Effects of Mobile Assisted Language Learning on Developing Kurdish EFL Students’ Listening Sub-skills at Koya University

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ABSTRACT

Many studies have described the use of mobile assisted language learning in language teaching and learning; yet, the number of studies in listening skill remains unsatisfactory, at least in Iraqi Kurdistan context. Few researchers appear to have considered how to use mobile learning devices to support pedagogical approach to develop academic listening skills. Several studies in the past, required learners to read from mobile phones rather than listening to audios. There were attempts to use computer technology integration into instruction; however, few were in mobile technology. The interest in research related to the impact of mobile assisted language learning on developing students’ listening skills remains relatively low and consequently listening has been neglected. Thus, the current paper aims at exploring the effectiveness of mobile assisted language learning devices both as instructional tools and learning resources within and beyond classroom learning environments to develop language skills in particular listening sub-skills. The experimental design is pretest-experiment-post-test. To conduct the study two groups of experimental (n=31) and control (n=26) out of 57 second year students at Koya university/ faculty of education/ school of education English department were made. Both groups were taught the same material, but using different methods. The results of the post-test indicated that the use of mobile assisted language learning devices had impacts on developing experimental group’s listening skills and outperformed the control group.

KEY WORDS: Effect, MALL, EFL, Kurdish, Listening Sub-skill

1. INTRODUCTION

Rapid proliferation of the technology leads to its widespread use in many areas of our lives especially education. Since its emergence, technology has been playing a crucial role in instruction processes. For decades, computer assisted language learning (CALL) has been used and integrated into teaching and learning languages. The advent of personal computers and the Internet as educational tools offers effective use of time and ease of access to educational materials for students and teachers alike.

With the emergence of mobile assisted language learning (MALL) as extension or sub-branch of CALL,
language pedagogy has drastically changed. Teaching and learning with mobile learning devices became easy for both teachers and learners. Fundamental changes in mobile device features and functions encouraged educators and scholars to explore more uses of these handheld devices in language pedagogy.

For the aim of this study, the researchers developed effective and authentic instructional materials and delivered on mobile assisted language learning devices (smartphones) when connected to the Internet through which accessing the platform on which learning materials were uploaded. To accomplish this aim, the researchers have chosen English language listening learning materials as the subject matter and presented on Koya university website course module code (com8710) which is a multi-media, virtual learning environment and learning management system. Considering the limited number of MALL studies focusing on listening, the current study tries to investigate the impact of using such devices on developing listening sub-skills of EFL learners.

2.1 LITERATURE REVIEW

For years, computer assisted language learning (CALL) is utilized and integrated into teaching English as a foreign or second language. However, with the emergence of mobile assisted language learning (MALL) as sub-set of e-learning or CALL (Chinnery, 2006) teaching and learning languages has become easy for both teachers and learners. The potential use of smart mobile phones in order to improve EFL listening skills (Nah, White & Sussex, 2008), browse the Internet for learning (Al-Qudaimi, 2013), develop English pronunciation and teaching vocabulary (Saran, Seferoglu & Cagiltay, 2009), teach prepositions (Begum, 2011), vocabulary acquisition (Cavus & Ibrahim, 2009; Lu, 2008; Stockwell, 2007; Kurtz, 2012; & Thornton & Houser, 2005), vocabulary learning (Kennedy & Levy, 2008; & Kukulska-Hulme and Traxler, 2005), learning new vocabulary items (Mirzaei, 2016), vocabulary acquisition, language acquisition, listening and speaking skills (Viberg and Gronlund, 2012 & Kurtz, 2012), accuracy in grammar (Baleghizadeh & Oladrostam, 2010); idiom learning (Tafazoli, 2015); reading comprehension (Khubyari & Narafshan, 2016); listening comprehension (Zhang, 2016); the delivery of quizzes, vocabulary activity types, learning and retention of academic vocabulary items (Alemi, Sarab & Lari, 2012; & Kukulksa-Hulme and Shield, 2007), as a dictionary and for communication purposes (Kurtz, 2012), and web based video clips (Kukulska-Hulme & Shield, 2008) have been investigated by the scholars and educators all over the world.

Studies and surveys clearly state that mobile devices are widely used by students, even though not for educational purposes. A survey in Japan (Thornton & Houser, 2005) revealed that 80% of 333 tertiary level participants use mobile phones, and 20% of them use personal digital assistants. They further found that 99% of students send and receive emails via their mobile phones rather than utilizing desktop PCs or PDAs. In addition to this, another very recent study (Cavus & Ibrahim, 2009) has shown that, compared to other mobile devices, mobile phones are widely used by university students. The popularity of mobile phones may be ascribed to their relatively low prices, wider range of models and brands, portability (Kennedy & Levy, 2008) and a longer history of use than the other types.

Studies have proven the concomitant role of technology beneficial for language learning (Darmi & Albion, 2014). Mobile learning (m-learning) is gradually being introduced into language classrooms. All forms of mobile technology represent portability with smarter features. The results of the study by Zhang (2016, pp. 1-5) to explore the use of mobile technology in enhancing students’ listening comprehension in which 120 Chinese university students were chosen and randomly assigned to two equal groups of experimental (n=60) who exposed to extensive listening practices on mobile phone and the control group (n=60), who worked on listening via traditional CD-ROM based methods indicated that the experimental group outperformed the control group on their listening abilities.

2.2 M-LEARNING

It is the matter of debate whether m-learning is the advanced step of e-learning or a sophisticated device that integrates with e-learning. “M-Learning is a new and unique component of distance learning.” (Caudill, 2007, p. 2) With the commencement of mobile learning in 2001, not many but some people knew about the concept of m-learning or, even, could imagine the capacities of mobile devices in learning (Attewell, 2005). The evolution of mobile learning is from electronic learning, which has developed from distance learning. E-and M-Learning are subdivisions of D-Learning (Cherian & Williams, 2008). [M]-learning is a sub-set of e-learning movement (Chinnery, 2006: p.9). That is, they cannot be separated easily. However, in contrast with electronic learning, mobile learning is new in language instruction. It is difficult to define mobile learning because it is a new and distinct educational format or a variety of e-learning. According to Traxler (2005: pp. 262-263) mobile learning is “… any educational provision where the sole or dominant technologies are handheld or palmtop
devices.” Technologies or mobiles can be instrumental or instructional tools in language instruction rather than instructors in themselves (Chinnery, 2006). In other words, they cannot replace the role of the teacher inside the classrooms.

2.3 ADVANTAGES OF MALL

There is interesting literature about the advantages of mobile assisted language learning devices in education. With the emergence of m-learning technologies learning contexts have changed to anytime, anyplace learning; these advantages were on the top list by advocates of “online education” (Caudill, 2007, p.1). Learners no more need to restrict themselves to any location or sit on a desk computer. However, in entertaining places like restaurants, or even bus stations they can access studying materials and get in contact with instructors or classmates (Caudill, 2007). These tools are no longer restrict learners into four-wall classrooms (Chinnery, 2006). This unique feature of mobile devices results in many other advantages. For instance, Kennedy and Levy (2008) have reported that learners find learning languages with MALL applications and devices quite motivating due to their portability, accessibility, widespread ownership of certain mobile devices like mobile phones, wireless laptops, and media players.

Begum (2011, pp. 110-111) states that among MALL devices in teaching and learning classrooms, mobile phones have many benefits such as: ubiquity, portability, pervasiveness, students’ freedom, promoting learning, involving students in learning with a more relaxed and comfortable environment, enjoying classrooms, removing boredom in language teaching, increasing participation, reducing feeling shy, cost saving, promoting an interactive and virtual classroom, connecting to sophisticated Internet functions, wireless mobile learning, and accessing lessons anytime and anywhere.

In addition, Sevari (2012, p. 19) believes that some of the virtues of cell phones in the education are advancement and augment of learners’ comprehending of challenging concepts, completion of teachers’ instructions, matching the needs and interests of students, enhancement of critical thinking skills, eloquent use of time and not to misspend the class time. Furthermore, Sevari thinks that the students’ interest in using mobile phones and their cheap prices results to ease learning.

2.4 DISADVANTAGES OF MALL

Despite merits, MALL as an educational tool has some demerits. Many scholars and researchers come to agree on their small screen. For example, (Begum, 2011; Chinnery, 2006; Thornton and Houser, 2005 & Mehta, 2012) have raised this issue with mobile devices. For Begum (2011) and Goundar (2011) the conventional contents of language learning cannot be accommodated by cell phones due to their small screen sizes. Chinnery (2006) criticizes MALL devices for their tiny screen sizes and keyboarding problems because of one finger data entry. Other problematic factors are battery charge, battery life, restrict memory space, lack of teachers’ training to arrange m-learning activities through cell phones in the classroom, high costs for arranging language learning activities via sending SMS and data transmission, feeling uncomfortable in typing on the tiny keyboard, small keypads, reading SMS, word limitation, definite storage space, difficulty in utilizing mobile tools in noisy settings and communication failure owe to poor net connectivity, and teachers’ difficulties in managing the students with cell phones (Begum, 2011; Mehta, 2012 & Goundar, 2011).

Along with these, there are other educational, social and personal disadvantages. Mobiles, inside classes, would be the source of destruction and interruption for students. For example, Sevari (2012: 21) states that mobile learning devices can have drawbacks such as: sending short messages during class period, transmitting and getting test responses, bothering others, putting much load of responsibility on the teacher, treating with educational troubles brought about forgetting to carry mobile phones, failure of learning mode, necessities, skills and interests of students, and delaying in sending and receiving messages due to network outages.

Finally, regarding the pitfalls of mobile phones, Mtega, et al. (2012, p. 118) state that the costs related to downloading multimedia content was another limitation which restricted some participants especially students from using phones for learning purposes.

3. LISTENING SKILL

Listening skill is defined as “…the act of paying close attention to the conversation of another person (s) in order to obtain selectively verbal and nonverbal clues to behavior pattern.” (Good, 1973, p. 43) In another definition, Lynch and Mendelsohn as cited in Schmitt (2002) believe that listening is an active process as speaking. Moreover, Anderson & Lynch, (2003, p. 4) perceive listening as “a reciprocal skill … involves a multiplicity of skills”.

3.1 MALL AND LISTENING

For Helgesen (2003), “Listening is an active, purposeful process of making sense of what we hear”;
however, it is sometimes thought to be a passive skill. In terms of listening skills, lecturers can design a platform on which students listen to texts by vocal service on their mobile phones. After that, they may complete quizzes on listening comprehension on the bases of the aural text (AL-Qudaimi, 2013, p.9).

The study results by Azar and Nasiri (2014) on two groups of EFL Iranian learners who enrolled in conversation course to investigate the effectiveness of mobile assisted language learning on listening comprehension indicated that the experimental group who received cell-phone based audiobook instruction outperformed the control one. To serve the aim of this paper, among fifteen listening sub-skills only six were chosen to be discussed how they taught, developed, tested and assessed.

3.2 LISTENING FOR THE GIST (MAIN IDEA)

One of the crucial types of listening sub-skills is listening for the gist. It involves listening so as to understand general meaning rather than all the specific details and information mentioned. To get the main idea, the focus is on key words, phrases, tone of voice and the listener has to ignore unknown words and phrases (Mann and Taylore-Knowles, 2014). It is listening for the main idea within a speech (Wilson, 2008). Developing listening for the gist relies heavily upon the learners’ ability in determining the communicative intention of a speaker.

Testing listening for global understanding may comprise asking simple questions such as “What are they [speakers] talking about? (Helgesen, 2003) Koichi (2002) believes that listening for the gist is simply answering to where, what, and why questions. Putting simply, learners have to catch the main ideas without feeling worried about the details. To develop this skill, learners are not asked detailed questions (Koichi, 2002). The goal of the whole-message listening is to listen for the main idea rather than being distracted by details or failure to understand individual words (Bowman, 1989, p.58). To listen for main idea top-down listening strategy is used.

Main idea is most of the time stated explicitly by the speakers who may deliver the main idea at the beginning and follow supporting ideas, or they may present the details first and then give the main idea. Often, the main idea is not given explicitly. The speaker will give only examples, arguments, or other sorts of supporting details and the listener must reach conclusions from the supporting ideas (Scanlon, 2011).

To teach the main idea listening sub-skill, the researchers chose tasks that could be delivered through mobile assisted language learning devices (smartphones). The instruction has undergone through three phases. In the pre-teaching stage, the researchers asked their students to take out their smart mobile phones, to connect to the Internet synchronously, plug in headsets and access the Koya University course module website code (com 8710) on which all the course materials and weekly based lessons were uploaded that they could view or download the content. The researchers explained the content with given examples orally while the students followed the lectures on their smart mobile phones. The researchers let the students to open the content files and think what the topic of the lecture would be. For example, firstly, to know whether the students can identify the main idea and the difficulties they have, the researchers asked them to listen to a short audio on their smartphones and guess the main idea. Then, the researchers asked this question: what do you do to understand the summary of the day’s news on the radio or TV? They could be pictures, diagrams, caricatures or cartoons that activate students’ pre-existing knowledge about the topic from which the sub-skill is teaching. The pre-stage of teaching listening lasts for 10 minutes. In while-teaching stage, the researchers explained some unknown words related to the topic that makes students to have a clear vision about the topic. Moreover, they explained the importance of listening for the main idea and how to identify it. Students should pay at most attention to the expressions that indicate the topic: Today’s talk is on, today we are going to talk about, now we are going to discuss, let’s talk about the, you are going to listen to. Students should listen to key words that help them identify main idea. Key words are usually repeated and emphasized. The students practiced all these listening sub-sub skills inside the classroom. While teaching listening stage takes 20 minutes. In post-teaching phase, the researchers assessed their learning for each discrete sub-skill inside the class via listening to a piece of audio on their smartphones and answer some questions about each sub-skill and assigned some assignments on the course module, viber or messenger groups to be done outside the class. Finally, the researchers assessed them on daily bases through various strategies such as Google forms, self-and-peer assessment, a rubric is prepared (I can …checklist). They are required to do quizzes on the topics and fill out the self-assessment form to assess their learning. The post-listening stage was allocated 15 minutes. All the other listening sub-skills have gone through the same stages of teaching and assessing.

3.3 RECOGNIZING SPEAKER’S ATTITUDE
Teachers should bear in mind that different speakers may give the same information by displaying very different moods and attitudes. It is also possible for an individual to deliver the same information in different ways. The speakers’ delivered information may not be perceived from the words alone. Therefore, teachers should try to enable their students to be “more sensitive to tone of voice ... about the way speakers have delivered their information” (Rixon, 1986: 96). Moreover, recognizing paralinguistic clues such as intonation helps students to find out the mood of the speaker (Harmer, 2007). Occasionally, a speaker may directly express how they feel about, or what their attitude is towards a situation or a topic. For instance, they might obviously say that a certain idea is extremely unreasonable or irrelevant. Nevertheless, the listener often has to infer a speaker’s feelings and attitude because they are stated implicitly. In other words, they are implied by the particular words and phrase the speaker uses, and/or their tone of voice (Mann and Taylore-Knowles, 2014). Make up for missing, unclear, or ambiguous information in the listening text plays a significant role, the ability to infer links and connections between events and the use of pre-existing knowledge, guess the meaning of unknown words, phrase, and tone of voice are all help identifying the speaker’s attitude. Attitude is the general feeling of a speaker through words, phrases, tone of voice, intonation, sentence stress, that the speaker uses to indicate their feeling or opinion about what is discussed (Macgillivray, et al. 2009, p. 231). Adjectives and verbs of feelings may facilitate recognizing words or phrases that show the speaker’s feeling or opinion (Macgillivray, et al. 2009, p. 305).

3.4 LISTENING FOR THE MEANING OF UNKNOWN WORDS

Meaning of words is a skill of understanding words or ideas. Guessing is a way to know the meaning of unfamiliar word from the other words in a sentence (Al-Musalli, 2001). Robinson (2010, pp.1-9) states that guessing helps to think actively and remember the words. Also, Robinson suggests some strategies to guess the meaning of words from their context. The first strategy is simply using knowledge of the world. The second clue is the provided definition of the word in the sentence. Example clues help to figure out the meaning of the word. The speakers supply example of the difficult word. The expressions often used are: for instance, including, etc.

Another strategy to use is comparison and contrast clues which demonstrates either two things are alike or opposite. While comparison clues include these words similar, as well as, both and likewise; contrast clues involve however, yet, on the other hand, instead of, but, although, etc. Finally, referent strategy is when an unknown word is referred to or mentioned again using a synonym or explanation of the word. These words often precede the synonyms like this, that, these, those or the Robinson (2010, pp.1-9).

3.5 LISTENING FOR SPECIFIC DETAILS

According to Wilson (2008 cited in Bohorquez & Benito, 2005, p. 25) listening for details is filtering what we hear, for example, it is to gather specific bits of information from the speech. Filling the gap to Wilson is the best example to put through this sub-skill. Making the best use of topics such as “train timetables, cinema listings information, etc., which consist mainly of information that is extraneous for the individual learners are advantageous for detail practices. Listening in detail is when we listen very closely, paying attention to all the words and trying to understand as much information as possible. Bottom-up listening is the best approach to find the details. Students’ listening to passage exercises and then completing charts or graphs stimulate listening for specific details (Bowman, 1989. P. 59).

Answering detail questions does not need making inference, but to choose what the speaker says. Detail questions in a lecture are related to “new facts, descriptions, definitions of terms/concepts/ideas/reasons, [and] examples.”

To understand the details, listen to the transitions that show emphasis, for example, (cause and effect), help a lot. To teach this sub-skill, the researchers taught the students to take notes of major points and important details and write what speakers actually say of a conversation in order.

3.6 LISTENING FOR SPECIFIC INFORMATION

Listening for specifics is the most common type of listening (Helgesen, 2003). It is when we listen to something because we want to discover a particular piece of information. We know in advance what we are hoping to find out. We can ignore other information which does not interest us. It is also listening for the essential details such as news or weather forecasts, transportation timetables, and instructions. Specific information comprises details like names of people or places, numbers, dates, times, and events (Scanlon, 2011). Koichi (2002, p. 17) claims that students have to look for finding answers for more detailed questions like “What time did this event happen?”, “Who are they talking about?” It means students are required to look for the names, places, addresses and time frames in listening. Bottom-up
listening strategy helps to figure out listening for specific information.

**3.7 LISTENING FOR PURPOSE OF THE SPEAKER**

When listening to speakers, the aim is to understand what they are trying to achieve throughout a whole lecture or conversation. ‘Purpose’ is an important aspect of communication. It greatly has to do with understanding what a speaker is trying to accomplish through their utterances. Some examples of speaker’s various purposes are complaining, persuading, informing, entertaining, seeking clarification, expressing uncertainty, etc. Sometimes a speaker may directly state their purpose, and sometimes it may be implied from what they say and how they say it (Mann and Taylore-Knowles, 2014, p. 6). According to Cole, et al. (2007), speakers express their intentions by tone of voice or manner rather than words. Speaker’s tone of voice, intonation, and sentence stress help recognizing intended meaning. The organization may help inferring purposes whether it is to describe, explain, compare, or give an opinion (Macgillivray, et al. 2009).

**4. METHODOLOGY**

**4.1 PARTICIPANTS**

The participants were 57 second year undergraduate students who had (or nearly had) reached an intermediate level in terms of English proficiency at the English Department, School of Education/ Faculty of Education at Koya University that located in Northern Iraq/ Kurdistan Region Government, (31) of whom as an experimental group and the other (26) as a control group who supposed to be between 18-20 years old and intermediate level of English language proficiency.

**4.2 PROCEDURE**

The study uses pre and post-treatment tests in listening skills. In listening pre-and post-tests, the researchers administered and distributed test questions about listening sub-skills before and after the treatment during the course of learning of 15 weeks. The program is carried out by using smart mobile phones as MALL devices to present listening materials and it is shown on the Koya university course module website as platform which is a Multimedia system and learning management system. The SPSS is used for analyzing the collected data.

**5. DATA ANALYSIS**

In order to test the proposed hypothesis (It is hypothesized that there is a significant difference between the results of the pre-test and post-test in the students’ listening sub-skills developments after conducting the experiment); the two groups took ‘pre-posttests’ in listening sub-skills.

The t-test results demonstrate a significant difference between the mean score (6.74) in the pretest and the mean score (8.06) in the posttest on the experimental students’ listening sub-skills.

Firstly, as shown in table 1 below, the Mean score in pre-test for experimental group is (6.74) whereas, this sum has been increased with the value of (1.32) and reached (8.06) in the post test. It shows a moderate significant difference between the two tests that leads to apply one sample t-test.

As shown in the same table, the achieved t-test (4.936) is bigger than the t-table (2.042) with the degree of freedom (30), significance level (0.05) and p-value (0.000). Consequently, we reach the conclusion that there is significant difference between the two tests. That is to say, due to the effects of those (15) weeks treatment a significant change has been emerged in the mean of the tests that shows effectiveness of mobile assisted language learning devices on developing listening sub-skills.

But with the control group as demonstrated in table 1, the mean score in pre-test is (7.50) whereas, this sum has been decreased with the value of (0.31) and reached (7.19). It does not show any significant difference between the two tests and does not lead to apply one sample t-test.

Also, the achieved t-test (0.527) is smaller than t-test table (2.056) and p-value (0.603) is bigger than the significance level (0.05). As a consequence, we come to conclude that there was no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test in listening sub-skills.

**Table 1: Comparison of The Two Groups T-Test Results on the Pre-Posttests Scores in Listening sub-skills**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Type of tests</th>
<th>Means</th>
<th>Correlation</th>
<th>t-</th>
<th>sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimetal</td>
<td>pre-test</td>
<td>6.74</td>
<td>1.323</td>
<td>1.570</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>post-test</td>
<td>8.06</td>
<td>0.601</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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As shown in Table 1, there was a significant difference between the post-test listening skills scores of the experimental group (t (4.936) = -1.32; p < 0.05). The experimental group mean score (Mean = 8.06) was higher than the control group mean score (Mean = 7.19). It means that the more the standard deviation is closer to means, the more the variable (in this case MALL) was effective on developing listening sub-skills. Considering the standard deviation for pre-test (1.570) is closer to means (6.74) and p-value is smaller than 0.05; it shows the value and significance effects of MALL on experimental group.

Comparing the experimental group pre-test mean score (6.74) to the control group pre-test mean score (7.50), indicates control group outperformance over experimental group. However, comparing the experimental group post-test mean score (8.06) to the control group post-test mean score (7.19), indicates the outperformance of experimental group over the control group.

At the start of the study, the pre-test in listening sub-skills suggested no relevant differences between the two groups; therefore, it is reasonable to suppose that any post-test differences would be a consequence of the treatment. So the proposed hypothesis is accepted.

6. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The main focus of this paper was on students’ use of their mobile devices in EFL teaching and learning context in order to improve their listening sub-skills. Comparing the two groups, it can be claimed that mobile learning devices were effective in developing the students’ listening sub-skills. The paper concluded that mobile assisted language learning was effective in developing Koya university EFL students’ listening micro-skills. Moreover, the use of mobile devices can be a very useful way for learners to improve their abilities of listening skills. Therefore, the use of mobile technology does not lead to harm but improves the students’ language learning particularly listening skills. Thus, the study recommends mobile learning integration into language teaching skills in particular listening skill since mobile devices are widely owned, used and can contribute to facilitating listening skill inside and outside the classroom environments.

7. REFERENCES


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APPENDICES

APPENDIX (A)

Pre-test in Listening Sub-Skills from “Q: Skills for Success”

Experimental and Control Groups (15 Marks)

Instructions: This test aims at assessing students’ listening sub-skills.

a) Before listening to the talk read the questions. (1 minute)

b) You will now listen to the talk.

c) Now listen to the talk and answer these questions. You may take notes.

Draw a circle around the most correct letter option. Choose only one option. Marks are equally distributed. Each question is allocated (1 Mark).

1. What percentage of U.S. high school students cheat? (General understanding: specific information)
   a. 25%  b. 75%  c. 50%  d. 100%

2. According to TV news presenter, some experts say “students are not learning as much as they should.”

What do you conclude from this speech? (Inferring: Identifying attitude)

a. Students cheat these days
b. Students study hard these days
c. Students study through technology these days
d. Students do not work hard in the past

3. How is Ms. Smith’s opinion about using the Internet? (Identifying different opinions)
   a. She does not allow students to use the Internet
   b. She thinks using it disadvantageous
   c. The Internet is the cause of cheating
   d. She thinks using it hurting students

4. What do you assume from Ms. Smith’s sentence “We need to do something here, Don.”? (Assumption)
   a. Put cameras away
   b. Put cameras just in her classroom
c. Put cameras in all of classrooms
   d. Put cameras in Mr. Quinn’s classroom

5. What does Mr. Quinn mean when he said that his students are honest? (Implied meaning)
   a. It is OK to copy from the Internet
   b. He doesn’t think his students cheat
c. He thinks that his students know cheating is allowed
d. He doesn’t allow cheating if they try

6. What is the main idea of the TV news report? (General Understanding: main idea)
   a. Honesty in schools  c. using technology in schools
   b. Cheating in schools  d. trust students

7. Choose a topic for this listening passage? (General understanding: Identifying topic of the listening)
   a. Technology  b. honesty  c. dishonesty  d. prevent technology

8. What does “illegal” mean in this listening passage? (Guessing the meaning of unknown words in context)
   a. OK sometimes
   b. Not OK sometimes
c. Not allowed by law
d. Quite OK

9. This is the best summary of the main idea of the TV news report: (Summarizing: deduce meaning)
   a. Many countries have problems with cheating. Some universities in China stop wireless phone messages, so students can’t send text messages.
   b. Cheating is a problem in many schools. New technology makes it easier to cheat. Schools and teachers are thinking of ways to stop cheating.
c. Teachers believe their students are honest, so they feel upset when students cheat. Students who cheat receive a zero on their work.

10. What is the purpose of the TV news program? (General understanding: Purpose of the speaker)
    a. Give advice to teachers  c. inform people about students’ cheating
    b. Not OK sometimes
d. Not allowed by law
11. What are some of the ways the students cheat? (General understanding: Identifying details)
   a. Buy test questions
   b. Someone else takes the exam
   c. Through technology
   d. Stealing tests from teachers

12. The government of one of the African countries cancelled about 25% of test scores, why? (General understanding: Supporting ideas)
   a. The students cheated
   b. The test was revealed
   c. The test was difficult
   d. The test was easy

13. According to the reporter, what would be the next week’s program about? (Prediction of what will be happening in advance)
   A. University teachers’ opinions about cheating
   B. School teachers’ opinions about cheating
   C. University students’ opinions about cheating
   D. School students’ opinions about cheating

14. What can be inferred from Ms. Smith’s speech “Students need to learn that school isn’t just about grades.”? (Inferring: speaker’s tone of voice)
   a. They need to just pass the exams
   b. Passing the exams with high marks is important
   c. Grades are not important
   d. Passing the exams by cheating is important

15. What does the man mean? “The Internet is really helpful and easy to use…but I guess it can create problems sometimes.” (Idiomatic expressions)
   a. He is worried about students
   b. He is worried about cheating
   c. He is worried about copying from websites
   d. He is worried about teachers

APPENDIX (B)

Table 1 Experimental & Control Groups Students’ Pretests in Listening Sub-skills Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students #</th>
<th>Experimental Group Pretest Results (out of 15)</th>
<th>Control Group Pretest Results (out of 15)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
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APPENDIX (C)

Table 2 Experimental & Control Groups Students’ Posttests in Listening Sub-skills Results

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