The Impact of Pygmalion Effect on Listening Anxiety and Comprehension in an English as a Foreign Language Context (In Iraqi Universities)

Rauf Avci

Doctoral Dissertation in Education Sciences
Scientific Supervisor: Prof. Dr. Natela Doghonadze

I confirm that the work corresponds to the field, is characterized by novelty, scientific and practical value and is presented in the format defined by International Black Sea University.

Experts:

1. Ekaterine Pipia                      Professor, Doctor
2. Maia Chkotua                       Associate Professor, Doctor

Opponents:

1. Madona Shelia                        Professor, Doctor
2. Maia Alavidze                        Associate Professor, Doctor

I acknowledge that this is my own work, which is presented in the format defined by International Black Sea University and is attached by the publications relevant to the dissertation.

_______________________
(doctoral student’s signature)
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and above all, I praise Allah, the almighty for providing me this chance and bestowing me his blessings and the strength to proceed successfully.

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my supervisor, Prof. Dr. Natela Doghonadze for her excellent guidance and patience without whom I would have never been able to finish my dissertation.

I would like to thank my professors, Prof. Dr. Ekaterina Pipia, Assoc. prof., Dr. Maia Chkotua, Prof. Dr. Nikoloz Parjanadze, Assoc. Prof. and Dr. Mehmet Sahiner Assoc. for the excellent lessons they conducted and for the excellent reviews they provided.

I also place on record, my sense of gratitude to one and all who, directly or indirectly have lent their helping hand in this venture.

I want to express my deepest thanks to my wife, Fatma Avci who was always ready to give me good suggestions and who was always stood by me through the good times and bad.

I want to express my gratitude to my lovely daughters, Selma, and Zehra for their understanding and for being nice girls.

Finally, I warmly thank and appreciate my late parents for their material and spiritual support without whom I would have never studied abroad.
Abstract

The dissertation is dedicated to the issue of teaching EFL listening in Iraq. The important role of listening skills in a FL learning is presented, the difficulties of listening are analyzed, including language (vocabulary, grammar) and psychological (low motivation and self-confidence as well as a high level of listening anxiety) factors. It is suggested that Pygmalion Effect (the positive impact of teacher beliefs on the development of students’ skills) could help solve the problem of high (debilitating) listening anxiety and insufficient level of listening skills.

Pygmalion Effect in teaching FL listening is presented as both verbal and non-verbal demonstration by teachers of their views concerning the course and the materials taught as well as the students’ ability to master them. It is represented in the activities that teachers choose and the way teachers assess students, using constructive feedback. It is shown that Pygmalion Effect has a direct impact on teacher behavior, which, in turn, has a direct impact on students’ views and behavior, which, eventually, change the learning outcomes. Under the impact of Pygmalion Effect, students are more motivated to fulfil listening activities and are more actively engaged in them. Eventually, the anxiety of the majority of students is decreased, while the level of the listening skills increases.

The dissertation involves a questionnaire survey with participation of 98 EFL students from 8 universities in Kurdistan Region of Iraq and 28 teachers from 7 universities in the same region (universities mostly overlap, so totally 9 universities are involved). The survey has shown that the level of listening anxiety among the students is quite high. The respondent teachers hold views supporting the role of Pygmalion Effect.

The dissertation also involves an experimental study in a private university in Kurdistan Region of Iraq with 43 students, split into the control (without the emphasis on Pygmalion Effect) and the experimental (with the application of the suggested model of Pygmalion Effect) groups. The results of the experiment support the efficiency of the suggested model of PE.
**LIST of TABLES**

Table 3.1. The Impact of the Level of Listening Skills on Motivation ......................................... 72
Table 3.2. Kurdistan Region Universities’ Survey Participant Students ......................................... 77
Table 3.3. Kurdistan Region Universities’ Survey Participant Teachers ......................................... 77
Table 3.4. Ishik University Experiment - Participant Students ....................................................... 78
Table 3.5. Demographic Data of the Teachers Participating in the Experiment ......................... 79
Table 3.6. The procedure of the experiment .................................................................................. 79
Table 3.7. Questionnaire Survey Results: Student Answers .......................................................... 85
Table 3.8. Questionnaire Survey Results: Teacher Answers ......................................................... 87
Table 3.9. Summary of Testing Results ......................................................................................... 90
Table 3.10. Paired Samples T-Test for the Control Group ............................................................. 92
Table 3.11. Paired Samples Test for the Experimental Group ......................................................... 93
Table 3.12. Independent Samples Test ......................................................................................... 93
Table 3.13. Pre-Questionnaire Results in the Control Group ......................................................... 95
Table 3.14. Post-Questionnaire Results in the Control Group ....................................................... 96
Table 3.15. Pre-Questionnaire Results in the Experimental Group .............................................. 98
Table 3.16. Post-Questionnaire Results in the Experimental Group ............................................ 100
Table 3.17. Comparison of the questionnaire initial and final results in the control and experimental groups .................................................................................................................. 101
Table 3.18 a. Paired-Samples Statistics of Pre-Test Questionnaire .............................................. 103
Table 3.18 b. Paired Samples Correlations of Pre-Test Questionnaire ........................................ 103
Table 3.18 c. Paired Samples T-Test of Pre-Test Questionnaire .................................................. 103
Table 3.19 a. Paired-Samples Statistics of Post-Test Survey Questionnaire ................................. 103
Table 3.19 b. Paired Samples Correlations of Post-Test Survey Questionnaire ........................... 105
Table 3.19 c. Paired Samples T-Test of Post-Test Survey Questionnaire ...................................... 105
Table A1: Control group testing results ......................................................................................... 136
Table A2: Experimental group testing results ................................................................................. 138
LIST of FIGURES

Figure 1.1. Factors of student self-efficacy ................................................................. 9
Figure 1.2. Variety of Pygmalion Effect ................................................................. 10
Figure 1.3. The complex cognitive nature of listening (based on Rivers & Temperly, 1998, p. 4) ............................................................... 22
Figure 1.4. Factors having an impact on listening anxiety ............................................ 30
Figure 2.1. Positive teacher beliefs revealed to students and their impact on student learning (designed by the researcher) .......................................................... 55
Figure 2.2. Teacher views, and behavior and their impact on learning English (designed by the researcher) ................................................................................. 56
Figure 3.1. Average results of listening progress tests out of 100 points (Source: Koran, 2016, p. 138) .................................................................................................................. 73
Figure 3.2. Testing results ......................................................................................... 92
ABBREVIATIONS

BALLI - Beliefs about language learning inventory
CLT - Communicative Language Teaching
EFL - English as a Foreign Language
ELT – English Language Teaching
ESL - English as a Second Language
EU - European Union
FL – Foreign Language
FLA - Foreign language anxiety
FLLA - Foreign language listening anxiety
FLCAS - Foreign language class anxiety scale
IELTS - International English Language Testing System
ICT - Information and Communication Technologies
ITCO - Ishik Test Competition Organization
IQ - Intelligence Quotient
IU - Ishik University
KRG - Kurdish Regional Government
KWL - ‘what I know’, ‘what I want to know’, and ‘what I learned’.
L1 - First language learners
L2 - Second language learners
LC - Listening Comprehension
OECD - Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
PE - Pygmalion Effect
SES – Socio economic status
SFP - Self-fulfilling prophecy
TOGA - Test of General Capacity
UNESCO - The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS .................................................................................................................. iii
Abstract........................................................................................................................................ iv
LIST of TABLES ............................................................................................................................. v
LIST of FIGURES .......................................................................................................................... vi
ABBREVIATIONS ...................................................................................................................... vii
INTRODUCTION ........................................................................................................................... 1

CHAPTER I. Literature Review on Pygmalion Effect on Listening Anxiety and Comprehension 6
1.1. Definition of Pygmalion Effect .......................................................................................... 6
1.2. Research Dealing with Pygmalion Effect ...................................................................... 12
1.3. Listening in L1, Foreign Language and Second Language .......................................... 17
1.4. Difficulties of Listening Comprehension ...................................................................... 20
1.5. Foreign Language Listening Anxiety ............................................................................ 24
1.6. Cultural Factor, Listening Anxiety and Pygmalion Effect .......................................... 32
1.7. Ways to Develop Listening Comprehension Based on Pygmalion Effect .................. 33
1.8. Conclusion to Chapter 1 ............................................................................................... 37

CHAPTER 2: Model for Efficient Teaching Listening Applying Pygmalion Effect ............ 40
2.1. Impact of Pygmalion Effect on Listening Anxiety ....................................................... 40
2.2. Impact of Pygmalion Effect on Listening Comprehension ........................................ 43
2.3. Teacher Beliefs and Behaviors to Provide Pygmalion Effect ................................... 46
2.4. Listening Activities that are Relevant for Pygmalion Effect ....................................... 57
2.5. Classroom Management Adequate for Pygmalion Effect .......................................... 63
2.6. Conclusion to chapter 2 ............................................................................................... 65

CHAPTER 3: Research of Pygmalion Effect Impact on Listening Anxiety and Comprehension held at Universities in Kurdistan Region, Iraq ...................................................... 68
3.1. Background information .............................................................................................. 68
3.1.1. Teaching Listening Skills in Iraqi Kurdistan ......................................................... 68
3.1.2. Research Related to the Pygmalion Effect in Iraqi Kurdistan ............................... 72
3.2. Study Design .............................................................................................................. 74
3.2.1. Sample .................................................................................................................... 76
3.2.2. Experiment Procedure ........................................................................................... 79
3.2.3. Data Collection and Analysis ................................................................. 83
3.2.4. Ethical Issues ....................................................................................... 84
3.3. Kurdistan Region Questionnaire Survey on EFL Listening Anxiety and Teacher Role in Decreasing It ................................................................. 84
3.4. Experiment results .................................................................................. 90
   3.4.1. Testing results .................................................................................. 90
   3.4.2. Questionnaire results ....................................................................... 94
3.5. Limitations ............................................................................................... 106
3.6. Conclusion to Chapter 3 .......................................................................... 106
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS ..................................................... 108
REFERENCES .................................................................................................. 111
Appendices: ..................................................................................................... 132
Appendix A: Permission for research ............................................................... 132
Appendix B: Questionnaire for the students’ region-wide survey in the Arab language ........ 133
Appendix C: Questionnaire for the students’ region-wide in the Kurdish language ............... 134
Appendix D: Experiment detailed testing results in the control group ......................... 136
Appendix E: Experiment detailed testing results in the experimental group ..................... 138
INTRODUCTION

Significance of the research

The contemporary globalized world is increasingly changing every day. The demand on employees knowing English on communicative level is growing very fast. The ways for and the requirements of efficient teaching of the target languages, especially English (taking into consideration students’ need while choosing educational materials, classroom activities, teaching and assessment methods; interactive teaching, application of new electronic hardware and software) are also changing quickly. This is why research of efficient teaching the target languages, in particular, English is becoming more and more significant. However, many studies have mentioned some negative feelings that target language learners may experience in the process of learning it and later applying it for real-life situations (Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley, 1999; Young, 1991; Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1991). So, whatever the materials, activities, teaching and assessment methods, these unpleasant feelings may arise, which will decrease student motivation and, ultimately, learning outcomes. These unpleasant, difficult to explain and describe feelings are termed ‘anxiety’. Students suffer from shyness, even panic attacks, they grow pale or turn red, sweat, their legs fail them, and headache and/or stomachache start when they enter a target language classroom or need to talk to a foreigner.

There are many factors that cause target language learning anxiety, such as fear of something new, lack of self-confidence, lack of language competence and learning strategies, on the one hand, and the pressing need to communicate, on the other, etc. But one of the most important factors causing language learning anxiety deals with the basics of educational process – this factor is teacher/student relations.

Emotions (both positive and negative) have a strong impact on the way the student thinks and learns. They are one of the ‘six hats’ by De Bono (1999) that have a great impact on education, which may be positive or negative, depending on which emotions and in what way the teacher is using in the educational process.

Students’ desire to learn a language very much depends on how teacher treats his/her students. If students see that teacher treats them as capable of learning the target language, supports them, is patient, etc., even when they repeatedly make mistakes, cannot build sentences and fail some tests, they become resilient learners, their self-confidence grows, and so does their
motivation to learn. Ur (1996:274) states that motivated learner is the one who is ready to be involved in learning activities. It is easier both to teach and to learn, if students are motivated.

If learning anxiety is one of anxieties, and target language anxiety is one of learning anxieties, listening anxiety is a specific language learning anxiety dealing with listening comprehension. Although students do not often mention listening as the activity which causes anxiety, in reality listening causes one of the strongest anxieties. The previous research on the rating of different types of language anxiety (speaking, listening, reading and writing), according to Morchio (2009), whose opinion researcher completely shares, has put the questions wrongly, that is why in the rating of language anxieties listening anxiety is the last but one in the list (the last one is reading). The question should deal not with those activities that are held in class, which may be too easy, but with language tests and the real-life situations.

Thus, it is very **significant** to find out, what sort of teacher behaviors can increase language (in particular, listening) anxiety and, correspondingly, decrease learning outcomes, and vice versa, what sort of teacher behaviors can decrease the negative feelings of students and their impact on students’ learning. It matters, as research clearly depicts that teacher expectations and attitudes towards students change students’ beliefs and behaviors and finally outcomes related to EFL language classroom (Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope, 1986).

**Problem**

Many students, studying the target language for years, manage to memorize some amount of vocabulary and grammatical structures, fulfil corresponding exercises, read and write, and produce some oral utterances on the level that permits them to pass the course, but are unable to be involved in real-life oral communication. Among the psychological factors that obstruct their oral communication (lack of self-confidence and motivation, students’ shyness and introversion) anxiety is a very influential one. The fear of not understanding or misunderstanding the partner while listening makes students keep silent in response, while wrong comprehension triggers wrong answers, which also causes communication failure. To overcome these psychological problems, teacher may contribute through the so-called Pygmalion Effect (PE) - teacher’s belief in students’ ability to learn, transmitted in various ways to students. The **goal** of the dissertation was to analyze the literature on the topic in order to find out the mechanisms of the Pygmalion Effect (teacher’s belief in students’ ability to learn, transmitted in various ways to students), to develop such a model of the Pygmalion Effect that would involve not simply praising students, but also such teacher behaviors that would ‘translate’ teacher's positive views into students’
positive behaviors and to see whether it can have a significant impact on students’ listening anxiety and the quality of their listening skills.

**Novelty**

The Pygmalion Effect (which involves the effect of positive expectations) and Self-Fulfilling Prophecy (which involves both positive and negative impact of expectations - stressing the negative one – on the learning outcomes) were studied by educational psychology and sociology of education specialists intensively in the 1960s-1990s (Brophy, 1983; Elashoff & Snow, 1971; Jussim & Eccles, 1992; Livingston, 1969; Rist, 1970; Rosenthal, 1987; Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968; Sibicky & Dovidio, 1984; Smith, Jussim, & Eccles, 1999; Snow, 1995), and the results of the research were contradictory, either supporting or denying its significant impact on the learning outcomes. An effort to reach consensus between the views through developing such a model of PE that would have a significant effect was made in the dissertation.

In the XXI century this social approach has seldom been in the focus of research. The researcher\(^1\) thought it was worth reviving the research on the issue, and to link it in particular to listening comprehension in the target language. This kind of research has not been found for Iraqi context. Also, in general it mostly deals with learning on the whole (Jussim & Harber, 2005; Natanovich & Eden, 2008; Riley & Ungerleider, 2012) or learning the foreign / second language (Tsiplakides et al, 2010; Wang, & Lin, 2014), but not listening in particular, which is the basis of the novelty of the given dissertation.

**Hypothesis**

The application of the Pygmalion Effect will decrease EFL students’ listening anxiety and simultaneously increase the level of their listening skills. To achieve this,

- Teacher’s views on the subject, particular lesson, educational materials, and students’ ability to develop their target language (listening) skills have to be positive;
- Teacher behaviors (student-centered teaching, interactive tasks, constructive feedback, etc.) should express their positive beliefs.

On these conditions teacher’s views and behaviors will have a positive impact on students’ views and behaviors and eventually increase the quality of their listening skills.

\(^1\) From here onwards, the author of this dissertation, Rauf Avci, will be mentioned as the researcher.
Research methods

In order to test the hypothesis, the literature relevant to the topic was analyzed, an efficient model of PE was developed. As the level of students’ listening anxiety and listening skills had to be measured, the research methods applied were quantitative:

- Survey
- Experiment (involving pre-, while-test 1, while-test-2 and post-test; as well as pre- and post-questionnaire)
- Statistical treatment of the obtained data

Theoretical value

The theoretical bases of the dissertation include:

- Rosenthal’s Pygmalion Effect (Harris & Rosenthal, R., 1985; Rosenthal, 2002; 1987; Rosenthal & Jakobson; 1968);
- Thomas’s (1928) and Brophy’s self-fulfilling prophecy (Brophy, 1983; 1986);
- Uznadze’s (UNESCO, 2002) Set Theory;
- Behaviorist Psychology (Skinner, 1957; 1969; 1976; Thornbury, 1998; 2006);
- Positive Psychology (Csikszentmihalyi & Nakamura, 2011; Griffiths, 2008; Lopez & Snyder, 2009; Peterson, 2006; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000);
- Expectancy x Value Theory (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002);
- Self-Efficacy Theory (Bandura, 1997; Bandura & Locke, 2003);
- Attribution Theory (Weiner, 1984);
- Krashen’s Affective Filter Hypothesis and Language Acquisition Theory (1985, 1995);
- Research on anxiety, learning anxiety, language anxiety and listening anxiety (Horwitz, 1989; 1987; 1985; Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; 1991; McIntair & Gardner, 1991; Morchio, 2009);

The theoretical value deals with summarizing the existing research on Pygmalion Effect and developing its efficient model in particular for the improvement of EFL listening skills. In the dissertation such theoretical issues as the definition of the Pygmalion Effect, the comparison of
L1 and L2 listening skills’ development, difficulties of EFL listening and the place of anxiety among them are analyzed.

**Practical value**

Hopefully, the presented dissertation will make at least a humble contribution to changing target language teachers’ views on teaching listening to positive ones. This can both make language learners happier and help improve their communicative skills in an authentic situation. The listening activities discussed from PE viewpoints can contribute to efficient teaching of listening and help language teachers to work in harmony with their students.

**Structure of the dissertation**

The dissertation is structured in such a way as to help view the topic of the dissertation from various viewpoints. It includes an introduction, overviewing the significance, goals, problem, hypothesis, research methods, theoretical and practical value of the dissertation, three chapters, first, critically viewing the literature on the issue, second, developing the ways to apply PE for teaching listening, and the third, giving the detailed description of the research held in Kurdistan Region of Iraq: a survey on students’ and teachers’ views on PE role in teaching / learning listening and an experiment in an Iraqi university. In the end conclusions and recommendations, a list of references and six appendices are offered. The dissertation involves 21 tables and 7 figures.
CHAPTER I. Literature Review on Pygmalion Effect on Listening Anxiety and Comprehension

1.1. Definition of Pygmalion Effect

The concept of Pygmalion Effect, introduced in the time of great social changes – end of the 1960s, used to be very popular for three decades, but later the research of the issue declined, partially due to certain contradictions of the obtained results, and partially due to research interest in education shifting to newer directions. However, the issue sounds contemporary enough nowadays, with all the emphasis on student-centered approach. As students are in the focus, it is very important to understand how teachers may contribute to student academic achievement by raising student’s self-confidence.

The ‘Pygmalion Effect’, also sometimes known as the ‘Rosenthal Effect’, according to the name of the researcher who studied it (Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968), is the result of belief that the positive regard that the teacher has upon his/her students can improve self-efficacy, which in turn improves performance.

Robert Rosenthal, a Harvard University professor and Leonore Jacobson, an elementary school principal in San Francisco ("Oak School") held a leading study carried out in the 1960s. In the beginning of the school year the children were given the Test of General Capacity (TOGA), which is intended to quantify students’ IQ. After the test some students (20%) were randomly chosen, without considering their result, and their names were given to their instructors (it means that some students had high, others – average, and still others – low results). The teachers were, however, told that these students demonstrated high IQ points, which had an impact on teachers’ opinion of these students. Teachers somehow expected that these students would demonstrate high results in their academic performance by the end of the school year. Those students were re-tested, toward the end of the school year, and one year after. Interestingly, their results indicate altogether more important improvement in the new tests than other students, who were not viewed by teachers as the best ones. Rosenthal and Jacobson reasoned that instructors’ desires could have impacted students’ efforts to study, their self-confidence and, eventually, their academic performance. They identified the four factors through which teacher expectation had an effect on the students: climate, feedback, input and output (Rosenthal, 1974).
This means that the teachers’ expectations of their students’ behavior became a self-fulfilling prophecy.

The term ‘self-fulfilling prophecy’ was introduced by sociologist Thomas (1928). According to him, a teacher first forms an expectation, and then treats students in correspondence to it. Eventually, his/her students largely conform to his expectations. In 1948, Merton, another sociologist, studied the case of a bank which was quite successful before the famous Black Wednesday when many banks went bankrupt. Although the bank was doing quite well, the customers, fearing bankruptcy, rushed to withdraw their money, which lead to the collapse of the bank. So, it is possible to see that false negative expectations did entail false results.

Another related term ‘Golem Effect’ or ‘labeling effect’ is defined by Psychology Glossary (n.d.) as low expectations causing low performance (Golem being Hebrew slang for dumbbell). Like ‘Pygmalion Effect’, ‘Golem Effect’ is mainly applied in discussing education and business. According to Schrunk (1968), labeling students as low ability level and placing them to corresponding groups bars students’ desire to try. McNatt (2000) studied both Pygmalion and Golem Effects and came to conclusion they definitely exist, but they affect some students, while others are not much affected. Davidson and Eden (2000) suggest a technique to overcome Golem Effect (in fact, to develop Pygmalion Effect): to tell the students / employees their previous assessment was not very fair and underestimated their abilities.

Rosenthal & Jacobson defined the Pygmalion Effect as follows: "When teachers expected that certain children would show greater intellectual development, those children did show greater intellectual development" (Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968, p. 85). Thus, positive teacher expectations of their learners can have a positive impact on students’ success.

The Pygmalion Effect, in fact, is a type of self-fulfilling prophecy - a prediction that directly or indirectly causes itself to become true, due to positive correlation between belief and behavior. While self-fulfilling prophecy deals with both positive and negative expectations (more often the negative ones), Pygmalion Effect stresses the beneficial impact of teacher’s positive expectations demonstrated to students. Expecting a student to be successful helps the teacher to be patient concerning his/her mistakes, support the student and demonstrate a positive regard. This creates a friendly atmosphere in class (at least, for those students of whom the teacher has positive expectations). The relationships between the teacher and the positively regarded students turn out to be very positive. If the positive regard is unconditional (or, like parents’ attitude, spreads on the whole class, not only on the best students), the relationships
between the teacher and the class become an effective tool to increase student self-confidence and motivation and, due to it, work more actively and efficiently. Thus, the advice, given by Rosenthal to teachers, was to demonstrate to students their belief in students’ ability to learn well (Rosenthal, 1987). Largely subconsciously, the students do their best to fulfill teacher expectations and make the imaginary to come true. This development became known as the self-fulfilling prophecy (SFP) or Pygmalion Effect (Natanovich & Eden, 2008; Riley & Ungerleider, 2012; Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968). The difference between the term is as follows: if Pygmalion Effect deals mostly with positive teachers’ expectations, self-fulfilling prophecy may deal with negative expectations, which mostly have a negative impact of students’ activity, intelligence and academic performance (only really resilient students will make an effort irrespective the teacher’s negative opinion of him / her) (Babad, 1995; Harris & Rosenthal, 1985; Spitz, 1999). Unfortunately, the teacher expectations are sometimes related not to the student’s personality, but his/her ethnic origin, race, socio-economic status, or gender. In this case, teacher’s negative attitude is perceived not only as a personal offense, but also as discrimination, which is not simply immoral, but also illegal (Riley & Ungerleider, 2012).

The effect has a mirror character: if one sees a smiling face in the mirror, it makes him/her happier and, vice versa, seeing a gloomy face will not improve one’s mood. Although statistically it is so, some students are not motivated or demotivated by teacher expectations, they are more self-reliant and their self-confidence and desire to learn depends mostly on their intrinsic motivation. Self-fulfilling prophecy and Pygmalion Effect may develop not only based on teacher expectations of a student, but also on parents’, family’s and friends’ expectations, but, of course, teacher expectations are of major importance, as they are (and are viewed by students as) experts of teaching / learning. Teacher’s positive view on student’s ability to learn is especially important, if the student is having difficulties in learning.

Analogous relations were found not only in education, but also in business (concerning the relations between managers and employees), medicine (doctor’s belief in patient’s recovery is passed the patient), etc. Rosenthal (2002) states that “the expectations of psychological researchers, classroom teachers, judges in the courtroom, business executives, and health care providers can unintentionally affect the responses of their research participants, pupils, jurors, employees, and patients” (p.893). The word ‘unintentionally’ is crucial here, as people may not mean to inflict any damage to other people. This is why it is very important that they realize that it may happen and avoid such behavior. If a manager’s expectations are high, the employee’s productivity is probably going to be wonderful. If the boss’s expectations are low, productivity is
probably going to be poor. On the other hand, the way directors treat their subordinates is affected by what they expect of them (Livingston, 1969; Pinder, 1998; Schultz & Oskamp, 2000; Snow, 1995).

Teacher stereotypes, both negative and positive, are dangerous, as teacher becomes ‘blind’ to the changes in student behavior and achievement. Teachers have to be trained not to form stereotypes, to find out the reasons why the students do not do homework or take part in classroom activities, help students develop effective learning strategies, instead of treating them as dumb.

As shown in figure 1.1 made by the researcher, teacher is one of the most important people, according to whom students judge about their self-efficacy. When teachers have a strong belief in their students’ ability to succeed and high expectations for learners and demonstrate that belief to students, students’ self-assessment increases, and they become more motivated to study well in order to maintain both teacher’s belief and their own self-confidence. The teacher may show his/her belief in a verbal or non-verbal way.

![Figure 1.1. Factors of student self-efficacy](developed by the researcher)
The Figure 1.2, also made by the researcher, shows how the Pygmalion Effect or self-fulfilling prophecy works. Teacher observes students, to form his/her idea of their IQ, motivation of learning in general and their subject in particular. Based on this, the teacher behaves sympathetically towards students who, to his/her mind, are gifted, and less positively towards students who do not demonstrate the learning behavior s/he expects of them. The majority of students treated positively are inspired to go on working, as they know their effort will be rewarded. However, some students may not care about teacher treatment and be (almost) self-reliant. Besides, some students who are approved of the teacher may become too self-confident and stop working hard. The majority of students not treated positively will lose the motivation to study. Only those who strongly believe in their own capacity will try to prove to the teacher that s/he is wrong. And, of course, involved and self-confident students will benefit more from the lessons than those students who are not involved and only try somehow not to fail in the course.

This study will try to determine the extent to which the Pygmalion Effect is a type of self-fulfilling prophecy and can help learners improve listening skills and reduce listening anxiety.

![Figure 1.2. Variety of Pygmalion Effect (developed by the researcher)](image-url)
Rubie-Davies (2006) held an experiment concerning high and low expectations of reading and mathematics teachers and their students’ self-perceptions. The pre-experimental results in both high and low-expectation teachers’ groups were similar, while at the end of experiment the students of high-expectation teachers assessed themselves significantly higher. Rubie-Davies’s (2015) book presents other researchers’ results and her own, as well as practitioner teachers’ views on teacher expectations. She comes to conclusion that high-expectation teachers achieve better success through improved classroom climate (friendly, supportive, collaborating, having a team soul) and goal-setting and following (mastery goals instead of performance or avoidance goals).

Although Pygmalion Effect is a concept of social psychology, its explanation is largely rooted in Behaviorist psychology (Skinner, 1957; 1969; 1976; Thornbury, 1998; 2006), with its contingency (stimulus → response, accompanied by either positive reinforcement or punishment) repeated many times before learning occurs. Behaviorist theory was criticized for explaining only simple, thoughtless learning and rote memorization, however the role of positive reinforcement (not only as praise, smile, or award, but also constructive feedback and moral support) in learning are not denied by either teachers or researchers (Andreou et al., 2015; Alacapinar, 2016; Garcia & Hoang, 2015) nowadays.

Pygmalion Effect is also related to the impact that emotions have on the learning outcomes. Several psychological and psycholinguistic theories can provide theoretical bases to explain the Pygmalion Effect. Georgian psychologist Uznadze (UNESCO, 2002) as early as in the 1920s developed a Theory of Set, according to which a readiness for study develops, if the person believes in his / her success. And, naturally, the learner who is ready to study will work hard and achieve more than the learner who is not ready to study. The Expectancy x Value Theory (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002), as well as Self-Efficacy Theory (Bandura, 1997; Bandura & Locke, 2003), express more or less the same ideas: students will be motivated to be involved in an activity, if they expect to succeed in it and the success increases their self-efficacy. According to Attribution Theory (Weiner, 1984), people explain the causes of specific events, including success or failure in learning by locus (is the cause external or internal), stability and controllability. Naturally, those students who rely greatly on external factors will stop making an effort if teacher shows them that they are incapable of learning the subject. And vice versa, even in cases of difficulties, teacher belief in their ability will help them maintain their efforts until they eventually reach success.
These ideas of general learning are also expressed in target language learning psychology. According to Krashen’s (1985) **Affective Filter Hypothesis**, for instance, only a limited amount of negative emotions can have a positive effect on language learners’ concentration and desire to demonstrate their acquired skills. If the negative emotions (anxiety, stress) are above the threshold, they have a negative impact on students’ output: they cannot fulfil the task at all or make too many mistakes. “The filter is down when the acquirer is not concerned with the possibility of failure in language acquisition and when he considers himself to be a potential member of the group speaking the target language” (Krashen, 1985, p. 81). The fear of failing during the language lesson is strongly related to the teacher perceptions of the student output: the low appreciation of peers is, of course, important, but the student does not view them as competent as the teacher, correspondingly, if the teacher approves of the student’s answer, so will the peers. Logically, vice versa, positive emotions related to teacher’s support will increase student’s involvement in language learning, finally bearing the fruit of better skills.

Pygmalion Effect is also connected to Positive Psychology (Csikszentmihalyi & Nakamura, 2011; Lopez & Snyder, 2009; Peterson, 2006; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000): the direction of psychology which deals with behaviors and values that make people’s lives good. It deals with positive emotions, positive human features and institutions that enable people to flourish. The role of positive emotions in learning a foreign language has been much underlined, but little studied in Positive Psychology. Positive psychology mostly studied features of good (effective, expert) language learner (Griffiths, 2008).

1.2. Research Dealing with Pygmalion Effect

As mentioned above, Rosenthal and Jacobson’s research (1968) was a pioneering one in the field. Many studies (Claire & Fiske, 1998; Jones, 1986, 1990; Rist, 1970; Schultz & Oskamp, 2000; Taylor, 1992; Weinstein & McKown, 1998) followed, which obtained approximately the same findings and strongly agreed on three things:

1) Teacher expectations often turn into stereotypes;
2) Teacher expectations have an impact on learning outcomes;
3) Teacher expectations may cause inequality and injustice.
Rist (1970), for example, held an observational study of urban children from kindergarten to second grade. The teachers in this research treated children differently, according to their ideas about children’s capabilities to learn and behave. They often linked children’s capabilities to their SES. Palomares (1970) found that negative stereotypes on the ability of Mexican American students not only reduce their learning outcomes, but also make them reject the majority culture. Park, Singer and Gibson (2005) found that a few students with extreme handicaps react accurately more frequently when instructors utilize a positive and energetic effect.

According to Tsiplakides and Keramida, (2010), teacher expectations have a great impact on foreign language learners. It is not surprising, as foreign language learners usually are characterized by a high learning and language anxiety. Without a teacher’s emotional support, it is too difficult to overcome it.

Teacher emotions, according to Frenzel (2014) have a strong effect on student learning behaviors. Calkins and Dollar (2014) state that caregiver’s (including teacher’s) influences help students regulate their emotions.

According to Bruner (1996), teacher expectations are usually formed after a few lessons with the new group. A student who several times did not do homework, was passive in class, often made errors forms the teacher’s negative expectations. These expectations may also get constant and turn into stereotypes. Some researchers (Smith, Jussim & Eccles, 1999; Broussard and Joseph, 1998; Moller, Stearns, Blau, & Land, 2006) state that teacher expectations regarding the secret potential of students may impact several years after the first contact. Broussard & Joseph (1998), for instance, note that tracking students according to their abilities (which entail teachers’ decisions) is a form of educational neglect: the majority of students who know that they were placed in low-achievement group begin to view themselves as inapt to master the course and behave correspondingly (i.e., make little effort to study).

However, results obtained later were more contradictory, which is understandable, as such variable as teacher expectations is rather an accompanying variable (the independent variables being teaching and learning methods and strategies, as well as classroom management) than an independent one, and one of the several such variables, namely, student SES, culture, gender, etc., so its impact is rather indirect (via increasing student self-confidence and motivation and decreasing anxiety) than direct.
Pygmalion Effect was criticized by Thorndike (1968) and Snow (1969) who in their studies showed that Pygmalion Effect does not correlate with students’ IQ. This is why nowadays it is viewed that Pygmalion Effect correlated only with learning outcomes, not IQ.

Ruthert and Reed (2001) did not find a significant correlation between teacher support provided to students by e-mail and their progress in studies. Student apathy to the instructor’s opinion is suggested as the primary explanation for the surprising results of this study. Another explanation is that the studies which supported Pygmalion Effect dealt mostly with oral and public expression of teacher expectations. Chang (2011) held an observational study with 47 first-year learners majoring in thermodynamics. Irrespective teacher positive expectations, 24 of them failed the course. The researcher concluded that there are many other factors, besides teacher expectations, such as quality of educational materials and teaching, student and teacher strategies, etc., that is why no statistically significant positive relation between teacher support and learning outcomes was found. This is why, to come to reliable results, an experimental study is needed, in which the control and the experimental group will get equal quality of educational materials and teaching, and teachers will use same teaching strategies, to minimize the impact of additional factors on the experiment results. This is the kind of experimental research that will be applied in this dissertation.

Although a general trend, Pygmalion Effect may not work due to various reasons (e.g., if student’ self-efficacy is low by the moment s/he meets the teacher, it is not easy to overcome the already formed view on oneself as a learner – self-fulfilling prophecy - and it definitely takes a long time and hard work to change the view).

The results of social psychologists dealing with Pygmalion Effect contradicted those of educational psychologists. Social psychologists’ research typically emphasized the impact of self-fulfilling prophecies on student self-efficacy and motivation (Fiske & Taylor, 1991; Jones, 1986; Miller & Turnbull, 1986; Schultz & Oskamp, 2000; Snyder, 1984). This is largely based on their views that the social standing of a person has a great impact on his/her success: low social standing (including that in class) has a negative impact on the desire to learn and, in turn, on the poor learning outcomes. Educational psychologists (Elashoff & Snow, 1971; Jensen, 1969; Snow, 1969; Thorndike, 1968), on the other hand, doubted social psychologists’ conclusions. They stressed good teaching vs. peer and teacher attitudes. They also used different assessment approaches. While educational psychologists relied on classroom experiment and naturally occurring teacher expectations, social psychologists used laboratory experiments,
artificially making teachers believe in high / low students’ IQ (as in Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968 study). What is important, they have doubts in the accuracy of each other’s findings. Educational psychologists found social psychologists politically engaged (inspired by the political democratic movements of the 1960s), they viewed their experiments as unnatural. They also interpreted the results obtained by social psychologists not a self-fulfilling prophecy, but simply as based on adequacy of teacher assessment (teachers correctly viewed students as high or low-achievers, this is why they, correspondingly, achieved much or little).

Harris and Rosenthal (1985) developed a ‘four variable hypothesis’, which mentions four major variables (besides teacher expectations) which have an impact on the learning outcomes: atmosphere, input (teaching methods), yield (student effort), and criticism (feedback).

The study by Spitz (1999) clearly depicts that teacher expectations do not impact students’ IQ, but does have an impact on student motivation, self-confidence and performance.

Although social and educational psychologists disagree concerning the impact of teacher attitudes on students’ IQ, they agree that such an impact doubtfully exists for student achievement, although educational psychologists view the correlation as not too high: 0.1 to 0.2 (Jussim and Harber, 2005, p. 149).

Cassidy and his colleagues (2003) held two studies – with children (average age 12) and adolescents (average age 17). Both studies showed that students with positive self-perceptions, when they came across difficulties, sought for teacher’s feedback – where their mistake was, what strategy to use in order to overcome it, which materials to use for better comprehension or practice. Students with low self-concept did not do much to improve their results. Eventually, students with positive self-perceptions made more progress in learning.

Brophy (1983) has found that teachers treat differently the students for whom they have positive and negative expectations. For instance, teachers offered high-expectancy students feedback on assignments more often than they did it to low-expectancy students (97% and 85% respectively). Teacher expectations, according to him, depend both on test results and their observations. Teachers who are more flexible change their expectations with time, based on evidence. Such expectations do not turn into stereotypes and do not have such a negative impact, as inflexible expectations. However, he concluded that, on average, teacher expectations typically have self-fulfilling effects on only 5%–10% of students, which is really not much.
In his article *The Self-Fulfillment of the Self-Fulfilling Prophecy*, Wineburg (1987) criticized Rosenthal’s findings. First of all, he believed the research to be under the political pressure of the late 1960s. Besides, he summarized many previously expressed critiques of the idea. On the other hand, even he (Wineburg, 1987, p. 34) does recognize the existence of Pygmalion Effect: “Within education, the issue had never been whether teachers form expectancies or whether these expectancies affect students.” Wineburg (ibid) thinks that the impact of teacher expectation on the IQ is doubtful, however, the impact of the test results and academic achievement cannot be denied: “Obscured and long-forgotten, the heart of the Pygmalion controversy was the bold claim that intelligence was affected by teacher expectations” (p.34). Thus, it is not student IQ, but student learning outcomes (progress testing results) which are impacted by teacher’s expectations, whether positive or especially negative.

Boser, Wilhelm and Hanna (2014) analyzed a long-term national statistics study which involved 10th graders from 2002 to 2012. The analysis of results showed that:

- Students whose teachers have positive expectations for them more often graduate from college than those whose teachers do not have such expectations;
- College-preparation programs that hold high expectations for students are good predictors for students’ success in college.

As part of Pygmalion Effect, positive teacher-student relationships have shown a positive impact on student success in mastering a foreign language (Andres, 2002; Covington, 1998). A student welcomed by teacher to class has a wish to attend the lessons, to be involved in activities, and, naturally enough, benefits from taking the course than a student taught by either indifferent or constantly frowning teacher. Even if positive teacher expectations may not yield positive learning outcomes, taking into consideration other important variables having an impact on student learning, negative teacher expectations revealed to students in the majority of cases have a strong negative impact on student achievement (Levine, 1965; Sibicky & Dovidio, 1984).

According to Saphier, Haley-Speca and Gower (1997), in situations where the Pygmalion impact happens, the teacher will set higher gauges for students that he anticipates which will enable them to accomplish more. Of course, positive verbal assessments and praise contribute to Pygmalion Effect, but not only. Bamburg (1994) showed that Pygmalion Effect can be achieved by non-verbal means: a smile, a gesture. The teacher may come closer to the student, revealing how interested she / he is in what the student is saying. The students viewed by the teacher as incapable will even get less eye contact from the teacher.
Weatley (2002; 2005) showed that teacher persistence in order to get the student’s right answer is also a sign of Pygmalion Effect. When the student keeps silent or gives a wrong answer, if the teacher immediately gives the answer him/herself or moves to the next student, it means that the teacher does not expect this student to be able to give the correct answer. And, vice versa, when the teacher persists, gives cues and leading questions, until the student eventually gives the answer, it means that the teacher views the student as an able one, who simply needs some patience and support.

Pygmalion Effect can be cumulated. Konstantopoulos (2007) in his 4-year-long experiment showed that teacher impacts have a cumulative influence: the longer they are practiced, the more influence they have. It is possible to conclude that Pygmalion Effect will be especially strong if practices systematically and continuously, and not just from time to time.

1.3. Listening in L1, Foreign Language and Second Language

Listening has a very important role for verbal communication. Rankin (1928) indicates that among the four basic verbal communication skills (reading, writing, speaking and listening), most time is dedicated to listening: adult people spend 42 to 60% of their time listening (babies spend 100% of their verbal communication listening, then step by step the percentage of speaking time increases, and only after kids go to school, the percentage of reading and writing increases). That shows the primary role of listening skills, which we use most of our time to communicate at school, at home and during free time, for instance, new generation spends more time watching movies, videos, news, lessons on the internet, and so on.

Purdy (1997) states that listening skills are the most significant competence skills for contacting other people. Listening is the first language skill developed in a baby. Even before being born the baby listens to mother’s voice and can distinguish it among other voices. Babies who cannot yet speak recognize the pitch and perceive the emotions of the utterance, they try to distinguish familiar sound combinations in what they hear (Wisdom & Friedlander, 1971).

No oral communication can occur without listening. Not only do we listen to the interlocutor(s), but also do we listen to/monitor ourselves while speaking, to make some corrections, if necessary. One-sided speaking cannot occur if the speaker is sane: a speaker needs a listener, at least a remote one (listening on the telephone or radio), otherwise the act of
speaking becomes meaningless (except, probably, a rehearsal held without listeners). On the other hand, one-sided listening does occur, and often enough – listening to teacher’s explanation or the lecture, to all sorts of recordings, while watching a movie, a TV program, a theatrical performance, etc.

A good speaker needs to be able to listen well and to have the metacognitive strategies for listening. In monologue speaking, the speaker has to preview the audience, their level of education, their background knowledge, to provide comprehensible for them input. In a dialogue, the speaker has to understand the interlocutor, to respond adequately. In a dialogue, trying to speak, unless listening comprehension has been achieved, may cause serious communication problems. Students whose listening comprehension skills are on a low level will experience high anxiety while speaking, afraid of saying something out of place. This, in turn, will lead to forgetting the words they know well, of turning to mother-tongue structures and internal translation, instead of speaking directly in the target language. “It leads to impairment in the ability to improvise in an unstructured and/or new situation. This results in stereotyped, habitual, and familiar approaches that may be maladaptive in the situation” (Gaier, 1952:11).

While mastering the mother tongue, children spend hours daily, listening. Children not spoken to or, at least, not submitted to technical equipment transmitting human speech (telephone, radio, television, computer, or a record-player) cannot learn the native language. By the time when they go to school, children, like flying aces, have hundreds of hours’ listening experience. Listening is also what they do best: while speaking they may have problems pronouncing certain phonemes, their sentences may be short, primitive and often ungrammatical, and their productive vocabulary is not too rich. However, while listening, they understand well more complex sentences than they can produce and discriminate the correct pronunciation from the incorrect one. Brown (2000: 33) brings an interesting example in his book. A little girl who said her name was “Litha”, when the adult cooed her answer “Litha?” said “No, Litha”, after which he guessed that her name was Liza.

So, naturally, listening in the mother tongue is normally not purposefully taught to school children. Listening comprehension in the native language for people is as natural as breathing (except those, who have listening impairment or mental problems). However, some schoolchildren better understand teacher’s stories and explanations, while others may not understand deeply and correctly enough. The reason for that is that the listener normally makes some forecast of what s/he is going to hear, that is why comprehension is sometimes wrong,
based on false expectations (McRoy & Hirst, 1995). In language art classes school children practice writing a summary of a story listened to, note-taking and then retelling based on the notes made and answering comprehension questions. This is, however, rather done for concentration of attention and the development of writing, speaking, summarizing and other cognitive skills. In reality some attention in these activities is paid to listening skills and strategies, too. In the mother tongue listening does not normally cause anxiety, except people who have trait anxiety and tend to be anxious too often. The lack of listening skills, caused mostly by the lack of training in second and especially foreign language causes not only a deficiency in these skills, but also anxiety in listening situations, due to the lack of self-confidence.

When children have problems of listening comprehension in the native tongue, it is usually parents who explain them the meaning (and children are normally not shy or afraid to ask to repeat or explain the utterance), and with time they develop (more often subconscious) strategies of listening comprehension. It is also interesting that either children or adults normally do not worry when they do not hear well or understand about 10% of the information they listen to. They feel quite comfortable with it, as they understand the speech on the whole (Dunkel, 1991; Faerch & Kasper, 1986).

In second language teaching, besides the classroom, students are plunged in the target language environment (unless they purposefully avoid it, due to laziness or shyness), so they listen in the target language almost as much as the native speakers, thus, listening in a second language is not a big problem for them, either. However, at language lessons they do fulfil listening activities in order to sharpen their listening skills. Listening skills assessment, unlike mother tongue, is also part of their educational process.

While learning a foreign language, students spend, probably, 20-30% of time listening to each other, the teacher and the recordings. As only recordings offer them authentic language, their experience of authentic listening in class is only about an hour or two a week, which is nothing, compared to L1 and ESL students. So, obviously, learning to listen efficiently in a foreign language is the most difficult task, which cannot be perfectly fulfilled without much out-of-class practice with the help of the radio, television, video, and computer. This can be done as homework (which again is quite limited in time) or on the student’s initiative, which requires intrinsic motivation (not so many students are intrinsically motivated to learn a foreign language and to practice listening, which is, except listening to songs, a very hard work for them).
Besides, unfortunately, listening comprehension strategies are seldom taught, so students often get stuck and abandon listening after they hear a couple of unfamiliar words.

While listening in a foreign language, anxiety influences foreign language learners’ performance in a quite negative way (Horwitz, 1991; Kondo & Ling, 2004). The current studies examine the interplay of language difficulties: students who have comprehension difficulties with mother language, they are the same trouble in English as a foreign language (Sparks, & Ganschow, 1991). But even students who have effective listening strategies in L1 not necessary are able to transfer them on L2 applications. Second language learners often feel stressed while both learning and using it, it especially concerns listening, as here they feel least confident (Bailey; 1983). The reason is they completely depend on the speaker’s pronunciation peculiarities, his/her vocabulary and choice of structures, also they realize their experience in listening in a foreign language is not sufficient. Logically, listening anxiety has a negative effect on learner personal success, while applying the English language.

Stephen Krashen’s (1985; 1995) theory of second language acquisition emphasizes the role of listening in the native language acquisition as the main, in fact, in the period preceding literacy, the only source of comprehensible input. For second and especially foreign language acquisition reading is also important, as, in the majority of cases, learners start dealing with the target language when they already have some reading skills in the native language, which permits to develop target language reading skills faster and easier. However, listening is still critically important.

1.4. Difficulties of Listening Comprehension

Listening is a sophisticated skill. Its development and application is as in the figure 1.3 below. As it has been mentioned, according to Krashen (1985; 1995), listening is the only comprehensible input for a child mastering mother tongue, and as a very important comprehensible input for older learners and users to develop their L1 or L2 skills. It is unimaginable to learn a language without passing the listening stage.

Anita Jones Vogely (1998: 67) stated that listening is a very important and, at the same time, very difficult to develop and apply skill for the foreign language learner. Her study showed that “in order to be effective listeners, learners must be able to actively and strategically
participate in the listening process within a low-anxiety classroom environment. Recognizing the effect of anxiety on listening is the first step; the next is to uncover the sources of LC anxiety and propose solutions”. Jones Vogely (1999) stresses that listening anxiety is, unfortunately, often ignored both by researchers and language teachers, whereas it is one of the most debilitating types of foreign language learning anxieties, as the learner gets a feeling of having learner the target language in vain when/if he does not understand what he hears.

Until the 1970s listening was viewed as a passive (and thus, easy) skill: "students … listened to repeat and develop a better pronunciation" (Vandergrift, 2011). Nowadays listening is described as an active mental process (although of receptive character).

Interestingly, students often mention listening activities in the classroom as easy ones (Doghonadze, Ööpik, & Kapukaya, 2015; Morchio, 2009). This is partly connected with the view on L1 listening, which is definitely the easiest among the L1 verbal communicative skills. Morchio (2009), who held research in the 7th grades at Argentinian schools, came to conclusion that this is due to the following reasons:

- The students in her study were pre-taught the vocabulary and grammar;
- Repeated listening was applied with difficult texts;
- Teacher made comments in L1 to help the students understand the text.

Rost (1999:225) classifies the listening difficulties into three groups: linguistic aspect (lack of linguistic knowledge), inferential aspect (inadequate strategy selection) and procedural aspect (unskilled response). In the past listening difficulties were viewed only on linguistic level (Brown, 1994) (which is also quite much and important):

- Phoneme discrimination;
- Paying attention to word and logical stress;
- Interpretation of intonation;
- Word recognition and comprehension;
- Hearing the boundaries between words, clauses and sentences;
- Recognition and comprehension of collocations, phraseological units and idioms
- Recognition and semantic interpretation of grammatical structures
- Eventually, sentence comprehension
- In cases of faulty text, speakers’ accent (dialectal or foreign), speech defects, mistakes in grammar and vocabulary
The discourse analysis approach revealed that EFL listening comprehension is more complicated than just dealing with language elements. Rivers and Temperley (1998) present the nature of listening skills in the figure 1.3 below.

**Figure 1.3. The complex cognitive nature of listening** (based on Rivers & Temperly, 1998, p. 4)
According to Ji (2015), for example, “the process of listening is virtually a process of presumption, inference, verification, reassumption, reverification and memorization” (p.135). Ji held a research with 60 randomly chosen non-English majors in the foreign language department of a university in China who had 9 years’ experience of learning English as a foreign language. The methods of research involved an interview and test. The conclusion was made that the challenges in EFL listening comprehension, that the students were suffering from, were as shown below.

- lack of self-confidence, presentation of speech (accents, recorded speech, familiar / unfamiliar interlocutor, speaking rate),
- gaps in the message (unfamiliar vocabulary, natural background/technical noise, not understanding the context, situation and the topic),
- applying various strategies (no possibility for meaning clarification; poor comprehension strategies),
- language problems (formal language, like in a lecture or a broadcast),
- contents (lack of background knowledge)
- absence of visual support (facial expression and mimics, gestures, eye contact and posture, environment)

In Ji’s (2015) research it was found that the control group students who focused only on language in the process of developing listening skills did worse that the experimental group students who applied discourse analysis approach which provided students with a better comprehension of the interlocutors’ relationships, the situation in which communication occurred, etc.

Difficulties, like errors, are a natural part of the learning process. Bandura (1997) states that, “some difficulties and setbacks in human pursuits serve a beneficial purpose in teaching that success usually requires sustained effort. Difficulties provide opportunities to learn how to turn failure into success by honing one’s capabilities to exercise better control over events. After people become convinced that they have what it takes to succeed, they persevere in the face of adversity and quickly rebound from setbacks”. However, researchers (Keshavarz, 1999; Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1991) believe that teachers should be able to discover students’ difficulties for effective learners’ performance and their achievement. Some students, coming across listening difficulty events may experience learned helplessness and lose motivation for struggle for comprehension. This is why it is a good idea for teachers in listening classes to hold a diagnostic test in listening comprehension to find out their students’ problems, to help them deal with these
problems. An informal talk or a formal questionnaire or interview would also do good, time permitting. Thus, teacher’s role in listening classes is not only to teach how to listen and to organize corresponding practice but also to diagnose students’ difficulties and help them overcome these difficulties. Shahi (2009) stated that, by decreasing anxiety in the learning environment, s/he has a great role in helping students to believe that they come surmount the difficulties. Consequently, according to Bandura (1989), the degree of anxiety is influenced by self-efficacy. Teacher beliefs, in turn, are very likely to stop the obstacles to learning in general and language learning, in particular. According to Horwitz et al. (1986), learner who faces communication difficulties feels him/herself uncontrolled in the foreign language class. Therefore, students who were talkative in other classes may become speechless in a foreign language classroom. Thus, teachers who want their students to be able to talk in their English classes, need first of all help them overcome their problems with listening.

1.5. Foreign Language Listening Anxiety

Anxiety is a neurophysiological reaction to a (often unknown) potential threat or to an unpleasant situation. It often deals with an uncertain fear of failure, which often pushes a person to take no action, to keep silent, etc. Some people prefer to fail via doing nothing than to fail as a result of an effort. They perceive it as more shameful.

“Anxiety can be a reason for a student to lose focus, become irritable or act out, withdraw and not try, be physically ill, or perform poorly in school with the resulting poor performance only serving to increase the student’s anxiety” (Wiseman & Hunt, 2008, p. 78). Anxiety involves “subjective feelings; some mental reactions; some physical reactions and some changes in behavior” (Walker, 2001 p.3). It is expressed through blushing or getting pale, shivering in the knees and hands, sweating, fast heart-beating, increased blood pressure, difficulties of breathing, even temperature increase (Beck, Emery, & Greenberg, 1985, p. 9). While anxious, people may tap their fingers on the desk, move their legs, speak or laugh too loudly, etc. Psychologically it may be expressed in inability of difficulty to concentrate, decreased self-confidence compared to the normal state, embarrassment, shame, confusion, etc.

A reasonable degree of anxiety may help people (except those who possess trait anxiety – see for the definition below) to concentrate and demonstrate their knowledge, skills and capacities at their maximum. This is termed facilitating anxiety. On the other hand, strong anxiety usually has a debilitating effect: the person forgets and mixes up everything s/he knows,
loses the ability to speak or move. The threshold between facilitating and debilitating anxiety is individual, for somebody quite low and for somebody high enough.

Anxiety has been classified in different various types as an area of research, pedagogy and psychology. Besides facilitating and debilitating anxiety mentioned above, the most common anxiety types are: state anxiety, trait anxiety and situation-specific anxiety. Trait anxiety is a genetic inclination to become nervous due to trifle changes. If the situation is not 100% predictable, people with trait anxiety become too nervous. “Trait anxiety has been shown to impair cognitive functioning, to disrupt memory, and to lead to avoidance behavior, in addition to other effects” (Macintyre & Gardner, 1991 p. 87). Spielberger (1966) asserts that state anxiety is a connected to the outside situation and/or events, while trait anxiety state that is a connected with character or personality concern. Situation-specific anxiety deal with certain situations (like visiting a boss), which provoke the arousal of anxiety. In fact, it is quite similar to state anxiety. Language anxiety can be classified as a situation-specific type of anxiety, as it is related to the language classroom situation or meeting a foreigner with whom the communication has to be carried out in a foreign language (Macintyre, 1999). Another situation causing anxiety is public speaking. Many people have a very strong stage fright. Some, even experienced public speakers, have to struggle to overcome their anxiety. While trait anxiety is a constant feature of a person and here teacher is of little help to reduce it, teacher can do much to decrease his/her students’ state and situation-specific anxiety. Spielberger (1983) developed a questionnaire that can be used to measure state, trait and situation-specific anxiety of people. While trait-specific anxiety may be revealed especially strongly in certain situations, but the person, possessing it constantly reveals a high level of excitement, other people may develop a state of anxiety only in certain situations, foreign language learning and application, as well as exams are among these typical situations in which many students feel anxious to the degree of debilitating anxiety.

Researchers (Brown, 2000; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991; MacIntyre & Gregersen, 2012) have come to conclusion that foreign language anxiety is a specific type of anxiety and it is widely spread. They found that student nervousness during a second / foreign language test was higher than during a native language test. However, they also found, that if anxiety was reasonable, it helped the majority of students to tackle with the task, while for some students it still blocked their brain and did not let them demonstrate the knowledge and the skills that they had. A high level of foreign language anxiety has an impact, on the one hand, on the ability to learn / acquire the target language, and, on the other hand, to demonstrate the knowledge and skills that the person possesses (not only in
exam situations, but also, while trying to communicate in the target language in real-life situations). Concerning real-life listening situations, one of the most difficult ones is speaking/listening to a total stranger (whose speech peculiarities or background knowledge one does not possess. It is often quite difficult even for experienced language users.

The role of anxiety in the development of language skills was also studied by Scovel (1978). He showed that a very reasonable level of anxiety helps language learners to be more attentive and concentrate on the tasks done, while, a high level of language anxiety is a grave barrier on the way to language study and application.

Elkhafaifi (2005) held a study with 233 postsecondary students of Arabic as a foreign language, trying to find out, whether listening anxiety can be distinguished from general language anxiety. The results showed that they are separable, but related variables.

Scarcella and Oxford (1992) state that the major reason of listening anxiety in a FL class is the extreme difficulty of the task. Then fulfilment of the task seems impossible to students, it causes debilitating anxiety blocking students’ ability to comprehend even the words and structures which they normally can understand.

Joiner (1986) names students’ low self-confidence as another reason. This low self-confidence may most probably result from experienced failures as well as from teacher and peer reactions to these failures. Horwits (1987) seeks the reason of low self-confidence in students’ perfectionism. Sharif & Ferdous (2012) research held with 60 Iranian University students as respondents revealed the following sources of listening anxiety: lack of motivation, fear of making mistakes, lack of listening experience in a FL, teacher criticism not accompanied by recommendations on how to improve, lack of background knowledge on the topic of the text, text’s linguistic difficulty, lack of processing time, rate of speech in the recording, and lack of visual support.

Cheng, Horwitz & Schallert (1999) state that there is a general second language classroom anxiety and specific language anxieties dealing with, first of all, speaking and writing anxiety. However, listening and reading anxiety also have a significant impact on both learning and using the target language.

Not only poor listening skills may cause listening anxiety, but also vice versa, listening anxiety (rightly or wrongly based on low self-efficacy concerning foreign language listening) can block the listener’s ability to comprehend the oral utterance. Horwitz (1987) defines this negative listening self-concept as the false impression that in order to be ‘good’ at a language,
students should possess ideal, native-like pronunciation, know hundreds of thousands words, be a grammar expert, have experience of communicating with native speakers, and have a natural aptitude for language learning. The realization of the impossibility of the task (unless you have already spent many years on learning the language) may cause a strong anxiety. It may seem paradoxical, but it is often the knowledgeable students who suffer from anxiety: they are so accustomed to being good students that they do not want to lose the face. Senechall (2012) mentions concerning American school children, with their cult of success (but it concerns, probably, to a lesser degree, to all students caring about being successful): “Many believe that, in order to attain success, they must somehow distance themselves from failure. Some believe that if they forbid failure or erase it from the books, it will disappear” (p.7).

Many English language learners may be and feel competent in other skills, but they have an anxiety about hearing mistakes (Campbell, 1999). If, while reading and writing in authentic situations, students have enough time and opportunities to use a dictionary or somebody’s help, while listening in authentic situations often there is no such support, no chance to listen once more and check whether what they heard is right.

Al-Alwan, Assasfeh, & Al-Shboul (2013) held a study, in which 386 10th graders from public schools in Amman (Jordan), participated. The participants, with an average age of 16 years old, were native speakers of Arabic who had been learning English for ten years. Their proficiency level, as reported by their teachers, was low intermediate. Among other findings dealing with the students’ listening skills, they diagnosed low self-confidence and a high degree of listening anxiety.

Doing a listening task at home, students (even if the task instruction says they should listen to the text once) have a chance to listen to it repeatedly, doing it until they hear the text well and manage to understand it (probably, with the help of a dictionary or somebody more knowledgeable). This situation is more or less anxiety-free. In the classroom, when students are just practicing and teacher is not assessing them individually, they are also more or less relaxed. When they do not know the answer, there will always be somebody in the class who does. Besides, if this is a true/false or a multiple choice task, there is always a chance to guess the correct answer.

While classroom and especially homework listening tasks may not cause negative feelings, both listening tasks in a foreign language exam and listening in the target language in a real-life situation in order to make some important practical decision (such as choosing the gates to go to at the airport according to the announcement) are connected with the person’s tenseness.
If in face-to-face communication there is always a chance to ask the interlocutor to repeat or explain what s/he means, also if in face-to-face communication or video recordings non-linguistic data helps to understand the utterances, audio-recorded or technically transmitted voice (telephone, loud speakers) causes a special excitement, as there is normally no possibility to listen once more or to clarify the meaning of the utterance heard. The listeners have to concentrate, listen very attentively, but sometimes the conditions are not very supportive, and the great desire to listen well, vice versa, blocks the listeners’ brain and causes total inability to hear and comprehend. The phenomenon is called debilitating anxiety.

Listening comprehension involves linguistic competence and background knowledge (Gonen, 2009). Consecutively, lack of any of these may cause listening anxiety (Vogely, 1999; Gonen, 2009). Research has revealed a negative correlation between listening anxiety and listening comprehension (Elkhafaifi, 2005; Ghapanchi & Golparvar, 2012; Golchi, 2012; Serraj & Noordin, 2013; Tsai, 2013) and vice versa, a positive correlation between self-efficacy in listening and listening achievement (Magogwe & Oliver, 2007; Rahimi & Abedini, 2009).

Marcos-Llinas and Garau (2009) enumerate some causes of listening anxiety:

- fear of making mistakes;
- fear of being laughed at for making mistakes;
- failure in expectations;
- failure in learning a foreign language;
- low self-esteem.
- Besides, Onwuegbuzie (1999) speaks of other factors that may have an impact on anxiety in general and listening anxiety in particular:
  - age;
  - academic achievements;
  - teacher and student expectations;
  - level of self-esteem.

Luckily, university student age is not the one which is characterized by a very high level of anxiety. Besides, there is nothing a teacher can do about this factor. The previous achievement, both in language in general and in listening, specifically, may have an impact on the level of listening anxiety. It is very important that the teacher at least sometimes holds easy listening tasks, to let all students, and not only the more successful ones, experience the feeling of achievement and to increase, correspondingly, their self-esteem.
The causes for existence / growth of listening anxiety largely coincide with the causes of language anxiety in general:

- Feeling that the text is ephemeral (not everybody has the bravery to regularly ask the interlocutor to repeat the utterance; in many not-face-to-face situations listening repeatedly is simply impossible) (Vandergrift, 2011);
- Lack of linguistic (grammatical, lexical) knowledge (Giovanelli, 2015);
- Lack of experience in listening (especially, in authentic situations) (Melanlioglu, 2013);
- Linguistic and contents complexity level of the text (Kiliç & Uçakun, 2013);
- Various distracting factors such as noise (Samuels, 1984), speaker’s pronunciation peculiarities, speaking rate, etc. (Xu, 2011), listener’s hearing impairment (Ebbels et al., 2014);
- Lack of listening comprehension strategies (Bekleyen, 2009);

Based on this, logically, the ways that will decrease listening anxiety in a foreign language classroom, are:

- Doing repeated listening for a while, until learners develop certain self-confidence and strategies
- Working on linguistic competence
- Providing more foreign language listening in and out of class
- Developing listening strategies by presenting, discussing and practicing their application
- Dealing with familiar topics, probably, even letting students read up beforehand in the native language
- Pygmalion Effect: teacher demonstrating his / her belief in students’ ability of listening well

Thus, there are many factors causing foreign language listening anxiety, most of them under teacher’s control, while some of them, such as age factor – not. To sum up the literature analysis in 1.4 and 1.5, figure 1.4 was made up.

The text factor deals with its linguistic difficulty, first of all (vocabulary, grammar, style) and, of course, the level its correspondence to the students’ knowledge. It also deals with text contents: its complexity level (structure, length, students having the necessary background knowledge). Of course, it is important whether it is interesting / useful for students or not.
Figure 1.4. Factors having an impact on listening anxiety

The speaker factor deals with their age and gender (male’s speech is normally easier for perception, then - female’s and then – child’s). It deals with clarity and speed of pronunciation, accent or its absence.

The teacher factor deals with providing or not providing constructive feedback, degree of strictness and friendliness. Too high expectations may trigger a high level of anxiety, while too low expectations will not stimulate them to study.

The peers’ factor deals with friendliness of students to each other, their support to each other, readiness to share strategies or, vice versa, hostility between (some) peers. The reaction to the student’s response becomes predictable and may have a positive or a negative impact, depending on the past experiences. Students tend to compare each other from the point of view of their success in learning. It is important that more successful students help the less successful ones, instead of bullying them.

The student factor deals with the level of his/her language skills’ level in general and his/her preparedness to the particular lesson. Basically, if the level is sufficient, the student does
not experience a high level anxiety. However, personal features matter, too. If the student is characterized by trait anxiety, she/he may be too anxious (especially in a test situation) even if she/he possesses the necessary knowledge and skills. Student’s self-efficacy, self-esteem and self-confidence depend on his/her knowledge, on the one hand, and existence of trait anxiety (or its absence), on the other. Student past experiences of success / failure are important. His/her expectation of her/himself, like teacher expectation may be too high (then the student risks to fail too much) or too low (then she/he may be lazy). And last, but not the least: the student having effective listening strategies will do better and, correspondingly, be more self-confident. Belonging to a certain culture (and gender within oriental culture) may have an impact on self-efficacy, as well as on student’s behavior.

The task factor deals with the difficulty of the task, its authentic/inauthentic nature, also with students’ perception of its usefulness. It is teacher’s responsibility to provide that the intellectual level of the task is doable for his/her students and that the task is clearly formulated. The didactic principle ‘from the easy to the difficult’ should be observed while preparing the tasks.

The sound factor deals with recorded / natural (face-to-face) speech, the quality of the sound/recording (presence of noise), also the presence/absence of visual component (audio/video-recording; face to face listening). The quality of recording should be good, but the real-life noise should be present as soon as students’ listening skills are well enough developed.

The situation factor includes, on the one hand, the friendliness of the teacher and the parents, and on the other hand, on the physical conditions (well-aired room, reasonable warm temperature – desirably 20-21 degrees. Also exam/doing the task publicly/ordinary situation matters.

From this list two things are visible: first, the factors are tightly interrelated and, while discussing one factor, one needs to deal with some others, too; second, most of these factors are teacher-controllable. Speaking of Pygmalion Effect, teacher factor is especially important, but other factors should impact on teacher behavior, to create optimal conditions for the development of students’ listening skills.
1.6. Cultural Factor, Listening Anxiety and Pygmalion Effect

According to Pekrun and Linnenbrink-Garcia (2014), culture has an impact on people’s relationships with other people (including teachers). Tsai, Levenson & McCoy (2006) have found that people belonging to western cultures experience more positive emotions than those belonging to oriental ones. Naturally, oriental students more strongly depend on teacher positive support than western ones. It means that most probably Pygmalion Effect will be stronger for students for oriental countries than for students from western cultures.

It is important to know which non-verbal behaviour is interpreted by students of a given culture as positive and supportive. For instance, surprisingly for many, Dresser (1996) mentions that a constantly smiling teacher is interpreted by North Korean students as a shallow and indifferent one.

Both listening anxiety and Pygmalion Effect are such psychological factors that, besides individual peculiarities of students, are culture-specific. Ekşi & Yakışık (2016), for example, with 52 ELT senior year students at a Turkish University doing their teaching practice at school and at exams. Their research findings revealed that, while students were calm when they presented their lesson plans to their supervisor, but they were extremely anxious in the class, which was a new situation for them. They were also very anxious during the exams. The researchers explain that by Turkish educational culture which is authoritarian, discipline and exam-oriented.

Morton et al (1997) held a research with about a thousand undergraduate students from Canada. They link cultural and gender factors, mentioning that males and females in different educational situations may demonstrate higher or lower levels of anxiety. The Canadian students in their research demonstrated higher anxiety in connection with classroom management than did their English counterparts, while students in both countries were equally anxious in connection with exam situations.

Hyland and Lo (2006) in their study held in Hong Kong have found a different level of student anxiety while dealing with teachers, depending on students’ culture. Their research has shown that teachers in Hong Kong, in their turn, were more reserved and critical towards students, so students did not get too much emotional support.

In native language classes ethnic minority students may have a higher level of listening anxiety, as their first language is not the language of tuition (Fischer, 1990).
Robinson (1985) mentions that students are more anxious in multi-cultural classrooms compared to mono-cultural ones. This is why it is extremely important to develop high self-confidence in minority and international students. He also recommends all students to share their experiences of anxieties and the ways they managed to overcome them. It is very important for students to realize that other students, whatever culture they belong to, also have some emotional problems. When texts and topics under study deal with culture-specific information, teacher has to provide the background explanations to non-native students. Robinson also stresses that some established routines help students from ethnic minorities and international students to reduce their anxieties.

Kang and Chang (2016) studied Chinese students’ behaviors in online courses at western universities. In Confucius culture, they mention, teacher is more than just a lecturer. She/he is a mentor, a parent-like figure. This is why students normally expect to have teachers’ support while learning. Teachers are expected to bring students up, to strictly require from them to follow the program requirements. Chinese students value teacher’s feedback and at the same time support more than western students do. When they discover that in online education they are largely left to themselves, they feel anxious not to be able to complete the course.

By the way, in Turkish culture teachers also have a special role. This is reflected in two words meaning ‘teacher’: ‘öğretmen’ (which coincides with the western understanding of the word) and ‘hoca’ (Teacher written in the capital letter, the teacher of life). Students, especially female ones, expect their teacher to be a motherly or a fatherly figure. Naturally, the emotional support of a Teacher matters more for them than for students from western cultures for whom teacher is just knowledge deliverer. This is typical for many oriental cultures, where teacher support has a stronger positive impact on students’ learning than in western cultures (Jambor, 2006).

1.7. Ways to Develop Listening Comprehension Based on Pygmalion Effect

Lund (1990) mentioned nine types of responses which reveal listening comprehension:

- Physical response (nodding or shaking one’s head; raising a hand or a card, fulfilling the actions in the instruction)
- Choosing an answer (multiple choice tasks)
- Creating tables and drawings
- Answering questions
Note-taking
Extending the text
Reproducing (retelling) the message
Repeating after the speaker (for instance, only when what she/he says concerns the student)
Discussion on the text heard

Listening in a foreign language, anyway, is difficult and causes anxiety, as it has been shown in 1.4. Adding to listening the difficulties of reading, writing or speaking, makes students even more anxious. Teacher’s task is to reduce listening anxiety caused by the combination of two or more communicative skills. Thus, physical response and creating tables and drawings are the least stressful way to assess (and practice) listening comprehension. Choosing an answer involved reading skills as well, but, being less stressful than speaking and writing, reading does not largely increase students’ anxiety. All other activities are rather stressful. Thus, if teacher wants to form students’ self-confidence in the process of listening, the order from less stressful activities to more stressful ones should be observed.

Ji (2015:136) describes a typical listening lesson: it usually begins with presentation of some unfamiliar vocabulary and grammar that students are going to meet in the text. Then students listen to recorded texts and fulfil true/false, multiple choice and gap-filling exercises. If students make mistakes, the text is replayed until the majority of students can do the drills. However, teacher does not explain how they should come to the necessary conclusions. Of course, the students are anxious, possibly, frustrated and, most probably, bored. According to Ji, such a lesson is a teacher-dominated one. The worst thing about such lessons is that students can get the meaning of the text only after repeated listening. On the other hand, they listen inattentively, as they know that the text will be replayed. When students, taught listening in this way, need to fulfill authentic listening tasks (in class or real-life situations), their anxiety goes beyond the threshold, as they have no experience and no idea of how to do it. Ji concludes that effective teaching listening comprehension should be process- and not result-oriented, for this teaching listening strategies is essential. Students who provided correct answers should share with their classmates how they did it, while students who couldn’t answer correctly should be explained how to achieve comprehension.

Chang (2008) studied L2 listening anxiety over a one-year period in students undergoing extensive listening and standard foreign language training. Besides the classroom listening activities, students were asked to listen in the target language at home, according to their tastes
and interests: TV and radio programs (both serious and entertaining), video and audio files from the internet, movies, etc. He ascertained that students in extensive listening showed a marked improvement in their listening competency over a one-year period as compared to those who received standard foreign language training.

Rafiee, Kassaian, and Dastjerdi (2010) showed that using humorous songs for the development of listening comprehension increases the immediate post-test results, however, does not have a significant impact on delayed test results. Anyway, it means that humorous songs help students relax and their listening anxiety decreases.

Tweng (2014) held a research with 88 Chinese students of English at Nanning University. The study revealed that a vocabulary of about 3,000 word families yields a correlation of 0.41 with reading comprehension skills, which is not bad, while a vocabulary of 5,000 word families yields a correlation of 0.86, which is really high. This supports the author’s idea that listening comprehension strongly depends on the volume of vocabulary stock of students, and 5,000 word families is a threshold which enables students to understand well a heard text.

Sevik (2012) recommended a classroom environment with a low level of anxiety, suggesting that the classroom should have a comfortable physical environment, with teachers using high-quality listening equipment and incorporating enjoyable activities. Teachers that replicated the same listening activity several times, saw better traction among the students. Incorporating these strategies in the learning process will contribute to the reduction of listening anxiety.

Mihara (2015) held an experiment with 60 Japanese university students of English. He came to conclusion that pre-teaching of vocabulary pronunciation by the teacher did not correlate with listening comprehension skills, however, pre-listening activities, such as pre-questioning on the topic of the text, dealing with illustrations, brainstorming on potentially useful vocabulary, did increase students’ listening comprehension level. The pre-listening activity should not be too difficult, not to increase the students’ anxiety level, as then their anxiety is high during the listening activity as well.

Uwalaka & Offorma (2015) investigated the effect of teachers’ constructivist views on teaching listening in French. The subjects of the research were 350 Nigerian students of French. Teachers who held constructivist views and taught students correspondingly achieved more
success than teachers who applied rote memorization of vocabulary and tried to improve listening comprehension simply be spending more time on it. “In teaching listening comprehension, the constructivist teaching method will offer the students the opportunity to construct ideas, skills and knowledge based on their previous experiences” (Uwalaka & Offorma, 2015, p. 53). The students in the experimental groups tried to solve their listening comprehension problems together, applying listening comprehension strategies, and the teacher was a facilitator who supported the successful strategies and sometimes gave a cue in order to solve the problem.

Wang (2010) studied the effect of student-centered teaching on the levels of listening comprehension. The study held with 102 Huaiyin Normal University students showed that the students who were given more freedom in their choice of volume of listening pieces, time and place dedicated to listening, and the choice of materials achieved insignificantly less increase in mean results (11.59 \rightarrow 13.43 points out of 20 or by 1.84) than the students who were completely guided by the teacher in developing their listening skills (11.14 \rightarrow 13.22 points out of 20, i.e. 2.08), both groups increasing their results by about 2 points. The result may seem disappointing, but it at least proves that students of the experimental group, given the freedom, did not listen less than the students of the control group, and that their listening comprehension skills increased during the experiment. So, as minimum, the student-centered approach gave a practically equal result to the teacher-centered one, so it has the right for existence. Taking into consideration that the experiment lasted for only two months, its results do not permit us to judge what would have happened in a long-term perspective. Let us not forget, that a student-centered approach in China is very new and contradicts both teachers’ and students’ traditional views on learning, so its fruits could not have ripen too fast.

In Bozorgian & Pillay (2013) study five listening strategies are discussed: guessing, making inferences, identifying topics, repetition, and note-taking. 60 EFL female university students participated in a 14-week-long (a semester) experiment, during which 30 of them (the experimental group) were taught the above strategies, while the other 30 (the control group) just fulfilled the listening comprehension exercised offered by the textbook. The experimental group outperformed the control group on a statistically significant level.

In order for FL teachers to understand better their students, it is a good idea if they experience themselves students’ roles. A teacher training may be held where teachers fulfill listening comprehension activities and then express their own challenges in the process of listening. The findings should be reflected in the changes of their teaching listening.
Understanding that listening comprehension and listening strategies are difficult to master in foreign language learning, Al-Yami (2008) found that providing scaffolding enables students to increase their listening testing results. Recommending the adequate strategy for comprehension or memorization, application of visual support (video, pictures, mimics and gestures, miming, tables and graphics are examples of such effective scaffolding).

Positive or constructive teacher feedback to activities makes them really useful both in case of a successful answer or a failure. It is essential that teacher praises students (especially the struggling ones) for the correctly done task. Teacher criticism should be accompanied by recommendations on how to improve the knowledge or to be more attentive. It is very important for the student to feel, metaphorically speaking, that in the jungles of listening difficulties teacher is a member of their team, ready to support, and not a predator, ready to attach.

Practicing target language listening is, of course, as the development of L1 listening skills shows, important, but it is not sufficient. While practicing, students should apply effective decoding strategies, they should try to understand the message on the whole and not each particular word in it. This is why, whether practice occurs in class or at home, teachers should arm students with effective listening strategies, they should stimulate sharing of such strategies among students.

1.8. Conclusion to Chapter 1

Pygmalion Effect, which is the positive aspect of teacher attitude impact on students’ success, as well as Self-Fulfilling Prophecy, which is any kind of effect of teacher attitude on students’ success or failure and Golum Effect which is a negative impact on students’ behavior, are contradictory issues, based on existing research results. Some researches (Cassidy et al, 2003; Fiske & Taylor, 1991; Jones, 1986; Jussim and Harber, 2005; Miller & Turnbull, 1986; Schultz & Oskamp, 2000; Snyder, 1984; Spitz, 1999; Tsiplakides & Keramida, 2010) support the positive effect of teacher demonstrating belief in his/her students’ abilities, while others (Elashoff & Snow, 1971; Jensen, 1969; Ruthert & Reed, 2001; Snow, 1969; Thorndike, 1968; Wineburg, 1987) say this impact is not as strong as it might be expected to be.

Pygmalion Effect should not be mixed with teacher stereotypes – ideas formed by teacher in the beginning of educational process which are hard to change, even if a student improves or decreases his/her learning outcomes. Teacher stereotypes are a harmful thing, as students who
are teacher’s favourites will very probably stop making a real effort to learn: they anyway are always assessed very positively. On the other hand, the majority of students who are negatively viewed by teacher also soon drop off, as they see the uselessness of their effort: teacher anyway assesses their outcomes by low grades. Pygmalion Effect is not like this. Teacher is not error-blind to students, s/he just tells them: you are good at languages, these problems are temporary, keep working, be attentive, and everything will be fine.

For hardworking learners of a foreign language the time they spend reading in their native and foreign languages may be more or less equal, which can lead to a higher self-confidence, lower anxiety and better learning outcomes. This is also linked to practically limitless resources and the role of reading in getting information about various spheres of life. All these trigger a higher motivation to go on with the activity one is successful in. Other foreign language skills (speaking, listening, and writing) are practiced only in class or while fulfilling homework by the majority of students. This, of course, does not support the increase of the skills’ level, self-confidence, motivation and learning outcomes. It concerns listening, probably, most of all, as students do not realize that they need to practice it a lot in order to achieve the level of skills somehow commensurable with native language skills. Neither do they realize the difficulty of authentic listening and the need for it for their future achievements. Thus, the current situation with foreign language listening skills is far from perfect.

Listening anxiety is normally not too high in class, but it is very high when students take tests. This is when students realize that they need to practice listening not only as class activities and homework, but also as part of their daily life and they lack effective listening strategies and self-confidence in listening. All these largely depend on teacher – his/her personal example (telling students what challenges s/he comes across while listening in the target language, how often s/he listens to mass-media in the target language and why), his/her recommendations on effective listening strategies and, of course, his/her deep belief in students ability to deal with listening.

The Pygmalion Effect requires that teacher praises students, emphasizes success over mistakes, suggests the ways to achieve success. The so-to-say indirect Pygmalion Effect (when teacher’s emotional support is not expressed directly) involves teacher talk to students about their native language listening and the strategies they use there, teaching students to try to transfer their reading comprehension strategies to listening comprehension, teaching students not
to panic when they hear an unfamiliar word or do not hear part of the utterance, to go on
listening, instead.

The teacher has to teach students how to focus on the listening and forget about the
distracting factors. Pre-listening activities, such as brainstorming the vocabulary of the text’s
topic and activating students’ background knowledge, will increase students’ self-confidence
while listening and decrease their anxiety.
CHAPTER 2: Model for Efficient Teaching Listening Applying Pygmalion Effect

In fact, compared to teaching methods and activities which have a direct impact on the improvement of knowledge and skills, Pygmalion Effect, like anxiety, motivation, self-confidence and other affective variables, has an indirect impact of the development of language skills, including listening. It can decrease anxiety, help students concentrate attention, boost self-confidence and motivation, thus keeping students on task and actively involved in the class. Students supported emotionally by teacher do not develop learned helplessness even in case of repeated failure and keep trying until they reach their goals.

2.1. Impact of Pygmalion Effect on Listening Anxiety

Researchers (Duxbury & Tsai, 2010; Elkhafaifi, 2005; Occhipinti, 2009; Osboe, Fujimura & Hirshel, 2007) have concluded that listening anxiety has a negative impact on the performance of students in a classroom for second language. To nullify the negative effect, teachers must “help students with their academic performance levels while diminishing significantly their levels of test anxiety” (Supon, 2004, p. 292). While studying the effect of L2 on American English speakers attempting to learn Arabic, Elkhafaifi (2005) observes: “FL learning anxiety and listening anxiety...both correlate negatively with achievement” (p. 206). Further, in their study of Japanese students attempting to learn English, Osboe, Fujimura and Hirshel (2007) state, “foreign language anxiety has clearly been shown to have a negative impact on performance in the foreign language classroom” (p. 1). They also observe that “L1 personality factors do have a carryover role in the L2 classroom” (ibid, p. 1). The negative effects of listening anxiety is recognized by Occhipinti (2009:81) and he mentions that “foreign language anxiety is a common debilitating feeling which affects students in a variety of ways”. Duxbury and Tsai (2010:4) observe that “foreign language anxiety is a universal phenomenon that inhibits students’ achievement in ESL and EFL classrooms”. Xu and Li (2010) in a study of Chinese learners studying English mention the negative effects of listening anxiety as “a negative factor resulting in low spirits for the learner” (p. 250).
Even though EFL teaching has improved in many countries, in most cases of teaching English, the importance is limited to enabling a student pass the exam. While relevant educational authorities in these countries give adequate importance to enhance the literacy skills of students in English, the teaching tends to stay focused on getting the student prepared for the EFL examination. Therefore, the concentration is on testing written and reading skills of the student while ignoring the critically important skill of listening. This is possibly because in the everyday life of an EFL student, listening in the English language is not too relevant. These results in the secondary importance given to English listening compared to the other language skills. Another reason is, as Sharif and Ferdous (2012) observed, that listening anxiety in EFL students could be because in L1 writing, speaking and reading proficiency is considered as more important to master than listening, which is natural from birth, and the same method of learning is adapted to L2.

But the contrary effect is that in L1 proficiency in listening since birth induces the use of the language in speaking and writing, whereas in L2 it causes a lesser use of the language, thus increasing the level of anxiety and reducing a student’s capability to convert on thoughts in their native language into English, and further slowing down the learning of the target language (Steinberg & Horwitz, 1986). Mahmoodzadeh (2012) observes a characteristic specific to learners, during his study of Iranian students learning English, which affects listening anxiety: “gaining more FL knowledge may not necessarily lead to a substantial reduction in experiencing FL anxiety” (p.466). Liu (2012) also notes that “over 80% of the subjects responded to more than one third of the items in a manner reflective of anxiety” (p.129). This is because, according to Krashen’s (1985) model of second language acquisition, the listening anxiety levels are so high that they filter out a lot of the teaching. The fifth hypothesis in the model, that of Affective Filter, directly impacts listening anxiety. Krashen explains that for a student to accept the comprehensible inputs for learning, they must be able to reach the Language Acquisition Device, which is an intrinsic system built into every person which facilitates the acquisition of a language. However, the Language Acquisition Device does not function as an independent unit. The Affective Filter Hypothesis explains that the Affective filter regulates the acceptance of comprehensible inputs by the Language Acquisition Device. The Affective Filter includes all variables, such as the student’s motive, attitude, need, and emotional condition. On the basis of these variables the filter regulates the inputs allowed into the Language Acquisition Device. These same variables control the levels of listening anxiety. Therefore, the affective filter would function differently during conditions of high and low listening anxiety. When the student is
stressed, self-conscious, or unmotivated, the filters will actively stop the flow of information to the Language Acquisition Device and the filter will be inactive when the student is relaxed and motivated, allowing the flow of information (Lightbown & Spada, 1993, p. 28). This is why it is observed that in the same teaching and learning conditions, some students perform better than others.

Certain analyses on listening anxiety (Capan & Simsek, 2012; Capan & Karaca, 2013; Chang, 2008), from a linguistic and cognitive standpoint converge on possible reasons for listening anxiety, such as low requisite skills, the lack of a role-model, a poor understanding of listening as a concept. But the possible biggest reason is the lack of self-confidence. It has a critical role in a student’s ability to effectively listen. Even if a student is proficient in L2, but low on confidence, the chances are that they would experience high levels of anxiety and perform poorly where listening is concerned. Therefore, students, regardless of proficiency in L2, but lacking in confidence, will most probably suffer from listening anxiety. As already mentioned, students’ self-confidence largely depends on the teacher factor. When teacher stresses students’ successes over their failures, when s/he provided constructive feedback on how to improve the listening skills, instead of making students believe that they are bad listeners on an innate level and nothing can be done to improve their listening skills, students are motivated to work hard to improve their listening skills, and their anxiety levels are reasonable.

Goh (2008) identified negative comments from teachers to be a prime reason for students to lose their self-confidence. Students who received positive comments from teachers were likely to have a positive performance in the listening activity in the classroom. Goh correlated positive comments to confidence and a consequential positive attitude with the listening activity. Another aspect of negative comments from the teacher is when the teacher refrains from commenting at all. This also has a negative impact on a student’s confidence and can also be a cause of listening anxiety.

Besides the direct Pygmalion Effect via supportive words, teachers can and should support students and fight their anxiety via giving material that is familiar and has readable topics with simple comprehensibility. As the students improve in their listening ability, their anxiety towards listening will subside (Kim, 2000).
2.2. Impact of Pygmalion Effect on Listening Comprehension

Listening, as it has been shown in the dissertation, is a very complex process which depends on listeners: their amount of vocabulary, knowledge of structures, but also on their general knowledge, knowledge of the topic / area of knowledge that the text deals with (Vandergrift, 2011). Teachers need to know what exactly causes students’ difficulties or is perceived by students as the major problems, to be able to help them improve their listening skills. It is a good idea from time to time to talk informally to students or hold a questionnaire in order to realize their problems. When the diagnosis is set, it is much easier to cure the illness. Correspondingly, to apply the PE, the teacher will be aware which aspects of listening difficulties to deal with: to persuade students that even with limited vocabulary general comprehension can be achieved, help them develop auditory memory and so on.

Language teachers should support students’ effort to practice more target language listening at home not only as part of homework, but also for pleasure: to watch television and video, see cartoons, movies, ads, news programs, listen to songs and so on. From time to time, to stimulate students to listen for pleasure or information, discussions can be held in class based on the contents of the materials listened, the challenges and the benefits of the authentic listening process. During such class discussions students have a good reason to listen to each other, and listening to each other (which normally does not occur when students discuss the already known to them materials from the textbook) is also a kind of listening task.

The impact of teacher emotional support on student engagement in learning has been shown by Goodenow (1993) and Wentzel (1994). Ryan and Patrick (2001) have found that teacher support matters for students developing their learning strategies. Horwitz (2008) has emphasized that teacher support helps decrease student language anxiety.

Young (1992) views three factors: student, teacher and teaching methods – as sources of language anxiety. According to him, teachers’ views on language teaching, teacher-student relations, classroom and assessment procedures can increase or decrease students’ learning anxiety. All these are tightly linked with Pygmalion Effect. A teacher who believes language learning is too difficult for some students and verbally or via his/her behavior demonstrates this to the student will increase student’s debilitating anxiety. And, vice versa, teacher who believes that a foreign language (including listening comprehension) is something that his/her students can succeed in, plans corresponding activities, tries to relieve testing from extra tenseness, can
help students be self-confident, decrease their anxiety and succeed in both learning and testing.

Serraj & Noordin (2013) study states that foreign language anxiety (FLA) on the whole and specifically foreign language listening anxiety (FLLA) have a significant negative impact of listening comprehension: 0.214 and 0.414, correspondingly. The authors held a study with 210 Iranian students. The study revealed that, if students feel comfortable with the teacher, the level of anxiety significantly decreases, even if some of them have trait anxiety. When students use adequate strategies for listening comprehension, teacher can support them by emphasizing not only their successful understanding, but also strategic thinking. Thus, students will be more motivated to develop and apply listening comprehension strategies.

Yang (1998) suggested a new role for teachers – own strategy promoter. The teacher indirectly expresses his/her respect for students by giving them more autonomy and helping them to develop individual effective listening comprehension strategies. Students’ self-confidence increases when they see that teacher views them as competent learners able not simply to memorize the material under study, but also to be involved in higher-order learning activities (strategic planning and guessing).

60 EFL learners in an Iranian university participated in Atasheneh & Izadi (2012) research. The students took a listening comprehension test, according to which their level was defined as elementary, intermediate and advanced. The anxiety level was measured by FLCAS (foreign language class anxiety scale, Horwtiz, Horwitz, and Cope, 1986), and a moderate negative correlation between anxiety level and learning outcomes (level of listening skills) \( r = -0.469 \) (\( p,0.01 \)) was found. Then 30 students with high anxiety results and intermediate level of listening skills were persuaded to participate in one more treatment, with a tester, contributing to the growth of their self-confidence. The students were explained that the test would not have negative consequences for them and they would be able to retake it afterwards, if they would fail it. The tester also promised to view their mistakes in case of failure, to discuss them with the students, and to offer strategies for overcoming the problems. A positive correlation between the treatment and the level of student anxiety, as well as the level of listening comprehension skills was found after this treatment.

Although Federici and Skaalvik (2014) research deals with teaching mathematics, its findings are really valuable for this dissertation, this is why it will be overviewed in this sub-chapter. The research involved 309 ninth and tenth grade students in Norway. Emotional support provided by the teachers in the study concerned not only educational challenges, but also
students’ lives in general. Teachers demonstrated empathy, friendliness, respect, trust, relatedness, safety, and dedicating extra time to help students learn. Instrumental support involved clarifying the reasons of mistakes and difficulties, questioning following the order from easy to difficult, presenting effective strategies, stimulating autonomy, offering tasks with keys, giving recommendations on sources for self-help, modeling problem-solving (in case of language teaching, explaining the way the teacher her/himself solves various listening comprehension problems – step by step, discussing each difficulty and ways solving it one by one). It has been shown that both emotional and instrumental teacher support have a statistically significant positive impact on student motivation and learning outcomes. Besides, the students’ anxiety levels decrease noticeably when students feel teachers’ support:

- Mathematics anxiety was found negatively correlated with emotional support (r=-0.136, p<0.5). We can see that emotional support has to some degree stronger impact on the decrease of the level of anxiety than instrumental approach.
- Grades in mathematics were positively related to emotional support (r=0.204; p<0.1)
- Mathematics anxiety was found negatively correlated with instrumental support (r=-0.131, p<0.5)
- Grades in mathematics were positively related to instrumental support (r=0.233, p<0.1).

In Huang, Elami and Hu (2010, p. 35) study 158 Taiwanese college students of English answered questionnaires, the results of which reveal that:

- There is a negative statistically important correlation between teacher academic support and speech anxiety (r=-.23, p<0.001)
- There is a positive statistically important correlation between teacher academic support and student comfort with English learning (r=.19, p<0.05)
- There is a negative statistically important correlation between teacher academic support and students’ fear of failing the class (r=-.28, p<0.01).
- There is a positive statistically important correlation between teacher personal support and student comfort with English learning (r=.27, p <0.01)
- There is a negative statistically important correlation between teacher personal support and students’ fear of failing the class (r=-.18, p<0.05) (p.26).

Although the researcher has not found a study completely coinciding with his research
goals (to find out whether there is positive correlation between teacher support and listening comprehension and anxiety), the summing up of the reviewed literature on the related topics has brought the researcher to the conclusion that

- Pygmalion Effect may involve both emotional and instrumental teacher support.
- Emotional support will most probably strongly decrease students listening anxiety, and – via the decreased anxiety and increase motivation - will increase the level of EFL listening skills.
- Instrumental support will directly increase the level of EFL listening skills.
- Both the emotional and the instrumental support will increase student involvement in the listening activities.

These conclusions laid the foundation of the hypothesis of this dissertation.

It is necessary to mention that Pygmalion Effect may have drawbacks – not for students, but for teachers. To be able to apply Pygmalion Effect teacher will need to possess (or develop in him/herself) certain characteristics, such as empathy, consideration, open style of communication, emotional stability, enthusiasm, confidence, patience, non-verbal language for setting the right climate. It requires a very high level of qualification from the teacher and a great dedication to his/her work. Syllabus design and lesson planning will require more time and thoughtfulness, holding classes will require more self-control and energy. On the other hand, the rewards, besides improved learning, will involve good teacher-student relationships and students’ affection and gratitude. So it is worth taking the trouble.

2.3. Teacher Beliefs and Behaviors to Provide Pygmalion Effect

There is presently no one clear definition for beliefs about language learning. A pioneer in the research of beliefs about language learning, Elaine Horwitz dealt with the definition in her articles (Horwitz, 1985; 1987; 1988), referring to beliefs with ambiguous terms such as preconceptions (Horwitz, 1985), preconceived ideas (Horwitz, 1987), and preconceived notions (Horwitz, 1988). In her instrument BALLI (beliefs about language learning inventory), Horwitz (1988) uses the word opinions to denote beliefs. Many researchers refer to beliefs about language learning as a section of metacognitive knowledge, which Wenden (1998) does not agree with, stipulating that both terms are interchangeable with each other. Pajares (1992) takes this ambiguity in the definition a step further, adding to the synonyms’ list, ‘attitudes’, ‘conceptual
systems’, ‘implicit and explicit theories’, ‘rules of practice’, etc. Pajares opines that the confusion occurs because of the use of the word ‘knowledge’ while attempting to define beliefs, by researchers. He clarifies that “Belief is based on evaluation and judgment; knowledge is based on objective fact” (ibid, p. 313). However, studies continue to use different definitions that persist this discrepancy. Cabaroglu and Roberts (2000, p. 388), based on Harvey (1986), defined beliefs as “a set of conceptual representations which signify to its holder a reality or given state of affairs of sufficient validity, truth or trustworthiness to warrant reliance upon it as a guide to personal thought and action” (p. 388). As refining the term “teacher beliefs” is beyond the scope of this dissertation, it will be used to stand for the set of teacher’s views that is reflected in his/her professional activities.

Beliefs about language learning have been investigated through various studies for teachers, in-service and pre-service, as there exists the hypothesis of teacher beliefs influencing the beliefs of students with their instructional practices. Teacher beliefs may not coincide with students’ beliefs, but they do have an impact on them. In Kern’s study (1995), for example, teachers believed that speaking is easier than listening, while their students did not think so. However, teacher positive beliefs may or may not have a strong impact on students’ beliefs, while teachers’ negative beliefs more often have a strong impact on students’ lack of self-confidence.

Teacher beliefs are so deeply rooted in teacher’s mind that, whether outspoken or not, they have an impact on everything the teacher does – builds up relationships with students, presents materials or assesses students’ knowledge and skills (Williams & Burden, 1997).

Vibulphol (2004) dedicated his dissertation to EFL teachers’ beliefs and approaches in Thailand. The dissertation views the assessment of beliefs, the relationships between beliefs, motivation, autonomy, learning strategies, anxiety and classroom practices. The author wanted to find out whether the teachers’ beliefs about language learning might have a debilitating effect on the learners of the target language. The following aspects of teacher beliefs about language learning are discussed in the dissertation:

- Difficulty / learnability. If an EFL teacher views language (and listening skills as its component) as an easy subject that can be mastered without any special effort, s/he may teach simplistically and ineffectively, especially if s/he delivers this message to his/her students. On the other hand, if the teacher persuades some or all students that the target language cannot be mastered by them, this also will dishearten students from learning. The
teacher’s views outspoken to students should view language (listening skills, in case of this dissertation) as difficult but learnable, on condition that the right strategies and hard work are applied.

- Belief about language learning aptitude: some students have it on a high level, while others have it on a low level, so, whatever they do, will not help them much. This is a false belief and teachers should never tell anything of the sort to the students. They cannot deny various levels of language learning aptitude, but they have to explain to students that a high aptitude may yield low results, unless accompanied by effective learning strategies and hard work, while average aptitude may yield very good results if the students use the right strategies and works hard. And, what is especially important, teacher should explain to students that all, even mentally retarded people, can master a language on communicative level when they feel the need of using it communicatively / practically.

- Teachers should realize that, by repeatedly demonstrating the positive beliefs about language learning, teachers increase students’ self-confidence, motivation and involvement, which eventually, earlier or later, increases their language skills.

- Teachers have to explain to students that to master a foreign language, in order to have good memory is important, but memory can be developed if worked on, if adequate memorization strategies are used. Also they should translate to students that without effective learning strategies students will waste a lot of time, but not succeed. Rote memorization and practice without applying effective strategies do not work.

- Either teacher or student belief that a student may learn a language passively, without being involved, is a harmful one. Students have to be mentally and physically involved in the process of language learning, in order to be successful.

- Teachers’ positive regard of students has a positive impact on them, while a negative regard has a negative impact on students.

- Teacher-centered, non-democratic views on the educational process have a negative influence on student motivation and involvement, correspondingly, on learning outcomes. Their classroom practices are based on rote memorization, punishment, etc. Johnson (1992) has shown that teachers rule-based versus skill based views, for instance were reflected in application of corresponding classroom activities.
Teacher beliefs may or may not have impact on students’ beliefs, depending on the character of the student, his/her resilience, the strength of those beliefs and the arguments that the teacher uses, but students who view their ability to comprehend while listening negatively, will often finally stop trying if a teacher – a person with authority, an expert in the sphere - speaks out similar views.

Mori (1999) found statistically significant positive correlation between the teacher’s beliefs which s/he translated to his/her students that Japanese is a learnable language, that mistakes are a normal part of language learning and that learning can be improved and the students’ learning outcomes. Wang (1996) found that a high percentage of unsuccessful learners of a foreign language had beliefs that their language aptitude was low and/or the target language was too difficult to master. Horwitz (1989) and Kunt (1997) found a positive correlation between foreign language anxiety and the beliefs about the difficulty of language). Truitt (1995) and Kunt (1997) found a negative correlation between students’ self-confidence and anxiety. Richards and Lockhart (1996) state that the classroom practices of a teacher are influenced by their beliefs, as their beliefs influence the decisions they make in the classroom.

Jussim and Eccles (1992) studied the impact of teacher beliefs on student beliefs. Teacher beliefs may or may not coincide with students’ beliefs. When teacher’s negative views on a student coincide with the student’s views, they definitely strengthen them. When teacher’s views are stably positive, and constructive feedback is provided in cases of student failure, often the teacher achieves to change student’s views by positive. If student’s views on his/her ability to listen in a foreign language are positive, while teacher demonstrates negative views, two opportunities arise, depending on the degree of student resilience:

- The student is disheartened and stops trying
- The student does his/her best to prove to the teacher she/he is not right.

Unfortunately, the second outcome is rare enough. This means that teachers should totally avoid expressing negative views on a student’s ability to be an effective foreign language listener. Instead, they have to tell students to be patient, to listen more, and to apply more effective listening strategies.

When the student anyway believes that his/her listening abilities are good, teacher praise will not spoil them, but teacher needs to tell the student to listen more complicated texts, and to keep working hard, otherwise just a good ‘ear’ will not help.
Research held by Puchta (1999) revealed that teacher expectations had a significant impact on students’ anxiety levels. When a student felt that teacher did not expect him/her to be successful, s/he was less involved in studies.

Students who have negative beliefs about their language learning capacity (not without teacher’s role in developing such views) usually apply low-level cognitive strategies (if any strategies at all), while learning a language. It means that if the teacher manages to encourage a positive view of students in their capacity to learn the language, s/he will encourage the student to use higher-level cognitive strategies, too.

Examining the correlation between the theoretical beliefs of ESL teachers and their practices in the classroom practices, Johnson (1992) discovered that they had theoretical beliefs that were clearly defined to align with their individual approaches to teaching preferences. The beliefs were based on skill (accuracy of language, and rote), rule (grammar rules and context structure), and functionality (communication and use of L2 in the real-life environ). It was observed that teachers favored the functionality approach. Johnson concluded that there existed a clear correlation between the theoretical beliefs and their classroom practices and that teachers aligned their teaching with their beliefs.

Smith (1996) and Johnson (1994) research had equivalent findings. Nine ESL teachers studied for correlation of decision making to beliefs by Smith, revealed that beliefs about L2 teaching influenced the design of the curriculum created by those teachers. Divided into two groups, one set of teachers with beliefs in grammar and accuracy and the other in communication, went on to design curriculums aligned to their beliefs. Likewise, a research by Johnson (1994) discovered an alignment between L2 teacher beliefs and L2 practices of teaching in pre-service teachers. Her investigations revealed that beliefs originating from the formal learnings of pre-service teachers’ influenced their instructional practices, rather than their own convictions that originated from their inherent beliefs of how they should be teaching. Johnson explained that pre-service teachers tended to imitate the approach of their teachers because of the lack of real-life classroom experience and interaction with students. These studies reveal that L2 and FL teachers develop beliefs about L2 teaching that invariably influences their teaching practices. Though it is also understood that beliefs, especially those that are cultivated from formal training, than those beliefs that originate from other influences, as is evidenced in Johnson’s (1994) study.

The relationships between the beliefs of teachers and their teaching practices in the classroom have piqued the interest of researchers to further understand the development of these
beliefs. It is assumed that pre-service teachers, who begin their learning with preconceived ideas, are soon influenced by the formal learning program and develop certain beliefs influenced during the formal learning. A phenomenon popular amongst research scholars is Lortie’s (1975) apprenticeship of observation, wherein he suggests pre-service teachers begin their education in a classroom as students and their beliefs begin to develop from this early phase onwards, identifying that present classroom practices of teachers is a reflection of their own teachers. Jonhson’s (1994) findings corroborate this observation that the practices of teachers bear clear influence of their own experiences during their formal learning.

Research has also projected the influence of teacher education programs wherein the beliefs of pre-service teachers are indulged by the practices they encountered in their teaching methodology classes and their experiences in programs for practice teaching (Johnson, 1994; Horwitz, 1985; Kern, 1995; Richards & Lockhart, 1996). However, Tatto (1998) claimed that there is little empirical evidence that proves that teacher education has a statistically significant impact on teacher beliefs. Probably, these beliefs are the joint results of teacher education, self-development and experience (as a student and as a teacher), as well as the ideas existing in the community. Zhou Guotao (1997), for instance, claims that the beliefs of a teacher are formed during their experience during the teaching process, reflecting the subjective knowledge of the teachers’ own teaching abilities. Another observation by Tao and Juliang (1999) is that teacher beliefs find their origin in cultural interaction and self-construction derived from culture and social history.

Though the creation of beliefs is highly complex and individual, Wenden (1998) expressed the opinion that beliefs are relatively stable, while Dole and Sinatra (1994), as well as Peacock (2001) supported the idea that thought with the observation that beliefs do not change easily, as beliefs are formed as result of deep critical reflection and comparison of theoretical knowledge to practical experience. Kern (1995) added to this observation that experienced teachers’ beliefs resist to change more than those of novice learners.

Though the complexity of beliefs, coupled with extensive experiences, may not allow the change of beliefs for teachers, it has also been proven that beliefs can be effected to change, provided there is sufficient new information to trigger a critical thought process.

Fred Korthagen (2004) postulates that teacher effectiveness will be higher if their beliefs are aligned, bringing focus on Borg’s (2001) observation that there are three types of beliefs about teaching, learning, and learners: subject matter; self as a teacher, or the role of a teacher that need to be examined.
It is very likely that the teacher may have one or a combination of many beliefs about their students. Meighan and Meighan (1990) suggest that learners can metaphorically be categorized as the following constructs:

- Resisters (do not want to learn)
- Receptacles (want to be filled with knowledge)
- Raw material (largely depend on what kind of learners the teacher manages to make them)
- Clients (learn only if their needs are satisfied)
- Partners (are ready to cooperate with peers and teacher)
- Individual explorers (like to make conclusions on their own)
- Democratic explorers (believe in conclusions gained by a group)

These constructs are a reflection of a teacher’s individual views and also have an influence on their practices within the classroom. While working with resisters, receptacles or raw material, their motivation, involvement and eventually learning outcomes depend mostly on how teacher will be able to persuade them one by one to learn and involve them in the process of learning. While working with clients, partners, individual explorers or democratic explorers, the teacher will need to use cooperative learning, when students share knowledge and skills both with the teacher and with each other.

Teacher beliefs largely depend on how effective they are as teachers. Effective teachers normally believe that all students can learn if appropriate conditions are created for them and if they make an effort. Thus, if teacher’s views concerning his/her students’ ability to learn are pessimistic, the teacher most probably needs to learn to teach better, instead of blaming students for their failure (Rosenfeld & Rozenfeld, 2008).

Brophy (1986) recommends that teachers treat their students as though they are already eager and successful students. This corresponds to the popular in education view of the already mentioned unconditional positive regard, normally characteristic of parents. This will enhance students’ self-confidence, they will feel psychologically sage, and this effective learning environment will help them learn better.

Gow and Kember (1993) advocate that most of the teaching concepts that teachers use can be categorized under any of the following:

- A quantitative increase in knowledge
• Memorization
• The acquisition of facts, procedures, etc., which can be retained and / or used in practice
• The abstraction of meaning
• An interpretative process aimed at the understanding of reality
• Some form of personal change

These concepts can be categorized under two broad approaches of teaching: reproductive (first three) and productive (the rest). Teachers who believe in reproductive views usually are not too supportive of students, while teachers who hold productive views normally support students, enhance their application of higher-order cognitive activities.

Linda M. Anderson & Diane Holt-Reynolds (1995) conclude in their study that learning occurs inside the students’ heads as a result of participative learning to ‘make meaning’ rather than to ‘get meaning’ through forced learning. This takes us back to the beliefs by the teachers themselves, because efficient teaching is an off-set of proper learning and the beliefs that induce teachers to imbibe certain teaching methodologies.

Turner, Christensen, & Meyer (2009) suggest that teacher’s beliefs tend to be largely based on the premise of visible, behavioral evidence as against the assessment of student performance in the classroom. Nuthall (2004) recommends that for the understanding of relations between teaching and learning, teachers must first comprehend (a) the influence of instruction, management and assessment on the student’s experience and behavior in the classroom; (b) the influence on teaching and learning in the sociocultural context, such as interpersonal and intrapersonal relationships; and (c) the interpretation and influence of classroom experiences by and on the student.

While teachers develop beliefs during learning and in their experiences in the classroom, there is also a set of beliefs that the teachers have about themselves. These beliefs are immersed in their competence and emotions.

Albert Bandura (1994) defined self-efficacy as beliefs about one’s own competencies or capabilities to deliver performance of a particular calibre that can influence events affecting their lives. Beliefs, that control how you feel, think and behave, are produced through cognitive, motivational, affective and selection processes.

Those with high confidence in their own competencies face challenges as opportunities instead of threats. Such people are committed and often set challenging benchmarks for themselves and are rarely shaken by failure, recovering efficacious demeanor promptly,
ascribing the failure to acquirable attributes such as skill or knowledge deficiency. This attitude results in achieving goals and having a low stress level.

Teachers with high self-efficacy have higher expectations from their students, holding themselves responsible for the students’ success. They also tend to use a participative approach to learning and continuously introduce new methods of teaching.

Pine and Boy (1977) study iterates that “pupils feel the personal emotional structure of the teacher long before they feel the impact of the intellectual content offered by that teacher” (p.3). This has implications on a teacher’s belief in one’s own conviction in their skill, knowledge, dignity and respect. This makes it imperative for the teachers to convey a self-confidence while using the foreign language and showing respect for the learner’s efforts to express themselves in the foreign language.

This indicates that the teacher needs to invest a lot of emotional labour into the job. Emotional labor includes effort, planning, and control that the teacher needs to convey during interpersonal interactions with the student. Emotional labor has been known to propagate job dissatisfaction, along with health problems and mental exhaustion. These are key factors for burnout and reasons for teachers to leave the profession. Paul A. Schutz and Michalinos Zembylas (2009) claim that an estimated 50% of teachers leave the profession within the first five years. Research into emotional labor in teaching not only causes teacher drop-outs, but contributes to unpleasant emotions in the classroom. Rosemary E. Sutton and Karl F. Wheatley (2003) indicate that emotions not only affect the teacher’s attention, memory, thinking and problem-solving, but also adversely impact their motivation, efficacy and beliefs. Teachers’ beliefs influence their teaching attitude, methods and policy. They also strongly influence behavior and development of the student. Teachers’ beliefs influence planning and curricular decisions, determining curriculum and the methodology of instruction. Teachers with deficient beliefs can adversely influence the classroom and curriculum, marginalizing students and suppressing their capabilities. The positive beliefs developed by teachers imperceptibly influence teaching methods and improve student performance.

To sum up the analysis in this sub-chapter, figures 2.1 and 2.2 were made up. They illustrate which aspects of teacher beliefs have a direct impact on students’ learning, also how teacher views have an impact on teacher behavior and, indirectly, via teacher behavior, on students’ behavior.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive regard on the course (subject)</th>
<th>Student motivation increase</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive regard on the course materials and syllabus</td>
<td>Student involvement increase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unconditional positive regard on students’ abilities to learn a FL</td>
<td>Creation of positive learning atmosphere, increase of students’ self-efficacy, decrease of learning anxiety</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2.1. Positive teacher beliefs revealed to students and their impact on student learning (designed by the researcher)

When the teacher is enthusiastic about the course s/he is delivering, s/he shows to her/his students that the course is both useful for students’ future life and learnable. It is very important that students realize not only the general need of possessing EFL skills, but also that the syllabus has been made up according to the contemporary requirements and that the particular materials are both interesting, useful and learnable. And, what is especially important to the given dissertation, the teacher’s positive views of his/her students’ abilities to learn EFL create a safe psychological atmosphere in class and students’ self-efficacy increases.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>teacher’s theoretical views</th>
<th>teacher’s behavior</th>
<th>change in students’ learning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>student-centered, democratic education</td>
<td>creation of positive learning atmosphere, establishing authoritative relationships</td>
<td>increase of student involvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>participatory learning</td>
<td>effective classroom management, application of pair</td>
<td>increase in student involvement and student speaking / listening time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communicative views on language teaching</td>
<td>Planning more interactive tasks</td>
<td>Students benefitting from each other’s knowledge and strategies’ motivation increases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constructivist views on education</td>
<td>Teaching language learning (listening) strategies</td>
<td>Raising learning to a higher cognitive level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>View on errors as a natural part of learning</td>
<td>Sharing with students examples of successfully overcoming the difficulties of learning English or another foreign language will</td>
<td>Increase of students’ self-confidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formative assessment as a natural part of learning</td>
<td>Constructive criticism; offering strategies and materials to improve the knowledge and skills</td>
<td>Decreasing language (listening) anxiety</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 2.2. Teacher views and behavior and their impact on learning English (designed by the researcher)**

A teacher who holds student-centered, democratic views takes students’ interests, needs and abilities into consideration, while planning the course and each particular lesson. This provides to better involve students in the classroom activities. The understanding by the teacher that learning is an active process and provision by him/her of sufficient and various language
learning (listening) activities increases students’ learning time and its efficient application, which, in turn, should have a positive impact on students’ language (listening) skills. The activities should be authentic, to promote the communicative skills that will be needed in real life. Students will both enjoy and benefit from such activities. By believing in the roles of strategies in language application (listening), teacher will share his/her own strategies and stimulate students to do so. Raising learning to a higher cognitive level will make it more meaningful for students and, thus, more effective. Dealing with errors is one of the most important aspects of language learning. If the teacher realizes that learning is impossible without them, s/he will provide constructive criticism instead of just punishing students for errors. Error fossilization will be largely avoided, and learning anxiety will decrease. Finally, a view on assessment as an indivisible part of educational (language learning) process will help teachers decrease stressfulness not only of formative, but also of summative assessment.

2.4. Listening Activities that are Relevant for Pygmalion Effect

Activity is “a very popular term in literature. An activity may refer to virtually anything that learners actually do in the classroom” (Brown, 1994, p. 136). Correspondingly, listening activities are not just the listening drills that students fulfill in the classroom, but also listening to the teacher and each other speaking the target language. Teacher instructions on how to do a task, teacher questions and answers – all are listening activities and should be treated as such.

Berne (1995) advises language teachers to select listening activities carefully, as they may cause high-level student anxiety, which will make the process of training ineffective. First of all, the task has to be formulated clearly. If a student does not understand what he/she is expected to do, the anxiety level will rise. Berne recommends not to start directly with listening, but to apply effective pre-listening tasks in order to avoid anxiety increase. These may be question-answer (to find out their background knowledge of the issue), brainstorming on the vocabulary that may be met in a text on the given topic, discussing listening comprehension strategies, watching a mute video recording, forecasting according to the title or the first sentence.

According to McCaughey (2010), all the time when the teacher is speaking the target language to the students can be viewed as a listening activity. However, not all students perceive teacher talk as such, so they may not even follow, unless they realize that the teacher is
addressing them personally. In order for students to perceive teacher talk in the target language as communication as well as practice in listening, it is essential that teacher applies eye contact efficiently, looking at each student often enough. If we want teacher talk to provide Pygmalion Effect on students and reduce their listening anxiety, it has to possess certain features:

- Teacher’s face should be calm and friendly, desirably smiling.
- The pronunciation should be clear, for that purpose it may be a little slower than natural. Logical stress should be used effectively, emphasizing the most important information.
- The language that the teacher uses should be (almost) familiar to his/her students, to make the speech comprehensible.
- The teacher needs to find out the students’ background knowledge on the topic, and to fill it up, if necessary, to make his/her speech available for students.
- The teacher needs to establish eye contact and look at / address a particular student from time to time.
- The contents of the talk should be positive, especially when it includes organization of activity (so that students realize it is doable for them) and feedback.

However, obviously, listening to teacher talk only will not sufficiently develop students’ listening skills, so special listening activities are necessary. The relevance of the activities for Pygmalion Effect lies not so much in their types (which will be the same as traditional listening activities), but in the way they are held – so that students gain self-confidence in listening. If a teacher wants a listening activity to be doable and motivating for students, it is important not to make the listening sessions too long (up to five minutes, probably) and to choose text which are interesting, informative, and/or funny. The students will feel no anxiety and enjoy the task, they will, correspondingly, be involved.

Whereas the majority of students view it as their duty to listen to the teacher, they often do not listen to each other’s talk in class, especially if a student is retelling a text known to them. To stimulate students to listen to each other, the student telling the story may be instructed to falsify a couple of facts purposefully (the listeners will have to detect the wrong information). Besides, the students may be asked to fill up the important fact missing in their friend’s story. Listening to each other speaking can be viewed as an effective mixed (speaking/listening) activity, as listening to each other is easier for students than listening to a recording (they see
each other’s mimics and gestures, while listening, the pronunciation and the language used is familiar, as they study from the same teacher and according to the same syllabus).

Students may listen to each other’s live as well as recorded speech. This is a thrilling mixed (speaking / listening) activity which helps students to become more objective while assessing one’s speech (self-assessment). For less self-confident speakers this is a good way to rehearse for a public speech (presentation in class or at a students’ conference). This is also good for shy students who are unable to present in public. Teacher can keep best presentation as educational materials for the further generations of students and do true/false, gap-filling and multiple choice exercises based on them. Ousselin (2015) offers students to hold sock puppet performances, which is definitely fun to hold and to listen to. Everybody will completely forget about the anxiety, and, if the teacher praises performers and the group-mates applaud (which most probably they will do), this is the best way to apply Pygmalion Effect for practicing listening. The script can be written by students beforehand (then the activity will combine the development of writing, reading and listening skills) or the situation may be given and the students will improvise. The ‘actors’ may involve the listeners in the process of communication, which is typical of contemporary theatre.

If we are using some listening comprehension tasks such as true-false, multiple choice or answer the questions, it is a good idea that the task is given to the students before they start listening. If they listen aimlessly, they may not listen attentively, on the one hand, and may be unable to fulfil the activity, although while listening they seemed to understand everything. The longer the listening piece, the more important is this recommendation.

As it has been mentioned, classroom listening activities, especially the ones which are similar to testing formats, may increase students’ listening anxiety. Thus, it is teacher’s task to develop such listening activities or to hold listening activities in such a way that students do not feel too worried.

Due to contemporary students’ love of technological gadgets, their application for the development of listening skills is definitely effective. And the teacher who uses them gains popularity among his/her students as a netizen, like themselves. According to Evans (2008), Kim (2011), Lazzari (2009), McKinney, Dyck and Luber (2009), Rosell-Aguilar (2007), and Thorne and Payne (2005), podcasting has recently been found especially beneficial for the development of listening skills. Compared to other technologies, podcasting provides authentic or educational listening practice which can be used anywhere and at any time, which, on the one hand, helps the learner relax (as the learning process is informal), and, on the other hand, increases both the
listening time and the listening motivation.

According to Rubin (1975), the students can improve very fast by adopting video listening rather than audio listening. He discovered that video presentations are always helpful to raise the learning enthusiasm, to inspire students’ imagination and also to widen their horizon. Ghapanchi & Golparyar (2012) also confirm that video listening is more welcomed by students than pure audio listening.

Ousselin (2015) describes using multimedia, such as Google forms with embedded videos and images. If pedagogically these activities do not differ from listening to audio recordings from an mp3 player or a computer, followed by traditional on-paper drills in student’s book, technologically, they save a lot of time and effort, as everything is in one place.

González Otero (2016) mentions that students value when their teacher uses in listening classes materials found on the internet. They perceive it both as a sign of respect to their interests and a desire to use more contemporary and various listening materials than the ones offered by the textbook (student-centered education). The listening materials become more various and numerous. As one of the major reasons why students have anxiety in listening is lack of listening practice, so using audio and video materials from the internet will help cover this gap.

Lee (2004) and Tudini (2003) emphasize that oral communication via ICT, such as Skype, are beneficial for the development of both speaking and listening skills. They can listen to videos and radio programmes, speak to each other (a dialogue includes both speaking and listening).

This is very motivation, as students can use their target language skills for professional purposes or just for entertainment and pleasure. The authentic character of these exchanges compensate for the primitive and often inaccurate language often used in such acts of communication. Tsukamoto, Nuspliger & Senzaki (2009) underline that for ESP teaching audio-conferencing is extremely useful.

Zulsiaga Vargas (2015) suggests to mix the traditional listening-close activity (filling in every n-th missing word, while listening) with information gap. He suggests to give handouts to students with missing information which students will need to fill in, while working in pairs after listening. He recommends to apply the KWL procedure (Shermis & Di Vesta, 2011): ‘I know’, ‘I want to know’, and ‘I learned’. According to him, while listening in class or independently, students can write down the words that caused comprehension problems and then try to elicit their meaning from each other or the teacher. Audio books of classics may be used by teachers or
students to easily prepare listening-close activities, as the texts of the works are available.

Jingnan (2011) recommends students to “take responsibility for their learning, such as setting learning tasks, selecting [the] learning method, and evaluating [the] learning process” (p.28), in order to promote learning autonomy. In this light, it is a good idea that the teacher gives students a task to prepare a listening comprehension task on the topic under study, in order to use these student-made tasks (probably, after selection) in class. The selection may be done by teacher before class or by the whole class (assessing the quality of the questions). The latter is especially valuable for future language teachers, as it is an authentic task for their future profession.

Fulfilling an instruction while listening is a communicative, authentic activity. If the text is recorded and can be listened repeatedly, it makes students less stressed in the process of listening. However, as this approach is not authentic, it should not be used too often. If students are assessed according to the fulfilled activity (a cake baked, an engine repaired, etc.), students often prefer this non-traditional way of assessment of their listening skills, as it is not accompanied by an additional difficulty - reading and/or writing, as in tests.

To make the listening process interesting, instead of choosing / answering factual questions, which often is rather boring and non-motivating for students, they may be asked to ‘fish out’ cultural information from the texts they listen to. As language and culture are tightly interrelated, this is a very useful activity.

While listening, students may be asked to draw various schemes (e.g., who the characters are to each other, mark the route on the map, make up a crime site in a detective story, etc.) or the whole story. This will make their listening active, instead of the usual passive listening (Buck, 2001). Buck also recommends such fun activities as blindfold walk (fulfilling instructions with shut eyes), secret message (murmuring a line to each other, and then seeing, if the final sentence is the same as the initial one), listening to a description in order to guess what is being described, listening to one side of the telephone talks and trying to calculate what was said on the other. These activities create a friendly atmosphere, and help students to forget about anxiety. Buck (2001) recommends teachers to more often use positive language for the PE: ‘challenge’ instead of ‘problem’, ‘excited’ or ‘eager’ instead of ‘anxious’ or ‘nervous’, etc.

Kondrateva, Safina & Valeev (2016), for instance, recommend language teachers at non-linguistic faculties to select such professional texts for listening, which contain professional information already known to the students (check with their core course teachers). They also
advise to train students’ auditory memory. Listening to real specialty-based lecture fragments with the following discussion is recommended by them as an effective listening activity at university.

Shikhantsov (2016) suggests a listening competition between two-student teams who have to provide both fast and correct answers, in order to win. The activity is fun, so students do now have any debilitating anxiety.

Among the activities we can use De Bono’s (1999) ‘six hats’, the red hat standing for emotions among them. Before the listening activities the students can put on various colors’ hats and discuss their emotional problems in the process of listening. The students who have no anxiety or have their tricks to fight the anxieties can recommend their friends how to concentrate on the things important for them in order to fulfil the task.

Teachers can collect audio and video recordings for listening comprehension and provide it on a special site for students. This is a beneficial approach, as when students try to use the available on the internet materials, they may several consecutive times find too difficult pieces, and lose the motivation. Teacher’s collection will not only be acceptable for their language level, but also be accompanied by activities. Conscious students who want to develop their listening skills out of class, but are at a loss with the existing materials will find teacher-selected authentic recordings with accompanying activities more helpful and saving their time. Each piece in such a collection may have a short note – the topic, the problem, the language level and the listening sub-skills (vocabulary, grammar) developed, which will serve as students’ guide.

Traditionally teaching listening is based on listening to recordings, accompanied by rather mechanical testing-like tasks (true-false, multiple choice, gap filling, close, and matching). Even if the text itself is interesting, the task decreases students’ motivation. Dadour (2003) mentions that listening activities should be more creative and, thus, motivating. Listening-based painting and drawing, telling/writing the continuation of a story, debating the viewpoint presented in the listening text, essay based on what has been head, listening to songs and poems and expressing attitudes towards them is much more humanistic and enjoyable.

There are listening micro-skills obvious to everybody and, correspondingly, traditionally practiced: distinguishing the sounds, words, collocations, grammatical forms, understanding the meaning of language units and the text on the whole. The traditional listening tasks like ticking the right homographs (e.g., right / write) or almost homonyms (sick/seek), finding the border between the words (I’d like to have an ice-cream / when I see mice, I scream), explaining the
collocation independently or choosing the right explanation, explaining the meaning of sentences with different grammatical structures (you must take the pills / you must have taken the pills), also independently or by choosing the right explanation, dealing with the main idea of the text, etc. are very useful. On the other hand, especially in large portions, they are tiring and dull. To provide a Pygmalion Effect with such activities, teachers can hold competitions, giving some sort of reinforcement (such as candies) for each correct answer, and not only to the winner of the whole competition, who may gain a cake which then will be generously divided (probably, on teacher’s recommendation) among all competition participants. In this way, nobody will have a feeling of losing, but the pleasure of a game will let students understand that teacher wants to please them and cares for their positive emotions.

However, nowadays, some new micro-skills are required, so some new tasks are offered: social listening (understanding the roles of the interlocutors), critical listening for higher language level students (recognizing the formal / informal style, accent, and accuracy), concentrative listening (listening for ordering the events, for fulfilling an operation) and creative listening (creating visual images, dramatizing) (Lapp and Anderson, 1988, p. 83-88).

For younger learners visual-based (choose the picture according to the text, draw a scheme / picture according to the text, put the pictures in the order corresponding to the text) and physical (total physical response) listening activities are attractive, however, they might be fun, if used as a relaxation technique once or twice. A karaoke or ‘dubbing’ a film episode (while listening to the original) will both develop the listening skills and improve the pronunciation.

Feedback is essential in language learning. For Pygmalion Effect teachers need to keep in mind that students need to receive feedback not only from teacher, but also from their peers. This is why pair and group work should be emphasized in practicing listening in class.

2.5. Classroom Management Adequate for Pygmalion Effect

Management and healthcare were the first spheres were Pygmalion Effect was first practically applied. When a manager expects his / her subordinates to work efficiently, they normally do, as they feel valued and trusted. In medical institutions, kind treatment of managers helps improve nurses’ work, while doctors’ supporting behavior helps patients to fight their illnesses (Wang & Lin, 2014). Analogously, when kindly treated, students are more motivated to learn.
As already mentioned, pair and group work is a kind of classroom management which enhances positive emotions in students and decreases the negative ones. Taqi and Al-Nouh (2014) held a study with 40 college students of the Introduction of Phonetics and Phonology course in Kuwait. A two-week experiment was held, with control group not using pair and group work and experimental group, applying mostly pair and group work. The findings may seem disappointing, as the students of the experimental group were not found improving their knowledge, however, it would be surprising for the students to have benefitted from pair and group work in such a short time. On the other hand, the students’ questionnaire showed that they were enjoying learning more than their counterparts in the control group.

On the other hand, two studies by What Works Clearing House (2010) have shown a dramatic effect of pair and group work on 1,460 primary school children’s (grades 2 through 6) literacy skills during a school year. The difference and the reason is obvious – the duration of the treatment.

Obedience and responsibility models of discipline in teachers’ beliefs and work have an impact on the students’ motivation to learn as well as their learning outcomes. If the obedience model may make lazy students be involved and fulfill home and classwork in the short run, the responsibility model will help students become autonomous learners, which will enhance their long-term motivating and learning outcomes (Curvin & Mendler, 1997; Lewis, 2001). Lewis’s research in 21 elementary and 21 secondary schools has shown that teachers, unfortunately, do not often apply the responsibility model of discipline. This, naturally, eventually decreases students’ learning outcomes.

Exactly due to the fact that Pygmalion Effect is obviously based on the responsibility model, it is effective in education. Marshall (2005) suggests a discipline without stress model (which is more or less the same as Pygmalion Effect) for the improvement of the educational process and results. This approach enhances a learning culture. She underlines that non-punishing environment does not entail permissive relationships between teacher and students. Inappropriate behavior is separated from the person, thus, it does not have a negative impact on teacher attitude towards students. The approach involves treating students with respect and kindness, being honest with students (for instance, in assessments), sharing stories from their own lives, and being ready to help any time when students request. This, in turn, requires various and well thought of strategies, applying various activities. Students become empowered by being enabled to make choices – of topics, resources, activities and their formats.

In language teaching pair and group work, as well as the responsibility model of
discipline and classroom management, support the communicative language teaching and, thus, help develop language skills.

2.6. Conclusion to chapter 2

Research (Elkhafaifi, 2005; Supon, 2004) has shown that Pygmalion Effect has a decreasing impact on students’ debilitating anxiety. If in speaking, reading and writing, a higher level of language skills normally reduces the level of language anxiety, this is not necessarily so for listening skills. The reasons may be a high level of trait anxiety, the exam-like format of listening activities, low self-confidence due to non-constructive peer and teacher feedback (Goh, 2008). As situational anxiety and students’ self-confidence level largely depend on the teacher, taking into consideration the Pygmalion Effect while practicing listening is indispensable. Although it does not guarantee improved performance, it creates a necessary environment for the improvement.

Teacher emotional support stimulates even shy, indecisive students to take part in listening activities, both in the classroom and at home, which increases their participation/experience time, hence, the level of listening comprehension.

The negative correlation between the listening anxiety and listening comprehension has been shown in Serraj & Noordin (2013) research (correlation -0.414). Similar results have been obtained by Atasheneh & Izadi (2012) (correlation -0.469).

Unless the anxiety is decreased, even the good command of linguistic elements will not help students to understand the heard text, especially if it is not accompanied by visual cues.

Whether the teacher will apply Pygmalion Effect depends on his/her general views on education. Student-centered and humanistic views largely stimulate teachers to use the Pygmalion Effect.

It has been shown in the chapter that Pygmalion Effect deals not only with emotional support, but also instrumental support. A teacher who arms students with effective listening strategies contributes to their self-confidence and, eventually, to better learning. If teachers view English (or another foreign language) as a learnable for all students course, if they view students as able learners, if they share the ideas of active / engaged learning, she/he will reveal these attitudes to students, which cannot but help increase students’ motivation and self-confidence Vibulphol (2004). Teacher beliefs are not influenced only by teacher training / education. The
general mentality in society, the educational policy of the country, the atmosphere at the particular school where the teacher is working, and teacher’s personal experience all matter. This is why it is not enough to provide teacher education and training in order to develop in them the above-mentioned efficient views, it is necessary to create a corresponding environment in which humanistic, active and democratic views will be the norm and not just an innovative exception. These changes, of course, can happen only in a long-term perspective, with teams of educationalists working in this direction.

However important teacher beliefs are, they will bear fruits only if they are embedded in their practice. It is important that teachers beliefs in the learnability of the course and the particular learning materials are translated into logical planning (the easy followed by the difficult), engaging activities and fair, constructive assessment. Students need to realize that teacher assesses them in order to let them do their best and is ready to give recommendations on how to achieve their optimal results.

Positive emotions in the process of listening do not necessarily mean that the majority of activities have to be entertaining. These emotions may be triggered by the interesting contents of the listening text and even by a challenging task fulfilled in a group (to make it more doable).

Listening activities in a foreign language class include not only listening drills, but also listening to the teacher and each other. Classroom management should be realized in a way to provide students’ attention to teacher’s and peers’ words. Cooperative activities are especially valuable for this. On the other hand, team competition (with teams changing all the time) can also contribute to students’ motivation.

Applying pre-listening activities will increase student self-confidence, due to activation of both linguistic and background knowledge. After pre-listening activities, listening comprehension tasks become more doable, and, correspondingly, students feel that their teacher tries to organize listening practice in a low-stress and effective way.

While-listening activities are necessary to make the listening process active. Giving the comprehension tasks before listening enables students during listening to concentrate on required issues. While-listening tasks should not be time-consuming, otherwise they will distract from listening too much.

Using contemporary technologies and not just tape-recorders / DVD players will hold students to be motivated to listen, while mobile devices will enable them to extend the listening time, as they are available any place and time.
Involving students in the selection and creation of audio recordings and corresponding tasks will permit to develop their autonomy, increase their self-confidence and the quality of their listening skills. While creating comprehension tasks, students will keep in mind their own challenges, which will make the classes really student-centered.

Listening tasks dealing not only with formal comprehension, but also deep cultural insight will also reveal the desire of the teacher to be student-centered, especially if the class is multicultural.

Listening activities deal with language level (traditional gap-filling, matching, multiple choice drills), as well as with social (defining speakers’ roles), critical (assessing the facts and ideas in the text), concentrative (ordering, labeling) and creative (listening-based speaking and writing) listening. This approach will contribute to motivation, bring listening tasks closer to real life requirements (make them authentic) (Lapp and Anderson, 1988).

This is the complex of measures that will guarantee the positive impact of the Pygmalion Effect on listening skills.
CHAPTER 3: Research of Pygmalion Effect Impact on Listening Anxiety and Comprehension held at Universities in Kurdistan Region, Iraq

This chapter includes the design of the study and the processes to obtain the targets in the study. The steps, methodology to collect data, and the analysis of data held by the researcher are reflected in a detailed way.

3.1. Background information

Before the study, some information will be provided below to have a general perspective on the current condition of teaching listening skills in Iraq and on the concept of Pygmalion Effect.

3.1.1. Teaching Listening Skills in Iraqi Kurdistan

Iraq was under British mandate during 1917-1932. After gaining independence in 1932, Iraq formed the Ministry of Education, among other governmental structures, and education management was strictly centralized. The only language of instruction was Arabic. In 1974 Kurdistan Region gained autonomy, after which some schools in the region were permitted to teach in Kurdish (Ahmed, 1989). The political instability during the period of 1958-1979, the dictatorship of Saddam Hossein and 2003-2011 war had a traumatic effect on the development of Iraq, including its educational system (Isakhan, 2012; Al Hamdany, 2012). From 2011 the country is trying to restore and improve the educational system. Nowadays the language of instruction in higher education is Arabic for Arab areas and Kurdish for Kurdish area, except for the faculty of medicine and the engineering faculties where the language of instruction is often English. Final theses and doctoral theses are written in Arabic, with an abstract in English. (Country Module, 2012).

A large project initiated by UNESCO Iraq Office in 2011 has developed a new national curriculum, which requires teaching to be student-centered, applying whole-class and group work. Concerning foreign (mostly English) language teaching, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is recommended (Ahmed et.al., 2015), however, a lot of teachers still use Grammar Translation Methods, concentrated on grammar and reading skills (Al Hamdany, 2012).
From 2014 to 2021 UNESCO is in the process of implementation of the “Education for peace and sustainable development”, in the frames of which much help to Kurdish Regional Government as well as Iraqi Federal Government, especially in technical equipment of public schools. International companies contribute to the economic development of countries. They need educated employees with adequate level of English skills, which stimulates the growth of motivation of getting technical education and learning English (Al Hamdany, 2012; Al Tuhafi, 2017).

In the period of English rule, there were some private English schools opened in 1929 in the country, when the country gained independence, they were shut down, as the majority of teachers and students were not Iraqi citizens. Although nowadays there is certain prejudice towards English as the language of former colonizers as well as American invaders (Iraqi war of 2003-2011, attitude to which is not unanimous in the country), it has gained the reputation of worldwide prestige, as it provides profitable careers in the future (Ahmed, 1989; Ahmed et. al., 2015; Al Hamdany, 2012; Al-Tuhafi, 2017). Private schools, where tuition language is mainly English re-opened in the country in 2011.

In contemporary Iraqi context, English is taught as a foreign (not second) language, as there is no environment (to say nothing of radio, television and internet) of English beyond the educational institutions. It is taught in public schools starting with the third grade of primary school, which reveals that much attention is paid to it. In some private schools it is either taught from the first grade or tuition is completely in English. Irrespective much attention paid to teaching English, the country still lacks qualified teachers of English and the teaching methods used (especially in public schools) are too often outdated (Ahmed, 1989). As Al Hamdany (2012) states, the students ‘study’ English, but do not ‘learn’ (or master) it.

On the other hand, Grajek (2017) states that Iraqi employers view the ability of universities’ graduates to communicate in English among top skills. For a country in which unemployment level is high, it is essential to provide university graduates with skills required by the market. The US Embassy contributes to the improvement of the situation by opening language centers, equipping them, training teachers, offering up-to-date educational materials. The government and the universities are very much concerned about raising the English skills’ level among the graduates.

If we view IELTS test statistics of Iraqi citizens who took the test in 2015 (assessed in a nine-band score), we will see that the mean points in listening are 5.5, while in reading they are 5.4, in writing – 5.2, and in speaking 5.6, or listening points are the highest after speaking.
(IELTS, 2015). The scores are not too high, but even these scores do not reflect the real situation in the whole country, as this test is taken by the most educated people for visa reasons (getting jobs and/or education abroad).

Irrespective all efforts, the majority of Iraqi undergraduate students’ listening skills are not developed on a satisfactory level, as shown in some researches (Basim, 2007; Kret, 2013). The reasons are the lack of practice of authentic listening (Basim, 2007) and the lack (if not total absence) of listening strategies (Kret, 2013). According to Bingol’s (2015) study held with 111 Iraqi (Kurdistan Region) undergraduate students, Iraqi students’ main obstacles to listening comprehension are unfamiliar vocabulary and the speed of utterance.

Compared to the rest of Iraq, the situation with education in Kurdistan Region is relatively good. According to the education system in the Iraqi Kurdistan which is shaped in accordance with the British mandatory period in the region, the students who complete the curriculum in the end of the twelfth year and graduate from the high schools, take a university entrance exam in which English is given 5% of the total grade and the English exam does not involve a listening part. Thus, schools do not pay sufficient attention to practicing listening skills. However, private universities in the area make it compulsory for students to pass the listening exam that is a part of the proficiency tests (Ahmed, 1989). Natural enough, it is too difficult for school graduates to do so. On the other hand, among the Kurdish population the attitude towards English is better than towards the Arabic language, as it is viewed as an efficient tool for an academic career, employment, and informing the western world on the Kurdish issue. This is a good soil for teaching English (Dunlop, 2015; Sofi-Karim, 2015).

Kurdistan Regional Government (KRG) is doing much to improve the education in the region: 16% of the budget for 2013 was allocated for the education and higher education sectors. Private sector, which has to be licensed by the government, also contributes a lot to the development of education (between 2006 and 2013 they invested $668 million in educational projects). This is certainly inspiring, but, to make the investments more efficient, it is necessary to investigate the most important problems and the potential ways of solving them (Knowledge is Power, 2013).

Teaching English is one of the most challenging issues in the Iraqi Kurdistan region, whose capital is Erbil, since population there speaks three main different languages: Kurdish, Arabic and Turkmen, and some minor languages and dialects. Only Arabic alphabet, with its writing from right to left, unites the three, otherwise they are quite different. With population used to Arabic script, teaching any European language with Latin script and writing from left to
right (including English) is not easy. An exception is the Northern Kurdish dialect Kurmanji, which uses a modified Latin alphabet (Sofi-Karim, 2015). Even while working with computers, educators face many problems, as certain adaptations are needed to be able to use the computer for both Latin and Arabic script. This fact makes it difficult for students and teachers (some of whom are native English speakers) to communicate with each other, but, in the case of teaching English as a foreign language, creates a motivation to use the language for communication among students of different ethnic groups. Still, as Ahmed et al. (2015) stated, in Iraq as a part of the Arab world, low English proficiency level is a great obstacle for students as they have a visible difficulty in understanding written texts (Ahmed et al., 2015).

In 2003, when the degree of Kurdistan autonomy increased, private schools were re-introduced in the region. Many of them teach English intensively from the first grade, and some provide tuition completely in English. UNESCO opened their office in Erbil in 2007, which stimulates the development of education, including English teaching.

According to an annual trial test exam that is held by the Ishik University, which is called ITCO (abbreviation of the Ishik Test Competition Organization) taken by approximately 4000 students of 12th grades and performed with the permission of the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research in the Kurdistan Region, the level of English learning is not high enough (Ishik Newsletter, 2017).

The reasons lying behind the situation are several. Vernez, Culbertson, & Constant (2014, p. 16) mention that many Kurdish children start schooling at a later age than they should according to the law. They have jotted down that yearly instructional time in the double-shift basic schools is 539 hours while in the single-shift schools; this amount has risen to 693. Nonetheless, the given numbers are less than the OECD average amount of 968 and EU average amount of 965 for the year 2005 (OECD, 2007, p. 369).

Besides the curriculum fulfilment problems, insufficient school buildings and instruction time, low quality of textbooks, outdated methods of teaching, deficit of teacher training, lack of updated documents, insufficient technical info and physical conditions of the classrooms in which 40-50 students try hard to study are some other troubles in front of the effective teaching and learning in the Iraqi Kurdistan (Sofi-Karim, 2015).

According to Yahya (1989), who studied the problems faced in the Kurdistan region, the results are mostly to do with the connected speech issues and the lack of suitable strategies.
(including listening skills) and insufficient general education level. Another research (Ahmed, 1989) supports what is said above. The average points of students taking the entrance exam are not too high due to the unstandardized English level. If their further education is in English, they usually need to study at preparatory school at the university, to be able to continue their studies in English.

3.1.2. Research Related to the Pygmalion Effect in Iraqi Kurdistan

The concept of Pygmalion Effect is not very well known in Kurdistan. However, the problem is not the fact that the term is not known, but that educators remain largely teacher-centered, strict, accuracy-oriented, for whom errors are a big problem and not a natural part of the learning process. Due to all this, many students are not intrinsically motivated in learning English. “It is publicly said that the … situation is due to the fact that Iraqi pupils and teachers of English … do not have positive attitudes, or high motivation to learn and teach English as a foreign language” (Ahmed, 1989, p. 3).

Various ways can be offered in order to solve the problem. A study on the effects of listening on the students’ motivation, held in the Kurdistan region on 100 prep school students, for example, has shown that the majority of the participants agree that, as the students improve their perception of listening, their motivation towards language acquisition increases as well (Yildiz & Albay, 2015).

Table 3.1. The Impact of the Level of Listening Skills on Motivation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Listening Motivation</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid Ambivalent</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>11.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambivalent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>58.0</td>
<td>58.0</td>
<td>69.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>31.0</td>
<td>31.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(source: Yildiz & Albay, 2015, p. 9)
According to the results given in the table above that was taken from the respective research, a total of 89.0% of the participants agree that improving listening skills of the learners provides motivation and inspiration depending on the interaction between teacher and learner, which is the result of Pygmalion Effect, in the process of acquiring language (ibid, 2015).

Koran (2016) study showed that teacher motivation helps to improve students’ listening and speaking skills. Twenty five teachers in an Iraqi university were assessed by students, administration and themselves as having low, average and high motivation. Then one teacher was at random selected from each group, 55 students with approximately the same level of language skills were placed in their classes and taught listening and speaking, then their pre-, while- and post-experimental test results were compared. It was shown that the most motivated teacher’s class made most progress, while the least motivated teacher’s class – least progress.

![Figure 3.1. Average results of listening progress tests out of 100 points (Source: Koran, 2016, p. 138)](image)

Highly motivated teachers are well-organized, choose creative teaching methods, encourage participation, provide feedback, etc. Thus, they increase students’ output in two main ways – directly (they apply more efficient teaching methods) and indirectly (they motivate students to work harder). Interaction between teacher and students is essential for efficient learning. When the level of positive expectation increases, the success eventually comes out as well. In other words, Pygmalion Effect is operated between teacher and student.
3.2. Study Design

The study was designed according to the aim and the research questions. The study held, on the one hand, aimed to find out the nationwide situation dealing with listening skills and anxiety in the process of their development and application, on the other hand, it aimed at holding an experimental study, in order to assess the model of teaching listening developed in the dissertation, which is based on Pygmalion Effect. Thus, the variables in the research are:

- **Independent variable** (the suggested model of application of the Pygmalion Effect);
- **Dependent variables** (students’ listening anxiety level and their level of EFL listening skills).

The research questions were:

1) What is the level of undergraduate students’ EFL listening skills’ level in Kurdistan Region (according to students’ self-assessment)?
2) What is their listening anxiety level?
3) How efficient from the viewpoint of decreasing the listening anxiety and the level of listening skills is the Pygmalion-Effect-based model of teaching listening developed in the dissertation?

To answer these questions, in this study, the following quantitative research methods were used:

- A survey on listening anxiety among Iraqi undergraduate students and their teachers (Kurdistan Region);
- A pedagogical experiment at Ishik University, Iraq, to find out the impact of the developed in the dissertation model of Pygmalion Effect application on students’ EFL listening anxiety and listening comprehension. The experiment involved:
  - Pretest, while-tests (1 and 2) and post-test, in order to measure students’ listening skills’ level before, during and after the experiment;
  - A pre- and post-experimental questionnaire concerning students’ satisfaction with the suggested teaching model, listening skills development and listening anxiety

To do this, measurement tools had to be selected and/or developed. The teachers’ and students’ questionnaires for the nation-wide survey were designed based on the literature analysis in the dissertation. They concerned students’ listening anxiety level. To provide their
**reliability and content validity** the draft version of the questionnaire was applied with a group of 20 students and 10 teachers, not involved in the study. For the reliability of the results some synonymous items were suggested in order to see whether the answers to them by the same respondent would coincide. When it was not so, the items were omitted or reformulated. The teachers were also asked to provide feedback dealing with the clarity of the items. Eventually, the questionnaire for students involved 16 items that had to be assessed in 5-point Likert scale (from 1 – totally disagree to 5 – completely agree). The questionnaire for teachers was analogous (the items were reformulated like ‘I am anxious’ → ‘The students are anxious”, and 4 items dealing with teachers’ awareness of Pygmalion Effect were added. After the teachers filled in the questionnaire, they were informed on its goal and were asked whether the items were relevant to the goal, to provide the content validity. A discussion followed, after which some items were removed or reformulated.

The questionnaire was held at various faculties in nine universities in the Kurdistan region in Iraq (seven of them coincided for the students and the teachers, while two were different), the participation was on a volunteer basis. It was available to the participants online for more than a month (from February 28 to April 6, 2017). 98 students and 28 teachers volunteered to participate.

The experiment held at Ishik University, Kurdistan Region, Iraq, involved two groups, the control group of students, taught traditionally, without purposeful teacher emotional impact (i.e., Pygmalion Effect), and the experimental group, with Pygmalion Effect regularly applied as presented in the dissertation. Otherwise, both groups, to provide maximally trustworthy results, were taught listening in English with the same materials (Soars & Soars, 2016), the same number of hours (9 hours per week for listening, totally 36 hours for all 4 skills during the week, and by the same teaching methods. The two groups were taught by different teachers, however, their qualifications were maximally close to each other (they even study at the same year of the same doctorate program – see table 3.2).

The experiment involved 43 students of EFL (elementary level) from Mathematics, Physics, Biology and English Language Teaching Departments at Education Faculty of Ishik University, Iraq. The duration of the experiment was one semester. The listening tests were used from Soars & Soars (2016), as they have been professionally piloted and their reliability and validity does not cause any doubt. They involved the following tasks: multiple-choice, true-false, and filling in missing information based on short dialogues and monologs. The students listened to each recording twice: once for the main idea, and again for details and for making
inferences.

Both groups were given the same tests before, during and after the experiment. The tests aimed to measure the students’ listening skills’ level and to find out whether any positive changes occurred. Besides, they had to answer the pre- and post-experimental questionnaire, also developed by the researcher based on the literature analysis and assessed for reliability and validity the same way, dealing with students’ satisfaction with learning listening and the level of their listening anxiety, in order to find out, whether the suggested model was more efficient than the traditional one.

3.2.1. Sample

The target community of the study was Iraqi undergraduate students from Kurdistan Region studying English as a foreign language. There are 19 recognized by state universities in the region; the total number of university students is 94,700. The percentage of female students is 48% (Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research, 2017).

Students from eight (five public and three private) universities and teachers from seven (four state and three private) participated in the research, which is representative enough. On the other hand, 98 participant students of the survey constitute about 0.1%, which is not too representative. The number of teachers was quite limited, too. The ratio of the genders is more or less representative of the whole region.

Participation in the study was voluntary. The teachers and students were informed that their answers would be anonymous and that at any moment they could quit the study if they found it somehow hurting them.

For the region-wide survey, the researcher published the questionnaire on Ishik University’s official Facebook. Besides, Ishik University has memorandums of understanding with other Kurdistan Region universities. A network of connections exists among these universities, so the researcher addressed some English teachers from these universities to distribute his questionnaires among students and lecturers on paper as well.
Table 3.2. Kurdistan Region Universities’ Survey Participant Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>University</th>
<th>Student number</th>
<th>age</th>
<th>gender</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>m</td>
<td>f</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American University</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>17-21</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basrah University</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>17-21</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cihan University</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>17-21</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Halabja University</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17-21</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kirkuk University</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>17-21</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Koya University</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>17-21</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salahaddin University</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>17-21</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Erbil University</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>17-21</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totally</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>Mean age: 19</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.3. Kurdistan Region Universities’ Survey Participant Teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>University</th>
<th>teacher number</th>
<th>mean experience</th>
<th>gender</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>m</td>
<td>f</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basrah University</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cihan university</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Halabja university</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
For the pedagogical experiment, the first year (freshman) students of Ishik University’s Education Faculty, including the departments of Mathematics, Physics, Biology and ELT, participated in the study. As the experimental and the control groups, to be comparable, had to involve students of the same level of language (listening) skills, so, their level was defined in accordance with the results of the Oxford Online Placement Test that is requested and applied by the Education Faculty. Students having elementary level were invited to participate in the experiment. Totally 43 students out of approximately 390 students at the faculty and about 3500 students at the university, volunteered to participate. This number is representative of the faculty (11.03%), but not really representative of the university (1.23%). They were divided into two groups: control and experiment. The experimental group was composed of 22 students, while the control group - of 21 students. The students of the experimental group were aged 17- 21, while in the control group – 18-23 (mean age 20). The groups were formed from the volunteers at random, observing gender balance (see Table 3.3.). The composition of the groups made their results comparable.

**Table 3.4. Ishik University Experiment - Participant Students**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>group</th>
<th>student number</th>
<th>age</th>
<th>gender</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>m</td>
<td>f</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>experimental</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>18-21</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>control</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>18-23</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totally</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>18-23, mean age 20</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The teachers working with the experimental and control groups were both males, they belonged to the same age group, had similar experience of teaching English and same academic qualification (both of them possessed an MA degree and were doctorate students in the same PhD Education sciences program) to avoid the human factor of impact on the experiment results. Both agreed to participate in the experiment. They were informed how to treat the corresponding group, but were not informed which group was experimental, and which – control, not to try to help the researcher get the desirable result.

**Table 3.5. Demographic Data of the Teachers Participating in the Experiment**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Teacher A (Class A)</th>
<th>Teacher B (Class B)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td>35</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Work Experience</strong></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Academic Degree</strong></td>
<td>MA in ELT (doctorate student)</td>
<td>MA in ELT (doctorate student)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**3.2.2. Experiment Procedure**

Let us view an example of one lesson (elementary level) held in both groups according to Soars and Soars (2016, p. 3-16). The lesson deals with given names and nick-names. The activities in the control group are done exactly as the textbook requires, while in the control group either activities or assessment are done to a certain degree differently.

**Table 3.6. The procedure of the experiment**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Control group</th>
<th>Experimental group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What is your full name? What do most people call you? (Done as whole-class activity, but some student are silent.)</td>
<td>The students do role-play (agents) as a whole group. They present their nick-names and give reasons why they need them and why they chose the particular nick-name. Role play is introduced, as not all students might like telling other people their nick-names. To provide that the activity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What are the most common first names in your country? Last names? What are the common nick-names for family members in your country? (Done as pair work – the students are not too motivated, as there is no information gap in the activity.)</td>
<td>The students do one more role-play (foreigner / Iraqi) in pairs. They share their typical first and last names, also what people usually call their family members. They imitate the difficulty of pronouncing ‘foreign’ names. The students enjoy the activity, especially the ones who play the roles of foreigners. The teacher emphasizes how smart the students are.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The students listen to a recording (whole-class). The people are introducing themselves. The students have to explain in which situation people should use the given name, the less formal name and the nick-name. Some misunderstandings about foreign names occur and the teacher helps to clarify the issues. The students are reasonably involved.</td>
<td>The students listen to a recording (whole-class). The people are introducing themselves. Then – in small groups – they discuss in which situation people should use the given name, the less formal name and the nick-name. They are recommended by the teacher to use the internet on their mobile phones (the teacher checks that at least one student in the group has got it). Each group then presents their opinions. The students are really involved, and they are doing peer-assessment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students individually read the given statements, then listen to the recording of a discussion, ticking its main ideas. Some students are not listening and just use their more expert and motivated group-mates’ answers. The teacher gives them the key, without any explanations (unless the students ask for them).</td>
<td>Students individually read the given statements, then listen to the recording of a discussion, ticking its main ideas. Afterwards in small groups they compare and discuss their answers. They give evidence why they answered so. The teacher moves among the groups and sometimes directs them by using some cues. The activity involves students intellectually. Finally all answers are compared and arguments listened to (whole-class). The group giving the best answers and arguments receives “medals”. The need to give arguments stimulates students to be involved.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The same text is listened to once more (individually) and the adequate answer among the given ones is selected. The keys are given to the students by the teacher in the end, with no explanation (unless the students ask for them).</td>
<td>Individual competition. The same text is listened to once more piece by piece and the adequate answer among the given ones is selected. The fastest students raise their hands and get a token, if the answer is correct. The student who collects more tokens is the winner. All students were thanked by the teacher for active involvement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group discussion on the topic (questions are given). Students are more or less involved. The teacher moves from one group to another and from time to time corrects the students’ language mistakes.</td>
<td>Group discussion on the topic (questions are given). Each group discusses one question, then presents the results in front of the class. The teacher moves among the groups and helps them keep the discussion by cues. He does not pay attention to the language mistakes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-listening (whole-class). Students are given photos and the stage names of the speakers. They have to say stars’ real names. The students are not too involved, as they are not really informed. At the end of the activity the teacher provides them the information they did not know.</td>
<td>Pre-listening. Students are given photos and the stage names of the speakers. They have to say stars’ real names. The students are split into groups of three (as there are three photos). The teacher beforehand prepared articles about the stars from the internet and gives it to the groups as handouts. Each student takes one article, then they share the information. The teacher praises / criticizes the strategies used (not the students).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The students (individually) read the statements and then (whole-class) listen to the interviews. They tick the three reasons why celebrities change their real names, according to the interviews. Some students again loaf and cheat. The teacher nods for the correct answers and shakes the head for the wrong ones.</td>
<td>The students (individually) read the statements and then (whole-class) listen to the interviews. They in small groups brainstorm the vocabulary that will help them recognize the correct answer). While listening, they tick the three reasons why celebrities change their real names, according to the interviews. Then they quickly compare their answers and choose the final ones. The teacher praises / criticizes the strategies used (not the students).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The same text is listened to. The students individually fulfil multiple choice task. Some students again loaf and cheat. The teacher nods for the correct answers and shakes the head for the wrong ones.

The same text is listened to. The students individually fulfil multiple choice task, then check the results in pairs. If not all answers are correct, one of the pairs which gave the correct answer explains how they got it. The teacher praises / criticizes the strategies used (not the students).

There follow two discussion tasks (in small groups) dealing with other reasons why else people change their names, whether the students would like to change their names, and about the importance of celebrities’ names. The students are more or less engaged. The teacher sometimes helps them and sometimes corrects the mistakes.

There follow two discussion tasks (in small groups) dealing with other reasons why else people change their names, whether the students would like to change their names, and about the importance of celebrities’ names. The students are actively engaged as during the lesson they got enough information and ideas.

**Summary:** Some students were not involved due to lack of motivation and anxiety to make a mistake. They did not really feel teacher support.

**Summary:** All students were involved. The teacher speaks about some typical language mistakes made by the students during the activities (students’ names are not mentioned) and provides the strategy how to overcome such mistakes. As the criticism was constructive and not individual, the students did not avoid participation and realized that the teacher valued each student’s contribution to the class.

The students in the control group were taught in the traditional way during the experiment, i.e., teacher positive regard of the course, materials under study and the students was not purposefully emphasized. The teacher smiled only when he felt like smiling, emphasized the listening comprehension errors, praised only special achievements, criticized the students publicly, did not always provide constructive feedback (just corrected the wrong answer). The achieved progress in listening comprehension skills was not stressed by the teacher or noticed by the students. Group work and cooperation was seldom applied, while fulfilling listening tasks.
On the hand, the teacher who worked with the experimental group was instructed to:

1) Be always friendly and smiling, never make negative comments or threatening students with a difficult quiz, exam, etc. vice versa, telling them “You have worked well and should do in test well, there is nothing to fear”;

2) Tell students in the first class (after pre-testing) that he believes they are all very talented in English (and listening in particular) and they will master it well; in case of any problems they could address the teacher for help;

3) Often praise students – individually, in teams, and the whole class;

4) Avoid criticizing students publicly (only face-to-face or in written);

5) When correcting mistakes in listening comprehension, make it positively, e.g., “You understood the vocabulary meaning of the sentence correctly, but you need to pay attention to the Perfect tense”;

7) When organizing competitions, have many awards (the fastest answer, the best answer, etc.);

8) Once a fortnight enumerate to the class what they have achieved, tell each student what s/he is good at, but explain what they still need to work at;

9) Once a month ask students what they think they have improved / succeeded in and what their problem(s) is (are);

10) Hold a board with students’ achievements (do one’s best that all students are represented there at least once, if not individually, then at least in a team);

11) Find out students’ talents and interests (by informal interview or formal questionnaire);

12) Teach students to raise self-confidence.

13) Stimulate students’ mutual support and sharing listening strategies.

The pre-testing was held before the teaching began. The first while-test was held after a month of studies, the second – one more month later. The post-test was held in the last week of the semester. The pre-questionnaire was also held before the experiment began, while the post-questionnaire- after the experiment was over.

3.2.3. Data Collection and Analysis
The surveys were held both on paper and online and then summed up. The results presented in the dissertation are anonymous. The students were informed that the study findings could in no way impact their grades at university or personal lives.

The tests were held on-paper. The results collected from the surveys and SPSS Version 22.0, SPSS analysis software, assessed tests.

Survey and test results were calculated and then transformed into tables, charts and figures. In the questionnaire survey part, the overall regional (Iraqi Kurdistan) picture was analyzed, while in the experimental part, the changes of mean results, satisfaction and anxiety levels were compared in the two groups at an Iraqi (Kurdistan Region) university in the process of the experiment.

3.2.4. Ethical Issues

The respondents were only volunteers. They knew that the results of the questionnaire would be anonymous and that the results would in no way harm their professional reputation or studies. However, they were also informed that they could drop from it if they found some items of the questionnaire inappropriate for them.

The students participating in the experiment expresses their readiness to be part of it. They were not aware of the nature of the experiment (except that it dealt with teaching approaches), none of them knew whether their group was experimental or control one. A permission of the University administration to hold the experiment was obtained (see appendix A). All data were anonymous. Participation was voluntary.

Gender and ethnicity is another subject in terms of ethics. There were both national and international students. The participants involved national and international students of both genders, but the results were not compared, based on the ethnicity or the nationality.

3.3. Kurdistan Region Questionnaire Survey on EFL Listening Anxiety and Teacher Role in Decreasing It

The questionnaire survey dealt with listening anxiety level among Iraqi Kurdish students of EFL. The participants (students and teachers) had to assess 16 items which were analogous for students and teachers in a 5-point Likert scale format (1-totally disagree → 5 – completely
agree). The questionnaire was provided to the students both on-paper via their teachers and online via Facebook. As for the teachers, they did it online.

Some items in the questionnaires are positive statements (e.g., ‘I am usually at ease during listening tests in my language class’), while others are in negative form (e.g., ‘I am not nervous while listening in the foreign language in authentic situations’), not to provoke students to answer thoughtlessly. The respondents were told to answer as thoughtfully as they could. The questionnaires for the students were translated in their native tongues, to be well understood. Items 7 and 10 are synonymous, to see whether the answers of each given student are trustworthy. No answer-sheets were discarded, as the answers to these two items did not differ.

98 EFL students from 8 universities participated. The results are presented in Table 3.7. The number of students who gave the answer is given in the table. The mean of 4.0 or above reveals that the respondents agree with the statement, the answers equal to or below 3.0 reflect that the students disagree with the statement, while the answers between 3.0 and 4.0 deal with the respondents’ hesitation.

Table 3.7. Questionnaire Survey Results: Student Answers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item #</th>
<th>Item / response / student number who chose the response</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>Mean point</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I am usually at ease during listening tests in my language class</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I am not nervous while listening in the foreign language in authentic situations</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I feel confident when I listen to recordings in foreign language class</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I feel confident when I listen to my teacher and classmates in foreign language class</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I feel very self-confident when listening in the foreign language in class</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>It frightens me when I don't</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>37</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The statements that express the absence of students’ anxiety (items 1-5) all received low points (1.99-2.30), which means that students’ anxiety is quite high. The anxiety is especially high in the classroom (1.99 – item 4), and lower in authentic situations (2.30 – item 2), which</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I keep thinking that the other students are better at listening than I am.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>4.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>While listening in a foreign language, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>4.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Even if I am well prepared for the lesson, I feel anxious while listening.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>I always feel that other students understand while listening in the foreign language better than I do.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>4.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>The speakers in recordings speak so quickly that I worry about getting left behind.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>4.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>When the speakers do not speak very clearly, I worry about not being able to understand them.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>4.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>When the speakers use complicated language, I worry about not understanding them.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>4.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>When the topic is not very familiar, I worry about not understanding the text.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>4.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>I feel more tense and nervous listening than while speaking, reading or writing.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>4.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>I get nervous when I don't understand every word the language teacher / the speakers in the recording use.</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>4.09</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
may mean that students are afraid of assessments of the people they know (teacher and classmates). When they know that nobody is assessing them, they feel more peaceful.

On the other hand, statements which dealt with existing anxiety (items 6-16) yielded high results (4.0-4.43), which again means that students’ anxiety is quite high. Least anxious students are when they are prepared for the lesson (4.0 - item 9), and they are most anxious about not understanding the other speaker due to his/her unclear speech (4.43 – item 12). The declining order of listening anxiety of the respondent deals with:

- Unclear speech (4.43)
- Comparison to other students (4.28 / 4.27)
- Speed of speech (4.25)
- Complicated language (4.14)
- Understanding every word (4.09)
- Teacher’s speech (4.08)
- Topic (4.05)
- Being prepared for the lesson (4.0)

It is possible to see that comparison to other students, which can be regulated with the help of Pygmalion Effect, stands the second in the list. Of course, it is impossible to make conclusions about the whole region with a sample of 98 students, but certain trends are visible.

The students supported the statement (item 15) that they are more anxious while listening than when they are speaking, reading or writing (4.12). Some of them (item 8) get so nervous that do not understand things that they know (4.05). This is easy to explain: both psychologically and linguistically (total dependence on the interlocutor for his / her clarity of speech, accent, rate, vocabulary and grammar, no visual support or possibility to elicit the meaning from the interlocutor in case of audio recorded speech) listening comprehension is very complicated.

To make the obtained results more trustworthy, an analogous questionnaire was offered to English teachers working at Iraqi universities of Kurdistan Region. 28 teachers from 7 universities, mostly the same ones from which the students come, but some different, too volunteered to answer the questionnaire. Teachers’ view are more professional, besides, they indirectly involve a larger number of participants (i.e., their students), thus, making the survey results more objective.

Table 3.8. Questionnaire Survey Results: Teacher Answers
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item #</th>
<th>item</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>Mean point</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Students are usually at ease during listening tests in my language class.</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Students are not nervous while listening in the foreign language in authentic situations</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Students feel confident when they listen to recordings in foreign language class.</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Students feel confident when they listen to the teacher and classmates in foreign language class</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Students feel very self-confident when listening in the foreign language in class.</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>It frightens students when they don't understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Students keep thinking that the other students are better at listening than I am.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>While listening in a foreign language, students can get so nervous they forget things they know.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Even if a student is well prepared for the lesson, she/he feels anxious while listening.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Students always feel that other students understand while listening in the foreign language better than they do.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>The speakers in recordings speak so quickly that students worry about getting left behind.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Question</td>
<td>Number of respondents</td>
<td>Mean score</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>When the speakers do not speak very clearly, students worry about not being able to understand them.</td>
<td>0 0 3 7 18</td>
<td>4.54</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>When the speakers use complicated language, students worry about not understanding them.</td>
<td>0 1 4 11 12</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>When the topic is not very familiar, students worry about not understanding the text.</td>
<td>1 1 4 12 10</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Students feel more tense and nervous during listening than while speaking, reading or writing.</td>
<td>1 1 3 10 13</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Students get nervous when they don’t understand every word the language teacher / the speakers in the recording say.</td>
<td>0 2 2 10 13</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>If I treat students as able language learners, their anxiety will decrease.</td>
<td>2 2 3 7 14</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Lower anxiety will help improve students’ listening comprehension</td>
<td>0 2 4 11 11</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>If I tell students in the process of listening activities that they can do well, their level of listening skills will increase.</td>
<td>0 2 5 11 10</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Students will benefit from listening skills’ assessment only if constructive feedback is provided to them.</td>
<td>1 2 4 10 11</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Similarly to the students, the teachers disagree with the statement that their listening anxiety is low (items 1-5: mean results 2.29-2.79 points).

Also similarly to the students, teachers agree with the statement that students’ listening anxiety is high (items 6-14): mean results from 3.96 to 4.54. The declining order of listening anxiety, in teachers’ view, deals with:

- Unclear speech (4.54)
• Speed of speech (4.25)
• Complicated language (4.21)
• Desire of understanding every word (4.11)
• Teacher’s speech (4.07) / Being prepared for the lesson (4.07)
• Topic (4.04)
• Comparison to other students (3.96 / 4.0)

It is easy to notice that the order in which the students’ anxiety declines as assessed by the teachers is almost the same as in the students’ answers.

The students supported the statement (item 15) that they are more anxious while listening than when they are speaking, reading or writing (4.18). Some of them (item 8) get so nervous that do not understand things that they know (4.14).

Items 17-20 deal with teachers’ awareness with the ideas of Pygmalion Effect is high: their answers are between 4.0 and 4.14. The researcher consciously did not include the term ‘Pygmalion Effect’ in the questionnaire, as his goal was not to find out whether teachers know the term, but whether they share the ideas.

3.4. Experiment results

The efficiency of the two approaches (traditional and Pygmalion-Effect-based) was compared through two types of data: testing and questionnaire results.

3.4.1. Testing results

Tables A1 and A2 in the appendix (Appendices D and E) show the detailed, student-per-student, testing results. Table 3.9 gives their summary with average results.

Table 3.9. Summary of Testing Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>42.3182</td>
<td>5.07455</td>
<td>1.08190</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>42.6667</td>
<td>7.45878</td>
<td>1.62764</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>While-Test 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>56.4091</td>
<td>5.49163</td>
<td>1.17082</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>52.7143</td>
<td>7.55078</td>
<td>1.64772</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Initially, the level of listening skills in both groups was quite close to each other (42.3182 and 42.6666), which makes the two groups quite comparable. If in while-test 1 the results of both groups do not differ significantly (56.2273 and 55.1429), later the difference becomes more tangible. This is natural enough, as it takes time to achieve the changes due to different treatments.

Due to the intensive teaching, teachers’ high qualification and students’ enthusiasm, both groups achieved perceptible success. The improvement took place on each stage of the experiment, not only in the groups on the whole, but for each student as well.

However, the average results in the control group (42.6667 → 69.9524, i.e. an increase by 27.2857 points or by 63.95%) did not grow as significantly as in the experimental group (42.3182 → 84.2273, i.e. an increase by 41.9091 or by 99.03%).

The standard deviations in both groups were within norm (5-8 points) and growing slowly during pre-, while-1, and while-2 tests, but the post-test a bit too high in both groups, which shows that the groups were initially quite homogeneous, but they were becoming more heterogeneous. It means that both approaches have a different impact on different students, some students progress fast, while others – slowly. The standard error is low enough (1-3 points), which means that the difference between the groups’ results which exceeds 3 points is statistically important.

The testing results are presented in Figure 3.2, to see the difference between the groups more visually.
To see whether the obtained results differ statistically significantly, Paired Samples T-Test and Independent Samples test were held with SPSS.22, and the results were analyzed. Tables 3.10-3.12 reveal the results.

Table 3.10. Paired Samples T-Test for the Control Group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pair</th>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Lower</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test – While-</td>
<td></td>
<td>10.04762</td>
<td>8.11465</td>
<td>1.77076</td>
<td>-13.74137</td>
<td>-6.35387</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>test 1</td>
<td></td>
<td>-3.00000</td>
<td>8.86002</td>
<td>1.93342</td>
<td>-7.03303</td>
<td>1.03303</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>.136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>While-test 1 –</td>
<td></td>
<td>-7.85714</td>
<td>5.71214</td>
<td>1.24649</td>
<td>-10.45728</td>
<td>-5.25701</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>While-test 2 –</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>While-test 2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3.2. Testing results

Chart Title
The results of the Paired Samples T-test for the control group show that the difference between the pre-test and while-test 1 is statistically significant (t=-5.674), while between the while-tests 1 and 2 there is no statistically significant increase (t=-1.552). Between the while-test 2 and the post-test the difference again is statistically significant (t=-6.303). The group is improving, but unstably and not all the time significantly.

**Table 3.11. Paired Samples Test for the Experimental Group**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1</td>
<td>Pre-test – While-test 1</td>
<td>14.09091</td>
<td>6.48742</td>
<td>1.38312</td>
<td>-16.96727 to -11.21455</td>
<td>-10.188</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair 2</td>
<td>While-test 1 – While-test 2</td>
<td>12.68182</td>
<td>5.76844</td>
<td>1.22984</td>
<td>-15.23940 to -10.12424</td>
<td>-10.312</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of the Paired Samples T-test for the experimental group show that the difference between the pre-test and while-test 1 is statistically significant (t=-10.188). Between the while-tests 1 and 2 there is also a statistically significant increase (t=-10.312). Between the while-test 2 and the post-test the difference again is statistically significant (t=-13.181). The group is improving stably and all the time significantly. The growth of skill levels is becoming faster and faster on each next step.

**Table 3.12. Independent Samples Test**
The results of the Independent Samples T-Test show how significant the differences are between experimental and control groups. It can be seen in the table that the difference at pre-test and between the groups is not significant (mean difference 0.34848). At while-test 1 it has grown but is not really significant (3.69481). At while-test 2 it has reached a statistically significant level (13.37662). At post-test the difference between the mean results between the groups has increased tangibly and is, certainly, statistically significant (23.38312).

### 3.4.2. Questionnaire results

The same student satisfaction / anxiety level questionnaire was held before and after the experiment in both groups (the students had to assess the given statements in 5-point Likert scale: 1 – totally disagree → 5 totally agree). Questionnaires were given to all students in both groups, and they consented to fill them in.

Items 1-7 and 12 are in the positive stance, while items 8-11 are in the negative stance, not to provoke students to answer thoughtlessly. The respondents were told to answer as thoughtfully as they could. The questionnaires for the students were translated in their native tongues, to be well understood.

The means for the positive statements (1-7; 12-14) were calculated according to the formula: 
\[(1 \times n_1 + 2 \times n_2 + 3 \times n_3 + 4 \times n_4 + 5 \times n_5): (n_1 + n_2 + n_3 + n_4 + n_5)\], for example:

**Item 1 from table 3.14:** 
\[(1 \times 1 + 6 \times 2 + 3 \times 3 + 6 \times 4 + 5 \times 5): 21 = 3.38\]

To calculate the mean values of anxiety it was necessary to calculate the reverse results for the negative statements (items 8-11) according to the formula:

\[(5 \times n_1 + 4 \times n_2 + 3 \times n_3 + 2 \times n_4 + 1 \times n_5): (n_1 + n_2 + n_3 + n_4 + n_5)\], for example:
Item 8 from table 3.14: \((1 \times 5 + 3 \times 4 + 1 \times 3 + 7 \times 2 + 10 \times 1) : 21 = 3.71\)

Two items (#13-14) were added to the pre-questionnaire, to see whether the students have a feeling that the course was useful for them.

The number of students who gave the answer is given in the table. The mean of 4.0 or above reveals that the respondents agree with the statement, the answers equal to or below 3.0 reflect that the students disagree with the statement, while the answers between 3.0 and 4.0 deal with the respondents’ hesitation.

**Table 3.13. Pre-Questionnaire Results in the Control Group**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item #</th>
<th>Item/ number of students who gave the corresponding answer</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>Mean point</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I enjoy my English lessons on the whole.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I enjoy the listening classes.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I eagerly attend English classes</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I eagerly attend listening classes.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I like listening activities</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I am usually actively involved in listening activities</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I always fulfill homework in listening.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>I feel worried while doing the listening tasks</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.10 (3.71 in reverse calculation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>I feel worried when the teacher grades my listening activities</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4.0 (1.91 in reverse calculation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>I feel worried about my classmates laughing at my mistakes in listening comprehension</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4.0 (1.91 in reverse calculation)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I feel anxious not to make mistakes in listening comprehension. 0 2 3 8 8 4.05 (1.86 in reverse calculation)

I think my English teacher positively views my ability to do the listening tasks 2 13 2 4 0 2.38

I achieved substantial progress in the development of my listening skills at university compared to school 9 7 3 3 0 2.09

Now I feel more self-confident while listening in English 8 6 3 3 1 2.19

<p>| | | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>I feel anxious not to make mistakes in listening comprehension.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>I think my English teacher positively views my ability to do the listening tasks</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>I achieved substantial progress in the development of my listening skills at university compared to school</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Now I feel more self-confident while listening in English</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is visible from items 1-4 that the students before the experiment were not very happy with English classes. If they hesitated whether they enjoy the classes or not (mean result between 3 and 4: 3.38), they definitely were not happy with the listening classes (the mean result below 3: 2.86). As for the points given to eager attendance, they are negative both concerning English classes on the whole (2.81) and listening classes in particular (2.76).

The majority of the students do not like listening activities (2.14) and they are not too involved in them (2.43). On the other hand, they look like quite responsible students and mostly fulfil their listening homework (3.62).

Items 8-11 measure students’ anxiety level. It is reasonably high (4 or a little bit above points: 4.0-4.10). They worry more about making mistakes (4.05) than about their friend’s reaction and teacher’s criticism (4.0).

Finally, few of them think that their teacher views them as able in doing the listening tasks (2.38). Absence of Pygmalion Effect is a good explanation for that.

The students disagree with the statement that their listening skills have improved since school (2.09). Neither do they feel they have become more self-confident (2.19).

Table 3.14. Post-Questionnaire Results in the Control Group
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item #</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>Mean point</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I enjoy my English lessons on the whole.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I enjoy the listening classes.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I eagerly attend English classes</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I eagerly attend listening classes</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I like listening activities</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I am usually actively involved in listening activities</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I always fulfill homework in listening.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>I feel worried while doing the listening tasks</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3.95 (2.14 in reverse calculation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>I feel worried when the teacher grades my listening activities</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3.91 (2.24 in reverse calculation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>I feel worried about my classmates laughing at my mistakes in listening comprehension</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3.71 (2.0 in reverse calculation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>I feel anxious not to make mistakes in listening comprehension</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3.81 (2.19 in reverse calculation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>I think my English teacher positively views my ability to do the listening tasks</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>I achieved substantial progress in the development of my listening skills during this semester</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Now I feel more self-confident while listening in English</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It is possible to see from items 1-4 that the students after the experiment have become reasonably happier with English classes. They still do not really enjoy them, however, they like them better than before (3.38 → 3.57). They still are not happy with their listening classes, but have become happier (2.86 → 3.38). They started attending classes more eagerly, but their enthusiasm is still low (2.81 → 3.38), their attitude towards the attendance of listening classes has also increased to some degree, still remaining low (2.76 → 2.95).

The majority of the students still do not like listening activities, but their attitude has to some degree improved (2.14 → 2.48). They are still quite passive, but their involvement has to some degree increased (2.43 → 2.71). Their responsibility level has to some degree increased and is approaching a good situation (3.63 → 3.81).

Items 8-11 measure students’ anxiety level (3.71-3.95). Their anxiety level during listening skills has a little decreased (4.0 → 3.95). They especially worry about teacher grading them (3.91), and they still worry more about making mistakes (3.81) than about their friend’s reaction (3.71). Still, few of them think their teacher views them as able in doing the listening tasks, although the situation has a little increased (2.23 → 2.52).

On the whole, the students’ satisfaction has grown to a certain degree and the anxiety has decreased. But no cardinal improvement has taken place. This is why more than half of the students either deny their success or are not sure of it (3.42). Their level of self-confidence is even lower (3.24).

**Table 3.15. Pre-Questionnaire Results in the Experimental Group**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item #</th>
<th>item</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>Mean point</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I enjoy my English lessons on the whole.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I enjoy the listening classes.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I eagerly attend English classes</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I eagerly attend listening classes.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I like listening activities</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I am usually actively involved in</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>listening activities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I always fulfill homework in listening.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>I feel worried while doing the listening tasks</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.09 (1.91 in reverse calculation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>I feel worried when the teacher grades my listening activities</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3.91 (1.77 in reverse calculation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>I feel worried about my classmates laughing at my mistakes in listening comprehension</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3.91(1.77 in reverse calculation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>I feel anxious not to make mistakes in listening comprehension</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.09 (1.73 in reverse calculation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>I think my English teacher positively views my ability to do the listening tasks</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>I achieved substantial progress in the development of my listening skills at university compared to school</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Now I feel more self-confident while listening in English</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Items 1-4 reveal that the students before the experiment were not very happy with English classes. If they hesitated whether they enjoy the classes or not (3.41), they definitely were not happy with the listening classes (2.55). As for the points given to eager attendance, they are negative both concerning English classes on the whole (2.77) and listening classes in particular (2.50).

The majority of the students do not like listening activities (2.18) and they are not too involved in them (2.41). On the other hand, they are rather responsible students and mostly fulfil their listening homework (3.59).

Items 8-11 measure students’ anxiety level. It is reasonably high (3.91-4.09). They worry more
about making mistakes (4.09) than about their friend’s reaction and teacher’s criticism (3.91).

Finally, few of them think that their teacher views them as able in doing the listening tasks (2.45). Absence of Pygmalion Effect is a good explanation for that.

Table 3.16. Post-Questionnaire Results in the Experimental Group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item #</th>
<th>item</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>Mean point</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I enjoy my English lessons on the whole.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I enjoy the listening classes.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I eagerly attend English classes</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I eagerly attend listening classes.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I like listening activities</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I am usually actively involved in listening activities</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I always fulfill homework in listening.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>I feel worried while doing the listening tasks</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.05 (4.64 in reverse calculation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>I feel worried when the teacher grades my listening activities</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.05 (3.95 in reverse calculation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>I feel worried about my classmates laughing at my mistakes in listening comprehension</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.05 (3.95 in reverse calculation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>I feel anxious not to make mistakes in listening comprehension</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.18 (3.82 in reverse calculation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>I think my English teacher positively views my ability to do the listening tasks</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4.36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to items 1-4, the students after the experiment have become much happier with English classes. They enjoy them more, and the level of enjoying substantially increased (3.41 → 4.14). They are quite happy with their listening classes, and the level of satisfaction has substantially increased (2.55 → 3.91). They started attending classes more eagerly, but their enthusiasm is still not high enough (2.77→3.91), their attitude towards the attendance of listening classes has also increased to some degree, still remaining not too high (2.50→3.82).

The students like listening activities much more (2.18→3.94). They are no longer passive (2.41→4.04). Their responsibility level has increased and reached a good situation (3.59→4.36).

Items 8-11 measure students’ anxiety level (it is between 2.05). Their anxiety level during listening activities has dramatically decreased (4.09 → 2.05). They much less worry about the teacher grading them (3.91→2.05), their friends laughing at them (3.91→2.05), and making mistakes (4.09→2.18).

Now, any of them think their teacher views them as able in doing the listening tasks, although the situation has a little increased (2.23→2.52).

On the whole, the students’ satisfaction has grown quite a lot and the anxiety has dramatically decreased. This is why more than half of the students are sure of their success (3.91), it is higher than in the control group (3.42). Their level of self-confidence is rather high (4.09).

These results reveal how important the Pygmalion Effect is for the increase of satisfaction and self-confidence and the decrease of anxiety.

To compare the starting and the final results of the questionnaire in the two groups, the researcher made up table 3.17.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>I achieved substantial progress in the development of my listening skills</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Now I feel more self-confident while listening in English</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.17. Comparison of the questionnaire initial and final results in the control and experimental groups
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item / mean points</th>
<th>Initial results</th>
<th>Final results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control group</td>
<td>Experimental group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>3.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>2.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>2.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>2.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>2.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>2.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>3.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>4.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>3.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>3.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>4.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>2.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>2.09</td>
<td>2.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>2.19</td>
<td>2.27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is easy to see that initially the mean results in the groups were quite close to each other, while finally the results in the control group reasonably improved (which speaks about teacher qualification, intensive work and students’ desire to master English, as mentioned above), while the results in the experimental group have improved dramatically and have almost reached the desirable level. The feeling of progress in the control group is reasonable, but on the whole the result is not positive (2.09 → 2.67), while in the experimental group it is tangible and has reached a positive level (2.14 → 4.0). Besides, their self-confidence has grown, but in the control group not so impressively, so that it has remained negative (2.19 → 2.95), while in the experimental group the increase in self-confidence is impressive enough and has reached positive values (2.27 → 4.09).
To be sure that the obtained results have statistical significance, T-Test Paired Samples statistics was applied using SPSS.22 software. See the results below. It has to be remarked that negative format items’ means had to be recalculated in a reverse way, to make the mean results homogeneous in meaning.

Tables 3.18 -3.19 deal with the statistical significance of pre-test and post-test questionnaire results.

**Table 3. 18 a. Paired-Samples Statistics of Pre-Test Questionnaire**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Initial Results</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>0.5699</td>
<td>0.15231</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control group</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>0.7426</td>
<td>0.16946</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is possible to see that the standard deviation is relatively high, which means that (due to the nature of the items assessed by the students, which is different enough, as well as o the students’ various views) the views on listening anxiety and the factors making it up differ among the students, which is quite natural. The standard error mean, however, is reasonable, so the results are trustworthy enough.

**Table 3. 18. b. Paired Samples Correlations of Pre-Test Questionnaire**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pair</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Correlation</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preexp. &amp; precont.</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>0.687</td>
<td>0.007</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The correlation between the two group results is 0.687, which is high enough, which means that the two groups’ views are more or less similar. Significance factor is 0.007, which shows that the difference between the groups is statistically insignificant.

**Table 3. 18. c. Paired Samples T-Test of Pre-Test Questionnaire**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1</td>
<td>Preexp. – Precont.</td>
<td>-.18571</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-1.447</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>.171</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

T=-1.447 and Sig.=0.171, which means that the difference between the two groups’ results is statistically insignificant.

Now let us assess the post-experimental questionnaire results statistically.

**Table 3. 19. a.Paired-Samples Statistics of Post-Test Survey Questionnaire**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Final Results</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>0.2360</td>
<td>0.14883</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control group</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>0.5748</td>
<td>0.15361</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is possible to see that the standard deviation is still relatively high in the control group, which means that the views on listening anxiety and the factors making it up still differ among the students, which is quite natural, as they did not undergo any special treatment against anxiety. As for the experimental group, its standard deviation has decreased. Taking into consideration the decreased level of anxiety in the group, it means that the group is rather unanimous from this points of view and the whole group benefitted from the treatment. The standard error mean in both groups is reasonable, so the results are trustworthy enough.
Table 3.19.b. Paired Samples Correlations of Post-Test Survey Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Correlation</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 2</td>
<td>Postexp. and Postcont.</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>0.243</td>
<td>0.403</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The correlation between group results has decreased a lot, which means that their results differ significantly. The significance factor (0.403) is quite high, which reveals that the difference between the two groups’ results is significantly different.

Table 3. 19. c. Paired Samples T-Test of Post-Test Survey Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1</td>
<td>postexp - postcont</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1</td>
<td>Postexp. – postcont.</td>
<td>6.259</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

T=6.259, while sig. =0.000, which reveals that the difference between the two groups’ results is statistically significant.

Tables 3.18 and 3.18 reveal that, while the experimental group students have increased their positive attitude towards listening classes (2.38 \rightarrow 4.06) and, correspondingly, decreased their anxiety, the control group has even decreased (3.03 \rightarrow 2.29) the positive attitude towards the course and, correspondingly, their level of anxiety increased. The difference between the groups before the experiment was statistically insignificant, while after the experiment it became
statistically significant. This reveals that the impact of the traditional methods in the control group was not really positive for getting rid of extreme anxiety, while the suggested model of the application of PE in the experimental group had a beneficial impact.

3.5. Limitations

As it has been shown, the number of the universities in which the Kurdistan region-wide study was held, was representative enough, the number of the respondent teachers was more or less representative. However, the number of the respondent students was not really representative to make any far-going conclusions. However, the results are in congruence with the studies viewed, which makes certain generalization possible. It is possible to say that the level of listening anxiety is high, while the level of listening skills is not too high, so this reveals the existing problem which has to be solved.

As for the experiment, it was held in one private university in Kurdistan Region of Iraq, so for generalization further research would be needed. The duration of the experiment – one semester - also was limited. This experiment enables the researcher to make conclusions only about the participants of the experiment. It is possible to say that the students of the experimental group definitely benefitted from the suggested treatment more than did the control (traditional, not oriented on the PE) group.

3.6. Conclusion to Chapter 3

The questionnaire survey held with 98 EFL students and 28 teachers from 8 universities in Iraqi Kurdistan Region has shown that listening anxiety constitutes a real problem for the respondents. Language learners’ listening skill level does not correspond to international requirements.

The researcher has developed a detailed model for the application of the Pygmalion Effect for the decreasing the listening anxiety, on the one hand, and increasing the listening skills’ level, on the other, which was tested with 43 students of a private university in Kurdistan Region of Iraq. Testing the students’ listening skills revealed that the students from the experimental group increased their level of listening skills significantly more than the students from the control group. The results were tested for statistical significance and it was shown that the difference between the experimental and the control group results was statistically significant.
To see whether the students’ anxiety level really decreased, the researcher held a pre- and post-questionnaire with the students of both groups. While level of anxiety decreased insignificantly in the control group, it decreased significantly in the experimental one. The hypothesis of the study was supported for the given group of the students.
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Listening comprehension is one of the essential language skills, learning of language, native or target, begins with it. It provides, according to Krashen (1985, 1995) the indispensable comprehensible input for language learning.

2. Although often falsely viewed as an easy skill (Morchio, 2009) it is very difficult both from linguistic and psychological views. Listening anxiety is a psychological factor creating huge problems for the development and functioning of listening skills. It was shown (Capan & Karaca) that listening anxiety is a separate type of language anxiety which has much in common with it, but also possesses specific features. This is why specific measures have to be taken to overcome it.

3. Pygmalion Effect – the term introduced by Rosenthal & Jacobson (1968) in the end of the 1960s - is teacher’s belief in students’ ability to learn, transmitted in various ways to students.

4. Taking conclusions 1 and 2 into consideration, the researcher hypothesized that the application of Pygmalion Effect could create a productive environment for the decrease of students’ listening anxiety and the improvement of their listening skills.

5. Although the initial research on the Pygmalion Effect (Rosenthal, 1987; Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968) yielded positive results concerning the level of the students’ knowledge and skills in various subjects, some later held researches turned out to be inconclusive (Chang, 2011; Ruthert & Reed, 2001). The researcher’s idea was that Pygmalion Effect in those researches was perceived too simplistically, just as praising students for their success and not punishing them for any failure. In reality the idea of the Pygmalion Effect (in particular, for teaching target language listening) can be developed much further. An effort to create a new model for PE applied for language (listening) teaching was done in the dissertation.

6. The model, suggested by the researcher is in detail presented in sub-chapter 2.3 (figure 2.2). Teacher’s theoretical views should develop towards more student-centered and constructivist, the teacher should emphasize participatory learning, communicative views on language teaching, as well as tolerance towards errors and emphasis of constructive feedback. These up-to-date views will change teacher’s behavior so that teacher/student relations will be democratic and friendly, effective classroom management supporting PE is used, strategies for EFL listening comprehension are explained to students in the
process of corrective feedback. Only on this condition PE can be really effective for students. The students will both change their attitudes (that L2 listening is doable and necessary) and their behavior in class (they will be more engaged and feel more self-confident). Due to the application of the suggested model students will really decrease students’ listening anxiety and increase the level of their listening skills. As the impact has an indirect nature (via the decrease of anxiety and increase of motivation), the impact cannot be dramatic, but the correlation between PE application and students’ listening skills should be statistically significant.

7. To be better aware of the background for the study, a questionnaire survey was held with 98 volunteer Iraqi students from 7 universities. It showed that the students supported the statement that they are more anxious while listening than when they are speaking, reading or writing (mean results of 4.12 in a 5-point Likert scale). This means that for Iraqi students in Kurdistan region listening anxiety is a serious problem creating real obstacles for the development of students’ listening skills.

8. A hypothesis was formulated that the application of the suggested model of Pygmalion Effect and the corresponding listening activities and classroom management would cause a decrease of listening anxiety and an increase of the level of listening skills.

9. The suggested PE model for dealing with listening anxiety and skills was tried experimentally. The obtained results are quite inspiring. The experimental group was taught based on the suggested model. The students’ listening anxiety, according to the held questionnaire, dropped significantly (e.g., item 8: I feel worried while doing the listening tasks - from 4.09 to 2.05 points in the 5-point Likert scale), while their listening skills improved significantly (from 42.3 in pre-test to 87 points in post-test, out of 100). The Paired Samples test confirmed the statistical significance of the obtained results. At the same time, the control group was taught in a traditional way, without a special emphasis on Pygmalion Effect, especially practiced so systematically as in the experimental group (which does not exclude friendly relationships between the teacher and the students and teacher support to his students). The initial level of listening anxiety in the group was high (item 8 – 4.3 points), after the experiment it decreased to a certain degree (item 8 – 4.0 points). The decrease is insignificant and obviously less than in the experimental group. The level of the listening skills in the group in the pre-test was 42.7, in the post-test it increased to 63.6, the change is statistically significant, but much less than in the experimental group. The obtained results mean that the teachers in both groups were doing their best, they are qualified teachers, however, the increase of the level of listening
skills in the experimental group is tangibly greater. As the only condition by which the
groups differed was the application (or its absence) of the suggested model of the
Pygmalion Effect, it is possible to conclude that the change of the dependent variable
(level of listening skills) was caused by the independent variable (the application or its
absence of the suggested model of the Pygmalion Effect.

10. The obtained results have limitations. While the questionnaire survey population is to a
certain degree representative of the EFL teacher and student population in the Kurdistan
Region of Iraq, the experimental study involved a limited number of students, besides,
the duration of the experiment was just one semester and a postponed testing could not be
held. Correspondingly, no far-reaching conclusions can be made. Further, larger scale
research is necessary to generalize the obtained in this dissertation results. The developed
and piloted measuring instruments (questionnaires) permit to replicate the research in
other universities / countries. On the other hand, if we take into consideration that the
obtained results are in the same line as the researches that have found positive
Oskamp, 2000; Taylor, 1992; Weinstein & McKown, 1998), certain generalization can be
made, at least for teaching EFL listening.

11. Based on the above, the researcher would like to recommend EFL / ESL teachers to get
better acquainted with the phenomenon called the Pygmalion Effect, to advise the
administration of educational institutions to hold seminars and trainings on its
applications.

12. The researcher suggests his model of PE application to both teachers and researchers. Of
course, researchers might modify this model or develop their own ones. The perspectives
of PE usage are, as minimum, interesting.


Borg, M. (2001). Key concepts in ELT. Teacher’s Beliefs, 55, 2, p. 186-188


Institute for Research on Teaching, Michigan State University.


116


Peacock, M. (2001). Pre-service ESL teachers' beliefs about second language learning; A


https://eric.ed.gov/?q=self-fulfilling+negative+prophecies&ft=on&id=ED246357


Appendices:

Appendix A: Permission for research
1- اكون عادة مطمئن خلال امتحان الاصغاء.

2- أنا لا اشعر بالتوتر في حين الاستماع الى لغة أجنبية.

3- أنا اشعر بالثقة في حين الاستماع الى تسجيلات اللغة الأجنبية.

4- أنا اشعر بالثقة عندما استمع الى استاذي او زميلي حين تكلمهم باللغة الأجنبية.

5- اشعر بالثقة بالذات عندما اصغي الى اللغة الأجنبية في المحاضرة.

6- يخيفني ان لا افهم ما يقوله الاستاذ باللغة الأجنبية.

7- يخيفني ان لا افهم ما يقوله الاستاذ باللغة الأجنبية.

8- عند الاصغاء الى اللغة الأجنبية اشعر بالتوتر وانسي المعلومات التي كنت اعرفها من قبل.

9- حتى وإن كنت مستعدا للدرس اشعر بالقلق خلال الاصغاء.

10- شعر بأن زملائي افضل مني في درس الاصغاء.

11- لم أحظ رفقة تسجيل في التسجيلات/New Text

12- عندما لايتكلم المتحدثون بوضوح اقلق بأن لن استطيع فهمهم.

13- عندما لايتكلم المتحدثون بوضوح اقلق بأن لن استطيع فهمهم.

14- عندما يتكلموا المتحدثون بلغة معقدة اقلق من عدم فهمهم.

15- اشعر بالتوتر خلال الاصغاء أكثر من التحدث والقراءة والكتابة.

16- اشعر بالقلق عندما لا افهم الكلمات التي يتحدث بها المدرس في التسجيل.
1. Le katey Tavikir Demowênî Gewîzi Gørûntên Heveste bi Mêmê bi-Xewûrêne Demekem.

2. Le katey Gewîzi Gørûntên le Zmanêîki Biganêye Heveste bi Shêmêran Nakaêm.

3. Heveste bi Mêmê bi-xewûbon Dêmûkêm ëve ëne le ûromarîk Dêmûrûm bi Zmanêîki Pêbiyên.

4. Heveste bi Mêmê bi-xewûbon Dêmûkêm ëve ëne le Pêmûxêda ëve ëne le Mämûstê nêve le Zmanêîki Pêbiyên.

5. Heveste bi Mêmê bi-xewûbonê Zûr Dêmûkêm ëve ëne le Pêmûxêda ëve ëne le Zmanêîki Pêbiyên Dêmûrûm.

6. Trê Dâm Dêmêrê ëve Mêxêtiyê le Mämûstêkaêm ëve le ëne le Zmanêî Pêbiyên Dêmûrûm.


10. Hêmêwakê wa Heveste Dêmûkêm Haurêkênam ënên Pashter ënîde ëne Kaitikî Gewî

Le Zmanêî Pêbiyên Dêmûrûm.
۱۱. لامدنگه توماریه کاندا قسهکار زور به خیرابی قسه‌دهکا که وام لیدمکات به دوا کاموم.

۱۲. کاتیک قسه‌کار بهروینی قسه ناکات، دوو دل ده برای که نه‌توانم لیمان تیپیگم.

۱۳. کاتیک قسه‌کار زمان‌یکی قورس به‌کار دهینی، دوو دل ده برای که نه‌توانم تیپیگم.

۱۴. چه‌گه‌ر به بابته‌ک ناشنا نه‌م، دوو دل ده برای که تیپگه‌یشتنت له دمق‌که.

۱۵. هست به گرثی و شل‌زاری زبتار دهکم له کاتی گویگرتن به‌برارود له‌گمل قسه‌کردنه و نوشن و خویندنه‌ه.

۱۶. دش‌لزنیم که‌ه‌توانم له هامو وشه‌کانی ماموستای زمان‌یاخود قسه‌که‌رکه تیپیگم له‌امدنگ‌ی توماری که دیلین.
Appendix D: Experiment detailed testing results in the control group

**Table A1: Control group testing results**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student #</th>
<th>Pre-test</th>
<th>While-test-1</th>
<th>While-test 2</th>
<th>Post-test</th>
<th>Change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>+31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>+24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>+21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>+29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>+30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>+17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>+25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>+20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>+31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>+10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>+13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>+25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>+22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>+5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>+21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>+23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>+24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>+20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>+5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>+17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>+26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>42.6666</td>
<td>55.1429</td>
<td>59.4762</td>
<td>69.9524</td>
<td>+27.2857</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard deviation</td>
<td>7.4853</td>
<td>8.2903</td>
<td>8.93095</td>
<td>12.2290</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard error</td>
<td>1.6334</td>
<td>1.8091</td>
<td>1.9489</td>
<td>2.6686</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix E: Experiment detailed testing results in the experimental group

Table A2: Experimental group testing results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student #</th>
<th>Pre-test</th>
<th>While-test-1</th>
<th>While-test 2</th>
<th>Post-test</th>
<th>Change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>+40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>+55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>+53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>+63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>+47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>+45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>+49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>+39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>+40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>+41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>+40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>+37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>+40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>+55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>+53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>+42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>+54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>+45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>+41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>+34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>+18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>+36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>42.3182</td>
<td>56.2273</td>
<td>67.5909</td>
<td>84.2273</td>
<td>+41.9091</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard deviation</td>
<td>5.0746</td>
<td>5.4679</td>
<td>7.6821</td>
<td>13.0564</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard error</td>
<td>1.0819</td>
<td>1.1658</td>
<td>1.63784</td>
<td>2.7836</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>