacognitive knowledge' is also named as 'metacognitive strategy' which means once knowledge about how language is learned and about the learning process. With regard to the importance of metacognition for learning processes and achievements, "Recent research suggests that the further development of cognitive to metacognitive thinking enhances both retention and comprehension for the learner, and that the ability to think metacognitively is the critical distinction between low and high achieving students" (Curwen et al., 2010:128-9). Similarly, many L2 scholars have advocated using metacognition to teach learners the TL (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012).

Learners' metacognitive knowledge about listening can be developed in several ways. One method that is easy for both teachers and learners is a listening diary (Goh, 1997). Diaries can direct learners' reflections on specific listening events so that they can evaluate their performance and take positive steps to improve their listening skills. Teachers can also plan process-oriented activities as part of their listening lessons (Vandergrift, 2002). In short, development in cognitive and metacognitive theories has helped researchers and teachers

approach LC using information processing model. This model has also led researchers to study LC within the three cognitive processing phases.

2.3 Three-Phase of Listening Process in Cognitive Theory

Listening is a process of understanding oral/visual inputs through perception, parsing and utilization routes. Major concepts of each cognitive process are described below.

Perceptual Process. This is the first phase of listening which listeners "encode incoming speech" by (1) attending to the text over against to the exclusion other sounds in the environment; (2) noting similarities, pauses and acoustic emphases in the sound stream relevant to a particular language; and then (3) grouping these according to the categories of the identified language" (Vandergrift, 2011:454). Listeners attend to these speech sounds for retaining them in short-term memory. The term short-term memory refers to a part of the memory where information which is received is stored for short periods of time while it is being analyzed and interpreted (Call, 1985).

Short-term memory has a limited capacity; it can only retain information for about seven or so seconds; the "memory span for target language input is shorter than for native language input" (Call, 1985:769). This limitation "prevents specific word sequences from being retained longer than a few seconds, as new information to which the person replaces the old one in short-term memory"(O'Malley & Chamot, 1990:34). That is why we quickly forget information we hear. But Vandergrift & Goh (2012:41) suggest that "L2 listeners make more rapid progress once they overcome the natural compulsion to listen using the sound categories of their L1 and when they acquire greater phonological knowledge of the sounds in their L2". The perceptual process of listening becomes automatic with practice (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

Parsing Process. Parsing is the second phase of listening comprehension which establishes the relationship between the meaning of individual words and the meaning of whole utterances during listening (Buck, 2001). Vandergrift & Goh, 2012:42) note that "the product of parsing is typically monitored in the conceptualizer for congruency with the listener's prior knowledge stored in long-term memory and/or current understanding of the whole text". The parsing process important for reorganizing the messages derived from the meaningful words that could be stored in short-term memory.

Utilization. This is the third phase of listening process which involves creating a mental representation of what is retained by the perception and parsing processes and linking this to existing knowledge stored in long-term memory (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). In this phase, the listener's prior knowledge interacts with textual information to enhance his/her understanding of meanings (Goh, 2000). It should be noted that these three cognitive processes take place in a recursive manner "in that uninterrupted shifts may occur from one process to the next and then back to the previous process, and they overlap with and are consistent with listening comprehension processes" (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990:34).

Each cognitive process contributes to the larger knowledge construction and language acquisition. This has led researchers to conduct studies on listening skill within the three processing phases (perception, parsing and utilization). Goh (2000) identifies several problems which effective and ineffective listeners face during the perception, parsing and utilization phases. Data were elicited using diaries, group interviews and immediate retrospective verbalizations. Results revealed that both better and weaker listeners faced difficulties in the perceptual and parsing stages. Based on these findings, Goh suggests that activating these stages can help listeners analyze what they hear and interpret it using their linguistic and background knowledge and thereby increase their listening abilities. Some of the useful ways to activate ESL/EFL learners' cognitive and metacognitive processes are bottom-up, top-down and interactive models, which are described below.

2.4 Three Basic Models of Listening Comprehension

The bottom-up, top-down and interactive models are respectively explained below.

2.4.1 Bottom-Up Listening Processing Model

The bottom-up model of listening comprehension is viewed as a text-driven decoding process. Peterson (1991:88) defines this model as a unidirectional, lower level process "triggered by the sounds, words, and phrases which the listener hears as he or she attempts to decode speech and assign meaning". It is considered to be heavily data-driven and dominated by the use of local strategies such as identifying word meanings, sentence structure and the correspondence of letters and pronunciation (Hinkel, 2006). Listening begins with the received data that is analyzed as successive levels of organization (Richards, 2008). Listening involves bottom-up processing

as meaning is derived from comprehension of the sum of all sounds, syllables, words and phrases (Nunan, 2002).

Hinkel (2006) points out that listening is a process, in which learners have to recognize words, and understand, connect and evaluate ideas. The process is used when practicing minimal pairs, pronunciation, listening for specific details, recognizing cognates and word-order pattern (Anderson, 2010). However, even when learners report having no difficulty understanding both the words and sentence structures of a given text, they often still have trouble reaching a satisfactory interpretation of the text (Underwood, 1989). Rost (2005:503) states that "listening involves bottom-up processing, in which the listener attends to data in the incoming speech signals as well as top-down processing model". The implication is that both models are vital to learn listening skills effectively.

2.4.2 Top-Down Listening Processing Model

Top-down models take the opposite position and have become popular because of the rise of the importance of the learner in SLA research. This is a higher order process involving topic-related knowledge, cultural, linguistic and world knowledge. Peterson (1991:88) defines the top-down model as a higher processing level "driven by listeners' expectations and understandings of the context, the topic, the nature of text, and the nature of the world". Top-down process includes "life experiences, educational experiences, cultural experiences, knowledge of how the first language works as well as how the SL works, and knowledge of how a text can be organized rhetorically" (Anderson, 2008:100). Background knowledge can be divided into world knowledge, which is generally shared with others, and personal knowledge, which is more restricted (O'Malley et al., 1989).

Background knowledge helps learners reflect on the listening process (Goh, 2008). Learners can benefit from activating their prior knowledge about schematic knowledge which refers to mental structures for organizing different aspects of the world. Schematic knowledge can include formal and content schemata; the former refers to knowledge of the organizational structures of different texts while the latter refer to knowledge of the content of a text (Ellis, 2003). Both the formal and content schemata are used for storing information in the mind and helping obtain new knowledge (Wolvin, 2010). Schema theorists claim that the mind organizes thought and imposes structures on knowledge by using cognitive devices such as advanced organizers (Rost, 2011).

Advance organizers are activities which are crucial to help learners “organize their thoughts and ideas as a preparation for learning or studying something. For example, a discussion which takes place before learners listen to a lecture and which is intended to help them follow the lecture more easily” (Richards & Schmidt, 2010:14). They are important strategies for teachers to activate learners’ prior knowledge, to make learners ready for the subsequent lessons and to arouse their motivation (Hedge, 2000; Macaro et al., 2007). Materials such as titles of books, newspapers and pictures can help activate listeners’ prior knowledge and prepare them to acquire new information (Young, 1999).

Learners with good prior knowledge about the topic of the listening text and the context can understand more about what they hear than learners with poor prior knowledge about these issues (Goh, 2000). However, some scholars argue that the main skill is the ability to treat the linguistic details as fast and as efficient as possible (Hedge, 2000). But Vandergrift (2004:5) argues that "an awareness of both top-down and bottom-up processes and their relative contribution to comprehension in different contexts and at different levels of language proficiency is fundamental to a theoretically grounded pedagogy of L2 listening comprehension". Yet more research is needed to better understand which model is more effective in developing EFL learners' listening abilities.

2.4.3 Interactive Processing Model

The third type of processing model is the interactive category. It is a mixture of bottom-up and top-down models in the listening comprehension process. Interactive processing model was developed based on an assumption that "language is processed simultaneously at different levels" (Flowerdew & Miller, 2010:167-8). In interactive models, top-down and bottom-up processes complement one another and function interdependently. Listening needs the interactive orchestration between bottom up and top down processing to increase listening ability. The combination of bottom-up and top-down process is stated by Richards (2008) as follows:

In real-world listening, both bottom-up and top-down processing generally occur together. The extent to which one or the other dominates depends on the listener’s familiarity with the topic and content of a text, the density of information in a text, the text type, and the listener’s purpose in listening (10).

Effective listeners arrive at an anticipated meaning through the interaction of the text and their previously acquired background knowledge or schema (Hedge, 2000). Field (2008: 132) says

that since "listening is online, we cannot assume that there is an easy 'bottom-up' progression from sounds to syllables to words to phrases. And the 'top-down' uses of context can serve two very different purposes: to compensate for gaps in understanding or to enrich a fully decoded message". Besides, learners' abilities in the TL and purposes of listening determine the use of both approaches in a given situation (Morley, 1991). While effective listeners use both the top-down and bottom-up processes during listening to spoken texts, poor listeners tend to rely on either top-down or bottom-up process and spend a great amount of conscious effort on perceptual activity (Peterson, 1991).

However, studies show that the two models together facilitate LC because listeners use both prior knowledge and linguistic knowledge to understand spoken texts (Hedge, 2000; Carrier, 2003; Vandergrift, 2004). Hedge (2000) explains that effective listeners arrive at an anticipated meaning through the interaction of the text and their previously acquired background knowledge. Carrier (2003:390) reports that "neither instruction in bottom-up nor top-down listening processing was effective when used alone". Listeners need to learn how to use both processes to their advantage, depending on their purposes for listening (Vandergrift, 2004). The above suggests that teachers have to dedicate to developing their students bottom-up and top-down abilities (Chen, 2009).

Despite the support in the literature for teaching learners both the bottom-up and top-down listening activities, this researcher observed that most teachers used traditional methods that focused more on the linguistic aspects than on the top-down listening activities. The researcher also noticed that when learners were asked whether their teachers helped them understand the top-down aspects using the pre-LC activities, the majority reported that they had little experience of learning pre-LC activities. Many local studies have also reported similar problems, suggesting that the students were unaware of the values of a various top-down strategies and activities for developing their LC abilities. It is thus vital to find ways to help them develop their listening abilities.

2.5 Importance of Listening Skills in Academic and Real-life Communication Areas

The next sections describe the roles of listening in academic and real life contexts

2.5.1 Importance of Listening in Real Life Communication

The ultimate aim of learning and teaching English revolves around effective and meaningful communication. By extension, the major aim of teaching/learning listening skill is to develop learners' abilities to receive and convey messages successfully in academic and real life contexts. Listening is one of the most important skills for human daily communication (White, 2008; Goh, 2008). The benefits of listening have been described in the literature. Earlier studies showed that "time spent in communicating divides into approximately 50 percent listening, 25 percent speaking, 15 percent reading, and 10 percent writing" (Morley, 1984:9). This supports the claims that "listening competence is universally larger than speaking competence" (Brown, 2001: 247).

Listening is also one of the most important skills in the digital world where people's interest in obtaining and sharing up-to-date information transferred through digital devices is rapidly increasing. In this respect, Vandergrift (2007:191) notes that the current day people "want to be able to access the rich variety of aural and visual L2 texts available today via network-based multimedia, such as on-line audio and video, YouTube, podcasts and blogs". All the above data indicate that listening is the most important skill for successful real-life communication purpose.

2.5.2 Importance of Listening Skill in Academic Contexts

Listening is one of the most important skills for achieving the goals of learning languages and other content subjects (Rost, 1990; Feyten, 1991; Flowerdew & Miller, 1992). Field (2008:334) says that "listening is the principal means by which learners expand their knowledge of the spoken forms of the TL. It opens up access to language used in natural contexts". It plays a life-long role in the process of learning an L2 (White, 2008). Listening is the core of SLA (Feyten, 1991) since it provides the auditory input that is necessary for learning the TL (Rost, 2011). Feyten (1991:5) states that "Listening ability lies at the very heart of all growth, from birth through the years of formal education".

The skill of listening is listed first among the four sister skills not only because it appears first in the first language but because it is used the most in their daily lives (Rost, 1990). One justification for this claim is that children first listen to sounds or words given by their families, and then after they have internalized numerous sounds and words they begin to speak or write. Hasan (2000:138) states that listening "provides the right conditions for SLA and development of other language skills". Similarly, Celce-Murcia (1991) considers listening one of the most

important skills for developing learners' speaking, reading, writing, grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation.

Research shows that learners from kindergarten to university educational levels obtain much of their knowledge and skills through listening than any other skills in the TL (Gilbert, 1988; Rost, 1990; Green, 2004). For example, an earlier study by Gilbert (1988) indicated that learners from kindergarten through high school were expected to listen 65-90% of the time. It has also been reported that "An estimated 80% of what we know is acquired through listening" (Swain et al., 2004: 48), and that "over 50% of the time that students spend functioning in a FL will be devoted to listening" (Nunan, 1998:1).

Studies also show that high school, college and university learners spend most of their time in listening to lectures, taking notes and interacting with teachers and peers (Feyten, 1991). Taylor (1964) cited in Feng (2007:58) says that "nearly 90 percent of class time in high school and university is spent listening to discussions and lectures". Good listeners can attend academic courses more effectively than poor listeners can do (Plowderew, 1994). It is also stated that good learners' "success ... is dependent on their being able to decipher, decode, understand, store and recall the information provided by teachers and peers in direct teaching and in discussion" (Green, 2004:59).

The above-mentioned verbal and numerical data suggest the necessity of giving priority and high attention to promote learners' LC; otherwise, their LC abilities might remain poor; this leads EFL learners to be anxious and unmotivated in the LC classrooms (Goh, 2008). Besides, listening can be the most challenging skill to language learners as many factors affect the process of learning listening skills (Vandergrift, 2004).

2.6 Major Barriers to the Development of Learners' LC Abilities

The next sections discuss some major barriers namely: (1) difficulty of listening, (2) poor teaching methods and materials, (3) lack of learner motivation and (4) listening anxiety and (5) learners' wrong beliefs about learning listening.

2.6.1 Difficulty of Learning Listening Skills in the ESL/EFL Contexts

Learning is generally a complex and laborious activity that demands consistent attention, concentration and practice. Listening is considered by many people as the most difficult activity

particularly for SL/FL learners. For instance, Chen (2005) declares that listening is a complex, active, multistep and multifaceted process by which spoken language is converted into meaning in the listener's mind. Rost (2006:29) states that listening "has been considered the most difficult skill to learn out of the four skills". It is a complex process in which learners have to manage a variety of knowledge and skills happening simultaneously (Anderson & Lynch, 1988).

Research has identified many factors that make LC difficult. For example, Brown & Yule (1983) list four factors affecting listening skill: (1) speaker factor, (2) listener factor, (3) content, and (4) support. The speaker factors indicate speech rates, accent, and the use of discourse markers. The listener factors include learners' attentiveness, motivation, interest, strategy use, and topic familiarity. Anderson & Lynch (1988) mention three main factors that make listening difficult: the type of input, the support provided by context and the type of task involved. These scholars also explain that lack of socio-cultural, factual and contextual knowledge of the TL can also present an obstacle to comprehension because language is used to express culture.

Underwood (1989) organizes the major listening problems as follows: lack of control over the speed at which speakers speak, not being able to get things repeated, the listener's limited vocabulary, inability to concentrate, and learning habits. Rubin (1994) lists five major factors affecting SL/FL listeners' comprehension: (1) text characteristics, (2) interlocutor characteristics, (3) task characteristics, (4) listener characteristics and (5) process characteristics. Listener characteristics include language proficiency level, memory, attention, and background knowledge. Process characteristics include bottom-up and top-down which are related to different strategy patterns and proficiency level.

Several studies have asked ESL/EFL learners about their problems in listening using questionnaires and interviews. Their problems relate to the speaker's delivery speed and individual style (hesitation behavior, accent) as troublesome; they also identify vocabulary, including breaking up the speech stream into recognizable words, as a major issue (Goh, 2000; Hasan, 2000; Chen, 2005; Graham, 2006). Chen's (2005) study indicated that a large number of learners' accounts were devoted to the challenges imposed by the spoken features in the materials. The three most frequently mentioned features were: (1) rate of speech, (2) clarity of voice, and (3) accents.

It has also been claimed that EFL learners suffer from understanding spoken texts at typical conversational rates by native speakers even though they may understand individual words when heard separately (Buck, 2001). After all, listening is different from the other skills such as reading and writing in English and this represents a serious barrier to learners' performance on listening activities. Vogely (1999:107) note that "students have time to stop and consider what they are trying to write or read; however, with listening, they can be presented with information delivered swiftly, just once, and then can be asked to quickly respond". Readers and writers can go back and forward to check the information that is not clear for them, but listeners cannot do the same thing since they have little control over the speakers' speed (Underwood, 1989).

Many scholars claim that fast speech declines LC process. For example, Buck (2001:40) notes that speech rate is "clearly an important variable in LC" and "comprehension declines as the speaker talks faster". Similarly, Rost (2005:506) states that speech rate is "a major factor in the comprehensibility of speech for L2 listeners". Listening has also a unique characteristic, that is, "it exists in time, rather than space - it is ephemeral in nature" and that "the sound system of the SL poses a significant problem" (Lund, 1991:201). But Hassan (2000) argues that FL learners fail to comprehend natural spoken texts whether delivered as normal rate, or when speech is too fast or with varied accents.

A range of cognitive factors such as attention, concentration and memorization can also affect the process of learning listening lessons. Many learners encounter difficulties in concentrating, attending and memorizing FL spoken texts (Lynch, 1998; Chen, 2005). In addition to the cognitive factors, various noncognitive attributes such as self-efficacy, immediate social contexts, individual behavior and effort "play an important role in reversing or limiting delays or deficiencies in cognitive development and academic achievement" (Rosen et al., 2010:11). Since listening is mostly a function of mind (Rost, 2011), it is likely that the noncognitive factors can affect the learners' listening learning processes and their listening skill development.

In summary, most of the factors cited in the previous sections are believed to affect the process of learning listening skill and the listening abilities of learners. These factors can also make listening difficult particularly for FL learners. However, the majority of the aforementioned factors and attributes can be improved by training learners with modern teaching methods than

with traditional teaching methods (Underwood, 1989; Ellis, 2003; Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). An overview of the teaching methods is given below.

2.6.2 An Overview of the Language Teaching Methods

Teaching methods play decisive roles in L2 learning processes and achievements (Oxford, 1990; Ellis, 1994; Kumaravadivelu; 2003; Griffiths, 2004). Kumaravadivelu (2003:47) says that “without effective methodological mediation, a syllabus remains a lifeless list of linguistic labels”. Although there is no a single best method, effective teaching methods enable language learners to develop performances and achievements (Griffiths, 2003). But ineffective ones may have negative impacts on learners’ performances or achievements (Richards, 1990; Ellis, 1994). Methods can be grouped into traditional and modern types. The next sections offer the description of each.

2.6.2.1 Traditional Teaching Methods

This class of methods involves the grammar-translation, audio-lingual method, direct methods. In fact, many other approaches and methods had also come and gone in and out of fashion as a result of the demand for finding effective language pedagogies (Griffiths & Parr, 2001). The grammar translation and audio-lingual methods are described below.

Grammar Translation Method. This was dominant method in most educational settings until the middle of the 20th century (Adamson, 2004). It was derived from the learning of Latin and Greek, which were the classical languages taught in Europe. Grammar as a discipline had its roots in Greek and Roman scholarship and was revived during the Renaissance (Adamson, 2004). This method placed more emphasis on reading, writing and translating Latin and Greek literature in order to "instill intellectual rigor and to transmit the cultural values embodied in the literary canons to a new generation" (Adamson, 2004). Language was viewed as an academic subject rather than as a means of communication (Celce-Murcia, 1991).

The focus of instruction was on reading and writing with little attention paid to speaking and listening (Griffiths & Parr, 2001). As Harmer (2007:63) points out, "Students were given explanations of individual points of grammar, and then they were given sentences ... These sentences had to be translated from the target language (L2) back to the students' first language (L1) and vice versa". These feature can help learners develop the knowledge of grammar and

translation but inadequate to develop their listening and speaking skills in the TL (Celce-Murcia, 1991; Harmer, 2007).

Language learning is a complex process which involves not only acquiring the linguistic aspects and translation but also the acquiring many different nonlinguistic elements (Stern, 1983; Ellis, 1994). Regarding the limitations of grammar-translation method, Oxford et al. (2007:123) say that "One of this method's major drawbacks is that many learners, after years of instruction, do not feel competent to say more than a few sentences in the L2". Thus, such "limited practicality of the grammar-translation method for communicating in everyday situations created dissatisfaction toward the end of the nineteenth century among language teachers in Europe (Adamson, 2004:606:607).

Audio-Lingual Method. This was an influential method in the 1940s and 1960s which is "the pedagogical and practical implications of behaviorism" (Tavakoli, 2012:41). Language was taught using the 'parts-to-whole' approach which refers to the teaching of language in a linear way by means of a series of phonemes, morphemes, words, sentences and rules in isolation (Rixon, 1986). The goal was to develop grammatical competence, which refers to the "knowledge of the building blocks of sentences (e.g., parts of speech, tenses, phrases, clauses) and how sentences are formed" (Richards, 2006:3). Errors should be avoided through controlled opportunities for production (Rixon, 1986).

Behaviorist also claimed that "language is basically aural-oral" (Kumaravadivelu, 2003: 226) but instruction was "heavily influenced by reading and writing pedagogy" (Goh, 2008:189). Listening was seen as a receptive skill where learners listened to repeat and develop better pronunciation (Rixon, 1986; Morley, 1984). Listening lessons followed a consistent format involving examination of vocabulary and grammar; use of play and repeat or play and recall words (Field, 1998). Describing how LC was taught until the 1970s, Rixon (1986:30) says that "There was little attempt to help students understand the overall message of an extended piece of spoken English". Moreover, behaviorists underestimated the emotional, psychological and social factors that learners would bring in the classrooms until the 1970s (Vandergrift, 2007).

Specifically speaking, learners' motivation, beliefs, anxiety and self-confidence were not considered in audio-lingual teaching/learning processes (Stern, 1983; Vandergrift, 2007). Anderson (2010:8) notes that "behaviorism ... rejected the analysis of the workings of the mind to explain behavior". It placed emphasis on the role of the environment and belittled the importance of mental processes assuming that they are "inaccessible to proper scientific investigation" (Williams & Burden, 1997:8). As a result, scholars in applied linguistics and cognitive psychology began to criticize audio-lingual method for ignoring the basic skills in the teaching/learning processes (Morley, 1991).

Kumaravadivelu (2003:29) says that "based on theoretical, experimental, and experiential knowledge, teachers and teacher educators have expressed their dissatisfaction with method in different ways". At the same time, researchers began to conduct studies to see the effects of this method and most findings showed its ineffectiveness in developing learners' communication abilities in the TL (Griffiths & Parr, 2001). Other studies examined the interrelationships of psychological, affective, sociocultural factors and communication skills (Griffiths, 2003). Findings of such studies led researchers to search for other better methods that can promote learners' communication skills.

In short, the above-mentioned traditional methods failed to equip learners with sufficient communication skills in the TL. The widespread dissatisfaction with this limitation and the then theoretical and empirical studies paved the way for the emergence of different modern or innovative methods that help develop learners' interaction and communication skills in the TL (Ellis, 1994; Brown, 2000; Richards, 2006). The next section discusses some of the most dominant methods of teaching a second or foreign language.

2.6.2.2 Modern or Innovative Language Teaching Methods

This category involves CLT approach, task-based teaching, cooperative learning method, SBI and others. Currently, CLT and SBI are the two most dominant approaches to teaching languages in the formal classrooms. Research has shown that these approaches have challenged the traditional methods in terms of promoting learners' positive attitudes, interests and confidences in achieving the goal of L2 learning. Advantages of the CLT and SBI approaches over the traditional ones are that learners are likely to be more motivated if they see an activity as meaningful and as having some relevance to authentic activities which they are called to perform

them. Leaving the SBI for chapter three, this section presents the core concepts and benefits of the CLT approach.

To begin, CLT builds on the premise that language learning takes place through language use in real communicative contexts (Celce-Murcia, 1991). Richards (2006:2) defines CLT as "a set of principles about the goals of language teaching, how learners learn a language, the kinds of classroom activities that best facilitate learning, and the roles of teachers and learners in the classroom". Its major principle is that "learners must learn not only to make grammatically correct, propositional statements about experiential world, but must also develop the ability to use language to get things done" (Nunan, 1988:25). CLT aims to develop communicative competence involving grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic competences.

The term 'competence' refers to "one's...knowledge of a system, event, or fact. In reference to language, competence is one's underlying knowledge of the system of a language-its rules of grammar, its vocabulary, all the pieces of a language and how those pieces fit together" (Tavakoli, 2012:71). Grammatical competence refers to the degree to which the language user has mastered linguistic codes such as vocabulary, grammar and word formation. Sociolinguistic competence concerns with the extent to which utterances can be used or understood in various social contexts (Canale & Swain, 1980). Strategic competence refers to the ability to use strategies like gestures or "talking around" an unknown word to overcome limitations in the TL knowledge (Oxford, 1990:7).

Unlike the traditional methods, CLT stresses on the development of the learners' ability to use the language properly and accurately for effective interaction (Brown, 2001). CLT helps develop procedures for teaching basic skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication (Richards & Rogers, 1986). These authors mention three key elements characterizing CLT in the classroom practices. The first is communication principle: activities that promote real communication promote learning. The second is task principle: activities that help promote learning. The third is the meaningfulness principle: language that is meaningful to learners supports the learning process.

CLT supports that idea that learners should learn the SL/FL in a natural setting and errors are inevitable but whenever errors occur, teachers are discouraged to give excessive correction for fear of inhibiting the learners' progress in language comprehension and production (Krashen

1983). Krashen goes on to suggest that teachers need to concentrate on oral-audio communication in the language classrooms. Thus, CLT moved the intensity of ELT from a passive listening to an active and a complex listening process (Vandergrift, 1999). The role of listeners' has changed from merely paying attention to the formal structures to listening for meaning (Martínez-Flor & Usó-Juan, 2006).

However, the limitations of CLT have become increasingly clear over the past decade of research done in different EFL contexts worldwide. Specifically “the emphasis on fluency versus accuracy in the CLT approach has shown to fall short of the desired competency among non-native speakers of English” (Siddiqui. undated:1). The lack of emphasis on explicit grammar instruction, its primary focus on basic interpersonal communication, and the limited relevance of its pedagogy for learners’ academic and professional goals are among the main objections to the CLT approach. Despite that, CLT has remained an important approach in the SL/FL curricula and classroom instruction. Consequently, numerous countries in the world have adopted CLT in their national curricula and implemented it in the SL/FL classes (Richards, 2006).

2.6.2.3 Teaching Methods Used in EFL Classes at Samara University and Others

For similar reasons mentioned above, the government of Ethiopia through its MOE officially declared the implementation of CLT in 1997. Since then, the MOE has designed and published English curricula and textbooks underlying the principles and practices of CLT. Despite such attempts, the CLT approaches have not yet been fully implemented in English classes. Research conducted in Ethiopia since the late 1990s has shown that the grammar-based and teacher-centered methods have been used in most EFL classes (Seime (1989; Birhanu, 1999; Alemu, 2004; Mekasha, 2005; Girma, 2005).

Birhanu (1999:83) reports that “the methodology which most teachers use was the already rejected traditional type”. Similarly, Haregewoin (2008:24) says that “although the current CLT textbooks have been implemented since 1997, there seems to be a general feeling that the language problems of students have grown worse from time to time”. Sieme (1999:23) notes that "Lecturing is a method of instruction widely used in higher learning institutions in Ethiopia". Alemu (2004:256) also states that “Teaching listening skills have been introduced in secondary classes in the new series. Evidence reveals that different ways of teaching listening skills have not been properly designed”.

Alem's research findings suggest that textbook designers have given little or no attention to LC activities. As a result, teachers spend most time in teaching vocabulary items and grammar rules using traditional methods (e.g., teacher-fronted, grammar-based). It is not to say that grammar-based instruction is bad and should not be used in L2 classes since it helps develop linguistic competence. Learners have to learn linguistic elements such as "spelling, pronunciation, vocabulary, word formation, grammatical structure, sentence structure and linguistic semantics" (Hedge, 2000:46-47). In fact, one rarely speaks, listens, reads or writes in a FL with little knowledge of vocabulary and grammar parts. This suggests that grammar-based teaching is vital to develop linguistic competence.

However, research shows that linguistic-focused instruction is inefficient to develop FL listening and speaking skills (Griffiths, 2003; Oxford & Lee, 2007). It is clear that the main goal of ELT is to develop learner's communicative competence (Richards, 2006). Communicative competence is a cumulative effect of learning or acquiring all basic skills, grammar rules and vocabulary items as well as non-linguistic aspects or processes (Stern, 1983; Richards, 2006). In the same vein, O'Malley et al. (1987:295) argue that "knowing about language as a grammar system is not a sufficient condition for knowing how to use a language functionally". Learners need to spend much time in understanding and conveying meanings (Stern, 1983; Brown, 2001).

Most L2 theories and approaches (SLA, CLT, learning strategy, constructivist or interactionist) stress on the importance of communication as people use language in various contexts to send and receive information successfully (Hedge, 2000). Using the SL/FL as a medium of instruction to conduct meaningful communication manifests the constructivist rationale that language and thoughts are developed through meaningful communication and social interaction. A great deal of empirical research indicates that interactive and communicative activities are the key to achieve communicative competence. This competence can be developed if learners are "engaged in interaction and meaningful communication" processes (Richards, 2006:22). The benefits of interaction activities are highlighted by Rivers (1987) as follows:

Through interaction, students can increase their language store as they listen to or read authentic linguistic material, or even output of their fellow students in discussions, skits, joint problem-solving tasks, or dialogue journals. In interaction, students can use all they possess of the language – all they have learned or casually absorbed – in real life exchanges (4-5).

Interaction and communication are crucial particularly in learning English as a FL because FL learners lack much exposure to the TL outside formal classrooms (Oxford, 1990). It is known that “English is more of a FL than a SL in Ethiopia” (Heugh et al., 2007:53) meaning that our students do not have much exposure to English outside the classrooms. Hence, teachers have to facilitate collaborative (pair/group) activities in English classes (Hedge, 2000; Harmer, 2007). Collaborative learning refers to “an approach to teaching and learning which makes use of learners working together in small groups” (Richards & Schmidt, 2010:94). This approach can make a difference to learners’ abilities in the TL if organized and implemented effectively (Harmer, 2007).

Research has shown that learners have better chances of practicing language activities if they work in groups/pairs rather than work individually since groups/pairs provide them with more opportunities to send and receive messages in the TL. Interactive activities can also be the most important techniques for developing listening skills (Guan & Yan, 2010). Interactive listening involves “an active interplay between a listener and a text or between a listener and a speaker” (Richards & Schmidt, 2010:91). It is the speaker’s and listener’s abilities to clarify utterances through interaction. Guan & Yan (2010) define interactive listening more elaborately as:

Interactive listening is a two-way process between the listener and the speaker. The two basic sub-processes can be described as: 1) The listener receives messages from the speaker, comprehends/interprets/evaluates, and gives a certain response; 2) The speaker receives the listener response, comprehends/interprets/evaluates, and gives response to the listener (22).

Vandergrift (1997:494) says that "interactive listening plays an active role in cooperation with the interlocutor to fulfill the goals of interaction". Interactive LC activities can increase learners’ motivation to actively engage in the learning process to negotiate meaning and form (Harmer, 2007). However, local studies reveal the lack of interactive learning (pair/group) activities in most of the observed classes (Awol, 1999; Alemu, 2004; Girma, 2005). For example, Awol's (1999:233) study showed that "most of the class time is used up by the teacher talking all by himself or herself trying to explain things for students. Students’ contribution to the class discussion ... has been limited to one or two-word responses most of which are barely audible, are incorrect or both".

It has been claimed that most of the speaking problems emerged from poor listening ability (Heaton, 1990; Harmer, 2007). Although many factors contribute to learners' poor listening/speaking abilities, teaching methods may take the lion's share (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). Oxford & Lee (2007:123) also state that "One of this method's [grammar-based] major drawbacks is that many learners, after years of instruction, do not feel competent to say more than a few sentences in the L2". By the same token, teacher-centered and grammar-based approaches can inhibit the development of listening skills (White, 2008). The aforementioned teaching methods and learners' listening/speaking problems have also been observed in English classes at Samara University.

The current researcher's informal discussions with two English instructors at Samara University showed that many instructors followed the modules scheduled for each academic semester and discussed the topics using lecture methods. The two instructors also told the researcher that most of their colleagues did not apply the principles and practices of the current teaching methods (e.g., CLT, cooperative learning technique and SBI models). Most of the instructors did not use pair/group formats at the pre-, while- or post-listening stages. For example, one of the instructors said that "most of us do not give attention to the pre-listening activities; rather, we focus on the post-listening exercises by using filling in blanks, multiple-choice and Wh-questions. We give responses to these exercises in the form of 'yes/right' or 'no/wrong' formats" (May 29, 2014).

The aforementioned teaching methods are consistent with White (2008:215) who says that "the methodology for teaching listening skills and strategies still seems somewhat undeveloped and old-fashioned". Listening is narrowed down to answering a set of post-LC questions but such "a narrow focus on the right answer to LC questions (product) does little help students understand and control the process leading to comprehension" (Vandergrift, 2007:191). Besides, making learners answer LC questions using 'right' or 'wrong' formats increases their demotivation (Berne, 2004; Goh, 2008; Rost, 2011). As will be described in other sections later, anxious and demotivated learners give little or no attention to the lessons, and eventually, remain poor in listening skills (Goh, 2008).

2.6.3 The Neglect of Listening Skill in the Syllabus and Classroom Instruction

The neglect of listening skill in the syllabus and classroom instruction might have been another barrier to the development of learners' listening abilities at Samara University. In fact, the

neglect of listening skills has not been exception to the Ethiopian ELT context, evidence shows that listening skill was overlooked in the past (Morely, 1984). Even more recent studies have shown that listening comprehension has still received little attention by language experts and teachers worldwide (Goh, 2008; Rost, 2011; Goh & Vandergrift, 2012). This reflects the traditional belief that listening is a passive skill and that exposing learners to the speech could be enough for its development.

According to Vogely (1999:107), "too many teachers assume, erroneously ... and treat listening as a 'passive' skill that will 'happen' magically during or as a result of regular classroom activities and routine". They viewed listening as a passive skill and exposing learners to spoken texts could be enough for its development (Nunan, 2002). Instruction was on language aspects such reading, vocabulary and grammar. Although "there has been a growing interest in and concern for the teaching of listening in the last 40 years" (Goh, 2008:189), the belief has still persisted in the world; this makes listening remain a neglected skill in the L2 classrooms. As Nunan (2002) states that:

Listening is the Cinderella skill in second language learning. All too often, it has been overlooked by its elder sister – speaking. For most people, being able to claim knowledge of a second language means being able to speak and write in that language. Listening and reading are therefore secondary skills – means to other ends, rather than ends in themselves (238).

In the same vein, listening has little place in the Ethiopian English classes (Awol, 1999; Alemu, 2004; Mekasha, 2005). Alemu (2004:256) states that although the official textbooks contain some listening activities, "teachers usually, ignore the listening activities in the textbooks as they do the writing activities". But success in listening skill depends on the amount of time spend on practicing various comprehension activities (Ridgway, 2000). Although not focusing on listening skill, Magno (2010:40) argues that "The time spent in studying formal English is a very important factor". By the same token, a learner cannot develop good listening ability through learning within two or three sessions per week since it is a very complex and last-longing process (Goh, 2008).

A learner needs to spend much time on practicing a variety of inputs to develop his/her listening skill (Underwood, 1989). Vandergrift & Goh (2012:200-1) suggest that "Learners should listen to as many different types of authentic listening texts including narratives, recounts, reports,

instructional texts and conversations". But LC has received little time in English syllabus at Samara University as shown in Figure 2.1

No	Course Title	Course Code	Credit Hour
1	Listening Skills	EnLa 303	3
2	Reading Skills	EnLa 208	3
3	Spoken English I	EnLa 205	3
4	Spoken English II	EnLa 206	3
5	Advanced Speech	EnLa 304	3
6	Basic Writing Skills	EnLa 202	3
7	Creative Writing	EnLa 408	3
8	Advanced Writing Skills	EnLa 403	3
9	Research Methods & Report Writing	EnLa 306	3
10	Business Communication & Technical Writing	EnLa 405	3

Figure 2.1 English Language Skills Courses Along With Their Respective Credit Hours. Taken from ‘Curriculum for Degree in English Language (2010).

As shown in Figure 2.1, the credit hours given to listening skill is the least (three credit hours) when compared to other skills. Even if we believe that the three credit hours per week is adequate, classroom- and non-classroom routines affect the use of all the allocated time for teaching the listening lessons. Classroom-related routines include activities such as taking attendance, giving feedbacks to the learners' questions and preparing quizzes/tests can reduce the actual teaching periods. Thus, learners may remain untrained in listening skills, and this affects the improvement of their listening abilities.

Non-classroom routines concern with instructors' engagement in various administrative tasks. Experience shows that most instructors at Samara University were assigned to different office works besides teaching English. It is not to say that instructors should not do other tasks but the problem is that the office works reduce their time covering the course contents within the

timeframe. It was observed that when teachers lacked time to cover the course contents, they ignored listening and focused on other items in the modules. This is in line with Field's (2008:334) observation that "instructors tend to seriously underestimate the importance of listening practice. When they find themselves short of time, it is quite often the listening session that gets cut". But unless learners are given ample opportunities for practice various listening comprehension activities, they cannot develop high ability in FL listening skill (Hedge, 2000; Green, 2004).

The above statement is echoed in Field's (2008:335) suggestion that teachers need "to give prominence to listening in L2 programs as the skill that will be of most use to learners in the world beyond the classroom". It has also been stated that the "goal of any language instruction is not only to teach the L2 for the moment, but to instill within the learner a sense of what it is like to be a lifelong language learner" (Cohen & Macaro, 2007:284). Learners should be given the opportunity to understand not only what to learn inside and/or outside the classroom, but also learn how to learn by themselves (Wenden, 1998). Similarly, Dornyei (2005:178) says that if "learners are more aware of how they learn best and take more responsibility for their learning, they may have lifelong-learning rather than having the more typical learned-but-forgotten language experience".

Ellis (2003:1) warns that "unless learners are given the opportunity to experience such samples [communicative activities], they may not succeed in developing the kind of L2 proficiency needed to communicate fluently and effectively". It has been claimed that implementing SBI in regular classes helps learners improve their listening abilities and make them lifelong learner (Carrier, 2003; Berne, 2004; Field, 2008; Chen, 2009). Underpinned by the assumption that the SBI model provides learners with opportunities necessary for overcoming many learning problems, raising effective learning processes and developing listening ability, the study was designed to examine the effects of the SBI on the listening abilities and strategies utilization of learners at Samara University.

2.6.4 Examination-Oriented Teaching/Learning Methods

Exam-focused instructions can be taken another barrier to the progress of our learners' listening skills. The definition of washback, its impact on the teaching and learning processes and its effects on learners' LC abilities are discussed below.

2.6.4.1 Definition of Washback in the Field of SLA

The term ‘washback’ is defined in different ways and there is lack of consensus on the definition and conceptualization of this term. For example, Alderson & Wall (1993:117) define it as “the way that tests are ... perceived to influence classroom practices, syllabus and curriculum planning”. Missick (1996:243) defines the term as "the extent to which the test influences language teachers and learners to do things that they would not necessarily otherwise do". Washback is the outcome or influence of testing on teaching or learning (Cheng, 1997). These definitions imply that exams can change the teachers’ and learners’ attitudes, attentions and actions in the teaching/learning processes.

2.6.4.2 Washback Effects of Our National Exams on the Teaching/Learning of LC

As noted in sections 2.6.2.3, the MOE has declared the use of CLT approaches in English classes so as to develop learners’ communication skills. It has also been briefed earlier that the aim of CLT is to develop each learner’s communicative competence through learning all basic skills and the knowledge aspects of English. Despite the advocacy of using CLT in English classes, local studies have shown that CLT has not been fully implemented in most of the observed English classes. One of the main reason is that the purposes that the national and school-based tests or examinations serve. It is worth noting that the exam scores serve different purposes: policy making, work position, placement, documentation, research, social functions, political status and so forth.

The other reason is related to the formats and contents of our examinations. Both the nature and purposes of test scores serve in the society can have a negative or positive effect on the teaching/learning processes (Huges, 1989; Cheng, 1997; Hedge, 2000). Biggs (1995) argues that whether it can be negative or positive, strong or weak, the influence of tests on teaching and learning is inevitable. The negative effect of tests appears when the scores affect learners’ future academic careers (Huges, 1989). In Ethiopia, the scores of the national examinations are "used to screen those who will go on to universities and colleges” (Awol, 1999:4-5). A learner who does poorly in the entrance examinations will never be allowed to join any university in the country.

For that reason, both teachers and learners need to spend much time practicing the TL parts that will appear in the future exams. This shows that "language tests are seen to have a more direct

washback effect on teaching content rather than teaching methodology" (Cheng, 2004:147-8). Test contents can change teachers' instructions (Alderson & Wall, 1993). They can shift teachers' attention from helping learners learn how to listen FL texts to helping them pass exams since "A pass in English...determines a student's chance of joining a university (Awol, 1999:18). Alemu (2004:266) notes that "If students are not assessed for what they do in the classroom, they do not give credit to the activities they do, as they usually measure their success in what they score in tests".

Learners, on the other hand, may give more attention to the language items that they will be tested later on; otherwise, they will lose the chance to join higher institutions (Awol, 1999). This may lead them to a heavy reliance on rote learning as opposed to the current SLA theories which stress that instruction should focus on helping learners achieve success in an L2. Learners rely on teachers' instruction and seldom realize that they themselves must be active in their learning to listen (Vandergrift, 2003). It needs to be recognized that "listening instruction is no longer simply testing listening content. Integrated SI holds promise for effective listening pedagogy" (Chen, 2009:74).

The impacts of tests and test formats are also observed in the classrooms of pre-university and higher learning institutions in Ethiopia. Like the national examination, the classroom-based tests/exams scores are used to select and then to place learners to the next grade levels. This can lead learners to study the area that will appear in the mid or final exams in order to get promoted to next grade levels. This can also lead teachers to give more attention to the skills that are tested later (Alemu, 2004). This idea echoes Hedge's (2000:25-26) claim that "examination is usually a heavy constraining factor, especially where examinations are gatekeepers to higher education. It would be a matter of high risk for a teacher not to train students for these".

No doubt that the contents (e.g., vocabulary or grammar) and formats (e.g., multiple-choice) of the university entrance and classroom-based exams can lead to exam-led teaching/learning mentality on the part of the teachers and learners. This method holds little chance of developing learners' communication abilities (Seime, 1989; Richards, 2008; Goh, 2008). It does not mean that tests/exams are unnecessary and should be excluded from EFL education. It true that testing and teaching are inseparable and they are seen from the improvement point of view (Heaton, 1990; Cheng; 1997). Heaton (1990:5) states that "both testing and teaching are so closely

interrelated that it is virtually impossible to work in either field without being constantly concerned with the other”.

Similarly, Douglas (2010:Preface) notes that language tests are the necessary “part of teaching and learning because the results ... can have profound effects on the lives of our students, on our own teaching, on the programs we work in, and ultimately on the societies we live in”. But practice is more useful than tests for improving listening skills since “the more listening the better, and the sub-skills will take care of themselves as they become automatized” (Ridgway, 2000:183). Teaching methods should focus on helping learners not only to succeed academically as measured by the tests but also to develop their communicative competencies in the TL (Hedge, 2000; Brown, 2001).

All the above-mentioned information suggests the necessity of helping learners learn how to listen to a variety of spoken texts or making them practice a variety of listening activities in the classrooms. Rost (2006:65) says that “The goal of listening instruction is to help learners become better listeners, able to utilize their linguistic and non-linguistic resources to interact, to comprehend, to interpret, to respond more fully and more effectively”. Most FL learners may fail to develop high competencies in listening unless they learn how to listen to spoken texts (Hedge, 2000; Harmer, 2001). With this in mind, many L2 scholars (Richards, 2005; Graham, 2006; Chen, 2009) suggest a shift of attention from test-led instruction to strategy-based instruction with the aim of helping learners learn how to learn actively for themselves.

Chen (2013:85) notes that "One of the most important ways to help learners achieve successful listening is to guide them to raise their awareness on their listening problems and use effective listening strategies". Learners who use various strategies can store, retain, recall, and apply the strategies to answer test items. They can perform better on exams if they use effective learning strategies when learning all skills including listening skill in English. But more research is needed "to determine whether such an approach would benefit learners'... performance in L2 listening tests" (Graham, 2006:169). This study aimed to examine whether the SBI model boosts EFL learners' listening abilities.

2.6.5 Lack of Learners' Motivation for Learning Listening Skills

Lack of learners' motivation can affect the listening skills development. The next sections describe the origin, definition and theories of L2 motivation. The sections that follow will explain the (a) benefits of motivation for learning listening skill, (b) the impacts of traditional teaching methods on the SL/FL learning motivation, (c) the relationship between learning strategies and motivation (d) studies on the benefits of learning strategies for enhancing motivation.

2.6.5.1 Origin or Etymology of the Term 'Motivation'

Much theoretical research has been done on various issues of motivation but there is little information about its etymology in the literature. So, it seems useful to brief the origin of 'motivation' before presenting its definitions. To begin with, the concept of 'motivation is rooted in ancient Greek. The connotation of 'motive', 'motivate', and 'motivation' derives from its etymology: Latin word 'movere' meaning 'to move' or make a person choose, engage in action, expend effort and persist in action. It is from this Latin root 'movere' that the modern-day motivation emerged in the 1950s (Ehrman et al., 2003).

2.6.5.2 Definition of Motivation in Terms of SLA

The modern-day definition of motivation appeared in the 1950s (Ehrman et al., 2003). Motivation is a multifaceted construct involving a range of factors such as effort, self-regulation, interest, self-esteem, goal orientation and learning disposition (Williams & Burden, 1997). It is also considered "one of the most elusive concepts in applied linguistics and indeed in educational psychology in general" (Dornyei, 2001:7). The elusiveness, complexness and abstractness of motivation might have compelled different scholars to propose different definitions using different vocabularies. Despite the existence of many definitions in the literature, only the most common definitions which have direct relation to this study and L2 learning are presented here.

To begin, Gardner (1985:10) defines motivation as "the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitudes toward learning the language". This definition holds four elements: a goal, desire to achieve the goal, positive attitudes, and effort. Quoting Brown (1987:117), Ziahosseini & Salehi (2008:86) defines motivation as "an inner drive, impulse, emotion, or desire that moves one toward a particular action". Williams &

Burden (1997) define L2 motivation as a state of cognitive and emotional arousal leading to a conscious decision to act, and which brings about a sustained intellectual and/or physical effort in order to attain a preset goal.

Dornyei & Skehan (2003:614) state that “motivation concerns the direction and magnitude of human behavior, or more specifically (i) the choice of a particular action, (ii) the persistence with it, and (iii) the effort expended on it”. Another definition by Oxford (2003:80) states that “motivation is a condition of being moved to action or the internal desire to take action. ‘L2 learning motivation’, or ‘L2 motivation’, means the desire to learn another language”. More recently, Dornyei & Ushioda (2011:6) define it as a "dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a person that initiates, directs, coordinates, amplifies, terminates, and evaluates the cognitive ... processes whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritized, operationalized and acted out".

There are also many other definitions in L2 literature alone, indicating the complexity of ‘motivation’. In this regard, Dornyei (2001) claims that the picture becomes even more complex when motivation to learn a SL/FL is concerned that is why there are many different definitions in the area. Although motivation involves different definitions, even most of the recent studies have used Gardner’s (1985) definition, indicating that this definition has been considered vital to research on the field. Besides, many L2 researchers have still used the socio-educational theory to investigate L2 motivation.

2.6.5.3 Socio-Educational Theory of Motivation and Its Criticism

Research on motivation has been dominated by socio-educational theory which "emerged 50 years ago with the publication of Gardner & Lambert’s (1959) paper" (MacIntyre et al., 2010:1). The socio-educational theory involves integrative and instrumental orientations. Integrative orientation deals with the desire to learn an L2 and interact with speakers of the language, or become members of that community (Gardner, 1985). Most of the earlier research focused mainly on analyzing and discussing the integrative and instrumental orientations with limited research (Dornyei, 2001). There had been little research on the uses of motivation for L2 learning until the 1990s (Guillteaux & Dornyei, 2008).

The lack of research led researchers (e.g., Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dornyei, 1994; Oxford & Shearing, 1994) to argue that motivation should be studied from different perspectives, instead of focusing on the theory of motivation without applying it in the classrooms. They called for new approaches that would be pertinent to L2 teaching as “motivation can make up for considerable deficiencies both in one’s L2 aptitude and learning conditions” (Dornyei, 2005:65). This call paved the way for later researchers to shift their work from merely conceptualizing to a detailed list of practical suggestions for increasing learners’ motivation since the 1990s (Williams & Burden, 1997).

The current trend is to focus less on the instrumental/integrative distinction and more on the cognitive approach, which views motivation as constantly influenced by the nature of learner, teacher, course materials and activities (Cohen & Weaver, 2005). Gardner (2001) explains that the major contributors to this trend are first and foremost the student, secondarily the students’ background, and thirdly other factors such as the teacher. Overall, the concept of motivation has passed through different interpretations as theories of cognitive psychology have changed (Williams & Burden, 1997). But there has been lack of consensus on which theories best suit to conduct research or learn an L2. Major types and features of self-determination theory (SDT) are briefly explained below.

2.6.5.4 Self-Determination Theory of Motivation

Like the socio-educational theory of motivation, the SDT involves two broad categories: intrinsic and extrinsic. Based on previous research on educational and social psychology, Noels et al. (2003:38-39) classify each of the intrinsic and extrinsic motives into different categories. The intrinsic motivation has three subcategories: (1) IM-Knowledge, (2) IM-Accomplishment and (3) IM-Stimulation. The extrinsic one has also three subcategories: (1) external regulation, (2) introjected regulation and (3) identified regulation. Although it seems sensible to describe each of these subcategories in detail here, lack of space does not permit to do so. Hence, only the key concepts of the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation that are relevant to the current study are briefed in the following sections.

Intrinsic Motivation. This type of motivation regards with individuals' desire to engage in activities characterized by enjoyment. Excitement, interest, and enthusiasm toward learning are the primary objectives in intrinsic motivation. It also involves "people freely engaging in

activities that they find interesting, that provide novelty and optimal challenge" (Deci & Ryan, 2000:235). An intrinsic motivation is viewed as a drive to self-direction which refers to an attitude towards learning where the learner assumes responsibility for his/her own learning (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993:3). Learners with higher intrinsic motivation spend more time and pay more attention to develop their comprehension and production skills in the TL (Brown, 2000; Dornyei, 2005).

Extrinsic Motivation. Extrinsic motivation refers to actions carried out to achieve some goals such as obtaining rewards or avoiding penalties. It is a part of self-determined motivation that is useful to "do something ... with a focus on some separable outcome rather than encouraging in it for its inherent satisfaction" (Deci & Ryan, 2002:257). Such motives can be triggered only by external factors such as gaining approvals, avoiding disapproval, gaining or losing rewards. Extrinsic motivation is "fueled by the anticipation of reward from outside and beyond the self. Typical extrinsic rewards are money, grades, and even certain types of positive feedback" (Brown, 2007:172).

However, it has been claimed that the two "types of motivation are not categorically different, but rather lie along a continuum of self-determination" (Noels et al., 2003:60). Other researchers also explain that the distinction "is not watertight, and many of our actions are probably prompted by a mixture of both intrinsic and extrinsic reasons" (Williams & Burden, 1997:123). Yet, there is evidence to indicate that "the distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic goals can be of service in predicting L2 learning outcomes" (Noels et al., 2003:40). This suggests that both types of motivation are vital to increase learners' interest in learning and improving the SL/FL.

2.6.5.5 Importance of Motivation for Learning and Developing EFL Listening Skill

There is a wide agreement among L2 scholars that learning to master a FL is a complex process which requires learners to study it for many years. Specifically speaking, learning a FL listening skill is even a more complex as well as a long-lasting process than learning other skills in the same context (Henkil, 2006; Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). Besides, many other IDs, cultural and educational backgrounds affect the SL or FL learners' learning processes and achievements (Dornyei, 2005; Finkbeiner, 2008). Culture and "other learner variables determine whether a learner has a strong drive to communicate and to learn from communication or not. Culture

influences whether learners are inhibited or not, whether and how much they practice and so on” (Finkbeiner, 2008:137).

However, many scholars claim that different motivational strategies help learners persist in learning various L2 activities (Dornyei, 2001). Rubin (1975) identifies motivation as one of the major factors that accounts for differential success in L2 learning. Similarly, Gardner, 1985) reports that motivation has been shown to be at least as useful as aptitude to predict L2 achievement. Scholars (e.g., O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford & Shearin, 1994) see motivation the most essential factor for L2 learning. Dornyei (1998:117) notes that “Without sufficient motivation, even individuals with the most remarkable abilities cannot accomplish long-term goals”. Oxford & Shearin (1994:12) say that “motivation determines the extent of active, personal involvement in L2 learning”.

As noted above, learning listening skill is the most challenging activity particularly for EFL learners, and this difficulty may lead them to a lack of motivation and inadequate ability to do listening comprehension tasks (Graham, 2006). Flowerdew & Miller (2010:168) argue that "LC can take place only if individuals are motivated to listen. There are many influences on listeners which may affect the way they listen to something and either increase or decrease their effectiveness as listeners". Underwood (1989:111) says that while "motivation is important in all language learning, it is doubly important in learning to listen, and needs to be coupled with a high level of success from the very beginning" but there has been "very little research on the relationship between L2 listening and learning motivation" (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012:72).

However, it is argued that motivation is not the only factor for enhancing high proficiency or performance since a range of factors including teaching methods, instructional materials, time of instruction, classroom settings, learners' learning styles, teachers' teaching abilities and other IDs affect the process (Ellis, 1994; Cohen, 2010). Similarly, Krashen & Terrel (1983) suggest that several factors within affective filter hypothesis have also direct impacts on learners' success or failure in the SLA. Affective filter "is often used to describe the 'blockage' caused by negative emotional attitudes towards learning a SL" (Tavakoli, 2012:17). It is a mental block that keeps learners from a fully use of comprehensible input they receive for SLA (Krashen, 1985).

Learners with lower affective filter tend to do better and be more open to input in the TL. Ellis (1994:515) says that "A high level of motivation does stimulate learning, but perceived success

in achieving L2 goal can help to maintain existing motivation and even create new types. Conversely, a vicious circle of low motivation → low achievement → lower motivation can develop". This means motivation interacts with different factors like self-confidence, beliefs, anxiety and so on. It does not mean that "everybody can be motivated to learn everything and even generally motivated students are not equally keen on every subject matter" (Dörnyei, 2001:25). Conversely, different learners might have different types of motivation for learning different skills. For instance, some learners may like to learn speaking skills rather than to learn listening skill and vice versa.

In the case above, Williams & Burden (1997:120) say that "what motivates one person to learn a foreign language and keeps that person going until he or she has achieved a level of proficiency with which he or she is satisfied will differ from individual to individual". Motivation directly affects (a) how much effort learners make, (b) how often they use learning strategies, (c) how much they interact with proficient speakers of the TL, (d) how much input they receive in the TL, (e) how well they do on achievement tests, (f) how fast they develop good abilities in the TL and (g) how long they persist in learning after their studies are over. Factors affecting L2 motivation are vast and varied to deal with all of them here. The next section discusses only the impact of teaching methods on learners' motivation toward learning English in general and listening skill in particular.

2.6.5.6 Impacts of Teaching Methods and Materials on SL/FL Learners' Motivation

A lack sufficient motivation leads to poor performance on the TL which results in negative attitude to the learning tasks (Gardner, 1985). A range of factors including syllabus, materials, learning tasks and teaching methods are determinants of motivation that affect learners' values on the learning tasks and the degree of effort they will exert in learning (Oxford, 1990; Dörnyei, 2001). Oxford (1999) claims that poor teaching methods, texts and irrelevant learning tasks are some of the major causes of learners' low motivation. Based on previous studies, Brown (2007:3) says that the "teacher-controlled environments in formal classroom settings will invariably undermine ... intrinsic motivation and bring about a decrease in learning and an increase in negative attitudes".

Richards & Rodgers (2001) assert that each teaching method has negative or positive effects on learners' motivation toward learning the TL. For example, if a learner finds the teaching method

very boring, she or he may become de-motivated and stop learning (Brown, 2007). From previous studies, Dornyei & Ushioda (2011:141) summarize that "approximately two-thirds of the reported sources of demotivation in these studies were 'teacher-owned', that is, the lack of motivation was attributed to what the teacher had done". When learners are not interested in the method, they start to get bored with it (Brown, 2000) or they may give little effort to learn an L2 (Mulugeta, 1997).

Learners at Samara University may face these problems as they were taught, more or less, by the same methods and textbooks. Through teaching English in preparatory and higher institutions, the researcher observed that many students had low motivation to learn English in general and listening skill in particular. Most of them had low interest in doing listening comprehension activities. Besides, many students had low confidence in responding to the LC questions orally. All these suggest that lack of motivation might have contributed to learners' poor LC abilities. It has been claimed that SBI models is the best option to arouse and increase learners' motivation to learn listening skills. The next section explains the importance of learning strategies for enhancing learner motivation.

2.6.5.7 Studies on the Benefits of Learning Strategies for Enhancing Motivation

Theoretical research shows the linkage between the concepts of motivation and learning strategy. Learning strategies are by definition motivated learning behaviors which can affect learner's motivation to continue learning an L2 (Dornyei, 2005). O'Malley & Chamot (1990: 160) state that "Motivation, or the will to learn, can be considered a component of metacognition insofar as it plays a self-regulatory role in learning". Motivation and learning strategy have also key common features: while motivation is characterized by desire to achieve a goal, positive attitudes and effort (Gardner, 1985), learning strategy is characterized by goal-directed, effortful and choice (Oxford, 1990).

Dornyei (2005:164-5) says that "if we define the strategic quality of learning with goal-oriented, intentionally evoked, and effortful behavior then we, in effect, equate 'strategic' with 'motivated,' because goal-oriented, intentionally evoked, and effortful are three key features of motivation". Key concepts of motivation are also exist in various definitions of learning strategy (e.g., Oxford, 1990; Cohen, 1998), indicating the linkage between the two constructs. However, empirical research on motivation and learning strategy began in the late 1980s and 1990s with

the publication of some articles by Ehrman & Oxford (1989), Oxford & Nyikos (1989), Oxford & Shearin (1994) and others.

Oxford & Shearin (1994) declare that it is vital to understand learners' motivation since it affects the use of learning strategies. As result, researchers have begun to examine (a) the impacts of motivation on the use of learning strategies and (b) the relationship between L2 motivation and learning strategies use. There has been limited research on (a) the importance of using learning strategies for increasing learner motivation and/or (b) the effects of SBI on learners' motivation to learn the SL/FL. As Takeuchi et al. (2007:71) say, "Few studies ... have been conducted so far as to ascertain ... whether motivation spurs strategy use or, conversely, strategy use leads to better language performance, which in turn increases motivation and thus leads to increased strategy use".

As noted above, most previous studies examined the relationship between L2 motivation and learning strategies. Findings of most of these studies showed positive relationship between learning strategies use and L2 motivation (Vandergrift, 2008). Chang & Huang (1999) examined the relationship between motivation and learning strategies of 46 Taiwanese undergraduate and graduate EFL learners in the United States. Data analysis showed that motivation proved to correlate significantly with the choice and use of learning strategies. The findings also indicated that instrumentally-motivated learners used more memory and affective strategies, while students with integrative motivation used higher range of cognitive and metacognitive learning strategies.

In a study correlating listening test scores with student reported levels of motivation and their reported use of cognitive and metacognitive listening strategies, Vandergrift (2005) found an interesting pattern of increasingly higher correlations between each of the three levels of motivation (a continuum of increasing self-determination from amotivation to extrinsic and to intrinsic motivation) and reported use of metacognitive strategies. Similarly, Ziahosseini & Salehi (2007) examined the relationship between strategies use and motivation of Iranian university students. Findings showed that intrinsic motivation correlated with the choice of learning strategies. At the end of their study, the researchers reported that extrinsic motivation did not correlate with the choice of learning strategies.

It is noteworthy that knowledge about listening strategies is still vague because attention of most research on the field has been devoted to reading, writing, speaking and vocabulary strategies

(O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Vandergrift, 1997; Anderson 2005). O'Malley & Chamot (1990:170) notes that "all previous work had focused on strategies for vocabulary learning, while ignoring altogether more complicated language tasks such as listening and speaking". But studies on reading, writing and vocabulary abroad indicate that a well-designed and implemented SBI can have positive effects on learners' motivation. Learners who experience success in using strategies are likely to approach new learning tasks with more positive motivation than unsuccessful ones who may have developed a negative attitude towards the learning tasks (O'Malley et al., 1985).

Bearing the above in mind, Ehrman & Oxford (1989) conducted a study at the Foreign Service Institute and found that adult students learning FL for job-related reasons were motivated to use many functional communicative practice strategies. In the same year, Oxford & Nyikos (1989) did a study and found that motivation had a powerful influence on reported use of learning strategies. Oxford (1990) suggests that SBI models can help learners become more motivated as they begin to understand the relationship between strategies use and success. Guilloteaux & Dornyei (2008:55) also speculate that "teacher's use of motivational strategies is generally believed to enhance student motivation, yet, the literature has little empirical evidence to support this claim".

Dornyei (2005:173) writes that "good strategy instruction is inherently motivating and interesting, which suggests that classrooms in which the instruction of effective cognitive strategies will produce students who will have more skill and will". Gardner et al. (1997) conducted a study on learners of French and found somewhat mixed results. While motivation and strategies use were linked to each other, reported strategy use was not correlated with achievement, and the researcher suggested that strategies use was related to lower achievement. In another study, Oxford (1993:21) observed that the "more often learners used a variety of learning strategies, the more motivated they became. Frequency of strategy use was ... a significant predictor of L2 achievement, as was motivation".

Similarly, Nunan (1997) examined the effects of SBI on motivation, knowledge of strategies, perceived use of strategies and actual strategy use of first-year undergraduate learners at Hong Kong University. Sixty students were randomly assigned to the control and experimental groups. The students in the EG were trained in 15 learning strategies. Data gained from both groups were

analyzed and results showed significant differences in the learners' motivation, knowledge of strategies and perceived use of strategies. But the findings should be treated with caution since the questionnaire had not been tested for internal consistency. Despite this limitation, findings of Nunan's study are congruent with Guilloteaux & Dornyei's (2008) speculation as noted above.

Another recent experiment study by Rubin & McCoy (2005) cited in Griffiths (2008:12) showed that "Providing instruction even to highly unmotivated learners can lead to a significant increase in learners' ability to do task analysis". Based on previous studies, Vandergrift & Goh (2012:119) conclude that the process-based teaching "appears to have positive effects on the ... student perception of the listening process and motivation to listen". But most previous studies examined these constructs using correlational method but its results cannot show causality; therefore, "language learning strategy research must move towards establishing causation rather than remaining at the level of correlation (Cohen and Macaro, 2007:280-281).

Many L2 researchers (e.g., Hassan, et al., Macaro et al., 2007; Vandergrift & Goh, 2012) suggest that more experimental studies are needed to examine the effect of SBI on EFL learners' motivation to learn listening skills. Similarly, Vandergrift & Goh (2012:119) recommend "experimental studies to verify the tacit assumption that a group of learners exposed to similar activities over a period of time would demonstrate superior achievement in listening (e.g., a unit of study, a semester, or an academic year)". The present researcher is unaware of any other study examining the effects of SBI on learners' motivation to learn listening in Ethiopia. Therefore, this study aimed to check if SBI had positive effect on learners' motivation at Samara University.

2.6.6 Language Learning and Listening Anxiety

Anxiety might have been another barrier to the development of learners' listening abilities at Samara University. The definition of anxiety, beginning of research on anxiety, major causes of LC anxiety, same studies on the relationship between L2 anxiety and listening abilities are respectively described in the following subsections.

2.6.6.1 Definition and Features of Language Learning Anxiety

Theoretical and empirical research on anxiety started in the 1970s when researchers began to examine factors affecting language learning process and achievement. Since then, researchers in different areas (psychology, education and applied linguistics) have begun to theorize, define and

categorize anxiety. However, there is no a clear definition of anxiety in the field of SLA. This is probably because language anxiety is a complex and multidimensional phenomenon of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings and behaviors related to learning (Young, 1991).

Dornyei (2005) argues that there is an overall uncertainty about the construct of L2 anxiety whether it is a motivational, a personality trait, or situation-specific emotional reactions. Similarly, Brown (2000:150-151) notes that "Even though we all know what anxiety is and we all have experienced feelings of anxiousness, anxiety is still not easy to define in a simple sentence". Nevertheless, Horwitz et al. (1986) define anxiety as a: subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system. Just as anxiety prevents some people from performing successfully in science or mathematics, many people find FL learning in classroom situations, particularly stressful (125).

MacIntyre & Gardner (1994:284) define anxiety as "the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with SL contexts, including speaking, listening, and learning". Vogely (1999) defines it as a part of affective factors that can have adverse effects on learners' motivation, self-confidence and their language abilities. In this study, 'anxiety' refers to learners' feeling of fear, tension, nervousness and worry about listening to spoken English, or learning and doing listening comprehension tasks or both.

2.6.6.2 Beginning of Research on Language Learning Anxiety

Theory and research of the second half of the 20th century brought considerable shifts in views about affective factors. Young (1999) summarizes these shifts as transitions from body to mind and to emotions referring to behaviorism, cognitive science and affect respectively. As noted in section **2.6.2.1**, the behaviorist theory did not give attention to the cognitive and affective factors. However, scholars within cognitive and humanistic psychology have begun to emphasize on the benefits of cognitive and affective variables for effective learning process and achievement (Young, 1999).

As a crucial affective factor, anxiety has been a major research topic since the 1970s and findings have shown that anxiety is a common phenomenon for any normal person but it is quiet unique for L2 learners (Gardner, 1985; Oxford, 1999). Gardner (1985:146) says that "Languages are unlike any other subject taught in a classroom in that they involve the acquisition of skills

and behavior patterns which are characteristics of another community". Based on their study, Horwitz et al. (1986:128) concluded that L2 anxiety is "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings and behavior related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the L2 learning process".

Research also identifies three major types of anxiety: (1) communication apprehension, (2) test anxiety and (3) fear of negative evaluation. Communication apprehension is a type of shyness characterized by fear of communicating with people. Test anxiety is a performance anxiety caused by fear of failure in tests. Fear of negative evaluation is apprehension about others' evaluations and the expectation that others would evaluate negatively (Young, 1992). These three anxiety types can, directly or indirectly, affect learners' performances since they involve in the communication and testing processes.

Anxiety can be either facilitating or debilitating (Ellis, 2012) or harmful and helpful anxiety (Oxford, 1999). Facilitative anxiety can help learners study harder and make stronger efforts to perform better in L2 classes (Andrade & Williams, 2009). On the contrary, harmful anxiety leads learners to withdraw from the language learning tasks and to adopt avoidance behaviors (Ellis, 2012). Similarly, Oxford (1990:142) argues that "harmful anxiety presents itself in many guises: worry, self-doubt, frustration, helplessness, insecurity, fear, and physical symptoms". But the negative side of anxiety is greater than the positive one since it disturbs individuals' cognitive skills (Goh, 2008). MacIntyre, (1995) states how anxiety affects L2 learning process as follows:

Language learning is a cognitive activity that relies on encoding, storage, and retrieval processes, and anxiety can interfere with each of these by creating a divided attention scenario for anxious students. Anxious students are focused on both the task at hand and their reactions to it. For example, when responding to a question in a class, the anxious student is focused on answering the teacher's question and evaluating the social implications of the answer while giving it (96)

The above statement suggests that language learning is a complex cognitive process and has a direct link with anxiety. Despite variations in severity, all learners experience some type of anxiety (Oxford, 1999) because language classes are "inherently face threatening environments" where learners are expected to perform through the use of a "severely restricted language code" (Dornyei, 2001:91). L2 anxiety damages learners' achievement "indirectly through worry and self-doubt and directly by reducing participation and creating overt avoidance of the language" (Oxford, 1999:60). It has been reported by many researchers (e.g., Vogely, 1999; Young, 1991;

Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002) that, of all the L2 skills, it is speaking that learners consider as the most anxiety-provoking.

However, recent studies revealed that learners encounter anxiety in learning all basic skills and other components of the TL. Listening is a highly anxiety-causing skill particularly for FL learners (Kim, 2002; Gonen, 2009). Vogely (1999:109) claims that "One of the most innocuous but potentially one of the most debilitating types of anxiety is the anxiety accompanying LC tasks". Most FL learners face anxiety when doing listening activities (Kim, 2002). Hence, anxiety has gradually been a focus of research on listening skill and it is a variable that must be respected in teaching and accounted for in research (Young, 1999). Major factors causing listening anxiety are described below.

2.6.6.3 Major Factors Causing the SL/FL Learners' LC Anxiety

Theoretical and empirical studies conducted since the 1970s have identified many factors causing ESL/EFL learners' anxiety. For example, a study by Young (1991) identified six major sources of anxiety from three directions: the learner, the teacher, and the methods. Young claims that L2 anxiety is caused by (a) learners' personal and interpersonal anxiety, (b) their beliefs about language learning, (c) instructors' beliefs about L2 teaching, (d) teacher-learner interactions, (e) classroom procedures and (f) testing.

Vogely (1998) administered open-ended questions to 140 students and found the following factors causing listening anxiety. First, 51% of the respondents blamed input for their listening anxiety: nature of speech (28%), level of difficulty (11%), lack of clarity (5%), lack of visual support (4%), repetition of input (3%). Second, 30% of the respondents were concerned with the process itself: inappropriate strategies (trying to translate word for word) (24%), lack of time to process (3%), cannot study for listening tests (2%) and cannot check answers (1%). Third, 13% of respondents blamed personal factors: fear of failure (10%), nerves (2%), and the instructors' personality (1%). Fourth, 6% of the students blamed instructional factors: lack of listening practice (3%), uncomfortable environment: too small a group, feeling hot or cold (1%).

Classroom listening activities are the main sources of anxiety since sound and linguistic structure present problems over LC difficulties (Horwitz et al., 1986). These difficulties can create anxiety in the learners' minds (Dunkel, 1991). Scarcella & Oxford (1992) stress that anxiety occurs when

listeners face a task they feel is too difficult. Listening is also a complex process holding thinking disturbances which can be the primary sources of anxiety (Goh, 2008). Cognitive process is "diminished because of the divided attention, and thus performance suffers, leading to negative self-evaluations and more self-deprecating cognition which further impair performance" (MacIntyre, 1995:92).

However, foreign language listeners suffer from anxiety as they may not handle messages from fast speech, which lead them to "discouragement, fatigue, and a general sense of failure" (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992:149). Goh (2008:191) also notes that "learners may become anxious because they have not 'done well' and may fear that they will be negatively evaluated by their teachers and peers". The process of listening to fast speech and then doing LC tasks can create debilitating anxiety, fear of negative evaluation, and develop negative attitudes towards the lessons (Oxford, 1999; Goh, 2008).

Listeners who "confront increased message length and/or speed may experience higher levels of listening anxiety and diminished listening ability" (Wolvin, 2010:13). Listening is also highly anxiety-provoking skill if the topic is unfamiliar and if the discourse is incomprehensible (Young, 1992). EFL learners suffer from a large amount of anxiety since they rarely handle the contents in the medium of the new language (Rost, 1990). To add to the problem, "many teachers are ... unsure of how to teach listening in a principled manner" and "learners are still left to develop their listening abilities on their own with little direct support from the teacher" (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012:4).

Traditional teaching methods can create high anxiety since they ignore learners' feelings, motivation, learning style preferences, anxiety and so (Celce-Murcia, 1991; Oxford, 1999). Teaching methods and activities such as "Hear it, repeat it, Hear it, answer it, or Hear it translate it" (Osada, 2004:54) and "an exclusive interest in the right answer often creates a high level of anxiety" (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012:270). Hedge (2000:237) says that "learners' anxiety can be exacerbated by a classroom procedure which does not contextualize the text or prepare the topic by activating prior knowledge... a procedure which asks students to 'Listen to the text and answer the question'".

Based on their observations, Vandergrift & Goh (2012) explain that many teachers have still used a method similar to what Osada (2004:54) states "Hear it, repeat it, Hear it, answer" format.

But the 'Listen to texts and answer questions' formats increase learners' harmful listening anxiety (Berne, 2004; Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). As noted in section 2.6.2.3, however, experience shows that the 'Listen to texts and answer questions' format was the most common method. This type of instruction can lead learners to get anxious and they may stop learning or practicing LC activities in the classrooms (Goh, 2008).

2.6.6.4 Studies on the Relationship between L2 Anxiety and Learners' LC Abilities

Empirical research into the impacts of anxiety on proficiency/achievement began in the 1970s. But most of the previous studies have been done in the western countries where English is taught as a SL; studies on FL anxiety have far fallen behind in non-western countries (Pei-xin, 2016). Besides, the early studies examined the impacts of anxiety on the learners' overall L2 proficiency (Pei-xin, 2016) and their anxiety levels using correlational methods (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991; Young, 1991). There has been little research on the relationship between anxiety and LC abilities of EFL learners around the world (Kim, 2002; Gonen, 2009; Vandergrift & Goh, 2012).

As Kim (2002:4) says, "the effect of anxiety on FL/SL listening has been hardly mentioned until recently because most language courses have emphasized only speaking proficiency". Even most of the recent studies (Elkhafaifi, 2005; Kimura, 2008; Gonen, 2009; Golchi, 2012; Liu, 2013) examined the relationship between anxiety and LC abilities or achievements of the EFL learners. As described below, findings of the recent studies showed negative correlation between anxiety and LC abilities/achievements meaning that poorer performances for learners with high levels of listening anxieties.

A study by Kim (2002) investigated the relationship between FL listening and L2 anxiety of 253 EFL university students in Korea. The instruments used in the study consisted of the FLLCAS, a TOEFL listening test, four listening passages to elicit listening anxiety, and a questionnaire to gather background information. The study revealed that FL learners experience anxiety in response to listening comprehension and that this anxiety is significantly related to both general language anxiety and listening ability. Based on the results, Kim suggested that most learners encounter anxiety in FL classes.

Elkhafaifi (2005) examined the relationship of FL anxiety, listening anxiety and learners' performances on the listening tasks in an Arabic context. Two types of instruments: an adapted form of FLLAS and FLCAS were administered to 233 learners enrolled in six universities. Besides, each learner's listening achievement test score was used as an overall index of performance. The results showed that FL learning anxiety and listening comprehension anxiety are negatively correlated with the achievement test scores.

Gonen (2009) explored the relationship between listening anxiety and strategies among Turkish EFL learners. The study used 60 intermediate learners. It also used FLLAS and Listening Strategy Inventory to determine the level of learners' anxiety and their listening strategies use respectively. Participants were divided into three different groups based on their anxiety levels: high-anxious, mid-anxious, and low anxious. The results showed a negative correlation between learners' listening anxiety and their strategies use. High-anxious learners used listening strategies less than low-anxious learners and vice versa.

A similar study by Ham (2014) explored the relationship between anxiety and listening proficiency of Chinese non-English major sophomore learners. This researcher collected data with a listening proficiency test, the FLLAS, a listening strategy questionnaire and an interview. The result showed that the correlation coefficient is $-.649$, ($p=.000<.05$) suggesting a significant negative correlation between anxiety and listening proficiency. This means that the higher the learner's anxiety, the lower his/her listening proficiency or achievement and vice versa. Despite lack of empirical research to support the claim, Samara University EFL learners might encounter anxiety in learning listening skills.

The present researcher's teaching experience revealed that many learners did not like to attend listening classes. Besides, the researcher's informal discussion with two English teachers at Samara University showed that most of the students attend listening classes to avoid absenteeism as attendance is obligatory in each session. One of the teachers said that many of his students were afraid of giving responses to the LC questions orally, taking part in group discussions and asking for clarifications (May 29, 2014). This echoes Horwitz et al.'s (1986:130) claim that "anxious students feel a deep self-consciousness when asked to risk revealing themselves by speaking FL ... and fear they will not understand all language input". So what should be done to reduce learners' LC anxieties?

Researchers have called for a shift in methodology from traditional to SBI models (Oxford, 1999; Cohen & Weaver, 2005). SBI models are vital to reduce anxieties in L2 learning process (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Cohen & Weaver (2005:41) suggest teachers to "establish an atmosphere of trust - where students feel comfortable asking for help and sharing their learning difficulties" Chamot & Kupper (1989) suggest that SBI can help learners overcome many learning problems such as anxieties, negative attitudes and lack of motivation. The use of affective strategies such as relaxed classroom atmosphere and risk-taking are effective in decreasing FL anxiety (Oxford, 1990).

Similarly, several scholars suggest that LC anxieties can be minimized by applying SBI to the learners' regular LC lessons (Kim, 2002; Elkhafafi, 2005; Rost, 2011; Ham, 2014). Vogely (1999:107) says that "language teaching profession needs to develop effective LC activities that also alleviate anxiety associated with LC". Strategy instruction can reduce learners' anxieties associated with LC activities (Goh, 2008). In the same vein, Ham (2014) suggests that encouragement helps learners find out what leads to their anxieties in LC and makes better decisions to choose listening strategies.

It is noteworthy that most of the above are drawn from correlational research methods. In this regard, Ranjbar et al. (2014:295) states that "although most of the studies done so far have suggested different anxiety-reducing strategies in their pedagogical implications, the field suffers from the lack of experimental research on their effectiveness". Similarly, Liu (2013:76) notes that "there is still very limited investigation into the strategy use of EFL learners in relation to anxiety and self-rated proficiency". This researcher is unaware of any local research on the cause/effect relationship of SBI and LC anxiety. Hence, this study aimed to examine whether the SBI could help reduce learners' LC anxieties.

2.6.7 Beliefs about Learning English LC Lessons

Learners' beliefs might contribute to their poor listening abilities. An overview of belief about learning an L2, definition of beliefs in terms of language learning, learners' beliefs about LC, impacts of beliefs on learners' LC activities and studies into the impacts of learners' beliefs on their LC abilities are respectively described in the next sections.

2.6.7.1 An Overview of Belief about Learning a Second/Foreign Language

The term 'belief' has been an important concept in psychology for quite a long time but it entered SLA field in the 1970s (White, 2008). Research on beliefs about SLA began by Rubin (1975) and Naiman et al. (1978) when they consider certain beliefs as part of general characteristics separating successful from unsuccessful learners. Since then, the concept of belief has gained much favor by L2 researchers (Yang, 1999). But the scientific research on belief about L2 teaching/learning began in the mid-1980s.

Horwitz (1986,1987) developed a Likert Scale questionnaire referred to as Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) to assess learners' beliefs regarding (1) Foreign language aptitude; (2) Difficulty of language learning; (3) Nature of language learning; (4) Learning and communication strategies; (5) Motivation and expectations. Wenden (1987) also designed a content analysis method to identify and categorize responses from interviewees. This study adapted some items from Horwitz's (1987) BALLI to measure possible changes in learners' beliefs about learning listening skill, difficulty of learning listening skill, benefits of learning strategies for boosting LC abilities and motivation.

2.6.7.2 Definition and Features of Beliefs in the Area of SLA

The term 'belief' has different definitions and perspectives in the L2 literature. Wenden (1991) describes belief as the knowledge held by learners about various factors in learning process and about how to learn a language Williams & Burden (1997) view beliefs as learner intentions, interpretations, perceptions, preconceptions, and attitudes. Belief is “a central construct in every discipline that deals with human behavior and learning” (Bernat & Gvozdenko, 2005:1). Borg (2001:187) defines it as “a mental state which has as its content a proposition that is accepted as true by the individual holding it, although the individual may recognize that alternative beliefs may be held by others”.

More recently, Richards & Schmidt (2010) define beliefs as ideas that individuals hold about the different aspects of a language, the teaching/learning processes, the learning materials/activities that may influence attitudes, anxieties and motivations. Most recently, Larenas et al. (2015:172) consider beliefs as “mental and affective constructions of experience are integrated into schemata. Beliefs are any simple proportions inferred from what a person says or does, capable

of being preceded by the phrase, 'I believe that'". At the same time, Horwitz (2015:24) describe beliefs as "ideas that people have about how humans learn second languages and consequently how languages should be taught".

The various definitions and labels mentioned above indicate that 'belief' is difficult to define. Regarding this point, Pajares (1992) argues that belief is difficult to define because one cannot directly observe and easily measure it. Williams & Burden (1997:56) assert that "beliefs are notoriously difficult to define and evaluate, but there are a number of helpful statements that we can make about them". But Werbinska (2014:34) comments that there are "a diversity of terms, many of which stand for seemingly the same concepts: beliefs, kinds of knowledge, conceptions, attitudes, intuitions, opinions, ideas, philosophies, personal (subjective) theories, etc". Despite controversies on the definition, beliefs have high impacts on the learning processes and outcomes as described below.

2.6.7.3 Learners' Beliefs about Learning English Listening Skills

Learners, regardless of genders, ages, cultural and educational backgrounds hold various beliefs about how languages are learned, how learning outcomes are tested, and how much control they do or do not have in their learning processes (White, 2008). Bernat & Gvozdenko (2005:1) note that the "second or FL students may hold strong beliefs about the nature of the language under study, its difficulty, the process of its acquisition, the success of certain learning strategies, the existence of aptitude, their own expectations about achievement and teaching methodologies". Learners' beliefs can guide how they interpret their experiences and how they behave in the classrooms (White, 2008).

Dornyei (2001:66-67) states that "most learners will have certain beliefs ... and most of these beliefs are likely to be (at least partly) incorrect. Incorrect beliefs can become real barriers to the mastery of an L2". These beliefs can arise from previous teaching methods, learning experiences, culture and so on (Horwitz, 1988; Young, 1999; White, 2008). White (2008) claims that SL/FL learners hold different beliefs, some are influenced by their previous learning experiences and others are shaped by their cultural backgrounds. Dornyei (2005:214) says that "beliefs greatly affect behavior, for example when someone believes in a particular method of learning and therefore resists another".

Horwitz (1987) argue that beliefs about what learners need to learn influence their desires to learn the TL elements and to choose the teaching/learning methods. Research shows that learners who passed through traditional teaching methods such as teacher-centered, book-based and grammar-based develop stronger positive beliefs about learning an L2 than learners who passed through modern methods such as the cooperative learning, SBI and CLT. Studies on different cultural and educational settings show that many students liked to learn grammar and vocabulary (Peacock, 2001; Ellis, 2008; Ranjbar et al., 2014). Based previous research on learners' beliefs, Horwitz (2015) summarizes that:

Adult learners have had previous educational experiences and from those experiences, they may have come to believe in specific ways to approach learning. BALLI responses indicate that substantial numbers of students believe that language learning is a matter of translating, or learning vocabulary words, or learning grammar rules (25).

The above quotation indicates that learners' beliefs have negative or positive impacts on language learning (White, 2008; Li, 2010; Horwirt, 2015). The positive impacts occur if a learner holds a belief that the task is more interesting and more useful is more likely to persist longer on the task and expends greater effort to complete the task than other learners. The negative impacts occur if a learner holds a belief that if the task is boring or unrelated to his/her life may stop learning (Graham, 2006). Negative impacts can also occur if a learner holds a belief that learning grammar and vocabulary is more important than learning the basic skills in the TL to develop his/her communication ability.

Research has shown that most EFL learners placed more emphasis on learning grammar and vocabulary than learning listening and speaking skills. A study by Peacock (1999) discovered 64% of participants confirmed the importance of learning grammar. Ranjbar et al. (2014:294) observed that "Many students believed that listening was not as essential as their writing, reading and grammar classes". Horwitz (1988:283) says that "a student who believes that learning a SL primarily involves learning new vocabulary will expend most of his/her energy on vocabulary acquisition". Likewise, wrong beliefs can prevent learners from practicing different listening activities (Graham, 2006).

Similarly, this researcher's experience of teaching English at different levels of education in Afar Region showed that most of the students focused on practicing grammar and vocabulary parts; they either ignored or paid little attention to the listening activities. Besides, the researcher's

informal discussion with two instructors showed that most of the students were reluctant to learn listening lessons in the classrooms. Regarding learners' preferred language aspects to studying, one of the instructor said that "most of the first year students in my class liked to learn grammar and vocabulary parts" (May 29, 2014).

As to learners' strategies, one of the instructors stated that "most of the students expected teachers to teach them grammar and vocabulary (May 29, 2014). In explaining the possible reasons, the instructor said that "the main reason could have been the carry-over effects of the traditional methods used in the pre-university classes" (May 29, 2014). These suggest that learners' prior learning experiences and their traditional beliefs might prevent them from practicing various listening activities. It indicates the necessity of changing learners' wrong beliefs using effective training methods.

However, whether or not beliefs can be changed through training has been a controversial issue in the SLA field. There have been two opposing views regarding the changeability or stability of learners' wrong beliefs about L2 learning. Some scholars (Pajares, 1992; Peacock, 2001; Richards & Schmidt, 2010) argue that beliefs are social, affective and cognitive variables developed through a long period of time, as a result, they are not easy to change with training. Williams & Burden (1997:56) note that "beliefs tend to be culturally bound, to be formed early in life and to be resistant to change". Similarly, Li (2004:24) states that "beliefs about L2 learning should be stable over time, indicating that beliefs are formed and maintained by a complex social and cultural system". However, there has been little empirical evidence to support this view (Larenas et al., 2015).

Other scholars (Oxford, 1990; Victori & Lockhart, 1995; Tanaka & Ellis, 2003) argue that though beliefs are formed on a gradual basis, over a period of time, they are not totally static, but changeable variables. Based on previous research, Larenas et al. (2015:172) also claim that "beliefs can be changed or reoriented as a result of input from other professionals and activity type interventions". Despite this suggestion, "there is a dearth of empirical research on the learners' beliefs as to how much changeable or unchangeable they can be" (Werbinska, 2014:33). But the debate on whether learners' beliefs can be changed through training has continued to date in the L2 field.

Over the past decades, however, there has been a growing interest in changing learners' wrong beliefs about language learning. Learning is basically a process by which behaviors, attitudes and beliefs are changed and this can be achieved using SBI models (Oxford, 1990). A well designed SBI models can change learners' beliefs that counteract effective learning process (Peacock, 2001). Oxford (1990:201) says that "the best strategy training not only teaches strategies but also deals with...beliefs about taking on more responsibility and about the role change implied by the use of learning strategies". The next section reviews some studies on the learners' beliefs.

2.6.7.4 Studies on the Changeability and Impacts of L2 Learners' Beliefs

Learners' beliefs have enjoyed theoretical support from scholars since the 1970s. But there have been few experimental studies to support or refute the claim that SBI can help change learners' wrong beliefs. The majority of previous studies have examined learners' beliefs about learning EFL in general. Besides, the previous studies have been done in the western world where English is taught as a second language. Two experimental studies conducted abroad are selected as samples to this study.

Tanaka & Ellis (2003) conducted a study to examine learners' beliefs about learning English abroad for a 15-week-long. They used BALLI to see changes in 166 Japanese learners' beliefs about learning English as a FL in the United States. The results showed significant changes in the pre/post means for analytic learning, experiential learning and confidence. But there was no statistically significant relationship between changes in beliefs and in proficiency. The study had a limitation, that is, learners lived together and studied in same classes with native-speaking teachers. But study can provide useful implication for further research and instruction for learners studying English at home.

Most of the previous studies focused on FL learners' beliefs about learning reading and speaking skills abroad. An experimental study by Mohammadi et al. (2015) examined the effects of SBI on learners' beliefs about learning reading skill. Seventy-eight freshmen students studying ELT and translation were divided into EG (n = 40) and CG (n = 38). Learners in the EG received training in reading strategies but learners in the CG did not. The treatment occurred for 4 hours a week for 15 weeks. Language Learners' Beliefs Scale developed by the researchers and the reading section of Cambridge Preliminary English Test were administered before and after treatment. The independent t-test indicated significant change in learners' beliefs. This finding is

contrary to Peacock's (2001) longitudinal study that showed no significant changes in learners' beliefs.

However, research into the effects of SBI on learners' beliefs about learning FL listening skills is rare in the literature. Graham (2006:169) has called for more research "to determine whether such an approach would benefit learners' beliefs about and performance in L2 listening comprehension". The present researcher is unaware of any research into the effects of the SBI model on the learners' beliefs about learning listening skill in the Ethiopian and Samara University contexts. Thus, this study aimed to examine if the SBI could change learners' wrong beliefs about the teachability/learnability of listening skills, difficulty of learning this skills and benefits of listening strategies.

2.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the definitions, importance and processes of listening skill. It also discussed the three cognitive processes: perception, parsing, and utilization. The bottom-up, top-down and interactive listening comprehension models were also explained. The sections that follow explained the major factors affecting ESL/EFL learners' listening or learning processes in the classrooms. The last sections explained the methods and materials used in the Ethiopian listening classes and factors affecting learners' performance on listening comprehension activities. The major factors discussed in this section were test-led instruction, lack of motivation, listening anxiety, beliefs about the learnability/teachability of listening skill and importance of learning listening lessons.

However, given the paramount importance of listening skill, both researchers and teachers have responsibility to search for better methods that can facilitate effective learning and develop learners' listening abilities. It has been claimed that a well-designed and implemented SBI results in facilitating effective learning and developing listening abilities, increasing motivation, reducing harmful anxiety, changing wrong beliefs associated with learning listening and practicing comprehension activities. Chapter three describes language learning strategy with its major issues and features.

Chapter Three: A Review of the Literature on Language Learning Strategy

The literature reviewed in chapter two informs the necessity of making learners aware and use of appropriate listening strategies for developing their listening abilities. One approach strongly recommended by many L2 scholars is SBI model. The first sections of this chapter discuss the literature on the various issues of learning strategy including its origin, research development, definitions, classifications, aims of the SBI models. The sections that follow explain factors affecting the choice and use of learning strategies, review some studies into the effects of SBI models on the ESL/EFL learners' strategies use and listening abilities, and describe the different types of SBI models. The last section presents summary of this chapter and informs the subsequent chapter.

3.1 Origin of the Term 'Strategy'

The term 'strategy' derived from its Greek root 'strategia' meaning command of a general at the time of war. Ancient Greece used 'strategy' as plans to manage troops to win wars (Oxford, 2003). A subset of strategies referred as "mnemonic strategies have been used for thousands of years. Ancient Greeks used a form of mnemonics... to help orators remember their speeches" (Reid & Lienemann, 2006:213-214). These strategies were used not only by ancient Greece but also by ancient Ethiopians. Ethiopian parents and religious teachers used such strategies' to teach their children and students respectively. For example, my grant mother used to tell us (children) heroic and good deeds through 'tales' or 'Teret-teret' often at nights. Now, the term 'Strategy' is used more in the field of language education than it was used in other fields. But the notion of 'learning strategy' was not defined and used in the area of SLA until the 1970s.

3.2 Beginning of Empirical Research on Language Learning Strategy

Empirical research on learning strategy dates back to the 1970s and beyond (Wenden & Rubin, 1987) "when information processing theories were applied in the area of memory strategies to be used in educational settings" (Dornyei, 2005:188). The terms 'empirical' research' refer to "an evidence-based approach that relies on direct observation and experimentation in the acquisition of new knowledge" (Marczyk et al., 2005:6). One of the first studies on learning strategy was Rubin's (1975) article entitled 'What the "Good Language Learner Can Teach Us'. Rubin's interest was to distinguish successful from unsuccessful learners by classifying their use of

'modifiable variables' with the intention of helping less skilled learners improve their learning processes and outcomes.

Based on that study, Rubin (1975) noticed that good learners (1) are willing and accurate guessers; (2) have strong desire to communicate; (3) are willing to make mistakes; (4) focus on form by looking for patterns and analyzing; (5) take advantage of practice opportunities; (6) monitor their speech and that of others; and (7) pay attention to meaning. Rubin's (1975) good learners' "strategies are still among the most significant for L2 learners the world over" (Cohen & Weaver, 2005:5). A major finding of this study is that the strategies used by successful learners can be taught to those who are struggling to learn a new language, thus making them better learners. As Rubin (1975) states:

The different success of SL or FL suggests a need to examine in detail what strategies successful learners employ. An indication is given of what these strategies might consist of and a list of several widely recognized good learner strategies are given. Teachers can improve their performance by paying more attention to learner strategies already seen as productive (41).

Stern (1975:31) also observed what strategies would good learners use in learning a SL and listed nine major strategies linked to the observed learners: (1) personal learning style or positive learning strategies; (2) an active approach to the task; (3) tolerant approach to the TL and empathy with its speakers; (4) technical know-how about how to tackle a language; (5) experimentation and planning with the aim of developing the new language into an ordered system or revising this system progressively; (6) constantly seeking meaning; (7) willingness to practice; (8) willingness to use language in real communication and (9) self-monitoring and critical sensitivity to language use.

Moreover, Naiman et al. (1978) conducted a study to identify the types of strategies secondary school learners use. Data were collected using observations, interviews and language tests. The result indicated that there were no stereotyped successful learners who had "a high language aptitude or an exceptionally good memory" (103). Findings of the interview offered general confirmation of the strategies used by good language learners. Based on the result, Naiman et al. reported five major strategies which were essential for successful learning: (1) actively involving in the learning process by identifying preferred learning environments; (2) seeing the SL as a formal rule system; (3) seeing the SL as a means of communication; (4) coping with the affective demands of the SL, and (5) constantly monitoring and revising one's understanding of the SL.

These two studies have been considered the foundation of individual learner differences in the SLA field (Ellis, 1994). As learning an L2 "involves an array of uncontrollable influential factors, many scholars have embraced LLSs as being an effective and workable component of the language learning process" (MacIntyre & Noels, 1996:373). However there has been lack of consensus on the terminology, definition and classification of learning strategies. These issues are addressed in the following sections.

3.3 Terminologies of Language Learning Strategy

Much has been written and discussed concerning the theory, definition and importance of learning strategy since the 1970s. However, there are still several issues which have not been resolved to date. In this regard, Grenfell & Macaro (2007) claim that definitions and terminology are problematic in learning strategy research, largely due to changing theoretical perspectives of the L2 learning processes. Learning strategy is named as 'language learner strategy', 'learning strategy', 'learner strategy' and 'language learning strategy'. This study used 'learning strategy' and 'learner strategy' interchangeably to avoid confusion.

The concept of 'learning strategy' has also been surrounded by various other controversial issues. One of these issues is whether "strategies are learner-internal or learner-external, small or large, abstract or concrete, individual or inextricably linked" (Macaro, 2010). Besides, many scholars use different terms to define strategy: 'techniques or devices' (Stern, 1975), an "elusive" concept (Wenden & Rubin, 1987:7), 'special thoughts or behaviors' (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990), "a somewhat fuzzy" concept (Ellis, 1994:529). Different scholars' use of different terms to describe learning strategies indicates a lack of a unified theory. Grenfell & Macaro (2007:28) state that "It may seem surprising that...LLS research is still quite an immature field" McDonough (2005) also states that

There have been problems in developing a powerful theory of learner strategies that would allow: strategies identified in different situations using different methods of access to be compared and reliably categorized; strategy and tactics to be distinguished; multiple strategy use to be readily differentiated from single strategy use, and the conditions for successful strategy deployment to be specified (153).

The above statement suggests that despite several decades' of research on various issues of learning strategies, the field is still at an embryonic stage (Dornyei, 2005). These different terms and "theoretical problems made it less appropriate for research purposes" (Dornyei, 2005:188).

They may lead researchers to obtain different results from research on learners' learning strategies use, motivation, language proficiency and other variables.

3.4 Definition of Language Learning Strategy

Many scholars have proposed different definitions for language learning strategy since the work by Rubin (1975) and others. But there has been no a universally accepted definition for learning strategy (Dornyei, 2005). Some scholars have defined learning strategy from their experiences and many others from studies using interviews, questionnaires and observations. But data from these sources may not help establish a single definition. In this respect, Wenden & Rubin (1987:7) state that "There is little consensus in the literature concerning either the definition or the identification of learning strategies". Macaro (2006) claims that one of the major problems in learning strategy studies is lack of clarity in the definition. In the same vein, Ellis (1994:533) notes that "definitions of learning strategies have tended to be ad hoc and atheoretical".

One of the earliest study defines learning strategy as "technique or device which a learner may use to acquire knowledge" (Rubin, 1975:43). Wenden & Rubin (1987:19) define it as "any sets of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval, and use of information". Oxford (1990:8) describes strategies as "specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations". O'Malley & Chamot (1990:1) define learning strategies as "special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information". These terms indicate that most learning strategies are rooted in the information processing model of cognitive theory where learning is seen as an active and constructive process.

More recently, Chamot (2004:14) defines learning strategies as "the conscious thoughts and actions that learners take in order to achieve a learning goal". These various definitions can suggest that the work on the learning strategies unfinished despite several years of research on this particular topic (Dornyei, 2005). Dornyei & Skehan (2003:608) claim that "virtually nobody has examined the theoretical soundness of the concept of 'learning strategy' critically, particularly in view of the fact that the definitions and conceptualizations offered in the L2 literature were rather inconsistent and elusive". However, Oxford's (1990:8) definition has been used most

frequently by scholars (Ellis, 1994). Therefore, the current study used Oxford's definition just mentioned.

3.5 Classification of Language Learning Strategies

Learning strategies have been categorized using different classification schemes (Cohen & Weaver, 2005; Cohen, 2007). Most of the classifications have been divided into the following groups: 1) systems related to successful learners (Rubin, 1975); 2) systems based on psychological functions (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990); 3) linguistically based systems dealing with guessing, language monitoring, formal and functional practice (Bialystok, 1981); 4) systems based on separate skills (Cohen, 1990) and 5) systems based on the function: development of communicative competence (Oxford, 1990). This indicates that there is no one and only one classification scheme for learning strategies.

However, Oxford (1990:17) argues that "there is no complete agreement on exactly what strategies are; how many strategies exist; how they should be defined, demarcated, and categorized; and whether it is - or ever will be possible to create a real, scientifically validated hierarchy of strategies; therefore, classifications conflicts are inevitable". Ellis (1994) also claims that learning strategies differ in the subjects that researchers worked with, the setting, researchers' interests and so forth. More recently, Cohen & Weaver (2005) suggest three primary classification schemes based on (a) the aim of strategy application, (b) cognitive theory and (c) function of strategies for developing communicative competence. These three classification schemes are described below.

3.5.1 Learning Strategy Classification based on Strategy Application

Some researchers have grouped strategies into two classes: strategies for learning and strategies for using language (Cohen, 1998; Cohen & Weaver, 2005). The Strategies for learning language are "conscious processes used to learn a language while language-use strategies are conscious processes selected to use the material that is learned" (Cohen & Weaver, 2005:33). Cohen & Weaver (2005) categorize language use strategies into four classes: retrieval, rehearsal, communication and cover strategies. Retrieval strategies are conscious processes that learners use to call up language material from storage. Rehearsal strategies are conscious processes for practicing learning activities before using them.

Communication strategies, on the other hand, are conscious processes used by learners to convey a message that is meaningful for listeners when they do not have a language aspect they need. These strategies are vital to help L2 learners communicate successfully when they encounter problems in speaking. A learner uses communication strategies such as asking for clarification or confirmation to get "a message across in the TL despite gaps in TL knowledge" (Cohen et al., 1996). Cover strategies are conscious processes that learners use to create an appearance of L2 ability so as not to look unprepared, disorganized or even stupid (Cohen & Weaver, 2005). But consensus on the difference between learning strategies and communication strategies has not been reached.

O'Malley & Chamot (1990) support the distinction between learning and communication strategies by explaining that learning strategies are directed towards learning, while communication strategies towards maintaining communication. But Oxford (1990) disagrees with such distinction and she contends that communication strategies ultimately allow learners to stay in the communicative setting longer and reap more benefit from communicative experience. Oxford further argues that though there are different strategy groups, all are related to each other in the learning processes. The next sections present the classification schemes of learning strategies.

3.5.2 Learning Strategy Classification Based on Cognitive Theory

Based on cognitive theory, O'Malley & Chamot (1990:137-38) categorize strategies into three major classes: (a) metacognitive strategies, which are an executive function and planning for monitoring and evaluating the success of a learning task such as selective attention for listening key words or phrases, (b) cognitive strategies are mental manipulation or transformation of materials or tasks to enhance comprehension, acquisition, or retention and (c) socio-affective strategies are social interaction used to help the comprehension, or retention of information as well as mental control over personal factors interfering with learning such as cooperation.

All strategy groups are considered essential for the overall language learning processes and achievements. Comparatively speaking, however, metacognitive strategies are the most important ones for effective L2 learning (Goh, 2008). Anderson (2002:2) says that "Strong metacognitive skills empower second language learners". Development in L2 proficiency is related to the use of this strategy category and hence "students without metacognitive approaches

are essentially learners without direction or opportunity to plan their learning, monitor their progress, or review their, accomplishments and future learning directions" (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990:8). Metacognitive strategy instruction is the best option to help learners solve many problems in listening skills (Goh, 2008).

3.5.3 Learning Strategy Classification on the Basis of Its Function

Based on the development of communicative competence, Oxford (1990) classifies strategies into direct and indirect categories. The direct category involves memory, cognitive and compensation strategies. This category involves direct learning and use of the subject matter, in this case a new language. Memory strategies are used to store and retrieve information by mental linkages, to apply images and sounds, to review and to take actions. Cognitive strategies are used to manipulate and change the TL through practice, to receive and send information. Compensation strategies are used to cover the lack of the TL knowledge by guessing during listening and reading.

The indirect strategy category involves metacognitive, social and affective strategies. These strategies "contribute indirectly but powerfully to learning" (Oxford, 1990:11-12). Metacognitive strategies include centering, arranging, planning, evaluating and directing learning strategies in order to modify the learning process. Affective strategies involve lowering anxiety and discussing one's feelings with others. Social strategies involve interacting with other people through asking questions and cooperating with others. According to Oxford, both direct and indirect strategies mutually support one another, interact with one another and help enhance learning as shown in Figure 3.1

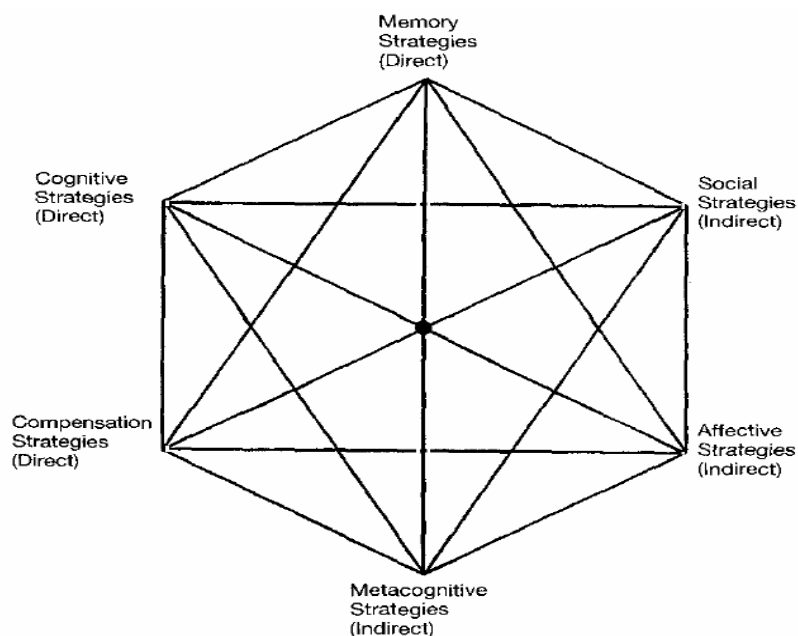


Figure 3.1 Interrelationships between the Direct and Indirect Strategies and among the Six Strategy Groups Taken from Oxford (1990:15).

As Figure 3.1 above shows, each of the direct and indirect strategies has three subcategories and each subcategory mutually supports one another, interacts with one another and enhances 12 learning. Many scholars believe that Oxford's (1990) taxonomy offers a better way of linking strategies with listening, reading, speaking, writing skills, and others link strategies with grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary knowledge. By comparing three classification systems of Rubin (1981), O'Malley & Chamot (1990) and Oxford (1990, Hsiao & Oxford (2002) found that Oxford's system of the six types of learning strategies was superior to accounting for various strategies reported by learners.

Oxford's strategy categories are considered vital to develop learners' proficiencies though research has not yet identified which combinations are effective used by learners (Ellis, 1994). Magno (2010:41) claims that "Oxford's framework has developed a system of language learning strategies which is more comprehensive and detailed compared to other models - where most of the factors are overlapping". The current researcher preferred Oxford's (1990) classification to other classifications because it comprises memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective and social strategies necessary for learning listening skill. The researcher used Oxford's framework because it consists of a well-refined instrument known as SILL for collecting data.

3.6 Definition and Classification of Listening Strategies

The definition and classification of listening strategy as well as specific listening strategies selected for training learners are explained in the next sections.

3.6.1 Definition of Listening Strategies

Like the general learning strategies, listening strategies are defined in terms of cognitive theory and the development of communicative competence. Based on cognitive theory, O'Malley & Chamot (1990) describe listening strategies as thoughts and behaviors that learners use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain information. On the basis of developing communicative competence, Oxford (1990) defines listening strategies as steps, tools or actions for listeners to directly or indirectly achieve the purpose of listening comprehension in the process of L2 acquisition. Moreover, Chen (2005) describes listening strategies as universal actions, behaviors; approaches, procedures, and plans listeners use to comprehend oral or spoken texts more easily.

Vandergrift (2008:84) defines listening strategies as the “deliberate procedures used by learners to enhance comprehension, learning and retention of the TL”. Rost (2011) defines listening strategies as conscious plans to manage incoming speech, particularly when listeners know that they must compensate for incomplete or partial understanding. This study defines listening strategy as specific techniques or procedures that learners consciously or unconsciously use to boost their LC abilities, retention, retrieval and use of information in learning and practicing various LC activities in order to increase their motivation and to develop their listening abilities.

3.6.2 Classification of Listening Strategies

Different authors have classified listening strategies quite differently. However, the most common classification scheme involving many strategies applicable to different language aspects is developed by Oxford (1990) which consists of cognitive, metacognitive, social and affective strategies. Cognitive strategies are used to infer, predict, interpret, store and recall information from listening input; metacognitive strategies are used to plan, monitor and evaluate mental processes and to manage difficulties during listening; social strategies serve to enlist the help or cooperation of interlocutors to facilitate listening comprehension, and affective strategies enable the listener to manage emotions, motivation and attitudes that influence comprehension.

Flowerdew & Miller (2005) propose metacognitive, cognitive, socio and affective categories for LC. Metacognitive strategies involve thinking about the listening process, as it is taking place, planning for listening, monitoring listening and self-evaluation after the task has been completed. Cognitive strategies are techniques for managing listening tasks; making easy acquisition of listening skills and manipulating listening materials. Socio-affective strategies involve techniques that listener uses for: interacting with others to verify comprehension, lowering anxiety and self-encouragement.

All learning strategy categories are important for effective learning processes and achievements in the L2 listening skills. But some researchers claim that metacognitive strategy category is more important than all other strategy groups in terms of learning an L2 listening skills (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Anderson, 2002; Goh, 2008; Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). All metacognitive strategies are vital to regulate lack of motivation, anxiety, negative attitudes and so forth (Cohen & Macaro, 2007; Goh, 2008).

3.6.3 The Choice of Listening Strategies for Training Learners in the EG

An effective SBI requires the careful selection of learning strategies in order to contribute most effective learning (Oxford, 1990). It also needs identification of strategies that can be modeled by an expert and learnt by learners in contexts reinforcing the usefulness of such strategies (Field, 2008). Oxford (1993) suggests teachers to address affective factors such as beliefs, anxiety, motivation and interests of learners prior to instruction. Oxford goes on to advise teachers to identify the previous and current strategies of learners using surveys, interviews, or other means before starting instruction in the classrooms.

Similarly, Williams & Burden (1997) suggest teachers to (a) consider various learner characteristics and determine the amount of time needed, (b) identify strategies relate to learners' needs on the basis of the SILL and (c) consider the type of motivation learners needed during the training program. But Reid & Lienemann (2006) recommend teachers to select strategies that can increase motivation, effective learning, contextual learning and L2 proficiency. As noted above, this researcher selected various listening strategies from Oxford's (1990) strategy categories before starting the SBI program. The next sections discuss some basic issues related to the designing and applying SBI programs.

3.7 Types and Intensity of Strategy Instruction

Oxford (1990) suggests three main types of strategy instruction: awareness training, one-time strategy training and long-term training. Major features of each are briefed below.

3.7.1 Awareness-Raising Training

Awareness-raising training aims at making learners conscious about certain learning strategies that could help them in accomplishing L2 learning tasks. A major feature of awareness-raising is that learners do not have chances to "use the strategies in actual, on-the-spot language tasks" (Oxford, 1990:202). It seems that awareness-raising training gives few opportunities for learners to practice various strategies in L2 classes. Cohen & Weaver (2005:6) suggest that this type of training helps learners to be aware of "(1) what the learning process may consist of (2) their learning preferences to learning (3) strategies that they already use, as well as those suggested by the teacher or classmates (4) the amount of responsibility that they take on for their learning".

However, studies (Yang, 1995; Flaitz et al., 1995; Feyten et al., 1999) showed that learners benefited from both the training and awareness of the purpose and benefits of learning strategies use. Yang's (1995) study showed that learners were able to increase their learning strategies use through awareness-raising in group interviews and informal strategy instruction. Yet, this training model may not provide learners with many opportunities for practicing a variety of strategies; therefore, "it is best not to use ... awareness training" (Oxford, 1990:203).

3.7.2 One-Time Strategy Training

The goal of one-time strategy training is to alert learners to the presence of strategies learners might never have thought about or may have never used (Oxford, 1990). But language learning, in general and SL/FL learning in particular, is a complex task that occurs over time so time is central in the learning process (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989). Likewise, one-time training cannot be as valuable as long-term training. However, it has been found to be very useful when the aim is to target particular strategies that could be taught in a single or a few sessions.

3.7.3 Long-Term Strategy Training

This involves numerous strategies with ample opportunities for learners to practice (Oxford, 1990). Short-term training results in short-term effects on learners' strategies use; whereas the long-term training results in long-term effects (Cohen et al., 1996) Listening is even more

complex than other sister skills as it involves a range of factors as noted in chapter two. Thus, long-term training is more important than other training types to help learners practice various strategies and to develop their LC abilities (Goh, 2008).

3.8 Pedagogical Principles for Implementing SBI in the L2 Classrooms

Effective strategy training requires different pedagogical issues. The next sections present the separate versus integrated and direct versus embedded strategy training models

3.8.1 Separate versus Integrated Strategy Training Models

There are various debating issues related to strategy training. One of these is whether to use a separate or an integrated training model (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Separate and integrated models involve separating the strategy instruction from what is taught in the language classrooms in the former and combining the strategy instruction with the classroom material in the latter (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Chamot, 2004). Proponents of separated instruction, for example, Derry & Murphy (1986) and Jones et al. (1987) as cited in Chamot & O'Malley (1990) argue that learners would be less likely to transfer strategies to other tasks after receiving integrated instruction.

Advocates of integrated instruction model, on the other hand, support the view that integrating strategies with the regular lessons facilitates strategy transfer, enables learners to perceive the relevance of a task as well as enhances comprehension and retention while it can also help learners maintain or enhance motivation (Wenden, 1987; Oxford, 1990; Nunan, 1997; Chamot, 2004). For example, Oxford & Schramm (2007) claim that integrating strategies with the objectives, instructional materials and specific tasks used in regular language programs is essential for effective learning.

Many studies support (Grenfell & Harris, 1999; Dadour & Robbins, 1996; Nunan, 1997) the importance of using integrated training model. For example, a study by Dadour & Robbins (1996) showed statistically significant differences between the experimental and control groups in speaking test as well as in frequency of self-reported strategy use as measured by SILL, in favor of the EG. Chamot (2004) suggests that teachers should teach learning strategies by integrating them into regular lessons, rather than providing a separate strategy course. Hence,

this researcher adopted the integrated strategy model to train learners in the experimental group with a variety of listening strategies

3.8.2 Direct/Explicit versus Embedded/Uninformed Strategy Training Models

Another problem that researchers and teachers face with strategy training stems from the idea of direct/informed and embedded/uninformed models of instruction. Wenden & Rubin (1987:159) explain that the direct/informed or embedded/uninformed model of instruction refers to the “Explicitness of purpose, i.e. should students be informed of the value and purposes of the training or not?” The difference between the two training models lies in whether learners are informed about strategies use or not. Because of the intentional nature of strategy use, most scholars have claimed that explicit/direct instruction should be one of the best approaches to teaching strategies (Chamot, 2005).

Explicit SBI model focuses on informing learners about the value and purpose of learning strategies and thus vital to optimize their learning strategies (Oxford & Leaver, 1996). Oxford (1994:19) asserts that "Strategy training is best when woven into regular class activities in a normal basis". Learners should be informed that a particular behavior or strategy is likely to be helpful, and they should taught how to use it and how to transfer it to new situations (Oxford, 1994). Similarly, Oxford & Leaver (1996:228) declare that the direct/explicit training model is "a highly creative, multilevel process for teaching students to optimize their learning strategies for themselves as individuals"

The embedded training model, on the other hand, focuses on training learners with strategies without explicitly defining such strategies to them (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). An advantage of this model is that it needs less teacher training comparing to the direct training model which requires an intensive teacher training (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Supporters of the embedded model argue that the direct model has the following shortcomings; (1) not all learners can be proficient to understand instructions that have been written in the TL; (2) not all learners will have an awareness of the specific strategy being cued; (3) no transfer of strategy to new tasks; and (4) there will be little opportunity for learners to become independent learners (Wenden, 1987; Dabour & Rubines, 1996).

However, some studies (e.g., Ozeki, 2000; Carrier, 2003) showed that the direct model has proven to be helpful in transferring strategies to new tasks. Similarly, Rubin et al. (2007:156) say that “explicit instruction and the development of metacognitive awareness promote strategy transfer but research in first language context has shown that strategy transfer is often difficult”. These scholars suggest that more research is needed to examine the benefits of this model for enhancing strategy transfer from one task type to another. This study used the direct/explicit SBI models for training learners in the EG.

3.9 Frameworks for the SBI Programs

Several instructional frameworks have been developed and used since the emergence of research on learning strategy. The next sections discuss three major training frameworks.

3.9.1 Completely Informed Strategy Training Model

The Completely Informed Training’ model is designed by Oxford (1990) to teach strategies to learners in the classrooms. A teacher who uses Completely Informed Training’ model follows eight steps: 1) determine learners’ needs and the time available, 2) select strategies, 3) consider integration of strategy training, 4) consider motivational issues, 5) prepare instructional materials and activities, 6) conduct ‘completely informed’ training, 7) evaluate the training and 8) revise the strategy training. In Completely Informed Training model, "learners are informed of the value and purpose of strategies instruction, are given strategy names, are prompted to use certain strategies, and are told to evaluate and transfer each strategy" (Dabour & Rubines, 1996:159).

3.9.2 Strategies-Based Instruction Model (SBL)

Cohen (1998) developed SBL for applying learning strategies in learners; classrooms to develop their communication skills. This model provides more flexibility for teachers to explicitly and implicitly embed strategies into learners’ regular lessons. The teacher in this model has various roles to help students learn the use of strategies through five steps: 1) the teacher helps students identify current strategies knowledge, 2) shares own learning experiences to learners, 3) trains learners how to use strategies, 4) supervises study plans and monitors difficulties and 5) provides guidance on students’ progress.

3.9.3 Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA)

CALLA is designed based on the cognitive theory which views learning as a movement from controlled to automatic processing through a lot of practices. CALLA's five basic instructional phases are: (1) preparation: learners prepare for strategies instruction by identifying their prior knowledge about and the use of specific strategies; (2) presentation: teacher demonstrates new learning strategy and explains how and when to use it; (3) practice: learners practice using the strategy with regular class activities; (4) evaluation: learners self-evaluate their use of the learning strategy and how well the strategy is working for them and (5) expansion: learners extend the usefulness of the learning strategy by applying it to new situations or leaning tasks.

To sum up, despite differences that distinguish one model from another, they share many features such as assessing and identifying learners' strategies use before training; developing learners' awareness of the value of learning strategies and training them through teacher demonstration and modeling; providing multiple practices with the strategies so that learners can use them autonomously; evaluating how strategies helped learners be effective in their learning, and increasing motivation after SBI programs. All these features encourage the conscious use of strategies and their transfer to new tasks and evaluate the effectiveness of SBI (Chamot, 2008).

3.9.4 The Instructional Framework Used in this Study

CALLA was chosen for this study for the following major reasons. First, CALLA as a training model is rooted in the cognitive theory so that it explains how skills and strategies are learnt and gives guidelines for instruction. Second, the model focuses on integrating three aspects of learning: content area instruction, academic development, and explicit instruction in learning strategies. Third, CALLA assists learners in valuing their own prior knowledge and relating this knowledge to a new academic learning culture. Finally, CALLA helps increase motivation to learn the TL (Chamot & Robbins, 2005). Thus, this study used CALLA to apply listening strategies in the EG class and to examine its effect on learners' strategies use, LC abilities and some affective factors related to LC.

3.10 Factor Affecting Learners' Choice and Use of Learning Strategies

A range of factors affect the choice and use of learning strategies by L2 learners (Oxford, 1990; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Yang, 1995; Rubin et al., 2007). Oxford & Nyikos (1989) list many

factors including national origin, cultural backgrounds, teaching methods, task requirement, language being learned, L2 learning goals, proficiency levels, gender; motivation and so forth. McDonough (2005:153) says that “variations in strategy use have been documented as a function of motivation, proficiency level, culture, task, and personality factors”. O'Malley & Chamot (1990) also claim that learners in the Asian contexts use repetition and rote learning more often than their Western counterparts.

In order to confirm the above claim, Grainger (1997) conducted a study to explore the type of strategies used by learners from different ethnic groups and found that Americans were frequent metacognitive strategy users while low users of affective and memory strategies. Taiwanese and Japanese students are structured, memory-based, and do not favor social strategies, whereas, Chinese learners use memory and cognitive strategies more than metacognitive and other strategy types. More recently, Shmais (2003) examined the patterns of strategy use among EFL Arab learners in Palestine and found that metacognitive strategies were used most while compensation strategies least.

Results of the aforementioned and other studies seem consistent with Rubin et al. (2007) who underscore that learning strategies are dynamic and they are context-dependent, task-dependent, time-dependent and person-dependent strategies. But there has been little research on the factors affecting FL learners' choice and use of LC strategies. Exception is Chen's (2005) study which revealed that learners' choice and use of LC strategies were affected by their prior learning experiences, listening proficiencies, beliefs, motivation, materials and so on. The definition and benefits of SBI are described in the next sections.

3.11 Learning Strategy Instruction

Teaching strategies to learners in the classrooms has begun in the 1990s (Cohen & Weaver, 2005). The idea of strategy instruction emerged from applied research that explored the possibility of helping less efficient learners to become more efficient by teaching them learning strategies that have been identified through descriptive studies as characteristic of the 'good language learner' (Chamot, 2008).

3.11.1 Definition of Learning Strategy Instruction

Teaching learning strategies in the classrooms holds different names: "strategy training, learning-to-learn training, learner methodology training" (Oxford, 1990:200), 'strategy-based approach' (Mendelsohn, 2006), 'strategies-based instruction' (Cohen & Weaver, 2005). This study used 'strategy training/instruction' and 'strategies-based instruction' interchangeably because they are the most frequently used terms in experimental studies.

Besides the use of different terms for teaching strategies, SBI or strategy training is defined in different ways. Wenden (1991:163) defines it as "learning activities organized to help learners improve their skills as learners; includes learning to use strategies, knowledge about the language learning process and attitude development to support the autonomous use of the strategies and knowledge". Cohen et al. (1996) define SBI as a:

learner-centered approach to teaching that has two major components: (1) students are explicitly taught how, when, and why strategies can be used to facilitate language learning and language use tasks, and (2) strategies are integrated into everyday class materials, and may be explicitly or implicitly embedded into the language tasks (6).

Kinoshita (2003:1) also defines SBI as a "teaching approach that aims to raise learner awareness of learning strategies and provide learners with systematic practice, reinforcement and self-monitoring of their strategy use while attending to language learning activities". Moreover, Hassan et al. (2005:1) define SBI as "any intervention which focuses on the strategies to be regularly adopted and used by L2 learners to develop their proficiency, to improve particular task performance, or both". In this study, SBI refers to the direct/integrated approach to introducing and modeling LC strategies to learners and providing them with systematic practice in order to raise their awareness of listening strategies use in the process of learning listening lessons.

3.11.2 Benefits of the SBI Models for ESL/EFL Learners

The SBI has been built on a number of assumptions (Oxford, 1990; Oxford & Leaver, 1996). First, a difference in learning results can be made if appropriate strategies are used effectively. Second, learners often are not aware of the value of strategy use and thus they do not use learning strategies in their learning. Third, SBI helps learners improve their strategies use. Fourth, it gives them tools for learning on their own ways. Fifth, SBI helps them involve in the learning process and sharing ideas with other learners. Sixth, it can raise their confidences in

making their own decisions to learn the TL. Last, SBI helps them discover what works best for their individual needs.

Oxford (1990:201) notes that SBI is vital to “make language learning more meaningful, to encourage a collaborative spirit between learner and teacher, to learn about options for language learning, and to learn and practice strategies that facilitate self-reliance”. The goal of SBI is to help learners become more aware of ways in which they can learn most effectively, ways in which they can enhance their own motivation to learn the TL and ways in which they can continue learning after leaving schools (Cohen, 1996). Macaro & Cohen (2007) also explain that one aim of SBI is to enhance learning. Another is to perform specified tasks and solve some specific problems. For instance, if a learner has difficulty in perceiving and analyzing the structure of an utterance, he/she can make use of a series of LC strategies. Explaining the goals of SBI, Hedge (2000) states that

Learner training is perceived as having a number of possible goals. One is to prepare students to work with the system and pathways of self-access facilities. Another is to encourage learners to take cognizance of the ways in which they can find and use language learning opportunities in the community outside the classroom. A third is to develop learners who can use the learning opportunities of the classroom effectively through applying a range of strategies to the work they do with teachers and peers (101-102).

Learners cannot learn everything they need to know from classroom instruction, so training them with effective strategies would be vital to enhance self-directed learning (Oxford, 1990). A well-designed and executed SBI can help learners solve many learning problems, develop their proficiencies in the TL and enhance self-directed learning (Oxford, 1990). Cohen (1998:67) says that the SBI “can enhance students’ effort to reach language learning goals because it encourages students to find their own pathways to success, and thus it promotes learner autonomy and self-direction”. Self-directed listening enables EFL learners to use listening strategies when they are practicing listening on their own. By responding to a set of prompts before and after a listening task, EFL learners are guided in preparing themselves for the listening task, evaluating their performance, and planning their strategy use for future listening (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012).

The SBI models are necessary for learners to learn a new language even outside the classroom and away from the teacher (Oxford, 1990; Thompson & Rubin, 1993). SBI helps learners explore ways to learn the TL more effectively and efficiently (Oxford, 1990). Takeuchi et al.

(2007) suggest that SBI models can increase learners' awareness of strategies that can help them learn better in other content subjects. Rubin et al. (2007:141) stress that "learners should be taught not only the language but also directed toward strategies they could use to promote more effective learning". Therefore, teachers should help learners to use more and effective strategies in L2 classes (Takeuchi et al., 2007).

The SBI models can help learners learn how to listen oral or spoken texts by themselves and then improve their listening abilities. It enables them to become more aware of when and how to use strategies effectively, and of factors affecting their LC processes (Oxford, 1990). Rost (2006:47) notes that the SBI models can assist teachers in: "1) improving learners' comprehension of spoken texts, 2) increasing the quality of learners' intake from spoken input, 3) developing learners' strategies for better understanding of spoken discourse, or 4) engendering a more active participation in face-to-face communication".

The SBI models are vital particularly in EFL contexts like Ethiopia where the decision on what learners learn still rests with teacher-centered, exam-led and grammar-focused methods. As noted in section 2.6.3, many teachers in the traditional classrooms may not teach all course contents/activities designed for a particular semester or year. Hence, learners may not acquire the knowledge and skills that are necessary for developing their communicative competences. Yet, learners should be given the opportunity to understand not only what to learn inside the classrooms, but they also learn how to learn by themselves (Wenden, 1998). Rubin (1987:17) states that learners who "use effective strategies are better able to work outside the classroom by themselves, once the teacher is not around to direct them or provide them with input". However, most of the literature cited in the preceding sections is drawn from theoretical research.

3.12 Studies on the Use of Language/Listening Learning Strategies

The following sections review some empirical studies on the use of learning strategies by ESL/EFL learners abroad and local contexts respectively.

3.12.1 Studies on the Use of Learning Strategies by ESL/EFL Learners Abroad

Another theme of research done abroad in the 1970s and 1980 focused on classifying and defining the concepts of learning strategies. Research since the 1990s has explored the type, pattern and frequency of strategies used by learners (Macaro et al., 2007). Results show

variations in the type, number and frequency of learning strategies use by successful and unsuccessful as well as effective and ineffective learners. However, most of the studies have been conducted in the first or SL learning contexts. Relatively, few studies have explored the type and frequency of listening strategies used by different EFL learners in different contexts. The following studies are selected as samples to this study.

One of the first studies done by O'Malley et al. (1985) indicated that learners at all levels reported the use of a great variety of learning strategies. High-achieving learners reported using more metacognitive strategies than low-achieving learners. These researchers concluded that more successful learners are probably able to use greater metacognitive control over their learning. This result confirms the claim that unsuccessful and successful learners vary in the type, number and frequency of learning strategies use.

Vann & Abraham (1990) explored the strategies of unsuccessful language learners on a variety of tasks and found that what distinguished unsuccessful learners was not the lack of appropriate strategies but the inability to choose the right strategy for the learning tasks. Results of the study also showed that unsuccessful learners appeared to be active strategy users, but they “failed to apply strategies appropriately to the task at hand” (Vann & Abraham, 1990:191). It was suggested that learners lacked certain necessary metacognitive strategies which would help them assess the task and bring to bear the necessary strategies for task completion.

Vandergrift (1996) conducted a study using structured interview to explore strategies used by French learners at different course levels. The researcher identified cognitive, metacognitive and socio-affective strategies. Students reported using more cognitive strategies than the other categories. But the researcher suggested that the number of strategies used by learners increased as the course level increased. Similarly, Goh (1998) conducted a study on Chinese students to measure their knowledge about LC strategy use. The results showed that learners' LC performance relied on their use of effective strategies while listening to and doing LC questions. The result also showed that poor listeners used a word or phrase to understand the passage. Many good listeners used evaluating strategies to determine the accuracy of LC activities.

Vandergrift (2003) examined the relationship between strategy use and LC abilities of more and less proficient listeners. Thirty-six junior high school learners of French were listening to authentic texts. A multiple-choice LC test was used to see whether learners had higher LC abilities. The statistical analysis showed significant differences between the two groups in the use of the category of metacognitive strategies and in individual strategies such as monitoring, questioning for elaboration and translation. The researcher concluded that LC ability would be consciously developed with repeated practices.

Although the aforementioned studies have important implication for further research, most of them have been conducted in the western world such USA, UK, Japan, Russia and so on (Wharton, 2000). It is thus vital "to have more 'information on how students from different cultural backgrounds and different countries use language learning strategies and how they prioritized strategies differently" (Greenfell & Macaro, 2007:22). Oxford & Burry-Stock (1995:19) argue that "students from different countries utilize different strategies and prioritize common strategies differently". The frequency of use of learning strategies is higher in a SL setting than in a FL setting. The possible reason is that SL learners are surrounded by the language that is being learned and often find that they must use the language to survive so they use many strategies (Oxford, 1990).

In contrast, FL learners have less need the language on a daily basis and often do not develop or use many strategies. The above description implies that research within and across cultures is vital to avoid 'ethnocentric' bias about the definition of good language strategies (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995). Lessard-Clouston (1997:8) call for finding answers to various questions including: "What types of learning strategies appear to work best with what learners in which contexts?" But ethnicity, culture and education have not attracted much attention as influential variables in the previous studies (Grainger, 1997). Ethiopia is no exception in this regard and this study aimed to identify the type and frequency of strategies used by EFL learners in learning listening at Samara University.

3.12.2 Studies Examining the Effects of SBI on Listening Proficiency/Achievement

Another theme of research has been to examine the effects of SBI models on the ESL/EFL learners' language proficiencies and achievements. But there has been very little research on EFL listening strategies as compared to research on the FL/SL listening strategies (Hassan et al.,

2005; Grenfell & Macaro, 2007; Macaro, 2010). Besides, there has been little research on listening strategies as compared to research on reading, writing and speaking strategies (Anderson, 2005). Unlike short-term gains, benefits of long-term SBI have not been empirically examined (Hassan et al., 2005). The following sections discuss some available experimental studies conducted in the SL/FL listening contexts.

O'Malley et al. (1985) examined whether strategy training could help learners improve their English abilities. The study used listening, speaking and vocabulary tasks. It also used three different groups: two treatments and one control. The first group received instruction in how to use a mixture of metacognitive, cognitive and socio-affective strategies. The second group did not receive instruction in metacognitive strategies, whereas the CG received no instruction in any strategies at all. Each group had two sets of tasks involving listening and speaking.

Data analysis showed that learners in the EG performed better than learners in the CG on the speaking tasks. The result also indicated that metacognitive instruction raised learners' awareness of using speaking strategies necessary for delivering meaningful messages. However, the findings did not show improvements in learners' performance on vocabulary and listening tasks. This mixed finding suggests that although strategies can be taught, the success rate of the instruction could not always be predictable.

Thompson & Rubin (1996) conducted longitudinal experiment to examine the effect of SBI on college learners' LC. A total of 36 learners were randomly assigned to a CG and an EG. Both groups received 15 hours of video instruction in total. The researchers used authentic listening texts from television which were developed for learners of Russian. The EG received instruction in metacognitive and cognitive strategies but the CG did not. The pre/post listening tests were administered to two groups. Analysis of the data showed that learners in the EG improved their listening proficiency better than learners in the CG. The EG showed a 10% improvement on the video post-test as compared to those in the CG. But there were insignificant differences between the two groups on the audio test.

Ozeki (2000) investigated the effects of SBI on strategy use and LC abilities of 45 EFL college female students in Japan. The study used a control and an experimental group to compare the post test scores. Listening strategies taught to learners were those least frequently reported by students before the study. The data were collected using the pre/post listening proficiency tests

and strategy questionnaires from both groups. The results of the descriptive and inferential statistical analyses showed that the EG used the overall strategies more frequently than the CG, but there was no significant difference on the listening proficiency between the two groups.

Carrier (2003) conducted an experimental study with a group of American high school ESL learners that involved academic listening instruction for six weeks. The study used a single group pre-/post research design. The training focused on strategies for developing discrete listening skills, video LC skills and effective note taking skills. The teacher modeled the strategies and provided opportunities for learners to practice strategies such as selective attention and note-taking. The result showed a significant improvement in LC from pre/posttests despite the small sample size might render the result unconvincing.

Chen (2010) examined the effects of SBI on college EFL learners' listening abilities in Taiwan. The study used quasi-experimental design involving a control and an experimental group. The EG received a 14-week training in listening strategies. The pre/post data were collected from both groups using a listening proficiency test, a self-rated proficiency scale, a listening strategy questionnaire and a listening learning activity questionnaire. The statistical analyses showed that participants in the EG used listening strategies more frequently than participants in the CG, but there was no significant difference in the two groups' post mean scores on the listening proficiency test.

Vandergrift & Tafaghodtari (2010) conducted an experiment to see the effects of metacognitive instruction on SL listening skills. The EG listened to various texts and were taught prediction, planning, monitoring and problem solving strategies. The CG listened to the same texts without metacognitive instruction. They used Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire for data collection and the showed that the EG outperformed the CG in the LC measure. The comprehension of the metacognitive processes allowed them to have higher abilities to concentrate on their listening tasks, which can be seen as self-regulation. But the researchers suggested that more comprehensive studies should be done to further clarify these findings.

Results of the studies cited in the preceding sections are somewhat inconsistent. This can be attributed to the research designs, instructional materials, number and types of learning strategies chosen for training, span of training time, varying nature of participants, quality of the trainers, data collection instruments, analysis procedures and other factors (Oxford, 1994; Hassan et al.,

2005; Takeuchi et al., 2007). The present study would consider most of the above-mentioned factors to better understand the possible discrepancies in LC gains after implementing the SBI program in the classroom.

3.12.3 Studies on Learners' Listening Strategies Use in the Ethiopian Context

Research on the Ethiopian learners' strategies use began in the 1990s. But the majority explored the frequency and variation of learners' awareness of speaking, reading and vocabulary strategies. These studies are 'Listener Strategies in Collaborative Discourse of AAU Fourth Year Students' by Berhanu (1993), 'Speaking Strategies Used by First Year Students at the 'Kotebe' College of Teacher Education' by Tsegay (1995), 'A Study of Listening Strategy Training and Achievement' by Mogos (2003), 'An Investigation of Learning Strategies used by High School Teachers and Students to Develop Effective Listening Skills' by Abdi (2005), 'Effects of Gender, Listening Proficiency and Perceptual Learning Style Preference on Listening Strategy Use of EFL Students' by Seyoum (2012) and 'The Role of Listening Strategy Instruction in Advancing Students' Listening Achievement and Strategy Use' by Belilew & Girma (2015).

As noted above, very few studies explored learners' use of listening strategies, or examined the effects of SBI on learners' strategies use and LC abilities to date. Probably one of the first studies on listening strategy was done by Birhanu (1993). This study explored the types of strategies learners use and the contrast of strategy use of learners at different proficiency levels. The result showed that most successful learners used a greater variety and higher frequencies of listening strategies. The study suggested teachers to train learners in listening strategies.

Moges (2003) conducted an experimental study to investigate the effects of explicit strategy training on the listening achievement and comprehension of Fifty-nine learners at Admass College. Twenty-nine and thirty students were assigned to the Separate and Integrated strategy instruction groups respectively. The pre/post data were analyzed using t-tests. Results showed that learners benefited from both training types significantly in the specific objectives but not in their general comprehension. It was also found that low achievers in the integrated instruction group improved significantly in the specific objectives and general listening abilities. The findings imply that high achievers benefited from separate instruction, while low achievers from integrated instruction.

Most recently, Belilew & Girma (2015) examined the effects of SBI on learners' listening achievement and strategies use. Fifty first-year English majors from Dilla University participated in the pre-post experimental research design. These 50 students were divided into experimental and control for treatment purpose. The CG was taught listening skills through conventional method while the EG was through explicit SBI. IELTS listening test and an adapted form of the SILL were used to collect data from both groups.

The pre/post data were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics. Independent and paired samples t-tests were run to see whether the mean differences between and within groups were statistically significant. The findings revealed that SBI was more effective and had a positive impact on learners' achievement in listening than the conventional teaching method. The independent samples t-test analysis also showed a significant increase in the use of listening strategies by learners after strategy instruction.

As noted above, only two experimental studies (Moges, 2003; Belilew & Girma, 2015) examined Ethiopian learners' listening abilities and strategies use. In fact, Moges's study investigated the effects of strategy training on the learners' motivation. To the best knowledge of this researcher, however, no other local studies have examined the effects of SBI models on learners' motivation, anxiety and beliefs in relation to listening skill. Thus, this study aimed to investigate the effects of a SBI on the aforementioned variables with learners at Samara University context. To realize this, this researcher adopted a quasi-experimental design with a mixed methods research. The rationales for adopting this design and research approach are described in Chapter four.

3.13 Chapter Summary

The first sections of chapter three presented the review of literature on various issues of language learning strategy including its origin, research development, terminologies, definitions and classifications schemes. The next sections described various SBI models proposed by different scholars and discussed the limitations and benefits of each strategy training model for research and instruction purposes. This was followed by explaining the (a) benefits of using learning strategies in general and listening strategies in particular, (b) goals and importance of implementing SBI models in the regular classroom lessons, (c) factors affecting the choice and use of learning strategies as well as (d) the factors affecting the effectiveness of SBI programs in various learner behaviors.

The last three sections presented sample studies that examined (a) learning strategies use of ESL/EFL learners abroad, (b) effects of the SBI models on listening strategies use, listening proficiency/achievement of ESL/EFL learners' abroad and (c) listening strategies use of EFL learners in the Ethiopian context. The weaknesses and strengths of each sample study were discussed and their implications for the current study were also explained. Chapter four will offer the research design and the methodology of this study.

Chapter Four: Research Design and Methodology

This chapter describes the study's research design and its underlying methodological principles. The first sections of this chapter explain the research design namely; pre/post quasi-experimental design and the methodology namely; the mixed methods research paradigm. These sections also describe the rationales for the choice of the pre/post quasi-experimental design and the mixed methods research paradigm and its benefits. The sections that follow explain the research site, participants and data collection instruments. The next sections describe the procedures used in data collection, data preparation, data validation and data analysis methods. The last section offers the summary of chapter four.

4.1 Research Design

This study used a pre/post quasi-experimental design with a mixed methods research paradigm. The rationales for the choice of the pre/post quasi-experimental design, the mixed methods research and the major variables are explained in the next sections.

4.1.1 Rationale for the Choice of Pre/Post Quasi-Experimental Research Design

The reasons for using THE pre/post experimental design were derived from the research objective and the appropriateness of experiments for examining improvements in learners' listening abilities, strategies use, motivation, anxiety and beliefs related to listening skill. The best way to examine improvements in these variables is by using experiments and quasi-experiments (Dornyei, 2007). The main difference between true and quasi-experimental designs is that the former uses strict randomization whereas the latter intact or preexisting classes.

Quasi-experiments are considered the most suitable plans for (a) examining the "effects of a particular instructional method" (Mackey & Gas, 2005:143); (b) their minimum amount of disrobing classroom routines; (b) minimizing negative consequences that are directly attributed to the teacher's actions (Neuman, 2007), and (d) yielding results that have higher external validity but lower internal validity (Tavakoli, 2012). However, most validity threats related to these designs can be reduced by (1) using intact groups; (2) adding comparison groups, (3) using pre/posttests (Hadish et al., 2002). This study adopted a pre/post quasi-experimental design with two intact classes for a 12-week intervention period. The pre/post quasi-experimental design is shown in Figure 4.1

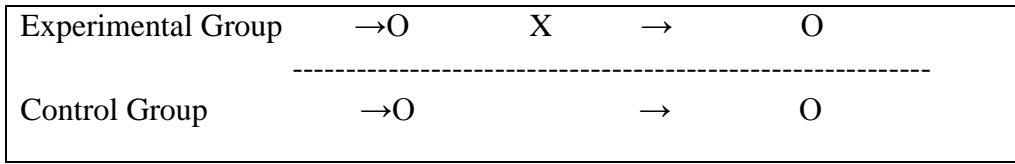


Figure 4.1 Quasi-experimental design with the pretest - treatment - posttest procedure.

Figure 4.1 shows “O” as observations or tests, and “X” in the first row indicates the EG receiving training in listening strategies (treatment). The broken line indicates non-equivalency and the absence of “X” in the second row shows the CG with no treatment in listening strategies. The tests were conducted before and after treatment. The next section explains the rationales for the choice of mixed methods research (MMsR) paradigm.

4.1.2 Rationales for the Choice of Mixed Methods Research

The rationale for the choice of MMsR was that the researcher could learn more about the measured variables (listening abilities, strategies use, motivation, anxiety and beliefs) by combining the complementary strengths of quantitative and qualitative approaches while at the same time avoiding the weaknesses of both. Thus, the study used the QUAN → qual model where the weight and priority were placed on the quantitative data. However, giving the weight or priority to the quantitative or qualitative data depends on research objectives; research designs; data gathering and analysis methods (Molina-Azorin, 2007).

The research objective, research design, research questions and data collection tools of this study led the researcher to place more weight and priority on the quantitative data than on the qualitative data. The quantitative data were used to compare the dependent variables of the two groups after the intervention program, and the qualitative data to triangulate the results of the quantitative analysis. The study also used both sequential and simultaneous procedures for collecting all of the quantitative and some of the qualitative data respectively as shown in Figure 4.2.

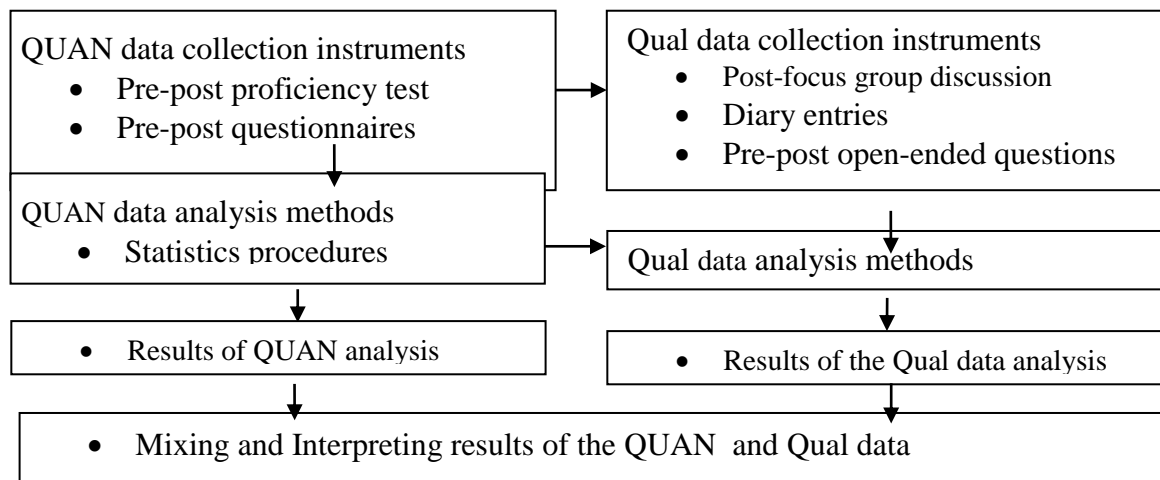


Figure 4.2 Schematic representation of sequential embedded mixed Research Process

Figure 4.2 shows the quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis procedures as well as the mixing of the two datasets. The quantitative data were collected using two sets of questionnaires and a proficiency test, whereas the qualitative data were collected using a group discussion, diary entries and open-ended questions included in the two questionnaires. The two datasets were collected in sequential order: the quantitative data first and the qualitative data second. However, the data with the diary method was collected at the same time (concurrently) during the 12-week intervention period.

Regarding data analysis, this researcher is unaware of a universally accepted data analysis method in MMsR. Yet, scholars (e.g., Tavakoli, 2012) suggest two options: a researcher can code and analyze while collecting the data holistically, or he/she can code and analyze them separately after collecting the data. Of the two options, Vogt et al. (2014:433) say that "Using separate, sequential analysis of datasets in mixed methods research is far more common than merging data before analysis". In this MMsR study, the two datasets would be analyzed separately, in sequential order after data collection.

Like the absence of a universally accepted data analysis method in MMsR, there is also no a hard and fast rule for mixing the two datasets. However, the general rule of thumb for mixing the two datasets would be at the analysis or discussion phase (Dornyei, 2007). Therefore, the present researcher would mix the quantitative and the qualitative data at the discussion phase (details are given at the end of this chapter). The next sections describe the research site and participants of the study.

4.2 The Research Site and Participants of the Study

The next subsections describe the research site and participants of the study

4.2.1 The Rationales for Choosing the Research Site

Samara University was selected as a research site for certain practical reasons such as familiarity with, proximity and easy accessibility to the university. The researcher is familiar with most of the instructors in the Department of English (DOE) and in many other departments. The researcher has also familiarity and good relationship with almost all instructors in the DOE. It was thus believed that the researcher's familiarity with, easy accessibility to the university and good relationship with the staff would help him obtain very good support in facilitating the treatment conditions and collecting the data.

It is worth briefing the location, foundation and functions of Samara University. As its name indicated, Samara University is found in the town of Samara, the capital of Afar Region. Samar is located in the north-eastern part of Ethiopia, which is about 590 kilometers far away from Addis Ababa. Samara University, one of the newly founded higher intuitions in Ethiopia, was inaugurated in 2008 and began its function in the same year. Currently, the university receives about 3000 students and assigns these students to different colleges and departments for training.

4.2.2 Participants and Sampling Techniques Employed in the Study

Participants were first year undergraduate students attending English communicative skills. Purposive sampling was used to select these students because most of them had difficulties in listening. These difficulties can be attributed to many factors including (a) the provision of little attention to listening skill in the classrooms; (b) learners' low motivation towards practicing a variety of listening materials; (c) unawareness of the existence and benefits learning strategies for learning listening skills, and (e) learners' wrong beliefs about the teacheability/learneability of listening skill and the importance of learning this skill like other sister skills in English.

As noted above, however, the aim of this study was to find out a way through which learners can improve their listening abilities. This is based on the assertion of Rubin et al. (2007:159) who note that learning strategy "intervention should be directly related to the problems that learners are seeking to solve". Therefore, this study adopted a pre-post quasi-experimental design with

two intact classes. Availability and purposive sampling techniques were respectively used to collect the quantitative and the qualitative data.

4.3 Data Collection Instruments

In order to achieve the research objective, the researcher collected quantitative and qualitative data with a proficiency test and two questionnaires for the former; with a group discussion, learner diary and some open-ended questions for the latter. The reasons for the choice of each data collection instrument are provided in the next sections.

4.3.1 Listening Proficiency Test

This study used a proficiency test because SBI model "needs to be assessed for its effects on proficiency, not just on student self-report of strategy use" (Rubin et al., 2007:155). McDonough (2005:160) also says that "Since the whole point of SBI is to improve some aspect of proficiency, it would be reasonable to suggest that the most appropriate test of such instruction is a proficiency gain score". But any sound test is not necessarily sound to measure L2 proficiency accurately (Hughes, 1989; Nunan, 1992; Brown, 2001). These scholars suggest that it is better for a researcher to use a locally designed test since it meets the cultural and educational requirements of test takers. With that in mind, the present researcher visited the Ethiopian Educational Assessment and Examination Agency, MOE and AAU to find suitable LC tests but did not find any test in these places.

It has been suggested, however, that when a researcher is unable to obtain a suitable test, she/he can (1) use ready-made and refined tests; (2) adapt and revise existing ones or (3) develop new tests (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989). But preparing a new, valid and reliable listening proficiency test in English is very difficult due to the lack of a common definition of listening skill (Rost, 2011). Hence, the IELTS Practice Test 2 (version 2000) was chosen to measure EFL learners' proficiency levels. The IELTS is "designed to assess the language ability of candidates who need to study or work where English is used as the language of communication" (Rost, 2011). As a standardized test, IELTS can help minimize bias associated with marking and scoring procedures.

The IELTS proficiency test consists of four sections, each with ten questions. It holds multiple choice, short-answer questions, sentence completion, chart/table completion, matching and so

on. Test takers would listen to the text only once and answer questions as they listened. The designers provided 40 minutes to complete the test, and determined the marking criterion to be 1 mark for each correct answer. Since answers are either right or wrong, a marker cannot affect results. In this study, the proficiency test scores would help the researcher triangulate data obtained from the group discussion, the diary entries and the self-report questionnaires. Descriptions of the questionnaires follow.

4.3.2 Questionnaires

The study used two sets of self-report questionnaires to collect data as they are essential for collecting data from people about their, beliefs, motivations, strategies use, anxiety and so on (Tavakoli, 2012). Details of these questionnaires are given in the next sections.

4.3.2.1 Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

A self-report questionnaire named as SILL was used to collect data from participants before and after treatment. The rationale for using the SILL in this study was that its items “are among the most efficient and comprehensive ways to assess the frequency of learning strategies use” (Oxford, 1996:28). The SILL can also help evaluate participants' beliefs, attitudes, anxiety and motivation (Green & Oxford, 1995). The SILL has two versions: version 5.0 and version 7.0. Version 5.0 is designed for native speakers of English learning foreign languages, and version 7.0 is for ESL/EFL learners. Since participants' of this study were EFL learners, the SILL's version 7.0 was used to measure their use of listening strategies before and after a 12-week intervention program.

However, the SILL has three potential limitations; participants may not understand or interpret accurately the strategy description in each item, may claim to use the strategies they do not use or may fail to remember the strategies that they have used in the past (White et al., 2007). Dornyei (2005:195) questions the SILL for research since "the construct of learning strategies has been found to be less helpful for researchers when conducting in-depth analyses of the antecedents and ingredients of strategic learning".

Despite such limitations, self-report questionnaires are necessary for collecting data on unobservable phenomenon such as attitudes, motivation, and concepts (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989). The SILL is the most valuable instrument for gathering data from many respondents

within a short period of time (Oxford, 1990). In addition, the SILL has been extensively field-tested in many studies and its “reliability using Cronbach’s alpha is .93 to .98, with an average of .95” (Ehrman & Oxford, 1995:73). Given such benefits, this study adapted the SILL items to measure learners' strategies use. The items were divided into six strategy categories and they asked learners' listening strategies. Memory strategy consisted of 6 items. Cognitive and metacognitive strategy involved 14 items each. Compensation strategy had 4 items. Affective and social strategies held 6 items each. Each item has a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1= never use to 5 = almost always use.

It is worth noting that the SILL was originally designed based on the general language learning strategies including listening, speaking, reading and writing strategies. But this study focused on listening strategy so items irrelevant to the study were modified. Modifications were made on the phrase, clause and sentence levels to meet the research objective. Examples of such original items on the SILL are: “I say or write new English words several times” applies to speaking and or writing skills, while item 11 “I try to talk like native speakers” is used for speaking skill and item 27 “I read English without looking up every new word” applies to reading and thus excluded. To replace the deleted items, few items were adapted from Liu’s (2009) 'Listening Strategy Questionnaire' and Vandergrift’s (2005) Metacognitive Awareness of Listening Questionnaire.

The study also used the SILL's 5-point-Likert scale format because the responses from this scale could readily be quantified and analyzed (Vandergrift, 2005). Besides, a 5 point-Likert scale would help control the fatigue effects that might lead respondents to choose one alternative carelessly. Thus, respondents would rate the items on the scale by circling the response ranging from: 1) never or almost never true of me to 5) always true of me. Two open-ended questions were also included in the SILL to obtain additional data about learning strategies which were not included in the close ended items.

4.3.2.2 Affective Sides of Listening Comprehension Questionnaire (ASLCQ)

An 'Affective Sides of Listening Questionnaire (ASLCQ)' was used to measure learners' (1) motivation; (2) anxiety and (3) beliefs before and after treatment. These factors were selected based on their (a) direct relation to LC activities (Goh, 2008) and (b) benefits to prepare effective instructional materials (Young, 1999). Hence, forty-five items were adapted from BALLI

(Hortwiz, 1987), FLCAS (Horwitz et al., 1986); Motivational State Questionnaire (Guilloteaux & Dornyei, 2008) and Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). It worth noting that some of the scales in which the items were borrowed from were designed for different research contexts. For example, the BALLI was designed for ESL learners. However, the current study used EFL learners so some items are not suitable to them. Thus, necessary modifications were made based on the research objective and learners' English abilities. Besides, the previous scales have different rating scales ranging from 3 to 7-points. In order to be consistent; the different rating scales used in the previous studies were changed into a 5 point-Likert scale. As noted above, a 5 point-Likert scale has proved to be beneficial for controlling fatigue effects that might lead participants to choose one of the responses on the scale carelessly. This questionnaire held 45 items with a 5 point-Likert scale ranging from strongly agree (5) to strongly disagree (1) point. Each respondent would rate each item by circling one of the numbers (1, 2, 3, 4 or 5) that indicated his/her beliefs and perceptions. Two open-ended questions were also included in this questionnaire to obtain additional data about motivation, anxiety and beliefs.

4.3.3 Semi-Structured - Focus Group Interview

A semi-structured - group discussion was used to explore participants' views about the SBI program. This type of interview enables to obtain data that might not be available through other means (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995). Semi-structured - group discussion allows in-depth exploration of learning experiences and provides opportunities for participants to discuss their goals, motivation, beliefs and feelings (Patton, 2002). Regarding group discussions, Cohen et al. (2000) claim that group discussion is very effective in providing interviewees with relaxed atmosphere in expressing their opinions.

However, all interview types including the group discussions have certain weaknesses and strengths. Interviews are time consuming and may lack consistency in terms of the tones used in asking questions and the responses to the answers. Besides, no consensus regarding the number of people involved in a focus group discussion. For Dornyei (2007:144), "The size of a focus group ranges between 6-10 people". Creswell (2012:218) suggests "a group of people, typically four to six". Still others (e.g., Phillips & Stawarski, 2008:27) believe that "eight to twelve is appropriate for most focus groups".

Despite such limitations, many L2 researchers have used face-to-face group discussions to obtain in-depth data on their research topics. This method also provides “evidence of participants' level of metacognitive awareness and knowledge about learning and themselves as learners” (Radloff, 2002:268). Moreover, Dornyei (2007:144) states that “the semi-structured type of focus group is the most common format because it includes both open- and closed-ended questions posed by the researcher”. Since this study used the semi-structured type of focus group format, 6-10 learners would participate in the group discussions as recommended by Dornyei (2007).

Another important issue for conducting interview is interview guide which contains interview venue, date of interview, interviewees' bio-data (sex and age) and content questions (McKay, 2006). Content questions involve interviewees' “(a) experience and behaviors, (b) opinions and feelings, (c) knowledge, (e) background or demographic information” (Dornyei, 2007:137). This researcher prepared an interview guide to (a) insure that the issues are properly covered and no useful data is left out by chance; (b) suggest appropriate question wordings; (c) offer a list of useful probes when needed.

The content questions were drawn partly from Oxford's (1990) SILL, Horwitz's (1987) FLCAS and partly from other previous literature on L2 listening strategy and motivation. Open ended questions were designed to elicit data about learners' views (a) on the use of learning strategies, (b) listening anxieties, (c) the learnability and importance of listening, (d) motivation and (f) comment on the methods and materials for future listening classes. Data obtained from this method would help triangulate data obtained from the questionnaires and the proficiency test.

4.3.4 Learner Diary Protocol

This study used learner diary to collect qualitative data. Diaries are essential tools for obtaining data about unobservable processes and abstract concepts (Goh, 2008). Most learning strategies, listening skills, beliefs and motivation are invisible processes so “accessing them poses a number of challenges” (Cohen & Macaro, 2007:281). The only way to find out if learners use unobservable strategies, for example, selective attention in listening is to ask them (Chamot, 2005). The use of diaries with other instruments is vital to “provide interpretive clarity and to avoid the criticism that the method predetermines the results obtained” (White et al., 2007: 94).

However, diaries also have many weaknesses. One major limitation is that diary studies involve a small number of learners looking at different learning processes. Hence, it is difficult to compare findings of one study with other similar studies (Bailey, 1991). Diaries are also subject to the "criticisms of verbal report since the data on learning strategies are in fact self-report and self-observation" (Cohen & Scott, 1996:101). Learners may not accurately report their feelings, reactions or doubts (Bailey, 1991). The other potential drawbacks can be the voluminous of the data and the random nature of entries. Hence, data analysis can be a complex task for researchers.

Considering the benefits of keeping diaries discussed above, scholars recommend training participants before involving them in diary keeping tasks (Wenden, 1987; Dornyei, 2007). To this end, learners in the EG were trained in how to write diaries about their (a) perceptions of the SBI; (b) problems when listening to spoken English; (c) use of listening strategies; (d) plans for the next week's lessons and so on. Learners were also informed to submit their diaries based on the guidelines in the diary writing form.

4.4 Ensuring the Validity and Reliability of the Instruments before the Pilot-Test

Once the instruments and materials relevant to the research objectives and design were determined, the next step was to check the validity and reliability of each instrument prior to the pilot-test. The reason was that the quality of instruments can be ruined by a variety of factors. Hence, all instruments must be subjected to expert judgment prior to the studies so that the validity and reliability of tools can be maximized (Muijs, 2004). The term 'validity' is described it as the appropriateness of a given instrument or any of its component parts as a measure of what it is purported to measure (Brown, 2004). As will be described below, experts were asked to ensure the validity issues prior to the pilot-test.

The term 'reliability' deals with the extent to which a test or other instruments provides similar results when used by different or the same people on various occasions (Muijs, 2004). Reliability is a function of statistics so checking instruments using statistical methods is essential for yielding a more reliable data (Dornyei, 2007). The current researcher took much care to ensure the reliability of the research instruments.

It should be recalled that almost all items/questions in the questionnaires and interview were adapted from previous scales that have been developed and tested by experts in the field. But even perfectly tested and refined scales "can never be a guarantee that they have been tried out with exactly the same type of subjects as the researcher is using in the research" (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989:185). Thus, all instruments, except the proficiency test, underwent through three revision phases before the pilot study.

First, this researcher revised all items/questions in all instruments except the listening proficiency test before and after writing the first draft. The reason for not revising and refining the IELTS was that it is a standardized proficiency test whose reliability and validity have been tested and improved over years. But since the listening texts were reprinted and photocopied by the researcher, some unexpected problems might exist in the scripts. Hence, the test materials and other instruments were checked and improved.

Second, the first draft of all instruments was given to the research advisor for the purpose of checking the face, content and construct validities as well as other areas that might have problems. The research advisor gave the following comments: (a) decrease the number of questions included in the background questionnaire; (b) change or avoid two double-barreled questions included in the interview guide; (c) modify or avoid any ambiguous words and sentences from three items/questions, and (d) write abbreviations or acronyms such as 'LLL' and 'SU' in full texts like 'language learning strategy' for SILL and 'Samara University' for SU. The researcher again revised the questions several times and improved the misleading, double-barreled or ambiguous items/questions.

Third, all instruments were given to four PhD students at AAU among whom three were in TEFL and the other was in Educational Psychology. The researcher of this study adapted a validation form (see Appendix A) from Seyoum (2012) and gave it to all reviewers so that they would check and comment any problem on the instruments. The reviewers were asked to check the clarity of the layouts and any other problems that may prevent participants from giving correct responses to the questions. Accordingly, the reviewers went through all the instruments and suggested the researcher to (a) write the word 'Instruction' and the titles such as 'Background Questionnaire' and 'Learner Diary' in bold types; (b) make slight modifications for a question in

the interview and for three items in the questionnaires, and (c) use simple words in writing the questions.

The reviewers suggested the researcher to (a) reduce the number of 'sentence starters' for the 'Learner Diary Format'; (b) decrease the number of open ended items in the questionnaire, and (c) delete a repeated close-ended item in the SILL. Based on these suggestions, the problematic areas of the instruments were revised, improved, rewritten and shown to the research advisor for approval. Upon obtaining approval from the research advisor, all instruments had been written again and made ready for pilot-testing.

4.5 Chapter Summary

Chapter four first described the research design and the methodology of the study. Then, it explained, among other things, the rationales for the choice of quasi-experimental research design. This was followed by explaining the advantages and disadvantages of using a quasi-experimental design with the MMsR in this study. Next, the rationales for the choice of the research setting, participants and data collection instruments were described. Finally, the methods ensuring the validity and reliability of the data collection instruments were highlighted. The next chapter deals with the pilot study.

Chapter Five: Pilot Study and Its Benefits

Pilot study is a first step to identify the weakness and strength of a proposed research design, instructional materials, data collection and analysis procedures (Gorard, 2004). Based on different scholars' work, Alamirew (2005) suggests that research instruments (and procedures) should be tried out before the phase of the actual data collection (if valid and reliable data is to be collected). Dornyei (2007:75) advises us by saying: "always pilot your research instruments and procedures before launching your project. Just like theatre performance, a research study also needs a dress rehearsal to ensure the high quality (reliability and validity) of the outcomes in the specific context".

This researcher conducted the pilot study with "the target group of people for whom it has been designed" (Dornyei & Csizer, 2012:79) to test the effectiveness of the (a) research design; (b) instruments and data collection procedures; (c) training materials; (d) intervention procedures and (e) adequacy of the time for respondents to complete the items/questions in each instrument. Data from the pilot study were also used to test the research questions and statistical methods. This chapter describes the design, data collection procedures and findings of the pilot study. Description of the design follows.

5.1 Design of the Pilot Study

This study used a quasi-experimental design with mixed methods research paradigm. The pilot study was done in line with this design viewing that "designing and piloting stages of research are generally cyclical, meaning that the information gleaned from piloting is then incorporated back into the research design and then piloted again" (Loewen & Philp, 2012:70). The pre/post tests were used to see changes in the dependent variables after the study. It is worth noting that all the data except diary entries were collected before and after the study. Diary entries were kept by learners in the EG for six weeks and submitted to the teacher every two weeks.

5.2 Participants of the Pilot Study

Participants of the pilot study were first-year undergraduate English majors enrolled in listening skill course at Samara University. The rationale for the choice of this sample was that "a good pilot study involves selecting a sample in the same way as intended for the final study, negotiating access in the same way, delivering the instrument in the same way, calculating

response rates and analyzing the results in the same way” (Gorard, 2003:114). Unfortunately, there were only 41 English majors in the department and they were assigned to one class before the study. This was a problem for implementing the original research design in the pilot study.

The researcher thus asked the Head of the Department to divide these 41 students into two groups for the pilot study, and permission was granted. After that, the researcher and one English teacher divided the students into two groups using their names in the attendance sheet. Learners with odd numbers were assigned to group A and others to group B. A coin was flipped to designate one class as a CG (N = 20) and the other to an EG (N = 21) for the study. Hence, the pre-post data were collected from 41 learners.

5.3 Pre-Treatment Data Collection Procedures for the Pilot Study

After determining the pilot participants and arranging the settings, the pre-treatment data were collected from participants. Details of each data collection procedures follow.

5.3.1 Administering the Pre-Questionnaires

The two questionnaires were administered to 41 learners in their regular classes using the following procedures. First, a booklet of the questionnaires was distributed to each respondent and the aim of the study was explained to them. Next, the researcher explained to the respondents that there were no 'right' or 'wrong' answers and ensured them that their responses would be kept confidential. Then, they were told to ask the researcher for help if they found any doubt in the questions. Finally, they were informed that there was no time limit to complete the questionnaires and that they would carefully 'tick' one of the five choices (1, 2, 3, 4 or 5) for each item. After completing the questionnaires within 50 minutes, all respondents returned the booklets to control the test effect (the pilot questionnaires are available in Appendix B).

5.3.2 Administering the Pre-Listening Proficiency Test

The listening section of the IELTS was tried out a day after piloting the questionnaires. It is worth noting that the reliability of the IELTS was not tested because it was prepared by experts in the field and it has gone through various revisions for several years now. But since the researcher reprinted and photocopied the test materials, some unexpected problems might exist in the scripts. It was thus vital to check if the texts were clearly reprinted and photocopied so that participants easily read and answer each question.

The listening proficiency test (see Appendix R) was administered to all participants in English laboratory room. Before starting doing the test, participants were informed that the result of the test would not affect their course grades so that they would do the test in a relaxed atmosphere. They were also informed that the time for completing the test was 40 minutes and no extra time was allowed to do the test. Moreover, participants began to listen to the scripts from the recorder and provided responses to the questions. When the time was up, all answer sheets were collected to control the test effects.

5.3.3 Conducting the Focus Group Discussion

The interview guide along with the interview procedures were tested for two major purposes. First, to check the clarity of the questions and to avoid any problem that might arise during the main study. Second, to assess the types of strategies that learners were aware of or not before starting the treatment and to select appropriate strategies for the main study. To this end, eight students (4 males and 4 females) from the EG were randomly selected and asked to participate in the interview. But two female students did not show their willingness. Thus, six students (4 males and 2 females) participated in the interview that was held in a classroom in their free time.

The interview questions were piloted in the following order. First, the researcher raised a warm-up question: 'How did you find Samara University?' to create a friendly atmosphere. They were given 4-5 minutes to discuss the ice-breaking questions. This was followed by giving a copy of an interview guide (see Appendix D) to each interviewee. They were then asked to (a) express their honest views on each question; (b) allow the interviewer to record the discussion for later analysis, and (c) use Amharic, English or both to express their ideas comfortably. Next, all participants were invited to start discussing the interview questions that took 40 minutes. Lastly, checking whether the discussion was recorded, the researcher thanked participants for their cooperation.

5.3.4 Testing the Diary Writing Form

The diary writing form was tested by learners assigned to the EG. The purposes were to check whether the guidelines and the 'sentence starters' presented in the diary writing form were clear and suitable for learners to write diaries during the training process. To this end, all the EG learners participated in a 50-minute training about how to record or write diaries. Participants were informed that their diaries would be confidential. Then, a copy of the diary writing form

(see Appendix F) was given to each learner and they were allowed 3-4 minutes to read the guidelines and the questions.

After participants finished reading the material, the term ‘diary’ was defined and its importance was explained by the researcher. They were also informed to (a) keep their diaries on each listening lesson; (b) write useful points as quickly as possible to avoid forgetfulness; (c) write their diaries in English but they would not worry much about grammar or spelling errors and (d) submit the diaries to the teacher each Friday.

5.4 Training Materials and Intervention Procedures

The next sections described the LC texts, validation of the texts, lesson plan, methods of teaching the CG, listening strategies, time Span for the SBI program and so on.

5.4.1 Listening Texts for the Intervention Program

The original research plan was to integrate certain strategies into the regular listening module and to instruct learners who would participate in both the pilot and main studies. The module was evaluated before the pilot study and the result showed that the module was not appropriate for learners to listen to the tests comfortably and to get the meanings easily. Hence, the researcher reviewed many journals, books and websites to obtain texts that appeal to learners’ age, interest and proficiency levels. Then, a series of criteria for selecting LC texts were taken from Rost (2011). These criteria were that the texts should (1) match learner objectives, (2) facilitate interactive learning, (3) be relevant to learners' real life, (4) be culturally unbiased and (5) increase learner motivation.

In light of this, 10 listening passages were initially selected from three books entitled 'Improve Your English: A Course for Ethiopian Teachers. Face-to-Face Materials One (2002), 'Improve Your English: A Course for Ethiopian Teachers (2004) and 'Language in Education in Ethiopian Schools' (2004). The specific topics selected from these books are 1) Say No to Drugs, 2) An Old Lady, 3) Heroes and their Qualities, 4) Martin Luther King, 5) Heads and Tails, 6) Insects, 7) Body Systems, 8.) The First Airplane Arrived in Ethiopia, 9) Nelson Mandela and 10) Human blood. These texts were compiled in a booklet for validation purpose. The term validation here refers to checking/evaluating the appropriateness, meaningfulness and usefulness of the texts for the target population.

5.4.2 Checking the Validity of the Listening Texts and Activities

The researcher asked three English teachers to check or evaluate the validity of the selected LC texts. The teachers were informed to rate each topic by using a 3 point scale (1 = clear and appropriate 0 = relatively ambiguous or difficult and -1 = very difficult or inappropriate) to indicate the appropriateness or otherwise. Appropriateness and clarity of each LC text was determined based on the agreement of the three raters. Each text had to be accepted by at least two teachers. A text rated as -1 by two or three teachers was not used in the study. Data obtained from the three English teachers are shown in Table 5.1

Table 5.1 Appropriateness of the Listening Texts According to the Three Teachers

No	Listening Topic	Clear/Appropriate	relatively ambiguous	Very ambiguous, difficult
1	Say No to Drugs	1 1	0	
2	An Old Lady	1 1 1		
3	Heroes and their Qualities		0	-1 -1
4	Martin Luther King	1 1		-1
5	Heads and Tails	1	0	-1
6	Insects	1 1	0	
7	Body Systems	1 0		-1
8	The First Airplane	1 1 1		
9	Nelson Mandela	1 1	0	
10	Human blood	1 0		-1

As Table 5.1 shows, six of the ten listening texts (1, 2, 4, 6, 8 and 9) were found inappropriate for the target population of the study. The teachers suggested that they thought the six listening texts were adequate for the study. They also checked the ease or difficulty levels of the pre-, while- and post-listening comprehension activities. Both groups were taught these listening texts along with the course-module entitled 'Listening Skills Course EnLa 101' (Sample listening texts are found in Appendix N).

5.4.3 Training Lesson Plan

The researcher designed lesson plans before starting each week's training. The lesson plans were created based on the objective of the course module and CALLA's training procedure. Since the instruction followed the pre-, while-, and post-listening phases, the lesson plans were prepared in line with activities and strategies pertaining to each listening phase (Sample Lesson Plan is found in Appendix M).

5.4.4 Listening Strategies for the Intervention Purpose

One of the basic steps for SBI is the selection of learning strategies relevant to the course contents and objectives (Oxford, 1990; Lessard-Clouston, 1997). Goh (2000) proposes that the first step in a SBI is to assess learners' needs and problems they face in listening process. The researcher thus (a) assessed learners' needs using data from the background questionnaire; (b) decided the amount of time for training based on the lessons from the pilot study, and (c) assessed the types of strategies they used. The assessment was guided by three closely interrelated questions: (1) What are the major causes (if any) of learners' LC problems? (2) What types of strategies do learners need to learn to improve their LC abilities? and (3) which strategies are relevant to the affective sides of LC.

Based on the results, 18 listening strategies were selected from Oxford's (1990) taxonomy. The specific listening strategies are (a) two memory strategies: grouping and associating; (b) two compensation strategies: paraphrasing and guessing from context; (c) five cognitive strategies: prediction, repeating naturalistically, getting the main idea quickly, note-taking and summarizing; (d) four metacognitive strategies: goal setting, monitoring, paying attention and self-evaluation; (e) two social strategies: asking questions and cooperating with others; (f) three affective strategies: self-encouragement, writing about feelings and lowering anxiety.

5.4.5 Time Span and Schedule of the Intervention for the Pilot Study

Learners in the control and experimental groups were taught listening skill twice a week for 50 minutes but this did not include the time spent in collecting the pre-post data. Each training session for the CG was from 9.00 a.m. to 10.00 a.m. on Mondays and Wednesdays, and for the EG was from 9.00 a.m. to 10.00 a.m. on Tuesdays and Fridays. Both groups had the same teacher, listening texts, tests and assignments but differed in teaching methods. The CG was taught the listening skills using the traditional teaching methods, whereas; the EG was taught the same listening skills using the SBI model.

5.4.6 Teaching Listening Skills to Learners in the EG

Learners in the EG were exposed to SBI procedures that included explicit attention to useful listening strategies. Each training session started with introducing a variety of brainstorming LC activities. Two or three listening strategies were introduced, modeled, explained and practiced

during each listening lessons. Before listening to each LC text, certain difficult words were also written on the board, and their meanings were explained. Learners were advised not to worry about understanding every word but to focus on the main ideas of the listening texts at hand

Most of the listening strategies included in the training sessions were metacognitive and cognitive categories. In order to raise learners' metacognitive awareness, metacognitive strategies such as goal setting, paying attention and self-evaluation were introduced, named, explained, demonstrated, practiced during each LC lessons. In order to help learners comprehend, learn, or retain information, cognitive strategies such as prediction, getting the main idea of the LC quickly, note-taking, summarizing and the likes were introduced, named, explained and demonstrated to learners during each lessons.

In order to arouse and increase learners' motivation towards learning LC lessons, affective strategies such as self-encouragement, writing about feelings and lowering anxiety were emphasized during each LC lesson. The instructor encouraged learners to keep diaries on each LC lesson for six weeks and to submit their diaries to the instructor every Friday. The aims of making learners keep diaries were to raise their awareness of metacognitive knowledge and to elicit data on their learning problems, motivation and beliefs about the SBI program. All learners were informed to keep their diaries on the listening strategies and the problems encountered during the LC processes.

5.4.7 Methods of Teaching Listening Skills to Learners in the CG

Learners in the CG were taught LC lessons based on the teacher-centered approach which refers to the teacher presents the lessons, interacts with the whole class and/or with individual learners in the teaching process. A typical way to start a new LC lesson in the modules was by introducing the vocabulary first. This was a common method of teaching English to learners in most english classes at Samara University. Instruction followed teacher-initiated questionings, student-responded questions, individual class works and so on. The topic of each lesson was written on the chalk-board and the text was read aloud once or twice depending on the number of times the text was read aloud to the EG.

Few pair/group activities were organized for learners to check their understanding of the LC texts. This was followed by asking learners to answer several post LC questions. The teacher

called individual learners from different sectors of the class to give short answers, mainly in the form of 'yes' or 'no' answer formats. Due to the nature of the traditional class, there were limited learner-learner or learner-teacher interactions in the LC classes.

5.5 Post-Treatment Data Collection Procedures

After a 6-week SBI program, all instruments were administered again to both groups see whether gains occurred in scores between the two groups. Details are presented below.

5.5.1 Administering the Post-Listening Proficiency Test

The listening Proficiency test was administered a day before the questionnaires were completed. Participants were informed that the test would not affect their grades. They were also told that the time for the test was 40 minutes and that no extra time was allowed to do it. Answer sheets were then distributed to all participants, the test CD was on and they were told to start doing the test. When the time was up, all answer sheets were collected and the number was checked for response rate before they left class.

5.5.2 Administering the Post-Questionnaires

The same questionnaires with minor modifications (improvements) and procedures used in collecting the pre-treatment data were also used in collecting the post-tests. Respondents were encouraged to provide as much data as possible, and were reassured that their responses would be confidential. They were also told to answer all questions according to the instruction on the booklet. Moreover, respondents were requested to ask the researcher any questions they would have in order to make sure that they would understand each item and answer appropriately. After completing the questionnaires within 50 minutes, each respondent returned the completed booklet to the researcher.

5.5.3 Conducting the Post-Group Discussion

The same interview guide and interview questions which were used in the first interview were again used in the second interview session. Participants were informed that their participation in the group discussion would be confidential and that the results of the group discussion would be used for research purpose only. They were also questions to tell their familiarity with the listening strategies before, strategies they found most useful, and how they felt about the use of

the SBI for their listening abilities and motivation. In order to express their ideas clearly, the researcher allowed them to use either Amharic or English. With their permission, the whole discussion was tape-recorded for later analysis. (Sample responses to the interview questions are found in Appendix E).

5.5.4 The Collection of Data Using the Diary Method

Data with the diary method was collected over a period of six weeks from learners in the EG. As noted earlier, all learners in the EG were trained in how to write diaries. But a small number of diary entries (five to six) were kept and submitted to the instructor every Friday. The main reason was that most of the students lacked diary keeping experience. Some learners reported that they were not familiar with keeping diaries because they were never asked to do so before. Thus, the researcher analyzed the submitted diaries for the pilot study (See Sample Diary entries for the Pilot Study in Appendix G).

5.6 Data Processing: Preparation and Coding of the Data

Data processing is one of the major prerequisites to obtain valid and reliable research findings (Dornyei, 2007; Phakiti, 2014). All the data of this study were processed and checked prior to analysis. Due to the different nature of the two datasets, both the quantitative and the qualitative data were processed separately in the next sections.

5.6.1 Coding the Quantitative Data

Data coding in quantitative research means reorganizing data into a format that is easy to analyze using statistics software on computers (Marczyk et al., 2005). Dornyei (2007:199) says that "the first step of data processing involves converting the respondents' answers to numbers by means of coding procedures". Hence, all responses to the Likert scale items in the questionnaires were tallied and recorded in a codebook. The negative items were reversed and a numerical value was assigned to each item beginning from 1 point for 'Never use' to 5 points for 'Always use'. Similarly, the responses to the positive items in the ASLQ were assigned numerical values as follows: Strongly agree = 5, Agree = 4, No opinion = 3, Disagree = 3 and Strongly disagree = 1.

The response to each negatively worded item was reversed before assigning numerical value to each. For example, the numerical values for negative items on listening anxiety such as "I get nervous when I do not hear every word in a listening text" in the ASLCQ range from 1 point for

‘Strongly agree’ to 5 points for ‘Strongly disagree’. After that, the raw data were recorded in a codebook and then entered into the computer files.

Each participant’s answer to each test item was marked and scored according to the marking and scoring criteria given by designers of IELTS. The method used to score was '1' point for a correct answer and '0' or no point was given to the incorrect or unanswered item. Correct responses were then scored out of 40% for each test taker. Each test taker's total test score (out of 40%) was written against his/her identification number. After that, the scores were added up and entered into the computer file for analysis using SPSS.

5.6.2 Data Screening/Cleaning

Researchers are recommended "to screen the data to make certain that (1) responses are legible and understandable, (2) responses are within an acceptable range, (3) all the necessary information has been included" (Marczyk et al., 2005:201-2). With this in mind, the present researcher spent much time checking the data for any potential errors. A preliminary analysis was performed and the results showed that four (out of 41) students did not complete either the pre or the post-tests and were excluded from analyses. Thus, data obtained from 37 learners (CG=19 and EG=18) were used for the pilot study. The frequency distribution of the age variable, the numbers of participants and the value for each are shown in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2 Frequency Distribution of Participants' Age

Age Variable	Age Range	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	17-18	3	8.1	8.1	8.1
	19-20	29	78.4	78.4	86.5
	21-22	4	10.8	10.8	97.3
	>22	1	2.7	2.7	100.0
	Total	37	100.0	100.0	

Table 5.2 reveals the Frequency, Percent, Valid Percent and Cumulative Percent of the age variable. The 'Valid Percent' column takes into account missing values. In this case, there are no missing values because the 'Percent' and 'Valid Percent' columns are the same. The table displays the value of each age range from 1-4 (1=17-18, 2=19-20, 3=21-22 and 4=>22). It also shows that 29 (78.4 percent) out of 37 learners are within 19-20 age range. Moreover, the table shows that

the minimum and maximum values for age variable are 1 and 4 respectively, indicating no missing cases.

Table 5.3 Frequency Distribution of Gender in the Sample

Gender Variable	Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Valid	1 male	13	35.1	35.1
	2 female	24	64.9	100.0
	Total	37	100,0	100.0

Table 5.3 shows the frequency distribution of the values for gender variable. The 'Frequency' column contains the exact number of cases for each category. The numbers in the 'Percent' column represent the percentage of the total number of cases in each category. The total valid cases involves 37 among which 13 are males (35.1 percent) and 24 are females (64.9 percent) in the sample, indicating no missing values concerning gender. Overall, the values were correctly coded and entered into the computer file.

5.6.3 Reliability Test (Cronbach's Alpha)

Testing internal reliability is essential for understanding whether the result is below the threshold level and to "increase the reliability of our measures" (Bachman, 1990:160). Cronbach's alpha was used to check the internal reliabilities of the two Likert scale questionnaires (SILL and ASLCQ). It should be noted that although 41 students participated in the pilot study, 4 of them were excluded from the analysis for not completing the instruments. Thus, complete responses obtained from 37 students were coded, entered into the computer and tested for the reliability indexes shown in Table 5.4

Table 5.4 Reliability of the Questionnaires (SILL and ASLCQ) for the Pilot Study

Data Source	No. of Participants	No of Items	Reliability Indexes	Testing Method
SILL	37	50	.933	Cronbach's Alpha
ASLCQ	37	45	.731	

As Table 5.4 shows, the internal reliabilities of the SILL (50 items) and ASLCQ (45 items) completed by 37 learners were .933 and .731 respectively. Cronbach alpha value greater than .7 is acceptable (Pallant, 2010). In this regard, the alpha values of these questionnaires were above .7 indicating that they were reliable for this sample.

5.7 Preparation/Organization of the Qualitative Data

The researcher first checked whether each participant wrote his/her identification number, gender and age on each data collection booklet. Next, the raw data from the focus group discussion, diary entries and open-ended questions were organized and arranged in systematic ways. Then, responses given in Amharic to the interview questions were translated into English. After that, the responses relevant to the study were sorted and typed up in a list under each question. Finally, the raw data were coded based on the guidelines of grounded theory (Saldana, 2009).

Raw data were initially examined for relevant themes emerging from responses. The researcher listened to the recorded texts or read the written texts several times and highlighted new concepts to form themes. The second coding involved arranging the responses into any one of the strategy categories which emerged from additional data after they were grouped for the first time. New ideas/concepts appeared in each response were coded and grouped under the following themes: (a) uses of learning listening skill using the CALLA model; (b) problems in learning listening skills; (c) affective factors (interest, anxiety, beliefs) related to LC tasks and (d) use of strategies.

5.8 Analysis and Interpretation of All the Data Collected from Pilot Participants

Both the quantitative and qualitative data were analyzed in line with the research design.

5.8.1 Analyzing and Interpreting the Quantitative Data

All the quantitative data were analyzed and interpreted using descriptive and inferential statistical methods. Descriptive statistical methods were used to describe the mean scores of each measured variable. This study used histograms and boxplots to test normality of each data. Besides, Levene's test and Kolmogorov-Smirnov's test were run to check assumptions of homogeneity and normality respectively and confirmed. Therefore, parametric t-tests were used to compare the significance of both groups' pre/post means, and the pre/post means of each group respectively. A probability value of 0.05 was set to determine the significance levels of the results from all parametric tests. Moreover, effect sizes were used to check the strength of the significance level of the results.

5.8.2 Results of the Pilot Study

The researcher analyzed the quantitative data using some data analytical methods to check whether the research design, the research questions, the instruments, the training materials, the time set for treatments and the proposed statistical procedures are on the right track. The following research questions guided data analysis and interpretation.

1. Is there a statistically significant difference in the two groups' post mean scores on the listening proficiency test?
2. Is there a statistically significant difference in the two groups' post mean scores on the listening strategies use questionnaire?
3. Is there a statistically significant difference in the two groups' post mean scores on the affective sides of listening comprehension questionnaire?
4. What are the EG learners' views about the benefits of the SBI program?

5.8.2.1 Effects of the SBI model on the Learners' Listening Proficiency

The first research question examined the effects of the SBI program on the participants' listening proficiency levels. To answer this research question, the pre/post data collected with the listening proficiency test were analyzed using disruptive and inferential statistics. First, Kolmogorov-Smirnov's test was calculated to check whether the assumption of normality was met. The results are presented in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5 Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for Normality of Listening Test Scores

Group	Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	Df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Control	.142	19	.200	.970	19	.778
Experimental	.120	18	.198	.983	18	.973

As Table 5.5 shows, the numbers .200 and .198 in the 'Sig' columns are larger than .05. This led the researcher to conclude that the data came from a normal distribution. It is thus valid to use t-tests. Before using the t-tests, descriptive statistics were run to compare the two groups' pre/post mean scores. The results are presented in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6 Descriptive statistics of the Pre/post Listening Test Mean Scores

Group	N	Pre-Means	Pre-SDs	Post-Means	Post-SDs
Control	19	8.4211	2.2928	9.0526	2.1723
Experimental	18	8.2222	2.5565	10.9444	2.0714

As Table 5.6 depicts, the pre-means for the CG (M = 8.42, SD =2.29) and the EG (M = 8.22, SD =2.56) were similar before treatment. The means for the CG (M = 9.05, SD =2.17) and the EG (M = 10.94, SD =2.07) were different after treatment. The post-mean score of the EG (M=10.94) was larger than the post-mean score of the CG (M = 9.05).

Independent samples t-tests were performed to verify if there were significant differences in the two groups' pre/post mean scores at the 0.05 significance level. First, Levene's test was calculated to test whether the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met. Outputs generated from Levene's test are displayed in Table 5.7.

5.7 Levene's Test for Equality of Variances of the Pre-Listening Test

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
.288	.595	.249	35	.805
		.249	34.09	.805

Table 5.7 reveals that the significance level (.595) of Levene's test is larger than .05, meaning that the variances for the two groups were not significantly different. Thus, the same independent samples t-test was run to identify if a significant difference existed in the two groups' post mean scores. The results of Levene's test are shown in Table 5.8.

Table 5.8 Independent t-test for Comparing both Groups' Post Mean Scores

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Equal variances assumed	.091	765	-2.708	35	.010
Equal variances not assumed					

Table 5.8 shows that the t-value obtained from the scores of the two groups was $t(35) = -2.71$, $p < .05$), indicating the existence of significant difference between the two groups. The table also shows that effect size (eta squared) was .17, indicated a large effect. The results can suggest that the SBI helped EG develop their listening abilities.

In summary: the independent t-test analysis indicated that the EG did make significant progress in listening proficiency. But the CG showed insignificant progress in listening ability. Hence, the null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative one was supported.

5.8.2.2 Effects of the SBI on the Learners' Listening Strategy Utilization

The third research question examined the effects of the SBI program on the learners' listening strategies use. To answer this research question, the pre/post data collected with strategies use questionnaire were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics. First, Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was run to test normality of the data. The results obtained from the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test are presented in Table 5.9.

Table 5.9 Kolmogorov-Smirnov's test for Normality of the Post-test Scores

	Groups	Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	Df	Sig.	Statistic	Df	Sig.
Memory	Control	.138	19	.200	.971	19	.789
	Experimental	.115	18	.200	.960	18	.598
Cognitive	Control	.097	19	.200	.957	19	.521
	Experimental	.089	18	.200	.975	18	.880
Compensation	Control	.174	19	.135	.955	19	.473
	Experimental	.147	18	.200	.950	18	.425
Metacognitive	Control	.102	19	.200	.965	19	.664
	Experimental	.078	18	.200	.985	18	.986
Affective	Control	.243	19	.104	.833	19	.004
	Experimental	.158	18	.200	.963	18	.651
Social	Control	.180	19	.107	.952	19	.429
	Experimental	.138	18	.200	.957	18	.547

The results in Table 5.9 revealed that all numbers under the 'Sig' column are larger than .05. This led the researcher to conclude that the data came from a normal distribution. Thus the use of t-tests is acceptable. First, descriptive statistics were run to compare the two groups' pre/post means. Results are shown in Table 5.10.

Table 5.10 Descriptive Statistics on both Groups Pre-Strategy Use Scores

SILL's Category	Group	N	Pre-Means	Pre-SDs	Post-Means	Post-SDs
Memory	Control	19	3.052	.419	3.147	.56397
	Experimental	18	3.037	.353	3.110	.40303
Cognitive	Control	19	3.042	.224	3.086	.44785
	Experimental	18	3.006	.223	3.946	.41018
Compensation	Control	19	3.060	.258	3.112	.46134
	Experimental	18	3.037	.240	3.948	.42218
Metacognitive	Control	19	3.069	.226	3.093	.38763
	Experimental	18	3.045	.229	3.966	.40262
Affective	Control	19	3.114	.596	2.824	.38278
	Experimental	18	3.055	.471	4.092	.49909
Social	Control	19	3.026	.501	2.956	.50259
	Experimental	18	3.000	.432	4.046	.44209

As Table 5.10 shows, there was no difference in the frequency of overall strategy reported by learners in both groups before treatment. But there were differences in the post means of the two groups. Independent samples t-test was run to check whether the observed improvement reached a statistical significance. Levene's test was computed to test whether the assumption was met and the results are shown in Table 5.11

Table 5.11 Levene's Test for Equality of Variances of the Pretest Mean Scores

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Memory	Equal variances assumed	.056	.814	.113	35	.911
	Equal variances not assumed			.113	34.978	.911
Cognitive	Equal variances assumed	.042	.839	-.106	35	.916
	Equal variances not assumed			-.106	33.921	.916
Compensation	Equal variances assumed	.007	.936	.276	35	.784
	Equal variances not assumed			.277	34.993	.784
Metacognitive	Equal variances assumed	.005	.946	.322	35	.749
	Equal variances not assumed			.322	34.849	.749
Affective	Equal variances assumed	.001	.977	.132	35	.896
	Equal variances not assumed			.132	34.877	.896
Social	Equal variances assumed	2.381	.132	.237	35	.814
	Equal variances not assumed			-.239	30.647	.812

Table 5.11 shows that the p values (Memory =.814, Cognitive = .839, Compensation = .936, Metacognitive = .946, Affective = .977 and Social = .132) of Levene's test are larger than .05, indicating the two groups were equal before the study. Independent t-tests were run to compare the two groups' post mean scores. Table 5.12 below shows that the difference in the two groups' pre/post means on five out of six strategy categories.

Table 5.12 Independent t-tests comparing Post Means of Six Strategy Categories

SILL's Strategy Groups		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Memory	Equal variances assumed	.027	.870	.280	35	.781
	Equal variances not assumed					
Cognitive	Equal variances assumed	.000	.994	-4.420	35	.000**
	Equal variances not assumed					
Compensation	Equal variances assumed	.210	.649	-5.739	35	.000**
	Equal variances not assumed					
Metacognitive	Equal variances assumed	.000	.990	-6.717	35	.000**
	Equal variances not assumed					
Affective	Equal variances assumed	.521	.475	-8.577	35	.000**
	Equal variances not assumed					
Social	Equal variances assumed	.009	.926	-6.990	35	.000**
	Equal variances not assumed					

** P < .001

As Table 5.12 shows, the P values of the five strategy groups for the EG were less than .05. The effect sizes (eta squared) of the five strategy groups are as follows: cognitive (.79), compensation (.78), metacognitive (.80), affective (.69) and social (.77). These large effect sizes indicate that the SBI program had positive effects on the participants' use of these five strategy categories.

In summary: the independent t-test analyses indicated that the EG did make significant increase in using listening strategies after treatment. But the independent t-test analyses showed that the CG showed insignificant increase in using listening strategies after the study. Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative one was supported.

5.8.2.3 Effects of the SBI on Learners' Affective Sides of Listening Comprehension

Research question three examined the effects of the SBI on the motivation, anxiety and beliefs of learners in the CG. To answer this question, the pre/post data collected with the ASLCQ were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics. First, Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was run to test normality of the data and the results in Table 5.13

Table 5.13 Kolmogorov-Smirnov's test for Normality of the Scales in ASLCQ

Subscales of ASLCQ		Groups	Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk		
			Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	Df	Sig.
Interest in listening	Control		.130	19	.200	.953	19	.441
	Experimental		.137	18	.200	.908	18	.080
Listening anxiety	Control		.160	19	.200	.925	19	.140
	Experimental		.200	18	.054	.871	18	.019
Beliefs about Listening	Control		.171	19	.144	.939	19	.248
	Experimental		.148	18	.200	.970	18	.803

Table 5.13 shows that all the figures under the 'Sig' columns are larger than .05, indicating that assumptions of normality were met. The researcher rejected the alternative hypothesis and concluded that the data came from a normal distribution. Thus, t-tests were used to analyze the data. Descriptive statistics were run to compare both groups' pre/post means and SDs before running t-tests. Results are shown in Table 5.14.

Table 5.14 Descriptive Statistics on the ASLCQ Categories for the Two Groups

Subscales of ASLCQ	Group	N	Pre-Means	Pre-SDs	Post-Means	Post-SDs
Motivation	Control	19	3.3404	.34918	3.6140	.60515
	Experimental	18	3.3444	.50423	4.0444	.44340
Anxiety	Control	19	3.5263	.30522	3.7842	.28725
	Experimental	18	3.5456	.26396	2.0833	.34343
Beliefs	Control	19	3.2211	.31724	2.9789	.31016
	Experimental	18	3.2178	.38010	3.6389	.24528

Table 5.14 showed that both groups had similar mean scores across the categories before the study. Each post-mean of the EG was greater than each post mean of the CG. Independent samples t-test was computed to check if the two groups were homogeneous in terms of motivation, anxiety and beliefs and the results are presented in Table 5.15

Table 5.15 Independent t-Tests for Comparing both Groups' Pre-Mean Scores

Subscales of ASLCQ		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
motivation	Equal variances assumed	2.651	.112	-.029	35	.977
	Equal variances not assumed					
Anxiety	Equal variances assumed	.057	.813	-.248	35	.805
	Equal variances not assumed					
Belief	Equal variances assumed	2.989	.093	-.957	35	.345
	Equal variances not assumed					

Table 5.15 shows that the significance levels (Motivation =.112, Anxiety =.813 and Belief =.093) of Levene's test are larger than .05, meaning that the variances for the two groups were not significantly different. In order to check the significance of differences in the two groups' post mean scores, independent t-test was run. Results in Table 5.16 showed that the post- mean scores of the EG were significantly different from the post mean scores of the CG on the motivation and anxiety scales.

Table 5.16 Independent t-Tests for comparing the Two Groups' Post Mean Scores

Subscales of ASLCQ		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Motivation	Equal variances assumed	.927	.342	-2.456	35	.019
	Equal variances not assumed					
Anxiety	Equal variances assumed	.048	.827	6.375	35	.000
	Equal variances not assumed					
Belief	Equal variances assumed	.144	.707	-.104	35	.918
	Equal variances not assumed					

The effect size for motivation and LC anxiety scales were .15 and .54 respectively. These effects are very large meaning that the SBI model increased learners' motivation to learn listening lessons. On the contrary, the p value of the belief scale was greater than .05 ($p > .05$) and its effect size was .008. This is a very small effect size, indicating that the SBI did not have a positive effect on the learners' beliefs about learning listening skill.

In summary: results of the independent t-test indicated that the EG made significant change in the motivation and anxiety scales after treatment. But the CG did not make a significance change in the motivation and anxiety scales after the study.

5.8.2.4 Results of the Fourth Research Question

The fourth research question was designed to explore learners' views, feelings and experiences regarding the importance of SBI for learning listening skill. To this end, qualitative data from group interview, diary and open-ended questions were coded and analyzed in order to validate and cross-check the quantitative data. Data from group interview and diary entries indicated that learners in the EG enjoyed the SBI model. Most qualitative data revealed that the SBI helped them improve their listening skills.

Most of the feedbacks received from the pilot participants were positive but there were also a few negative remarks concerning the importance of SBI. For example, one of the learners stated that she did not understand the purpose of strategy instruction and she preferred the traditional teaching methods. Another learner who participated in the second group discussion said "this teaching method is very useful to develop our listening skill. But if we do not learn grammar, we cannot pass second semester final exam". Other than these doubts, no one had negative remarks

about the CALLA training model, rather many learners asked the researcher to teach them other skills using this method.

Regarding the listening lessons, most of the learners in the EG stated that the training made their listening classes enjoyable. More than half of the interviewees stated that they wanted to come to the listening class before the teacher just because they liked the lesson. All of them stated that they found the brainstorming activity quite useful. Two reasons can be suggested for this. Firstly, the training procedures and the listening texts might have helped them to be better learners as well, and secondly, the training procedures might have helped them use various listening strategies to comprehend listening texts.

In general, the results of the quantitative and qualitative analysis showed that the SBI helped most learners in the EG use various listening strategies and also increase their motivation to learn listening skills. Beside, data obtained from the second discussion indicated that most learners in the EG enjoyed learning listening using the SBI model.

5.9 Implications of the Pilot Study for the Main Study

The pilot study provided valuable lessons which would assist in accomplishing the main study. Some of the lessons and their implications for the main study are briefed below.

First, the procedures used to administer the instruments were generally effective. Almost all participants (37) completed the instruments and returned to the researcher on time, indicating that the response rate was very high. But seven adapted items (12, 25, 40, 48 in the SILL and 3, 11 and 25 in the ASLCQ) seemed to be difficult for some learners to understand their meanings (See Appendix C). Those items had to be improved before using them for the main study.

Second, data from the interview questions was successfully collected from participants involved in the group discussion. It does not mean, however, that every detail of the interview questions and discussion were perfect. It was found that many interviewees did not understand one of the questions (No=3) in the interview guide. The interviewer tried to paraphrase the question two times for participants to understand it. Despite this, many of the group members did not fully understand its meaning. It was thus decided to delete the question from the interview guide for the main study.

Third, learners involved in diary writing tasks were given a 50-minute initial training in how to keep diaries. But relatively few learners kept their diaries and submitted to the researcher every Friday. The main reason was that the 50-minute training was not enough for learners to understand diary writing techniques. They said that they needed more explanations and examples to keep better diaries. It was thus necessary to extend the 50-minute training time to a minimum of two or more periods in order to give more explanations and examples of keeping listening diaries for participants of the main study.

Finally, relatively many students complained about the time given to complete the listening proficiency test. After the test, some of the learners were asked to tell about the clarity of the directions, the difficulty level of the test, the readability of the answer sheets and the length of the testing time. Most of them reported that there was no difficulty in the listening materials but the time was short for doing all test items. Hence, the time assigned to administer the pre/post listening proficiency tests would be considered for participants of the main study. The researcher extended the time for the pre/posttests from 40 minutes to 55 minutes to the learners participating in the main study.

5.10 Summary of the Pilot Study

This chapter explained the purposes and benefits of the pilot study. First, the design and methodology utilized in the pilot study were described. Then, the context, participants, sampling techniques, training materials and procedures used in conducting the pilot study were explained. Next, the SBI procedures used for intervention, data collection and analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data were described in detail. The procedures followed to ensure the validity and reliability issues of the pilot study were also outlined. Finally, implications of the pilot study for the main study were reported. What follows the summary of the pilot study is the description of Chapter Six.

Chapter Six: Research Procedures and Materials of the Main Study

The main study took place between October 2016 and February 2017. The same research design, research questions, research setting, instructional materials, data collection and analysis methods which were used in the pilot study were also used in the main study. But the main study differed from the pilot study in terms of the sample size, participants' field of study, length of the treatment period and the instructors involved in the study. Besides, the main study used more listening strategies than the pilot study did.

6.1 Design of the Main Study

The general design of this study is a quasi-experiment involving an experimental and a control group with the pretest- treatment - posttest procedure. This design was implemented in both the pilot and main studies. Like the pilot study, the main study had three major phases. The first phase was pretest measures - administered to both groups before the intervention program. The second was an intervention using listening strategies. Finally, the third phase was post measures administered to both groups after treatment. Descriptions of participants, data collection procedures, training materials and methods follow.

6.2 Participants and Sampling Techniques of the Main Study

The original design of the main study was to involve two existing classes of first-year English majors taking listening skill course. But due to the 70% and 30% policy issued by MOE, the Department of English received less than 30 English majors in the 2016/2017 academic year. Since conducting the study with a class of learners in English Department was not possible, the researcher searched for other departments which had two classes for comparison. This was based on Cohen & Macaro's (2010:114) claim that "Experimental studies should always have a 'control group' or 'comparison group', which does not get 'the treatment' or is not exposed to the change" It was finally found out that only the Department of Biology had two sections.

Absence of a control group in an experimental study prevents comparisons between results of the two groups (Nunan, 1992). Experimental designs that do not provide an answer as to whether the EG scores are higher than they would have been without the treatment due to the lack of a CG (Mackey & Gass, 2005). Thus, the Department of Biology was chosen since it had two classes for comparison purpose. The head of the Department of Biology granted permission along with

the necessary documents such as the students' list and attendance sheets. Participants of the main study were thus Biology majors taking a 3-credit hour course of English.

However, observation and data from background questionnaire showed that learners who participated in both studies had many similar characteristics. Since learners from different departments participated in both studies, the researcher administered the questionnaires to all participants of the main study before the intervention program. A question in the background questionnaire asked learners to inquire the type of school each attended his/her pre-university levels of English lessons (9-10) and (11-12). Their responses were coded, entered into the computer file and analyzed using descriptive statistics and the results are displayed in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1 School You Learnt Your Pre-University (9-10) and (11-12) Lessons

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Government	62	84.9	84.9	84.9
Private	5	6.8	6.8	91.8
Valid Government & private	6	8.2	8.2	100.0
Total	73	100.0	100.0	

Results in Table 6.1 show that 62 (84.9%) out of 73 students completed their pre-university education in the government schools. Only 5 (6.8%) and 6 (8.2%) attended their English lessons in the private and Government plus private schools respectively. Observation also showed that all learners participated in both the pilot and the main studies (a) were Ethiopians; (b) had similar educational backgrounds as they were taught more or less the same syllabus; (c) were more or less at the same age and maturity levels and (d) were first-year students.

The aforementioned data suggests that involving biology majors in the main study might not affect the results. With that in mind, the two classes were randomly assigned to an EG (39) and that of a CG (40). Totally, 79 learners participated in the main study. The major research procedures of the main study are shown in figure 6.1.

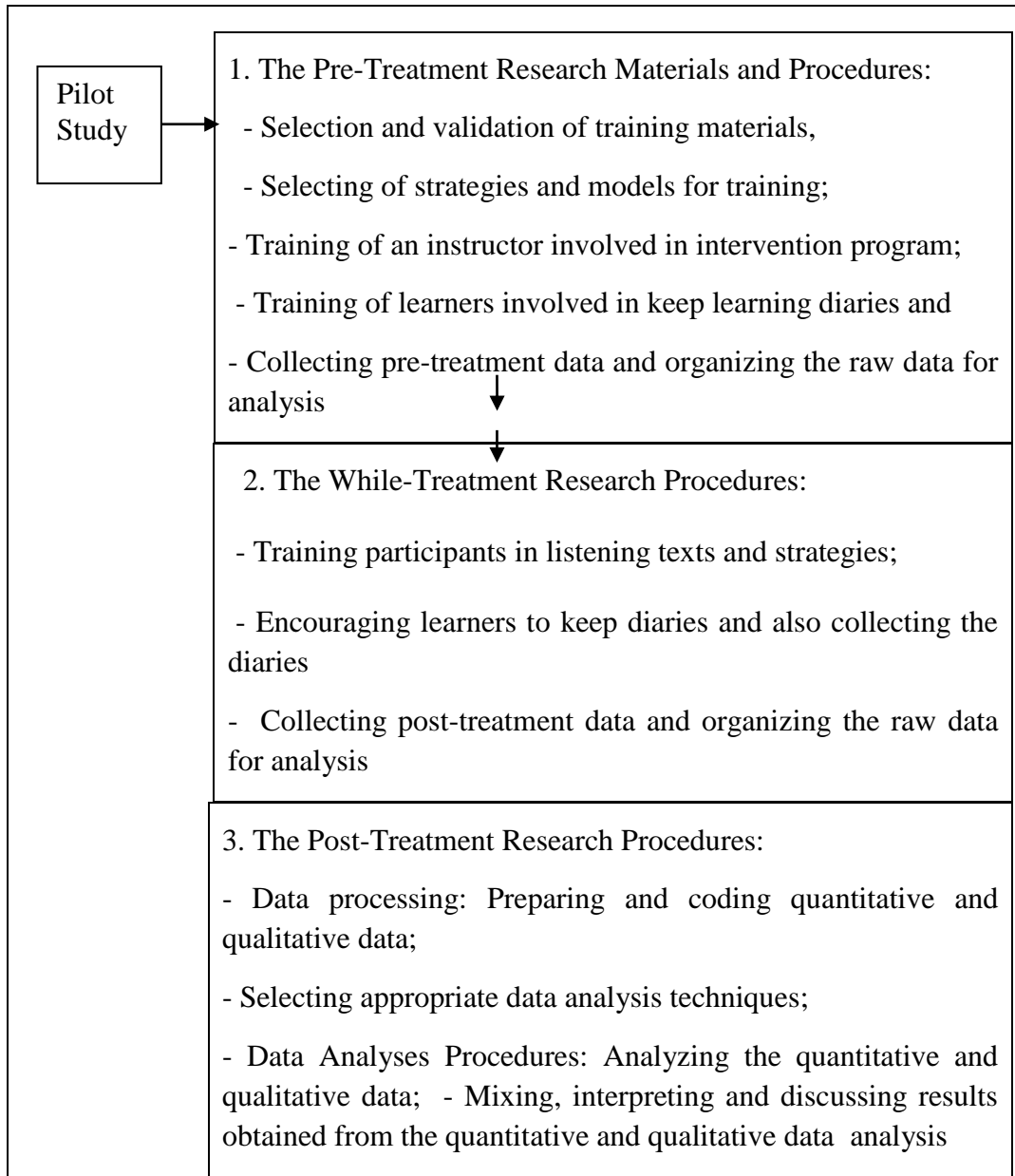


Figure 6.1 A schematic representation of the whole research procedure

Figure 6.1 shows three major phases of the study: the pre-treatment, the while-treatment and the post-treatment research phases. Details of each research phase are described in the order they are just presented in above figure.

6.3 Pre-Treatment Materials and Procedures for the Main Study

The phase deals with the procedures of administering the pre-tests and the training of learners in how to keep diary entries during the treatment weeks.

6.3.1 Administering the Pre-Treatment Questionnaires

The questionnaires were administered to both groups at different periods and places in the morning session of October 2016. The pilot questionnaires with necessary improvements on certain questions were administered to participants of the main study (see Validated Questionnaires in Appendix H). The researcher himself distributed the questionnaires in the classrooms where learners were already assigned by the department. The respondents were initially informed that their responses to the questionnaires would be used for research purposes only. They were also informed not to consult their classmates while working on the questions to ensure that the answers reflected each respondent's own beliefs, opinions and experiences of learning listening skills. The researcher stayed around the class until they completed the questionnaires in order to clarify any doubts immediately. Respondents completed the questionnaires within 45-minutes and returned the booklets to the researcher.

6.3.2 Administering the Pre-Treatment Proficiency Test

The listening proficiency test was administered to both groups at the same time but in different classes. One English instructor and the researcher administered the test to the experimental and control groups respectively one day after the questionnaires were filled in. Prior to administering the test, participants were informed about the length of the listening test and the tasks required of them to do the test. Almost all procedures outlined in the IELTS test were practiced during the testing sessions to avoid data contaminations.

Participants were informed that the test would not affect their achievement test results. They were also told that discussing with others was not allowed when doing the test. However, participants were allowed to ask if they had any problem in the answer sheets. They were also told that the time for the test was 40 minutes and no extra time was allowed to do the test. As the 40-minute time ended, all answer sheets were collected to control test effect on the post-test.

6.3.3 Training of Learners in How to Record Listening Diaries

It has been claimed that a researcher may not obtain varied and enough data with diary methods without training participants in how and what to keep in their diaries. Results of the pilot study also showed that few learners submitted their diaries to the researcher each week. Many learners reported that the training they received before the pilot study was insufficient. Hence, all learners in the EG were given a 100-minute training using the diary writing form (See Appendix K). The training started with assessing if learners had experience of writing diaries in previous classes.

This was followed by giving a copy of the diary writing form to each learner so that he/she read it for 5 minutes. Next, the researcher defined the term 'diary entry' and explained (1) the importance of writing diaries and (2) the elements included in the diary writing forms. After discussing these issues, the researcher informed learners to (a) write their diaries throughout the training weeks; (b) write only useful points in their diaries as quickly as possible to avoid forgetfulness, and (c) submit their diaries every fortnight.

6.3.4 The While-Treatment Phase

This phase focuses on the selection of instructional materials and listening strategies as well as the determination of time for the intervention. Details of each are offered below.

6.3.4.1 Selection of Listening Materials for the Main Study

One of the most important requirements for conducting classroom-based research is the choice and use of appropriate teaching materials (Rubin et al., 2007). Before selecting new texts for instruction, the researcher evaluated whether the regular module contained (1) sufficient listening texts, (2) interesting specific topics that can encourage learners to listen to and practice and (3) manageable listening contents with a right level of difficulty for learners. The result showed that the module was not suitable for this study. Hence, both groups were trained using the adapted listening texts along with the course module entitled 'Communicative English Skills-101'

6.3.4.2 Listening Strategies Selected and Used for the Intervention Program

The effectiveness of SBI program depends in the selection of appropriate learning strategies and instructional material or texts. But the choice of specific learning strategies is not an easy task as it can be affected by many factors such as the "learning context, the nature of the task, and each

learner's styles, goals and background knowledge" (Rubin et al., 2007:142). There is little or no use of training learners in strategies that they had already known or made use of in their learning process (Oxford, 1990). Oxford goes on to suggest that teachers need to select any strategy which having a mean score under 3.5 ($M < 3.5$) and train learners to use the strategy more frequently ($M > 3.5$).

In light of this, data obtained from the pre-pilot questionnaires were calculated and the mean score of each strategy on the SILL was identified. Based on the purpose of the study, the regular course aims and the credit hours allotted to cover the course module, thirty-six (36) listening strategies having the mean scores less than 3.5 ($M < 3.5$) were selected from Oxford's (1990) direct and indirect strategy categories. But most of these strategies (18) were used in the pilot study; only 18 new strategies were added. Thus, the main study used thirty-two (32) listening strategies as shown in Figure 6.2.

No	Strategy Category	Specific Listening Learning Strategies
1	Memory (4)	a) Grouping, b) Associating/elaborating, c) Using imagery and d) Semantic mapping.
2	Compensation (3)	a) Paraphrasing, b) Guessing from context and c) Using linguistic clues.
3	Cognitive (9)	a) Prediction, b) Repeating, c) Getting the main idea quickly, d) Taking notes, e) Using contextual clues, f) Summarizing, g) Formula and patterns, h) Analyzing expressions and i) Transferring.
4	Metacognitive (9)	a) Paying attention, b) Selective attention, c) Setting goals and objectives, d) Seeking practice opportunities, e) Self-monitoring, f) planning for a language task, g) Identifying the purpose of a language task, h) Self-evaluation and i) Overviewing.
5	Social (5)	a) Asking for clarification, b) Asking for correction, c) Cooperating with others, d) Cooperative with peers and e) Writing diaries.
6	Affective (6)	a) Using laughter, b) Using progressive relaxation, deep breathing, c) Rewarding yourself, d) Listening to your body e) Making positive statement and d) Discussing feelings with someone else

Figure 6.2 Direct and indirect Listening Strategies Chosen for Instruction

As Figure 6.2 shows, cognitive and Metacognitive strategy categories involve a large number of specific strategies for the purpose of intervention. Affective strategies take the second position in order to enhancing learners' motivation and other affective factors. This is followed by social strategies to develop learners' interaction and communication skills. A good number of memory and compensation strategies were included in the list to activate learners' prior learning

experiences and foster their guessing abilities during the listening processes. All of the selected listening strategies were taught to learners in the EG using the CALLA framework.

6.3.4.3 The CALLA Instructional Model

As briefed in chapter three, the study used the CALLA model because it can boost most learners' strategies use and motivation to learn the TL (O'Malley & Chamot, 1994). It can also assist learners in (1) learning the content knowledge and L2 skills that are most useful for their future academic success; (2) selecting and using appropriate strategies that will develop academic knowledge; (3) developing abilities to work successfully with others in a social context and (4) evaluating their own learning and planning how to become more effective learners (Chamot & Robbins, 2005). The five training procedures, the teacher's and learners' roles in the model are shown in Figure 6.3.

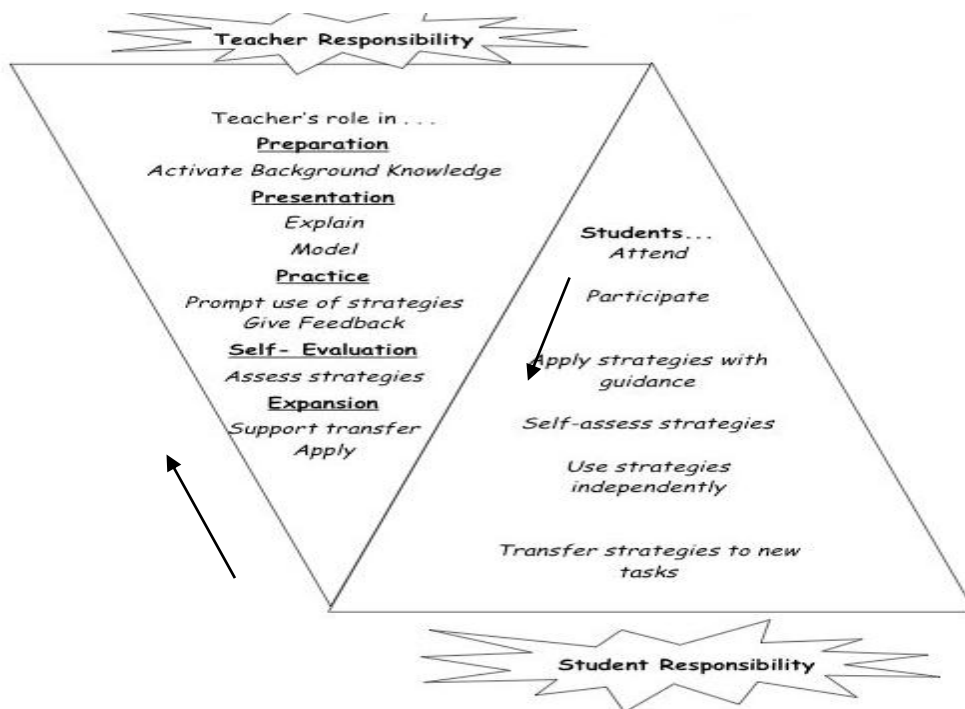


Figure 6.3 Learning Strategy Training Model adapted from Chamot & Robbins (2005)

Figure 6.3 displays a number of benefits learners obtain from the CALLA training model. The aforementioned and many other benefits led the researcher to adopt the CALLA model for implementing listening strategies in the learners' actual classrooms.

6.3.4.4 Time and Duration of the Intervention Program

The classroom-based intervention of the main study began on the 24th of October 2016 and ended on 26th of February 2017. Since the study used two intact classes, all conditions except the SBI were remained equal (Porte, 2002). Classes were conducted three times a week and each session had 50 minutes long. Both groups received 36 periods for a 12-week. Both groups were taught the same listening texts and the difference was the teaching methods.

While learners in the EG were taught the listening lessons plus listening strategies using the SBI model, learners in the CG were taught the same listening lessons minus listening strategies using traditional method. But it is unethical to prevent the CG from gaining the same benefits the EG gained from the treatment conditions. Hence, five make-up classes were conducted in the CG class after the whole study, and the strategies which were taught to the EG were also taught to the CG. An instructor taught both groups to control teacher effects and to increase the research validity. Additional reasons for involving the classroom instructor are provided below.

6.3.4.5 Training of the Instructor Involved in Intervention Program

One of the challenges of SBI stems from whether the researcher or the regular classroom teacher should conduct the intervention program. While some scholars (e.g., O'Malley & Chamot, 1990) are in favor of the involvement of classroom teachers in the intervention programs, some others (e.g., Gorard, 2002) caution against the involvement of classroom teachers in teaching the treatment conditions to the EG because they may contaminate the treatment conditions to the CG. However, many scholars suggest that a researcher has to think about whether or not to involve a classroom teacher in applying the treatment conditions to research participants before making decisions.

Through a closer examination of both arguments, this researcher decided to involve a classroom instructor in teaching learners in both intact classes. Involving a classroom instructor in an experiment would help minimize any potential bias due to the researcher's expectation of the experiment (Neuman, 2007). In order to minimize or avoid any potential experimenter bias, this researcher requested three instructors to participate in the study but only one instructor showed willingness to do so.

The researcher trained the instructor in how to apply the treatment conditions to the research participants. The aim of the training was to maximize experimental fidelity which refers to the

strictness, truthfulness and carefulness of the instructor to apply the treatment conditions in line with the (a) objective of the study, (b) research design, (c) theories and practices of CALLA, (d) time and duration of the study and (e) lesson plans of the intervention program. The instructor was provided with different printed materials during the discussions and/or the training days.

The discussion/training lasted five days starting from Monday to Friday in October 2016. The training was based on O'Malley & Chamot's (1990:155) suggestion that teachers should be trained with "the concept of learning strategies as opposed to teaching strategies, and repeated practice in designing and providing learning strategy instruction before they feel comfortable with incorporating strategy training in their classrooms". It was thus believed that the training would enable the instructor to implement the listening strategies in the learners' classroom lessons more effectively and efficiently.

As briefed above, the researcher provided the instructor with printed materials containing listening texts and selected listening strategies for training learners in the EG. But the instructor was told not to teach any strategies to the CG learners so as to prevent the possible contamination threats to the research. The term 'contamination' in an experiment refers to "a situation that occurs when participants in one experimental condition are indirectly affected by the independent variable in another experimental condition because they interacted with participants in the other condition" (Tavakoli, 2012:205).

In order to help maintain fidelity during the 12-week treatment program and also to keep the SBI as the only difference in the two groups, the researcher provided the instructor with printed materials containing weekly checksheets. The checksheets contained the treatment day, week and month as well as some elements of the SBI. The researcher informed the instructor to use the checksheets as guides to implement the listening strategies in the EG class during each treatment period (see Sample of the checksheet in Appendix Q). The instructor was also given lesson plans to help implement the treatment sequentially and accurately.

The researcher visited the classes of both the control and experimental groups once in a month during the treatment weeks. The aim of the visits was to make sure that the SBI model was implemented in line with the research plan and that the instructor did not encounter any problems. The visits were also used to observe the teacher-learner interaction, the learner-learner interaction and the overall classroom atmosphere. After each visit, feedbacks were given to the

instructor using the checklist. The instructor's reflections are included in the findings section of the paper.

6.3.4.6 Methods of Teaching Listening Skills to Learners in the CG

Learners in the CG were taught the listening texts based on the teacher-centered approach in which the instructor directed the instruction, initiated the questions and learners generated responses. Teacher-centered here refers to the teacher presents the lessons, interacts with the whole class and/or with individual learners in the teaching/learning processes. Learners were told to listen to each text once or twice to answer comprehension questions. They were also told to manage their time to finish the lesson within 50 minutes since the time for each period at the university was 50 minutes.

The instructor used the pre-, while- and post-listening phases to teach each listening lesson. In each pre-LC phase, the instructor selected some difficult words and structures from the text and wrote their meanings on the board for learners to study them. Learners were not engaged in any prediction activity, nor were they given chances to discuss the listening strategies with other classmates. In the while-listening phase, learners listened to the text for the main ideas. Learners were told to complete the LC questions (filling in blanks, multiple-choice exercises and Wh-questions) individually. Most of the feedbacks were given in spoken or written English in the form of 'yes' or 'no' answer format.

Learners listened to the instructor's speech or lecture with limited learner-learner or learner-instructor interaction for maximal practice of the listening activities. But this is not to say that the instructor prevented them from learner-learner or learner-instructor interaction. Rather, such interactions were encouraged if learners had the desire to do so. Great care was taken to provide the CG learners with all necessary inputs except strategy instruction. But they might acquire some listening strategies in the teaching and learning processes. This might have some effect on the dependent variables of the study.

6.3.4.7 Teaching LC Texts and Listening Strategies to Learners in the EG

Instruction for participants of the main study followed similar lesson plans that were used in the pilot study (see sample lesson plan in Appendix N). Based on the lesson plan, the SBI procedures and the course objective, the instructor began each lesson with pre-listening phase, followed by

the while-listening and ended with the post-listening phase. Each pre-listening session provided certain brainstorming activities to activate learners' prior knowledge and experience. These activities were also used to increase learners' active involvement in the listening tasks and to make them ready for the next tasks.

In each pre-listening phase, learners were encouraged to have face to face interaction with one or two and to share information on the topic of the listening text. Certain difficult words were explained and their meanings were written on the board or posters. The instructor also selected some difficult structures and taught to learners in the EG because effective learning involves developing an awareness of language both as a formal system of rules and as a means of communication (Oxford & Crookall, 1989). In the while-LC phase, learners were informed to listen to the text for the main ideas. These activities also focused on detail concepts that are relevant to the purpose of listening skill.

In the post-listening phase, learners were asked to do some listening comprehension questions like checking, discussing with partners, critical response and sharing information. They were guided to do these tasks first individually, then, in pairs and finally in small groups. The instructor formed different pairs and groups for doing various listening activities. When necessary, the instructor mixed all learners together to help them share the information and clarify any unclear meaning of the text. The instructor presented and modeled two or three listening strategies. In all these processes, the instructor interacted with learners to give guidance.

The instructor also helped learners move towards an independent use of strategies through gradual withdrawal of the scaffolding and transfer of strategies to new tasks. Thus, the training could be viewed a high-scaffolding one as the instructor frequently reminded learners of the strategies use in each activity with visible posters as suggested by Chamot (1995). The use of posters could be an effective technique to make the strategies more concrete for learners. Each poster was hung on the board and the strategies were explained.

Compensation strategies such as guessing from context and using linguistic clues were taught to learners using the SBI procedures. The cognitive strategies were introduced, explained, modeled and practiced to help learners develop abilities to identify key words in a speech and take notes and reinforce the top-down process in listening. The students were finally encouraged to summarize and report their summaries orally within 6 to 7 minutes. In the next session,

metacognitive strategies were presented in a direct and explicit ways. Each strategy was labeled and given a rationale; adequate time was given to learners to evaluate the strategies they used.

More attention was given to practice the listening strategies in pairs/groups forms to confirm learners' understanding of the main ideas of the text. They were encouraged to actively participate in the pre/post-listening activities. The instructor prepared a set of classroom rules and negotiated with learners. For example, making fun of a wrong answer was not accepted, and a norm of 'mistake tolerance' was ratified. Errors were viewed a natural part of learning a FL. Moreover, the instructor encouraged all learners to ask for help without running the risk of embarrassment; provided them with positive feedback and advice when necessary in order to develop their confidence.

In order to examine the effects of SBI program on the learners' anxiety and motivation, affective strategies such anxiety reduction, self-encouragement, self-reward, self-talk and the likes were integrated and implemented in each listening class. These strategies were presented in a direct and explicit way in each listening lesson. Besides, each strategy was labeled and given a rationale; adequate time was offered to compare and evaluate learners' strategies use. Moreover, the instructor encouraged learners to (a) share their anxiety (if any) with a partner or other learners; (b) avoid negative attitudes towards the listening skill and/or (c) feel relaxed in learning any LC lessons in the classrooms.

Social learning strategies such as asking for clarification, verification and cooperating with classmates were integrated into each listening lesson and taught to learners in order to help them ask questions or clarifications when necessary. Each of these strategies was presented, named, modeled and practiced along with the daily classroom lessons. Upon completing this process, the teacher encouraged each learner prepare two or three questions and to ask her/his partner within 5 to 6 minutes. They were also encouraged to (a) evaluate the uses of each new strategy and (b) share their problems or solutions in pairs or groups. The instructor also reminded them of recording their thoughts, feelings, or comments in their diaries on the LC lessons taught during each class session.

6.4 The Post-Treatment Phase

The post-tests were administered to both groups after the intervention program.

6.4.1 Administering the Post- Treatment Proficiency Test

The same listening proficiency test administered as the pre-test was administered to all participants as a post-test in the morning session on the 24th of February 2017. Participants were informed that the test would not affect their academic grades. They were also briefed about the way how to give answers to the test items. Participant were further informed that they were not allowed to discuss their answers with each other, and that the time for completing the test was only about 50 minutes, Answer sheets were distributed to each participant and they were told to start doing the test. Upon completing the whole process, all answer sheets were collected, counted and compared with the number of participants before they had left the class.

6.4.2 Administering the Post-Treatment Questionnaires

The same questionnaires with minor changes on certain problematic items were re-administered to the participants of the main study on the 25th of February 2017. Learners in both groups completed the two questionnaires (see Validated Questionnaires in Appendix H) in the afternoon sessions outside the regular class time. They were re-informed that all responses would be confidential. They were also informed the ways how to complete the items/questions. Moreover, they were told that there was no time limit to complete the questionnaires. They completed them within 45 minutes.

6.4.3 Data collection through the Group Discussion

The group discussion was conducted a day after the proficiency test was conducted. The same interview guide, interview questions and group format that were used in the pilot study were also used in the main study. Three female and 4 male learners from the EG took part in the group discussion. Before the discussion, participants were informed that all their responses would remain confidential. Next, the researcher distributed an interview guide (see Appendix I) to each learner and informed them that they could use Amharic, English or both as they wanted to express their ideas clearly. Finally, participants discussed the questions that took 50 minutes. With their permission, their responses were tape-recorded for later transcription and analysis.

6.4.4 Collection of Data with Learner Diaries

Data with diaries were collected from learners in the EG during the treatment weeks. One hundred and twenty five diary entries were submitted during the first five fortnights. A total of

125+18 = 143 entries were collected during the 6 weeks (Samples of diary entries are found in Appendix K). After selecting entries and photocopying them, the original entries were returned to learners a week later. (sample diary entries in Appendix L).

6.5 Data processing: Preparing and Coding

Data preparation helps researchers as guides to select appropriate methods of data analysis (Pallant, 2010). For that reason, both the quantitative and qualitative data were prepared separately before starting analysis. Description of each data preparation follow.

6.5.1 Preparing/organizing the Quantitative Data

All the pre/post quantitative data were prepared based on Phakiti's (2014) model that has many phases: (a) data checking; (b) data coding; (c) data entry; (d) data cleaning; (e) testing reliability; (f) variable reduction; (g) testing assumption and (h) answering research questions. Figure 6.4 shows the sequential data preparation/organization phases.

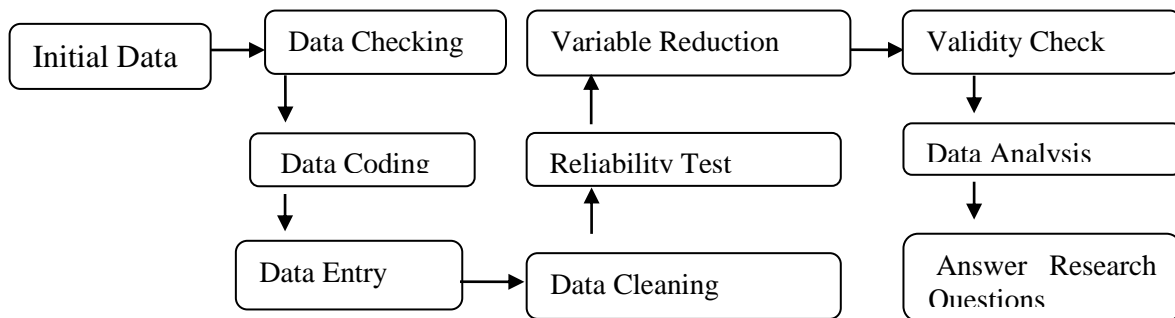


Figure 6.4 Schematic representation of the major research procedure

It is noteworthy that the sequential data preparation stages presented above are iterative. The researcher moved back and forth between stages when finding out problems with the earlier stages during a later stage. Explanations of each data preparation task follow.

6.5.2 Checking Accuracy of the Raw Data

Data collected by any instrument cannot be 100% accurate because initial data often contain errors (Brown, 2001). It is essential to check raw data before starting analyzing in order to eliminate any possible errors that might otherwise arise during the time of data analysis (Brown, 2004; Singh, 2006). With this in mind, the researcher himself collected all the data except the diaries using face-to-face data collection formats. These formats allowed him to (1) provide respondents with uniform instructions; (2) encourage them to complete all questions honestly;

(3) explain any doubts or confusions that they might not understand when answering the questions, and (4) increase response rate.

The instructor took attendances to check the regularity of attending each class so the attendance sheets were used to follow learners' regularity of attending each class during the semester. It was decided to reject data obtained from learners who missed 5 or more classes during the semester, or learners who did not complete all questions. Data checking and attendance sheets showed that 2 learners in the EG did not attend classes regularly or dropped the course for personal reasons. Besides, 4 learners in the CG dropped the course or did not complete the pre/posttests. Thus, a complete data from 73 learners (EG=37 and EG=36) were used for the main study.

6.5.3 Coding the Quantitative Data

Before answering the research questions, the data were coded using coding methods. Description of coding the quantitative data follows.

a) Coding Responses to Likert Scale Items. The researcher started the coding process by examining all raw data for accuracy. The completeness of each participant's personal facts such as identification number, gender and age were checked and the incomplete ones were rejected. Next, each response to each item was recorded on separate sheet of papers. Then, the negatively worded items were reversed and a numerical value was given to each starting from 1 point for 'Never use' to 5 for 'Always use'.

The steps applied to code the responses to the SILL's items were also applied to code the responses to the ASLCQ's 5 point Likert scale items. Responses to the positive items were assigned numerical values as follows: Strongly agree = 5, Agree = 4, No opinion = 3, Disagree = 2 and Strongly disagree =1. Each negatively worded item was reversed before assigning value. For example, the values for the negatively worded items on listening anxiety such as "I get nervous when I do not hear every word in a listening text" ranged from Strongly disagree = 5, Disagree = 4, No opinion =3, Agree =2 to Strongly agree =1. After coding each item in the two questionnaires, the raw data were recorded and entered into the computer files.

b) Coding Answers of the Proficiency Test Items. The researcher first checked whether the personal facts of each participant were written on the pre/posttest booklets. Next, answers of each test item were marked and scored using the marking and scoring criteria proposed by the

IELTS test designers. The method used to score the test was '1' point for a correct answer and '0' for incorrect or unanswered item. After the marking and scoring tasks were completed, the researcher gave a small proportion of the whole data for an English instructor to check the accuracy of the scoring and coding procedures.

It is worth noting that different scholars suggest different figures for checking samples of the whole coded data. But Neuman (2014:396) claims that a "random sample of 10 to 15 percent of the data" is enough for checking purpose. Hence, the instructor was asked to check 10% of the whole data and found no scoring and coding errors. Last, the pre-post scores of each learner were recorded and entered into the computer file (see Appendix R).

6.5.4 Entering Data into the Computer Files

Accurate data entry helps reduce the amount of time needed to clean the data later (Pallant, 2010). Dornyei (2007:200) suggests three basic steps for data entry: "(1) creating the data file, (2) defining the coding frames for the variables, and (3) keying in the data". In this study, the pre/post raw data recorded in the codebook were entered into the computer files using the three basic steps listed above. Besides, results of the pre-post test scores were coded as 1 and 2 respectively before entering them into the computer files.

6.5.5 Cleaning the Raw Data

Cleaning data is another essential procedure for identifying any errors made during data coding or entry phases (Dornyei, 2007). In light of this, descriptive statistics were run to detect potential errors related to the categorical variables such as sex, valid and missing cases as well as the continuous scores of the quantitative data. The mean values were checked for ensuring that there was no out-of-range in all datasets.

Besides, the researcher asked a statistician to check whether data coding and entry were correct. The statistician checked a random sample of 10 to 15 percent of the data and found that the codes were correct but he found two errors associated with data entry such as a '22' instead of a '2' in the SILL and a '55' instead of a '5' in the ASLCQ. The researcher rechecked all the coded and entered data but he did not find other errors. In this way, the data were ready for variable reduction.

6.5.6 Variable Reduction

All the items were mixed up throughout the two questionnaires before collecting the pre/post data. The purpose of mixing up the items was to prevent respondents from repeating previous answers due to the test effects and to increase the reliability of the data (Phakiti, 2014). Hence, the SILL's 50 close-ended items were grouped into six categories: (1) memory, (2) cognitive, (3) compensation, (4) metacognitive, (5) affective and (6) social. Similarly, the ASLCQ's 45 close-ended items were put into three categories: (1) motivation, (2) anxiety and (3) beliefs about the uses of learning listening skills.

6.5.7 Testing the Reliabilities of the Questionnaires (SILL and ASLCQ)

As noted earlier, the reliability of the SILL has acceptable coefficients ranging from .89 to 0.98 (Griffiths, 2003). It was also explained that all the items in the ASLCQ were borrowed from well-tested scales and modified to suit this study. But many scholars (e.g., Brown, 2004; Phakiti, 2014) call for checking the overall reliability of any instrument in terms of the new research setting and population. Thus, the reliability of each questionnaire was tested with Cronbach alpha and the results are shown in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2 Internal Reliability of the Pre/post Questionnaires (SILL and ASLCQ)

Data Sources	No of items	No of Respondents	Pre-Reliability indexes	Post-Reliability indexes	Testing Method
SILL	50	73	.92	.94	Cronbach's Alpha
ASLCQ	45	73	.75	.76	

As Table 6.2 shows, the pre-treatment reliability coefficients of the SILL (50 items) and ASLCQ (45 items) completed by 73 learners were 92 and 75 respectively. The post-treatment reliabilities of the SILL and ASLCQ were .94 and .76 respectively. Dornyei (2007:207) states that a Cronbach alpha of 0.60 is an acceptable level for research in applied linguistics". Based on this criterion, the reliability coefficients of the questionnaires could be relatively high for the samples of this study

6.5.8 Analyzing the Quantitative and Qualitative Data

The quantitative and qualitative data of this study were analyzed separately. Descriptions of analyzing the two datasets are presented in the next sections.

6.5.8.1 Methods of Analyzing the Quantitative Data

All the pre/post quantitative data were analyzed using descriptive and inferential (parametric t-tests) statistics. Explanations of these data analytical methods follow.

a) Descriptive Statistics: This study used descriptive statistics to (a) summarize learners' personal data such as age and gender distribution in both groups as well as their prior listening experiences; (b) describe the mean scores of each dependent variable when answering the quantitative research questions and (c) check the data for any violation of statistical assumptions that would enable to choose appropriate statistical procedures.

b) Inferential Statistics: The study used statistical tools to test hypotheses and make conclusions about the population using data from the sample. Inferential statistics can be parametric or nonparametric tests. The choice of a parametric or non-parametric test depends on the research design, research questions, measurement scales, sample size, occasion of data collection and so on (Pallant, 2010). Data from experimental design with "a pre-test--post-test control-group can be analyzed by using t-tests" (Dornyei, 2007:118).

The present pre/post quasi-experimental study used t-tests to compare the significance level of the pre/post mean scores of the two groups in terms of the measured variables, and the paired samples t-test to compare the pre/post mean scores of each group. However, parametric tests assume several basic assumptions so researchers should test or justify such assumptions prior to data analysis (Larson-Hall, 2010; Phakiti, 2014). Thus, the following basic assumptions were tested before using the parametric t-tests.

1. Measurement Scale. The choice of parametric or nonparametric tests depends on the level of the scale (Dornyei, 2007). Interval/ratio scales provide more data on the variables they measure and the data can meet the statistical assumption (Pallant, 2010). The scale "used in the SLA often represent interval data, so this assumption is usually met" (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989:203). Similarly, the dependent variables of this study were measured with interval scales and assumptions of the parametric t-tests were met by default.

2. Independence Assumption. This assumption states that data from each participant should be independent from one another (Larson-Hall, 2010). When participants copy answers from one another, they do not differ on the dependent variables and "violations of independence which are

very serious indeed" (Field, 2009:360). Scholars recommend randomization to minimize independence (Pallant, 2010). But this study did not use randomization, instead the two intact classes were randomly assigned to the two groups (EG and CG) so the chance of overlapping of data would be very low. Besides, the researcher himself collected the data using face-to-face formats so the chance of exchanging information between or among learners could be minimal.

Moreover, participants of the study were told not to copy any answer from others in responding the questions. However, Stevens (2007) argues that in teaching methods studies, especially those involved discussion among group members, dependence among learners is inevitable. In such a situation, Stevens suggests researchers to use group means as the unit of analysis. In light of this, the current study used the group means as the units of analysis so independence assumption would not be a threat to this study.

3. Equal Variance Assumption. This refers to "a number that measures the average squared distance from the mean to any point" (Larson-Hall, 2010:86). Although it cannot be proved that two samples have equal variance, Levene's test helps determine if they are significantly different (Tavakoli, 2012). This study used Levene's test to assess if the two groups were different in terms of each measured variable before the study. The p value of .05 was set to determine the significance levels of the results from all parametric t-tests.

4. Normality of Data. Testing normality of data is essential as most data collected from human beings "are not normally distributed. Some are strongly skewed; others are skewed so that most of the scores fall at the high end of the scale" (Pallant, 2010:111). But the central limit theorem states that if the sample size is 30 or more, normality can be used as an approximation to the t-distribution, even if the population is not normal (Field, 2009). The idea sounds good but it is not easy "to obtain even a sample size of 30 per group for experimental research" (Phakiti, 2014:200). Researchers have thus developed rules of thumb to determine the minimum sample size for different research designs. For experiments, Dornyei (2007) suggests a minimum sample size of 15 in each group.

Others claim that a researcher needs not worry about normality if the group sizes are nearly equal. If the size of the largest group is no more than 1.5 times the size of the smallest group, the t-test is robust to the violation of this assumption (Stevens, 2007). In this study, the sizes of the two groups were almost equal as the ratio is $37/36=1.02$ which is < 1.5 and thus eliminating test

for normality. But the researcher used histograms and boxplots to test normality of the data before calculating the Kolmogorov-Smirnov's test. The significant level was set at $p < 0.05$.

6.5.8.2 Preparing and Coding the Qualitative Raw Data

The researcher first prepared and checked the raw data to ensure whether each learner wrote his/her identification number, gender and age on each data collection booklet. Then, data obtained from the interview, diaries and open-ended questions were organized in systematic ways. Next, relevant segments or texts were sorted and typed up in a list under each question. Finally, appropriate methods were chosen to code each data.

Coding and Analyzing the Data: The present study adopted three coding procedures (open, axial, and selective) of grounded theory (Strauss, 1987). These coding techniques were employed to determine the set of categories to cover as much of the data as possible. Open coding was used to identify participants' feelings, experiences, actions and to create relevant themes (Saldaña, 2009). Axial coding was used to establish the sub-categories for further investigation of the concepts. The specific segments or extracts highlighted in the open coding stage were read several times to form broad categories.

Once the axial coding process was completed, selective coding was employed to identify a central category and relate this category to other higher or lower category (Tavakoli, 2012). These coding procedures were not totally separate or independent of each other; but rather iterative (Dornyei, 2007:243). A list of themes and subcategories was then created. The procedures used to code and categorize each data are described below.

a) Transcribing and Coding the Interview Data. Oral responses to the interview questions were first transcribed into texts form. The audio-recordings from the group discussion were transcribed verbatim by the researcher. The amount of data to be transcribed largely depends on the research design (Mackey & Gass, 2005). The data was to support the quantitative data so not all recorded texts were transcribed. Incomplete sentences, repetitions or time-creating devices such as 'er', 'um', 'urh', 'eh' and the likes were not transcribed. Yet, the texts were transcribed using Richards's (2003:199) three criteria: "fitness for purpose, adequacy and accuracy".

Once the texts were transcribed, the scripts were read several times to identify similar ideas (concepts) and highlighted with different colors. Next, similar ideas appeared in each reading

were coded and grouped under learning strategies, motivation, anxiety and so on. For example, learners' responses such as 'Feel angry...', 'Get upset...' and 'Worry about...' were coded as LC ANXIETY. Similarly, responses such as 'Asking classmates for help', 'Asking for clarification' and working with others were coded as SOCIAL STRATEGIES. Common ideas were put under four themes: (a) benefits of SBI, (b) interest in listening skills, (c) beliefs about learning listening and (d) LC anxiety.

b) Coding Diary Entries. A small portion of the diary entries were coded and analyzed as recommended by Mackey & Gass (2005). Dornyei (2007:248-249) says that in a "mixed methods research (particularly for qual→ QUAN and QUAN→qual) where the qualitative component is of secondary importance and is mainly intended to provide additional illustration or clarification, it may not be essential to transcribe every interview" or textual data, "instead we can carry out a tape analysis". Since this study used qualitative data to support the quantitative data, a small portion of the diary entries were coded as suggested by Mackey & Gass (2005).

Ten diary entries were randomly selected from every fortnight's submission (six fortnights). Hence, 10 x 6 =60 entries from a total of 143 were coded. To code the texts: the researcher read each entry carefully - highlighted similar ideas appeared in each entry with a pen - summarized each in a short statement - recorded them on a sheet of paper and underlined similar ideas with red pen. Any ideas appeared in the entries were coded and grouped under one of the following themes: (a) importance of listening strategies for learning listening skills; (b) interest in the LC lessons; (c) ease/difficulties of learning listening skills, and (d) plans for learning this skill.

c) Coding Responses to Open-Ended Questions. The same coding procedures applied to the diary entries were applied to code and categorize the data from the open-ended questions. All responses to the open-ended questions were coded and grouped into one of the following five themes: (a) listening strategies, (b) motivation to learn listening skill, (c) listening comprehension anxiety, (d) belief about learning listening skills, and (f) comments on the benefits of the SBI and the listening texts.

6.5.8.3 Validating the Coded Qualitative Data

Once the oral texts were coded, the data were validated for a possible subjectivity of coding procedures following Mackey & Gass (2005). Intra-rater (intra-coder) and inter-rater (inter-

coder) techniques were used to check the consistency of the coding and categorization of the interview transcripts. Intra-coder reliability was the code-recode agreement of the researcher over ten random samples of interview data. Young's (1997) formula was used to check the intra-coder reliability coefficient. The formula for calculating the intra-coder reliability was:

$$\frac{\text{\# of scripts coded the same by the researcher in the 1st and 2nd coding}}{\text{\# of scripts coded by the same researcher in the 1st coding}}$$

The intra-coder reliability coefficient was 90%, indicating a very good agreement between the two coding and categorization (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The segments which were not consistently coded were further revised until the final version was made.

Consistency of coding was also checked by calculating the inter-coder coefficient. Since coding is a time consuming task, the researcher asked a teacher in related field to act as an independent coder. The teacher was shown a sample of the data (10% of the recorded interview responses) and worked on the same coding procedure as the researcher coded the data. He then listen to the recorded interview data, coded and created his own categories, and the themes created by two researchers were compared to see the difference. Young's (1997) formula was used to calculate the inter-coder reliability. The formula for calculating the inter-coder reliability coefficient was:

$$\frac{\text{\# of scripts coded the same by R and ET}_1 + \text{\# of strategies coded the same by R and ET}_2 / 2}{\text{\# of scripts coded by R}}$$

where R, ET1, and ET2 represented the researcher, English teacher one and English teacher two respectively. The inter-coder coefficient was .85 indicates good reliability.

The same procedures were followed to validate data from diary entries. Nearly 10% of dairy entries were validated using intra-coder and inter-coder techniques as recommended by (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989). This researcher asked another researcher to code the data from the diary entries. The researcher acting as an independent coder was shown a sample of the data and worked on the same coding procedures as the researcher of this study used to code the data. Young's (1997) formula was followed by both coders and the results were compared to see the agreement level between the two coders. Results of the intra-coder and inter-coder reliability coefficients were 0.87 and .92 respectively, indicating good agreements between the two pairs of coders.

Once all the data were coded and validated, the following themes were emerged: (1) use of listening strategies, (2) benefits of the SBI, (3) levels of motivation to learn listening skills, (4) listening anxiety and (5) materials for learning listening lessons. Since there were three different qualitative data sources, readers might not understand the source of each excerpt. Hence, the researcher produced the following numerical and verbal symbols: L1, L2 or L3-FGD, L1, L2 or L3-LD and L1, L2 or L3-OEQ. These symbols were used to replace learners' names so as to protect their identities. All real names were coded as pseudonyms not to reveal in this study.

To interpret sample data obtained from the group discussion, the researcher used L1, L2 or L3-FGD, in which L - stands for the 'learner' whose opinions has been taken, and the numbers 1, 2 or 3 represent the learner who provided the data and the acronym FGD stand for focus group discussion. To interpret sample data from diary entries, L1, L2 or L3-DE were used in which L stands for the 'learner' whose diary was quoted , the 1, 2 or 3 represent the date in which the entry was kept and DE stand for the diary entry.

6.6 Validity and Reliability of the Intervention

The next sections present the validity and reliability of this study.

6.6.1 Validity and Reliability of the Treatment, Data collection and Analysis Process

Experiments face various validity and reliability problems since it is difficult to guarantee that the difference occurs to both groups is due to the treatments only excluding all other extraneous factors. But since this researcher took several measures when designing and applying the treatments, the study can be said to have high degree of internal and external validities. Some of the measures taken by the researcher are highlighted as follows:

First, this study used two groups (a control and an experimental) to make sure that any difference between the two groups is due to the treatment conditions.

Second, although each learner was not randomly assigned to the CG and that of the EG, the two groups were randomly assigned to one of the two groups. To overcome the lack of randomization and to increase the internal validity, a pretest was administered to learners in both groups to guarantee that no difference existed between the two groups.

Finally, the experiment was conducted by a trained instructor in order to minimize any potential researcher biases due to his expectation of the experiment.

6.6.2 Validity and Reliability of the Data collection and Analysis Processes

The researcher took several measures to increase the validity and reliability issues related to the data collection instruments, data collection and analyses procedures for both the pilot and the main studies. Some of the steps taken were highlighted as follows:

First, listening texts were selected in such a way that they should (a) not be culturally biased; (b) not be difficult; (c) be motivating; (d) not be too long and so on. These criteria were checked by three English teachers at Samara University and confirmed. Besides, participants were asked to comment on the difficulty and suitability of the listening texts. Most responses were positive which indicate that the texts' validity was high enough.

Second, the researcher used four triangulation techniques including (a) time triangulation: data were collected at different times to know what the processes of the changes were; (b) data triangulation: the use of several instruments (questionnaires, test, interview and diary); (c) methodological triangulation: the use of several theories (cognitive theory, schema theory and learning strategy), and (d) investigator triangulation: the use of different reviewers or evaluators (PhD candidates and English instructors/teachers).

Third, data for the pilot and main studies were collected using face-to-face formats so as to (a) control the exchange of information (contamination) between/among respondents when answering the questions; (b) collect the instruments soon after the respondents had finished answering the items/questions and (c) increase the response rate.

Finally, great care was taken to avoid or minimize the test effect which is "considered by some to be the greatest danger in using pre-tests in research" (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989:102). The test effect could not be a danger in this study for four reasons. First, the pre-test papers were collected as soon as the test was completed. Second, answers to the test were not given after the pretest. Third, a 12-week intervention was a long time for recalling the pretest. Last, the students were not told that they would take the same test again. Therefore, there seems to be no reason to doubt the validity of the findings.

6.7 Chapter Summary

Chapter six explained the research design, instructional materials and the intervention processes of the main study. The sections that follow explained the rationales for the choice of the research site, participants and data collection instruments and data analyses methods. The chapter also provided the rationales for the choice of descriptive and inferential statistics. The last sections described the steps taken to ensure the reliability and validity of the training materials, data collection and analyses procedures. Chapter seven will present the findings related to the research questions of the main study.

Chapter Seven: Findings of the Main Study

This chapter deals with analyzing the quantitative and the qualitative data gathered from learners who were assigned to the control and the experimental groups. The quantitative data were collected with two types of self-report questionnaires and a listening proficiency test. These data were analyzed to provide answers to the quantitative research questions (1, 2 and 3). The qualitative were gathered with learner diary, group discussion and open ended questions. These data were analyzed to cross-check the quantitative data. Following the introduction of chapter seven is the restatement of the research questions.

1. Is there a statistically significant difference in the two groups' post mean scores on the listening proficiency test?
2. Is there a statistically significant difference in the two groups' post mean scores on the listening strategies use questionnaire?
3. Is there a statistically significant difference in the two groups' post mean scores on the affective sides of listening comprehension questionnaire?
4. What are the EG learners' views about the benefits of the SBI program?

Before answering the research questions, the sample sizes, gender and age distributions of participants in the two groups are examined and presented in the following sections.

7.1 Description of the Sample Size

As noted earlier, this study used a sample size of 79 with 39 in the experimental group and 40 in the control group. However, it was found that 2 learners in the EG and 4 in the CG did not complete the data collection instruments either before or after treatment. Summary of the sample size before and after treatment are shown in Table 7.1

Table 7.1 Sample Size before and after the Treatment Program

Group	No participants before treatment	No participants after treatment
Experimental	39 (two incomplete data)	37
Control	40 (four incomplete data)	36
Total	79	73

Table 7.1 shows that six learners from both groups did not provide complete data. Therefore, data obtained from 73 learners (EG=37 and CG=36) were analyzed to answer the research questions as shown in the next sections.

7.2 Distributions of Participants' Genders in the Control and Experimental Groups

This section summarized the distributions of participants' genders in the control and experimental groups. Descriptive statistics analyzed the data collected with the statements included in the background questionnaire. The results are shown in Table 7.2

Table 7.2 Distribution of Participants Based on Groups and Gender

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
GROUPS		
Experimental	37	50.7
Control	36	49.3
Total	73	100.0
GENDER		
Male	33	45.2
Female	40	54.8
Total	73	100.0

As shown in Table 7.2, all the 73 learners provided the pre/post data required of them. Among the 73 learners, 37 (50.7%) were in the EG and 36 (49.3%) were in the CG. Also among the 73 learners, 33 (45.2%) were males and 40 (54.8%) were females.

7.3 Distribution of Participants' Age in the Two Groups

In order to explore the frequency and percentage of participants' age distribution in the two groups, data collected with a statement included in the background questionnaire were analyzed using descriptive statistics. The results are presented in Table 7.3

Table 7.3 Frequency and Percentage of Participants' Age Distribution

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
17-18	15	20.5	20.5	20.5
19-20	44	60.3	60.3	80.8
Valid 21-22	10	13.7	13.7	94.5
>22	4	5.5	5.5	100.0
Total	73	100.0	100.0	

Table 7.3 shows the frequency distribution of participants' age in the control and experimental groups. Most learners (69) were between the ages of 17 and 22 which made up 94.5% of all

participants. This means that there was no big difference between participants' age in both groups and thus quite homogeneous.

7.3 Procedures for Answering the Research Questions

Five major steps were followed to analyze the data and answer the quantitative research questions. First, normally of the data were tested using Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. Second, descriptive analyses were run to compare the pre/post mean scores of each strategy category. Third, independent sample t-tests were run to test if the variances of the two groups were equal. The same t-test was also used to compare the significance of difference in the two groups' post mean scores. Fourth, paired samples t-test was used to check if there was significance difference in the pre/post mean scores of each group. Last, effect sizes of independent t-test were calculated using Eta squared formula = $t^2 / t^2 + (N1 + N2 - 2)$, and paired samples t-test Eta squared formula = $t^2 / t^2 + (N - 1)$. In addition to the above, the significant level was set at $p < 0.05$

7.3.1 Effects of the SBI Model on the Learners' Listening Proficiency

The first research question examined whether the SBI program had positive effects on the participants' listening proficiency. In order to answer this research question, the pre/post data collected with listening proficiency test were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistical methods. First, the assumption of normality was tested using Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and the results are presented in Table 7.5.

Table 7.5 Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for Normality of the LC Proficiency Test

		Group	Kolmogorov-Smirnov test		
			Statistic	Df	Sig.
Listening Proficiency Test	Control		.953	36	.130
	Experimental		.943	37	.059

As Table 7.5 shows, the numbers (.130 and .059) under the Sig column are larger than .05, indicating that the data came from a normal distribution. Since normality was met, tests were used to examine the significance of the pre/post scores. However, the pre and post mean scores should be examined before calculating t-tests. Thus, descriptive statistics was used as a tool to get an overall picture of learners' performance on the listening test. The results in Table 7.6 below reveal that the mean scores of the CG (M = 8.416, SD =2.30) and the EG (M = 8.370, SD =2.36) were similar before the study.

Table 7.6 Descriptive Statistics on the Pre/Post Proficiency Test Mean Scores

Group	N	Pre-Means	Pre-SDs	Post-Means	Post-SDs
Control	36	8.4167	2.3099	8.6111	2.3577
Experimental	37	8.3703	2.3646	11.7838	2.2869

Table 7.6 also shows that the mean scores of the CG ($M = 8.611$, $SD = 2.36$) and that of the EG ($M = 11.783$, $SD = 2.29$) were similar before treatment. But the mean score of the EG ($M = 11.78$) was greater than the mean score of the CG ($M = 8.61$) after treatment. Independent samples t-test will be run later on to check whether the observed improvement reached a statistical significance. First, Levene's test was computed to test whether the assumption of homogeneity was met. Results are shown in Table 7.7.

Table 7.7 Levene's Test for Equality of Variances of the Pre-LC Proficiency Test

Listening proficiency test	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Equal variances assumed	.023	.880	-5.84	71	.000**
Equal variances not					

As Table 7.7 shows, the p-value (.727) from Levene's test is larger than .05, indicating that the assumption was met. Thus, independent t-test was run to see if the mean scores were significantly different. Table 7.8 shows that the post-mean of the CG was ($M = 8.61$) and that of the EG was ($M = 11.78$), $t(71) = -5.83$, $p < .05$ in favor of the EG.

Table 7.8 Independent t-test for comparing the Two Groups' Post-Mean Score

LC Proficiency Test	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig	T	DF	Sig. (2-tailed)
Equal variances assumed					
Equal variances not	.023	.880	-5.84	71	.000**

** $P < .01$

In order to indicate whether the difference between the two groups' post listening test mean scores are statistically significant, the effect size was (.31) very a large, indicating that the difference between the two groups' post mean scores is statistically significant.

Paired samples t-tests were performed on each group's pre/post test scores to further test whether the improvement within groups in the proficiency test was significant. The first samples t-test was made on the pre/post mean scores of the EG as shown in Table 7.9.

Table 7.9 Paired Samples t-test for comparing the EG Pre/Post Mean Scores

	Paired Differences					T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Test1 - Test2	-3.43	3.12	.5105	-4.468	-2.397	-6.72	36	.000 **

** P < .01

The result of the paired-samples t-test in Table 7.9 showed a significant difference between the EG’s pre/post mean scores (M = 11.783, SD =2.29; t(36) =-6.72, p = 000). The effect size was (.56) very large. Thus, it can be conclude that the difference between the pre and post listening test mean scores of the EG is statistically significant.

The paired t-test was also run to compare the pre/post listening proficiency test mean scores of learners in the CG. Outputs from the paired t-test are shown in Table 7.10.

Table 7.10 Paired Samples t-test for comparing the CG Pre/Post Mean Scores

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Test1 - Test2	-.389	2.85134	.475	-1.354	.5759	-.818	35	.419

The result of paired-samples t-test analysis presented in Table 7.10 showed no significant difference in the CG learners' pre/post mean scores, t(35) =-.818, p >.05. This result is a sharp contrast to the result of the paired samples t-test analysis presented in Table 7.9.

In summary: the results of the descriptive statistical analysis indicated that learners in both groups were at the same listening proficiency levels before intervention. However, the results obtained from the t-test analysis revealed that learners in the EG outperformed learners in the CG on the post listening test. The effect size was (.31) very large, indicating that the SBI had significant effect on the listening abilities of the EG.

7.3.2 Effects of the SBI Model on the Learners’ Listening Strategies Utilization

The second research question examined whether the SBI would increase learners' strategies use. To answer this question, the pre/post data collected with strategies use questionnaire were

calculated using descriptive and t-tests. First, normality of the data was checked using Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and the results are shown in Table 7.11.

Table 7.11 Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for Normality of the Six Strategy Groups

	Group	Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	Df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Memory	Control	.133	36	.111	.956	36	.158
	Experimental	.089	37	.200	.981	37	.781
Cognitive	Control	.105	36	.200	.987	36	.948
	Experimental	.093	37	.200	.976	37	.605
Compensation	Control	.106	36	.200	.961	36	.239
	Experimental	.119	37	.200	.977	37	.624
Metacognitive	Control	.104	36	.200	.939	36	.048
	Experimental	.111	37	.200	.950	37	.097
Affective	Control	.117	36	.200	.966	36	.325
	Experimental	.117	37	.200	.959	37	.186
Social	Control	.132	36	.114	.972	36	.491
	Experimental	.138	37	.072	.955	37	.142

As can be seen in the 'Sig' columns in Table 7.11, the numbers related to each strategy category is larger than 0.05 ($p > .05$). The researcher concluded that the normality assumption was met. This allowed to use t-tests to check the significance of the pre/post mean scores. The results of descriptive statistics in Table 7.12 reveal that there was no significant difference in the two groups in using each strategy category before the study.

Table 7.12 Descriptive Statistics on the Pre/Post Strategy Categories Use by Groups

Six Strategy Groups	Group	N	Pre-Means	Pre-SDs	Post-Means	Post-SDs
Memory	Control	36	3.4060	.33217	3.6545	.38268
	Experimental	37	3.4270	.31221	3.6266	.33230
Cognitive	Control	36	3.2637	.30384	3.2528	.32570
	Experimental	37	3.2455	.31188	3.8200	.39456
Compensation	Control	36	3.0953	.34425	3.1790	.46576
	Experimental	37	3.1288	.40030	3.8431	.47847
Metacognitive	Control	36	3.1529	.24812	3.2580	.31828
	Experimental	37	3.1331	.29718	3.9435	.37238
Affective	Control	36	3.1618	.20877	3.2255	.30567
	Experimental	37	3.1199	.28296	3.9495	.35749
Social	Control	36	3.2963	.41616	3.3181	.50895
	Experimental	37	3.3243	.47295	3.5495	.39257

As can be seen in Table 7.12, the two groups had different post-mean scores on each strategy category except the memory strategy. The independent t-test was calculated to check if these

mean differences were significant. First, Levene's test was computed to check homogeneity of the two groups and the results are shown in Table 7.13.

Table 7.13 Levene's Test for Both Groups' Strategy Categories Use

Pretest Mean of Each Strategy Category		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Memory	Equal variances assumed	.174	.678	-.279	71	.781
	Equal variances not assumed			-.278	70.43	.782
Cognitive	Equal variances assumed	.011	.918	.252	71	.802
	Equal variances not assumed			.252	71.00	.802
Compensation	Equal variances assumed	1.223	.272	-.382	71	.703
	Equal variances not assumed			-.383	69.96	.703
Metacognitive	Equal variances assumed	.048	.827	.643	71	.522
	Equal variances not assumed			.643	70.68	.523
Affective	Equal variances assumed	3.114	.082	.719	71	.475
	Equal variances not assumed			.722	66.23	.473
Social	Equal variances assumed	3.951	.051	.184	71	.855
	Equal variances not assumed			.185	67.84	.854

Table 7.13 show that all the p-values from Levene's Test (Memory =.678, Cognitive = .918, Compensation = .272, Metacognitive = .827, Affective = .082 and Social = .051) are larger than .05. The null hypothesis was thus accepted, indicating that there was no difference in the two groups' mean scores before the study. As a result, the independent t-test was run to check the two groups' post mean scores. Table 7.14 shows the results

Table 7.14 Independent t-tests for comparing the Two Groups' Post Mean Scores

Post Mean of Each Strategy Category		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Memory	Equal variances assumed	1.426	.236	.333	71	.740
	Equal variances not assumed					
Cognitive	Equal variances assumed	.909	.344	-6.689	71	.000
	Equal variances not assumed					
Compensation	Equal variances assumed	.001	.977	-6.007	71	.000
	Equal variances not assumed					
Metacognitive	Equal variances assumed	.240	.626	-8.822	71	.000
	Equal variances not assumed					
Affective	Equal variances assumed	.998	.321	-5.288	71	.000
	Equal variances not assumed					
Social	Equal variances assumed	2.225	.140	-3.848	71	.000
	Equal variances not assumed					

P<0.5, * P<0.01

The results of independent samples t-tests in Table 7.14 indicated significant differences in five out of the six strategy categories at the post test time. The P values of all the five strategy categories were (.000) less than .05 for the EG. The effect sizes of the five strategy categories are as follows: cognitive (.39), compensation (.34), metacognitive (.52), affective (.28) and social strategy (.17). These effect sizes indicate the effectiveness of the SBI in increasing learners' use of the five strategies. But no significant difference was found in the two groups' post mean scores on the memory strategy category.

Six paired samples t-tests were performed to compare the EG learners' use of the six strategy category (memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, social) before and after the intervention program. The results are shown in Table 7.15

Table 7.15 Paired Samples t-test for Comparing the EG's Pre/Post Mean Scores

Pre/Post Mean Scores of Each Strategy Group	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Memos1 - Memos2	-.3930	.46498	.07644	-.54805	-.23798	-5.141	36	.000
Cogns1 - Cogns2	-.1044	.20655	.03396	-.17326	-.03552	-3.074	36	.004
Comps1 - Comps2	-.1139	.21384	.03515	-.18521	-.04261	-3.240	36	.003
Metcos1 - Metcos2	-.2508	.22736	.03738	-.32666	-.17505	-6.711	36	.000
Affects1 - Affects2	-.2999	.21877	.03597	-.37292	-.22704	-8.341	36	.000
Socials1 - Socials2	-.7162	.56637	.09311	-.90505	-.52738	-7.692	36	.000

* P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01

Table 7.15 showed significant differences in the pre/post mean scores of each group on the six strategy categories. The p values of all strategy categories were less than .05. In order to see whether the difference between the pre and post mean scores of each strategy category is statistically significant, the effect size of each strategy category was computed using eta squared formula. The result of each strategy category (1-6 in Table 7.22) respectively was (.42, .21, .23, .56, .67 and .62.) very large. Thus, it can be said that the difference between the control and experimental groups is statistically significant.

Similarly, the six paired samples t-tests were run to compare the CG learners' use of the six strategy categories before and after intervention. Outputs generated from paired samples t-tests are presented in Table 7.16 below. The results of the paired t-test showed no significant difference between the pre and post strategy categories use by learners in the CG except the

memory strategy category. The values of these five strategy categories (cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective and social) were larger than .05.

Table 7.16 Paired Samples T-tests for comparing the CG Pre/Post Mean Scores

Pre-and post tests	Paired Differences					T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Memos1 - Memos2	.1444	.2451	.04085	.06152	.22737	3.536	35	.001
Cogns1 - Cogns2	.0143	.1610	.02684	-.04022	.06874	.531	35	.598
Comps1 - Comps2	.0038	.1517	.02529	-.04760	.05509	.148	35	.883
Metcos1 - Metcos2	-.0113	.1381	.02301	-.05805	.03538	-.493	35	.625
Affects1 - Affects2	-.0033	.1238	.02063	-.04519	.03859	-.160	35	.874
Socials1 - Socials2	-.1257	.5807	.09678	-.32213	.07081	-1.298	35	.203

* $p < 0.05$. ** $p < 0.01$

However, the result in Table 7.16 showed a significant difference in the pre and post memory strategy use mean scores for the CG, $t(35) = 3.536$, $p = .001$. In order to indicate whether the difference between the pre and post mean scores of the CG is statistically significant (not likely to have occurred by chance), the effect size (eta squared) was calculated and the result was (.26) large. Therefore, it can be said that the difference between the pre/post memory strategy mean scores of the CG is statistically significant.

In summary: results of statistical analyses showed that the two groups were at the same level in using the six strategy categories prior to the intervention program. But results of the independent t-test showed that the EG outscored the CG on five out of six strategy categories at the end of the study. The effect sizes (eta squared) of the five strategy groups are as follows: Cognitive (.39), Compensation (.34), Metacognitive (.52), Affective (.28) and Social strategy (.17). These effect sizes are from large to very large, indicating the significant differences between the two groups. Thus, the null hypothesis: is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is mostly supported.

7.3.3 Effects of the SBI on the Learners' Affective Sides of Listening Comprehension

This research question aimed at examining if there was significant differences in the two groups' post mean scores on the motivation, anxiety and belief scales. Before answering the research question, Kolmogorov-Smirnov's test was run to check the assumption of normality and the results are shown in Table 7.17.

Table 7.17 Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for Normality of Scores of ASLCQ Subscales

	Group	Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	Df	Sig.	Statistic	Df	Sig.
Interest in learning listening	Control	.129	36	.137	.972	36	.478
	Experimental	.103	37	.200	.982	37	.787
Listening class anxiety	Control	.141	36	.066	.959	36	.206
	Experimental	.149	37	.137	.966	37	.320
Beliefs about learning listening	Control	.090	36	.200	.987	36	.939
	Experimental	.138	37	.071	.950	37	.097

All the figures under the Sig columns of Table 7.17 are larger than .05, indicating that the data were normally distributed. This allowed to compare the two groups' pre/post mean scores on the measured variables using t-tests. First, descriptive statistics were computed to examine the pre/post mean scores. The results are shown in Table 7.18.

Table 7.18 Descriptive Statistics of both Groups' Pre/Post Mean Scores on ASLCQ

Variables of ASLCQ	Group	N	Pre-Mean	Pre-SDs	Post-Mean	Post-SDs
Motivation in listening	Control	36	3.2144	.24060	3.2723	.32367
	Experimental	37	3.2022	.27194	3.9330	.30653
Listening anxiety	Control	36	3.5144	.28530	3.4750	.39596
	Experimental	37	3.5216	.24397	2.0892	.36952
Belief about listening	Control	36	3.2000	.31713	3.2194	.31876
	Experimental	37	3.2081	.36008	3.3081	.31303

As Table 7.18 shows, the mean scores of both groups were similar to each other before the study. But the post-mean scores of the EG were different from the post-mean scores of the CG on each factor. Independent t-tests were run to check whether these mean differences were statistically significant. First, Levene's test was run to check if the homogeneity of variance was met. Results of Levene's test are shown in Table 7.19.

Table 7.19 Levene's Test for Equality of Variances of Pretest Mean Scores

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Motivation to listening	Equal variances assumed	.023	.879	.204	71	.839
	Equal variances not assumed					
Listening anxiety	Equal variances assumed	.889	.349	.368	71	.714
	Equal variances not assumed					
Belief about listening	Equal variances assumed	1.228	.272	-.102	71	.919
	Equal variances not assumed					

Table 7.19 shows that the p-values from Levene's Test (Motivation =.879, Anxiety =.349 and Belief =.272) are larger than .05 (2-tailed). This leads to the conclusion that there was no difference in the mean scores between the two groups, which again confirms the similarity in learners' motivation, anxiety and beliefs between the two groups.

This time, independent samples t-tests were run to examine whether the two groups' post mean scores were significantly different. Results are shown in Table 7.20 below.

Table 7.20 Independent t-tests for Comparing the two Groups' Post Mean Scores

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Motivation to listening	Equal variances assumed	.006	.939	-8.958	71	.000
	Equal variances not assumed					
Listening anxiety	Equal variances assumed	.722	.398	9.117	71	.000
	Equal variances not assumed					
Belief about listening	Equal variances assumed	.068	.795	-1.199	71	.235
	Equal variances not assumed					

* P<0.05. ** p = <.001

The results in the above table show that the P values of the two sub-scales (motivation and anxiety) out of three were smaller than .05 (2-tailed). The results also indicated significant differences between the motivation and anxiety mean scores of the EG (M =3.9330, M =2.0892) and the CG (M= 3.2723, M = 3.1750), t(71)= -8.958, p<.05 and t(71)= 9.117, p<.05 respectively after treatment in favor of the EG.

In order to check if the difference between the pre/post mean scores are statistically significant, the effect sizes were calculated using Eta squared formula. The effect size for motivation and anxiety scales were (.53 and .67 respectively) very large. Thus, it can be said that the difference between the two groups' mean scores was statistically significant. However, there was insignificant difference between the two groups' post mean scores on the belief scale, t(71)= -1.199, p>.05. The effect size was (.012) very small, indicating the lack of significant difference between the two groups' post mean scores on this scale.

Paired samples t-tests were run to compare the pre/post means of each group. The first paired samples tests were calculated for the EG. The results in Table 7.21 below shows significant

differences in the pre/post mean scores of the EG on two out of three variables. The P values of motivation and anxiety scales were less than .05 for the EG.

Table 7.21 Paired t-tests for comparing the EG Pre/Post Mean Scores on ASLCQ

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Motive1 - motive2	-.731	.4199	.06903	-.87082	-.59081	-10.586	36	.000
Lca1 - Lca2	1.432	.5099	.08383	1.26241	1.60245	17.087	36	.000
Badlc1 - Badlc2	-.100	.4649	.07643	-.25500	.05500	-1.308	36	.199

P<0.05. ** p<0.01

The effect sizes for EG learners' motivation and anxiety were .71 and .69 respectively. But the result of paired samples t-test revealed no significant difference in the pre/post mean scores on the belief scale, $t(36) = -1.308$, $P > .05$. The effect size (eta squared) was (.045) small as compared with other sub-scales.

The same numbers of paired samples t-tests were run to find out the difference between the CG pre/post-mean scores on the three sub-scales of the ASLCQ. Outputs generated from the paired samples t-test are presented in Table 7.22.

Table 7.22 Paired Samples T-test for comparing the CG Pre/Post Mean Scores

	Paired Differences					T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Motive1 - motive2	-.0578	.3649	.06082	-.18125	.06569	-.950	35	.349
Lca1 - Lca2	-.0250	.5744	.09573	-.21935	.16935	-.261	35	.796
Badlc1 - Badlc2	.0944	.4336	.07226	-.05225	.24114	1.307	35	.200

The paired samples t-test analysis in Table 7.22 depicted no significant change in all three post-mean scores. These can suggest that both the traditional methods and the SBI did not help learners change their beliefs about learning listening skills. The qualitative data may help understand about these issues.

In summary: the results of descriptive analysis indicated that learners in both groups were at the same level in terms of motivation, anxiety and belief before the study. But the results of the independent t-test analysis showed that the EG outperformed the CG on the motivation and anxiety after the study. Based on these results, the null hypothesis was rejected and the

alternative hypothesis was accepted for motivation and anxiety scales. The next section presents the results of the qualitative data analysis.

7.3.4 Learners' Views about the Benefits of the SBI Model

The fourth research question aimed to explore the views of learners in the EG about the benefits of the SBI model. The qualitative data were used to cross-check the quantitative data. The qualitative data collected with group discussion, diary and open ended questions are presented below under the following six major headings:

- i. Importance of the SBI for increasing learners' listening strategies use;
- ii. Benefits of the SBI model for improving learners' listening abilities;
- iii. Usefulness of SBI for increasing learners' motivation to listening skills;
- iv. Importance of SBI for decreasing learners' listening comprehension anxiety;
- v. Usefulness of the SBI for changing learners' beliefs in learning listening skills and
- vi. Comments on the benefits of the SBI model and the instructional materials.

These six major themes are presented in terms of the responses that illustrate the patterns emerged from the three data sources, namely, group discussion, diary entries and open ended question of the two questionnaires. It is noteworthy that learners' names mentioned in the next sections are pseudonyms to maintain anonymity of participants.

7.3.4.1 Benefits of the SBI Model for Increasing Learners' Listening Strategies Use

Qualitative data were used to explore learners' awareness and use of listening strategies. In doing so, some learners from EG were asked an interview question after the study. The interview question was 'What kinds of strategies do you use at the (a) pre-listening, (b) while-listening and (c) post-listening phases?' The interview question, the responses and the number of respondents (in parentheses) are shown in Table 7.23 below.

Table 7.23 Learners' Preferred Strategies to Comprehending Listening Texts

What kinds of strategies do you use at the pre-listening stage?	
▪ Predicting the topic of the text from the teacher's introduction	(4)
▪ Looking at the title to predict what the text will be about	(7)
▪ Sharing information with a partner about the topic	(5)
▪ Guessing the topic from the brainstorming activities	(6)
What kinds of strategies do you use at the while-listening stage?	
▪ Trying to keep up with the speed of the speakers	(5)
▪ Listening to the main ideas of the text	(6)
▪ Paying attention to the topic sentences of the listening texts	(5)
▪ Predicting what will come in the next part of the listening text	(4)
▪ Writing key words or numbers from the listening texts	(7)
What kinds of strategies do you use at the post-listening stage?	
▪ Check the correctness of my prediction	(5)
▪ Ask the teacher to correct my answers to the post- listening questions	(4)
▪ Compare answers of the post- listening questions with others' answers	(7)
▪ Discuss difficult words or concepts in listening texts with classmates	(5)
▪ Give responses to the classmates' questions in speaking	(4)
▪ Use a checklist to evaluate my listening progress after listening	(7)

In answer to the first sub-question (What strategies do you use at the pre-LC stage?), participants provided various responses but the responses related to the study and also mentioned by most members of the group were identified and grouped into one of the four sub-themes as shown in the first part of Table 7.23 above. The strategy used by all learners at the pre-listening stage was 'looking at the title to predict what the text is about'. Six participants reported using the strategy of 'guessing the topic from the brainstorming activities'. Besides, 'sharing information with a partner' and 'predicting the topic from the teacher's introduction were used by 5 and 4 learners respectively. These responses suggest that the SBI helped them use strategies they had never used before.

In answer to the interview question: What strategies do you use at the while-LC stage?, learners in the group discussion listed numerous responses but only responses relevant to the study were identified and grouped into one of the five sub-themes as shown in the second part of Table 7.23 above. In this regard, the most common strategy used by all learners (7) during the while-listening stage was 'writing key words or numbers in the listening texts'. Six learners reported

'listening to the main ideas of the text'. Besides, 'understanding the topics of the listening texts' and 'keeping up with the speed of the speakers' were used by five learners. Moreover, four learners reported predicting what will come in the next part of the listening text'.

In answer to the last sub-interview question: What strategies do you use at the post-listening comprehension stage?, participants reported using many listening strategies but only those strategies related to the study were identified and grouped into one of the six sub-themes as shown in the last part of Table 7.23 above. The most common listening strategies used by all interviewees were 'comparing answers of the post-listening comprehension questions with others' answers' and using a checklist to evaluate their progresses after listening'. Five learners used to 'check the correctness of their predictions' and 'discuss difficult words or concepts in the texts with classmates'. Four interviewees used to 'ask the teacher to correct their answers to the post-listening comprehension questions' and 'give responses to the classmates' questions in speaking'.

Data obtained from diary entries were also used to cross-check data obtained from the semi-structured interview and the self-report questionnaires. Learners in the EG kept diaries and submitted to the classroom instructor. The 'sentence starter', specific themes and the number of diarists (in parentheses) are presented in Table 7.24.

Table 7.24 Learners' Most Preferred Listening Strategies

5. My specific learning plans for next week are	Date of entry
▪ Listening to radio in English (8)	
▪ Listening with attention and concentration (17)	
▪ Asking for clarifications when not understanding something (15)	
▪ Watching ETV news in English (7)	
▪ Listening to football commentators in English (9)	
▪ Listening to BBC news in English (11)	
▪ Attending all English classes regularly to improve listening skill (6)	

Usin

g the 'sentence starter' (The things I liked most in the listening classes were ...), the diarists (learners) made personal plans for using different listening strategies. But unrelated responses were screened and those which had direct relation to the study were categorized into seven sub-themes as shown in Table 7.24. Seventeen (out of 37) learners in the EG made plans for 'listening with attention and concentration'; fifteen learners made plan for 'asking for clarifications when not understanding something'; eleven learners made plans for 'listening to BBC news in English, nine learners for 'listening to football commentators' and eight for

'listening to radio in English'. These indicate that when a learner sets a goal and carries out actions to achieve that goal, she/he is beginning to develop metacognitive knowledge (Vandergrift, 2004). It can be said thus that learners' abilities to set goals is the result of SBI.

In summary, findings of the qualitative analyses confirmed findings of the quantitative analysis as reported in the previous section. Data obtained from group discussion and diary entries indicated the importance of SBI for increasing learners' awareness and use of many more listening strategies including selective attention, elaboration (use of world knowledge), guessing meanings from contexts, asking for clarification, setting learning goals, prediction and so on. These strategies are grouped into memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective and social. These imply that the SBI increased learners' awareness and use of more and better listening strategies.

7.3.4.2 Importance of the SBI Model for Improving Learners' Listening Abilities

The qualitative data were used to cross-check whether the SBI would enhance learners' listening abilities after the intervention. Seven learners were asked an interview question after the intervention program. The question was to explore learners' strategies for learning listening skills. The interview question was raised in this way: You are now at the end of this semester, which classroom activities did you find important for improving your listening ability? The responses were interpreted and reported in line with their contribution to the improvement of learners' listening abilities. The interview question, the responses and the number of respondents (in parentheses) are shown in Table 7.25.

Table 7.25 Benefits of SBI for Improving Learners' Listening Abilities

5. You are now at the end of this semester, which classroom activities did you find important for improving your LC ability?	
▪ Brainstorming activities	(7)
▪ The pair/group works	(6)
▪ The short stories	(6)
▪ The strategy-share discussion	(7)
▪ The pre-listening activities	(7)
▪ Guessing the meaning of new words from contexts	(4)

In reply to the fifth interview question, participants listed numerous listening strategies and classroom activities that they (learners) found very important for improving their listening comprehension abilities. However, only the responses related to the study were identified and grouped into one of the six sub-themes as shown in Table 7.25. In this regard, all of the participants (7) found 'brainstorming activities', 'the strategy-share discussions' and 'the pre-listening comprehension activities' the most important classroom activities. Besides, six learners considered 'the pair/group works' and 'the short stories' the most important listening activities. Moreover, four learners found 'guessing the meaning of new words from contexts' very essential strategy for understanding main ideas.

Participants' awareness of these activities was the result of the implementation of SBI in the listening classes which could be vital to improve their listening abilities. As can be seen in Table 7.25 above, most of the participants reported using six major strategies which they thought essential for learning and improving their listening abilities or performances. This indicates that the training helped learners in the EG try out listening strategies they had never used before the implementation of SBI in their listening class. This finding supports Chen's (2013:85) suggestion which states that "One of the most important ways to help learners achieve successful listening is to guide them to raise their awareness on their listening problems and use effective listening strategies".

In summary, findings of the qualitative analyses supported findings of the quantitative analyses. The results of the quantitative analyses indicated the effectiveness of the SBI model in increasing learners' listening strategies. The most common listening strategies learners in the EG reported using include making predictions, identifying main ideas, note-taking, summarizing, evaluating and monitoring. Most of these strategies were essential for solving many learning problems and improving L2 proficiency (Oxford, 1990). These findings support the idea that learners who are taught to use strategies with sufficient practice will learn more effectively than learners who have no experience with learning strategies (O'Malley et al., 1985; Vandergrift, 1996; Chamot, 2004).

7.3.4.3 Benefits of the SBI for Increasing Learners' Motivation to Listening Skills

Qualitative data were used to understand individual learners' view and experiences about the benefits of the SBI for increasing their motivation toward learning listening skills. Seven learners from EG were asked an interview question after the study. The interview question was presented

the group discussion participants in this way: Did you enjoy learning listening in English? If yes, what did you enjoy? Using this question, all learners (7) discussed their feelings and experiences of learning listening. The responses were interpreted and reported in relation to learners' motivation. The question, responses and number of respondents are shown in Table 7.26.

Table 7.26 Learners' Motivation to the Listening Texts and Activities

1. Based on this semester's learning experience, did you enjoy learning listening skill? If yes, what types of listening activities or resources did you enjoy more?	
▪ The pre-listening activities	(7)
▪ The pair and group activities	(7)
▪ Listening to the short stories	(5)
▪ The strategy-share discussion	(7)
▪ Listening to BBC news in English	(4)
▪ Listening to radio program in English	(3)
▪ Listening to football commentators in English	(5)

In answer to the interview question one (Did you enjoy learning listening in English?), six of the seven learners said 'yes'. One learner did not say 'yes' or 'no' and neither gave any reason. Those who said 'yes' listed numerous activities and strategies. Responses of three or more learners were identified and grouped into one of the seven sub-themes as shown in Table 7.26. In this regard, 'the pre-listening activities' as well as 'the pair/group activities' are the most liked activities by all participants of the group discussion. Besides, five participants of the group discussion liked 'listening to short stories' and 'football commentators'. Moreover, four learners enjoyed 'listening to radio program in English'.

Data from group discussion indicated that most of the learners enjoyed the above-mentioned strategies and listening activities implemented in the listening classes. This is consistent with Cohen's (1998) opinion that if a learner is fully aware of the learning process, he/she is more motivated to achieve success, which is no longer seen as something accidental but rather as a result of factors such as careful planning and implementing the right listening strategies in the classrooms.

Data obtained from diary entries also assisted in checking if the SBI program increased learners' motivation toward practicing various listening activities. As noted earlier, all learners in the EG were given 'sentence starter' to record their opinions, likes/dislikes, problems and future plans for learning listening skills. The 'sentence starter', the sub-themes and the number of diarists (in parentheses) are shown in Table 7.27.

Table 7.27 Learners' Most Preferred Listening Strategies and Activities

3. The things I liked most in the listening classes were	Date of entry
▪ The warm-up activities before each listening lesson (19)	
▪ The jokes about the cat and the rat (13)	
▪ Pair/group works at the pre-listening stages (18)	
▪ Checking or correcting partners' class activities (9)	
▪ Learning how to ask speakers to repeat (11)	
▪ Guessing the meaning of unknown words from contexts (22)	
▪ The strategy-share discussion after each listening lesson (20)	

Based on the 'sentence starter' (The things I liked most in the LC classes were ...), learners mentioned a lot of activities and strategies. As before, responses relevant to the study were grouped into one of the seven sub-themes as shown in the above table. The strategy most liked by 22 diarists was 'guessing the meaning of unknown words from contexts'. Twenty learners liked 'the strategy-share discussion after each listening lesson' the most. The 'warm-up activities' and 'pair/group works' were the most preferred activities by 19 and 18 learners respectively. Besides, 'the jokes about the cat and the rat', 'learning how to ask speakers to repeat' and 'checking or correcting partners' class activities' were the liked by 13, 11 and 9 learners respectively. This suggests that the direct SBI helped learners use a variety of effective strategies to boost their motivation.

In summary, the qualitative data revealed that the SBI helped most learners become more motivated than before. It is evident from 22 diary entries that learners benefited most from learning how to guess the meaning of unknown words from contexts. Besides, most of the interviewees reported that they liked learning listening through the SBI model because it made them feel comfort to listen to various listening texts. This might lead to control over the listening anxieties. However, it should be noted that whether the affective strategies, the listening texts, the SBI procedure, or other elements contributed to the significant gains in the motivation of learners in the EG.

7.3.4.4 Usefulness of SBI for Decreasing Learners' Listening Anxiety

Qualitative data were to understand learners' views and experiences about the usefulness of SBI for reducing listening anxiety. An interview question containing two probes was presented to seven learners in this way: Based on this semester's learning experience, did you feel frustrated or anxious in learning listening skill or doing listening comprehension questions? If yes, (a) what

do you think were the causes of your anxiety or frustration? (b) What did you do to reduce your listening anxiety? The interview questions, responses and number of respondents (in parentheses) are shown in Table 7.41 below.

In answer to the major interview question (Did you feel frustrated or anxious when learning listening skill or doing LC questions?), three of the seven learners said 'yes' and four learners said 'no'. In answer to the first probing question (What do you think were the causes of your anxiety or frustration?), participant listed many factors causing their listening anxiety. Responses related to the study were identified and grouped into one of the four sub-themes as shown in the first part of Table 7.28.

Table 7.28 Learners' Listening Comprehension Anxiety and Coping Strategies

3. Based on this semester's learning experience, did you feel frustrated or anxious when learning listening lessons or doing listening comprehension questions?	
▪ Yes	(3)
▪ No	(4)
a) What do you think were the causes of your anxiety or frustration?	
▪ Teacher's accidentally calling learners' name to answer questions orally	(7)
▪ Teacher's asking learners questions that they do not know the answer	(5)
▪ Listening to a difficult or an unfamiliar topic	(6)
▪ Poor ability in English	(3)
b) What did you do to reduce your listening comprehension anxiety?	
▪ Avoiding feelings of anxiety or frustration from my mind	(6)
▪ Enjoying the classroom lessons	(6)
▪ Telling my mind to be relaxed in listening classes	(7)
▪ Discussing the problem with a learner or learners sitting nearby	(5)
▪ Paying attention to or concentrating on the listening process	(7)

All participants felt anxious when teacher accidentally calls their names to answer questions. Six learners felt anxious when 'Listening to a difficult or an unfamiliar topic'. Besides, five learners felt anxious or frustrated when their teacher asked questions that they did not know the answers.

In answer to interview question three (Did you feel frustrated or anxious when learning listening lessons or doing listening comprehension questions?), three out of seven students said 'Yes' meaning that they got frustrated during listening classes. This finding led the researcher to pose a probing question (What do you think were the causes of your anxiety or frustration?). The students who participated in the group discussion mentioned different factors that provoked their anxiety or frustration in listening classes. But data relevant to the study and also mentioned by three or more learners were identified and grouped into one of the four sub-themes as shown in

the second part of Table 7.28. In this regard, all learners (7) said that the Teacher's accidentally calling learners' name to answer questions orally. Teacher's asking learners questions that they do not know the answer (5) Listening to an unfamiliar topic (6) poor ability in English.

In answer to the second probing question (What did you do to reduce your listening anxiety?) The aim of this question was to explore if the SBI helped learners use anxiety-reduction strategies. Learners in the group discussion listed a lot of strategies for reducing their anxieties. But data relevant to the study were chosen and grouped into one of the five sub-themes as shown in the third part of Table 7.28. All learners in the group discussion tried to reduce their anxieties by 'paying attention to or concentrating on the listening process and by telling their minds to be relaxed in listening classes. Besides, six learners overcame their anxieties by 'enjoying the lessons and avoiding feelings of anxiety or frustration from their minds. Furthermore, five learners reported reducing their anxieties by 'discussing the problem with a learner or learners sitting nearby'.

The diary entries were also used to cross-check if the SBI decreased learners' listening comprehension anxieties. It is worth re-stating that the EG learners were given diary keeping guidelines involving 'sentence starters' for recording their opinions and thoughts about their daily LC lessons. Consequently, many learners recorded their opinions, thoughts and problems in their diary entries. The 'sentence starter', (My problems in learning listening lessons are ...), the sub-themes and the number of learners who kept diaries (in parentheses) are presented in Table 7.29.

Table 7.29 Barriers to Learning/Practicing Listening Skills and Coping Strategies

1. My problems in learning listening lessons are ...	
▪ The hottest temperature makes learning difficult (16)	
▪ Getting nervousness when the teacher speaks rapidly (13)	
▪ Lack of concentration on the while-listening phase (19)	
▪ Lack of vocabulary and grammar knowledge (21)	
▪ Lack of sufficient listening learning experience (15)	
2. The strategies I used to solve these problems were ...	
▪ Relaxing before the listening lessons (13)	
▪ Self-encouragement when feeling tired of listening (12)	
▪ Paying attention to what the teacher says or does (9)	
▪ Asking the teacher or classmates for help (17)	
▪ Concentrating only on the listening activities (16)	
▪ Asking the teacher or classmates for correcting my mistakes (11)	
▪ Reading grammar books and looking up dictionary for new words (19)	

The diarists listed different barriers to learning listening skills. But most of the barriers overlapped each other. Hence, unrelated barriers mentioned by three or more learners were identified and grouped into one of the five sub-themes as shown in the first part of Table 7.29. Twenty-one out of 37 learners found the 'lack of vocabulary and grammar knowledge' the most common barrier. 'Lack of concentration during the while-LC phase' was the most common problems for 19 learners. Sixteen learners mentioned 'the hottest temperature' the most common factor affecting their learning. Moreover, the 'lack of sufficient listening experience' and getting 'nervousness when the teacher speaks rapidly' were the two serious problems for 15 and 13 learners respectively.

As to anxiety overcoming strategies, data from diary entries indicated that many learners used different techniques or strategies to solve their learning problems. However, only the data related to the study were identified and grouped into one of the sub-themes as shown in the second part of Table 7.29. Although learners did not mention any strategy to solve the natural factor, that is, 'the hottest temperature makes learning difficult', they reported using different types of strategies to overcome the barriers to learning listening skill. For example, nineteen learners focused on 'reading grammar books and looking up dictionary for new words' in order to develop their vocabulary and grammar knowledge. Sixteen and seventeen learners respectively used listening strategies: 'concentrating on the listening process and 'asking friends for help'. Other strategies used by 13, 12 and 11 learners were 'relaxing before the listening lessons', 'asking the teacher or classmates for correcting my mistakes' and self-encouragement when feeling tired of listening' respectively. Nine learners focused on 'paying attention to what the teacher says or does'.

In summary, the first diary entries showed that many learners felt anxiety in listening classes because they used such words as 'nervous' and 'worried' to describe their affective reactions to the listening process. But they were able to control their anxiety as the training in listening strategies continued. The qualitative data suggest that the SBI helped learners use a variety of anxiety reduction strategies. This result is in line with Goh (2008) who claims that when learners are aware of and use more affective and metacognitive strategies, they have fewer feelings of fear and anxiety. This is because metacognitive strategies deal with goal setting, planning and monitoring of learning which lessen anxiety, thus, possibly making them more confident (Vandergrift, 2007).

7.3.4.5 Usefulness of the SBI for Changing Learners' Beliefs in Learning Listening

The qualitative data were used to explore learners' experience and opinion about the importance of SBI for improving listening abilities. Seven learners were asked interview questions to provide their opinions about the benefits of SBI. The researcher raised the questions during the group discussion in this way: What are your opinions about the (a) importance of listening skill? (b) ease/difficulty of learning listening skill? And (c) benefits of SBI for enhancing listening comprehension abilities? The interview questions, the responses and the number of participants (in parentheses) are shown in Table 7.30.

Table 7.30 Learners' Opinions about the Importance of Learning Listening Skills

4. What are your opinions about the a) importance of learning listening skill? b) ease/difficulty of listening skill? c) benefits of SBI for enhancing listening ability?	
▪ Learning listening skill helps communicate with others effectively	(6)
▪ Learning listening skill is difficult because it does not have rule like grammar	(3)
▪ Listening is the major means of getting knowledge and information	(7)
▪ Listening is the most important skill for taking notes in lecture classes	(7)
▪ I did not like to learn listening skill before, but now I enjoyed it	(5)
▪ Good listening ability is the base for good speaking ability in English	(4)
▪ Grammar is the base for learning and improving listening skill in English	(6)

Learners in the group discussion provided a lot of responses to the first part of interview question 4 and their responses were grouped into one of the seven sub-themes as shown in Table 7.30. All learners (7) believed that 'listening is a major means of getting information' and 'the most important skill for taking notes in lecture classes'. Six out of seven learners said that 'learning listening skill helps communicate with others effectively'. The same number of learners said that 'grammar is the base for improving listening skill'. Besides, four learners reported that 'good listening ability is the base for good speaking ability in English'. Moreover, three learners expressed their beliefs by saying that 'learning listening skill is difficult since it does not have rules like grammar'.

Data from the group discussion showed that almost all of the participants agreed that the listening strategies introduced, modeled and practiced in each listening phase were motivating to learn listening skills. These learners also believed that the listening strategies and the training materials used in the classrooms improved their listening abilities. At the end of the group discussion, most

of the learners (6) suggested the researcher to use same teaching method (SBI model), learning strategies, training materials or texts and activities for teaching other skills in English.

In summary, most of the data obtained from the group discussion showed the benefits of the SBI program for increasing the listening abilities, strategies use and motivation of learners in the EG. All these can suggest the satisfaction of learners to the SBI program and their beliefs about the importance of developing listening abilities in English.

7.3.6.6 Comments from Learners Participated in Group Discussion and Diary Entries

Learners' comments would help identify the weaknesses and strengths of the SBI model, listening strategies, training materials and classroom activities. To this end, seven learners were asked to discuss two interview questions: a) how did you find this semester's teaching/learning processes and teaching materials? b) What other methods and materials do you suggest for future listening classes? These interview questions, the responses and the number of participants (in parentheses) are presented in Table 7.31

Table 7.31 Comments on the Benefits of the SBI model and the Training Materials

6. a) How did you find this semester's teaching/learning processes and listening texts?	
▪ The teaching method was very useful for improving both listening and speaking skills	(6)
▪ The method is valuable for improving listening/speaking skills but it lacked grammar	(5)
▪ This method helped us learn how to understand the detail and main ideas of listening texts	(5)
▪ This method helped learn many useful listening strategies such as keeping learning diaries, self-monitoring, self-management, predicting, guessing from contexts, and so on	(6)
▪ Most of the lessons taught through the SBI were very enjoyable	(7)
b) What other methods and materials do you suggest for teaching listening skill?	
▪ Use these teaching methods and materials in the future listening classes	(7)
▪ Use many new audio/video cassette in listening classes	(6)
▪ Include grammar and vocabulary exercises in listening classes	(5)
▪ Use many interesting short stories in the future listening classes	(4)
▪ Teachers have to use motivating activities in English classes	(5)
▪ Teachers have to give the same advices and supports to learners who have difficulties	(7)
▪ Teachers must use this teaching method for teaching all skills	(6)

In answer to the first sub-interview question 6, participants listed different issues but only the relevant ones were identified and grouped into one of the five sub-themes as shown in the first part of Table 7.31. In this regard, all learners commented that 'most of the lessons taught through the SBI program were very enjoyable' and six learners commented that 'the teaching method was very useful for improving listening skill'. The same number of learners appreciated the SBI as it

'helped learn many useful listening strategies such as self-monitoring, predicting, guessing meanings from contexts and so on'. Moreover, five learners confirmed the benefits of the SBI for finding the main ideas of listening texts.

Although most of the qualitative data showed learners' positive views on the SBI model, some amount of data from the group discussion, diary entries and open ended questions showed learners' complains about the absence of vocabulary and grammar lessons from the SBI program. Five learners in the group discussion suggested future teachers to 'Include grammar and vocabulary exercises in listening classes'. In fact, vocabulary and grammar parts were not focused during the intervention for two reasons. First, the aim of the study was not on learners' grammar or vocabulary but on their listening skill, strategies, motivation, anxiety and beliefs. Second, the time span of the study was somewhat short, therefore, learners in the EG were exposed to some of the most difficult but at the same time, the most useful vocabulary and grammar aspects in English.

It is not surprising to hear such concerns from some learners since they were accustomed to learning vocabulary and grammar in their pre-university English classes. As discussed in chapter two, Ethiopian students have long been used to a teacher-centered, grammar-based teaching and it was very hard for them to shift toward a more learner-centered, communicative-oriented and SBI within a semester. A full change in learners' deep rooted traditional learning habits or beliefs needs many months' or years' of training. Even this could be true, data from the group discussion and diary entries showed that most of the learners in the EG liked the interactive listening activities.

In answer to the second sub-interview question 6, participants mentioned different points but only the relevant ones were identified and grouped into one of the seven sub-themes as shown in the second part of Table 7.31 above. Almost all learners suggested teachers to use the SBI and training materials for future listening classes. Besides, six learners suggested various audio and video cassettes for teaching listening skills. Moreover, six learners reported that they liked to learn all skills in English through the SBI model and the training materials. However, some learners' participated in the group discussion recommended grammar and vocabulary exercises in the future listening lessons.

The need for learning grammar and vocabulary was also mentioned in five diary entries. For example, a learner wrote in his/her diary entry that "I liked this teaching method because it helped me improve my listening skill but not my grammar knowledge. Therefore, I want the teacher to teach us grammar also because if we do not learn grammar rules, we will not pass the semester final exam" (L23-LD). This comment suggests that some learners needed to pass tests or exams and thus externally motivated.

In summary, data from group discussion showed that most of the learners enjoyed the strategy training material and the classroom activities. the majority of learners in the EG enjoyed the SBI program since it helped them increase their strategy knowledge, foster their motivation and improve their listening abilities. Most of them suggested teachers to use the SBI model to teach listening skill in the future because it will help learners know what strategies to use and when and how to use them to comprehend a listening text. All these can suggest the effectiveness of the listening strategy instruction in developing learners' listening abilities, strategies use and motivation simultaneously.

7.4 Chapter Summary

Chapter seven presented findings of the quantitative and qualitative analyses in line with the research questions. The significances of the post-mean scores were compared using independent and paired samples t-tests, and the results were demonstrated. The qualitative data were analyzed and presented in line with the fifth research question. The next chapter discusses findings, presents their implications for pedagogy, offers limitations, suggests recommendations for future research and finally makes conclusions.

Chapter Eight: Summary, Discussion, Implications and Conclusion

This chapter first provides the summary of the findings related to each research question and the results from data analyzed in chapter seven. It then discusses the findings related to each research question. These sections also compare findings of the current study with findings of previous studies and provide possible explanations of the findings. The last sections discuss implications, limitations, recommendations and conclusion of the study.

8.1 Summary of the Major Findings

The major findings related to each research question and the data analyzed in chapter seven are summarized as follows:

1. Is there a significant difference in the two groups' post mean scores on the listening proficiency test? The results related to this research question showed a significant difference in the two groups' post mean scores at 0.05 level in favor of the EG
2. Is there a significant difference in the two groups' post mean scores on the listening strategies use questionnaire? The results showed significant differences in the two groups' post mean scores on the Cognitive, Metacognitive, Affective, Compensation and Social strategy categories at 0.05 level in favor of the EG. But there was no significant differences in the two groups' post mean scores on the Memory strategy category.
3. Is there a significant difference in the two groups' post mean scores on the affective sides of listening comprehension questionnaire? The results indicated significant difference in the two groups' post mean scores on the motivation and anxiety scales at 0.05 level, in favor of the EG. But no significant difference was found in the two groups' post mean scores on the belief scale.

Following the summary of major findings is the detailed discussion of the findings related to the research questions. The detailed discussion focuses on the findings obtained from the quantitative and qualitative analyses in order to provide a multilevel view of the results. Findings of the quantitative (descriptive and t-test) analyses are discussed in relation to the quantitative research questions (1, 2 and 3). It is worth noting that the findings obtained from the qualitative data are discussed along with the quantitative research questions since the qualitative data were collected to triangulate the quantitative data. The discussion follows the order of each research question of the study.

8.1.1 Discussion of Findings Related to Research Question One

Research question one examined the effects of the SBI model on the EFL learners' listening abilities. To answer this research question, the pre/post data collected with the listening proficiency test were analyzed using descriptive and parametric (t-tests) statistical methods. The descriptive and independent samples t-test analyses showed a significant difference between the post mean scores of the EG ($M = 11.78$) and the CG ($M = 8.61$), $t(71) = -8.96$, $p < .05$, in favor of the EG. This finding was also confirmed when the scores of the EG's pre-test were compared with the scores of its post-test through paired t-test. Moreover, a significant effect size was produced for the proficiency test.

The result obtained from the quantitative analysis revealed the effectiveness of the SBI model in promoting the listening abilities of learners in the EG. This finding is consistent with findings of previous local studies (Moges, 2003; Belilew & Girma, 2015) that showed the effectiveness of SBI models in increasing learners' listening abilities. The result of the current study is also consistent with the results of previous studies done abroad (Carrier, 2003; Vandergrift, 2003; Graham, 2006) which found that the SBI models had significant effects on the improvement of learners listening abilities.

However, finding of the current study contradicts with findings of some other previous studies (O'Malley et al., 1985; Ozeki, 2000; Chen, 2010) which examined the effects of SBI models on the EFL learners' listening abilities. For example, Chen's study found insignificant differences in the two groups' post mean scores on the listening proficiency test. The reason which led to different findings in the present study and that of Chen's could be the form of strategy instruction. Previous research showed that SBI models can be affected by participants' language proficiency, motivation, beliefs, ethnicity, types of SBI model used, treatment conditions and so on (Griffiths, 2008; Takeuchi et al., 2007).

The lack of uniform findings of research on SBI is confirmed in the literature (Takeuchi et al., 2007). Chamot (1987) claims that learning strategies have been classified differently in SL which makes comparing strategies reported difficult. It has also been noted that the likely effect of a SBI on FL proficiency should not be seen immediately (Takeuchi et al., 2007). But a meta-analysis study by Hassan et al. (2005) showed positive results from certain short-term studies into the effects of SBI on L2 proficiency. Likewise, the present study had a positive effect on the

listening ability of learners in the EG. At least, two factors might have contributed to the effectiveness of the SBI program.

First, learners in the EG had more opportunities to practice a variety of listening activities through individual, pair and small group formats. Instruction that involves pair/group activities might have contributed much to the progress of learners' listening skills. They were also exposed to various authentic listening materials during the intervention period. Hence, the SBI, coupled with much opportunities for practicing a variety of listening activities increased the listening abilities of the EG. But since learners in the CG were not exposed to the SBI program, their post-mean score did not reach significant.

Second, learners in the EG used a wide range of listening strategies during the three phases of listening comprehension (pre-, while- and post-listening). The most common listening strategies used by learners were making predictions and inferences, checking predictions, asking for clarification, note taking, summarizing and the likes. These strategies along with the three stages of listening comprehension activities might help learners in the EG gain more listening abilities than learners in the CG. This is supported by Rost (2011) who explains that the inclusion of certain effective strategies in each listening phase helps learners reach adequate level of listening abilities in English.

Qualitative data obtained from diary entries, group discussion and open ended questions also indicated that the SBI helped learners in the EG understand the main and specific ideas of the listening texts and deduce meaning of unfamiliar words from contexts. As shown in Table 7.31, many learners used a variety of resourcing strategies like listening to radio, listening to football commentators and watching TV programs to improve their listening abilities. Data from group discussion confirmed that most of the learners in the EG found their listening skills improved since they began to receive training in listening strategies. A comment from a learner was: "I think I can understand the listening text more than in the past because I can listen to the texts without much difficulty" (L18-LD).

Similarly, data from a series of diary entries showed that the SBI assisted many learners to be aware of a range of resources and strategies necessary for improving their listening skills. Some of these resources and strategies that many learners reported using include watching films or TV programs, listening to songs in English, listening to radio programs, watching English movies

and the like. For example, three learners in the EG wrote in their diary entries indicated that their listening abilities have improved due to SBI program. Some other learners also reported that they improved not only their listening but also their speaking skills. These reports are consistent with Goh's (1997) report that keeping diaries can direct learners' reflections on listening events so that they can evaluate their performance and take positive steps to improve their listening skills

In summary, the quantitative analysis indicated a significant improvement in the listening proficiency test as compared to learners in the CG. This finding supports Carrier's (2003) claim that SBI helps learners realize how to actively and systematically use listening strategies in the classroom. This can increase learners' strategies use and listening abilities. This suggests the need to guide learners to activate their listening processes. In this way, learners can gradually control over their own learning processes more effectively which in turn enhances their listening abilities in the TL (Chen, 2013).

8.1.2 Discussion of Findings Related to Research Question Two

The second research question examined the effects of the SBI model on the EFL learners' listening strategies use. This research question was answered by analyzing the pre/post data with descriptive and t-test procedures. The results showed significant differences in the two groups' post mean scores on five strategy categories, in favor of the EG. Significant effect sizes were also produced for the five strategy categories. The effectiveness of the SBI was also confirmed when the scores of the EG's pre-test was compared with the scores of its post-test. But neither the t-test nor the effect size showed significant difference in the two groups' post mean scores on the memory strategy.

The results of the quantitative analysis suggest that the SBI program seemed to be more effective than the traditional methods in increasing learners' listening strategies use. The results of this study resemble the results of another local study (Belew & Girma, 2015) that showed significant difference in the two groups' post mean scores. The difference between the two groups' post mean scores on the five strategy categories or individual strategy items can indicate the effectiveness of the SBI (Chen, 2010). The explanation of the current finding can be that learners in the EG were taught various listening strategies and listening lessons using the SBI model, and learners in the CG were taught the same lessons through traditional methods without incorporating listening strategies.

Results of the quantitative analyses support the claim that SBI can help learners use learning strategies more frequently and with a greater range than those who do not receive training (Chamot & O'Malley, 1987). Besides, the results related to this research question are consistent with the results of other previous studies (Griffiths, 2003; Chen, 2010; Ozeki, 2000). Chen (2010) suggested that the SBI program has led to the reporting of significantly more positive changes in the use of listening strategies. The positive results of the present study are most likely attributed to the SBI program since it familiarized learners with effective listening strategies and appropriate, motivating listening texts/activities throughout the intervention period.

The qualitative data also showed that learners in the EG used different listening strategies including planning, monitoring, paying attention, guessing meanings from contexts and so on. The SBI helped learners recognize the importance and purpose of listening strategies and provided them with ample opportunities for practice which might result in increasing their strategies use. Describing the importance of the SBI model, a learner in the group discussion says that "this method helped me to learn many listening strategies such as selective attention, predicting, guessing from contexts, scanning and skimming". These strategies increased my listening ability" (L9-OEP).

As noted above, however, unexpected result was found in the present study which was rare in other previous experimental studies. The independent t-test analysis yielded insignificant difference in the two groups' post mean scores on the memory strategy, $t(71) = .333, P > .05$, with a very small effect size (.001), This finding contradicts with the notion that learners "who are taught to use strategies and provided with sufficient practice in using them will learn more effectively than learners who have had no experience with learning strategies" (Chamot & O'Malley, 1987:240). Five possible reasons can be made as to why the SBI program failed to increase learners' memory strategy utilization.

First, both teaching methods might provide both groups with, more or less, equal chances to use more memory strategies. Second, memory strategies can be related to both the traditional methods and the SBI model. The evidence is that the mean score of the EG increased from the pre to the post test time. Third, learners in the CG might have used strategies randomly and unconsciously in the process of learning. Fourth, learners in the EG might have used less of the traditional approach and more of the communicative approach due to the SBI program. Last, it

may be that the researcher used different ethnic groups than those employed in previous studies. However, most of these are suggestions and call for more research on the effects of the SBI on the learners' memory strategy use.

Nevertheless, the results related to this research question support the idea that SBI makes listeners better at processing and storing information; helps them manage cognitive process and difficulties during listening (Goh, 2008), makes them to be more confident in performing listening activities (Vandergrfit, 2003). The results are also consistent with the general conclusion of the previous SBI research and provide additional evidence about the 'teachability' of listening strategies (Dadour & Robbins, 1996).

The qualitative data from group discussion and diary entries showed that most of the learners used a variety of listening strategies subsumed under Oxford's (1990) taxonomy: memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective and social. When learners were asked to answer what strategies they used when they did not understand listening texts, four learners said that they used the skimming strategy to find the main idea of the texts. One student said that he learned how to guess the meaning of a spoken text using context clues and how to pay attention to the speakers' facial expressions. Analysis of the diary entries showed that many learners mentioned various listening strategies including selective attention, repetition, note-taking and asking for assistance or clarifications.

In summary, the results related this research question showed that the implementation of the SBI in listening classes helped most learners aware of use a variety of listening strategies. Thus, the finding of the present study together with previous studies suggests the necessity of incorporating different listening strategies in the regular listening lessons. This may help learners select the strategies that best work for their own learning style preferences. However, further research is needed to confirm the results of this study.

8.1.3 Discussion of Findings Related to Research Question Three

The third research question examined whether the SBI had positive effects on learners' motivation, beliefs and anxiety. For the sake of clarity, findings related to each sub- research question are discussed separately in the next sections...

8.1.3.1 Discussion of Findings Related to Learners' Motivation to Learn LC Skills

The first sub-question of the third research question examined whether the SBI model had a positive effect on learners' motivation to learn listening skill. In order to answer this sub-research question, the pre/post data collected with the motivation scale on the ASLCQ were analyzed using descriptive and parametric (t-tests) statistical methods. The analyses showed a significant difference in the post mean scores of the EG ($M = 3.93$) and the CG ($M = 3.27$), $t(71) = -8.958$, $p < .05$, in favor of the EG. A significant effect size was also produced for the motivation scale, indicating the effectiveness of the SBI model in increasing the motivation of learners in the EG. This effectiveness was further confirmed when the scores of the EG pre-test were compared with the scores of its post-test.

The quantitative analyses showed the effectiveness of the SBI in increasing EFL learners' motivation toward learning listening skills. This finding is consistent with the claim that learners' motivation can be enhanced through SBI programs (Vandergrift et al., 2006). The result of the present study also supports the results of few previous studies (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Nunan, 1997; Ziahosseini & Salehi, 2007), and the suggestion that SBI models can help learners become more motivated as they begin to understand the relationship between strategies use and success (Oxford, 1990).

The qualitative analysis also showed that learners enjoyed learning listening through the SBI despite lack of qualitative data from the CG. Data from the group discussion and diary entries revealed learners' satisfaction with the training procedures. Learners in the group discussion expressed that the SBI model helped them increase their motivation toward learning listening abilities. For example, learner stated that "I wanted to learn and improve my listening skill because it can help me attend other subjects taught in English" (L7-FGD). Another learner also said that "I liked the teaching process, the listening texts and activities that the teacher taught us in the classrooms" (L5-FGD).

Similarly, data from diary entries showed the effectiveness of the SBI program in increasing the motivation of learners in the EG. The following quotes can help explain learners' motivation. Two comments from a learner were: "I liked the classroom activities because they were very funny, useful and 'motivating for me" (L24-LD). Another learner expressed his/her opinion in this way "I want to learn listening in English because I think it is a key to learn other subjects. If

I can listen correctly, I can also speak with my teachers and foreigners fluently in English" (L26-LD). These comments suggest that the SBI enhanced the EG learners' motivation to practice the pre-and post-listening activities. The results could be attributed to the following two possible factors.

One of the factors for increasing learners' motivation can be attributed to the selection of appropriate listening strategies and the integration of these strategies with the listening activities in the training processes. The effectiveness of these processes is supported by researchers (Vandergrift, 2005; Goh, 2008) who claim that strategy training can increase learners' motivation toward performing better on the listening activities. Others maintain that the SBI models can increase learners' motivation (Cohen & Weaver, 2005; Rost, 2006). Therefore, it can be said that the SBI would enhance the EG learners' motivation.

The second possible factor can be that the teaching/learning procedures used in the listening classes. As stated in section 4.1.4.1, the instructor who implemented the SBI program inserted listening strategies relevant to the pre-, while- and post-listening activities and encouraged learners to practice these strategies and activities in the order of individual, pairs, groups and whole class procedures. The benefits of these procedures are confirmed by Ryan & Deci (2000) who claim that relevant learning procedures, teaching materials and actual classroom learning activities can motivate learners to spend more time and effort on studying and performing various activities in the TL.

In summary, the results obtained from the quantitative and qualitative analyses showed the effectiveness of the SBI model in promoting learners' motivation toward spending more effort to select and use more effective listening strategies. The finding also showed that the post mean score of the CG is smaller than the post mean score of the EG. This means that the motivation of learners in the EG remained unchanged due to the lack of strategy instruction. Much evidence was also emerged from the qualitative data to support that the SBI approach had a positive effect on the learners' motivation to learn listening skill. Therefore, it is possible to say that the SBI contributed to the promotion of EFL learners' motivation toward learning and practicing listening skills.

8.1.3.2 Discussion of Findings Related to Learners' Listening Anxiety

The second sub-question of the third research question aimed to examine whether the SBI model had a positive effect on learners' listening anxiety. The pre/post data collected with the 'anxiety scale' on the ASLCQ were analyzed using descriptive and parametric (t-tests) statistical methods. The result showed a significant difference in the two groups' post mean scores, in favor of the EG. A significant effect size was also produced for the anxiety scale. Moreover, the paired samples t-test revealed significant difference in the pre and post mean scores of each group. It can be said that the SBI program had positive effects on the EFL learners' listening anxiety.

However, the scarcity of research on the topic prevented the researcher from comparing the results of the present study with the results of other local studies. But the result of this study corroborates few other similar studies abroad (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992; Vogely, 1998; Goh, 2008). The present study showed the effectiveness of the SBI in decreasing learners' listening anxiety. Many factors could have contributed to the reduction of learners' listening anxiety but only two are discussed below.

The first factor might relate to the integration of effective strategies with the regular listening lessons and teaching these strategies to learners in the EG. This is strongly supported by Goh (2008) who claims that training learners in effective affective strategies assisted them in reducing their anxiety by controlling over their emotional states step-by-step. Similarly, Cohen & Weaver (2005:36) comment that "affective strategies help students regulate their emotions, motivation, and attitudes and are often used to reduce anxiety and provide self-encouragement". The result from the present study indicated a large effect on decreasing the listening anxiety of learners in the EG.

The second possible factor can be the use of interesting listening texts and activities in each contact hour. The teacher facilitated pair/small group activities, strategy-share discussions, teacher-learner, or learner-learner interactions and positive comments at the pre-while and post-listening stages. These activities and/or interactions might play key roles in reducing learners' anxiety. This is supported by Oxford (1993) in the sense that the atmosphere of listening classroom is the dominant factor. Similarly, Cohen & Weaver's (2005) underline the importance of using appropriate dyads and small groups in L2 classes for learners' controlling over various affective factors.

The results of the qualitative analysis support the result of the quantitative analysis. Data from most diary entries indicated that learners experienced low anxiety during the three LC phases. The data also revealed that most learners use positive strategies when feeling anxious in listening classes. The SBI also gave all learners chance to be active in practicing LC activities. The following is an interview transcript which supports the statement: "I ask the teacher or classmates for help when I face difficulties in listening. When I discuss the problem with my teacher or friends, I forget my worries" (L4-FGD). Another learner also reported that "the SBI was new but very useful to decrease my fear in listening classes and to increase my motivation for learning English" ((L13-LD).

In summary, implementing the SBI in listening classes can decrease face-threatening and stressful learning experiences. Learners in the EG revealed a significant anxiety reduction in the post mean scores; whereas learners in the CG showed no change in the post mean scores. Similarly, the qualitative data showed the effectiveness of the SBI in decreasing the listening anxiety of learners in the EG. This finding supports the claim that if teachers create non-threatening classroom atmosphere where learners feel relaxed, they can reduce the level of anxiety in learning listening skill (Oxford, 1993). This suggests the necessity of giving more attention to learners' anxiety in the process of teaching listening skill.

8.1.3.3 Discussion of Findings Related to Learners' Beliefs about Learning LC

The third sub-question of the third research question examined whether the SBI had positive effects on learners' beliefs about the learnability of listening skills, uses of strategies and the SBI model for developing listening abilities. The pre/post data collected with the 'beliefs scale' on the ASLCQ were analyzed using descriptive and parametric (t-tests) statistical methods. The results showed insignificant difference in the two groups' post mean scores though the post mean of the EG ($M = 3.32$) was higher than the post mean of the CG ($M = 3.22$). No significant effect size was also found for the belief scale, suggesting the ineffectiveness of the SBI in changing learners' beliefs

The insignificant difference obtained from the independent t-test in this study suggests that neither the SBI model nor the traditional teaching method affected learners' beliefs about the teachability or learnability of listening skill, the benefits of using listening strategies for improving listening ability and the importance of learning this skill. But the findings of

quantitative analysis in this study contradict with the findings of previous experimental studies (Tanaka & Ellis, 2003; Mohammadi et al., 2015) that showed statistically significant difference in the two groups' post mean scores. In fact, variation in the findings of the present study and these previous studies seemed to support the two opposing views regarding the changeability and stability of beliefs about learning an L2.

As noted in chapter two, some scholars have raised questions about the changeability of beliefs since beliefs are developed through a long period of time ((Pajares, 1992; Mori, 1999; Li, 2004). Others have argued for changing learners' beliefs about L2 learning through well-designed and implemented training programs (Oxford, 1990; Victori & Lockhart, 1995; Peacock, 2001). Nevertheless, the result of the independent t-test in this study showed insignificant change in learners' beliefs At the end of the SBI program. Two possible reasons can be suggested for the insignificant change in learners' beliefs.

One of the possible reasons might relate to the claim that beliefs are stable and inflexible to change, or cannot be changed through training (Pajares, 1992; Mori, 1999; Li, 2004). In fact, many factors such as teaching methods, learning style preferences, cultural backgrounds and previous learning experiences might affect learners' beliefs about L2 learning (Horwitz, 1987; Young, 1999). A study by Horwitz (1987) found that learners who experienced grammar and vocabulary instruction spent most of their time learning vocabulary and grammar in English. Similarly, the literature in chapter two showed that most of our students gave priority to grammar, vocabulary and reading tasks. This might have been the impact of the traditional methods used in previous English classes.

Another possible reason can be attributed to the data collection instruments. As noted earlier, the study used questionnaires to collect data since respondents may not provide honest responses regarding their strategies, experiences or opinions (Kim, 2002). A study by Chen (2005:10) found that some learners were "more inclined to resort to their old 'survival kit', i.e., their former listening habits, than to try the strategies introduced in the training. The habitual barriers found were: listening for every spoken word, relying on Chinese subtitles, and non-purposeful listening". Similarly, respondents in this study might rate the close ended items in the belief scale based on their old learning beliefs. Bearing this limitation in mind, this researcher used

qualitative data collected with group discussion and diary entries to cross-check the findings of the quantitative analysis.

The results of the qualitative analysis showed the effectiveness of SBI model in changing the wrong beliefs of learners in the EG. Data from group discussion and diary entries revealed that many learners believed in the importance of studying hard for developing listening skills. They reported that the strategies introduced, modeled and practiced in the classrooms improved their listening skills. For example, a learner said that "listening strategies are useful to develop listening skills" (L22-LD). Another learner stated that "Listening is one of the most important skills for academic and future professional life. Therefore, I wanted to improve my listening ability by attending all listening classes and by listening to films, videos, TV and BBC radio programs in English" (L6-FGD).

The above comments seemed that the training helped the EG learners shift their attention from using less effective strategies to using more effective strategies for doing various listening comprehension tasks. It also seemed that the SBI helped learners understand the benefits of selecting, planning and monitoring learning strategies for better controlling over their listening learning processes. Therefore, the qualitative data seemed to support the claim that a properly implemented SBI could change learners' wrong beliefs about learning the skills in the TL (Oxford, 1990; Victori & Lockhart, 1995; Peacock, 2001).

However, a small number of learners in the EG placed more emphasis on learning grammar and vocabulary than on learning the basic skills. For example, three learners in the group discussion stated that grammar and vocabulary were their first choice followed by reading skill. A similar finding emerged in the diary entries where three learners in the EG reported that they liked to learn rules of present tense, past tense, perfect tenses and the likes. In responding to an open ended question, four learners said that the teacher had to teach them grammar rules but he did not. Four reasons can be cited as to why grammar and vocabulary are the most important aspects for some learners in the EG.

The first reason can be associated with the learners' beliefs that proficiency in English meant mastering these language aspects. The second reason can be that they might have been influenced by the previous grammar- and vocabulary-oriented instructions. The third reason can be that a 12-week training program might be insufficient for some learners, especially the low

proficiency one's, to understand and master it. Last learners might not fully realize the benefits of the SBI program for improving listening abilities, strategies use and motivation. Yet, most of the qualitative data revealed that the majority of learners in the EG developed positive attitudes towards learning listening skills through the SBI procedures.

In summary, the quantitative analysis showed insignificant a difference in the two groups' post mean scores on the belief scale. This finding was supported by a small amount of qualitative data since some learners in the EG believed that grammar and vocabulary are the most important aspects for them to master English. However, most of the qualitative data showed changes in the learners' beliefs about the teachability or learnability of listening skill, the importance of listening skill and the benefits of listening strategies. The qualitative data support the notion that SBI could change learners' wrong beliefs about language learning (Oxford, 1990). Thus, findings of the qualitative data are promising for teaching listening skills and developing learners' listening abilities.

8.2 Implications of the Present Study

There are many potential implications of this study for learning, teaching, designing and writing listening texts as well as for training listening teachers. Key implications for EFL teachers/instructors and curriculum developers are offered in the next sections.

8.2.1 Implications of the Study for Teaching Listening Skills

The following are some of the major implications for teaching listening skills:

First, experience and studies show that traditional methods (e.g., teacher-centered and grammar-based) give little time to the LC activities (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). But success in LC depends on the amount of time spend on practicing various LC activities. To this end, scholars suggest teachers to use more innovative approaches (e.g., learner-centered and SBI) to improved learners' listening skills (Goh, 2008; Chen, 2013), which is supported by the findings of the current study Therefore, EFL teachers/instructors are recommended to implement SBI models in listening classes to increase learners' listening abilities. They must be creative in the classroom to enhance the listening task.

Second, as noted in chapter two, test-led (outcome-focused) instruction can dictate teachers and learners to emphasize on the grammar, vocabulary and reading that appear in the national and classroom-based tests (Alemu, 2004). Such, a test-led instruction contributes little to the improvement of EFL learners' listening abilities (Richards, 2005). Although the present study did not compare the two methods, some other studies have shown the superiority of the SBI model over the test-led instruction in increasing learners' listening skills. Thus, teachers/instructors of the research site are recommended to move from test-led to SBI if they wish to increase learners' listening abilities. They are also recommended to include appropriate strategies in the pre, while- and post-listening phases that enable learners to become more effective in their ways to success.

Third, findings of the present study showed that the SBI model increased the listening abilities of learners in the EG as compared to the listening abilities of learners in the CG. This increase is most likely attributed to the use of effective listening strategies, appropriate training materials and interesting listening activities in the EG class during the intervention periods. Findings from the qualitative data showed that most of the learners in the EG found the training as enjoyable and interesting. Therefore, teachers/instructors of the research site need to implement appropriate learning strategies and interesting listening activities in learners' regular classrooms. They are also recommended to guide and help their students practice a variety of listening strategies and activities so as to increase learners listening abilities and motivation.

Fourth, literature indicates that listening is a highly anxiety-causing skill: the major sources are unfriendly teacher behavior, ineffective teaching methods and materials. However, scholars suggest that listening anxieties can be reduced by implementing SBI models in the learners' regular LC lessons (e, g., Rost, 2011; Ham, 2014), which is supported by the findings of the present study. These findings might be attributed to the creation of anxiety-free learning environments, the instructor's friendly approach with learners, and the practice of the listening strategies with the classroom lessons using individual, pairs/groups and whole class patterns. Hence, teachers/instructors are recommended to create positive (friendly and relaxed) atmosphere with the best learning environment so that learners can listen to the spoken texts and reduce listening anxiety.

Fifth, the positive results of the current study might be ascribed partly to the inclusion of appropriate authentic listening texts (e.g., short stories) and resources (e.g., audio cassettes) in the training materials. Such authentic listening materials/resources can increase learners' motivation towards practicing a variety of listening activities (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). Data obtained from the group discussion and diary entries showed that most of the learners in the EG enjoyed the training processes and the listening texts/activities presented in each listening class. Therefore, teachers/instructors need to include appropriate authentic materials and resources in their daily listening lessons. They also need to include appropriate listening strategies in their handouts or lessons, and to provide learners with how, why, where and when to use the strategies in tandem with course modules, handouts or daily lessons.

Last but not least, findings of the present study indicated that learners learn better and achieve higher in an L2 when competent teachers use well designed instructional materials along with effective learning strategies, and use them in the classrooms effectively. Therefore, the present researcher recommends the Department of English at Samara University to provide teachers/instructors with workshops and seminars about the theories, practices and procedures of learning strategies and their roles in solving many problems inherent in learning listening skill and learners' listening abilities.

8.2.2 Implications for Curriculum Planners and Textbook Designers

Based on the relevant literature and findings of the present study, the following implications are put forward for ELT curriculum planners and text designers:

1. Listening skill has been given the least credit hours as compared to other basic skills in English curriculum at Samara University. This limits the teachers' time to teach various listening activities in the classrooms. For this reason, listening skill has rarely been taught in most English classes, and learners may remain poor in their listening skills. But learners who have poor listening abilities (a) may get demotivated and anxious (b) encounter difficulties in attending to other content subjects taught through English as a medium of instruction and (c) are unable to make effective communication with their teachers or other proficient speakers of English inside and outside the classrooms. Therefore, curriculum planners need to allocate more time to this skill so that teachers and learners can spend enough time on teaching and learning a variety of listening activities that are necessary for achieving learners' learning goals.

2. Since listening is one of the most important skills, learners should be provided with ELT textbooks that contain more motivating listening activities and more effective listening strategies. However, most of our ELT textbooks contain very few motivating listening activities and appropriate learning strategies. These types of texts have little effect on enhancing learners' listening skills. Thus, material designers need to include motivating listening activities and right strategies in all listening texts. Scholars advocate including listening strategies in existing curriculum and instructional materials (Chamot, 2004; Goh, 2008). By using such materials, teachers/instructors can improve learners' listening abilities and thereby learners can become successful in conversing with their teachers or classmates and taking notes from classroom lectures.

3. Although findings of the present study were positive, SBI is "far more complex owing to the different factors that interact to influence the teaching and learning of strategies" (Williams & Burden, 1997:161). A SBI can also be affected by the teachers' abilities to assess learners' current knowledge of strategies; consider affective factors (motivation, beliefs and anxiety); select appropriate strategies; embed the target strategies within the course materials, introduce and practice the strategies in the classrooms and so on. Teachers need access to extensive professional development about the theory and practice of learning strategy (Chamot, 2005). Hence, the present researcher recommends the MOE to provide teachers/instructors with the knowledge and skills of designing and executing the SBI models in order to minimize their students' (a) listening learning problems, (b) maximize effective learning processes and (c) increase listening abilities.

4. Related to the above issue are the roles of teachers/instructors in implementing the SBI models in English classes. The SBI models require teachers/instructors to play various roles including those of a facilitator, consultant, advisor, diagnostician, cocommunicator and coordinator (Oxford, 1990). Such requirements reflect the critical need for developing teachers' roles through effective training. Thus, this researcher recommends the MOE to provide the pre-service and in-service teachers with trainings regarding the SBI models in general, and the listening strategy instruction in particular (Oxford, 1990; Chamot, 2005; Cohen & Weaver, 2005). In this way, teachers/instructors can maximize effective teaching/learning processes and increase listening abilities of EFL learners.

8.2.3 Limitation of the Present Study

Although the findings of the present study showed the effectiveness of applying the SBI model to the listening classes, limitations are inevitable in any study, and this study is no exception. The major limitations related to the present study are presented below:

The first limitation of this study related to the research design. As described in chapter four, this study used a quasi-experimental design because the university where the study took place would only allow the researcher to apply the treatment conditions to learners in the existing (intact) classes. Accordingly, the researcher conducted the study with two intact classes meaning that individual learners were not randomly selected, nor were they randomly assigned to the control and experimental groups. Hence, the findings of this study may not work to the different populations other than those involved in this study.

The second limitation related to the sample size. Learners participated in this study were 79 first-year undergraduate Biology majors at Samara University. This sample size may be very small in quantitative studies and thus may have resulted in low statistical power. This implies that a larger number of participants seem critical when trying to obtain generalizable results. However, this researcher would argue that this is often the case in experimental research designs where time-consuming methods are used. Besides, many SLA scholars suggest the sample size of 30 or more for classroom-based experimental research. However, care must be taken before generalizing the findings of the study.

The third limitation was derived from various confounding factors. As noted above, the study used a quasi-experimental design but such designs have many confounding factors including the instruction time of the day, teaching effectiveness and classroom contexts, as well as the various learner characteristics including learners' prior knowledge, motivation, proficiency, learning styles and preferences. However, it was not possible to teach both groups at the same time of a day since one instructor taught the two groups in order to minimize any variation in performance that might result from differences in presenting materials, teaching effectiveness, learners' proficiency, motivation, learning styles and preferences. Therefore, the findings may not be generalized to the different populations other than those involved in the present study.

The fourth limitation related to the self-report questionnaires. The study used two types of self-report questionnaires to collect data about the pattern and frequency of listening strategies, motivation, anxiety and beliefs of learners that they felt they had before and after intervention. But questionnaires could be affected by the respondent's social desirability bias, fatigue or lack of memory. For instance, some respondents might not truly respond to the items in questionnaires; rather they tend to choose the answer that seemed socially favored. The result might not reflect the real distribution of strategies, motivation, anxiety and beliefs related to listening skills. This might have limited the generalizability of the findings to other settings and populations although the results were mainly statistically significant in the present study.

Last but not least, the limitation of this study was derived from data analyses methods. As noted in chapter six, the pre/post quantitative data were analyzed with three of the most common statistical methods in applied linguistics; frequency, means and parametric t-tests. However, these statistical methods have their own limitations to research findings. For instance, though means are able to consider all the scores, they fail to take into account extreme scores (Dornyei, 2007). Thus, the findings from the aforementioned statistical methods used in this study may not work to other settings and populations.

8.2.4 Recommendations for Future Research

To examine the effects of the SBI models on the measured variables more precisely, five recommendations for future research are presented below

First, research on language learning strategies is still at exploratory stage in Ethiopia. As noted in chapter three, most of the previous research explored the frequency and variation of learners' awareness of speaking, reading and vocabulary strategies. Little research has been done to examine the effects of SBI models on learners' listening skills, strategy use, motivation, anxiety and beliefs to date. Given that the topic has not been widely researched and understood, future researchers need to study the effects of the SBI on the aforementioned variables of adolescent, adult, male and female students learning English in the government and private schools, colleges and universities in the country.

Second, due to the difficulty of studying all basic skills and knowledge aspects of English in a single study, the researcher investigated the effects of the SBI model on the learners' listening abilities and strategy use. Other researchers need to investigate the effects of SBI models on the

Ethiopian EFL learners' abilities and strategies pertaining to (a) other skills such as reading, speaking and writing as well as (b) the knowledge aspects such as grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation. Findings from such studies can provide broader insights into the effectiveness of the SBI models on the EFL learners' abilities and strategies use associated with each of the aforementioned ingredients of English.

Third, findings of the present study support the notion that a well-designed and implemented SBI model can increase learners' motivation and strategy use. However, the present study did not investigate whether learners' strategy use led to their motivation and vice-versa. Besides, very few experiments have been done in the classrooms so far as to ascertain whether motivation leads to more/better strategies use or, conversely, strategies use leads to higher motivation. Hence, future researchers need to carry out more classroom-based experiments with Ethiopian EFL learners so as to ascertain whether motivation leads to more/better strategies use or, conversely, strategies use leads to higher motivation to learn English in general and listening skill in particular.

Fourth findings related to the listening abilities, strategies use, motivation and anxiety were positive. However, the complexity inherent in the classroom-based experiments and in the measured variables might prevent the present researcher from finding the true results that might contribute to the scientific knowledge. In fact, it has been noted that the history of scientific knowledge is not a history of "truth", but the history of searching for ever closer approximations to "truth" (Kerlinger, 1979:188). Future research needs to find out closer approximation of the true results of these variables by (a) involving the Ethiopia students learning English at different levels of education; (b) conducting more classroom-based experiments; (c) collecting more quantitative and qualitative data, and (d) using more sophisticated data analyses methods.

Fifth, findings of the quantitative analysis in the present study did not support the view that training learners through the SBI models can change their wrong beliefs about learning an L2 (Oxford, 1990; Victori & Lockhart, 1995; Larenas et al., 2015). However, it is essential to understand learners' beliefs about learning an L2 since dealing with their beliefs is tackling an issue that has been considered as fundamental to their academic progress (Horwitz, 2015). Hence, future researchers need to examine the effects of the SBI models on the Ethiopian EFL learners' beliefs about listening skills and using listening strategies by (a) collecting more

quantitative and qualitative data and (b) using more sophisticated data analyses methods. Findings from such studies may confirm or refute the claim that learners' beliefs influence not only their choice and use of strategies but also prevent them from practicing various listening activities (Graham, 2006).

Last but not least, a single research on the SLA may not yield perfect results (Dornyei, 2007). Findings of many previous studies supported this claim since those studies on the effects of SBI yielded mixed results. The present researcher agrees with Gardner (1985:5) who says that "One study, no matter how carefully conducted, cannot be taken as conclusive. It is only with repeated investigation that the complexity of an area can be truly comprehended". In light of this, other researchers need to conduct more experimental studies to validate the findings of the present study on the Ethiopian students learning English at different levels of education. Such studies may help generalize the findings to the different settings and populations in Ethiopia and abroad.

8.2.5 Conclusion

The object of this study was to examine the effects of the SBI on the EFL learners' listening abilities, strategies use and certain affective factors inhibiting the acquisition of listening skills. Based on the findings of the data analyzed in chapter seven and the discussions of the findings made in chapter eight, the following conclusions can be drawn regarding the effects of the SBI model on listening abilities, strategies use, motivation, anxiety and beliefs of first-year Biology major undergraduate learners at Samara University.

First, the researcher concludes that the SBI model could improve learners' listening abilities. the independent samples t-test analysis showed a significant difference in the two groups' post mean scores at 0.05 level in favor of the EG. Likewise, qualitative data obtained from the group discussion, diary entries and open ended questions revealed that almost all learners in the EG perceived the SBI as helpful for them to learn how to listen to spoken texts and to enhance their listening abilities. Thus, it can be said that the SBI model had a positive effect on learners' listening abilities.

Second, this study concluded that the SBI program helped learners' use a range of listening strategies. The results from the independent samples t-test showed significant differences in the two groups' post mean scores on the cognitive, metacognitive, affective, compensation and

social strategy categories at 0.05 level in favor of the EG. But there was no significant differences in the two groups' post mean scores on the Memory strategy category. Qualitative data obtained from the group discussion, diary entries and open ended question showed that learners in the EG used a variety of listening strategies, indicating the benefit of the SBI model for increasing strategies utilization..

Third, this study concludes that the SBI could increase learners' motivation to learn and practice a variety of listening activities. The results of the independent samples t-test analysis indicated significant difference in the two groups' post mean scores on the motivation scales at 0.05 level, in favor of the EG. Qualitative data obtained from the group discussion, diary entries and open ended question showed the increment of many learners' motivation. They reported that the process of learning listening skill through the SBI as fun and interesting. These findings support the suggestion that learners' motivation can be enhanced by regularly practicing learning strategies and language activities in the classrooms (Dornyei & Ushioda, 2011).

Fourth, the researcher concluded that the SBI helped learners cope with the harmful anxiety associated with learning and practicing listening comprehension in English classes. The results of the independent samples t-test analysis showed significant difference in the two groups' post mean scores on the anxiety scales at 0.05 level, in favor of the EG. Similarly, qualitative data obtained from the group discussion and diary entries revealed that the SBI model had a positive effect on the learners' listening comprehension anxiety. The majority of learners in the EG preferred the SBI model to the traditional methods for teaching all skills in English in the future. This implies that the SBI program benefited learners to reduce their listening anxieties

Finally, this study concluded that the SBI model can improve the overall teaching quality that eventually helps many learners solve problems inherent in learning listening skills. The increase in listening abilities, strategies use and motivation as well as the decrease in listening anxiety of learners in the EG can reflect the positive quality of the SBI model. However, implementing new theories and practices, like SBI models, would face possible challenges from classroom teachers (Chamot, 2005). In light of these challenges, recommendations were made to provide teachers with trainings regarding the theories, practices and benefits of learning strategies. Suggestions were also given for future research into the effect of the SBI models on Ethiopian EFL learners' listening abilities, strategies utilization, motivation, anxiety, beliefs and so forth.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Instrument Validation Form for Experts to Evaluate and Comment

Dear Colleague, I am presently ensuring the face and content validity of the instruments for my doctoral dissertation. My research topic is 'The effects of SBI on EFL learners' strategies use, listening proficiency and certain affective sides of listening. I really appreciate your serving on my panel of experts to help determine the face and content validity of these data collection instruments. Questionnaires, interview and diary protocol will be administered to EFL learners studying at Samara University.

I have adapted items from previous scales for the current questionnaires, interview and diary keeping protocol. What I am requesting you now is to evaluate each item in each instrument and to comment on the problematic areas. For this purpose, I have prepared this Validation Form for you to comment the items using the following criteria:

Face validity: Do the instruments “look like” what they are supposed to measure?

Content validity: Are the items representative of concepts related to the research topic?

Clarity: is each item in the instruments clear?

Format: Logical flow?

Other: Please make any additional suggestions and comments as much as possible.

Sincerely,

Kebede Bezabih

TEFL PhD student

Appendix B: Questionnaires

Dear student, the main purposes of these questionnaires are to collect data about your (a) personal biographic data and listening learning experiences, (b) awareness and use of different strategies for effective learning listening skills and (c) motivation toward learning listening skill. Therefore, you are kindly requested to complete all items stated in the questionnaires according to the given instructions. Remember: the information you provide will be kept confidential.

Part 1: Background Information Questionnaire

Instruction: please read each question in the background questionnaire and circle one or more than one box that describe your feelings most, or write your facts where necessary.

1. ID: _____. 2. Gender: _____. 3. Age: _____.

4. Do you enjoy learning English language listening skill? (Tick one) Yes No

5. How important is it for you to learn English listening skill? (Tick one)

Very important Somewhat important I do not know Not important .

6. How easy or difficult has it been for you to learn English listening skill? (Tick one)

Very easy Somewhat easy Moderate Somewhat difficult Very difficult .

7. Which of the following descriptions matches your listening ability when compared with other students' ability in your class? (Tick one)

Excellent Very good Good Fair Poor Very poor

8. Why do you learn English listening skill? (Check all, there can be more than one answers). To get higher scores in the examination To get better job in the future To gain more knowledge To join university To get new friends. Others -----

Part 2: Listening Learning Strategy Questionnaire Adapted from Oxford (1990)

Dear Student: please read each statement on a 5-point Likert scale and put (√) on one of the numbers (1, 2, 3, 4 or 5) that tells the degree of opinion on the strategies you use to learn English listening skill. Note that there is no right or wrong response to any of the items on this questionnaire. Note also that your responses to the questions will be kept confidential. The numbers in the above box indicate the following:

1 = Never true of me;

2 = Usually not true of me;

3 = Somewhat true of me;

4 = Usually true of me, and

5 = Almost always true of me.

No	Questionnaire Items	1	2	3	4	5
1	I find the meaning of a word by dividing it into parts to understand a text					
2	I make a prediction of what will be said next by using the information I heard earlier					
3	I give myself a reward when I fully understand the messages in English					
4	While listening, I grasp the main idea and ignore unimportant details					
5	I use information in the text to guess the meanings of words in a text.					
6	I identify the purpose of the topic using pre-listening tasks.					
7	When my teacher explains things in English, I note down only the key words instead of noting down every word.					
8	When I understand that I am not concentrating in a listening class, I quickly tell myself to concentrate again					
9	I preview information related to what I am going to listen if I know what it is going to be about.					
10	I pay attention to the language elements such as pronunciation, intonation and word stress of the speaker to help me understand the message better.					
11	While listening, I consciously keep in mind the information that I need to listen and understand.					
12	When I meet a new word while listening, I search in my memory and see if I have any synonyms and antonyms in my memory stock.					
13	While listening, I extract important information from a text so that I can successfully answer the post-listening comprehension questions.					
14	While listening, I write down some important ideas and keywords to make summaries of the text after listening.					
15	When I come across a word or phrase in an oral text, I try to repeat it loudly or silently myself to memorize it.					
16	I ask for help from friends when I do not understand something in English					
17	I try to relax by taking a deep breath, calming my nerves etc. while listening to spoken texts in English.					
18	After listening classes, I write down my feelings in a language learning diary to keep track of my learning process.					
19	While listening, I pay attention to the vocabulary and grammatical parts that are repeatedly used in the conversation or oral discussions.					
20	When I face difficulty in understanding a text, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.					
21	Before listening, I set goals for improving my English listening ability.					
22	After listening, I work with classmates to check notes or get feedback on the listening task.					
23	I group and classify words, grammatical structures or concepts based on the information provided by the context in a listening text					

24	I relate ideas I come across in other topic to what I listen assist me in comprehending the listening material easily.					
25	I try to relate each conversation to my own background knowledge or experience to help me understand the conversation.					
26	If I do not understand something in a rapid speech, I ask the speaker to slow down the speech, paraphrase it, or say it again					
27	When I face difficulty in understanding a spoken text, I tell myself that I will manage and understand it very well.					
28	After listening, I check to see if I have been able to successfully complete the listening comprehension activities.					
29	I translate words from English into my language or from my language into English for better understanding the information in the text.					
30	After listening, I check whether I have successfully remembered the important information.					
31	After listening, I compare the information I have understood with what the teacher asked me to find out in the listening material.					
32	While listening, I write down the words that I do not know their meanings and ask classmates or look up the dictionary after listening					
33	While listening, I notice the detailed information questions with who, how, when, where and what in the content of the listening topic.					
34	Before I listen to a text, I think ahead and consider the information that I will need in order to successfully accomplish a task.					
35	While listening, I ask myself what I am listening to, and how much I will understand the message in the text.					
36	After listening, I check my listening activities and correct my errors.					
37	While listening, I pay attention to the speed and accent of the speaker.					
38	I overview the new information and link it with the known material.					
39	I self-evaluate my progress and can understand better in future lectures.					
40	After listening, I work with classmates to solve problems, pool information, check notes or get feedback on the listening task.					
41	I encourage myself in mind to ensure that I will be successful and attempt to reduce my anxiety in a listening task.					
42	I watch TV shows in English out of class to improve my listening ability					
43	I plan my schedule so I can have enough time to study all English skills.					
44	After listening, I carefully do my homework or assignment and spend enough time practicing them to improve my English listening ability.					
45	When I worry about whether I can do the tasks well or not during a listening lesson, I try to convince myself through positive-self talk.					
46	While listening, I try to guess the meaning from the speakers' body language and facial expressions					
47	I read the comprehension questions before listening to the text in order to get mentally prepared for the actual listening text.					

48	Before listening, I encourage myself to be confident in listening and understanding the most important points of a listening text.					
49	When I face difficulty in understanding a spoken text, I keep on listening because I expect to understand it later					
50	I visualize the information being said while listening to English oral texts.					

Open-Ended Questions:

1. In your experience, what major problems or difficulties do you encounter in listening to oral texts or performing listening comprehension activities in listening classes?

2. According to your learning experience, what specific strategies or techniques do you use to solve your problems or difficulties in learning listening activities?

3. What are the most useful strategies or procedures you believe produce better results when you learn listening activities in the classroom?

4. According to your experience, what kinds of listening materials would you like to suggest for teaching listening in the future?

5. Do you believe that listening is the most important skill and therefore you seriously learn it inside and outside the classroom to develop good listening ability? Please write down the reason for your yes or no answer:

Yes:.....

No:

Part 3: Affective Sides of Listening Comprehension Questionnaire (ASLQ) Adapted from Several Previous Data collection Instruments

Instruction: This questionnaire is to identify your personal motivation, attitudes, anxiety and beliefs about learning listening skill. It also aims to collect information about your personal process and outcome of learning listening skill in English. Thus, you are kindly requested to rate each statement on a 5-point scale by circling one of the numbers (1, 2, 3, 4 or 5) to indicate your beliefs about the statements. The numbers in the box indicate:

- 1 = Strongly agree,
- 2 = Agree,
- 3 = No opinion,
- 4 = Disagree and
- 5 = Strongly disagree.

No	Questionnaire Items	1	2	3	4	5
1	I feel very happy when my teacher gives me some pre-listening activities					
2	I would be happy to learn grammar lessons rather than to learn listening skill					
3	I usually wait for the teacher to give me answers to the comprehension questions instead of trying to do the work by myself					
4	I feel uncomfortable in listening classes than in other skills classes					
5	I become nervous while listening to unfamiliar topic					
6	I like to improve my listening ability because it helps me take important notes					
7	The most important thing for me to learn English is to get good grades in tests					
8	I find it difficult to improve my listening skill so I do not give attention to it					
9	I like to practice listening comprehension activities in pairs or small groups because these activities can improve my listening ability					
10	I feel happy whenever I have a listening class because I do not have any problems in listening to English oral texts.					
11	I like to learn listening and speaking more than skills since university learning tasks depend on listening and speaking abilities					
12	I get upset whenever I hear unknown words while English listening texts					
13	If the listening text is difficult to understand, I stop listening					
14	I get nervous when I do not hear every word in listening to spoken texts					
15	I feel small group work can increase my interest in learning listening skills					
16	I feel the hardest part of learning English is learning to understand spoken English					
17	I do not like listening classes but I have to sit in the class without any choice because it is a compulsory course in the university					
18	I believe that learning English listening skill is important for understanding English-speaking films, videos, TV or radio and so on					
19	I believe that listening is the most difficult skill to learn					
20	After listening, I do not practice the relevant listening materials anymore					
21	I get nervous when the teacher asks me to do listening comprehension questions in the class which I have not understood the questions					
22	I feel more interested in English listening class than in speaking classes					
23	I believe that listening is the most important skill because without good listening skill, one cannot be successful in any field in the modern world					
24	I do not like listening skill because it cannot help me pass tests and examinations					
25	I like group work because it can lower my anxiety and fear about learning listening					
26	It frightens me when I do not hear what teachers say in English classes					
27	I like English listening materials that can arouse my interest in learning					
28	I always attend listening classes for improving my ability to take notes					
29	Even if I am well prepared for listening class, I feel anxious about it					
30	I believe I can improve my listening ability very well if I make a great effort					

31	When I am able to answer the listening comprehension questions correctly, I feel excited and continue to work harder in the future classes					
32	If my teacher encourages me, I can do listening activities very well					
33	I enjoy listening to extra oral inputs in the listening classes because they expose me to a variety of accents and pronunciations					
34	It embarrasses me to volunteer to answer comprehension questions orally					
35	I am often afraid that other students will laugh at me when I cannot give correct answers to the listening comprehension questions in the class					
36	I often do not like to ask from my classmates for help because I think they may consider me as a weak learner/listener of English					
37	I am afraid that people will not understand me when I speak English in class					
38	I understand everything what my lecturers say therefore I can follow the lectures from beginning to end with no listening problems at all					
39	I am worried about the new words that I cannot understand in the text					
40	I am not happy when I think of having a listening class in the next period					
41	I think listening is essential for learning a language and other subjects					
42	I learn English language best by having things explained to me in detail					
43	I like to have more opportunity to listen and speak with English speakers					
44	It helps me when another student or my teacher encourages me to do listening tasks					
45	I like to learn listening skill because I want to listen to the news of the world					

Open-Ended Questions:

1. What do you feel when you cannot successfully listen to English oral texts and perform listening comprehension activities in the classroom?
2. According to your experience, what are the major factors negatively affecting your motivation or interest in learning listening skills in English?
3. What kinds of teaching methods, techniques or procedures do you think increase your interest and motivation to learn English listening activities in the class?,
4. What do you comment on topics of listening materials or resources to be used in the future classes to promote your interest and motivation to learn listening skill?
5. According to your experience, is listening the easiest or the most difficult skill for you to learn and develop it? Please write down the reason for your yes or no answer:
 Yes:
 No:

Thank you very much for your effort and cooperation.

Appendix C: Original and Improved Questionnaire Items for the Main Study

No	Original Items	Improved Items
12	I group and classify words, grammatical structures or concepts based on the information provided by the context in a listening text	I classify grammatical structures or concepts based on the information I get from the context in a listening text
25	I pay attention to language elements such as pronunciation, intonation and word stress of the speaker to help me understand the message better.	I pay attention to the pronunciation of the speaker to help me understand the message better.
40	I try to relax by taking a deep breath, calming my nerves etc. while listening to spoken texts in English.	I try to relax by taking a deep breath whenever I feel afraid of listening to spoken English
48	After listening, I work with classmates to solve problems, pool information, check notes or get feedback on the listening tasks.	I work with other students to solve problems on the listening tasks.

1) Four original SILL's items and their improved versions for the Main Study

2) Three original and improved items from the ASLQ for the Main Study

No	Original Items	Improved Items
3	I believe that listening is the most important skill because without good listening skill, one cannot be successful in any field in the modern world	I believe that listening is an essential skill for effective communication.
11	I enjoy listening to extra oral inputs in the listening classes because they help expose me learn different to a variety of accents and pronunciations.	I feel listening to audio or video cassettes help me improve my listening ability.
25	I understand everything what the speaker say but I am not able to follow the lectures in the classrooms.	I can listen to what a speaker says but I quickly forget most ideas I heard.

Appendix D: Interview Questions Validation Form to be Commented by Experts

Dear Colleague, this interview is intended to obtain data from EFL learners regarding their use of strategies, listening proficiency and certain affective sides of LC after the intervention program. Please evaluate each item based on the following two criteria: 1) the appropriateness of the question to the research topic and 2) the clarity of the meaning of the question. Please circle your response and make any additional suggestions and comments as much as possible.

Interview Schedule: -----

Venue: -----

Date: -----

Age: -----

Gender: -----

Dear learner, this interview is to gather data regarding your perceptions about the effects of SBI on strategies use, motivation, anxiety (if any) and beliefs about learning listening skills. It also explores your choices of the teaching methods and materials for future listening classes. Thus, you are kindly requested to discuss each question listed in the interview guide. Remember: the information you provide will be kept confidential.

Note: This interview guide consists of six major questions. Now, you can read each question first and then we will start our discussion soon.

1. Would you please describe your desire to learn listening lessons in the classroom?
 - a. how much time do you spend on doing listening activities every day?
 - b. what listening strategies do you personally use to become a better listener?
2. Now, you are attending second semester courses at Samara University, so could you please tell me about listening learning experiences that you:
 - a. had before you came to Samara University?
 - b. have had during the first semester in this university?
3. Based on your experience, do you feel anxious in listening classes? If so, what do you think were the causes? What did you do to reduce your listening anxiety?
4. Would you please tell me what you usually do to understand the main ideas of a listening text
 - a) before listening, b) while listening and c) after listening phases?
5. Based on your learning experiences, please tell me about:
 - a. the types of teaching methods your teachers used to help you learn listening lessons

- b. the type of listening materials your teachers mostly use to teach you listening skills.
6. Before we finish our discussions, I would like you to suggest some points regarding:
- a. your plans for learning listening skill in the future.
 - b. the types of teaching methods and listening materials for future listening classes.

Thank you very much for your effort and cooperation!

Appendix E: Learners' Responses to Interview Questions for the Pilot Study

1. Do you enjoy listening to English? If yes, what types of listening materials do you enjoy?

- I enjoyed most of the listening lessons.
- Working in pair/group was interesting
- Listening to football commentators in English
- I like to listen short stories in English
- Listening to BBC news
- Listening to English news through radio

2. What types of techniques or strategies do you use (a) before listening, (b) while listening and (c) after listening phases?

Pre-listening stage	While-listening stage	Post-listening stage
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Understanding the topic of the text ▪ Predicting by looking at the title or picture ▪ Background information and knowledge ▪ Exchanging information with friends about the topic ▪ Guessing the topic using brainstorming activities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ quickly looking at the title/pictures/questions ▪ Selectively attending to the text for the answer ▪ Predicting what is going to mention in the next part ▪ Relating personal experience to the listening text 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Check interpretation using prior knowledge ▪ Match interpretation with the context of the message ▪ Evaluate my listening ability and strategy use ▪ Answering questions to check my comprehension ▪ Thinking about my problems in understating the passage

3. Based on this semester's learning experience, a) Did you feel frustrated or anxious in doing listening comprehension questions? If yes, b) what do you think were the causes? c) What did you do to reduce your listening anxiety?

- Distracters such as voices and winds from outside the class at while-listening stages
- Listening to a difficult or an unfamiliar topic
- Avoiding feelings concerning anxiety or frustration from my mind
- Taking silent breathes when getting frustrated in the listening classes
- Enjoying attending lessons without thinking too much of anxiety
- Telling my mind to be relaxed in the listening comprehension classes
- Discussing any problems with a learner or learners sitting beside me
- Paying attention to or concentrating on the pre- and while-listening stages

4. What is your opinion about the a) importance of learning listening skill in general? b) ease or difficulty of learning listening skill? and c) benefits of using strategy-based instruction in listening classes?

- Doing many listening comprehension is sometimes boring;
- Did not have much experience of listening to radio before
- Become angry when teachers talk much in the class
- Enjoyed the pre-and post-listening activities
- Listening is the major means of getting knowledge/information
- Listening is an important skill for learning other subjects

5. How did you find the teaching/learning processes?

- This semester's teaching method and listening texts were very important
- The brainstorming activities were very interesting
- I enjoyed a lot in the listening lessons.
- We learnt a lot from each other in the group work exercises.
- Very motivating to work together in a group.
- I did not have so much listening lessons before.
- Did not like to attend English classes in high schools but not here
- Learnt different useful techniques or strategies to improve listening skills
- The short stories were funny, we liked them very much

6. What other methods and materials do you suggest for teaching LC in the future

- Giving supports and advices to students when they have problems
- Include some grammar lessons in English classes
- Listening to new audio/video in English
- Sometimes, include vocabulary exercises
- Use more short stories; they are interesting
- Giving some group assignments are important for marks
- The teacher has to motivate students to learn better
- Prepare appropriate tests and exams for students

Appendix F: Diary Keeping Protocol Validation Form to be Commented by Experts

Dear Colleague, the diary writing form/protocol is intended to obtain data from EFL learners concerning their use of strategies, listening proficiency and certain affective sides of listening skill. Please evaluate the appropriateness and clarity of the guidelines and the 'sentence starters'. Please make suggestions and comments as much as possible

Dear learner, this diary writing form is for you to record the (a) type of lessons you learnt in each listening classes; (b) problems you encounter while listening to English oral texts; (c) what strategies you use to understand spoken texts such as classroom lectures, audio/video cassettes and TV programs; (d) factors that make you happy or unhappy while learning listening lessons; (e) plans you would like to prepare for the next week's lessons and so on. Thus, you are kindly requested to write your diaries as carefully as possible. Remember: all information you write in your diary is confidential.

A. Guidelines: These diary guidelines can help you understand what should be included or excluded in your listening diaries.

1. Please write your diaries from now until the end of the semester.
2. Try to write the details in your diary as quickly as you finish the task or right after the class; otherwise, you may forget the details that are useful for the study.
3. Write your entries in English. You do not worry much about your spelling errors. If you make a mistake while writing, just neatly cross it out and continue writing.
4. You can ask either your teacher or the researcher any questions whenever you face difficulties when you write the diaries.
5. Please also write the date before writing the diary, like: This week on Monday 25/05/2012, I studied the following listening lessons:

B. Diary Writing Form: This diary writing form contains 10 sentence starters. So, you can start writing your diary entries. However, these are not the only sentence starters to write diaries, you can start using other suitable sentence starters of your own.

<p>This week I studied the following listening lessons:</p> <p>.....</p> <p>My difficulties in studying/learning these lessons were:</p> <p>.....</p> <p>My problems while listening to these spoken texts were:</p> <p>.....</p> <p>Things which made me nervous when learning listening lessons were.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>The strategies I used to solve these problems were</p> <p>.....</p> <p>The things I enjoyed most in the teaching/learning process were.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>The new strategies or techniques I learnt this week were</p> <p>.....</p> <p>Next week, I would like to improve my</p> <p>.....</p> <p>I would like help with the following learning problems:</p>
--

Appendix G: Sample Diary Entries for the Pilot Study

1. My problems in learning listening lessons are
Disturbing voices from other students Unable to understand the main ideas in the text Difficulties in doing some comprehension questions Afraid of giving answers orally The rapid talking of the teacher Unable to concentrate for a long time listening Not understanding many new words in the listening text
2. The strategies or techniques I used to solve my listening problems were ...
<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Relaxing before beginning the lesson▪ Guessing the meaning words from contexts▪ Encouragement myself when I feel tired of listening▪ Looking at what the teacher says or does▪ Not to worry about each word when listening▪ Listening to understand the main ideas▪ Asking the classmates and friend for help▪ Asking the teacher when I do not understand
3. The things I enjoyed most in the teaching/learning process were
<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ The warm up activities before listening▪ The story about Mandela▪ The jokes about the cat and the rat▪ Group/pair discussion before listening about the topic▪ Checking and correcting others class activities▪ Learning how to ask speakers to repeat▪ Not to be afraid of asking and answering questions
4. The new strategies I learnt this week were
How to ask questions in English Not trying to understand everything at once Understanding new words from contexts How to set learning goal/plans The use of relaxation during listening How to take important note from lectures Predicting the topic of a listening text Summarize the story after listening
5. My specific learning plans for next week are
Listening to radio in English Listening with concentration Asking for clarifications

Practicing pronunciations in English
Watching ETV news in English
Talking with friends in English
Attending classes regularly
Doing class works regularly

Appendix H: Validated Questionnaires for participants of the Main Study

Dear Student: these questionnaires are designed to gather data about your personal data, strategies use and motivation to learn listening skill. Please complete all questions in the questionnaires according to the instructions given to each. The questionnaires are used only for research purpose and all your responses will be kept confidential.

Part 1: Background Information Questionnaire

Instruction: please read each question in the background questionnaire and circle one or more than one box that describe your feelings most, or write your facts where necessary.

1. ID: _____. 2. Gender: _____. 3. Age: _____.

4. Which type of school did you learn your secondary (9-10) and preparatory (11-12) levels of education? 1. Government, 2. Private, 3. Both government and private schools.

5. Do you enjoy learning English language listening skill? (Tick one) Yes No

6. How important is it for you to learn English listening skill? (Tick one)

Very important Somewhat important I do not know Not important .

7. How easy or difficult has it been for you to learn English listening skill? (Tick one)

Very easy Somewhat easy Moderate Somewhat difficult Very difficult .

8. Which of the following matches your listening ability when compared with other

students' in your class? (Tick one) Excellent Very good Good Fair Poor

Part 2: Listening Strategy Questionnaire (Adapted from Oxford, 1990)

Dear Student: please read each statement on a 5-point Likert scale and put (√) on one of the numbers (1, 2, 3, 4 or 5) that tells the degree of opinion on the strategies you use to learn English listening skill. Note that there is no right or wrong response to any of the items on this

questionnaire. Note also that your responses to the questions will be kept confidential. The numbers in the above box indicate the following:

1 = Never true of me;

2 = Usually not true of me;

3 = Somewhat true of me;

4 = Usually true of me, and

5 = Almost always true of me.

No	Questionnaire Items	1	2	3	4	5
1	When I meet a new word in a listening text, I search in my memory and see if I have any synonyms or antonyms in my memory stock.					
2	I consciously keep in mind the information I need to listen and understand.					
3	When I get a new word in a speech, I try to repeat it loudly or silently to memorize.					
4	I visualize the information being said in English while listening.					
5	I overview the new information to connect it with the old information.					
6	I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page of the listening text or on the blackboard.					
7	When the teacher explains things in English, I note down only the key words instead of writing every word.					
8	I grasp the main idea and ignore unimportant details during listening.					
9	I write down some key points to make summaries of the listening text.					
10	I translate words from English into my language to understand the speech.					
11	I write down the words that I do not know their meanings and ask classmates.					
12	I classify grammatical structures based on the information I get from the context in a listening text					
13	I write down the words that I do not know their meanings in order to look up the dictionary after listening.					
14	I read pre-listening questions to be mentally prepared for the while listening tasks.					
15	I relate ideas I get in other topic to help me understand spoken texts easily.					
16	I extract important information from listening texts so that I can give correct answers to the post-listening questions.					
17	I find the meaning of a word by dividing it into parts that I understand it					
18	I try to identify the purpose of the topic using pre-listening activities.					
19	I watch television shows in English to improve my listening skill.					
20	I listen to new words several times to improve my listening ability.					
21	I use information in the text to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words in a speech.					
22	I guess the meaning of a speech from the speakers' body language.					
23	When I do not understand an idea, I use a word that has the same meaning					

24	I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.						
25	I pay attention to the pronunciation, intonation or word stress of the speaker to help me understand the message of the listening text better.						
26	I set clear goals for studying my listening lessons.						
27	I pay attention to the speed and accents of the speaker during listening.						
28	I evaluate my listening progress for better understanding in future lessons.						
29	I set my study plan so that I can have enough time studying listening skill.						
30	I check the comprehension questions to correct my errors after listening.						
31	I think ahead the information that I need to do listening tasks successfully.						
32	I preview information related to what I am going to listen next.						
33	I check if I successfully complete the listening comprehension questions.						
34	I pay attention to the grammar parts that are used in spoken English.						
35	I try to check if I have understood important ideas what the speaker said.						
36	I pay attention to the pre-listening questions to get ready for while-listening tasks.						
37	When I have difficulty understanding, I pay more attention to work harder.						
38	When I have difficulty understanding a spoken text, I stop listening to it.						
39	When I do not concentrate on listening, I quickly tell myself to concentrate again.						
40	I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of listening to spoken English.						
41	I write down my feelings in my learning diary.						
42	When I worry about my listening ability, I convince myself to improve it soon.						
43	I encourage myself to be confident in listening to spoken English.						
44	I give myself a reward whenever I understand the message successfully.						
45	I ask for help from classmates when I do not understand a spoken text.						
46	If I do not understand something in listening texts, I ask for clarifications.						
47	When I do not understand important points in a rapid speech, I ask the speaker to slow down the speech.						
48	I work with other students to solve problems on the listening tasks.						
49	I ask myself how much I understand the message of the listening texts.						
50	Although I have problems in understanding the listening material, I try to do the work on my own, without asking for help from anyone in the class.						

Open-Ended Questions:

1. What other strategies or techniques do you use to learn your listening skill?
2. What kinds of materials and activities do you think interested in your listening classes?

Part 3: Affective Sides of Listening Comprehension Questionnaire (ASLQ) Adapted from Several Previous Data Collection Instruments

Dear Student: Please read each statement on the Likert scale and put (√) on one of the numbers (1, 2, 3, 4 or 5) that applies to you. Note that there is no right or wrong response to any of the items. The numbers in the above box indicate the following:

1 = Strongly Disagree,
 2 = Disagree,
 3 = No Opinion,
 4 = Agree
 5 = Strongly Agree.

No	Questionnaire Items	1	2	3	4	5
1	My major aim of learning English is to pass tests or exams with higher grades.					
2	I need to improve my listening skill for attending academic lectures effectively.					
3	I believe that listening is an essential skill for effective communication.					
4	I learn listening skill in order to communicate with speakers of English.					
5	I learn listening skill to follow world news through English TV or radio programs					
6	I dislike to attend listening classes because it does not appear in tests or exams					
7	I always attend listening classes to understand and express ideas in discussions.					
8	I believe that listening skill is not as important as other English language skills.					
9	The most important thing for me to learn English is to get a good job in the future.					
10	I learn listening skill because I like it, not to score high marks in tests or exams.					
11	I feel listening to audio or video cassettes help me to improve my listening ability.					
12	I feel different teaching materials increase my motivation to learn listening skill.					
13	I am happy to learn grammar rather than to learn listening skill.					
14	I feel I can improve my listening ability if I make every effort to practice it.					
15	I feel excited when I correctly answer most listening comprehension questions.					
16	I feel anxious when my listening teacher comes to the listening class.					
17	I feel happy when my teacher gives me pre-listening activities about the topics.					
18	I often feel more interested in listening skill than in other English language skills.					
19	I always practice different listening materials to develop my listening ability.					
20	I feel listening comprehension is the most difficult task for me to improve it					
21	I often find it difficult to understand a rapid speech in English					
22	I feel very happy when I think of having listening classes in the next periods.					
23	I often find it difficult to listen to lectures and take notes from lectures.					

24	I feel it is not difficult for me to improve my listening ability.					
25	I can listen to what the speaker says and understand most of the ideas I heard.					
26	I can successfully identify the main ideas in spoken English.					
27	I feel listening is the easiest skill for me to learn and improve it.					
28	I can understand the meanings of new words or phrases used in spoken English.					
29	Listening to spoken English is very easy so I never need help from other students					
29	Even if I am well prepared for listening, I feel anxious during the listening time.					
30	It frightens me when I do not hear what the teacher speaks in English.					
31	I feel nervous when my teacher asks me questions that I have not understood.					
32	I get nervous when I do not hear every word or phrase in spoken English.					
33	My heart beats fast whenever I have listening classes.					
34	I become nervous whenever I listen to unfamiliar listening topics.					
35	I often feel more nervous in the listening classes than in other skills classes.					
36	I get nervous when my teacher asks me listening comprehension questions which I have not understood the questions.					
37	I am often afraid that other students may laugh at me when I give wrong answers.					
38	I feel anxious when my listening teacher comes to the listening class.					
38	I do not like to ask my classmates for help because I think they may call me lazy.					
39	If my teacher encourages me, I can do the listening activities very well.					
40	It helps me when other students encourage me to finish difficult listening tasks.					
41	Listening to spoken English is very easy so I never need help from other students.					
42	I feel working with a partner increases my motivation to learn listening skill.					
43	I feel group work can increase my interest in doing listening comprehensions.					
44	If other students help me, I can do the listening activities very well.					
45	I feel working in pairs or groups can help me improve my listening ability.					

Open ended questions

1. Please explain your feelings or beliefs about learning listening skill in the classroom?

.....

2. What major factors do you think decrease or increase your motivation to learn listening skills

.....

Appendix I: Validated Interview Guide for Participants of the Main Study

Interview Schedule: -----

Venue: -----

Date: -----

Age: -----

Gender: -----

Dear Student: this interview is to gather data about your attitudes towards learning listening skill. It specifically focuses on your listening experiences, interest in learning listening skill and strategies use. Therefore, please share your experiences using these interview questions. All information you provide will be kept confidential.

Warm-up activities for the interview participants

How did you find Samara?'

What do you like about Samara University?

What do not you like about Samara University?

How is a new life here?

Instruction: please read the questions first and then we will start discussing them soon.

1. Do you enjoy listening to spoken English? If yes, what types of listening materials do you enjoy and how often?
2. Would you please tell me what you usually do to understand the main or specific ideas of listening texts? What types of listening strategies do you use (a) before listening? (b) while listening ? (c) after listening phases?
3. In your experiences, do you feel nervous or anxious in the listening classes? If yes,
 - a) what do you think are the main causes of your anxiety while learning listening skill?
 - b). What do you do to reduce your listening comprehension anxiety?
4. From your experiences of this semester lessons, do you think that listening is an easy or a difficult skill to learn?
5. How did you find the teaching and learning processes? Can you say something about the methods and activities used in listening classes?
6. What other methods and materials do you suggest for future listening skills?

Appendix J: Learners' Responses to Interview Questions for the Main Study

1. Do you enjoy listening to English? If yes, what types of listening materials/texts do you enjoy?

- I enjoyed most of the listening lessons.
- Working in pair/group was interesting
- Listening to football commentators in English
- Listening to Aljazeera through TV
- I like to listen short stories in English
- Listening to BBC news
- Listening to radio
- Paying attention to text structure.
- Speaking with teachers and classmates
- Watching English films on TV in order to improve my listening ability

2. What types of listening strategies do you use (a) before listening, (b) while listening and (c) after listening phases?

- Keeping up with the speakers' speed
- Understanding the topic of the text
- Predicting by looking at the title or picture
- Background information and knowledge
- Exchanging information with friends about the topic
- Guessing the topic of the text from the brainstorming activities
- quickly looking at the title/pictures/questions
- preparing my mind to concentrate
- Selectively attending to the text for the answer
- Predicting what is going to mention in the next part
- Relating personal experience to the listening text
- Checking my answers against what you know to determine if the answer makes sense
- Deducing the meaning of unfamiliar lexical items from context
- Selecting relevant key points in listening texts
- Check interpretation against external sources
- Check interpretation using prior knowledge
- Match interpretation with the context of the message
- Evaluate my listening ability and strategy use

- Answering questions to check my comprehension
- Extract salient points from the listening to summarize the text
- Taking notes while listening to the teacher to review them later at home
- Inferencing new word or grammar by guessing what it could mean
- Repeating and translating what the teacher says in my head
- Identifying the purpose of the listening text
- Recognizing formulas and patterns

3. Based on this semester's learning experience, a) Did you feel frustrated or anxious in doing listening comprehension questions? If yes, b) what do you think were the causes? c) What did you do to reduce your listening anxiety?

- Teacher's accidentally calling learners' name to answer questions in speaking
- Teacher's asking learners to respond questions that they do not know the answer
- Distracters such as voices and winds from outside the class at while-listening stages
- Distracting voices from outside the class at while-listening stages
- Doing many post-listening comprehension questions without fully understanding the texts
- Listening to a difficult or an unfamiliar topic
- Avoiding feelings concerning anxiety or frustration from my mind
- Taking silent breathes when getting frustrated in the listening classes
- Enjoying attending lessons without thinking too much of anxiety
- Telling my mind to be relaxed in the listening comprehension classes
- Motivating myself to be clever in English

4. What is your opinion about the a) importance of learning listening skill in general? b) ease or difficulty of learning listening skill? and c) benefits of using SBI in listening classes?

- Doing listening comprehension is sometimes difficult
- Listening is difficult to learn because it does not have rule or formula to follow
- Did not have much experience of listening to radio before
- Feel sleeping when listening to long speech
- Become angry when teachers talk much in the class
- Enjoyed the pre-and post-listening activities
- Listening is the major means of getting knowledge/information
- Listening is an important skill for learning other subjects

5. You are now at the end of the semester course, how did you find the teaching/learning processes?

- This semester's teaching method and listening texts were very important
- The brainstorming activities were very interesting
- I enjoyed a lot in the listening lessons.
- We learnt a lot from each other in the group work exercises.
- Very motivating to work together in a group.
- I did not have so much listening lessons before.
- Did not like to attend English classes in high schools but not here
- Learnt different useful techniques or strategies to improve English listening skills
- The short stories were funny, we liked them very much
- I worry about listening to a difficult or an unfamiliar topic
- The pre-listening activities are very important for motivating learners

6. What other methods and materials do you suggest to teach you listening skills in the future? Can you briefly explain the advantages and disadvantages of listening strategy instruction?

- Giving supports and advices to students when they have problems
- Include some grammar lessons in English classes
- Listening to new audio/video in English
- Sometimes, include vocabulary exercises
- Strategy-sharing discussion
- Dictation exercises are important for listening and taking notes
- Use more short stories; they are interesting
- Giving some group assignments are important for marks
- The teacher has to motivate students to learn better
- Prepare appropriate tests and exams for students
- Include more and interesting topics for speaking

Appendix K: Validated Diary writing Form for Participants of the Main Study

Dear Student: this diary keeping or writing form is for you to record whatever you feel when learning listening skill through the strategy-based instruction approach. You can keep or write your diaries about things that make you happy or unhappy during each listening lesson. You also keep or write diaries about any problems related to the teaching and learning processes. Therefore, please write your diaries as carefully as possible.

A. Guidelines: These guidelines can help you understand what and how to keep diaries.

1. Please write your entries until the end of the semester.
2. Try to write key points in your diary as quickly as you finish the task or right after the class; otherwise, you may forget the details that are useful for the study.
3. Write your diaries in English. You do not worry about the grammar or spelling errors. If you make a mistake when writing, just neatly cross it out and continue writing entries.
4. You can ask your teacher when you face difficulties in writing your diaries.
5. Please write the date before writing the diary, like: This week on Monday 25/05/2013, I studied the following listening lessons:

B. The Diary keeping Form: this diary keeping form contains 5 sentence starters to help you understand how to start writing your diaries. However, these are not the only ones; you can also use other suitable sentence starters of your own to keep listening diaries.

<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. My problems in learning listening lessons are.....2. The strategies or techniques I used to solve these problems were3. The things I enjoyed most in the teaching/learning process were.....4. The new strategies I learnt this week were5. My specific learning plans for next week are

Appendix L: Sample Learners' Diary Entries for the Main Study

1. My problems in learning listening lessons are

- Disturbing voices from other students
- The hottest temperature
- Unable to understand the main ideas in the text
- Difficulties in doing some comprehension questions
- Afraid of giving answers orally in front of learners
- The rapid talking of the teacher
- Unable to concentrate for a long time listening
- Not understanding many new words in the listening text

2. The strategies or techniques I used to solve my listening problems were ...

- Relaxing before beginning the lesson
- Guessing the meaning words from contexts
- Encouragement myself when I feel tired of listening
- Looking at what the teacher says or does
- Not to worry about each word when listening
- Listening to understand the main ideas
- Asking the classmates and friend for help
- Concentrating only on the listening task
- Asking the teacher when I do not understand

3. The things I enjoyed most in the teaching/learning process were

- The warm up activities before listening
- The story about Mandela
- The jokes about the cat and the rat
- Group/pair discussion before listening about the topic
- Checking and correcting others class activities
- Importance of listening skill for learning other subjects
- Learning how to ask speakers to repeat
- Not to be afraid of asking and answering questions

4. The new strategies I learnt this week were

- How to ask questions in English
- Not trying to understand everything at once
- Understanding new words from contexts
- How to set learning goal/plans
- The use of relaxation during listening
- How to take important note from lectures
- Predicting the topic of a listening text
- Summarize the story after listening
- Making conversations with classmates in English
- How to understand ideas using gestures during a conversation in English

5. My specific learning plans for next week are

- Listening to radio in English
- Listening with concentration
- Asking for clarifications
- Finding ways to be a better learner

- Practicing pronunciations in English
- Watching ETV news in English
- Talking with friends in English
- Attending classes regularly
- Doing class works regularly
- Increasing my listening and speaking abilities
- Practicing how to ask and answer questions in English
- Writing my feelings about my listening lessons in my diary
- choosing suitable time and place to study my lessons

Appendix M: Sample Teacher Lesson Plan for the Pilot Study

Sections: _____
 Lesson Topic: An Old Lady
 Time: ____50 minutes
 Teacher's task: _____
 Learners' tasks: _____

Experimental group	Control group
<p>We will listen to a short text (5 minutes) about 'An Old Lady'.</p> <p>What do you think about an 'Old Lady'?</p> <p>Have you come across about an 'Old Lady'?</p> <p>Tell your partner anything you feel about the 'Old Lady'.</p> <p>At the end, you will be asked to orally summarize the text to a partner.</p> <p>Listen to the text on high-speed trains and follow these instructions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Before listening: use the strategy of linking new to known information and write down anything you already know about the 'Old Lady' (old woman). We will briefly discuss your ideas before we start the listening task. - Listen to the text for the first time. Use the strategy of identifying the main points of the text and write them down in the chart given below. -Discuss the strategies you use with peers and compare the main points you have identified with a partner. - Listen to the text for the second time. Use the strategy of identifying details and accompany each main point with a detail that you find interesting or 	<p>We will listen to a short text (5 minutes) about an 'Old Lady'.</p> <p>What do you think about the 'Old Lady'?</p> <p>At the end, you will be asked to orally summarize the text to a partner.</p> <p>x</p> <p>x</p> <p>x</p> <p>Listen to the text about the 'Old Lady' and follow these instructions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Before listening: write down anything you already know about an 'Old lady'(old woman). We will briefly discuss your ideas before we start the listening task.

<p>motivating.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Use the strategy of working with others and compare these details with a partner's. - Work with a partner and use summarizing strategy to orally summarize the content of your chart below. <p>Use the following when listening:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - link new to known information, - find out main and detail points, - take notes, - relax and enjoy the listening classes <p>Reflect on these questions using evaluation strategy:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Do you think it was more interesting to deal with the text in this way instead of simply listening the text? - Do you think that the same strategy could be applied to other listening activities? Which changes would you have to make? - Do you think you could use the same strategy in a real life situation (e.g., while watching a documentary film at home or TV program)? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Listen to the text for the first time. Identify the main points and write them down in the chart given below. - Compare the main points you have identified with a partner. - Listen to the text for the second time. Identify details and accompany each main point with a detail that you find interesting or motivation. - Compare these details with a partner's. -Work with a partner. Orally summarize the content of your chart.
--	---

Guide Sheet for Listening Comprehension Activities

A. Write down two main ideas that you think will be mentioned in the listening text.

1. _____

2. _____

B. Discuss your predictions with a partner and then write down at least three more ideas that your partner included in his/her list of predictions and that you consider logical possibilities:

1. _____

2. _____

C. Listen to the text. Place a check mark beside the ideas that you and your partner predicted and also write down any other ideas that you had not predicted but were mentioned.

1. _____

2. _____

D. Listen to the text again to check your results and to solve any problem in comprehension between you and your partner. Mention any other points and important details that you may not have understood during the first listening:

1. _____

2. _____

Appendix N: Sample Texts for Listening Instruction (Pilot Study)

1) An Old Lady

I am an old lady

And I do not have long to live.

I am only strong enough to take

Not to give. No time left to give.

I want to drink, I want to eat,

I want to my shoes taken off my feet.

I want to talk but not to walk

Because if I walk, I have to know

Where it is I want to go.

I want to sleep but not to dream

I want to play and win every game

To live with love but not to love

The world to move but me not move

I want for ever and ever

The world to work, the world to be clever.

Leave me be, but don't leave me alone.

That is what I want. I am a big round stone

Sitting in the middle of a thunderstorm.

There you are: that is true

That is me. Now; you.

2) Say No to Drugs

We all drugs in one way or another. Drugs are chemicals which have the power to modify the chemistry of our bodies and consequently they also have an influence on the natural balance of our minds and emotions. Some drugs are prescribed for us when we visit the doctor and these drugs can have a beneficial effect if we follow the instruction as to how and when to use them. It is not much of a surprise if, when we have malaria, we are prescribed fansidar or another drug

commonly used in cases of this kind. Almost all of us make use of these drugs, which we commonly call medicine, because of their power to ease and to cure. For example, we use aspirin for headaches, pains and fevers, penicillin for infections and fansidar for malaria.

Addictive drugs

Some drugs are extremely strong, and are dangerous if taken frequently or in large doses. Many of these drugs, such as cocaine and heroin, are illegal in all countries because they can have devastating psychological effects and can lead to addiction. Drug addiction is a state of intoxication produced by repeated consumption of a drug. Its characteristics include a compulsion to continue taking the drug and a tendency to increase the dosage. This process leads to physical and psychological dependence on the substance.

Why take drugs

People turn to addictive drugs for various reasons. Some start taking them just because they want to see what they are like. Others take them because they like the way these drugs make them feel, because they help them to forget their problems because they are bored or frustrated or just because other members of their family or group take them. Whatever their reason for taking them they will not be able to stop taking them without help from other people. And while they are taking their bodies and minds will suffer.

Unfortunately, many people who start taking addictive drugs are unaware of what will happen to them in the future and in Africa drug addiction is on the increase. More and more young people are starting to take drugs. Some of them are rich and some are poor; some live in villages and some live in towns. All of them are in danger.

Appendix O: Sample Teacher Lesson Plan for the Main Study

Sections: _____

Lesson Topic: 'An Old Lady' _____

Time: ____50 minutes_____

Teacher's task: _____

Learners' tasks: _____

Experimental group	Control group
<p>An Old Lady.</p> <p>What do you think about an 'Old Lady'?</p> <p>Have you come across about an 'Old Lady'?</p> <p>Tell your partner anything you feel about the 'Old Lady'.</p> <p>You can predict or guess what the 'Old Lady' looks like in the listening text. At the end, you will be asked to orally summarize the text to a partner.</p> <p>Listen to the text on the Old Lady and follow these instructions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Before listening: use the strategy of linking new to known information and write down anything you already know about the 'Old Lady' (old woman). We will briefly discuss your ideas before we start the listening task. - Listen to the text for the first time. Use the strategy of identifying the main points of the text and write them down in the chart given below. -Use the strategy of cooperating with peers and compare the main points you have identified with a partner. - Listen to the text for the second time. Use the strategy of identifying details and accompany each 	<p>We will listen to a short text (5 minutes) about an 'Old Lady'.</p> <p>What do you think about the 'Old Lady'?</p> <p>At the end, you will be asked to orally summarize the text to a partner.</p> <p>x</p> <p>x</p> <p>x</p> <p>Listen to the text about the 'Old Lady' and follow these instructions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Before listening: write down anything you already know about an 'Old lady'(old woman). We will briefly discuss your ideas before we start the listening task. - Listen to the text for the first time.

<p>main point with a detail that you find interesting or motivating.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Use the strategy of working with others and compare these details with a partner's. - Work with a partner and use the strategy of summarizing to orally summarize the content of your chart below. <p>Use the following when listening:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - link new to known information, - find out main and detail points, - take notes, - relax and enjoy listening classes <p>Reflect on these questions using evaluation strategy:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Do you think it was more interesting to deal with the text in this way instead of simply listening the text? - Do you think that the same strategy could be applied to a listening skill? Which changes would you have to make? - Do you think you could use the same strategy in a real life situation (e.g., while watching a documentary film at home or TV program)? <p>Which changes would you have to make?</p>	<p>Identify the main points and write them down in the chart given below.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Compare the main points you have identified with a partner. - Listen to the text for the second time. Identify details and accompany each main point with a detail that you find interesting or motivation. - Compare these details with a partner's. -Work with a partner. Orally summarize the content of your chart. <p>x</p> <p>x</p> <p>x</p> <p>x</p> <p>x</p> <p>x</p>
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Guide Sheet for Listening

A. Write down two main ideas that you think will be mentioned in the listening text.

1. _____

2. _____

B. Discuss your predictions with a partner and then write down at least three more ideas that your partner included in his/her list of predictions and that you consider logical possibilities:

1. _____

2. _____

C. Listen to the text about the 'Old Lady'. Place a check mark beside the ideas that you and your partner predicted and also write down any other ideas that you had not predicted but were mentioned.

1. _____

2. _____

D. Listen to the text again to check your results and to resolve any discrepancies in comprehension the text between you and your partner. Mention any other points and important details that you may not have understood during the first listen:

1. _____

2. _____

E. Listen to the text a third time to verify comprehension after a class discussion of the content of the listening text.

F. Write things that made you happy, unhappy, or that you found surprising, difficult and so forth in your diary keeping or writing form:

1. _____

2. _____

Appendix P: Sample Texts for Listening Instruction (Main Study)

1) An Old Lady

I am an old lady
And I do not have long to live.
I am only strong enough to take
Not to give. No time left to give.
I want to drink, I want to eat,
I want to my shoes taken off my feet.
I want to talk but not to walk
Because if I walk, I have to know
Where it is I want to go.
I want to sleep but not to dream
I want to play and win every game
To live with love but not to love
The world to move but me not move
I want for ever and ever
The world to work, the world to be clever.
Leave me be, but don't leave me alone.
That is what I want. I am a big round stone
Sitting in the middle of a thunderstorm.
There you are: that is true
That is me. Now; you.

2) Say No to Drugs

We all drugs in one way or another. Drugs are chemicals which have the power to modify the chemistry of our bodies and consequently they also have an influence on the natural balance of our minds and emotions. Some drugs are prescribed for us when we visit the doctor and these drugs can have a beneficial effect if we follow the instruction as to how and when to use them. It is not much of a surprise if, when we have malaria, we are prescribed fansidar or another drug commonly used in cases of this kind. Almost all of us make use of these drugs, which we

commonly call medicine, because of their power to ease and to cure. For example, we use aspirin for headaches, pains and fevers, penicillin for infections and fansidar for malaria.

Addictive drugs

Some drugs are extremely strong, and are dangerous if taken frequently or in large doses. Many of these drugs, such as cocaine and heroin, are illegal in all countries because they can have devastating psychological effects and can lead to addiction. Drug addiction is a state of intoxication produced by repeated consumption of a drug. Its characteristics include a compulsion to continue taking the drug and a tendency to increase the dosage. This process leads to physical and psychological dependence on the substance.

Why Take Drugs

People turn to addictive drugs for various reasons. Some start taking them just because they want to see what they are like. Others take them because they like the way these drugs make them feel, because they help them to forget their problems because they are bored or frustrated or just because other members of their family or group take them. Whatever their reason for taking them they will not be able to stop taking them without helping from other people. And while they are taking their bodies and minds will suffer.

Unfortunately, many people who start taking addictive drugs are unaware of what will happen to them in the future and in Africa drug addiction is on the increase. More and more young people are starting to take drugs. Some of them are rich and some are poor; some live in villages and some live in towns. All of them are in danger.

Appendix Q: Instructor Checksheet for Experimental Fidelity (Main Study)

Instructor: _____ Day: _____ Week: _____ Month: _____

Dear instructor, this checksheet is for you to use it as a guide when implementing the strategy-based instruction (SBI) in the EG's class. So, please put a check mark in the box for each day of the week to indicate that you implemented each of the elements of the SBI listed in the table below. If you were unable to implement any one of these elements, please give reasons or comments in the space provided below the table. Thank you!

No	Elements of Strategy-Based Instruction	M	T	W	Th	F
1	I write the topic of the daily lesson on the chalkboard or poster and explain its objective					
2	I provide learners with certain brainstorming activities to activate their background knowledge and prior experiences					
3	I explain certain difficult words and structures to learners during the pre-listening phase					
4	I make learners listen to the oral text two or three times when necessary					
5	I introduce, present, model and practice two or three listening strategies during each classroom lesson					
6	I give learners adequate time to practice the listening strategies previously presented, modeled and practiced					
7	I give learners 6 to 7 minutes to summarize a short listening text and report their summaries orally at the post-listening stage					
8	I encourage learners to ask or answer questions and to participate in group discussions when necessary					
9	I guide or organize learners to do listening tasks in pairs or groups before and after each daily lesson					
10	I consult and advise learners when necessary to build up their confidence and decrease their anxiety in each class session					
11	I give enough time for learners to compare and evaluate their understandings of the newly learnt listening text and strategies.					
12	I remind learners of keeping learning diaries during or at the end of each daily lesson					

Reasons: _____

Comments:

Appendix R: Listening Proficiency Test Format and Items

Date: _____

Section: _____

Student ID: _____

Time: _____

Dear Student: the purpose of this test is to understand the level of your listening proficiency before and after the implementation of strategy-based instruction. There are four scripts in this test. Each script is accompanied by various questions. You are kindly requested to listen to the scripts and answer all questions within 40 minutes. Results of the are used only for research purpose and all your responses will be kept confidential.

General instructions

- i. Please write your ID number and group/class on the answer sheet.
- ii. Please read the questions carefully before answering.
- iii. This test comprises 40 questions. Every question carries one mark each
- iv. Attempt all questions.
- v. Return the question paper along with the answer sheet.

Section 1 Questions 1-10. First answer Questions 1-5 by completing the form below. Write NO MORE THAN ONE WORD OR A NUMBER for each answer.

VIDEO LIBRARY APPLICATION FORM

Example Answer: Surname: Jones

First names: Louise Cynthia

Address: Apartment 1, 72 (1) Street High bridge

Post code: (2).....

Telephone: 9835 6712 (home) (3) (work)

Driver's license number: (4)

Date of birth: Day: 25th Month: (5) Year: 1977

Questions 6—8: Circle THREE letters A-F. What types of films does Louise like?

- A Action
- B Comedies
- C Musicals
- D Romance
- E Westerns
- F Wildlife

Questions 9 and 10: Write NO MORE THAN THREE WORDS for each answer

- 9. How much does it cost to join the library?
- 10. When will Louise's card be ready?

Section 2 Questions 11-20: First answer Questions 11-13 by completing the notes below:

Write NO MORE THAN THREE WORDS for each answer.

Expedition across Attora Mountains

- Leader: Charles Owen
- Prepared a (11)for the trip
- Total length of trip (12).....
- Climbed highest peak in (13)

Questions 14 and 15: Circle the correct letters A-C.

- 14. What took the group by surprise?
 - A the amount of rain
 - B the number of possible routes
 - C the length of the journey
- 15 How did Charles feel about having to change routes?
 - A He reluctantly accepted it.
 - B He was irritated by the diversion.
 - C It made no difference to his enjoyment.

Questions 16—18: Circle THREE letters A-F.

What does Charles say about his friends?

- A. He met them at one stage on the trip.
- B. They kept all their meeting arrangements.
- C. One of them helped arrange the transport.
- D. One of them owned the hotel they stayed in.
- E. Some of them travelled with him.
- F. Only one group lasted the 96 days.

Questions 19 and 20: Circle TWO letters A-E.

What does Charles say about the donkeys?

- A He rode them when he was tired.
- B He named them after places.
- C One of them died.
- D They behaved unpredictably.
- E They were very small.

Section 3 Questions 21-30: First answer Questions 21-25 by completing the table below. Write NO MORE THAN THREE WORDS for each answer.

	TIM	JANE
Day of arrival	Sunday	(21)
Subject	History	(22)
Number of books to read	(23)	(24)
Day of first lecture	Tuesday	(25)

Questions 26-30: Write NO MORE THAN THREE WORDS for each answer

26 What is Jane's study strategy in lectures?

27 What is Tim's study strategy for reading?

28 What is the subject of Tim's first lecture?

29 What is the title of Tim's first essay?

30 What is the subject of Jane's first essay?

Section 4 Questions 31-40: First answer Questions 31-35 by completing the table below.

Write NO MORE THAN THREE WORDS for each answer.

Course	Type of course: duration and level	Entry requirements
Physical Fitness Instructor	Example, Six-month certificate	None
Sports Administrator	(31)	(32)
		in sports administration
Sports Psychologist	(33)	Degree in psychology
Physical Education Teacher	Four-year degree in education	(34)
Recreation Officer	(35)	None

This time, complete the table below. Write appropriate letters A-G against Questions 36-40.

Job	Main role
Physical Fitness Instructor	(36).....
Sports Administrator	(37)

Sports Psychologist	(38).....
Physical Education Teacher	(39)
Recreation Officer	(40)

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- A the coaching of teams
- B the support of elite athletes
- C guidance of ordinary individuals
- D community health
- E the treatment of injuries
- F arranging matches and venues
- G the rounded development of children

Appendix S: The Pre/Post Listening Proficiency Test Scores of the Pilot Study

Raw scores of the control and experimental groups from the listening proficiency test

No	Test Scores of Learners in the CG		No	Test Scores of Learners in the EG	
	Pretest	Posttest		Pretest	Posttest
1	10	11	1	4	9
2	5	6	2	6	11
3	6	7	3	5	7
4	10	10	4	12	10
5	7	7	5	6	13
6	12	9	6	7	12
7	8	11	7	11	10
8	11	10	8	8	11
9	9	13	9	7	8
10	12	8	10	10	12
11	7	10	11	9	14
12	11	9	12	8	11
13	8	11	13	11	13
14	8	8	14	13	15
15	10	6	15	9	10
16	5	5	16	6	9
17	9	10	17	10	12
18	7	12	18	6	10
19	5	9	19	-	-

Appendix T: The Pre/Post Listening Proficiency Test Scores of the Main Study

Raw scores of the control and experimental groups from the listening proficiency test

No	Test Scores of Learners in the CG		No	Test Scores of Learners in the EG	
	Pretest	Posttest		Pretest	Posttest
1	7	8	1	6	13
2	9	11	2	7	9
3	11	12	3	4	12
4	6	6	4	11	11
5	9	7	5	5	14
6	7	5	6	10	9
7	8	7	7	8	12
8	10	12	8	7	8
9	8	11	9	12	10
10	12	8	10	9	13
11	9	9	11	7	11
12	10	12	12	9	15
13	5	9	13	8	7
14	9	6	14	10	13
15	8	11	15	6	9
16	12	10	16	9	14
17	7	8	17	13	12
18	13	10	18	9	15
19	8	9	19	7	11
20	4	11	20	12	9
21	6	8	21	11	13
22	10	4	22	8	10
23	4	6	23	5	9
24	9	10	24	7	12
25	11	8	25	9	10
26	8	9	26	12	13
27	10	11	27	5	14
28	8	9	28	6	15
29	6	6	29	7	10
30	12	10	30	8	14
31	7	12	31	10	15
32	9	7	32	5	13
33	5	9	33	7	10
34	11	3	34	9	15
35	6	6	35	10	13
36	9	10	36	12	14
37	-	-	37	6	9

Appendix U: Transcripts of the Listening Proficiency Test

SECTION 1

LOUISE: Oh hello, I'd like to join the video library.

MR MAX: OK. Would you like to fill in the application form now?

LOUISE Yes, I can do it now.

MR MAX Hold on and I'll get a form. Now, I'll just ask you a few questions and then I'll get you to sign at the bottom.

LOUISE: Right.

MR MAX: What's your full name?

LOUISEL: Louise Cynthia Jones.

Example

MR MAX: Jones?

LOUISE: Yes, that's right.

MR MAX: OK, and what's your address?

LOUISE Apartment 1, 72 Black Street, Highbridge. Q1

MR MAX Black Street, that's just around the corner, isn't it?

LOUISE Yes.

MR MAX OK, so the post code is 2085, right? Q2

LOUISE Yes, 2085.

MR MAX Mm. And your telephone number? I need both home and work.

LOUISE Home is 9835 6712 and work is 9456 1309. Do you need any ID or anything Q3 like that?

MR MAX Yes, we need your driver's licence number, that is if you have one.

LOUISE Yes, I know it off by heart, it's an easy one, 2020BD. Do you need to see it?

MR MAX Yes, I'm afraid I do.

LOUISE Mm . . . here.

MR MAX Right, thanks. And could you tell me your date of birth please?

LOUISE' 25 July 1977. Q5

MR MAX: That's the most important part out of the way, but could I just ask you a few questions for a survey we're conducting?

LOUISE: OK.

MR MAX: What kind of videos do you prefer to watch? Have a look at this list.

LOUISE: Well, I love anything that makes me laugh. I just love to hear jokes and funny Q6 punch lines. I'm not very keen on westerns, although my father likes them, but I'm a real softie, so anything with a bit of a love story is good for me. It doesn't Q7 matter how old. Not musicals though, they're too much!

MR MAX: Anything else?

LOUISE; I'm completely taken by documentaries of the great outdoors, you know the Q8 sort, animals, plants and far places. I saw a wonderful one on dolphins last week. It was amazing.

MR MAX: Now, I think that's all from me, except I need you to sign here on the line. Here's a pen. Oh, and I nearly forgot, the membership fee. \$25, refundable if you leave Q9 the library for any reason.

LOUISE: There you are. And do I sign here?

MR MAX: Yes, that's it. You can borrow videos now, if you like, but your card won't be Q10 ready until next week. You can come and pick it up when you bring your first videos back. That is if you want to take some now.

LOUISE: Yes, I'd like to. I'll have a look around. MR MAX: Fine.

SECTION 2

INTERVIEWER A dream came true in 1995, when over 96 days of the spring and summer, an expedition of four men undertook what they believe to have been the first and only complete end-to-end crossing of Morocco's Attora mountains. I talked to Charles Owen, the leader of the expedition group, about the trip.

Charles, how much planning went on beforehand?

CHARLES Well, as you know, I run these walking trips across the mountains for tourists and over the years, I've collected maps and other data to prepare Q1J what I call a 'route book' for this trip and this book shows the route across the mountains that we took.

INTERVIEWER: You actually broke records while you were out there, didn't you?

CHARLES Mmm. Yes, it was 900 miles in total and we managed to climb 32 peaks Q12 that were over 3000 metres high, including Toubkal, which is of course the Q13 highest in North Africa. We weren't out to make a name for ourselves - it just happened really.

INTERVIEWER: What was the weather like?

CHARLES: It got us right from day one and we were pretty taken aback really to find Q14 that it rained on quite a number of days, and so we were forced to start re-planning our route almost from the outset. One of the obvious problems is the heavy snow which blocks the mountain passes, so you have to make considerable detours. When we were on the way to Imilchil, for example, the snow forced us into a northern bypass which was new to us, but anyway, either way we would have been rewarded because we fell upon amazing, high meadows, huge gorges and wonderful snow-capped mountains. The scenery was as fine as any we saw on the trip and that was how it was every time - having to take another pass was never a Q15 disappointment.

INTERVIEWER: It was in many ways a social trip, wasn't it?

CHARLES:: Yes, yes . . . we'd arranged to meet up with friends at various points on the journey. I mean this was actually one of the purposes of the trip . . . and we managed to keep all these dates, which is amazing really considering the Q16. detours we made. An old friend acted as a sort of transport organiser for Q17 everyone and the Hotel Ali in Marrakech was a good social base - I'd really recommend it, although I can't remember who runs it. Anyway, groups of • Q18 friends actually joined us for three-week stints and others just linked up with us. Some, whom we hadn't met before the trip at all, tagged on for short bursts - people from the area - who just came along for the ride. But outside the major visitor areas like Toubkal we only met one other group of travellers like ourselves in the whole 96 days.

INTERVIEWER: Were there any bad moments? CHARLES We took two, I must say, long-suffering donkeys with us to help transport water and tents and things. I suppose if we were to do it all again we'd probably hire donkeys along the way. Taza and Tamri, as we called them Q19 after the last places in the trip, well, they made quite a unique journey between them, and . . . but

it was continuously demanding for them. On both the really high summits, they took diversions that were quite out of Q20 character and I can only assume that it must have been tiredness.

SECTION 3

JANE: Hi Tim! (Tim: Jane.) How are you? (Tim: Fine.) I'd been wondering when I'd run into you. Have you been here long?

TIM: I arrived yesterday, on Sunday. How about you?

JANE: I got here a few days ago, on Saturday. No - wait a minute, what's today? - Sorry Friday, not Saturday. Q21

TIM: But we didn't have to be here till today.

JANE: Yes, I know, but I wanted to get my things moved into my room, and just take a look around. So, did you decide to do English in the end?

TIM: No, I changed my mind and opted for history instead. And you're doing biology, if Q22 I remember correctly.

JANE: Yes, although to start with I couldn't decide between that and geography.

TIM: How much reading have you got? I was given an amazingly long list of books to read. See!

JANE: Wow, it does look pretty long.

TIM: Well, I counted 57. I could hardly believe it! What's your list like? Q23

JANE: Well, it's not as long as yours, but it's still pretty big. There are 43. I don't know Q24 how I'm going to get through them all.

TIM: Well you don't have to read them all this week! You just have to stay ahead of the lectures and seminars. Have you got your class schedule yet?

JANE: Yep. It came with the reading list. When's your first lecture?

TIM: Tuesday. How about you?

JANE: The day after. It's my busiest day; I've got two lectures in the morning and one in Q25 the afternoon.

JANE: It's going to be different from school, isn't it!

TIM: Yeah, particularly the lectures. Have you got any strategy for listening to lectures?

JANE: Well I'm going to use a cassette recorder and record them all. Q26

TIM: What! Are you allowed to?

JANE: Sure. Lots of people do it nowadays. It means you can listen to the lectures all over again later, and make really good notes.

TIM: I couldn't do that. I like to take notes as I'm listening. I usually find I get all the important points. Reading is different of course. My approach is to skim the book Q27 first to see what's important and what isn't. It saves hours of time.

JANE: But what if you miss something?

TIM: You don't mean you're going to read every word, do you?

JANE: Well, that's what I usually do.

TIM: Well, that's up to you, but I think you're crazy!

JANE: What's your first lecture on, anyway?

TIM: Oh, it's a lecture on the French Revolution. Q28

JANE: The French Revolution! How boring!

TIM: It's not boring at all! It was an amazing period of history. It changed everything in Europe. So what's your first lecture about?

JANE: It's about animal behavior. It sounds really interesting.

TIM: Look, I was on my way to the library. I'm going to get some of these books out and start reading for the first essay I've got to write.

JANE: And what have you got to write about?

TIM: Well, you'll never believe it, I think our professor must have a sense of humour.

He's given us the title "Why study history?" Q29

JANE: That's a good one. When you find the answer, let me know!

TIM: I'm going to enjoy writing it. Have you been given any writing assignments yet?

JANE: Yes, I've got to write about animal language. Q30

TIM: That sounds a challenge. I suppose you'll be off to the zoo to do field research.

SECTION 4

LECTURER: Welcome to further education Information Week. This is the Physical Education Faculty's session and I'm the Head of the Faculty. During the course of this morning we hope to give you a clear idea of what we offer in our training programs and we will look at the types of courses and the entry requirements, if any, for those courses. Some of these courses are open to school leavers but for some you need previous qualifications, or relevant successful employment.

So firstly, the Physical Fitness Instructor's course is offered as a six-month certificate Example course which includes an important component of personal fitness but there are no specific entry requirements. For Sports Administrators we provide a four-month certificate course but you should be Q31 aware that this is designed for those who are in employment. This employment must be Q32 current and related to sports administration.

For the Sports Psychologist course we offer a one-year diploma course, but this diploma Q33 course is available only to those who already hold a degree in psychology, so you need to make sure you have that before you apply to do this course. Now . . . for Physical Education Teachers we offer a four-year degree in education. This degree course is designed for preparing students to teach in primary and secondary Schools and needs no prior qualifications as it is entered directly by school leavers. Q34 And lastly for the Recreation Officer's course we offer a six-month

certificate. Entry to Q35 this course normally includes applicants of a wide range of ages and experiences, but we do not insist on any prerequisites for this course.

Remember that this is a vocational training institute. We train you so that you can take up a particular kind of job. So it is important that you know the main roles of the jobs - what the work is like and what kind of qualities you need to succeed at them. A Physical Fitness Instructor works in health and fitness centers preparing individual Q36 programs for ordinary members of the public. Physical Fitness Instructors prepare routines of exercises to suit the individual client's age and level of fitness. Sports Administrators run clubs and sporting associations. Their duties include such Q37 things as booking playing fields with local councils and organizing the schedule of games or events for the club, so they need good organizational skills. Sports Psychologists spend time with professional athletes helping them approach Q38 competition with a positive mental attitude to enable them to achieve their personal best. They do this by improving motivation and concentration or assisting with stress management.

Physical Education or PE Teachers instruct young students in how to exercise, play Q39 sport, and do other recreational activities correctly and safely. PE teachers help the development of co-ordination, balance, posture, and flexibility with things like simple catching and throwing skills. They are not expected to be experts in all sports, but must be able to show students the basic techniques involved in a wide range of activities. Recreation Officers often find themselves working for local government authorities and local groups. Their aim is to raise people's awareness of healthy lifestyles and improved Q40 general fitness through arranging recreational activities for groups of all ages from the very young to the elderly. There are many other job opportunities which our graduates can look forward to. If you are interested in any of these, you are welcome.