A QUALITATIVE INVESTIGATION OF THE CHARACTERISTICS OF LANGUAGE LEARNERS AS LISTENERS ACCORDING TO THE STRATEGIES THEY USE IN EFL LISTENING

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DİNLEME SÜREÇLERİNDE KULLANDIKLARI STRATEJİLERE GÖRE DİNLEYİCİ OLARAK DİL ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN ÖZELLİKLERİNİN NİTEL BİR ÇALIŞMASI

(A Qualitative Investigation of the Characteristics of Language Learners as Listeners According to the Strategies They Use in EFL Listening)

DOKTORA TEZİ

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ÖZET

DOKTORA TEZİ

DİNLEME SÜREÇLERİNDE KULLANDIKLARI STRATEJİLERE GÖRE DİNLEYİCİ OLARAK DİL ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN ÖZELLİKLERİNİN NİTEL BİR ÇALIŞMASI

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Bu çalışmanın amacı, yabancı dil öğrencilerinin dinleyici olarak özelliklerinin belirlenmesidir. Çalışma ağırlıklı olarak nitel araştırma yöntemi kullanılarak yürütülmüştür. Atatürk Üniversitesi Kazım Karabekir Eğitim Fakültesi Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Bölümü, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim dalındaki 10 öğrenci çalışmanın katılımcıları olmuştur. Katılımcıların tamamı birinci sınıf öğrencileri arasından seçilmiştir. Çalışma planı ve evreleri taslak olarak belirlendikten sonra katılımcılarla benzer özelliklere sahip iki yabancı dil öğrencisiyle pilot çalışma gerçekleştirilmiş ve çalışma planında gerekli düzeltmeler yapılmıştır. Ana çalışma iki evreden oluşmaktadır. İlk evrede ilgili bölümün 1. Sınıf öğrencilerine yönelik bir 'dinleme stratejileri anketi' uygulanmış ve bu anketin sonuçlarına dayanılarak dinleme stratejilerinin kullanım düzeyi belirlenmiştir. Likert türündeki ölçekte yer alan maddeler araştırmacı tarafından puanlandırılmış ve katılımcıların strateji kullanım düzeyleri puan olarak sıralanmıştır. SPSS yardımıyla gerçekleştirilen analizler ışığında dinleme stratejileri kullanım düzeyi en yüksek puana sahip olan 10 öğrenci çalışmanın ikinci evresine katılımcı olarak seçilmiştir. İkinci evre nitel araştırma yöntemi kullanılarak gerçekleştirilmiştir. Seçilen katılımcılarla görüşme yapılmış ve bu görüşmeler aracılığıyla onların dinleyici olarak özelliklerinin belirlenmesi amaçlanmıştır. Yarı yapılandırılmış görüşme tekniğiyle toplanan veri, araştırmacı tarafından yazıya geçirilmiş ve içerik analizi yoluyla incelenmiştir. Araştırma sonuçlarına göre dil öğrencilerinin belirli bazı güçlü ve zayıf dinleyici özellikleri gösterdikleri saptanmıştır. Ayrıca bu özelliklerin, literatürde yer alan ilgili çalışmaların bulgularıyla da büyük oranda örtüştüğü gözlemlenmiştir. Araştırma sonucunda, literatürde yer almayan bazı yeni özellikler ortaya çıkmış ve bu özellikler de yabancı dilde dinleme becerisi ve dinleme becerisinin bir dil ve iletişim aracı olarak önemi bağlamında değerlendirilmişlerdir. Belirlenen dinleyici özellikleri

beş büyük faktör altında gruplandırılmıştır. Çalışmanın bulgularının, kuramdan uygulamaya dil öğretiminde dinleme becerisi açısından yararlı olacağı ve dinleme becerisinin süreç odaklı incelenmesine ışık tutacağı düşünülmektedir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: dinleme becerisi; dinleyici özellikleri; dinleme stratejileri; beş büyük faktör; yabancı dilde dinleme.

ABSTRACT

DOCTORAL DISSERTATION (Ph.D.)

A QUALITATIVE INVESTIGATION OF THE CHARACTERISTICS OF LANGUAGE LEARNERS AS LISTENERS ACCORDING TO THE STRATEGIES THEY USE IN EFL LISTENING

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This study aims to investigate the characteristics of language learners as listeners. The study was predominantly based on quasi-experimental research design. However, it is obvious that qualitative part is the dominant one in gathering the data. Ten students, who were studying as freshman students at English Language Teaching Department of Kazım Karabekir Faculty of Education at Atatürk University, were the participants of the study. All participants were selected among freshman students of the department. After determining the draft of study plan, a pilot study was conducted with two equivalent participants and the study plan was revised according to the pilot study. Main study was conducted in two phases. In the first phase a 'listening strategy inventory' (Nakatani, 2006) was conducted to all freshman students of the department. Based on the results of this inventory, the levels of using listening comprehension strategies were determined. The items of the Likert-type inventory were graded by the researcher himself and the participants' levels of using listening strategies were scored and listed in a score-basis ranking. After analyzing data with SPSS, ten students, whose scores of listening strategy use were the highest of the group, were selected as the participants of the second phase of the study. The second phase was conducted in a qualitative research design. Interviews were conducted with selected participants and through these interviews it was aimed to determine their characteristics as listeners. Data which was collected with semi-structured interviews was transcribed verbatim by the researcher himself and then it was analyzed with content analysis method. According to results of the study, language learners were determined to have some 'good' and 'poor' listener characteristics. Besides, these characteristics were observed to have coincided with relevant literature. The results of the study revealed some newly

explored listener characteristics which do not exist in literature. These characteristics were also discussed in context with second language listening and listening as a skill of both language and communication. The characteristics of listeners determined in this study were grouped under big five factors (BFF). The findings of the study are believed to be helpful in terms of listening in language teaching as well as shedding light on studying listening as a process.

Key Words: listening skill; characteristics of listeners; listening comprehension strategies; big five factors (BFF); second language listening.

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CONTENTS

CHAPTER THREE

CHAPTER FOUR

CHAPTER FIVE

CHAPTER SIX

CHAPTER SEVEN

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER ONE

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background to the Study

English with its uses in international trade, diplomacy, communication, science, entertainment and the Internet, is accepted as a shared language of the whole world. Furthermore it is getting more and more dominant and extensive with the boost of globalism. Many notions have been coined in parallel to the advance of the status of English. ESL (English as a Second Language), EIL (English as an International Language), ELF (English as a Lingua Franca), TESOL (Teaching English to the Speakers of Other Languages), ELT (English Language Teaching) are just some examples of these notions.

In Turkey, English has no official status. However it is of vital importance for almost all grades of the educational system as well as business and tourism. In addition, people experience high exposure to English in their daily lives through various media such as TV, the Internet, etc.

Being the most widely used foreign language, English is a necessity for every segment of society from young generations seeking prestigious job opportunities in accordance with their educational qualifications to academicians and even to everyday citizens whose mere aim may be to get access to social networks such as Facebook, Twitter, etc. Seeing these facts, public and private schools allocate a good deal of their energy and resources in teaching English to their students. Private schools mostly begin teaching English at the kindergarten while public schools begin it at the very early classes of primary education. There seems to be a tendency of beginning language teaching and learning processes as early as possible for all types of schools. On the other hand, it is a routine for the government to arrange common public education courses and classes through the community colleges by especially aiming at teaching

English to those who are out of the formal education system. To sum up, learning English is one of the most desired objectives of today's world.

Learning a language entails acquisition of the skills to enable the learner to communicate with the world. These skills were seen as merely reading and writing once, later on speaking was added to the list. Listening remained isolated from being a language skill to be acquired and developed. However listening has a key role in that it is probably the most powerful means of input. Alexander (2008) claims that comprehension and meaning of any text are accessed by the ear as well as the eye. The importance of listening was emphasized during the early 20th century by some resources prepared to be used in language teaching in the U.K. The Board of Education (1937) defines basics on the importance of listening: 'English, in short, is on the one side listening and reading, on the other side speaking and writing' in a handbook of suggestions for teachers prepared in the thirties. In a compiled work by a teacher's committee, the ways of understanding the thoughts of others are described as listening and reading (IAAMSS, 1952: 6). In any attempt to understand it as a language skill and a process of acquisition, listening cannot be isolated from communication. Listening is, along with speaking, also one of two dimensions of communication. Paradoxically, effective speaking skill is accepted to be a talent historically, while little or no attention has been paid to listening.

Recent studies in both fields re-define and re-allocate listening as a human ability. Listening seems to recapture the glory it possessed in ancient times. Ames, Maissen, and Brockner (2012) points the fact that those who listen well may reap both informational and relational benefits that make them more influential.

1.2. Statement of Problem

Any study aiming at exploring listening should have its basics in the historical development and contemporary status of listening both as a communicational skill and one of the four language skills. Surprisingly, listening seems to have lost its importance up until recent years, though having considerable significance in ancient times, i.e. in the works of Plato. Haroutunian-Gordon (2011) points out the fact that listening has deep roots in philosophy and communication which are two of leading/basic human

activities. A modern and innovative approach to re-discover listening in ESL/EFL context needs to be based on mostly communication and philosophy in which listening is credited and well-explored.

The amount of time devoted to the research and teaching of listening is far less than that devoted to other components of communication such as speaking and reading (Adler & Rodman, 2006; Barker, 1971). Even the slightest review of literature on reading or writing will return many topics. On the other hand, more and more effort and in-depth research will be needed if the keyword is 'listening'. The nature of listening, process of listening, characteristics of listeners and listening in the target language are prospective topics to be studied by researchers.

As being the most neglected language skill not only in practice but also in theory, listening has many problems to be solved. These problems cannot be solved without the support of theory being put into the practice. In order to suggest reasons and solutions to the problems of the process, listening needs to be investigated thoroughly. The main causes underlying the failure of listening in practice, perhaps, is the lack of theoretical background. Studies mostly focus on the product of the skill instead of defining the process. Recent and ongoing studies do not go beyond setting some experimental research designs most of which aim to find out the difference between the two groups by means of the product of listening. It is customary for these studies to divide the subjects as experimental and control groups. These types of studies are focused on the product of the subjects as well as the efficiency of some treatments or methods etc. Listening literature is full of product-oriented experimental studies. There are only a few promising innovative examples dealing with the process of listening in a qualitative or descriptive manner. Vandergrift (1997) points out the importance of qualitative studies as having a key role in understanding and uncovering listening as a process. According to Flowerdew and Miller (2005), listening is a cognitive activity and not susceptible to direct observation. Many researchers define it as the least explicit of the four language skills and they suggest that listening involves physiological and cognitive processes at different levels (Field, 2002; Lynch, 2002; Rost, 2002; Vandergrift, 2004).

1.3. Aim of the Study

Aiming at investigating the characteristics of language learners as listeners according to the strategies they use in EFL listening, this study is expected to contribute to the field with its method and procedure, findings and concluding remarks. Turkish advanced students of the English Language Teaching (ELT) Department constitute participants. As little or no listening instruction is observed in lower levels, this study is planned to be performed with advanced learners having at least one term of listening instruction.

1.4. Research Questions

To help narrow the purpose of this qualitative study without avoiding emerging questions in the course of the study, research questions were posed as follows:

1. Which listening strategies do the EFL learners use in listening comprehension?
2. What are the characteristics of language learners as listeners?
3. What is the relationship/interaction between predetermined characteristics of language learners as listeners and the strategies they use in EFL listening?
4. How do the learners describe themselves by means of the relationship between the strategies they use and the characteristics as listeners?

These research questions will be addressed through one-on-one interviewing after conducting a questionnaire to determine the strategies subjects use in EFL listening.

1.5. Definition of Terms

As a predominantly qualitative one, this study investigates characteristics of learners as listeners in accordance with the strategies they use in EFL listening. It is necessary to define the most recurrent terms in the study which are listening, listening strategy, characteristics of listeners and English as a foreign language.

Listening is seen as one of the most important human activity during communication. It also bears crucial role as a language skill. Listening has also deep roots in philosophy in terms of being a foremost means of learning.

Also referred as listening comprehension strategies in the literature, listening strategies are defined as memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective and social ways of coping with listening difficulties (Oxford, 1990; Vandergrift, 1993).

Listener characteristics are those features unique to the learner or listener. The 'characteristics' mentioned here is different from the concept 'personality factors'. It is more or less related to 'big five personality dimensions' which are agreeableness, openness, extraversion, conformity (conscientiousness) and neuroticism (emotional stability). However the study has a broader focus on the term in reference with studies from communicational and educational sciences.

EFL is the acronym of English as a foreign language referring to teaching or learning English in non-English speaking countries. The context of this study is Turkey, where English is not used for communicative purposes in any spot of the society. Thus the participants learn English as a foreign language. However, English as a second language (ESL) is also widely used in relevant literature to refer its significance as a 'second' way of communication in global world. This study intends English as a foreign language whichever acronym is used.

1.6. Assumptions

This study does not deal with gender differences as an interfering factor. Male and female participants are assumed to be equivalent by means of being simply 'listeners'. The participants' school types and listening education backgrounds prior to university are also ignored and as it is known that in Turkey there is no listening education at any grades of high schools they are all assumed to be of the same level by means of their background listening history.

1.7. Limitations

As being the counterpart of speaking in a dialogue, listening has strong relationships with speaking in EFL settings. Lack of speaking assessment is a limitation

of the study. However, the study will not be hampered on account of such an inclusion of speaking.

CHAPTER TWO

2. REVIEW OF LISTENING AS A LANGUAGE SKILL

2.1. Overview

This chapter of the study provides a review of literature on listening as a language skill. Concerning various perspectives on listening, the term is reviewed with a broader focus to allow a better understanding of it. This review covers subjects such as listening from various perspectives, listening as a language skill, language teaching methodology and listening, factors affecting listening. This chapter is restricted to 'listening', other topics of literature review are given in the following chapters. In this way, the concepts are supposed to be explained without any interference.

2.2. A Broader Focus on Listening

Being an interdisciplinary concept, listening has several definitions each representing various perspectives. Philosophy, communication, and education are leading fields conceptualizing listening. To have an overall understanding of the whole picture, the concept, itself, should be approached from those fields. Each discipline has its own definition and understanding of listening.

In its most general meaning, listening is 'to give attention with the ear to some sound or utterance or person speaking; make an effort to hear something' (Oxford English Dictionary, 1993, p.1603). Etymologically, this word has its roots in Old English '*hlysnan'* which means *'pay attention to*', of Germanic origin.

According to Purdy (2003) the roots of listening are not and should not be limited to western philosophy. In his study on 'listening and western communication', Purdy (2003) traces the conceptualization of listening as back as ancient Egyptian writings. Ptahhotep's maxims are thought to date to the 22^{nd} – 21^{st} century B.C. and are regarded as 'textbooks' for pupils seeking success for professional life and divine favour. Ptahhotep, an ancient official during Fifth Dynasty of Old Kingdom in Early Egyptian history, interrelates social and religious communication in both of which 'a

good hearing brings success and happiness to a child' (p.3). In a former study, Purdy (1998) reviews excerpts from Hebraic texts and the Old and New Testaments. Listening is one of the most frequent commands to human beings and it calls people to be receptive to the word of God. After giving very early roots of listening from classical texts, Purdy (2003) focuses on a Middle Platonist essayist, Plutarch, and another Roman philosopher and orator, Cicero. He concludes following points as Plutarch's listening contextualization:

- Listening is rational as well as emotional
- Speaker is made better by being good listener and being aware of the needs of listener
- One must maintain a non-emotional, non-excited state when listening (learning the discipline of silence or holding self-passion in check to allow the speaker to finish)
- One must maintain a keen and critical stance toward the speaker and not be taken in by her/his goodwill and confidence toward the speaker or by the pathetic (pathos) appeals of the speaker
- Listener has a definite function; s/he is a participant in discourse and 'a fellow worker with the speaker' (p. 12).

In Purdy's (2003) grounding of listening philosophy in Roman, Greek, early modern and modern western traditions, it is remarkable that he has a balance of eastern and western traditions while going through the roots of listening in human communication.

Asserting listening as the counterpart of speaking in a dialogue, Haroutunian – Gordon (2011) evaluates Platonic dialogism by means of speaker – listener roles of Plato himself, and his teacher Sokrates. As it is understood from her analysis of *Symposium*, the philosophy of listening is the set of beliefs about the topic of listening. According to Haroutunian – Gordon (2011), four categories of those beliefs are:

1. the aim of listening
2. the nature of listening
3. the role of the listener
4. the relation between the listener and the speaker.

Many works of Plato have more or less the same setting: reader is invited to listen and learn. There are some distinctive features of nature of listening according to Plato:

- reasoning
- making inferences
- interrupting (only to launch a new question when it becomes impossible to make more inferences)

These features of listening are drawn in Plato's *Symposium* in which Sokrates has a dialogue with Diotima.

In another article, Haroutunian – Gordon and Laverty (2011) have an elaborate exploration of philosophical traditions on listening. From this study, in which ancient philosophers have been reviewed as well as the modern ones, it is obvious that the views of modern philosophers on effective listening have their origins in ancient philosophy. Plato, Aristotle, Rousseau, Herbart, Dewey and Martin Buber are six influential thinkers chosen in this study to investigate. However their study is not restricted to these figures. While giving the opinions of modern philosophers on listening in language use, Haroutunian – Gordon and Laverty (2011) mention Heidegger, Wittgenstein and Gadamer as 'all grounding their philosophies in language use and thereby re-conceive the role of listening and the definition of it as the passive reception of information.' (p. 119). According to this analysis, also Gadamer shares Plato's and Rousseau's view that launching question is the way of learning. Then the following circle can be suggested for the role of listening in learning process:

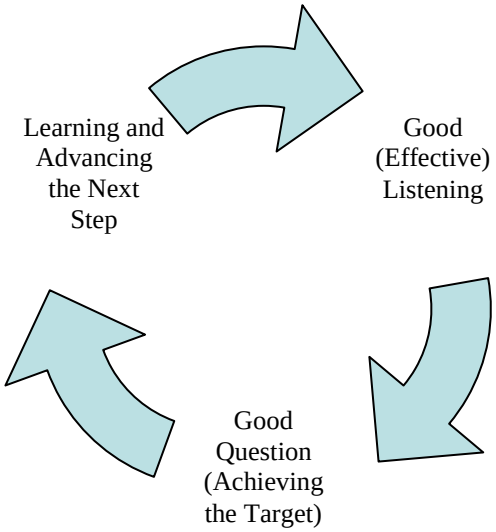

Figure 1.1. Listening Circle in Learning Process

Aristotle's listening philosophy grounds itself on attentiveness. Studies show that Aristotle has a context-bound listening (Haroutunian – Gordon and Laverty, 2011; Rice, 2011). As a 'good' listener, a doctor and a teacher should have different qualities. While a doctor is expected to be attentive enough to focus on the patient, it is not the same for a teacher who should care for all her/his students. Being too attentive for one child, s/he may put others at risk.

For Rousseau, there are *telos* (aims) of communication: self–interest and humanity. The listener should have some pre-determined aims for listening. The age of the listener is also a variable determining different listening activities. There is a direct relationship between adults and children. By listening and speaking humanely to children, adults teach them how to be good listeners.

As a German philosopher and pedagogue, Herbart has an understanding of listening which is transformative for both teacher and student (Gordon, 2011). A listener is described as being:

- receptive
- supportive
- critical
- active

The term ‘active’ is also mentioned by John Dewey. Waks (2011) suggests that Dewey distinguishes between ‘active’ and ‘passive’ listening, describing ‘active listening’ as an act of ‘sympathetic imagination’.

In his study, Gordon (2011) defines Buber’s listening theory as an ‘open’ and ‘holistic’ process. That is to say the conversation is unmediated and spontaneous which makes the listener fully receptive.

It is surprising that though listening is found to have tremendous roots in many ancient works, which are accepted to be the basis for most of a modern understanding of human nature, quite little importance is attributed to listening both in human communication and education until recently. Fortunately, these days are somehow the renaissance of reviving listening.

According to Purdy (1997), communication has two dimensions: speaking (expression) and listening (reception). Like him, many other researchers involved in communication, interrelate human communication and listening in reference to Bakhtin’s discourse on the importance of dialog (Bakhtin, 1986; Mickunas, 1997 Waldenfels, 1995). The listener’s role is not a passive one contrary to what is believed. Listening is an active process. According to Rogers and Farson (1986), ‘active’ means ‘the listener has a very definite responsibility of trying to grasp the facts and feelings in what he hears.’ (p. 149). From this point of view, it can be concluded that a listener should do her/his best to be a good listener. Then, what is ‘being a good listener?’ or ‘an effective listener?’

During history, effective speaking is accepted to be a talent. However receptive behaviour, in particular listening, matters as well. Several studies give two reasons to support this. First, effective listening allows the listener to have access to other’s beliefs, objectives, knowledge and attitudes as this kind of information is disclosed to an effective listener (Bavelas, Coates & Johnson, 2000; Miller, Berg & Archer, 1983). Second, effective listening provides important relational assets such as setting up trust, sincerity and credit between the agent and the listener (Blader & Tyler, 2003; Detert & Burris, 2007; Yukl, Kim & Falbe, 1996).

Purdy (1997) lists seven features for an effective listener, these are as follows:

1. Willingness to listen

2. Focus the attention
3. Being aware (perceptive) during listening
4. Doing interpretation (including both verbal and non-verbal cues)
5. Consciously working to remember
6. Responding with feedback
7. Caring about the relationship during listening

He makes a definition of listening in accordance with above mentioned features. According to him, 'listening is the active and dynamic process of attending perceiving, interpreting, remembering and responding to the expressed (verbal and nonverbal) needs, concerns, and information offered by other human beings.' (p. 4).

From a study of fifty different ways of defining listening in communication, Glenn (1989) distilled some main concepts existing in the various definitions. These are:

- Perception
- Attention
- Interpretation
- Response
- Spoken and visual cues.

Purdy (1997) lists three main principles of listening whichever definition is chosen from the very long list:

1. Listening can be learned.
2. Listening is an active process involving mind and body, with verbal and non-verbal processes working together.
3. Listening allows us to be receptive to the needs, concerns and information of others, as well as the environment around us.

2.2.1. Types of Listening

Early studies divide listening into general categories in terms of situations in which it is required. Barker (1971) suggests two categorization of it: active – passive and serious – social. However, recent literature gives more and detailed categorization.

There are several types of listening depending on the situations and settings where listening takes place. Discriminative, comprehensive, critical (evaluative), therapeutic (emphatic), and appreciative listening are agreed to be the five types by several scholars. This taxonomy seems to be quite different from those existing in second language listening literature. Before going through Second Language Listening (SLL) definitions, it is worthwhile to expand on the types of listening mentioned above.

a. Discriminative listening: Wolvin and Coakley (1993) define it as 'listening to distinguish the aural stimuli' (p.141). This means, listening should be a conscious process.

b. Comprehensive listening: This type of listening is going beyond discriminative listening. This step includes comprehension of the message.

c. Critical – evaluative listening: Assuming that discriminative and comprehensive listening have been achieved, critical – evaluative listening is the intelligent response to any kind of persuasive or propagandistic messages.

d. Therapeutic listening: A non-judgmental, hearing ear to other people with the interests of the other in mind. With this definition, it is quite reasonable to call this type of listening as 'emphatic' listening.

e. Appreciative listening: A pleasurable listening. Wolf, Marsnik, Tacey and Nichols (1983) suggest 'we listen appreciatively when we listen to aural symbols in order to gain pleasure through their reception' (p. 59) for this type of listening.

Scholars of communication have a broader understanding and perception on listening than SLL researchers because they have deeper theoretical and practical background on the issue.

According to many SLL researchers, types of listening are determined according to purposes of listening (i.e. instrumental – pleasurable), styles of listening (i.e. deductive – inductive) and the source of listening (i.e. reciprocal – nonreciprocal) (Anderson & Lynch, 1988; Chaudron & Richards, 1986; Harmer, 2001; Nunan, 2002; Richards, 1990). Brown (2001) has a determination of the most used listening styles and types in SLL process. This issue is discussed in next chapters extensively.

2.3. Listening as a Language Skill

Listening in second/foreign language learning process is a relatively new field. According to Vandergrift (2007), 'the image of foreign/second language listening has changed considerably over the past fifty years. It is no longer seen as a passive skill requiring minimal classroom attention.' (p. 196). Whereas L2 listening instruction may have improved, it still focuses largely on the product of listening: the correct answer. Though giving the correct answer to a listening comprehension question may be the indicator of comprehension, listening is a process and it should be evaluated as an ongoing activity even beyond the educational settings.

Having started in the late mid-20th century, listening studies in language learning and teaching have gained acceleration in parallel with the dawn of communicative approaches to language teaching. Initial conceptualization of listening was no more than a passive and insignificant means, 'per se' developed human behaviour, during first and second language learning processes. It was in 1969 that listening skill was first recognized as one of the four skills at AILA's (International Association of Applied Linguistics) second event which is regarded to be significant because four – skills have been re-defined and re-organized (Perren & Trim, 1971; Pimsleur, 1972). This was the result of a trend to launch aural language skills.

During 70's and early 80's several researchers investigated 'the time devoted to listening during daily communication and language learning process' (Barker, Edwards, Gaines, Gladney & Holley, 1980; Gilbert, 1988; Rivers, 1981; Weaver, 1972;). They all concluded that listening is by far the most important human activity and language skill which merit more extensive concentration.

SLL experienced its second leap when Krashen came up with his 'comprehensible input' theory which suggests that being exposed to language provides input for the language learner. Krashen's 'input hypothesis' which is also known as the 'monitor hypothesis' was first published in 1977. Thereafter, many researchers, as well as Krashen himself, supported this theory (Brown, 1993; Krashen, 1998; Loschky, 1994; Nation & Newton, 2009). There were also criticisms against the input hypothesis by several scholars (Allwright & Bailey, 2004; Patten & Benati, 2010). They criticized

it for its deficiency in explaining the reason for limited L1 influence, the role cultural proximity to the target language and less-skilled learners' input problems. However his theory remains one of the most influential theories of language learning and teaching.

The 90's and the early beginnings of the 21st century may prove to be, perhaps, a third leap for listening. Language skills have been re-classified by many studies in which listening is ranked as one of receptive skills together with reading (Harmer, 2001; Savignon, 2001). Moreover, up to date trends suggest that the language learning process is somehow an experience covering all skills which are in interaction with one another and inseparable from each other clearly (Celce – Muria, 2001; Nunan, 1999; Richards & Renandya; 2002). Communicative Language Teaching and Integrated Skills Approach are the practical names of those percepts. An elaborate study of listening to allocate it in terms of language teaching methodologies is given in the next section of this chapter.

Listening has been investigated from various aspects by many scholars. Types of listening, processes and models of it, the relations of listening with other language skills – especially with speaking; its counterpart in communication and language production, and with reading which is considered to be a receptive skill along with listening. This study will not follow stereotypical study of SLL. Points that are considered to be significant and innovative are derived to grasp a clear overview of the subject. In this sense, the following list will work for a better understanding of 'how a human being listens':

- Giving ear to an external source (step 1)
- Getting oral input (hearing the voices) (step 2)
- Initial processing and transmission of input to short-term memory (step 3)
- Organizing it as a communicative data and binding with existing knowledge in long term memory (step 4)
- Easy retrieval (step 5)

Atkinson and Shiffrin (1968) and Call (1985), cited in Akbal (2011), Underwood (1989) cited in Demirkol (2009) have this kind of schemata for Information Processing Theory. However their theory remains restricted when adapted to the listening process as they do not suggest basic terms with listening in mind and apparently their

understanding of listening is still based on a traditional one in which the process is accepted to be simply a ‘listen and repeat or answer’.

‘Types of processing listening’ is another significant concept that is stated in most of the studies. Top-down and bottom-up processing models are two simultaneous and complementary ways of processing a text (Buck, 2001; Flowerdew & Miller, 2005; Vandergrift, 2007; Akbal, 2011). Top-down listening seems to be more meaningful listening and comprehending, while bottom-up listening is somehow rote-listening (as is the case in ‘meaningful learning’ versus ‘rote learning’).

Graham (2006) mentions ‘top-down’ and ‘bottom-up’ as the two listening processing models. In her study, she deals with the knowledge and beliefs language learners have on listening. She makes reference to the problems listeners reported in Goh (2000) which are claimed to have mostly emerged from bottom-up processing as well as inefficient top-down processing. There are several studies focused on the two models’ integration as well as asserting the existence of different types of processing occurring simultaneously (Buck, 2001; Flowerdew & Miller, 2005; Graham, 2006; Hasan, 2000; Tsui & Fullilove, 1998). Flowerdew and Miller (2005) have sketches for both models of listening:

a) the bottom – up model:

sounds/phonemes $\longrightarrow$ words $\longrightarrow$ phrases/clauses/sentences $\longrightarrow$ ideas/concepts

b) the top – down model:

previous knowledge $\longrightarrow$ idea

(prior contextual knowledge) (Listener has a schema to receive and interpret it to process it)

In this sense, the bottom – up model is something like ‘a guess for what is coming next in a linguistic sense’ while the top – down model is based on ‘schemata created by previous or background knowledge and experiences’. Rumelhart (cited in Flowerdew & Miller, 2005) hypothesized an interactive model for reading context and his parallel processing theory is also suitable for listening in that existing background knowledge and inference ability interact each other.

An integrated model of listening including bottom-up and top-down processes is given and tested by Vandergrift (2007) however it needs to be tested with different contexts to be valid enough.

2.4. Listening in Foreign Language Teaching Methodology

2.4.1. Foreign Language Teaching (FLT) Methodologies Revisited

During the history of language teaching, various methods and approaches have been developed in order to accomplish teaching goals as well as to satisfy the needs of learners. Mostly, those methods have arisen as responses to one another. Each method has come up with the purpose of perfecting its predecessor in some ways. Lack of point in any certain skill or element of language caused the formation of the next method. Sometimes the differences of aims caused it. For example, while Direct Method arose as a reaction to the inadequacy of Grammar – Translation Method, Audio – Lingual Method was generated by the U.S. Defense Forces, mostly for military concerns during and after World War II. Grammar – Translation Method (GTM), Direct Method (DM), The Audio – Lingual Method (ALM), Silent Way (SW), Total Physical Response (TPR), Discrete – Item Approach, Communicative Approach (CA), Task – Based Approach (TBA), Learner – Strategy Approach (LSA), Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) are basic methods and approaches mentioned in literature (Richards & Rodgers, 1986; Richards, 1999; Larsen – Freeman, 2000; Richards & Renandya, 2002). Methods and approaches have been defined and classified from various dimensions. Richards (2002) suggests that methodology is shaped by some variables. Science – research, theory – philosophy and art – craft are basic groups with their sub – streams. He argues CLT and SW as theory-based or rationalist approaches while ALM and TBA are accepted as the products of research on learning associated with behavioural psychology. In his comparison of methods, Richards (1999) gives an elaborate comparison and contrast report in which he determines that TPR and CLL are antithetical while ‘such methods as the SW, Counseling Learning, Natural Approach and TPR start not with content but rather with a theory of learning’ (p. 155). Today there is more to say on methodology, for instance several scholars suggest a post-method concept which is described as a condition of going beyond the existing

methodology in classroom which has its own dynamics and factors requiring teacher develop her/his alternative to methods (Adamson, 2004; Kumaravadivelu, 2003; Pica, 2000). Dealing with post-method concept, Brown (2002) lists possible causes why methods – in their classical conceptualization – have lost their favours. According to him, methods are too prescriptive and difficult to be judged in terms of convenience for any specific context. Moreover he emphasizes that as proficiency level changes, teaching method should be revised which means no method is ultimate.

In consideration of current literature, FLT methodology can be grouped as:

a) Behaviourist Methods and Approaches
b) Cognitivist/Constructivist Methods and Approaches
c) Communicational/Interactionist Methods and Approaches

In the next sub-chapter, listening in FLT methodology will be discussed in terms of theoretical framework of methodologies as well as classroom practices.

2.4.2. Listening in FLT Methodologies

GTM is, most probably, the first concept to be thought of if the case is 'behaviourism in FLT'. According to Yavuz (2004), GTM is the oldest method that does not give importance to listening. Perhaps the only listening practice is students' listening to classical texts in which no response or comprehension is expected as it is not among learning goals. Indeed, GTM was the method of old times when travelling and communication in an international sense were not possible so people were not aware of the lack. Flowerdew and Miller (2005) comments on the reasons why listening had no status in GTM practices over history as:

1. "Students were learning 'dead' languages, languages that they would not have the opportunity to listen to
2. The teachers of those classical languages had no training in how to teach listening" (p. 4.)

DM is another behaviourist method in which learning and teaching activities are exclusively conducted in the target language. The position of listening in this method also falls behind being a language skill. It is an inevitable inborn activity without any

strategy training or use. As a result, there are just assumptions on listening and there is no conscious development of listening skill.

Generated by US Army during and after World War II, ALM which is also known as 'Army Method' aims at aural fluency. Listening has an important role as it provides input to acquire grammatical forms and pronunciation. Though having declined mostly, ALM can still be found in many current classroom textbooks. According to several scholars listening seems to have a priority in ALM, however, practice cannot extend beyond the 'listen and repeat' pattern (Yavuz, 2004; Flowerdew & Miller, 2005). Listening in ALM is not based on a context but accepted to be only a means of input.

There are studies that point out the difficulty students have in hearing sounds in English as these sounds may not exist in their native language (Ur, 1994). Discrete-Item Approach aims at teaching *segmental* and *suprasegmental* aspects of spoken language. Teaching '*–ed*' endings for regular verbs, for instance, can be conveyed through 'listen and repeat' or 'listen and match' activities. Because of its restricted function, Discrete-Item Approach is generally used as a part of unit rather than an independent learning and teaching approach. Though it seems to be directed to listening principally, this approach still lacks contextualized and authentic listening.

Communicative and interactive purposes for the use of language have brought new teaching methods and approaches such as Communicative Approach (CA) and Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). Educational technologies, Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL), Computer Assisted Language Testing (CALT) and Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) have all broadened the field of listening. It became a teachable, measurable and observable language skill for teachers, scholars and learners. It is obvious that the age of information is also the golden age of listening skill.

CHAPTER THREE

3. REVIEW OF LISTENING STRATEGIES

3.1. Overview

This chapter deals with second language listening (SLL) strategies. After giving a conceptualization of 'strategy' in language learning and the teaching process, language learning strategies are revisited through existing literature which covers the last four decades. Then listening strategies are elicited and basic studies are reviewed in terms of their points, organizations and findings. At the end of the chapter, a suggested methodology for SLL research is proposed to sketch out a rationale for qualitative SLL research.

3.2. Defining Language Learning Strategies

3.2.1. 'Strategy'

There are several definitions of the term in the literature. Indeed, the definition seems to have 'maturated' beginning from the early studies onwards. These studies are believed to have started with Rubin's paper appeared in TESOL Quarterly in 1975. She defined strategy as 'the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge' (p. 43). This definition has developed through the following studies. O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Russo and Küpper (1985) cited the definition of Bialystok (1978) as 'optional means for exploiting available information to improve competence in a second language' (p. 71). Oxford (1990) had a more comprehensive understanding of the concept by saying: 'learning strategies are specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more-enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, more transferable to new situations' (p. 8).

Following Oxford, defining the term 'strategy' gained a broader perspective. According to several researchers (Cohen, 1998; Griffith, 2003) strategies should be 'conscious activities'. Griffith's definition is quite clear and comprehensible as well as relating more to learner characteristics: Language learning strategies are 'specific

actions consciously employed by the learner for the purpose of learning language' (p. 369). Late 90's and early beginnings of 21st century brought an influx of research with many innovations in educational technologies. Later on, some researchers have revised their definitions. Wong and Nunan (2011) cite Chamot, re-defining language learning strategies as 'the specific mental and communicative procedures that learners employ in order to learn and use language' (145).

Today language learning strategies have more complex and comprehensive definitions. Communication, psychology and autonomy studies contribute much to contemporary definitions of the subject.

3.2.2. Early Studies

The study of language learning strategies has its roots in the search of the characteristics of 'good language learners'. In some studies 'effective', 'high level' or 'skilled' are also used as equivalents to the term 'good' (Griffiths, 2003; O'Malley, Chamot & Küper, 1989; Vandergrift, 1997; Wong & Nunan, 2011). Whichever defining words are preferred, search of the characteristics of 'good language learners' is accepted to have their origins in the study of Rubin (1975) who started with an interlanguage comparison of success in language learning which differentiates personally and argued that "if we knew more about what the 'successful learners' did, we might be able to teach these strategies to poorer learners to enhance their success record" (p. 42).

Though being no more than a literature review, Rubin's report derives some basic strategies that have been found out up to that time. Before listing the strategies she distilled from previous studies, Rubin gave some implications for future research on language learning strategies. She mentioned the relationship between observing the strategies and cognitive processes that are involved in learning. Besides, she proposed using video-tape to observe a classroom so that both learners and teachers will be able to see what is going on during a particular class.

The strategies compiled by Rubin (1975) are:

1. being a willing and accurate guesser
2. focusing on communication
3. being not inhibited

4. focusing on form
5. doing practices
6. focusing on meaning
7. monitoring himself and the others.

Rubin gave the basics of studies on learning strategies. However, her report does not reflect the whole picture. It was the study of O'Malley et al. (1985) that gave a better outline of strategies. In their qualitative study, O'Malley et al. ground their research on the assumption that strategy studies have their roots in the theories of second language acquisition (SLA) and in especially cognitive psychology. Their study differs from previous ones in that:

a) they classify the strategies reported by the students

b) ESL beginning and intermediate level students are included in the study

c) Strategies reported by students are those used both inside the classroom and outside.

O'Malley et al. (1985) group learning strategies as metacognitive, cognitive and socioaffective learning strategies (Table 3.1). Their classification which was borrowed from cognitive psychology literature formed an everlasting draft for studies on language learning strategies.

Table 3.1.

Language Learning Strategies (O'Malley et al., 1985)

Metacognitive Strategy		**Cognitive Strategy**	**Socioaffective Strategy**
I. Planning	• Self-Management	I. Auditory Representation	I. Cooperation
	• Advance Preparation	II. Elaboration	II. Questions for
	• Directed Attention	III. Contextualization	Clarification
	• Selective Attention	IV. Resourcing	
	• Delayed Production	V. Inferencing	
II. Monitoring	• Self-Monitoring	VI. Transfer	
III.	• Self-Evaluation	VII. Translation	
Evaluation		VIII. Imagery	
		IX. Note Taking	
		X. Repetition	

As the second phase of their study, O'Malley et al. designed a training session in which students were trained to use strategies. Metacognitive and cognitive listening strategies were investigated through a listening activity of various sessions for experimental and control groups. While the experimental group had some trainings on using basic strategies (selective attention, note taking and cooperation), the control group of the study had no training on the subject. They also conducted an experimental phase for oral performance. All findings showed that the experimental groups significantly outperformed the control group according to the analyses of pre- and post-test results.

3.2.3. Recent Studies

The studies of language learning strategies gained speed and new perspectives recently. Variables for deciding on the strategies language learners use have become a common focus of these studies. While early studies such as O'Malley et al. (1985) had a relatively narrow focus including only two variables: task difficulty and explicitness of directions; recently there has been a tendency of studying the concept interactively. According to Willing (1994), there are two important variables of strategy choice or use: personality and cognitive style.

Chamot and El-Dinary (1999) studied children's learning strategies in language learning immersion classroms. Proficiency levels of their subjects were determined by their teachers' ratings. Think-aloud protocols were used to reveal strategic differences between more- and less-successful learners. Okada et al. (1996) studied mother tongue and ethnicity as important factors. Grainger (2005) has broadened those factors by studying orthography in a Japanese context and has concluded that strategy inventories need to be revised and developed in terms of the specific contexts they will use. Griffith (2003) has determined three factors effecting strategies:

a) nationality
b) sex
c) age

Li and Qin (2006) have proved that learning styles have a profound influence on learners' strategy preferences. They have used self-reported inventories as well as a

questionnaire to determine the influence of learning styles on learner's choices of learning strategies.

Wong and Nunan (2011) suggest a relationship between language learning strategies and autonomy as well as self-confidence. They, in reference to Cohen (1998) and Wenden (2002), point out the importance of "explicit strategy training coupled with thinking about how one goes about learning and experimenting with different strategies" (p. 146) which leads to more effective learning.

Unsuccessful language learners remained untouched as most of the research focused on 'learning from the good language learner'. Vann and Abraham (1990) ground their study on the assumption that there exists very little research (for example Abraham & Vann, 1987; Chamot & Küpper, 1989; Hosenfeld, 1976, 1984) shedding light on the strategies unsuccessful learners use. In their study, Vann and Abraham assigned the participants as successful or unsuccessful according to the results of their test scores. The study was conducted using an introspective think-aloud technique with analysis of learners' products. They found counter evidence for the claim that unsuccessful learners are 'inactive'. As Vann and Abraham pointed out, those learners just lacked meta-cognitive strategies or self-regulatory skills.

3.2.4. Classification of Language Learning Strategies

Studies on language learning strategies started in late 70's and early 80's. Several scholars conducted various studies with different contexts. As a result, they have come up with different classifications based on each scholars' perspectives and research settings. The classifications provided by O'Malley et al. (1985), Oxford (1990), Rubin (1987) and Stern (1992) are the most widely accepted ones.

3.2.4.1. Language Learning Strategies as Contributors to Learning

As a pioneer in the field, Rubin (1987) defined three types of strategies in terms of their contributions to learning. These are:

a) learning strategies
b) communication strategies
c) social strategies

As shown below, Rubin defined learning strategies as directly related to language learning while claiming that communication strategies and social strategies are less directly or indirectly related (Table 3.2).

Table 3.2.

Classification of Language Learning Strategies (Rubin, 1987).

Learning Strategies (Direct Strategies)		**Communication Strategies* (Less Direct Strategies)**	**Social Strategies* (Indirect Strategies)**
I. Cognitive Strategies	• Clarification/Verification • Guessing/Inductive Inferencing • Deductive Reasoning • Practice • Memorization • Monitoring	• These strategies are used in communication settings to cope with difficulties faced.	• These strategies allow language learners exposure to the target language.
II. Metacognitive Strategies	• Planning • Prioritizing • Setting goals • Self-management		

* These two groups are not sketched out thoroughly; apparently they have been ignored by the researcher.

3.2.4.2. Language Learning Strategies for Communicative Competence

According to Oxford (1990) whose taxonomy is much more complex compared to that of Rubin's, the aim of language learning strategies are oriented towards the development of communicative competence. Direct and indirect strategies defined in Oxford's taxonomy have different roles in learning (Table 3.3).

Table 3.3.

Classification of Language Learning Strategies (Oxford, 1990).

Direct Strategies		**Indirect Strategies**	
I. Memory Strategies	• Creating mental linkages • Applying images and sounds • Reviewing well • Employing action	I. Metacognitive Strategies	• Centering the learning • Arranging and planning the learning • Evaluating the learning
II. Cognitive Strategies	• Practicing • Receiving and sending messages strategies • Analyzing and reasoning • Creating structure for input and output	II. Affective Strategies	• Lowering the anxiety • Encouraging oneself • Taking one self's emotional temperature
III. Compensation Strategies	• Guessing intelligently • Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing	III. Social Strategies	• Asking questions • Cooperating with others • Empathizing with others

3.2.4.3. Language Learning Strategies as Learning Techniques

Stern (1992) pointed out that language learning is processing the information and performing tasks in the language classroom. His taxonomy includes five groups of strategies which reflect a 'learner centred' setting in the language learning process (Table 3.4).

Table 3.4.

Classification of Language Learning Strategies (Stern, 1992).

I. Management and Planning Strategies	**II. Cognitive Strategies**	**Communicative – Experiential Interpersonal Strategies***	**V. Affective Strategies***
• Setting the goals • Selecting the material and methodology • Self- monitoring • Self-evaluation	• Clarification/verification • Inferencing • Deductive reasoning • Practice • Memorization • Monitoring	• Circumlocution • Gesturing • Paraphrasing • Asking for repetition/ clarification	• Contact and cooperation with native speaker • Getting acquainted with the target culture	• Overcoming negative emotional feelings which can be caused by strangeness or frustration

* These items seem more likely to be defined as techniques rather than strategies.

3.3. Defining Second Language Listening Strategies

3.3.1. Overview

There is a great deal of research in the literature dealing with language learning strategies. However second language listening (SLL) seems to be ignored as most of the effort is being put for the other skills (reading, writing and speaking). This is perhaps because of listening's 'implicit and ephemeral nature' (Vandergrift, 2008, p. 84) which makes it difficult to observe. The following sub-chapters deal with early and recent studies on SLL strategies.

3.3.2. Early Studies

SLL strategies were investigated in various settings in initial studies which have been reproduced over time by scholars. Therefore it is difficult to distinguish 'early studies' from 'recent' ones. However it is possible to say that research carries new implications and relationships between the concepts even though research settings keep former methods mostly.

Murphy (1985) published a short report of his study in which he conducted protocol analysis. He divided the subjects into two groups: more proficient and less proficient listeners.

While determining proficiency level of his subjects, Murphy used three oral comprehension tests (Murphy, 1985, p. 43). There are several other scholars who studied listening strategies in—more or less—the same way (DeFilippis, 1980; Fujita, 1985). However, Murphy's qualitative study reveals some basics of the field. He is perhaps one of the pioneer scholars who have mentioned the importance of focusing on process rather than product in SLL studies. He argued that experimental studies designed as pre-and post-test procedures with two groups (experimental and control groups) are far from reflecting the process of listening thoroughly (p. 4). Murphy collected data through listening protocols which were then analyzed and he gave an exhaustive list of strategies listeners used. In his graphs, obviously more proficient listeners used good strategies more than less proficient ones. He labelled six groups of strategies encompassing seventeen separate individual strategies (Table 3.5).

Table 3.5.

Classification of Listening Strategies (Murphy, 1985).

Strategy Groups	**Individual Strategies**
I. Recalling	• Paraphrasing • Word – hooking • Revising • Checking
II. Speculating	• Inferring • Connecting • Personalizing • Anticipating
III. Probing	• Analyzing the topic • Analyzing the the conventions of language • Evaluating the topics
IV. Introspecting	• Self – evaluating • Self – describing
V. Delaying	• Repeating • Fishing
VI. Recording (only written responses)	• Note – taking • Drawing

While discussing his findings, Murphy presented two points in terms of the subjects: first, more proficient listeners gave more detailed and longer protocol data which means they had more to say; second, the strategies more proficient listeners used 'seemed to interconnect' (p. 37) which was an indicator of not being haphazard.

Murphy's discussion is important in that it gives the basics of a qualitative study on listening strategies. According to him, some strategies are 'beneath the surface of observable behaviour' (p.41) and they should be revealed by a thorough exploration of process.

There are many studies dealing with strategies from different perspectives. Types of cues listeners use is a perspective of taxonomy. Conrad (1981; 1985) studied the topic by means of types of cues used by listeners. According to Conrad's findings, listeners rely less on syntactic and more on semantic cues as their proficiency level improves. However, his study, in terms of his framework, lacks generalizability for the languages other than English.

As a frequently used taxonomy, the sequence of listening means that 'learners generally follow a common sequence of activities when listening' (Martin, 1982 cited in Berne, 2004, p. 522). According to Martin (1982) there are three phases of listening:

a. Receiving the input and evaluating it (for sound quality, rate of speech, pronunciation and vocabulary)

b. Decoding the input and determining the main idea

c. Matching or organizing existing knowledge with previous (advance organizing).

Martin pointed second and third steps as the phases where strategy use occurs. Young (1997) studied strategies in terms of their sequence and she suggested more developed patterns so Young's research will be reviewed under 'recent studies' section.

Dividing learners into two groups as more- and less-proficient listeners was perhaps the most widely used method of determining SLL strategies. Murphy (1986; 1987) suggested that more-proficient listeners used wide distribution and holding off until the end while less-proficient ones used text-heavy and listener-heavy patterns.

Fujita (1985) explored six factors involved in listening comprehension:

1. self-confidence
2. focus/search for meaning
3. written or mental recall notes
4. attention to form, self and others
5. active participant
6. prior experience and language study.

Three of these factors reveal the difference between more- and less-proficient listeners:

1. self-confidence
2. focus/search for meaning
3. active participant

O'Malley, Chamot and Küpper (1989) conducted a qualitative research in which think-aloud sessions were used as data collection instruments. In this study, it is interesting that the term 'strategy' was focused on 'comprehension' and the study itself

was confined to cognitive strategies. Having focused on the process of listening, O'Malley et al. sketched out listening comprehension, strategic processing etc. in reference to Anderson (1983; 1985). They concluded that effective listeners made use of bottom-up and top-down strategies integratively, while ineffective listeners "became embedded in determining the meanings of individual words" (p. 434).

It is obvious that research on SLL strategy has more examples from the perspective of the proficiency level of learners. They will be reviewed in the next subchapter as they are thought to reflect the findings compatible with recent understanding of SLL studies.

3.3.3. Recent Studies

'Meta-cognition' is a key term of research on SLL strategies as it has given a new impulse to the field. However, there are also other perspectives of studying SLL strategies. Harley (2000) investigated the types of cues used by listeners. According to Harley's study in which the effects of age and first language (L1) were found to be determinants for listeners to use prosodic or syntactic cues; the findings showed that prosodic cues (i.e. intonation and stress) were used by non-native speakers to interpret ambiguous sentences. Berne (2004) criticizes Conrad and Harley who grounded their research on the types of cues used by listeners in that their studies have not yet been tested for languages other than English.

The sequence of listening was also sustained as a way of exploring SLL strategies. Young (1997) gave a set of stages for reported listening strategies:

1. inferencing
2. elaboration
3. summarization
4. self-monitoring
5. self-evaluation

Young gave a serial ordering and concluded that strategy training should not have a certain order as various factors such as text type, proficiency level and learning style may have influence on the order of the strategies that are used. Young suggested 'prior knowledge' as an important factor for listeners while constructing meaning.

Recalling O'Malley et al. (1989) who described a hierarchical order of listening comprehension strategies based on 'perceptual processing', 'parsing' and 'utilization' stages which compound three-stage language processing model, Young criticised them in that their findings lacked empirical data.

Classifying learners as more- and less-skilled/proficient/successful listeners is probably the most widely used technique of assigning the subjects of any specific study in the field. Early studies (DeFilippis, 1980; Fujita, 1985; Murphy, 1987) discussed in previous chapters set the basis for more recent ones. Vandergrift (1993; 1997) investigated a difference between more- and less-proficient listeners in terms of cognitive and meta-cognitive strategy use. In his descriptive study on strategy use of second language listeners, Vandergrift (1997) assigned the subjects as more- and less-proficient language learners using an oral proficiency interview (ACTFL/ETS Oral Proficiency Interview). Then he conducted a think-aloud session during which verbal reports were recorded. Data was analyzed according to a predefined taxonomy of listening strategies by O'Malley and Chamot (1990) and Vandergrift (1996). Vandergrift's study is accepted as a model for most of following studies in the field. The procedure of selecting the subjects, its technique and instruments (which is based on a qualitative manner) have become a source for other researchers. Vandergrift (1997) set a rationale and framework for why he preferred using qualitative methods. According to his methodological recommendations and implications:

a. successful listeners report an effective combination of certain meta-cognitive and cognitive strategies more frequently

b. think-aloud procedure is a good way of obtaining data from learners on their strategy preferences

c. in order to determine the differences between more- and less-successful listeners' protocols, a qualitative analysis should accompany quantitative analysis.

Berne (2004) counted all instruments used in SLL strategy studies: questionnaires, think aloud protocols, introspection, interview with researchers, observations of learners' conversations with native speakers' (p. 525).

A comprehensive list of listening strategies was given by Vandergrift (1997) (Table 3.6) and his study revealed categorized strategy uses of both groups.

Table 3.6.

Listening Comprehension Strategies (Vandergrift, 1997).

Metacognitive Strategies		**Cognitive Strategies**		**Socioaffective Strategies**
I. Planning	• Advance Organization • Directed attention • Selective attention • Self-management	I. Inferencing	• Linguistic inferencing • Paralinguistic inferencing • Kinesic inferencing • Extralinguistic inferencing • Between-part inferencing	Questions for clarification
II. Monitoring	• Comprehension monitoring • Auditory monitoring • Double-check monitoring	II. Elaboration	• Personal elaboration • World elaboration • Academic elaboration • Questioning elaboration • Creative elaboration • Imagery	Cooperation
III. Evaluation	• Performance evaluation • Strategy evaluation	III. Summarization		Lowering anxiety
IV. Problem identification		IV. Translation		Self-encouragement
		V. Transfer		Taking emotional temperature
		VI. Repetition		
		VII. Resourcing		
		VIII. Grouping		
		IX. Note-taking		
		X. Deduction/Induction		
		XI. Substitution		

As Vandergrift (1997) concluded;

a. meta-cognitive strategies play a key role in selection processes of successful listeners

b. the beginning two years of language learning are crucial in acquiring and using meta-cognitive strategies.

There are several scholars who have used this taxonomy to investigate the listening strategies of learners. Moreira (1996) suggested that compared to low-proficiency listeners, high-proficiency listeners had a clearer picture of strategies they used. Another study by Chao (1997) presented that more- and less-proficient listeners had different levels of comprehension.

Apart from all common research designs and instruments, there are also different studies which are conducted with various techniques. Roussel and Tricot (2012) used a computer program which recorded mouse movements of listeners during a specific listening task. This helped them understand meta-cognitive self-driven strategies. These kinds of innovative studies are promising for further research to benefit from Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) and Computer Assisted Language Testing (CALT).

As a result of growing research on the topic, the differences between more- and less-proficient listeners have been determined to some extent (Table 3.7). However, it is asserted that ‘more research across different languages is needed to confirm’ (Berne, 2004, p. 525) the observations on the picture.

Table 3.7.

Differences Between More- and Less-Proficient Listeners (Berne, 2004, p.525).

More-Proficient Listeners	Less-Proficient Listeners
• use strategies more often • use a wide range of strategies • use strategies interactively • are concerned with the overall rhetorical organization of the text • are better able to: ➢ attend to larger chunks of input ➢ monitor/redirect attention ➢ grasp overall meaning of input ➢ relate what they hear to previous experiences ➢ guess meanings of words • use existing linguistic knowledge to aid comprehension	• process input word by word • rely heavily on translation/key words as strategies • are negatively affected by linguistic and attentional constraints • are concerned with definitions/pronunciation of words • make fewer inferences/elaborations • do not verify their assumptions • do not relate what they hear to previous experiences

Although being the most widely preferred criteria for selecting participants, assigning learners as more- and less-proficient listeners has some problems;

1. Almost all studies have their own selection criteria; there is no agreed upon principles of selection.

2. Yet no relationship between language proficiency and listening comprehension has been assessed or proved.

3. Each group may report the same strategy, e.g. ‘visualization’, both groups report it but to what an extent do they use it? Level of uses as well as the existence of strategy itself should be studied in depth.

4. Most of the research has focused on the exploration of strategies in this or that way, however only few have given implications for strategy training.

Strategy training deserves more attention. In the current literature there are few significant studies in which it is argued that SLL needs to be instructed for listening

strategies (Field, 1998; Mendelsohn, 1994, 1995; Thompson & Rubin, 1996; Vandergrift, 1996, 1997, 1999). Though being generally descriptive, they have several studies giving empirical data on how strategy instruction works.

3.4. Summary

This chapter has dealt with the strategies for language learning –in general – and for SLL as being the core topic of the chapter. Important papers and research designs have been discussed in reference to their findings and results. The next chapter will be about the characteristics of language learners as listeners.

CHAPTER FOUR

4. REVIEW OF THE CHARACTERISTICS OF LANGUAGE LEARNERS AS LISTENERS

4.1. Overview

This chapter of the study aims at reviewing the characteristics of language learners as listeners. First, an overall evaluation in terms of language learners will be presented for the characteristics mentioned in the relevant literature. Then listeners' characteristics will be discussed as well as the 'Big Five Factors' (BFF) which is a significant concept in the field.

Compared to the previous chapters of literature review, this part of the study includes the most interesting and the rarest topics to investigate. It is inevitable to adopt a wider perspective and more inter-disciplinary manner if the case is to explore the characteristics of listeners which remain mostly untouched in SLA studies.

4.2. The Characteristics of Language Learners

Individual differences have attracted many scholars of SLA research over last two decades regardless of topics they specialize. It is obvious that many problems arising in language learning and the teaching process should be approached in a contemporary manner taking individual differences into account. Big five factors, attitudes, motivation, anxiety and gender are found to be 'strongly related to success in second language (L2) learning and communication' (Fayyaz & Kamal, 2011; p. 60). Samuels (1984) divided those factors as 'inside-the-head' and 'outside-the-head' factors. Intelligence, kinesics and motivation are among inside-the-head factors. From his study onwards more complicated pictures have been created by several scholars. Most of them investigated the correlation between success and the personal traits of learners (Ames, Maissen & Brockner, 2012; Dewaele & Furnham, 1999; Fayyaz & Kamal, 2011; Liyanage, 2004; MacIntyre & Charos, 1996; Samimy & Tabuse, 1992).

4.2.1. Big Five Factors

The Big five factors (BFF), five dimensions of personality, are also known as the 'Five Factor Model (FFM)' (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Studies related to the topic are accepted to have started with Cattel's works in 1940's. Cattel (cited in John & Srivastava, 1999) created the initial taxonomy of personality traits. Later on, his taxonomy was developed by many scholars (Almagor, Tellegen & Waller, 1995; Benet-Martinez & Waller, 1997; Becker, 1960; Cattel, Ebber & Tatsuoka, 1970; Digman, Takemoto-Chock, 1981; John, 1990; Nowakowska, 1973; Tupes & Christal, 1961). These factors are generally listed as:

1. Extraversion
2. Agreeableness
3. Conformity ('Conscientiousness' as cited in Fayyaz & Kamal, 2011)
4. Emotional stability ('Neuroticism' as cited in Fayyaz & Kamal, 2011)
5. Openness (Ames et al. 2012).

It was Goldberg (1981) who named these factors the 'Big Five' "not to reflect their intrinsic greatness but to emphasize that each of these factors is extremely broad" (John & Srivastava, 1999, p. 105).

Over time, these factors found their way into language studies. They were defined as the factors affecting the language learning process (Fayyaz & Kamal, 2011). Being an extravert or introvert has proved to be an important variable on deciding a learner's style and success. The parameters of BFF in SLL will be discussed in the next sub-chapters.

4.3. The Characteristics of Language Learners as Listeners

As Fayyaz and Kamal cited 'regarding the importance of personality traits in English listening, teachers should be made aware of the importance of and sensitivity to the individual differences among their students' (Fayyaz & Kamal, 2011; p. 72). However, it seems that research on the topic is not sufficient to provide implications for teachers. Language learners have not been studied enough in terms of their characteristics as listeners. Probably this part is the most arduous task for researchers. It

is possible to find abundant of studies on the characteristics of language learners if the skill is one of three others (reading, speaking and writing). The gap in literature is restricted to language studies because there are many papers on the topic in other fields –principally in communication – such as in music education, health sciences, psychology etc. Due to these constraints, this study has broadened its perspective to explore the characteristics of listeners, which constitutes the core of this investigation.

4.3.1. Early Studies

Early studies on the characteristics of listeners are accepted to have started by the early middle of 20th century. There is no doubt that Nichols (1948, cited in Purdy & Newman, 1999) set the basics with his doctoral thesis in which he identified characteristics of effective and ineffective listeners. Having inspired many scholars, Nichols deserves his title 'Father of the Field of Listening' (Beal, 2003). Nichols' discovery made him a pacesetter and his listing of the characteristics remains a starting point for any research.

In his short report, Brown (1958) mentioned introvert and extravert character traits in terms of reading and listening performances. Referring the results of an experimental study, he concluded that listening is 'taught not caught' (p. 37). He gave implications for teachers to teach their learners to become good listeners which he attributed to being an introvert. His study is a short report giving details of previous studies which used various personality inventories to explore basic personality traits especially communicative skills.

Second half of the 20th century also witnessed several studies on the topic. Ross (1964) investigated 'the relationships between listening ability and measures in reading, arithmetic, intelligence, personal and social adjustment, socioeconomic factors and hearing' (p. 369) with good and poor listeners. Ross, in his study, reached some findings that good listener characteristics 'should be traced to something other than intelligence' (p. 371) in that his experimental results showed that poor listeners were well below the good listeners in reading and arithmetic ability, intelligence and general school achievement. Having given the findings, which showed that there were significant differences between good and poor listeners in terms of all variables but

hearing, Ross concluded that though his study was still far from fully describing the characteristics of listeners, it provided some preliminary implications that pupils should be grouped in accordance with their listening scores rather than reading scores and more attempts should be made to modify teaching and school subjects to fit the listening abilities of children.

Research on the characteristics of listeners continued to grow. However it was during the last quarter of the century that scholars revised and broadened preliminary studies so as to have a bright picture of the case.

4.3.2. Recent Studies

Exploring the characteristics of listeners as language learners has an interdisciplinary face as there are very few samples indicating that the topic should be narrowed to SLA. Communication is, by far, the most fruitful discipline. Mostly inspired by Nichols' works, scholars in communication field conducted some studies to determine the characteristics in a contemporary manner while SLA researchers discussed whether personality traits had an effect on listening ability (Fayyaz & Kamal, 2011). Steil, Barker and Watson (1983) gave lists of good and poor listeners in *Effective Listening*. Their categories included 14 good and 12 poor characteristics (Table 4.1). They asked the participants to choose the characteristics that they think most important and primary from a long list.

Table 4.1.

Characteristics of Listeners (Steil et al., 1983, p. 56).

Good listeners are:	Poor listeners are:
• Alert	• Inattentive
• Responsive	• Defensive
• Patient	• Impatient
• Non-interrupting	• Interrupting
• Empathic	• Disinterested
• Interested	• Insensitive
• Understanding	• Self-centered
• Caring	• Uncaring
• Attending	• Quick to judge
• Other-centered	• Distracted
• Curious	• Apathetic
• Effective evaluator	• Emotional
• Non-emotional	
• Not distracted	

There are also some studies dealing with all factors affecting listening and/or listening comprehension. They focus on internal and external factors. Boyle (1984) derived some listener factors in six groups (Table 4.2).

Table 4.2.

Internal Factors Affecting Listening Comprehension (Boyle, 1984, p. 35).

I. Level of experience or practice	II. General intelligence	III. General background knowledge of the world	IV. Physical and educational	V. Intellectual	VI. Psychological
			• Age/sex • Home background, size of family • Educational background and type of school • Physical health and alertness.	• Knowledge of the target language (phonology, lexis etc.) • Powers of analysis and selection • Knowledge of the specific topic or subjects • (short/long term) memory.	• Motivation and sense of purpose while listening • Attitude of the listener to the speaker • Attitude of the listener to the message: level of interest • Listeners' powers of attention and concentration.

Nichols' list was replicated several times for different variables such as age (Coakley, Halone & Wolvin, 1996; Halone, Wolvin & Coakley, 1997), gender (Purdy & Borisoff, 1991; Purdy & Newman, 1999), context (Imhof, 2001). Among all, Purdy and Newman's study (1999), conducted to determine the gender factor, is the most convenient to be taken as sample as its participants had a suitable average of age (M=21.5) for the university context (in which the current study is conducted). They found no gender differences which is not a variable of this study as well. Also their study gives the most distilled lists of characteristics for both good and poor listeners. Methods and procedures of their study will be discussed in the following chapter. Purdy and Newman distilled 12 top ranked good and 13 poor characteristics (Table 4.3).

Table 4.3.

Characteristics of Good and Poor Listeners (Purdy & Newman, 1999 p. 35).

A good listener	A poor listener
• Uses eye contact appropriately • Is attentive/alert to speaker's verbal/non–verbal behaviour • Is patient and doesn't interrupt (waits for the speaker to finish) • Is responsive using verbal/non–verbal expressions • Asks questions (in a non–threatening tone) • Paraphrases/restates/summarizes what the speaker says • Provides constructive (verbal/nonverbal) feedback • Works to understand the speaker (is empathic) • Shows interest in the speaker as a person • Demonstrates a caring attitude (is willing to listen) • Doesn't criticize, is non judgmental • Is open–minded	• Is impatient, interrupts the speaker • Doesn't give eye contact (eyes wander) • Is distracted (fidgeting), not paying attention to the speaker • Is not interested in the speaker (doesn't care, daydreaming) • Gives little or no (verbal/nonverbal) feedback to the speaker • Talks too much • Changes the subject • Is judgmental, jumps to conclusions • Is closed–minded • Is self–centered, self–preoccupied • Gives unwanted advice • Not focused • Too busy to take time to listen

As mentioned before, there is no consensus in the use of terms ‘good’ and ‘effective’ as well as ‘poor’ and ‘ineffective’. Purdy and Newman (1999) preferred using ‘good – poor’; they stated that ‘effective and ineffective have more of a business/efficiency connotation’ (p. 8) while ‘good and poor’ recall listening as a skill or behaviour.

BFF takes an important part of the research on characteristics of listeners in SLA. There are several studies on the relationship of success in L2 listening and BFF, attitudes and anxiety about L2 (Ames et al., 2012; Dewaele & Furnham, 1999; Liyanage, 2004; MacIntyre & Charos, 1996; Samimy & Tabuse, 1992). BFF is thought to have a major role in metacognition and metacognitive knowledge: Neuroticism-linked preference for self information and on metacognitive knowledge; neuroticism-linked predominance of negative schemas such as negative self-evaluations are the topics studied by several scholars (Abe, 2005; Bidjerano & Dai, 2007; Hudlicka, 2005; Whitmer, 1997). Vandergrift, Goh, Mareschal and Tafaghodtari (2006) derived five components of metacognition in their study. They are:

a) Planning & evaluation
b) Directed attention
c) Person knowledge
d) Mental translation
e) Problem solving

The same model was also used by Fayyaz and Kamal (2011) who described correlation between BFF and metacognitive listening strategies (Table 4.4).

Table 4.4.

Correlation Between BFF and Metacognitive Listening Strategies (Fayyaz & Kamal, 2011).

BFF	**Neuroticism**	**Extraversion**	**Openness**	**Agreeableness**	**Conscientiousness**
Positively Correlated Strategies	No strategy positively correlated	Confident Self-efficacious	Planning Problem solving	Catching emotional and non verbal cues	Planning Evaluation Directed attention Problem solving
Negatively Correlated Strategies	Person knowledge Directed	Planning Evaluation Problem	Attentive	Attentive Using mental translation	No strategy negatively correlated

	attention	solving

Based on their correlation findings, Fayyaz and Kamal (2011) suggested that 'conscientiousness emerged as the strongest predictor of metacognitive listening strategies' (p. 71). They set the limitations of the study as;

a) The estimates of those students with poor metacognition may be unrealistic for their abilities

b) Their criterion of language achievement may be considered as rough and unstandardized

c) Inter-rater reliability of the examiners may be low (p. 72).

Out of BFF relevance, there are some other studies investigating characteristics of the listeners. In their targeted review[1] on the factors affecting second language listening comprehension, Bloomfield, Wayland, Rhoades, Blodgett, Linck and Ross (2010) mentioned:

a) working memory in L1 and L2
b) proficiency and experience with the second language
c) metacognitive strategies
d) anxiety.

They concluded that only anxiety is not a beneficial factor to listeners. However their study – as they also mentioned – lacks research data and not all factors are included in the review.

4.4. Summary

Studies aimed at reviewing and exploring the characteristics of language learners as listeners reveal that there are certain personal traits affecting a listener become either a good or poor listener. This chapter of the study shed light on a relatively untouched point of SLL studies. It is obvious that the procedures and instruments are not standard and steady. Among all, Purdy and Newman's (1999) methodology that they used in their listening and gender research seems quite reasonable in that it has a broader

[1] As a limitation of the study, it is expressed that the review report was *targeted* which means not all possible factors affecting L2 listening comprehension were addressed (Bloomfield et al., 2010).

interdisciplinary perspective and consistent qualitative data collection and analysis methods.

CHAPTER FIVE

5. METHODS

5.1. Overview

This chapter presents the methodology and related issues employed in the study. Several scholars have used the term ‘methodology’ to refer to the overall approach to the study (Arminio & Hultgren, 2002; Bogdan & Biklen, 1998; Strong, 2007). First, issues in the methodology will be described and then other components of the study such as participants, procedures and data analysis will be explained.

5.2. Issues in Methodology

5.2.1. Questionnaire

In this study Oral Communication Strategies Inventory (OCSI) is used in order to determine the strategies the learners use during SLL. OCSI was developed by Nakatani (2006) and it was proved to be a valid and reliable instrument. OCSI has two dimensions to determine speaking and listening strategies. As speaking is not among the objectives of current study, only the second part of the inventory which is designed to determine listening strategies has been used. OCSI was administered to 123 freshmen students of English Language Teaching Department of Atatürk University by the researcher himself during their listening and pronunciation classes without their instructors at the end of the spring semester of 2011 – 2012 academic year. The students were informed about the voluntary nature of participation, confidentiality of the data as well as the aim of the research project. The results of this phase of the research were computed through SPSS 16.0 statistical program for social sciences. While analyzing OCSI results, one set of strategies were excluded as it assessed ‘less active listener strategies’ (see Nakatani, 2006). According to their strategy use levels, the students were listed. The top-ranking 12 students were included in the second phase of the study.

Among them, two students refused to take part in the project. As this was a voluntary-based project, only remaining 10 students were invited as interviewees.

As a subset of survey research, questionnaires are defined as 'any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting them among existing answers' (Brown, 2001; p. 6). Various types of questionnaires (such as open-ended questionnaires, discourse completion questionnaires) have been developed to gather information about learners' beliefs, motivations, interactions etc. on their learning experiences. According to Wilson and McLean (1994) questionnaires are a widely used instrument for collecting data which can be analyzed relatively handily.

Questionnaires have a wide use in second language research (Dörnyei, 2003) as they have following advantages:

- They provide longitudinal information in a short time
- They can be administered in many forms (via e-mail, by phone, through mail etc.)
- They can be converted to numerical data easily
- There are many computer programs through which statistical analysis can be done.

5.2.2. Interview

Interviews are 'the attempts to understand the world from the subjects' point of view, to unfold the meaning of peoples' experiences, to uncover their lived world prior to scientific explanations' (Kvale, 1996; p. 1). Creswell (2003) suggests interviews as useful instruments when the participants cannot be directly observed. Rich data about peoples' experiences, perceptions, opinions, feelings and knowledge can be derived through interviews (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998; Maxwell, 2005; Patton, 2002; Trumbull, 2005). According to Kvale (1996) there are two contrasting metaphors of the interviewer: interviewer as a miner or as a traveller in both of which the aim of the researcher is to explore or uncover the knowledge.

Interviews should go beyond being purely questioning sessions. Several scholars mention that interview is and should be a dialog between the interviewer and

interviewee as well as being a process through which the researcher and the participants share knowledge, experience, opinions etc. (Karasar, 2003; Özgüven, 1980; Yin, 2003).

In this study a semi-structured interview was used as the main data collection instrument. In this type of interview, 'the researcher uses a written list of questions as a guide, while still having the freedom to digress and probe for more information' (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 173). There is no Institutional Review Board (IRB) at Atatürk University. Therefore there is not any IRB approval for this study. However, this study was approved by scientific board of Atatürk University's Institute of Educational Sciences. The participants, selected according to OCSI results, were interviewed by the researcher himself in their department. They were all informed about the whole process of the study. An informed consent (See Appendix 1) was used to ensure ethical research. They were told of the voluntary manner of participation, and that there were no expected – psychological, physical and/or professional – risks or harms, approximate duration, and finally of the confidentiality of the data. On revising consent form, two participants refused to take part in the study because of time constraints (as they expressed) and they were excluded. An interview protocol (See Appendix 2) was constructed for the semi-structured interviews which aimed at exploring the characteristics of language learners as listeners. The interview protocol consisted of an introduction of the research topic, basic demographic and introductory questions to serve as a warm up section, main questions and thanking the participant for taking part in the study. The interviews were conducted in Turkish as the participants preferred it to feel more comfortable. Before the main interviews, two preliminary pilot studies were conducted to check and revise internal (research questions, duration, comfort/discomfort of the participant etc.) and external (audio-recorder, outer disturbance, noise etc.) factors that could affect the interview adversely. According to the data and observations of pilot studies, some internal and external factors were revised. The main interviews were conducted in an office of the participants' department. The average duration for the interviews was 32 minutes, the shortest one being 22 minutes and the longest one being 47 minutes. Subsequently, all the interviews were transcribed verbatim by the researcher and they were all checked by two anonymous researchers in terms of consistency with the audio recordings. The excerpts

taken from the responses of the interviewees were translated by the researcher and they were checked by two colleagues for their consistency with the transcriptions.

5.3. Data Analysis

After collecting and transcribing the data, an analysis process was conducted with Creswell's (1998) approach as guide to the researcher. The transcriptions were read by the research as many times as necessary and codes were formed. Codes were defined as being 'simply abbreviations, or tags for segments of text' (U. S. General Accounting Office - GAO, 1996, p. 30), codes are essential in the analysis of interviews. According to Creswell (2012), coding is 'the process of segmenting and labelling text to form descriptions and broad themes in the data' (p. 243). After forming the codes, they were combined into categories and themes created in accordance with existing literature. Themes were adapted from the Big Five Factors defined and classified by several studies (Ames et al. 2012; Costa & McCrae, 1992; Fayyaz & Kamal, 2011; John & Srivastava, 1999). As the codes were formed, themes and categories were revised for their consistency. The outcome of data analysis leads the researcher to find answers to research questions and to have an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon under discussion.

5.4. Recruitment of Participants and Procedures

As important components of quasi-experimental studies, participants should be selected carefully to conform to the research questions as well as the aim of the study. The participants of this study were selected among the classes of the department where listening skill is taught and practiced during preparatory and first years under different courses. Students have 'Listening' course 5 hours per week during preparatory class. In the first year there is 'Listening and Pronunciation' course (105 AL/106 AL) which is carried out 3 hours per week. Data was collected at the end of academic year (2011-2012 Spring) which means all the participants, as first year students, had two years of listening courses. None of the participants were reported to have any listening education prior to their university life.

This study consists of two phases. In the first phase OCSI was administered to freshman students in English Language Teaching Department of Kazım Karabekir Faculty of Education, Atatürk University. According to the analysis of OCSI, top ranking students were determined to have been using listening strategies effectively. Six out of seven listening strategies were scored according to the items they had in OCSI. One of the strategies of OCSI was excluded as it was to measure a 'less active listener strategy pack' (See Nakatani, 2006 for a detailed evaluation of OCSI). After recruiting the participants, they were informed about the second phase of the study and a meeting date was set suitable for both parties (the researcher and the participants). Those whose consents were taken were chosen as the participants. Biographical information of the participants is provided in the table below (Table 5.1). The participants are asked to choose pseudonyms to ensure confidentiality of the study:

Table 5.1.

*Biographical Information of the Participants**

PSEUDONYMS FOR THE PARTICIPANTS	**DEPARTMENT**	**AGE**	**GENDER**
Ahmet	English Language Teaching Department	19	Male
Ali	English Language Teaching Department	21	Male
Burcu	English Language Teaching Department	19	Female
Cenk	English Language Teaching Department	20	Male
Deniz	English Language Teaching Department	21	Female
Ebru	English Language Teaching Department	22	Female
Elif	English Language Teaching Department	20	Female
Melek	English Language Teaching Department	24	Female
Nur	English Language Teaching Department	18	Female
Su	English Language Teaching Department	19	Female

*The names are in alphabetical order.

CHAPTER SIX

6. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

6.1. Overview

In this chapter the phases of the study are detailed and data analysis is given along with discussion. First, Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OCSI) is defined and statistical data is given. This was the first phase of the study which was to select the participants for the second phase. The second phase consisted of interviews to determine the characteristics of language learners as listeners. The results of the analysis obtained from interviews are given. Findings are discussed in reference with the current literature. As a limitation of the study it should be stated that there is a gap in the literature to provide sufficient data on the characteristics of language learners as listeners. After preliminary investigations of transcribed data, The Big Five Factors (BFF) is determined as the theme of the characteristics. Being the most widely accepted set of personality traits, these factors were discussed in previous chapters (See Chapter 4 for detailed review of BFF). Each trait of the BFF has unique categories which cover the characteristics of language learners as listeners.

6.2. Oral Communication Strategies Inventory (OCSI) Results

The Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OCSI) was developed by Nakatani (2006). It has two parts. The first part examines speaking strategies used for coping with the problems experienced during speaking and the second part examines strategies for coping with listening problems experienced during interaction. There are eight categories for the speaking part and seven categories for the listening part. In this study, only the second part of OCSI was used as speaking is not among the concerns of the research. Categories of Nakatani's listening inventory are as follow:

1. Negotiation for meaning while listening
2. Fluency-maintaining strategies

3. Scanning strategies
4. Getting the gist strategies
5. Nonverbal strategies while listening
6. Less active listener strategies
7. Word-oriented strategies.

Among these categories, only the sixth category which is measured by two items (items 11, 24), represents a negative attitude against developing active strategies while listening. This category consists of factors such as: translating into native language, depending on familiar words only, not guessing meaning from context or not thinking in target language. According to Nakatani (2006), "the more the learners use these strategies, the less likely they are to improve their listening comprehension ability during authentic interaction" (p. 157). Having two variables, Factor 6 of the inventory was also criticized by Nakatani himself as being less appropriate than other factors. The reliability of OCSI's listening part was confirmed by Cronbach's alpha (0,85 for listening part). The total percentage of variance accounting for seven factors of listening part was 58.3 %.

OCSI was also used by İrgin (2011) who investigated it in terms of a Turkish context. After re-testing OCSI, she developed a listening strategy inventory (Dinleme Strateji Envanteri, DSE) for Turkish context. However, DSE lacks enough qualitative data and its development procedure was nothing more than translating OCSI into Turkish.

In the first phase of our study, OCSI was used without any translation as the participants were all upper-intermediate learners (freshman students after one year of intensive English preparatory class). A total of 123 students (72 women and 48 men) participated in the study. The participants' ages ranged from 18 to 24 years old. Gender and age were not among the concerns of the study so the demographic profile data was collected only to assure the homogeneity of the group in terms of general profile of English language teaching departments of Turkey.

The reliability of the questionnaire indicated a highly acceptable consistency with Cronbach's alpha value measured 0.80. OCSI was used in its original form, therefore factor analysis was not conducted. The participants were ranked according to

their values obtained from OCSI results. Only Factor 6 was excluded as it was designed to measure ‘less active listener strategies’. Each participant’s responses for the questions were calculated to obtain a total value. Values were equal to likert scale figures. For example if a participant’s response for an item was 1 (Never or almost never true of me), then it was given one point. Likewise, 5 point was given for an item which was responded as 5 (Always or almost always true of me). In this way, top ranking participants (see Table 6.1 for interview scores) were determined and they were included in the second phase of the study which included interviews to determine the characteristics of language learners as listeners.

Table 6.1.

*OCSI Scores of the Participants**

PSEUDONYMS FOR THE PARTICIPANTS	**OCSI Score**
Ahmet	4,33/5
Ali	4,33/5
Burcu	4,5/5
Cenk	4,25/5
Deniz	4,5/5
Ebru	4,33/5
Elif	4,25/5
Melek	4,95/5
Nur	4,95/5
Su	4,5/5

*The names are in alphabetical order.

6.3. Interviews

As the second phase of the study, in-depth interviews were conducted by the researcher himself. Participants having the highest scores of OCSI results were included

in interviewing section. According to OCSI scores, 10 participants (7 women and 3 men) were included in this phase. They are accepted as having the awareness and ability of using listening strategies. Content analysis was conducted to obtain grouped data from interviews. Data analysis and discussion of current literature are given under the following sub-chapters.

6.4. Agreeableness

Agreeableness is one of BFF and it is associated with courtesy, cooperation and tolerance (Abe, 2005; Barrick & Mount, 1991; Bidjerano & Dai, 2007). Participants' responses for the related interview questions and probes revealed two main categories of agreeableness: Kindness and cooperative behaviour (Table 6.2).

Table 6.2.
Theme 1: Agreeableness

THEME 1: AGREEABLENESS	
CATEGORIES	**CODES**
Category 1: Kindness	1. Respectful 2. Non-interruptive 3. Caring
Category 2: Cooperative Behaviour	1. Giving feedback 2. Participatory 3. Responsive

Agreeableness and its categories compound a very popular set of characteristics among the participants. Being respectful to the speaker seems to be the most significant characteristic of listeners. Most of the participants reported to hold a respectful attitude towards the speaker in two-way listening process. One of the participants expressed her attitude as follows:

> *"I show respect to the words of speaker. While listening to her/him I do not want to seem disrespectful with my manner and behaviour.*

Sometimes people may pose reckless attitude towards the teacher or even their friends while listening. I can't stand it because there is someone speaking." (Melek)

It is important to note that 'being respectful' is a quite dominant characteristic of the listeners whether the speaker is their teacher or their classmate or even a foreigner. They think 'respect' is a mutual and humanistic concept. Following two quotations show the listeners perception of respect in their listening experiences:

"In my opinion, if I want to be listened carefully, I should listen to her/him. This is something like a mirror. Think that, someone is speaking and you do not respect her/him. For example you seem irrelevant, you act rudely and disrespectfully… and what do you expect?" (Elif)

"English is our aim here. We learn it to have a better career and a better job, of course. But listening is not restricted to English. We listen to Turkish more than English. If we do not respect what is being said and who is saying it, then we will seem inconsiderate." (Cenk)

Almost no data exists in the relevant literature on 'respect' as a characteristic of listener. Considering cultural and social backgrounds of the participants, it is logical to estimate it as a characteristic arising from national stereotypes or parental manners of the context. Several studies reveal cultural stereotypes as determinants of SLA process (Grindsted, 2000; Kramsch, 1993, 1998).

Another factor attributed to 'kindness' is being 'non-interruptive'. Most of the participants who reported to be respectful while listening, also reported themselves as non-interruptive even the topic would not suit them or they would like to raise an objection to what is being told. According to them interrupting is an indicator of being a poor listener as one of them described:

'Sometimes we listen to passages from various topics. They can contrast with my previous knowledge but I do not interrupt it or object. The same thing is valid also for my teachers and friends or even for a foreigner... If I object and interrupt it, it means that I do not know listening and I am a knows-it-all. Yet my aim is to learn while listening to English. Not only the knowledge itself but also pronunciation, vocabulary etc.' (Elif)

Another participant emphasized interruption:

'I never interrupt. Because it is worse than the speaker's mistake. Also I hate being interrupted.' (Ebru)

Retrospecting her classroom experiences, one of the participants revealed her listener characteristics as 'non-interruptive' and 'caring'. She described her attitude while listening a lecture by her professor, a classroom performance by one of her classmates and an everyday conversation with one of her friends on Skype:

'... for example last year our teacher would read passages and he would summarize with his own words to make us understand the text better. While listening to him, I tried to grasp the topic and seemed interested. Whether the speaker is a teacher or a friend, It doesn't differ. Sometimes my classmates make presentations. I should be careful even with my sitting style on the desk. If I sit in a reckless style, it means that I do not notice her/him. Then s/he will be insulted. This is the same for everyone regardless of their position. My friend, my teacher or a foreigner ... I have got some foreign friends on Skype and Chatroulette, I do not spoil them while listening.' (Nur)

Listening differs from writing and reading in that it needs at least two agents (the speaker and the listener) which allow participation of the two. During classroom listening activities and everyday listening experiences, listeners also need collaboration.

The participants revealed their characteristics in terms of cooperative behaviour. Giving feedback was seen as an indicator of comprehension:

> *'When I listen to my teacher or my classmates I take notes and later I contribute her/him in that 'you said this and I have a different idea on the subject' or sometimes I criticize her/him and I can use her/his expressions which show that I have a full comprehension of her/his words.' (Ahmet)*

Participatory listening was also a favorable characteristic among the participants most of whom defined themselves as 'participatory' rather being passive listeners:

> *'I do not just listen. I attend my teacher. I do not like listening without any reaction.'(Nur)*

> *'Sometimes I share my opinions on the topic. For example I may ask for a right to speak and probably say 'Excuse me, in my opinion it should be in this way' or I may accept and contribute to her/him by saying 'I agree with you'.' (Burcu)*

Another characteristic of listeners, being 'responsive', can be drawn from the following quote:

> *'It is annoying if you are listening without any reaction. I cannot be indifferent to the speaker whether it is a classroom activity or an ordinary communication. At least I say a couple of words after listening her/his speech.' (Melek)*

It is emphasized that listening is an active process during which the listener has a role of listening and participating (Purdy, 1997; Vandergrift, 2004). Participating, responding and giving verbal or non-verbal feedback are among the common listener behaviours. Barker (1971) studied feedback in listening with three dimensions: self-

feedback, listener to listener feedback and listener to speaker feedback. According to several other scholars' feedback and participation of the listener is among vital components of active or effective listening (Murphy, 1989; Rogers & Farson, 1987; 1994; Rost, 2002; Wolvin & Coakley, 1993).

From this theme, following listener characteristics have been drawn:

a. Being respectful
b. Being non-interruptive
c. Caring
d. Giving feedback
e. Being participatory
f. Being responsive.

These characteristics – apart from 'being respectful' – have all been defined by previous studies (Purdy & Newman, 1999; Steil, Barker & Watson, 1983). As can be drawn from the participants' reports, listening was approached from multi-dimensional perspectives: bi-directional (or interactional) listening, one-way listening, classroom listening, pleasurable listening, discriminative listening. They thought listening for a classroom task, to one of their classmate's presentation or their teacher's lecture or even listening to music in their free time. Obviously their styles and appreciation have been determined by their listening aims and the speaker. For example 'being respectful' should be more attributed to the setting in which the participant listens to her/his teacher or classmate, while 'being participatory' is the case while having an everyday communication experience. However it should be noted that these are the characteristics unique to their listener profiles and these characteristics exist more or less in all settings. It can be concluded that moral issues such as being respectful and caring as a listener are context-bound characteristics; that is, they are special to the community or social group the listener belongs to. Previous studies have no similar findings. Most of the participants are of eastern region of the country which means they are brought up in patriarchal family structures. In traditional Turkish family structure, children are generally conditioned to listen and obey. Unfortunately, this tendency can be transmitted to classroom settings which results in a unidirectional teacher-student interaction. However it is a controversial issue whether 'respect' is a negative

characteristic for a language learner in listening in which the listener is expected to have the merit of listening in a non-disturbing manner.

6.5. Extraversion

A number of studies have examined the impact of extraversion on language learning (Dewaele & Furnham, 1999; Ehrman, Betty & Oxford, 2003; Kiany, 1998; Oxford & Anderson, 1995; van Daele, Housen, Pierrard & DeBruyn, 2006; Wong, 2011). As a personality factor, extraversion is suggested to affect learner's learning styles and proficiency in a positive way as it is associated with sociability, assertiveness and enthusiasm (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Participants of this study reported two main categories of extraversion: sociability and enthusiasm (Table 6.3) which revealed six unique characteristics of listeners:

a. Being open-minded
b. Being empathic
c. Making eye contact
d. Context-bound willingness
e. Content-bound willingness
f. Mood dependent willingness

Table 6.3 Theme 2: Extraversion

THEME 2: EXTRAVERSION	
CATEGORIES	**CODES**
Category 1: Sociability	1. Open-minded 2. Empathic 3. (making) Eye contact
Category 2: Enthusiasm	1. (context-bound) willing 2. (content-bound) willing 3. (mood dependent) willing

It is notable that nearly all of the participants (7 out of 10) reported at least one of the characteristics inferrible from extraversion. Being 'open-minded' was

emphasized to refer that the participant is open to new ideas as well as newly presented information. As the participants stated, newly presented information is acceptable even it contrasts with their existing knowledge:

> *'I listen whatever the speaker tells. Because maybe I will learn new thing from her/his words. Even if they are too different for me, I do not stop listening or leave the topic. I try to relate it with my existing knowledge.' (Su)*

> *'There occurred many cases when I listened and changed my existing beliefs or knowledge. I think a learner should be open to everything. Otherwise how can we learn? While listening in English I change my pronunciation and sometimes I learn new words that are more suitable than my vocabulary. I adopt them.' (Nur)*

As an emotional and cognitive term, empathy was reported by the participants several times. Those who defined themselves as 'empathic', related the term to the necessities of classroom atmosphere:

> *'In the classroom I try to empathize with the other. While listening, I do not confine myself to my own ideas or feelings or understanding.' (Elif)*

> *'According to me, the listener should empathize with the speaker, so that s/he can understand all the message the speaker wants to give. I do this during listening in listening classes.' (Nur)*

Making eye contact during listening was reported by most of the participants. Like 'respect', 'eye contact' is also typical to cultural context (Sueyoshi & Hardison, 2005). Several studies emphasize that as a paralinguistic feature of communication, eye contact is an important tool for listening comprehension enabling listener understand the message better (Heaton, 1978; Pennycook, 1985; Sueyoshi & Hardison, 2005). Some participants identified it with 'caring the speaker' or 'giving feedback'; some others

revealed cultural and traditional stereotypes as underlying reasons for making eye contact:

> *'Our listening and pronunciation courses depend on classroom interactions. Sometimes we listen from a CD player and sometimes our teacher talks. When I listen to my teacher or my classmates I rarely lose eye contact because I feel not caring the speaker when my eyes wander.' (Su)*

> *'... and eye contact is crucial for me to comprehend what I am listening to.. yes, eyes are important to indicate it (comprehension).' (Burcu)*

> *'Sometimes I miss the point. For example while listening to my teacher, when I face with a word or phrase that I have never heard before, I miss the point. Our teacher understands it from my eyes. I should give this message to my teacher through eye contact.' (Melek)*

> *'... eye contact is necessary sometimes. It may distract my teacher if I look at other things while s/he is speaking. Yet listening to my friends is different from it.' (Ahmet)*

There is much research on 'task difficulty' as a factor determining comprehension of second language listener (Brindley & Slatyer, 2002; Ghahdarijani, 2012; Révész & Brunfaut, 2013). Task difficulty should be assessed as a content-bound factor affecting listening comprehension. However it is obvious that there are other factors as well. The participants reported 'willingness' with three sub-variables: context-bound, content-bound and mood dependent willingness to listen.

Context-bound willingness was reported as follows:

> *'While watching a film or listening to a foreigner (a tourist), I mean, out of the classroom, I feel more willing to listen to. I study at home before coming to class and I get bored when listening to the same thing over and over. You have to understand the topic. There are orders you should*

follow: listen, answer ... It is not enjoyable listening for the lesson. I do not get bored while watching a film in English.' (Burcu)

Content-bound willingness was reported as follow:

'Generally, I get bored easily if the topic is not interesting. For example we have a coursebook for listening and pronunciation class. It has many interesting topics but some others are rather dull and boring. In fact I do not want to even attend to class on those days. Our teacher tries hard to make the lesson interesting but if the topic is dull we get bored easily.' (Su)

'I am more interested into it if the topic is one of my favorites.' (Melek)

'...for example my best friend is Murat and we do speaking practices. I try to find interesting topics to make him listen to me eagerly. I ask the same thing from him. His words should appeal to my interests. For example, he knows that I like learning about new places in the world and he tells me about interesting places all over the world' (Ali)

Mood dependent willingness was reported by one of the participants as follows:

'It depends on my mood. If I do not feel good while listening to English whether it is classroom or at home, it affects my enthusiasm.' (Burcu)

The characteristics revealed in this theme are more likely to be correlated to personality factors. Personality factors are suggested to have a key role 'on the development of L2 basic interpersonal skills' (Ellis, 2004, p. 541). Liyanage (2004) pointed the impact of a learner's cultural background on her/his communication behaviour. Willingness and motivation have been listed as two of personality factors (Ellis, 1994; Dörnyei, 2005). Willingness of our participants to listening is found to have been determined by three factors which can be concluded as being sources of

motivation. Lightbown and Spada (2006) mentioned ‘willingness’ as one of the characteristics of good language learner.

In their pioneering study on the characteristics of listeners, Steil et al., (1983) mentioned ‘being open minded, making eye contact’ and ‘willingness’ as good characteristics of language learners. However their study lacked a detailed categorization of ‘willingness’. Purdy and Newman (1999) listed ‘willingness' under the name of ‘caring attitude’ however it is obvious that ‘caring’ differs from willingness in that the former is related to ‘kindness’ while the latter is content-bound or context-bound which suggests ‘motivation’. Besides, willingness has psychological and cognitive backgrounds which mean ‘willingness’ is much more complex than it was estimated by previous studies. It is more than ‘making listening classes attractive’ or ‘choosing listening material to attract the learners’.

The participant’s answers to interview questions gave hints of psychological and cognitive factors affecting their listening behavior. It is obvious that their readiness and willingness change depending on internal and external factors. Listening types, material or topic, and the setting have influence on whether a listener is open to comprehend or not.

Being sociable should be considered in terms of personality factors which cause a listener to be good at interpersonal relationships. For example, a listener who feels isolated from her/his social context may not find it easy to make eye contact while listening in a foreign language.

6.6. Openness

Associated with elaborative learning (Geisler-Breinstein, Schmeck & Hetherington, 1996; Slaats, Van der Sanden & Lodewijks, 1997) and constructive learning (Busato, Prins, Elshout & Hamaker, 1999), Intellect (Bidjerano & Dai, 2007) or Openness to Experience (McCrae & Costa, 1985) has been found to correlate with metacognitive listening skills (Fayyaz & Kamal, 2011).

This theme gave two categories: curiosity and imagination (Table 6.4.) which revealed five characteristics of listeners:

a. Asking for repetition
b. Asking for clarification/simplification/examples
c. Opening debate
d. Imagining
e. Retrospective imagining

Table 6.4.

Theme 3: Openness

THEME 3: OPENNESS	
CATEGORIES	**CODES**
Category 1: Curiosity / Ask Questions	1. Ask for repetition 2. Ask for clarification/simplification/examples 3. Open debate
Category 2: Imagination	1. Imagining 2. Retrospective imagining

Participants reported that they ask questions when they cannot comprehend the topic during listening. Some participants reported using questions for their curiosity. Only one of the participants who reported to be 'non-interruptive' also reported 'curiosity' or 'asking questions'. She stressed that she would note her question down to ask after the speaker finishes or she would wait until an appropriate interval of speech. All of the participants who reported 'curiosity' or 'asking questions' also stated that they use eye contact and/or gestures or mimics to give the message of 'asking for clarification/simplification/examples' or 'asking for repetition'. Participants revealed their characteristics of curiosity as follow:

'I ask her/him to repeat when I do not understand.' (Burcu)

'If I can't hear or I have any difficulty in comprehending it, I ask the speaker to slow down or to repeat it. If the problem goes on I ask her/him to paraphrase. While listening or watching on my own, I replay it as much as I need to understand.' (Ahmet)

'... native speakers use too much contractions. Even our teachers sometimes use difficult idioms or phrases. If I do not understand it or I have a problem in perceiving it, I try to express it through mimics or gestures.' (Melek)

'When I do not understand, I say: 'Could you repeat it please.' In listening and pronunciation classes it is easy to ask our teacher to replay it or restate it, even I think our teacher understands from my eyes or mimics, however it is a big problem while listening to a foreigner. I generally ask her/him to restate it with simple words and slowly.' (Nur)

'Not to disturb her/him, I wait till he finishes his words or at least I wait for an appropriate interval then I kindly request her/him to repeat it.' (Elif)

Another way of asking questions has appeared to be 'opening debate'. Only one of the participants reported that she opens debate during listening. She expects the speaker to reveal cues to allow her comprehend:

'... listening and pronunciation classes are based on listening and comprehension of topics which are of various subjects. When I have difficulty in comprehending any word, expression or concept, I try to discuss the topic with our teacher or my classmate. In this way s/he gives me elaborated explanations of the topic. I can infer the meaning in this way.' (Elif)

Imagining was reported as a characteristic of listeners. It is important to note that those participants who described themselves as ‘daydreamer’ and ‘non-focused’ also reported to be imagining while listening:

> *‘While I am listening, there should be a full silence because I can’t focus on it if there is loud. Silence is very important because sometimes I shut my eyes and try to see the picture. It helps me understand.’ (Burcu)*

> *‘I reflect it into my mind: I try to imagine what is being said or what can be said there. I fill the blanks with my imagination and deductions.’ (Deniz)*

Interviews revealed an interesting characteristic which is described as ‘retrospective imagining’. Some participants, who rely on their imaginations, expressed that they continue imagining what they have listened to even after the class or the conversation. It is obvious that this kind of ‘imagining’ more frequently occurs when listener can not reach a sufficient comprehension during listening:

> *‘I do not understand sometimes. It affects all my day. For example if I can’t understand something it becomes somehow obsession for me. It puzzles me. I go on thinking on it. Trying to see the picture and fill in the gap(s) I have from the listening, I keep focused on it. Later on, I can find and say ‘Oh! Yes. It was machine not vaccine.’ My roommates get angry with me. They warn me to leave the subject in the classroom but I can’t stop thinking a gap from any listening.’ (Burcu)*

> *‘… Though not being very often, I may keep thinking on a point which I could not catch during listening. I try to think the event or concept from various perspectives. It helps me understand even the class and listening is over.’ (Ali)*

The role of asking questions were discussed as being important factors to help learning (see Chapter II for the views of Plato, Gadamer and Rousseau cited in Haroutunian – Gordon & Laverty, 2011). Besides, asking for repetitions and simplifications for a better comprehension are among the characteristics determined by previous studies (Purdy & Newman, 1999; Steil et al., 1983). 'Open debate' is found to be a newly reported characteristic by listeners. It is reasonable to think that those listeners who revealed 'opening debate' are extraverts as is the case with our participants. Making use of theories of abstract ideas is a significant concept for the learners who are described to have 'openness' as a personality factor (Costa & McCrae, 1992).

Asking questions is one of the most commonly used ways of facilitating comprehension in EFL listening. Learner asks questions in various forms and for various purposes, however all of these questions have only one purpose: making comprehension better. Traditionally listening courses have been designed as 'listen and repeat' settings. The teacher is the speaker (or there is an audio/video source), s/he repeats as many times as s/he wants. Then the students are expected to repeat. However, today our conceptualization of listening comprehension class is far beyond this. The listener's role is active (as it should be) and listening is not just a 'listen and repeat' activity. As a result of taking an active role, the listener participates more and has the option of asking questions for various reasons. While giving the message of 'asking for clarification/simplification/examples' or 'asking for repetition', the participants reported using gestures and mimics as well as eye contact. Using gestures, mimics and other facial expressions have been discussed in current literature as important factors of both cross-cultural studies and listening comprehension research. In an experimental study Riseborough (1981) suggested the importance of gestures and visual cues in listening comprehension. Hattori's (1987) observations and self-reports obtained from Japanese students who lived in the U.S.A. provided evidence on the topic. Several other scholars studied positive effects of using gestures in listening comprehension (Cabrera & Martinez, 2001; Cassel, McNeill & McCullough, 1999; Goldin-Meadow, 1999).

Imagination has a reflection in cognitive strategies listeners use. Among cognitive strategies, visualization, which is described as 'forming a mental picture of what is heard' (Yavuz, 2004, p. 32), should be broadened to 'imagination' to cover both

concurrent and retrospective imagining. Visual scenarios are known to be helpful for a better comprehension in listening (Yavuz, 2004).

The listener has an active role in forming a mental picture as s/he listens. Therefore comprehension is directly related to the skill of imagining. Most of the participants revealed that they comprehend better when they imagine before or after listening to any source in foreign language. Their imaginative ability is an important facilitator of listening comprehension. Even listening to an audio recording (without video or pictures) makes more sense to them as compared to those who do not imagine what they listen to.

6.7. Conformity

Conformity, which has been called as conscientiousness (Ames et al., 2012; Barrick & Mount, 1991; Botwin & Buss, 1989; Fayyaz & Kamal, 2011; Hakel, 1974; McCrae & Costa, 1985; Norman, 1963), dependability (Hogan, 1983) or will (Digman, 1989; Smith, 1967; Wiggins, Blackburn & Hackman, 1969) is related to educational achievement measures and volition; that is, 'being thorough, organized and planful' or being 'hardworking and persevering' (Barrick & Mount, 1991, p. 4). Whichever definition or denomination is chosen, it is predominantly associated with high academic performance (Abe, 2005).

The theme 'Conformity' revealed 'planfulness' and 'goal-directed behaviour' with several characteristics of listeners. Among all, 'text dependency' and 'text independency' are significant characteristics to be reviewed as they have not been identified by any previous study. There are also some characteristics which have close connections with metacognitive strategies (Table 6.5.). The characteristics revealed under this theme are:

a. Pre-reading/pre-listening
b. Note-taking
c. Being focused
d. Being text dependent
e. Being text independent
f. Paraphrasing

Table 6.5.

Theme 4: Conformity

THEME 4: CONFORMITY	
CATEGORIES	**CODES**
Category 1: Planfulness	1. Pre-reading / Pre-listening 2. Note-taking
Category 2: Goal-directed behaviour	1. Focused 2. Text dependent 3. Text independent 4. Paraphrase

Depending on the type of listening task and material, 'pre-reading' is one of the characteristics of listeners. They reported depending on a text before coming to classes. It is obvious that 'pre-reading' is a characteristic they developed over time to overcome the difficulties they encountered. In this sense, it can be evaluated as a strategy as well:

> *'I read two or three times before coming to classroom. It helps me understand better while listening. If we have the listening track itself I listen to it several times beforehand.' (Ahmet)*

> *'We have a textbook and I think it becomes easier to understand the teacher if I read the text before the class.' (Ebru)*

> *'There is too much noise in the classroom while we are listening to our teacher or one of our classmates because we are trying to catch the meaning. Generally my friends make noise while asking each other. Sometimes I focus on but I get distracted on a question raised by one of my classmates. Because of these, I read the text in my room before I come to the class. It helps me comprehend better. I wish we had texts even before the exams.' (Burcu)*

As being one of metacognitive strategies, ‘pre-reading’ was mentioned as ‘advance preparation’ in previous studies (Yavuz, 2004). However this definition is rather restricted when the case is a learner’s characteristic which is adopted as a result of above mentioned factors complicating listening comprehension. Besides, ‘pre-listening’ was also reported by one of the participants. Pre-listening is not restricted to the listening material that is used in classroom. It is interesting that some participants reported that they use movies or songs to study for listening. They claimed that listening ‘anything’ in English helps them overcome listening comprehension problems in classroom:

> *‘... for example if I have listening class tomorrow, I listen to some music or watch a film. Then, the next day I feel at ease during listening and pronunciation class. I feel that I comprehend better.’ (Deniz)*

Note-taking was revealed to be used for asking questions. However some participants reported that note-taking is an important part of their listening experiences. They reflect the same characteristic of note-taking: noting important points or the points they have not fully comprehended:

> *‘... generally I note down the important points.’ (Melek)*

> *‘Listening to an audio or to our teacher is much more difficult than listening to our classmates. They speak more fluently which makes is difficult to understand. I take notes during listening and then I check them.’ (Nur)*

Some of the participants reported that they use these notes to ask questions for a specific vocabulary or for obscure points of the subject:

> *‘I try to write down the words that I can’t understand totally. Then I look up for it. If I can’t find it, I consult to my friends or teacher.’ (Cenk)*

A second set of characteristics that are drawn under the theme ‘conformity’ is goal-directed behaviour. The effect of texts provided along with listening gives two characteristics. Some participants identified themselves as text-dependent while some others pointed out their text-independent manner in listening. Text-independents even revealed that presence of a text along with listening distracts them and they experience difficulty in focusing:

> *‘I should be all alone with the voice. How can I match them together? Looking at the text or listening? I can’t focus on the listening task while there are words and letters in front of my eyes.’ (Deniz)*

> *‘I do not prefer using a text if I do not have to use it. It distracts my attention. I may miss the audio or the voice while trying to match them with the written material.’ (Ali)*

On the other hand, text-dependent listeners reported that they feel anxious in the absence of text. Moreover, text-dependent listeners suggested that a text accompanying their listening raises their willingness:

> *‘It is very easy if we have an accompanying text. Think that you do not know what is going to be said. You have no idea on what are you going to listen. The topic ... the vocabulary... they are very difficult and obscure. When I have a text in my hand, I feel better, no matter how difficult it is.’ (Burcu)*

> *‘Last year, we didn’t use a course book for listening. For this reason it was boring. I didn’t know what to study or what to listen on that day. I felt unwilling for listening. This year, we use a course book which has topics for each day. Therefore I can see the topic of the day. I feel better now.’ (Ahmet)*

Willingness and anxiety are two main factors having effect on text-dependency/independency. Willingness was explained in detail as a characteristic belonging to the group of 'enthusiasm' (See Theme 2, Category 2). Anxiety, the other factor affected text-dependency and also affected by it, is a trendy issue of SLA research. There are several studies investigating the effects of anxiety on language learning (Bailey, 1983; Dörnyei, 2005; Horwitz, 2001; Tsui, 1996) as well as on listening (Elkhafaifi, 2005; In'nami, 2006; Vandergrift, 1999; Vogely, 1998).

Only one of the participants reported that he 'paraphrases' while listening:

> *'I think about it and try to construct a new expression with my own words.'(Ali)*

As a cognitive listening strategy, reconstruction is defined as 'listeners' reshaping their understanding' (Yavuz, 2004, p. 32). According to Goh (1990) listener achieves it in two style; either during listening or after listening. The words heard during listening or notes taken by the listener can be used for reconstruction. However paraphrasing listener differs from the one who uses reconstruction in that paraphrasing listener uses original material and paraphrasing generally takes in listener's mind.

'Being focused' was reported frequently by the participants. Generally, this concept was observed to have been embedded in other characteristics. Verbal reports revealed that listeners need to focus on the subject as well as the task itself. Task difficulty and text difficulty are important factors for a listener to focus on. This characteristic seems to be opposed to a poor characteristic, 'being non-focused', which will be defined in the next theme (See Theme 4: Neuroticism) in terms of its causes and effects on listening. Phonetics, outer factors and topic are the causes of being focused or non-focused. One of the participants reported these factors as follows:

> *'...it becomes easy when the topic is a familiar one. Then I focus on easily. I should have something as previous knowledge in my mind before listening to any topic.' (Melek)*

Another participant emphasized the importance of outer factors on her focusing:

'Our dormitory is crowded which makes it unsuitable for listening. When I'm in the classroom, I feel it easy to focus on the subject. Because everybody is doing the same task and they do not make noise or other things.' (Burcu)

Only one of six characteristics reported in this study was mentioned in Purdy and Newman's '99 work. Text-dependency/independency is defined to be a novel characteristic which does not exist in previous studies. Note-taking, being focused and paraphrasing were mentioned in several studies dealing with language learning strategies (See Chapter 3 for an extended review of literature on language learning strategies). However these terms reflect different profiles when they are described as the characteristics of a learner. Using a strategy mostly needs an awareness or training while these characteristics have self-developed and self-directed natures. Probably the listener transfers these characteristics from her/his everyday communicational nature.

6.8. Neuroticism

There are several factors affecting neuroticism. Anxiety (Fayyaz & Kamal, 2011), depression, anger, embarrassment and excitement (Barrick & Mount, 1991) are common traits associated with neuroticism. Eyesenck (1967) suggested a relationship between neuroticism and lack of effective cognitive skills. The characteristics revealed under this theme seem to be 'poor' listener characteristics (Table 6.6.). Research in literature suggests that poor listener characteristics can be associated with gender differences (Borisoff & Purdy, 1991; Purdy & Newman, 1999). As gender is not among concerns of this study, it will not be reviewed here. The characteristics obtained under this theme are:

a. Being distracted
b. Being non-focused (because of phonetics, topic or outer factors)
c. Being unsociable
d. Being close-minded
e. Daydreaming
f. Having eyes wander
g. Being judgmental.

Table 6.6.

Theme 5: Neuroticism

THEME 5: NEUROTICISM	
CATEGORIES	**CODES**
Category 1: Anxiety	1. Distracted 2. Non-focused a. Phonetics b. Outer factors (sound, interruption etc.) c. Topic
Category 2: Low self-esteem	1. Unsociable 2. Close-minded
Category3: Emotional lability	1. Daydream 2. Eyes Wander 3. Judgmental

Being ‘distracted’ and ‘non-focused’ are two significant characteristics of listeners. Both of them are dealt with a broader term: ‘anxiety’. One of the participants reported himself as distracted:

‘I feel distracted when I miss a word or even I can’t catch the topic.’ (Cenk)

Another participant mentioned linguistic factors:

‘...the most arduous aspect of listening in English is pronunciation. It is pronounced in a different style from its written form so whenever I hear

a difficult expression to pronounce or to comprehend I get annoyed.' (Nur)

Non-focused listeners, sometimes, find the topic irrelevant or they blame outer factors:

'I warn my classmates or flatmates: please be silent and do not make noise while I am listening to something or studying for listening class. Any noise, even sometimes a door creaking disturbs me. I can't concentrate on.' (Burcu)

'I do my best to be successful. However our listening and pronunciation class gets unbearable sometimes. We may study nonsense and irrelevant topics. It makes me non-focused.' (Deniz)
'... listening is different from writing because it perplexes me whenever I hear I difficult word. Our teacher helps us but while watching a film or chatting with a foreigner ... it is really different.' (Ahmet)

These characteristics are reported to stem from several factors such as linguistic and paralinguistic features of listening process. Phonetics, topic, loudness, rate and fluency are among the causes of being a distracted or a non-focused listener. These factors have been described as the sources of problems of listening process by several studies (Anderson & Lynch, 1988; Flowerdew & Miller, 2005; Ur, 1994; Yagang, 1993; Yavuz, 2004). These factors are grouped as:

1. sounds
2. intonation and stress
3. outer noise
4. colloquial vocabulary and accent
5. accent

Though not having been reported by many participants; 'unsociability' and 'being close-minded' were also reported among characteristics of listeners. Obviously they appeared to be poor listener characteristics because the participants expressed their

discontent on these characteristics. According to them being unsociable and close-minded cause them become poor listeners:

> *'In classroom, I do not have very close relationships with my classmates. I have good friends but they are very few. I don't attend many classroom activities. Our teacher asks us to form groups with our classmates and prepare presentations. These all help us to develop our listening ability but I do not attend group works because I can't be very close with others. As a result I have only few friends to communicate.' (Cenk)*

> *'I do not accept easily. I have to judge for a long time to accept any new idea. Otherwise I can't convince myself. This sometimes causes me stick into my on feelings. Think that I am listening to an audio or my teacher. S/he is teaching something or even her/his pronunciation teaches me but my mind is close to it. I do not receive it. As if I know it all the best. However I am a learner here and I should learn. But I fail to do this especially for pronunciation.' (Deniz)*

Undoubtedly, Bandura's (1977) 'social learning theory' contributed much to this issue. Social setting and learner's adaptation to this setting is extremely important for a satisfying extent of learning. There are several studies on sociocultural theory and its effects on language learning (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006; Pavlenko & Lantolf, 2004). Also research proved that successful second language learner should adopt various aspects of target language's linguistic and cultural patterns (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Ushida, 2005). Obviously close-minded and unsociable listeners lack the features of a well-socialized language learner who is open to adopt new ideas as well as new learning opportunities during second language listening.

'Emotional lability' which revealed three characteristics of listeners can be described as cognitive and affective instability of listeners. 'Being judgmental' and 'daydreaming' are two examples of the characteristics reported by the participants.

Participants also mentioned having ‘eyes wander’, as well as ‘daydreaming’ when they feel distracted or lose their attention during listening:

> *‘Listening is very different... while listening to an audio or someone speaking I imagine the scene. It facilitates my comprehension. However there is a problem while imagining. I can’t focus on one topic and find myself dreaming something else. Once I wanted to think of an airport to imagine a conversation there I found myself thinking about my future plans to go abroad which were rather irrelevant to the topic.’ (Burcu)*

> *‘Listening to one of my classmates or my teacher is better that listening an audio file since it helps me focusing on. Otherwise I interest in other things. I look out of window or I check missing calls from my cell phone.’ (Cenk)*

‘Being judgmental’ was reported along with ‘jumping to conclusions’ both of which indicate ‘impatience’:

> *‘It puts me into trouble to prejudice while listening. We listened a crime report and all my classmates made fun of me. I suspected nearly all characters in the story.’ (Ali)*

> *‘While listening to others, I come to a decision too early which makes me embarrassed. I make up my mind and express it, soon after that it turns out to be wrong. It is important for me to learn wait’ (Ebru).*

Listener characteristics reported under the theme ‘neuroticism’ are the characteristics of poor listener or they reflect poor aspects of a listener. Literature suggests a great deal of research on poor listeners in second language acquisition. However there are few works describing their very basic characteristics. Apart from ‘unsociability’, all of these characteristics were reviewed by previous studies (Purdy & Newman, 1999; Steil et al., 1983). Unsociability has its roots in cultural stereotypes as

well as psychological agents. As discussed above, these are social and affective barriers listeners have. An unsocial learner benefits less from social learning settings. Again, there are cultural stereotypes causing a language learner become an unsociable person in listening. Family, traditions, beliefs and social context in which the learner is brought up may determine this characteristic. An unsociable listener's proficiency level and listening comprehension affect each other which can demotivate her/him. Being close-minded, likewise being unsociable, should be attributed to the social context of the listener as well as her/his previous educational experiences. Having dominant figures in her/his life, the language learner feels forced to accept life as a prescribed structure in which ideas and concepts hardly ever change.

6.9. Overall Assessment

All the characteristics reviewed under the five main themes have one thing in common: they reflect the listeners. It is broader picture of language learners as listeners which is drawn with the help of a strategy inventory. In total 30 characteristics have been defined under 5 themes and 11 categories. The characteristics reported by the participants are listed according to their frequency of occurrence in verbal reports (Table 6.7).

Table 6.7.

The Characteristics Reported by Listeners

Sequence	**The Characteristic Reported**	**Theme/Category**	**Frequency of Occurrence (approximately)**
1	Non-focused	Neuroticism/Anxiety	6
2	(making) Eye contact	Extraversion/Sociability	5
3	Pre-reading/Pre-listening	Conformity/Planfulness	5
4	Focused	Conformity/Goal-directed behaviour	5
5	(being) Respectful	Agreeableness/Kindness	4
6	Ask for repetition	Openness/Curiosity – Ask questions	4

Table 6.7 *(Continued)*

7	Ask for clarification/ simplification/ examples	Openness/Curiosity – Ask questions	4
8	Willingness*	Extraversion/Enthusiasm	4
9	Text-dependent	Conformity/Goal-directed behaviour	3
10	Text independent	Conformity/Goal-directed behaviour	3
11	Non-interruptive	Agreeableness/Kindness	3
12	Open-minded	Extraversion/Sociability	3
13	Participatory	Agreeableness/Cooperative behaviour	3
14	Imagining	Openness/Imagination	3
15	Retrospective imagining	Openness/Imagination	3
16	Note-taking	Conformity/Planfulness	3
17	Unsociable	Neuroticism/Low self-esteem	3
18	Close-minded	Neuroticism/Low self-esteem	3
19	Daydream	Neuroticism/Emotional lability	3
20	Eyes wander	Neuroticism/Emotional lability	3
21	Judgmental	Neuroticism/Emotional lability	3
22	Empathic	Extraversion/Sociability	3
23	Distracted	Neuroticism/Anxiety	2
24	Caring	Agreeableness/Kindness	2
25	Giving feedback	Agreeableness/Cooperative behaviour	2
26	Responsive	Agreeableness/Cooperative behaviour	2
27	Paraphrase	Conformity/Goal-directed behaviour	1
28	Open debate	Openness/Curiosity – Ask questions	1

* Willingness stands for three characteristics related to the term: content-bound willingness, context-bound willingness and mood dependent willingness.

It is quite interesting that Neuroticism which includes poor listener characteristics has the first ranking in terms of frequency of all characteristics (Table 6.8).

Table 6.8.

The ranking of Themes in Terms of Frequency of all Characteristics

Sequence	Theme	Number of Categories	Frequency of All Characteristics
1	Neuroticism	3	23
2	Conformity	2	20
3	Agreeableness	2	16
4	Extraversion	2	15
5	Openness	2	15

More implications can be drawn out of these findings and discussion. It should be noted that the characteristics of listeners are important hints for understanding second language listening as well as language learners as listeners. Concluding remarks and implications will be presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER SEVEN

7. CONCLUSION

7.1. Overview

In this chapter the study will be outlined. After giving basic information of all processes of the research, concluding remarks are presented. Implications for theory and pedagogy will be given to be helpful for further research as well as to enlighten those who teach, learn and practice SLL process.

7.2. Conclusion

This study is based on the fact that listening is the least studied and researched dimension of language learning although it is the most important of all language skills. The implicit nature of listening makes it difficult to observe. As a result, quantitative research on listening cannot go beyond just measuring 'listening comprehension' which is based on mostly experimental studies. Yet, before measuring or assessing the comprehension, listening needs to be defined thoroughly. For this reason listening is approached in an innovative and more comprehensive manner. In the literature review sections, listening is reviewed from various aspects (listening as a component of human communication, listening as a language skill, listening comprehension strategies in language learning strategies).

The study has a qualitative manner in which data collection was conducted through questionnaires and interviews. After giving a broad review of literature, the study has two phases. The first phase is to define and determine the strategies language learners use in second language listening. 'Second language listening' (SLL) is used in its broader meaning to cover both classroom listening and all other communicative settings the participants are faced with. The second phase is to explore the characteristics of listeners as language learners. According to the results of the first phase, the participants have been selected and interviews have been conducted. Audio

records of interviews have been transcribed and analyzed to obtain interpretable data. Content analysis has been used as the data analysis method. The Big Five Personality Factors (BFF) have been used as pre-defined themes. Under these themes, sub categories have been created according to coded data, and then the coherence of the three components has been revised by the researcher himself as well as two independent inter-coders.

Data analysis has given nearly 30 characteristics of language learners as listeners. These characteristics have been discussed in the light of current literature. This study is expected to shed light on the 'Cinderella skill' of second language learning. The theoretical and pedagogical implications are important for further ongoing research as well as for practitioners and learners.

7.3. Implications

7.3.1. Implications for Theory

The theoretical framework of this study reaches far beyond the routines of second language listening studies. In this sense, further research can follow the manner of the literature review as well as the research study itself.

The characteristics of language learners as listeners may provide new research questions from various perspectives. These characteristics can be studied independently as well as dependently in relation to one another or in relation to other internal and external factors of the language learning/ teaching process. There are newly defined characteristics such as 'being text-dependent, text-independent, respectful' which can lead to further research to investigate cultural and personal contexts in more depth. Gender, age and task type have not been taken into consideration for this study. Thus, further research may go beyond this study by using these variables in new research questions.

Undoubtedly, whatever research design is preferred, it is highly recommended that further research studies should follow a qualitative method or at least mixed methods in which qualitative data is given priority since it is obvious that listening is a

‘process’ which needs to be observed and defined before suggesting solutions or putting forth theories for a ‘product’ orientation.

7.3.2. Implications for Pedagogy

Teaching listening is an arduous task for teachers. It is not easy for the learners as well. This study is believed to light the path to a better understanding of listening comprehension courses as well as second language listening outside of the language classroom.

Though the characteristics defined in this study need to be validated by several studies, it should not be ignored that understanding the characteristics of any learner helps the teacher broaden her/his understanding of the personality of the language learner as listener.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1. Consent Form

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Title: A Qualitative Investigation of the Characteristics of Language Learners As Listeners According to the Strategies They Use in EFL Listening.

As a participant in this study, I know this study is about the characteristics of language learners as listeners.

I understand that my participation in this study is entirely voluntary.

I understand that I have the full right to withdraw my consent and end my participation in the study at any time.

I understand the procedures in the study and I understand what will be required of me as a participant.

I understand that all my oral responses will be completely anonymous.

I hereby wish to give my consent for participation in this study. I acknowledge that I received a copy of the information consent form.

For further questions, please contact Ahmet Selçuk AKDEMİR by telephone (0543 *****) or via email (aselcukakdemir@gmail.com).

…….. ……..

Participant's Signature Researcher's Signature

APPENDIX 2. Interview Protocol

Part 1- Introduction

Thank you for being voluntary to take part in this interview. I expect that we will talk for approximately 20 minutes about your listening strategies, characterisitcs as a listener and an overview of your listening experiences in FL. Before we begin, I will review the *Informed Consent Form*. Please do not hesitate to ask your questions that may you have.

Part 2- Demographic and Background Information

- Please select a psudonym that has no direct relation to your name. It will be used throughtout the study to ensure confidentiality.
- Where do you come from?
- Your age:
- What are your academic and professional goals?
- Did you have prep class in this department?
- What was the type of high school you graduated from?

Part 3- Interview

1. Do you like listening? Why?
2. Why do you listen in English? In other words, what are your listenin aims?
3. How do you cope with the difficulties you face while listening?
4. What do you think about your listening skill?
5. How do you prepare for listening? (What do you do before listening, during listening and after listening?)
6. How do you describe yourself as a listener?
7. What are your good and poor sides as a listener in listening process both in classroom and social settings?

Part 4- Closure

Thank you for being voluntary to take part in this study. Please feel free to contact me via e-mail, if you have something to add (aselcukakdemir@gmail.com). I wish you great success.

APPENDIX 3. Sample Transcript

Interviewer: Do you like listening?

Interviewee: Yes. I like.

Interviewer: Why?

Interviewee: I like it because it is very important for me. I will be an English teacher. If I don't develop my listening skill, then I can't be a successful teacher. I should be able to use four skills proficiently.

Interviewer: OK. Why do you listen in English?

Interviewee: I listen to learn pronunciation, new vocabulary. Sometimes I listen to movies. I listen to songs. They help me develop my English proficiency.

Interviewer: Do you have listening practices outside of classroom?

Interviewee: Of course. I listen to audio CDs to improve my English. I try to find foreign people to practice.

Interviewer: OK. Then, let's proceed to the next question. How do you cope with the difficulties you face while listening?

Interviewee: I ask my teacher to replay or repeat. If I can't understand yet, I ask to my classmate.

Interviewer: Yes. What do you do if the problem continues?

Interviewee: I try to infer from the context or the next statement.

Interviewer: What do you think about your listening skill?

Interviewee: Sorry? I didn't understand.

Interviewer: Can you tell me about you listening skill?

Interviewee: Oh yes. I think it is very difficult however it is essential for me. I want to have a good listening ability. I am an enthusiastic listener. I need to develop it. Sometimes it becomes difficult. For example, when I miss an important word or statement, it becomes impossible for me to grasp the meaning. I need to have more vocabulary. It is important. Also, the pronunciation is important. I am an attentive listener in classroom. Sometimes I have difficulty in focusing. I warn my friends to be silent while listening to an audio or our teacher. If there is noise I can't listen well. It should be silent enough. I think listening is a case of focusing.

...

Interviewer: How do you describe yourself as a listener?

Interviewee: As a listener... Sorry?

Interviewer: I mean what are your good and poor sides as a listener in English?

Interviewee: OK. I see. I am aware of the importance of listening for my career. I think this is one of my differences. I try to focus on the subject while listening. It is not acceptable for me if someone disturbs me while listening to an audio. For example, we listen to various passages in classroom. Then, our teacher asks us to talk about the topic. If I don’t focus and comprehend well, I can’t summarize the topic or I can’t explain it with my own words.

APPENDIX 4. Permission from Department Chair to Administer the Research

T.C.
ATATÜRK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
Kâzım Karabekir Eğitim Fakültesi Dekanlığı
Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Bölümü Başkanlığı

SAYI : B.30.2.ATA.0.36.14.00-240
KONU: Anket İzni

29 Mayıs 2012

Sayın: Ahmet Selçuk AKDEMİR

Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Müdürlüğü
Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı

İLGİ: 29.05.2012 tarih ve Bila sayılı dilekçeniz.

29.05.2012 tarihinde vermiş olduğunuz dilekçeye istinaden **"Dinleme Süreçlerinde Kullandıkları Stratejilere Göre Dil Öğrencilerinin Dinleyici Özelliklerinin Nitel Bir Çalışması"** konulu doktora tezine kaynak oluşturmak üzere 04.Haziran 2012-08 Haziran 2012 tarihleri arasında uygulamayı düşünmekte olduğunuz anket ve görüşme çalışması için istemiş olduğunuz izin talebiniz bölümümüzce uygun görülmüştür.

Prof.Dr.Fehmi EFE
BÖLÜM BAŞKANI

Eki: Uygulama Örnekleri

Atatürk Üniversitesi Kâzım Karabekir Eğitim Fakültesi
Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Bölümü
Bilgi için M.Y.KOTAN
Tlf: (0) (442) 2360954 25170 / ERZURUM
Tlf : (0) (442) 2314249

APPENDIX 5. Permission from Prof. Dr. Yasuo NAKATANI to Use OCSI

HOSEI UNIVERSITY

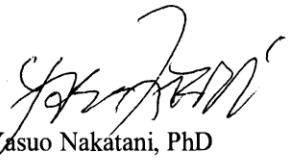
June 15, 2012

To whom it may concern;

I, Yasuo Nakatani, professor of Hosei University (Japan), permit 'Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OCSI)', published in Modern Language Journal, 90, ii, (2006) (pp. 151 - 168) to be used as a data collection instrument by Ahmet Selçuk AKDEMİR in his doctoral thesis and related studies (research articles, data collection procedures etc.).

Mr. Akdemir has my permission to use the OCSI without chainging the original version for his context.

Sincerely,



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APPENDIX 5. Listening Part of Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OCSI)

1. Did you have Prep. class ? Yes ☐ No ☐

2. Gender : Female ☐ Male ☐

3. Student ID No: *(Your student IDs will be used only for secondary selection process of this study and they will be kept confidential.)*

4. Type of high school you graduated from (Science High School, Anatolian High School, High School, Vocational High School etc..) :

Dear Participant,

This study is designed to determine listening strategies that language learners use during oral communication. Please read following statements carefully and mark the best choice for your own experiences. Please do not ignore the questions and mark only one answer for each. Necessary permission is obtained from your department chair for this study.

Prof. Dr. Mehmet TAKKAÇ - Supervisor
Ahmet Selçuk AKDEMİR – Ph.D. Candidate

You can ask for detailed explanation for the items that you do not understand properly.

Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OCSI) Strategies for Coping with Listening Problems	Never or almost never true of me	Generally not true of me	Somewhat true of me	Generally true of me	Always or almost always true of me
1. I pay attention to the first word to judge whether it is an interrogative sentence or not.					
2. I try to catch every word that the speaker uses.					
3. I guess the speaker's intention by picking up familiar words.					
4. I pay attention to the words which the speaker slows down or emphasizes.					
5. I pay attention to the first part of the sentence and guess the speaker's intention.					

6. I try to respond to the speaker even when I don't understand him/her perfectly.					
7. I guess the speaker's intention based on what he/she has said so far.					
8. I don't mind if I can't understand every single detail.					
9. I anticipate what the speaker is going to say based on the context.					
10. I ask the speaker to give an example when I am not sure what he/she said.					
11. I try to translate into native language little by little to understand what the speaker has said.					
12. I try to catch the speaker's main point.					
13. I pay attention to the speaker's rythm and intonation.					
14. I send continuation signals to show my understanding in order to avoid communication gaps.					
15. I use circumlocution to react the speaker's utterance when I don't understand his/her intonation well.					
16. I pay attention to the speaker's pronunciation.					
17. I use gestures when I have difficulties in understanding.					
18. I pay attention to the speaker's eye contact, facial expression and gestures.					
19. I ask the speaker to slow down when I can't understand what the speaker has said.					
20. I ask the speaker to use easy words when I have difficulties in comprehension.					
21. I make a clarification request when I am not sure what the speaker has said.					
22. I ask for repetition when I can't understand what the speaker has said.					
23. I make clear to the speaker what I haven't been able to understand.					
24. I only focus on familiar expressions.					
25. I especially pay attention to the interrogative when I listen to WH- questions.					
26. I pay attention to the subject and verb of the sentence when I listen					

Thank you for your participation.

APPENDIX 6. Letter of Prof. Dr. Michael W. PURDY to Accept to Become Co-Supervisor of the Dissertation

20/June/2012

To Whom It May Concern

I, Prof. Dr. Michael PURDY, professor of Communication Studies of Governors State University's College of Arts and Science (USA), accept to be the co-advisor of Ahmet Selçuk AKDEMİR who is a PhD student in Foreign Language Teaching Department of Institute of Educational Sciences at Atatürk University (Turkey). I hereby acknowledge that I am informed about the procedure and timeline of Mr. AKDEMİR's study titled 'A Qualitative Investigation of the Characteristics of Language Learners as Listeners According to the Strategies They Use in EFL Listening'.

Prof. Dr. Michael PURDY

Professor Emeritus
College of Arts and Sciences
Governors State Universtiy (Illinois) USA

CURRICULUM VITAE

Personal Information

Name Surname : Ahmet Selçuk AKDEMİR
Place of Birth/Date of Birth : Erzurum 06.05.1986

Education

Primary Education : Ilıca Atatürk Primary School/Aziziye/ERZURUM – 2000
Secondary Education : Erzurum Atatürk High School (YDA) – 2004
B.A. : Atatürk University – 2008
Kazım Karabekir Faculty of Education
Department of English Language Teaching
M.A. : Atatürk University – 2010
Faculty of Letters
Department of English Language and Literature
Program of English Linguistics

Professional Qualifications

Language : English and French
Research Interests : Second Language Acquisition, English Language Teaching, Listening.

Employment History

2008-2012 : Erzincan University-Lecturer
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