INFLUENCE OF THE INSTRUCTIONAL PROCESS ON THE TEACHING AND
ACQUISITION OF LISTENING SKILLS IN KISWAHILI LANGUAGE
IN KENYA

MURUNGA FELICITY

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MEDIA
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ELDORER

2013
DECLARATION

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DEDICATION
To all those who endeavor to improve pedagogy in Kiswahili language.
This study investigated the influence of the instructional process on the teaching and acquisition of listening skills in Kiswahili language. The objectives of this study were: to examine the type of instructional strategies used by secondary school teachers in the teaching of listening skills in Kiswahili language, to determine how strategies are used in the classroom, to determine how the strategies influence the teaching and acquisition of listening skills and lastly, the study sought to determine challenges teachers experience when selecting these strategies. The study was based on two theories, the theory of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) as advanced by Widdowson (1978) and the Top-down theory by Mendelsohn (1995). A sample of 13 secondary schools was purposively selected from a total of 41 secondary schools in Wareng’ district. Thirteen (13) teachers of Kiswahili and 130 Form Two learners of Kiswahili formed the study sample. This study was a descriptive survey since it set out to discover, describe and interpret existing conditions focusing on secondary school teachers of Kiswahili and Form Two learners. The research instruments used to collect data were two sets of interview schedule and an observation schedule. The 13 teachers were interviewed, the 130 learners participated in a Focus Group Discussions while 13 Kiswahili lessons were observed and tape recorded. Tape recording was used as a method of recording data during observation while note taking was used during the focus group discussions and one-on-one interviews. Analyzed data was presented using frequency tables, percentages, graphs and charts. The study revealed that poor teaching strategies used in the teaching of listening is one of the main causes of the poor levels of it’s’ acquisition. In view of the findings, this study recommends that teachers of Kiswahili should build into their classrooms listening activities that have as much of the characteristics of real life listening as possible. In particular, there should be a purpose for listening that should be known before the listening activity commences. Secondly, subject heads, school principals and Quality Assurance and Standards Officers should insist on proper planning and objective setting for all lessons. This study suggests that research should be conducted in teacher training institutions to determine the effectiveness of Kiswahili education programs in preparing teachers to teach listening skills. It is hoped that these findings will guide Kiswahili language educators, teacher trainers, curriculum designers and the Kenya National Examination Council (KNEC) in re-examining their views on teaching listening skills. Suggestions and recommendations in this study are potentially significant for teachers of Kiswahili, in that they may indicate changes of teaching behavior that would lead to more desirable classroom outcomes.
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<tr>
<td>FGD</td>
<td>Focus Group Discussion</td>
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<td>FKLS</td>
<td>Four Kiswahili Language Skills</td>
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<td>IST</td>
<td>Interview Schedule for Teachers</td>
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<td>KLNs</td>
<td>Kiswahili Literacy Norms</td>
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<td>KICD</td>
<td>Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development</td>
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<td>KLT</td>
<td>Kiswahili Language Teaching</td>
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<tr>
<td>KLI</td>
<td>Kiswahili Language Instruction</td>
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<tr>
<td>KCSE</td>
<td>Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education</td>
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<td>KSL</td>
<td>Kiswahili as a Second Language</td>
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<tr>
<td>L₁</td>
<td>First Language</td>
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<td>Second Language</td>
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<td>MoE</td>
<td>Ministry of Education</td>
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<td>OS</td>
<td>Observation Schedule</td>
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<td>TSC</td>
<td>Teachers’ Service Commission</td>
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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an insight into the study by discussing: Background to the study, the statement to the problem, purpose of the study, study objectives, research questions, scope and limitations, assumptions of the study, justification of the study, theoretical framework, conceptual framework and operational definition of key terms.

1.2 Background to the Study

This section focuses on the nature of the instructional process, the importance of Kiswahili language in Kenya and elsewhere, in general and listening skills in particular. It also outlines the vital role played by listening skills in teaching and learning a language and other subjects in the curriculum.

1.2.1 The Nature of the Instructional Process

The instructional process comprises three basic steps. The first is planning instruction which includes identifying specific expectations or learning outcomes, selecting materials to foster these expectations or outcomes and the second step involves delivering the planned instruction to learners that is, teaching them. The third step involves assessing how well students learn or achieve the expectations or outcomes.

In order for any teacher to establish the instructional sequence of events, at minimal, plans should include:

1. Intentional and proactive ways to address the established goals and the assessment plan.
2. Establish a plan for how instructional materials and strategies will be used to support learner understanding.

In this study, the researcher was mainly concerned with how teachers of Kiswahili language align the three basic steps with one another in a way that the planned instruction should be logically related to the actual instruction and how this influences how learners of Kiswahili language acquire listening skills. This calls for teachers to come up with a systematic approach to teaching that requires a careful selection of materials, tasks and procedures at all levels of learning.

For the instructional process to be successful, the teacher must be conscious of how the dependable and the independent variables interact. However, pedagogy is most often a forgotten field in language instruction yet it is the most crucial in any instructional setting because it is concerned with how a teacher of language manages the classroom, uses questioning techniques, does lesson planning and employs various teaching strategies. Rogers (2001) notes that methodology in language teaching has been characterized in a variety of ways: as this links theory and practice. Rogers (2001) advises that in teaching language, the teacher must consider the objectives, syllabus specification, types of activities and roles of teachers, learners and materials among others during the preparation process and the process of learning. In order to achieve this, then the teacher and learners of Kiswahili should be able to utilize all the listening skills in order to achieve the set objectives.

These can only be effectively employed if the teacher possesses appropriate teaching skills. It is the assumption of this study that adequate knowledge in methodology places the teacher of Kiswahili in a better position to conduct lessons aimed at
developing various listening skills. This is why Broughton et al. (1993) & Harmer (1995) argue that well prepared teachers have a variety of authentic language activities that can be used in the classroom in order to direct learners in the acquisition of language skills.

1.2.2 Kiswahili Language in Kenya

Kiswahili can claim to be the East and central African region’s foremost language of wider communication. As a result of its impressive expansion as an inter-ethnic lingua franca, it has become one of the most widely spoken languages in Africa trans nationally. It is also spoken as a mother-tongue by its original ‘tribes’ collectively known as the Waswahili of the coastal regions of Kenya and Tanzania (including islands of Zanzibar and Pemba). Majority of Swahili speakers, however speak it as mother tongue as well as a second language (L2) (Chimerah, 2000).

In the new constitution (Government of Kenya, 2010) Kiswahili has also been designated as the nation’s official language, which will require government publications and business to be in Kiswahili. It is a language that unifies the large multilingual society as Kenya’s is. Typically, it is used in the nation's courts, parliament and administration. It also holds a significant position in the curriculum as a compulsory subject taught at the primary and secondary school levels and is examined in the Kenyan education system. This language tends to be a language of instruction in the first three grades of primary school in areas where it is the mother-tongue Ominde in Chimerah (2000). Elsewhere, it is offered as a foreign language offered as a subject in approximately a hundred universities across the United States of America (Chimerah, 2000).
As a second language, majority of Kenyans depend on Kiswahili for their day to day transactions in social and political matters. It is a lingua franca: especially in urban areas less so in homogeneous rural areas, a language that is used by Kenyans from diverse tribal background (Barasa, 2005). In this respect, it is regarded as a language that serves in uniting all Kenyans. The critical role that literacy plays in everyday lives of people in Kenya as everywhere around the world is indisputable. For an individual today to lack literacy skills is to be saddled with a handicap in the full participation in and enjoyment of the many quality life enhancing resources available. Kiswahili being a national language and official language, (English being the other) GOK (2010), youth’s lack of appropriate level of literacy in this language can be a major challenge. But our question is: are the Kenyan youth adequately equipped with listening skills that will enable them succeed as individuals and as nation in the current world by the time they leave secondary school? Kiswahili has been made a co-official language with English. The current constitution of Kenya also states that for one to be nominated for elections into the national assembly, one must be able to speak and unless incapacitated by blindness or other physical cause to read Swahili and English language well enough to take active part in the proceedings of the national assembly. With the promulgation of the new constitution (2010), Kiswahili has become one of the two official languages as section 7 of the new constitution declares Kiswahili and English as official languages in Kenya (GOK, 2010).

The Ministry of Education has also placed immense value on the development of Kiswahili language alongside other languages taught in primary and secondary schools. This is why the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education School Curriculum (KIE, 2002) emphasizes the importance of Kiswahili language, as a compulsory and examinable subject. Though Kiswahili is a second language to most
Kenyans, studies have also shown that pupils are more active in class when teachers rephrase their English questions in Kiswahili (Kembo-sure, mwangi & Ogechi, 2006). This underlines its’ importance in curriculum instruction. In the secondary School Kiswahili syllabus; Listening and speaking skills are a pertinent component of the KIE (2002) revised secondary school syllabus.

1.2.3 Importance of Listening Skills

Listening and speaking cover a large section in the Kiswahili language syllabus (KIE, 2002) and therefore need to be given the emphasis they deserve in teaching time and coverage. Kiswahili language is presented on the basis of the four language skills: Listening, speaking, reading and writing. The other element is grammar (Otunga, Odeo & Barasa, 2011). This language is not taught alone, Kiswahili language skills are integrated with the teaching of literary texts, whereby extracts from literary texts in Kiswahili language are used to teach language skills. The content for listening and speaking is organized in the following areas: listening comprehension (ufahamu sikizi), pronunciation (matamshi), dialogue (dialojia), narration (masimulizi), dramatization and role playing (uigizaji), etiquette (maamkizi). Listening and speaking skills have different yet complementary functions in communication (Nunan, 1998). However, the assumption that acquisition of speaking skills guarantees acquisition of listening skills is fallacious.

It is worthwhile to note that most interaction occurs in speech and anyone who cannot listen effectively is greatly disadvantaged in almost all spheres of life. Learners therefore need to be adequately prepared in listening skills because it is pivotal in exploiting their talents. The Kenyan education system should be as much anxious to develop citizens out of our learners, as it is to develop skills for the job market
In Kenya, school leavers who are not well grounded in listening skills are likely to come in for a rude shock come interview time as most interviews in the country and even internationally are face to face. The end results could be poor performance in such interviews and subsequent low self-esteem. This can be avoided if learners of language are exposed to listening skills at the earliest opportunity. This is because an interviewee who listens carefully is more likely to remember what has been asked, they will stick to the point or even ask questions or volunteer a comment to move the discussion on.

Communication and conflict resolution skills must be learned by all students. The workplace setting being a fertile breeding ground for conflicts, because of the dynamics and interdependence of the employee to employee, customer to employee and employee to outside relationships. Communication can be both the cause of and remedy for many workplace conflicts (Kariuki, 2010). Therefore, understanding how to communicate effectively and how to satisfactorily resolve disputes, can lead to a more productive life. One way of decreasing workplace misunderstandings is making a habit of talking face to face and providing feedback. This requires well developed listening skills. This being a critical skill would be managers and employees should develop it for better flow of information because when there is communication breakdown there occurs conjecture and rumor. The development of these skills can be done in Kiswahili language classrooms. Truly effective communicators are good listeners. A good listener communicates to others their importance in the communication transaction. Since listening skills are not acquired automatically, good listening skills can be learned (Paryne, 2001).
Kenya has been characterized by conflicts including tribal strife; the case in the reference is the 2007 disputed presidential election results which still linger in our minds. There have been other cases of banditry and cattle rustling that have affected Kenya and her neighbors. Cross boarder animosity between communities has been fueled by the perception that they are ethnically and nationally different. These issues can be addressed by effective teaching and acquisition of listening skills in Kiswahili, so that conflict resolution can be made easier. This is because if youths are well equipped in this skill, they will be able to listen to each other’s needs and subsequently address their interests so that all parties are satisfied with the outcome. Resolution of problems by listening to another person’s point of view is a sign that there is likely to be an understanding (Staton, 1996).

Listening and understanding each other eases the problem of conflict resolution. This is to say that effective communication plays a pivotal role in resolving conflicts while ineffective communication may exacerbate a conflict. Listening skills in Kiswahili if well acquired can be used to persuade people to drop retrogressive and initiative cultural practices such as Female Genital Mutilation (FGM), forced and early marriages which have for a long time impacted negatively on access, equity and quality of education in some provinces in Kenya and embrace progressive practices and peace building.

With the strengthening of the East African Community, Kiswahili which is the region’s lingua franca can be a powerful tool for political cooperation and trade in this region. Other areas that can benefit if youths are well equipped with listening skills in Kiswahili language are science, technology, agriculture, food security, environment and cultural activities, tourism, wildlife management as well as health. Youths who
are planning to venture into business and the cooperate world have to acquire effective listening skills so as to communicate with their clients because Kiswahili is a language which common people find easier to learn and use compared to English, French or any other foreign language.

Communication can be impossible without well developed listening skills. This fact is evidenced by managers, policy makers and other heads of institutions and departments’ difficulties in negotiating deals with international and local contacts. Difficulty in negotiating deals at both local and international levels, appalling speeches by politicians, managers, religious leaders, discussion proceedings at political rallies, cooperate, religious and social forums serve as evidence of Kiswahili language deficiency among Kenyans.

At the functional level of literacy, interpersonal communication and ability to use speaking, listening, reading and writing to carry out every day tasks in the society that require possession of such skills, such tasks include: following instructions on how to fill a variety of forms, making choices in national elections, making transactions in banks, listening to religious sermons, getting instructions on how to take medicine, listening to academic and public lectures, these situations in which literacy skills are required are multiple and have been evolving over time, especially with changes in technology which has led to the concept of multiple “literacies.”

Listening and speaking are important human relation skills in our daily lives and activities. For academic purposes, the two related skills considerably enhance our abilities to read and write well (Groenewegen et al., 2008) The teacher should therefore aim at helping learners to acquire and develop these skills in the classroom.
Proficiency in listening skills does not only facilitate the learning of other subjects, but also enables the learner to reap long-term academic, social and professional benefits. The current syllabus (KIE, 2002) requires that all aspects of Kiswahili subject be integrated; teaching where content from various areas is combined during lesson presentation (Otunga, Odeo & Barasa, 2011). This syllabus underlines various objectives which include; the learner being able to:

(a) Listen with understanding and speak fluently in a variety of contexts.

(b) Understand a passage by following its content, arguments and narrative sequence and be able to infer information, meaning and attitudes and present such information in a variety of ways (KIE, 2002: 28-29).

An integrated approach to teaching Kiswahili language means that the language skills, namely: listening, speaking, reading and writing as well as grammar and language use are not learnt separately, but are systematically taught in one lesson to complement one another (KIE, 2002; Otunga Odeo & Barasa, 2011).

Speaking and listening are complementary skills: together, they comprise oral communication which is a two way process between the speaker and listener. These two skills if well acquired can boost the students’ self worth, enabling them to relate well with others and improve in all other subjects. They also contribute greatly to the development of reading and writing skills. Successful oral communication also requires one to develop conversational listening skills (Nunan, 1998). The two skills are interdependent so that speaking rarely occurs in isolation; They are reciprocal activities with both parties playing different roles (Groenewegen et al. 2008).
It is worthwhile to acknowledge that it is perfectly possible to hear but not listen; similarly, it is possible to listen but not understand. Listening for meaning therefore is an important skill to develop; Therefore teachers should consider that listening is active but not passive and that both extensive and intensive listening practice should be part of the armory of all teachers of Kiswahili language. Therefore inappropriate pedagogical practices in Kiswahili language classrooms are likely to affect the acquisition of these skills negatively. Teachers’ training background in listening skills should not be ignored in its teaching, In the case of listening skills in Kiswahili language, practical lessons in its teaching should be emphasized during all training programs. However, studies and literature on teachers training background in teaching of listening skills in Kiswahili are limited. Teachers of Kiswahili undergo training in content and methodology and while in service, they are supposed to attend workshops and in-service courses. However, for many youths who leave schools, their ability to listen is not apt. Our question is: Do teacher training colleges and Universities put less emphasis on teaching of listening skills in Kiswahili? This is on the premise that weakness in the teaching process can be a contributing factor to secondary school graduates’ insufficient grounding in listening.

Communication is very important in language use. This line of thought is outlined when Claessen (1978: 45) states: “… the present language situation in Kenya suggests that oral language skills are more important in Kiswahili than in many other countries because the demand for them in future are greater than for reading and writing… most reading and writing is done in English whereas oral communication in Kiswahili is steadily on the increase.”
In the introduction of the Kiswahili language syllabus (KIE, 2002) this view is strengthened further by the idea that listening and speaking skills help in developing learners’ ability to communicate. It further states that the skill of listening affects the way students acquire reading and writing skills and that learners’ competence in listening skills depends on whether the teacher involves students in communications more often than not.

In this respect, the learner of Kiswahili language should be equipped with the ability to listen as a personal tool, a functional means in communication of facts, opinions and ideas about real issues with other people. This is why the Groenewegen et al. (2008) suggests that to cope with real life language situations, the learners need regular and frequent thorough programs of listening comprehension which expose them in the classroom to suitably varied models of natural speech from the earliest stage of the language course. They have actually to learn to listen, just as they have to learn to speak.

Given the fact that Kiswahili language can play such an important role in the lives of Kenyans in school and after school, it should be accorded due attention especially in the education system. By teaching various Kiswahili language skills in our schools, the aim being to enable learners to leave school with the ability to listen competently so that they can effectively engage in better communication after school, Groenewegen et al. (2008) speaking about listening in English language assert that in most of the English language classrooms at secondary school level, this skill has not been effectively taught. The same could be true with the teaching of listening skills in Kiswahili.
Listening skills in the teaching of second languages as generally agreed, is something of a neglected skill in the Kenyan classrooms (Groenewegen et al., 2008; MOE, 1992). This arises not only from the fact that the most commonly used language course books give teachers little advice on materials to assist in developing the learners’ listening skills: but also out of the fact that there is no listening test in English and Kiswahili in the K.C.S.E examination. Consequently some teachers may have adopted the attitude that there is therefore no point to spend valuable time in developing a skill that is not going to assist learners in attaining a good mark in the national examinations.

The goal of developing learners’ aural skills is to increase their communicative competence which is vital in real life human interactions both in formal, informal and non-formal settings. This means aural skills should be developed in order to enable learners of Kiswahili language communicate coherently and fluently while in school and after. This is a call upon teachers of Kiswahili language to adequately equip the learner with listening skills. This is on assumption that poor performance in Kiswahili and other subjects in the curriculum could be due to the fact that learners are not exposed to a sequential listening skill program in Kiswahili in most secondary schools. This study assumes that if learners are trained to listen well in Kiswahili language classrooms, they will subsequently ‘take in’ what they are taught in all subjects in the school curriculum.

Wilkinson, Strata and Dudley in Groenewegen et al. (2008) say that listening has been ignored especially at a time when technical advances such as radio, television, telephone, mobile phones and computers have tended to throw a greater emphasis on this essential aspect of communication. They assert that the ability to listen and to
listen with understanding might well have been taken too much for granted, unless the
skills and competencies, which it demands, are isolated and subjected to scrutiny. This
may very well be seen in the fact that research done reveals that many teachers of
language ignore teaching listening skills (Omulando, 2009) though talking about
listening in English language, the case could be true with teaching of listening skills
in Kiswahili language.

The importance of Kiswahili in Kenyan schools cannot be downplayed. The Mackay
Report, 1981 acknowledged its importance in education by stating that; although
Kiswahili is a national Language there are many university graduates who cannot
communicate in Kiswahili. It is with this in mind that the working party
recommended that Kiswahili language be made a compulsory subject at Moi
University. Although Kiswahili was not made a compulsory language at this level, it
has been taught as a compulsory subject at primary and secondary school levels. The
fact that Kiswahili language is now a national and official language also means it is
widely used in politics, law, office transactions, media, medicine, religious matters,
industry, law courts and international transactions. This therefore calls for the fact that
Kiswahili language should be given a lot of attention in the country’s education
system because it affects Kenyan youths both in school and after school.

Improved communication skills will greatly increase school leavers’ chances of
success in the business world (Kigotho, 2010). Effective listening is the most
important part of the communication process. It is probably the most difficult to
master. There are many barriers to training students to listen effectively. These
barriers need to be identified and effort made to overcome them so that students
become good listeners. One way of addressing the problem of inadequate literally
levels in Kiswahili language among school leavers is by creating achievement benchmarks in the skill areas of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. This is why this study sets out to determine the influence of the instructional process on teaching and acquisition of listening skills in Kiswahili language. Success beyond school and college depends heavily on basic speaking and listening skills. Whether the students continue within academic or enter the workforce, they must possess skills necessary to communicate in a competent fashion. Listening skills have not been given much importance like other aspects of communication skills, but it is true that they play a major role in the success of one’s communication skills. Only a good listener can be a good speaker, and since nobody has been programmed with good communication skills, they have to be developed, and the best place to do this is through the country’s education program.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Kiswahili language comprises five skills; listening, speaking, reading, writing, and language use. In the KCSE examination in Kenya, all these skills are currently examined in three papers: 102/1, 102/2, and 102/3 except listening and speaking. In order for learners to be comfortable in learning Kiswahili as a second language and be able to communicate effectively, a broad base of expressive and receptive oral skills should be developed as effective communication requires integration of listening and speaking skills. These two skills go together as the “active” speaker becomes the “passive” listener; people speak expecting to be listened to and vice versa.

Kigotho (2010) decries lack of well rounded students. He asserts that youths’ lack of communication skills has been a barrier to employment in Kenya. Kigotho (2010) cites surveys undertaken by the World Bank that revealed that most youths leaving
schools in Sub-Saharan Africa have no problem solving, communication and social skills. Communication skills can be developed in classrooms if Kiswahili being one of the compulsory languages in the Kenyan secondary school curriculum, is well taught.

In any country, education can play a vital role in the development and attainment of Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). In Kenya, if learners can be equipped with communication skills in Kiswahili, they can go a long way in being instrumental towards enabling Kenya develop private and public global partnerships with developing and developed nations in order to raise official development assistance and expansion of market access.

In line with this, the Kenya Vision 2030, the long-term development blue print for the country, articulates the appropriate national goals to meet people’s aspirations motivated by a collective aspiration for a better society (Daily Nation, 2012). In a world that is becoming more dependent on Information, Communication Technology (with language being a central factor), its’ skilled and proficient use is a key factor in economic and social opportunities (Mogambi, 2011). Therefore, in order to participate fully in the realization of the country’s vision, the secondary school curriculum should embark on a comprehensive path towards imparting improved listening skills in a language readily understood, and that language is Kiswahili.

In the school system, listening is an important skill that not only helps learners in the mastery of Kiswahili language but also enhances their performance in other subjects in the school curriculum, despite its’ pivotal role its’ teaching has long been overlooked in the teaching of foreign and second languages the world over (Dimitrijevic, 1996; Groenewegen et al., 2008). Furthermore, there is lack of research
and literature on the teaching of listening skills in Kiswahili language. This is why Mendelssohn (1995) concludes in his study by pointing out that teachers of second languages ignore this skill and three reasons for doing so are that:

1) Students will pick up the skill along the way by simply hearing the teacher talk; he refers to this as the “osmosis” approach.

2) Language materials in listening courses are often not suitable for training students to listen to spoken language because they consist of written language that is either read by the teacher or recorded in the tapes. He contends that such content is inappropriate, boring and irrelevant to learners.

3) Teachers don’t have confidence when teaching this skill, thus they take refuge in just exposing learners to listening rather than training them on how to listen.

Though the development of all language skills is outlined as one of the goals of Kiswahili language instruction in Kenyan secondary schools (KIE, 2002), a closer analysis reveals that there is no systematic approach to the teaching of listening at any level of instruction, such that there are no activities or materials that specifically focus on the development of this skill. This implies that there is an underlying assumption that listening skills will develop on their own. Many teachers of Kiswahili have concentrated on content delivery; seldom do they concentrate on the teaching and learning tasks that enable learners to acquire various language skills.

Groenewegen et al. (2008) also talking about language teaching in Kenya is of the opinion that although the skills of listening and speaking are planned for in the syllabus, in reality, teachers of second languages do not teach them, the main reasons being: lack of sufficient time, lack of guidance on how to go about teaching them and knowledge of the fact that the two skills will not be examined in terminal
examinations. However, they recommend that more attention should be given to the listening and speaking skills. In order to accomplish this, the teacher needs to go beyond the product oriented approach to teaching and utilize methods, activities and techniques that will ensure learning how to listen with understanding.

This gap between lack of a focused and systematic approach to teaching listening and the neglect of this skill in the teaching of Kiswahili language in secondary schools in Kenya was the starting point for this study of the influence of the instructional process on the teaching and acquisition of listening skills.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore the influence of the instructional process on the teaching and acquisition of listening skills in Kiswahili language classrooms in secondary schools in Kenya.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The main objective of the study was to explore the instructional processes used by secondary school teachers of Kiswahili and their influence on the teaching and acquisition of listening skills in Kiswahili. The specific objectives arising from the main objective are as follows:

a) To examine the types of instructional strategies used in the teaching of listening skills in Kiswahili language.

b) To determine how the strategies are used in Kiswahili language classrooms.

c) To determine how the strategies employed influence the teaching and acquisition of listening skills.
d) To establish challenges teachers and students experience when selecting and using
the strategies of teaching listening skills.

1.5 Research Questions

Based on the purpose and objectives of this study, the following research questions
were posed:

a) What types of instructional strategies are used in the teaching of listening skills in
Kiswahili language?

b) How are the various strategies used in Kiswahili language classrooms?

c) How do these strategies influence the teaching and acquisition of listening skills?

d) What are the challenges facing teachers and students when selecting and using
these strategies?

1.6 Scope and limitations

This section provides information on the scope and limitations of the study. It puts
forth information concerning the extent and range that was dealt with in this study.
The limitations provide information concerning the challenges and restrictions that the
researcher faced in the course of inquiry.

1.6.1 Scope

Kiswahili language has four skills that are taught in the Kenyan secondary school
curriculum, namely: listening and speaking, grammar and language use, reading and
writing. These four skills are broad and therefore this particular study conceptually
limited itself to the most neglected skill-listening. The teaching of the other language
skills was considered during observation given the integrated approach to language
teaching (KIE, 2002) but the skills were excluded during data analysis. Firstly,
because the study focussed on listening and secondly, in order to ensure the study was manageable in terms of scope.

The instructional process is wide and deep, to avoid the study being too wide, the study confined itself to teachers’ overt behaviour prior, during and after the listening lessons. No other teacher characteristics were investigated. Only strategies used for teaching listening skills were investigated. Thirteen (13) teachers of Kiswahili and one hundred and thirty (130) Form Two students were purposively sampled from Wareng district to participate in the study. The study was limited to the teaching and acquisition of listening skills in secondary schools.

1.6.2 Limitations

These are factors which could not be controlled by the researcher yet could have affected the reliability of data. These are possible shortcomings or influences that either cannot be controlled or are the results of the delimitations imposed by the investigator (Jerry & Jack, 1996). The following limitations inherent in the study were recognised and put into consideration when making inferences and conclusions in the study:

The quality of the study outcome fully depended on the information obtained from respondents and the lessons that were observed and tape recorded. Secondly, the fact that very little of previous research on instruction of listening skills in Kiswahili language in secondary schools in Kenya limited the scope of literature review. Very few known studies have been conducted in Kenya with regard to strategies used for teaching and acquisition of listening skills in Kiswahili. However, much of the literature reviewed in this study focused mainly on teaching listening in English
language classrooms since the pedagogical principles and practices involved in
teaching any second language are basically similar. Thirdly, the scope of the research
did not allow the researcher to have a wider population. Furthermore due to limited
resources, a smaller sample of schools and respondents were used in this study; there
are more than two thousand secondary schools in Kenya today, the time factor,
distances involved and financial implications if one were to visit all of them would
make the cost of the study prohibitive and therefore, only 13 secondary schools being
30% of the total number of schools in Wareng’ district were considered. This is a
limitation because this is a small sample and therefore, only reasonable
generalizations have been made from the study.

Yet another limitation lay in the fact that some of the learners interviewed were not
proficient enough in English the language used to structure the items in the Focus
Group Discussion guide to be able to respond appropriately to the questions. To
counter this, the researcher was present as the facilitator of the Focus Group
Discussion to further explain issues that seemed to be unclear. More so, some
respondents were allowed to express their views in Kiswahili.

1.7 Assumptions of the Study

The research was based on the following assumptions:

1. That teachers of Kiswahili in this area of study have been adequately trained
   in teaching all Kiswahili language skills.

2. There are no significant differences between teachers and students of
   Kiswahili language across the various secondary schools in Wareng’ district
   as far as teaching and learning of Kiswahili language is concerned.
3. Teachers and students are aware of the importance of listening skills in the teaching and learning of Kiswahili language.

4. That the respondents would be willing to participate in the study, be honest and answer all questions accurately.

5. That all secondary school teachers of Kiswahili know what is expected of them while they are preparing to teach, when teaching and assessing students in listening skills.

1.8 Justification of the Study

Listening it is generally agreed, is a neglected skill in Kiswahili language classrooms. This has been so, due to the misconception that listening skills in all languages are automatically acquired. It is hoped that this study will help teachers and students to realise that acquisition of language skills of a second language needs “hard work.” That although the ability to listen demands intelligence, it is a skill that should be practised by all sorts and conditions.

The study dwelt on the influence of the instructional process on the teaching and acquisition of listening skills. It is hoped that this will give answers to factors responsible for poor results in other aspects of Kiswahili subject. With various KNEC reports confirming poor performance in Kiswahili subject, there was good ground for this study to be carried out to determine the influence of the pedagogical process on teaching and acquisition of this vital skill that enables learners to “take in” what other people “give out” in classroom face-to-face talk. Furthermore, it is hoped that if the challenges to effective teaching and acquisition of listening skills are identified and removed, this will go a long way in helping students who develop learning difficulties in all subjects in the secondary school curriculum.
The findings of the study will contribute a lot towards knowledge in teaching of Kiswahili language skills since it lacks knowledge based on research especially literature on listening skills in Kiswahili language. Previous researchers and scholars in language learning acquisition have concentrated on influence of the instructional process on the other skills such as writing, grammar and language use, reading and writing. Therefore, this study will contribute in filling the lacuna. The knowledge generated from this study will be expected to contribute to the existing knowledge about teaching and acquisition of listening skills.

The rationale for selecting the research topic was from the assumption that poor listening leads to poor mastery and performance in Kiswahili language. This generated the problem underlying the purpose of this study. Finding out the influence of the pedagogical process on teaching and acquisition of this skill would provide a basis for understanding the competences teachers of Kiswahili should endeavour to achieve.

Following the changes that have taken place in the last few years (KIE, 2002) regarding the teaching of Kiswahili language in Kenyan secondary schools leading to the introduction of the revised Kiswahili syllabus in 2002-2003, many other changes have had to be experienced. Among others, new instructional strategies have had to be developed and teaching approaches and methodology reconsidered in order to suit the demands of the integrated approach to teaching Kiswahili language. It is with such knowledge that the researcher was prompted into investigating the influence of the instructional process on the teaching and acquisition of listening skills in the language.
1.9 Significance of the Study

Teachers of language have laid less emphasis on the teaching of listening skills in Kenyan primary and secondary schools (Groenewegen et al., 2008). This may be the reason behind communication difficulties among learners. Therefore there was need for such a study to investigate the influence of the instructional process on the teaching and acquisition of listening skills specifically in Kiswahili language at secondary school level. An understanding of this will help curriculum developers, implementers and other stakeholders to facilitate decision making, planning and implementation of improved teaching of this skill.

There are gaps in the knowledge provided by previous research studies in the teaching of Kiswahili language skills. Therefore, it is hoped the present study will generate new knowledge, techniques and conditions under which Kiswahili language skills in general and listening skills in particular can be effectively taught and acquired. This will help in filling the gaps and add a quantum leap to existing knowledge. The study is significant since it could form a basis for further research as it could avail information based on reliable research to be used by future researchers and scholars. The subject objectives of teaching Kiswahili language at secondary school level in Kenya justify a study that may yield better preparation of learners in listening skills and enhance their performance. Findings of this study may also be important to teacher trainers as they could help in reviewing of their programmes in order to put more emphasis on Kiswahili language teachers’ professional competences especially in handling the five fundamental language skills in general and listening skills in particular which is largely ignored by teachers of language (Groenewegen et al. 2008). Teacher training institutions may find this study useful in reviewing their training curriculum so that they produce competent secondary school teachers of
Kiswahili who can confidently teach listening skills. It may also provoke teachers of Kiswahili into having a fresher perspective on the way they prepare for teaching, present the subject matter, employ, strategies and the type of exercises they give the learners. It is also hoped that the findings of this study will benefit learners, teachers, curriculum designers, course book designers and the Kenya National Examination Council, who will find the recommendations in the study essential in assessing the nature of teaching and learning that occurs in the area of listening in Kiswahili. This study will help teachers of Kiswahili re-examine their views on listening as just a receptive skill. The findings will also help in enhancing the use of this skill by learners in real life after school. It could also lead to extension of the frontiers of knowledge by adding value to existing theories, concepts or shed light on educational practices.

It is also hoped that findings of this study will help the examination body (KNEC) to recognize the importance of this skill to learners and consider evaluating it at the summative level. This will go a long way in boosting the teachers’ morale in giving it the attention it deserves in Kiswahili language classroom instruction. Implementing some of the suggestions in this study will go a long way in ensuring improved Kiswahili language instruction in Kenya and hopefully also, in other countries that face the same problems as Kenya does.

1.10 Theoretical framework

This study drew from two theories: The theory of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) as advanced by Widdowson (1978) and the Top-down theory advanced by Mendelssohn (1995). These two theories guided and elucidated two important dimensions of the study: the goal and procedures of teaching language. These two
theories are related to this study as they emphasize the need for teaching Kiswahili language with an approach that emphasizes the communicative role it plays; teachers of Kiswahili should create opportunities where learners feel the need to communicate. Furthermore, the teacher of Kiswahili has a responsibility to the learners beyond the examination as they will need these skills outside the classroom. These theories also point towards the use of background knowledge to derive meaning of the spoken word. One way in which teachers can activate the top-down approach to listening is engaging learners in activities that review what they already know about the topic. If teachers of Kiswahili used this approach, then they would follow a model suggested in chapter two of this study by Wills (1981) and Underwood (1989). This investigation endeavoured to establish the extent to which the instructional practices in Kiswahili language classrooms conform to these two theories.

1.10.1 Communicative Language Teaching

This theory is based on the communicative nature of language as advanced by Widdowson in Baker & Westup (2000). This theory looks at language as a system for expression of meaning. Widdowson (ibid) advances that language is meant for interaction and communication, thus placing more emphasis on audio-oral fluency in our classrooms. For this study, this theory implies that teachers and learners ought to look at Kiswahili language not only in its’ grammatical aspects but also in its’ functional aspects.

In this approach, there is need to focus language teaching on communicative proficiency rather than on mere mastery of structures. The aim of language teaching is communicative competence and developing procedures for the teaching of the language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and
communication. Discussing communicative language teaching, Littlewood (1981) opines that one of the most characteristic features of communicative language teaching is that it pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language.

Widdowson (ibid) focused on the communicative value of language; the communicative acts underlying the ability to use language for different purposes. This communicative view of language has the following characteristics:
1) Language is a system for the expression of meaning.
2) The primary function of language is for interaction and communication.
3) The structure of language is to reflect its functional and communicative uses.
4) The primary units of language are not merely its grammatical and structural features but categories of functional and communicative meaning as exemplified in discourse.

Communicative Language Teaching theory (CLT) refers to both processes and goals in classroom learning. The central theoretical concept in communicative language teaching is “communicative competence” a term introduced into discussions of language use and second or foreign language learning in the early 1970s (Hymes, 1971). It stresses incorporation of activities that let students focus on meaning as opposed to formal features. That is, language is seen as a social tool that speakers use to make meaning. Johnson (1984) and Littlewood (1984) also consider an alternative learning theory they also see as compatible with CLT, a skill learning model of learning. According to this theory, the acquisition of communicative competence in a language is an example of skill development. It is the argument of this study that Kiswahili language teaching should not just be about teaching; it should concern itself
with helping learners know the language and thus the link that exists between linguistic competence and communicative competence.

In relation to CLT, Brumfit (1986) understood communicative competence as the underlying system of knowledge skills acquired for audio-oral communication. Communication has to do with both the knowledge and skills in using language for interaction. Brumfit (1986) suggests that these knowledge and skills which refer to both listening and speaking in real communication can best be developed in language classrooms. The main characteristic of CLT is that learning of the target language like Kiswahili should be inductive, where learners discover rules of language underlying a functional expression from given examples. This is moving away from the most commonly used deductive manner, where rules of the target language are taught first before learners practice with examples, the language provided should be relevant and purposeful; activities should be set in a meaningful context that reflects real-world use; emphasis should be on the meaningful potential of language rather than on mastery of forms; and lastly, the teacher should create opportunities where learners feel the need to communicate.

**Figure 1.1 Features of Communicative Language Teaching**

Dramatization  
Role play  
Question and Answer  
Dialogue  
Discussion  
Group work

*Source: Adapted from Hymes (1972)*
Hymes (1972) also agrees that language should be learnt for purposes of communication, this implies that the learner of Kiswahili language is expected to acquire both receptive and expressive skills. This can be possible through practice which can be more effective during class interaction. These aspects, if well developed in Kiswahili language classrooms, help students to use the target language spontaneously and creatively in real-life situations. Without this, students will stagnate at the level of mechanical responses and their vocabulary level will remain limited. This serves to explain the apparent contradiction where a learner performs well in grammar examinations but fails miserably come interview time. This occurs due to inability to communicate ideas in an authentic situation, as much of the learning has been mechanical.

This theory was an imperative to this study; It recognizes the primary function of language, as a means of interaction and communication (Shen, 2003; Littlewood, 1981; Yule, 1995). Yule (1995) in particular notes that; the functions of a language should be emphasized rather than the forms of that language. The theory aims to make communicative competence the goal of language teaching and develop procedures for teaching the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication. Littlewood (1981) further states that one of the most characteristic features of communicative language teaching is its ability to pay systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language.

1.10.2 Top-down theory

This theory refers to utilizing schematic (background knowledge and global understanding) to derive meaning of the spoken word. The top-down theory goes from whole to part. When utilizing the top-down theory, the listeners link what they
hear to any prior knowledge they have and on this basis, make hypothesis, predictions and inferences. A teacher of Kiswahili activates top-down approach to listening by engaging learners in activities that review what the learner already knows about the topic. Rummelhart (1980) calls this ‘expectative driven processing’. This stipulates that prior knowledge should be activated. Rummelhart (1980) posits that knowledge is stored in schemata, and as people listen, these schemata are activated. Hearing one word calls up everything on an individual’s mind about that word and the moment this happens, one develops some expectation as to what he/she will and will not hear. The Top-down model is also called ‘knowledge or hypothesis-driven’ and is anchored on the following tenets:

1. That the listening process begins with hypothesis or predications which the listener works down to the sound stimuli to verify.
2. That higher-order stages seems to drive and direct the process and is therefore, seen as more predominant.
3. That the stages higher up and at the end of the information processing sequence interact with stages which occur earlier in the sequence.
1.11 Conceptual Framework

Types of instructional strategies used when teaching listening skills. Challenges experienced by teachers and students.

Independent Variables

Teaching and acquisition of listening skills.

Dependent Variable

Proficiency in listening.

Attitude and personal prejudices/stereotypes
Motivation levels of individuals
Physical disabilities and state of listener’s health.
Intelligence
Listener’s fatigue

Extraneous Variables

Figure 1.2 Source: Researcher (2013)
Teaching and acquisition of listening skills is influenced by independent and dependent variables. In this study, the independent variables include: Types of resources for teaching listening, types of instructional strategies and challenges experienced by teachers and students when teaching and learning listening skills. The instructional process is influenced by a number of factors which a teacher of Kiswahili should consider to ensure successful teaching and acquisition of listening skills.

Firstly, instructional resources if well chosen can enhance the teaching and learning process (Otunga Odeo & Barasa, 2011). This is why Barasa (2005) writing about language instruction in Kenya emphasises this concept by pointing out that the use of instructional resources can be more effective if a teacher of language is aware of their utility. These materials should also be appropriate for learners. Secondly, instructional strategies employed should be well structured as they determine the approach a teacher may take to achieve learning objectives. The strategies could be direct, indirect, interactive, experiential or independent (Otunga, Odeo & Barasa, 2011). Thirdly, teachers and students may encounter challenges in the course of teaching and acquiring listening skills.

Teachers may encounter problems related to lack of guidelines in Kiswahili course books on how to teach these skills, writing instructional objectives for listening, how to prepare/access teaching/learning materials early enough to facilitate the strategies and deciding on the type of activities in which students should be engaged. Learners may encounter inaudible voices and unfamiliar accents, disturbing noise, lack of knowledge of the topic and the speed at which speak without repetition.
Dependent variable in this study is the influence of the instructional process on the teaching and acquisition of listening skills. The outcome is expected to be in line with the set instructional objectives of a particular language skill. When these independent variables mentioned interact, the learner may achieve proficiency in listening or make errors.

The instructional strategies used by teachers of Kiswahili and the challenges experienced in choosing and employing these strategies are hypothesized to influence the teaching and acquisition of listening skills in Kiswahili language. This framework postulates that the type of strategies and resources a teacher of Kiswahili chooses and uses for teaching listening skills directly affects how learners acquire them. However, this relationship may be modified by: students’ attitudes, motivation, personal characteristics, intelligence, and physical disabilities. Since these extraneous variables confound the effects of the independent variables on the dependent variable, the researcher controlled the effects of such variables by holding them constant (Koul, 1992). The researcher treated all the respondents alike; in each school, respondents were given the same instructions, taught by the same teacher in the same classroom at the same time of the day and in the same environmental conditions.

It was the view of this study that Kiswahili language teachers in Kenyan secondary schools have numerous listening skills at their disposal (Wills 1981). They can use these to train learners how to listen effectively during instruction. The researcher was particularly concerned with the influence of the instructional process on teaching and acquisition of listening skills. It is how the teacher organises the teaching/learning strategies that the learner can either acquire them or not.
1.12 Operational Definition of Key Terms

These are terms that have been used in this study and require clarification. They have been defined strictly to adhere to the sense in which they have been used here. They have been used to establish the frame of reference with which the researcher approached this study.

**Active listening:** Is the ability to concentrate on hearing, understanding, analyzing and remembering the message (Strong, 1993). In this study, it is the ability of the listener in the classroom to communicate to the speaker that they are listening.

**Acquisition:** Refers to the students’ unconscious development of the target language system as a result of using the language for real communication in a formal setting.

**Instructional process:** Is a process of transmitting information from one source to another through appropriately selected media or channels (Kafu, 2010) In this study, it refers to a sequence of activities that teachers and students go through from lesson planning, development and evaluation.

**Instructional Strategies:** These are the approaches a teacher may take to achieve learning objectives.

**Interactive teaching:** Medwell et al. (2006) define it as teaching that involves a powerful set of strategies that optimise interaction between the teacher and students. In this study, it simply refers to varying teaching so that it engages the maximum number of students.

**Language acquisition:** Refers to the gradual development of language ability by using it naturally in communicative situations.

**Learning resources:** These are items that store, carry and/or deliver information in a learning situation (Kafu, 2010). In this context, the term refers to human resources, visual and audio-visual aids the teacher uses during Kiswahili language instruction.
**Listening:** In this study, it refers to a mental process that requires concentration on sound, deriving meaning and reacting to it.

**Listening skills:** Refers to strategies and sub-skills employed by language teachers and learners to enhance listening in the classroom. In this study, it refers to hearing, attention, perception, feedback and judgement.

**Literacy:** For the purposes of this study, literacy is taken to be the possession of psycholinguistic symbolic skills that enable one to handle symbolic information. Such skills include: reading, writing, speaking, grammar and language use and listening. It involves the integration of these four basic Kiswahili language skills.

**Teaching:** Is a process of telling and showing how to do something. The something is content, facts, skills or processes (Muindi, 2007). In this study, this term has been used to refer to a systematic development of listening skills among learners of Kiswahili language.

**Pedagogy:** In this study, the term refers to the process of teaching listening. It particularly refers to a sequence of activities a teacher of Kiswahili goes through in teaching a particular topic/skill; including preparation for teaching, teaching and assessment.

**Strategies:** These are the tactics a teacher should know and use in presenting information to learners (Kafu, 2010). It is used in this study to refer to the art of the teacher of planning the best way to achieve success in teaching specific listening skills.
1.13 Summary

An introduction of the proposed study has been dealt with in chapter one. This section has presented the background to the study, statement of the problem, the objectives of the study, research questions, significance and justification of the study, the scope and limitations of the study, assumptions underlying the study, theoretical framework and operational definition of key terms. Chapter two will be looking at review of literature related to this study.
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the general and specific literature related to the study. There is a general overview across all themes in the study followed by specific themes. This review is presented in the following sections: Review of language theories on listening skills, the nature of training for teachers of Kiswahili, importance of listening skills in learning a language, the teaching of listening skills effective strategies for teaching and acquisition of listening skills and review of related studies. Most the literature reviewed for this study is largely on teaching in general and teaching of listening skills in particular. The researcher reviewed literature from books, research papers, scholarly reports, newspapers and theses relevant to the study. This review was done so as to form a basis for comparing and contrasting findings and methodologies, providing a useful backdrop for the problem being investigated and for filling in the gaps (Creswell, 2011). The literature is organised along themes of the specific objectives of the study already presented in the previous chapter.

2.2 Review of language theories on listening skills

2.2.1 Interactive theory

Interest in classroom interaction has been motivated by the realization that the success of any language lesson or any other subject depends partly on the interaction that takes place between the teacher and learner in the classroom and no effective interaction can occur without employing listening skills on the part of both parties. The interactive theory of listening was advanced by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975). It is a theory that analyses language used by teachers and learners in classroom
interaction consisting a transaction exchange, move and act. Such an exchange involves what the teacher initiates, student’s response and teachers’ follow-up.

The present study was keen on ‘moves’ initiated by the teacher and students. Such moves made in classroom instruction either hamper or facilitate the teaching and acquisition of listening skills. Each of the elements within such an exchange is referred to as ‘move’ which is the minimum contribution by one speaker (teacher) or response (student). The teacher expects the learner to listen to the initiation move while the students expect the teacher to listen to their response move for the exchange to become complete and therefore termed as a transaction. Such an interaction pattern enhances listening in classroom instruction because it provides feedback to the learners and makes them active participants in classroom activities. Flanders (1970) has also emphasized the importance of interaction between the teacher and learners.

2.2.2 Schemata theory of listening

Broad (1996) describes schema as an active organization of the past reactions and experiences. Brown (1994) broadly divides schemata into world knowledge and communicative knowledge. World knowledge refers to knowledge that people have about things, events and actions. Communicative knowledge on the other hand is knowledge that speakers have about language and verbal communication besides linguistic competence. The role of schematic knowledge in listening is also acknowledged by Rost (2002) when he states that the listener has multiple sources of information that facilitate word recognition and help achieve comprehension. This concept of schema from which the term schematic is derived, is associated with the work of the cognitive psychologist Bartlett (1932).
Bartlett’s theory states that humans that share the same socio-cultural background have certain specific psychological tendencies that hold them together as a group and provide a bias for dealing with external circumstances. This bias according to him activates prior knowledge in the memory, which in turn helps comprehension. Similarly, Anderson and Lynch (1988) define schema as a mental structure consisting of relevant individual knowledge, memory and experience, which allows us to incorporate what we learn into what we know.

The schematic knowledge is generally considered as two types of prior knowledge: the content schema or background information of a topic and the formal schema or knowledge of discourse organisation and socio-cultural knowledge. Widdowson in Baker and Westup (2000) also considers acquisition of language skills to correlate the co-text and the context as the heart of communicative ability. To achieve comprehension of a second or foreign language, knowledge of the language has to go beyond understanding words and structures in isolation. This implies that a learner of language needs to be equipped with background knowledge if he/she is to be a good listener. This is the same position maintained by Anderson and Lynch (1988) when they say that successful listening has to be active.

The listener in a Kiswahili language classroom has a crucial part to play in the communication process; to activate various types of knowledge and applying what he knows to what he hears in order to understand the speaker. In the light of the above, Rost and Brown (1990) and several other scholars have emphasized how comprehension can be acquired through a combination of both the bottom-up method of language learning which emphasizes phonology and the top-down method which emphasizes the use of schematic and contextual knowledge. Brown and Yule (1983)
and Underwood (1989) also agree that the contextual knowledge places a listener in a more advantageous position to understand what is heard. They point out the role played by knowledge of the context or the background information to make inferences that assist comprehension in situations where listening is affected due to external factors like unfamiliar accent, inaudible voice or disturbing noise. Therefore, what students of Kiswahili language need to get better at listening is the skill to use the prior knowledge to improve their listening. Insufficient background knowledge can only lead to partial comprehension.

Farrant (2006) acknowledges that for learning, whatever experience the learners have that is relevant to the new knowledge to be taught will help them to learn successfully if they are reminded of it. In relation to the foregoing, Ausubel in Otunga Odeo & Barasa (2011) also underscores the importance of learners’ prior knowledge by noting that it is important in determining what new information the learner can assimilate.

Ridgeway feels that listening in a second language is highly a demanding task that places a lot of load on memory, he suggests practice as the most important way; with continuous exposure to listening situations, the sub-skills will take care of themselves as they become automated. The same position is maintained by Otunga Odeo & Barasa (2011) note that learning how to learn is best attained through continued practice. Schematic knowledge helps to take care of the sub skills because frequent exposure to various listening situations helps to store information in the mind. Schematic knowledge is very beneficial especially in situations where information is not easily comprehensible due to factors that could create a communication barrier, such as cultural relativity or the cognitive inaccessibility of information (Underwood, 1989).
2.3 Teacher Preparation

The current Bachelor of Education programme in Kenyan universities offers a concurrent Bachelor of Education in Kiswahili language programme offering the following courses:

1. Education courses.
2. Kiswahili language courses.
3. Literature in Kiswahili courses.

Perrot (1982) says “… as is the teacher, so is the teaching.” This points to the fact that better trained teachers tend to be creative, innovative and easily improvise teaching strategies to suit the subject matter. Inexperienced teachers on the other hand rely on traditional methods of teaching which may not suit the purpose at the time. Esky in Johnson (1989) says the single most important feature of any programme is the teaching faculty, good teachers he says, make good programmes. Bishop (1985) also talking about teacher preparation says the teacher is key to educational innovation, he points out that educational change can only succeed when teachers are sufficiently impressed by the validity of a new approach and thoroughly grounded in the techniques necessary for implementation.

Beeby in Bishop (1985) also observes that poorly educated teachers can, teach only what they know, and that as a result, they cling to the textbook and depend on the narrow framework of the system to give them their sense of security. These teachers as Beeby (ibid) further points out that when in doubt, always fall back onto ways in which they were taught several years back. Basing on the foregoing arguments, education planners have thus continued to think about the best ways to improve the quality of education through the preparation and equipping of teachers with desired
skills and attitudes required for effective teaching and learning process. This is why Goble and Port (1977) point out that for teachers now entering the school system, it should be accepted that teacher education is, in fact, a continuous or recurrent process of which pre-service education is only the initial phase, they argue that there are always challenges due to the new complexities of the initial teacher training to provide all knowledge and skills which a future teacher may need. It then often follows that proper strategies should be designed and systematically used for successful implementation of the curriculum.

Goble and Port (1977) further observe that a well organised and effective system of in-service education and training is then an essential component of the system of initial training. Personal education for teachers of Kiswahili which should stress qualities of independent learning, choice and acquirement of relevant knowledge will encourage such teachers to want to practice such skills in their work as a profession.

To train is to teach someone the skills that are needed in order to do something. It is in relation to this that Radhakrishnan (2008) sees a teacher as a transmitter of intellectual traditions and technical skills from generation to generation. Fullan (1982) also points out that the quality of education and learning depends heavily on the competence of the teacher since these are the forefront in instructional delivery system. Thus the central role of the teacher in the instructional process is reflected in the fact that: the teacher in the school interprets the objectives and the content in the curriculum plan and manages the learning situation through which intention is transformed into practice.

One of the crucial questions the present study hopes to answer is: How do teachers of Kiswahili manage the learning situation as to enable learners to acquire listening
skills? Gross et al. (1971) also argue that, for effective curriculum implementation, there is need to consider the quality of teachers as curriculum implementers. If teachers do not properly interpret a curriculum, they will be ineffective in implementing it.

Taylor and Richards in Barasa (2005) also see “the skill and experience of the teacher” as the fulcrum of the process of the curriculum. They argue further that the teacher’s perception of what was intended by the curriculum developers and teacher’s ability to shape his teaching so as to facilitate the achievement of their interventions add to the realization of the objectives and aims of the curriculum.

In his study of “New mathematics debate” that was conducted in America, Losada (1986) concluded that students failed in mathematics because of lack of teachers’ knowledge and skills about the subject matter. Though talking about mathematics, equally, it is possible for teachers of Kiswahili not to effectively implement the Kiswahili syllabus due to unpreparedness. In this way, objectives stated in the Kiswahili syllabus (KIE, 2002) would not be achieved. This could be the reason why Tum (1996) similarly reports that the performance of students in examinations is a reflection of the quality of teaching in schools which depends on the level of training of the teacher. It is worth noting that teachers of Kiswahili start teaching with different academic backgrounds and orientations depending on the training they underwent. One of the questions to be answered by this study is; the challenges the teachers experience in the course of choosing and using instructional strategies.

Farrant (2006) notes that one of the most frequent causes of the collapse of otherwise promising strategies for change is; failure to provide adequate training for teachers. A
curriculum is only as good as the quality of its teachers. Positively, a curriculum is enriched by creativity and imagination of the best teachers whilst negatively it is limited by poor teachers and poor teacher training (Bishop, 1985). In the same vein, Tagore (2008) also points out that a teacher can never truly teach unless he is still learning himself. He says that “a lamp can never light another lamp unless it continues to burn its own flame.” He adds that a teacher who does not enrich his knowledge, but merely repeats lessons to his students can only load their minds but not quicken them. Goble and Port (1977) report that in-service training is necessary to remedy deficiencies that teachers have discovered in their professional skills and in some specialized skills to keep pace with the changing demands of a given curriculum.

Singh et al. (2008) on teacher’s professional efficiency also say a teacher should possess knowledge of the fundamentals of the subject he/she teaches. He should have a sound academic and cultural background. In addition, the teacher must have the required professional training without which he/she will commit serious pedagogical blunders. What appears to be lacking in the foregoing discussion are suggested suitable programmes of training teachers of Kiswahili to enable them perform as expected. With the integrated approach to teaching Kiswahili, (KIE, 2002) a teacher of this subject requires a sound command in all language skills. Since integration is a recent innovation in Kiswahili language instruction, a teacher of Kiswahili is required to attend in service training programmes. However, this study found that in-service courses were only mainly organized for some skills. They were infrequent and lacked quality. They were hardly helpful to teachers.

Kiswahili language has been taught in Kenya for more than a century now, but there have been few innovations in the training of teachers of Kiswahili with regard to
teaching listening skills. Teachers of Kiswahili start teaching with different academic backgrounds and orientations depending on the training they underwent, they undergo training in content and methodology and while in service, they are supposed to attend workshops and in-service courses. Our question is, ‘does teacher education at diploma and university level ignore listening skills in Kiswahili?’ it is doubtful whether teachers who have not been adequately trained and in-serviced can be appropriate models for teaching Kiswahili language as such teachers may skip teaching a whole lot of skills that are mooted within the syllabus because they do not have the inclination and often the capacity to search and construct activities that enhance listening. This study established that one of the major problems we have in the teaching and acquisition of listening skills in Kiswahili language is that there is lack of a systematic approach to its’ teaching in secondary schools.

Mutoro (2001) carried out a study in Bungoma district on factors that affect curriculum implementation for the learning impaired and observes that teacher experience determines competence and efficiency. He also points out that continuous teacher training makes the teacher receptive and flexible in the implementation of the curriculum. His study however does not consider strategies teachers can use to effectively implement the curriculum.

Garet et al. (2001) in a study published in the American Research journal, talking about what makes for effective teacher development explored teacher’s perceptions of the type of professional development courses that were effective. They came to the basic conclusion that the core features of professional development activities that have significant positive effects on teachers’ self reported increases in knowledge and skills and changes in classroom practice were:
1. Focus on content knowledge.
2. Coherence with other learning activities.
3. Opportunities for active learning.

This particular study focused on the influence of the instructional process on the teaching and acquisition of listening skills in Kiswahili language.

The Kenya Institute of Education (2002) points out the need for teachers to be exposed to continuous training. In-service courses may be organised and disseminated at various levels in Kenya. The KIE organizes and facilitates in-service courses at national level for selected subject teachers from different regions who in turn are expected to move back to their districts to train other teachers. A study needs to be done to investigate whether this is ever done in Kiswahili subject and teaching of listening in particular. In-service education covers those activities directed towards remediation of perceived lack of skill or understanding. It is an on-going process that promotes professional and professional growth for teachers (Daresh & Playko, 1995). In-service education is necessary and appropriate when people need special training to correct deficits in their skills.

Buchler (2003) says in-service courses are very important and useful to the teacher. He advises that teachers should practice and reflect upon all skills in in-service training they receive. Teachers, he says should not be left on their own in the event of any innovation. Teachers need support through in-service courses in order for them to achieve their objectives in teaching. In-service training equips teaches with knowledge, skills and attitudes needed for implementation of any educational programme which includes sensitising them on any changes in the curriculum.
Ochieng (2006) investigated students’ attitudes towards and performance, in integrated English syllabus and came to the basic conclusion that students’ incompetence in English is as a direct result of teachers’ inadequate initial training capabilities, lack of skill and knowledge in their preparation and teaching of English. The case could be true with teachers of Kiswahili. Ochieng (2006) however does not venture into instructional strategies teachers of English use, he does not point out interventions to be put in place which the current study seeks to do.

The Kiswahili language education curriculum provides language teachers with knowledge about the implementation of the secondary school Kiswahili language curriculum according to the philosophy of education, the national goals of education and objectives of teaching the subject. Therefore teachers of Kiswahili language should have cognition on how to use listening to instil national values in learners in which student-teachers ought to be adequately prepared: listening, speaking, reading and writing and each of them demands varied abilities. If teachers of Kiswahili are not well prepared, it is common place for education that such teachers tend to teach by the methods which were used by teachers who taught them. In no area of language is this more true than that of listening. It is probably for this reason that this study established that the procedure of listening around the class has been perpetuated by neglect and haphazard teaching.

The background of teachers could create a problem as far as teaching listening skills is concerned. Kiswahili being a compulsory and examinable subject at secondary school level in Kenya is taught by teachers with different academic and professional qualifications. This implies that they have varying mastery of Kiswahili language in general and methods of teaching in particular. This could impact on the way students
acquire listening skills. Secondary school teachers of Kiswahili should be trained to teach all the skills in the integrated Kiswahili language curriculum in teacher training colleges. However, the challenges experienced in teaching and acquisition of listening skills at secondary school level may be linked to experiences in the training colleges; the teaching methods, assessment procedures and strategies at secondary school level may not be significantly different from those used in colleges.

2.4 Importance of listening skills in learning

For effective oral communication in any language, its’ participants must be able to speak and listen well and have a ready tongue, ear and eye (Burton & Humphries, 1992). Listening is an important skill that not only helps learners of language in its’ mastering but also enhances performance in that language. This implies that learners of a language who are provided with an opportunity to develop their listening skills are able to undertake successful comprehension and speaking and proficiency in any language demands ability in all language skills, and these skills do not develop in isolation (MOE, 1992). For any language to be used effectively as a medium of communication, its’ users have to master listening skills for effective communication. Listening is the first language mode that children experience (Groenewegen et al., 2008). In line with the foregoing, Hyslop and Bruce (1988: i) add that (“...it provides a foundation for all aspects of language and cognitive development and it plays a lifelong role in the process of learning and communication essential to productive participation in life.” Studies by Noam Chomsky indicate that each child is born with an innate ability to interpret language (LAD) (Fromkin, & Rodman, 1978) during this period of rapid growth; they argue that listening contributes enormously to the child’s acquisition of speech.
From the foregoing argument, it is important to note that speech along with listening is learnt first before reading and writing (which are themselves based on the spoken word) speaking (speech) may be the skill which is used most often, each day, we utter hundreds of words that need to be listened to (Pearson, 1981). Many linguists recommend the oral approach to language instruction. (or more accurately the aural-oral approach) is meant that these skills are taught first: listening, then speaking, reading and writing in second language learning should come later, often considerably later. Anyone who can listen and speak a language fluently will have less trouble, it is believed in learning to read and write it, than a person who has to learn to speak a language which he has first mastered in print only. The skills of language are unique-by far the most complex of all the skills we learn as espoused by (Pearson, 1981). Yet children master language skills within the first five years of their lives. Language skills are used more than any other and in every possible situation. Language prevails when they are playing, working, learning, studying, instructing, questioning, discussing, reasoning and thinking. Therefore all language skills should be given attention because they provide a tool for learning.

Studies of interactions involving second language learners indicate that the majority of time is spent listening. (Flanders, 1966: Krashen, 1998). Flanders’ study of communication in the classroom revealed that it is dominated by verbal teacher talk which calls for proper development of the skills of listening among learners. In day to day experiences, listening is a significant skill employed at all levels of education and beyond. This is why Byrne (1986) suggests that learners’ ability to comprehend needs to be considerably more extensive than their ability to speak, if they have to be “comfortable” in a foreign or second language, and therefore be able to communicate effectively. Hence, there is need for developing competence in listening skills.
Researchers have estimated that close to 90% of class time in schools and colleges is spent on listening to discussions and lecturers Bird and Krashen as quoted in Groenewegen et al. (2008). With the introduction of Free Primary Education and Subsidized Secondary Education in Kenya, classes are jammed beyond capacity making it hard for effective teaching and learning to take place. Such a scenario makes it hard for the teacher to teach in the one-to-one mode, therefore, there is more need for perfecting the teaching of the listening skills since these can be relied on now that teachers have resorted to teaching using the lecture method Groenewegen et al., 2008).

However, according to Ellis (1985) many second language learners leave school without the necessary literacy skills to be able to gather information from what is spoken or from printed sources. Studies in literacy development show that proficiency in second-language learning contributes greatly in learning other subjects, lack of knowledge and skills in language affects performance in other subjects (Hambert 1972; Brown 1980; Gardner and, Bialystock and Hakuta, 1994). So critical is the value of listening that Leloup and Penterio (2005) underscore its critical value by explaining that the relationship between the language skills is complex and intertwined, they therefore contend that there should be a scaffolding of mutual support. They add that a focus on and practice of any one skill contributes to overall movement along the inter language continuum making knowledge available for application to the other skill areas. This particular study underscores the importance of listening in communication as a key skill without which teaching and learning of Kiswahili language cannot be said to be successful because it is a basic tool by which the learner acquires knowledge and performance in other language skills.
Groenewegen et al. (2008: 95). Classroom observation studies have also continued to report that centralized communication is characteristic of most language classrooms (Ipara, 2003; Karani, 1996; Omulando, 2009). All these are in line with the landmark study conducted by Flanders (1970).

For one to become literate in a language, they have to practice literacy -that is, by engaging in cognitively demanding listening, speaking, reading and writing. Therefore, the link between these four skills is not difficult to perceive. This is because in listening effectively to cognitively demanding communication such as a lecture, one requires to process critical listening skills very much like those that one requires in reading critically (Groenewegen et al., 2008). Listening skills are critical for language learning and lack of good listening skills hinders children’s ability to succeed in second language classes (Deshler, et al., 1996). Several writers maintain that not only is the skill of listening down played in books and classrooms, but listening may well be the most important skill involved in learning of first and second languages, (MoE, 1992).

Research studies (Groenewegen et al., 2008) indicate that there is a positive relationship between listening and achievement in all other subjects in any given curriculum. This is why Jacobson and Faltis in Groenewegen et al. (2008) elaborate that proficiency in listening does not guarantee academic success but its absence suggests poor academic achievement. This demonstrates that learners who listen effectively also tend to achieve more in other subjects.
2.5 Teaching Listening

Teaching is a complex process. It consists of purposeful tasks aimed at influencing the students’ behaviour. Teaching skills to be applied at different levels for various subjects have/can be identified from a wide range of sources. Knowledge of different teaching skills and methods is essential for the teacher to determine the effective ones for the achievement of lesson objectives. The methods selected should be used in accordance with theories of learning.

Farrant (2006) presents yet another dimension to teaching; competency-based education as an innovation concept on learning and teaching that identifies various competencies or skills that have to be mastered by pupils. It measures pupil’s progress and achievement in these against set standards so as to assess the effectiveness of teaching. To make such assessment possible, the teaching has to have clear objectives, be clearly structured and follow sequential patterns. According to Rogers in Zimring (1994) the teaching process emphasizes the learner, guides the learner and promotes the learners’ development. Teachers of Kiswahili therefore need to possess a wide range of teaching strategies to be able to improve learners’ listening skills that will enable them achieve academic success in other subjects and be good communicators.

Effective communication has been viewed by many scholars as being vital. This is why, writing on the importance of effective communication, Littlewood (1990) says: a learner must develop skills and strategies for using language to communicate.

From the foregoing assertion, it is evident that teachers of Kiswahili can enable students to listen effectively in class by deliberate training if they understood their role in developing listening skills. The teachers’ role in a Kiswahili language lesson should not be to inform learners about syntactical structures but to help them achieve
communicative competence. In order to accomplish this task, a teacher of Kiswahili should master the basic language skills.

Farrant (2002) explains that efficient learning depends on well chosen and managed activities suggesting that activities should never be regarded as an end in themselves, for it is possible to be very active and yet learn nothing. A good teacher will always use activity as a means to an end and select with care the activities he uses so that they serve best the process of learning. The above assertion stresses the fact that task-based activities are essential in learning of language skills. Therefore teachers of Kiswahili should integrate and plan for their utilization within their lessons. Also echoing this argument, Honsby and Frula (1980) say:

“… it must obviously then be left to the discretion of the teacher to choose those words, exercises, sentences and games which are appropriate to the age and interests of the students concerned, pp.3.

Teachers of Kiswahili language should then plan teaching/learning activities which can be contextualized to lend enjoyment to the exercise. This can be done through the use of a variety of instructional activities. This is why; the Ministry of Education (2002) advocates for learner centred approaches to teaching-learning with multiple teaching strategies to suit the topic and objectives intended to be achieved. This report however does not recognize challenges teachers face in choosing and using some of these teaching strategies which this particular study sought to find out.

Ramse (1988) points out that for any understanding of ideas and processes in any curriculum to take place, it is imperative that careful planning of conditions for learning be undertaken. Once this step is ensured, then students can be taught the
subject matter with a hope that they will learn and use the knowledge to interpret the physical and abstract environment around them. This assertion suggests that careful planning and management of conditions for learning can subsequently lead to grasping any nature of subject content. With respect to quality of instruction, Creemers (1994) gives a list of effective characteristics of three components of classroom instruction. He mentions explicitness and ordering of goals and content; offering structure and clarity of content; inclusive of advance organizers, material for evaluation of student outcomes, feedback and corrective instruction. More specific is Wilkins (1974) who clearly states that teachers’ understanding of methods and techniques of a language teaching process is very important in language teacher professional skills.

On the other hand, Hargreaves and Low (2000) Point out that teaching is the only profession charged with the formidable task of creating human skills and capabilities that enable societies to survive and succeed. They further observe that it is the teachers, especially in developing countries, who are expected to create a knowledgeable society and develop the capabilities of innovations, flexibility and commitment to changes that are essential to economic prosperity in the twenty first century. This is in line with the broad goals of education in Kenya (KIE, 2002) one of which is to prepare and equip the youth of Kenya with knowledge, skills and expertise to foster development of the nation.

Koslove and white (1979) also raise the subtle features of introductory actions they refer to as advance organizers that could be used to enhance the subsumption of learners’ existing knowledge into existing knowledge. They include actions such as short talk, questions and answer sessions, guided discussion to remind them of general
ideas from earlier learning and experiences. These they say (Koslove & White) could enhance effectiveness of teaching if they were widely understood by teachers and textbooks writers. Some of the advance organizers or introductory actions that are specific to listening are outlined by Ausubel (1980) and Wills (1981).

According to Bruce & Weil (1992) the extent to which learners master a skill/concept depends on the way it is presented to them. This view is supported by Rajput and Strivastava (2002) who explain that the way teachers teach contributes greatly to the extent of learning attained. This is why the present study endeavoured to investigate the influence of the instructional process on the teaching and acquisition of listening skills.

Naiman et al. (1978) offers The Good Language Learner model of second language teaching and learning. This model lists variables of second language learning. These are the variables thought by Naiman et al. (1978) to affect the process of language teaching and learning. These variables are divided into: independent and dependent variables. The purpose of putting forth this model is to help teachers of language identify and acquaint themselves with factors that influence language learning and therefore are thought to influence the teaching and acquisition of listening skills in Kiswahili language as a second language. The above variables work together to influence one another hence, causing learning of a second language to take place. This study however only focuses on a few variables related to the model proposed by Naiman et al. (1978) represented in figure 1.2 below:
There are many other useful models offered by different scholars for the instructional process. Most have three to five steps with a variety of sub-steps. The three primary steps in the instructional process are: orientation, development and follow-up. Listening is the ability to identify and understand what others are saying, it involves
understanding speakers’ accent or pronunciation, his grammar and vocabulary. Baker and Westup (2000) suggest that because listening entails these sub-skills: predicting, listening for main ideas and listening for specific information, in order to improve listening, teachers should therefore plan lessons in these phases:

1. Before listening activities.
2. During listening activities.
3. After listening activities.

Wills (1981) offers a list of micro-skills of listening which she calls enabling skills. They include:

1. Predicting what people are going to talk about
2. Guessing at unknown words/phrases without panic.
3. Using one’s own knowledge of the subject to help one understand.
4. Identifying relevant points; rejecting irrelevant information;
5. Retaining relevant points (note-taking, summarizing).
6. Recognizing discourse markers, e.g. well, oh!, another thing is, now, finally etc.
7. Understanding different information patterns and uses of stress, information etc. which give clues to meaning and social setting
8. Understanding inferred information, e.g. speakers’ attitude or intentions.

Listening is one of the fundamental language skills. It’s a medium through which children, young people and adults gain a large portion of their education and intonation. Listening to and understanding speech involves a number of basic processes, some depending upon linguistic competence, some depending upon
previous knowledge. Linguistic competence enables listeners to recognize and dissect out morphemes, words and other meanings—basic elements of the language.

Listening is a receptive skill and receptive skills give way to productive ones. This brings us to the must of integrating language skills (KIE, 2002). Such integration helps to develop the learners’ ability to use two or more of the skills within real contexts and communicative framework. Integrated activities also provide a variety in the classroom and thus helping to maintain motivation. According to Wills (1981), the listening process can be divided into 3 stages:

1. Pre-listening (purpose must be given at this stage).
2. During listening.
3. Post listening.

As noted by KIE (2002), the syllabus adopts an integrated approach to the teaching of Kiswahili language. Developing effective listening abilities in Kiswahili cannot be left to chance. Active listening experiences should therefore be structured into daily Kiswahili language classroom activities. It is therefore essential for teachers of this language to integrate language skills because students learn to value listening when it is given a prominent role in the Kiswahili language classrooms and when it is meaningfully integrated with speaking, reading and writing experiences.

This therefore implies that listening in second language learning does not develop in a vacuum. It has to be inextricably interwoven with other language skills, and with more and more emphasis being shifted to communicative competence. Both teachers and students have become aware of the importance of listening as a language skill for
communication. However, this study revealed that traditional listening classrooms seem to have failed to help learners of Kiswahili language become effective listeners. Given that Kiswahili is learned as a second language in Kenya, this study through classroom observations established that opportunities for authentic oral practice and listening are few. Training learners in listening skills seems to be neglected. Consequently, they lack confidence about their language competence because they have had inadequate practice in listening. In reality, this study established that many teachers often try to “test” listening rather than “teach” it. Such teachers usually begin listening sessions with students listening to some passage and by introducing some difficult vocabularies. They play the tape and ask learners to listen carefully after which, students are asked to finish comprehension exercises. When learners complete the exercises, teachers check the answers and if they find that students got the wrong answers, they let the students listen again without any explanation. Students easily get tired of such listening exercises.

Practicing listening in Kiswahili language at all stages of learning not only develops this skill but also expands and consolidates other elements of language knowledge, such as grammar, vocabulary and intonation. However, despite the fact that the importance of listening in language learning is widely recognised all over the world, there are different views as to how to approach the teaching of listening. While some authors such as Krashen and Terrel (1983) support mere exposure to spoken language during which learners unconsciously develop their listening skills and other elements of the language, other authors including Rost (1994) and Ur (1984) agree that in order for learners to benefit, it is necessary to develop this skill in a direct and systematic manner.
Most authors highlight the value of three main factors in teaching of listening in second and foreign language learning at all levels: materials, listening tasks and the procedure for organising listening activities. They stress that in selecting texts for purposes of teaching, their various characteristics have to be taken into account, such as genre, level of authenticity, linguistic and cognitive complexity, length, speed of delivery and variety or dialect of the language. These authors focus on tasks accompanying a text as it is through these tasks that skills are developed. Harmer (1985) espouses that the value of listening tasks lies in the fact that they create a purpose, motivation and expectations in the learners, which are characteristics of listening in real life.

In analysing tasks and their effect on the development of listening skills, various classifications of task types have been proposed. Rost (1990) classifies them into open tasks such as note-taking and closed tasks such as true/false sentences. Another classification is outlined by Rost (1990) based on the factor of time, according to which tasks can be prospective, that is, carried out before listening, simultaneous with listening and retrospective. Each of these types of tasks focuses on a different sub-skill. For example, prospective tasks develop learners’ ability to raise expectations and use them in the process of listening. A prospective task like brainstorming on the topic of listening activity not only creates expectations but also helps activate the language that the learner probably need in the process of comprehension. Awareness of different processes involved in each of these types of tasks is necessary in task design so that task features can be optimally. Tasks can also be classified according to the quantity of response required. Ur (1996) distinguishes four categories of responses required in different tasks which range from no response required (for
example, listening to a story), short responses (for example, true/false sentences), long responses (for example, discussion based on listening material).

Most methodologies classify listening activities into three basic stages: pre-listening, listening and post-listening, each of which has a clear aim and function. The importance of pre-listening activities is especially emphasised in recent methodologies, since they not only provide the context necessary for activating the language and background knowledge related to the topic, but also helps to raise learners’ expectations and motivation. Post-listening activities, in turn offer a natural opportunity to link listening with another language skill, as they normally lead on to speaking or writing.

These models suggest that teaching listening is more than just playing tapes and testing students’ comprehension. The ultimate goal of teaching of listening is to help our students to become competent listeners. A combination of pre-listening, while listening and post-listening activities is very helpful to contribute to such a goal (Wills, 1981 & Underwood, 1989). Such an approach if made into a listening class can help students develop their listening competence along with other abilities and become effective and successful listeners both in and out of the classroom. This stresses the importance of creating a new environment in Kiswahili language classrooms that promotes communicative use of the language rather than mere knowledge of it’s grammar. There is need to encourage activities that foster communicative competence Widdowson in Baker and Westup (2000). However, this study established that this is not the case in Kiswahili language classrooms in Kenya as most teachers seemed to neglect the pre-listening and post-listening activities.
According to Wolvin and Coakley (1993) listening comprehension is a complex process crucial in the development of L2 competence. Listeners use both bottom up processors (linguistic knowledge) and top-down processes (prior knowledge) to comprehend. This implies that knowing the context of a Kiswahili listening text and the purpose for listening greatly reduces the burden for comprehension for the learner. Teachers of Kiswahili language can help students develop sound strategies for comprehension through a process approach to teaching L2 listening. This will help students learn how to listen and develop the meta-cognitive knowledge.

Rost (2002) also acknowledges that there are two distinct processes involved in listening, listeners use top-down processes when they use prior knowledge to understand the meaning of a message. Prior knowledge of the topic, the listening context, the text-type, the culture or other information stored in long-term memory as schemata on the other hand, listeners also use bottom-up processes when they use linguistic knowledge to understand the meaning of a message. They build meaning from lower level sounds to words to grammatical relationships to lexical meanings in order to arrive at the final message. Process listening is interactive where listeners use both prior knowledge and linguistic knowledge in understanding message. The degree to which listeners use one process or the other, will depend on their knowledge of the language, familiarity with the topic or the purpose for listening. This is why a teacher of Kiswahili should endeavour to link what the students already know about the input in order to help them make inferences essential to comprehending the message Rummelhart (1980). They should also help the students realise the purpose for listening in order to reduce the students’ burden for comprehension (Underwood, 1989).
Research from cognitive psychology has also shown that listening comprehension is more than extracting meaning from incoming speech. It is a process of matching speech with what listeners already know about the topic. Therefore, when listeners know the context of a text or an utterance, the process is facilitated considerably because listeners can activate prior knowledge and make the appropriate inferences essential to comprehending the message (Byrnes, 1984). Therefore, teachers of Kiswahili need to help students organize their thoughts, activities, appropriate background knowledge for understanding, to make predictions and to prepare for listening. This significantly reduces the burden of comprehension for the listener.

It is imperative for teachers of language to teach students how to listen because; pre-listening activities help students make decisions about what to listen for and subsequently to focus attention on meaning while listening. During this critical phase of the listening process, teachers should prepare students for what they will hear and what they are expected to do. Here, students need to bring to the consciousness their knowledge of the topic (Rummelhart, 1980). Secondly, a purpose for listening must be established so that students know the specific information they need to listen for and/or the degree of detail required. L2 listening is a complex skill that needs to be developed consciously; it can best be developed with practice when students reflect on the process of listening without the threat of evaluation. Regardless of the model adopted, Oketch and Asiachi (1992) assert that the classroom teacher has no choice but to follow information given in the syllabus. Hence in preparing to teach, the teacher should read the official syllabus description of the subject.

Rosenshine et al. (2007) elaborate that in “preparing for teaching”, planning is the only sure way to ensure educational objectives are achieved. The effects of teaching
and assessment on students’ learning should also be considered while planning. Preparation according to Rosenshine (ibid) also entails writing schemes of work and preparation of lesson plans. This view is supported by Mager (1968) who asserts that planning is an important step in teaching. A teacher who plans communicates effectively, logically and presents the right content and ends teaching well in time (Aseeey & Ayot, 2009). They also note that some of the major constraints involved in planning include:

1. Decision making about objectives that the lesson will foster.
2. Deciding on the nature and type of activities to be used.
3. A preparation of all props to be used.
4. A decision as to how to monitor and assess pupil’s progress during and after the lesson to evaluate whether learning has taken place or not.

In line with the foregoing, Tyler (1949) suggests that since the real purpose of education is not to have the instructor perform certain activities but to bring about significant changes in the students’ pattern of behaviour, it becomes important to recognize that any statement of objectives of the school should be a statement of changes to take place in the students. Gagne and Briggs (1979) also assert that objectives serve as guidelines for developing instruction and for designing measures for student performance. Mukasa (2001), Posits that instructional objectives constitute the components of a lesson. These, he says are derived directly from the behaviour we state in the instructional goal which lead directly to decisions regarding the way(s) in which the actions spelt out in them are to be facilitated.
Evaluation in the instructional process allows the teacher to determine whether or not progress is being made towards achievement of stated instructional objectives. Mukasa (2001) states it begins when teachers begin to plan, the lesson, runs through the lesson planning stage, actual implementation and on up to sometime after the lesson. This implies that for teachers of Kiswahili to train the learner to listen in the classroom, they must have adequate competency in stating instructional objectives, setting of a variety of exercises and activities for the learning as well as come up with various forms of evaluation that address different aspects of the lesson.

The implication of the foregoing arguments is that teachers of Kiswahili ought to plan ways of providing legal and meaningful feedback to learners and in planning of assessment tasks, the teacher of Kiswahili should always think of the objectives of the lesson.

Kempa (1990) although talking about assessment in science subject points out that examinations and assessment form an integral part of the instructional process. Kempa (1990) argues that assessments are used for a variety of purposes like measuring students’ attainment at the end of the course. He argues that the instructional process is incomplete without thoughts and plans on how assessment will be done. According to the MOE (2000) Assessment and evaluation takes place for a variety of reasons, these include: diagnostic, formative, examination preparation and summative. This particular study assumes that diagnostic and formative evaluation can be more effective ways of identifying problem areas in order to help learners become competent in aural skills.

Also underlining the importance of evaluation in the instructional process are Nacino-Brown, et al. (1994) who advice that evaluation of students’ performances in attaining
pre-determined goals or objectives is another factor which contributes to effective teaching. Bruce and Weil (1992) also argue that assessment in class can lead to using feedback to modify behaviour once a students’ problem is identified. Research has shown that feedback is the most significant instructional strategy to move students forward in their learning (Black et al., 2003).

2.6 Effective Instructional Strategies for Teaching and Acquisition of Listening Skills

Listening strategies are activities that contribute directly to comprehension of listening input. They can be classified by how the listener processes the input as follows: Top-down strategies. These are listener based (tapping from background knowledge on the topic) to help listeners interpret what is heard and anticipate what will come next. Top-down strategies include listening for main ideas, predicting, drawing inferences and summarizing (Mendelssohn, 1995).

Bottom-up strategies are text based: the listener relies on language in the message, that is: a combination of sounds, words and grammar. Bottom-up strategies include: listening for specific details, recognizing cognates and recognizing word-order patterns (Brown, 1990).

Role-playing can also be useful for teaching listening. In this activity, learners take on roles and act out a given scenario (Petty, 2004) A few students can take on roles of characters in a play/novel/short story then they are interviewed by other learners in the class about their motives. Alternatively, role-play can be a single performance viewed by the rest of the class. In this case, the teacher could possibly give the observers in various groups a specific listening task.
Brainstorming is a technique of producing a large number of creative ideas for subsequent evaluation (Petty, 2004). The teacher may start by carefully defining the topic to be brainstormed, brainstorm for ideas as students take turns at writing on the board or flipchart. After the session, they can choose the most useful ideas Baker & Westup (2000).

Language Games can produce intense involvement and a quality of concentration no other teaching method can match. They increase the amount of interest and motivation towards the subject (Petty, 2004). Most games for teaching listening can be played by students as individuals or in groups. Using the buzz, students in pairs are asked to discuss in order to answer a question.

Students can engage in various games like picture recognition: Pictures can be cut out from colour magazines and each picture assigned a number and spread on the table. Then the teacher describes pictures one by one as students identify them (Petty, 2004). Alternatively, students in groups may be given a set of twenty cards with each group having the same set of cards of which each has a different phrase with an underlined word.

Then students work in pairs to sort the underlined words into various parts of speech; nouns (nomino), verbs (vitenzi) adverbs (vielezi) adjectives (vivumishi) and pronouns (viwakilishi). Similar games can be devised for classifying types of: oral narratives, and nouns. The value of simulations, games lies in the freedom it gives the learner to choose the activity he/she likes best and the scope it gives them to experiment with the knowledge and skills being acquired.
2.7 Instructional Resources

Instructional resources are important in the instructional process. They help hold the learners’ attention and interest, they challenge and help the learner to recall, analyse and synthesize what needs to be taught (Miller, 1990). A review of research concerning the impact of technology on learning in schools have revealed that integrating media resources into the instructional process has a positive impact on learners and the way teachers function in class (Kafu, 2010; Farrant, 2006; Walkin, 1982). The teacher may use a wide variety of resources available for any topic imaginable, including textbooks and internet sources.

According to Kochhar (1990), teachers might have the competence and positive attitudes but if there are no enough resources, their efforts will come to nought. This assertion is in line with the views of the German agency for technical corporation (GTZ) report (1979) which stated that it is essential that teachers get the required materials early enough to facilitate effective instruction. This is because the teachers’ ability to address the instructional objectives partly lies on the availability of the teaching and learning resources. These resources should be made, accessible to all teachers through establishment of resource centres with staff, audio-visual facilities, equipment and work materials. The emphasis on the effectiveness of the use of instructional resources in teaching and learning has been noted by many other authorities among them. Kafu (1976), Romiszow ski (1988). Walkin (1982), Hills (1982) and Pollard et al. (2002) who generally agree that if resources are properly selected and used, the following benefits could be accrued:

1. Knowledge gotten through instructional materials is retained longer than purely by verbal teaching.
2. Greater benefits can be obtained from the use of multi-media that enhances students’ participation.

3. Learning becomes easy, more interesting, effective and meaningful.

The non-availability of facilities and materials is one of the major constraints that affect instruction in most schools the world over. Without necessary media resources, the quality of teaching and learning will be poor and uncoordinated and this will directly impinge on the implementation process. Fullan (1985) in line with the foregoing, quips that lack of development and acquisition of quality materials constitute one major set of barriers that mitigate against successful curriculum implementation. Fullan (1985) is supported by World Bank (1988) which states that:

"Without some basic inputs particularly textbooks and instructional materials almost no learning can be expected to occur. Ensuring the availability of essential inputs is a prerequisite for both quality and for expansion."

Gagne (1975) asserts that an effective model of instruction is based on organization of learning conditions with the intention of accomplishing certain instructional purposes. He further posits that if concepts in a certain subject are being learned, suitable Instructional methods and a variety of objects and events representing the subject of information must be organized and displayed for effective learning. The Ministry of Education (2000), further underlines the essence of instructional materials by asserting that apart from the teacher, a key factor in effective delivery of the curriculum is the availability and quality of teaching and learning resources without which classes will always be teacher-centred and didactic and students will not learn how to work independently or in groups.
Research over the last decades has consistently underlined the important role of instructional resources in successful language learning (Gardner & Lambert, 1972, Naiman et al., 1978). Commenting about the use of textbooks, Harmer (1995) says that teachers who use one textbook and repeatedly follow the sequence in each unit causing boredom to set in, Harmer advises that such monotony has to be broken and teachers ought to vary their instructional activities. In line with this, Wanjiku (2000) studied factors that affect the availability and acquisition of resources in teaching languages. The study revealed that a lot of emphasis is on textbooks, particularly the course book. Wanjiku`s study however, does not reveal why the situation is the way it is.

Similar findings were by reported who Mobisa (2003) studied the use of instructional resources in secondary schools in Kenya and revealed that their availability and use is wanting. Mobisa (ibid) further concluded that teaching and learning resources play a vital role in the learning process and when used properly, they can help reduce the burden of instruction. He does not however delve into instructional strategies.

Teaching resources are suitable for educational inquiry. In most subjects all over the world, teaching is often closely linked to adopted text books. In a paper in the journal of Teachers college record, Aldridge (2006) argues that this is the case for history teaching in USA where teachers relied on these textbooks, consequently denying students an accurate picture of the complexity and richness of American history. Aldridge (2006) argues that when teachers rely heavily on the class text as a basis for classroom teaching, the students are deprived of a conceptual lens that would help them better comprehend the world around them. Aldridge studied teaching of history
and unlike this study, does not make an inquiry about instructional strategies for teaching history.

Aggarwal (2007) suggests that language teaching must appeal to the learner in as many ways as possible. This appeal in the early stages may be to the sense of sight and hearing. The visual appeal will demand a maximum use of pictures, sketches and diagrams. The auditory (Sense of hearing) is stimulated naturally by visual representations, and non verbal forms like facial expressions and gestures that are essential in explaining words and sentences. Outlining guidelines for improving listening, Aggarwal (2007) suggests audio-visual aids can encourage learners to listen carefully. Listening in Kiswahili language classrooms should therefore not be an activity that teachers divorce from visual context. What a learner sees is part of the comprehension experience and body language forms part of how learners acquire virtually all language skills.

From the foregoing review, it is evident that relevant instructional resources are an essential pre-requisite in the instructional process. More importantly, a curriculum is not deemed complete if it is void of relevant course books and teaching resources. Listening skills in English language as generally agreed is something of a neglected skill in the Kenyan classroom (MOE, 1992). This skill is neglected, firstly because the most commonly used English course books give teachers little advice or materials to assist in developing pupil’s listening skills. From the foregoing review, it is evident that relevant instructional resources are an essential pre-requisite in the instructional process. More importantly, a curriculum is not deemed complete if it is void of relevant course books and teaching/learning resources.
2.8 Review of Empirical Related Studies

Stitch et al. (1974) conducted studies on the relationship between listening and other language skills namely: reading, speaking that writing and came to a conclusion that listening is a skill that contributes to the development of other language skills. They proposed a model in which listening should be followed by speaking, then reading and lastly writing.

Coakley and Wolvin (1991) in their studies on listening and classroom instruction concluded that listening is an important skill in class because students spend two-thirds (2/3) of their class time engaged in it. Brod (1996) said in his study that listening is a critical element in the competent language performance of second language learners. He further posits that in a day, listening is used 4 to 5 times as much as reading and writing. So he recommends that teachers should strive to remove obstacles that hinder acquisition of listening skills. This study sought to investigate the influence of the instructional process on the teaching and acquisition of listening skills in Kiswahili language.

This study aimed at finding out the strategies employed by teachers of Kiswahili in training learners to listen in the classroom. This is based on the belief that these strategies will have an impact not only on their aural competence but also on their ability to ‘take in’ input delivered in other subjects in the school curriculum.

Karani (1996) conducted a study in Kakamega district to investigate oral communication in Kiswahili classes. The study used direct observation and interviews. The study established that teachers of Kiswahili encouraged very little oral communication in Kiswahili classes because they were not familiar with oral language teaching techniques. Furthermore, Karani (1996) observed that students had
very little time to orally interact during Kiswahili lessons. It was also established by this study that teachers misinterpreted the syllabus. This study differs from that of Karani in the sense that its main concern is the instructional process. But the two studies are similar in the sense that they both used observation and interviews as instruments of data collection, both are also based on educational theories.

Bojana (2000) conducted an experimental study of listening skills among University students of English language in Yugoslavia and concluded that focussed systematic instruction enabled students to develop listening better than those who were merely exposed to listening alone. The study revealed that; scores of students in the experimental group that received focussed and systematic instruction developed abilities for successful listening. Whereas those in the control group that were merely exposed to listening alone made some progress, it wasn’t significant: Bojana (2000) then came to the basic conclusion that listening skills of students who are exposed to a focussed instruction develop to a greater extent as a result of explicit instruction. Whereas Bojana conducted the study of listening skills among university students of English in Yugoslavia, this particular study was conducted among secondary school students of Kiswahili language in Kenya.

This was further corroborated by a study conducted by Ipara (2003) to investigate oral questioning in the pedagogy of Kiswahili grammar in Bungoma district. Ipara (2003) argues that non response by learners during Kiswahili language classrooms was due to the fact that learners are denied an opportunity to listen to language. Although Ipara’s study arrived at this basic observation, his study mainly focused on oral questioning in the delivery of Kiswahili grammar rather than the application of listening strategies. The present study was based on the fact that the instructional practices in Kiswahili
language classrooms will influence the way the students master the skill of active listening. And as also shown by Krashen (1987) and Swain (1995) both aural and oral activities are crucial in language acquisition. Another impediment to listening could be inaudibility and clarity of speech (input) mainly from other learners. This is based on the argument that since comprehensible input is a factor in language acquisition, it means that incomprehensible input impedes language acquisition (Krashen, 1987).

Makembo (2005) studying teacher-learner perception of listening in secondary schools in Tharaka district indicated that teachers’ use of listening sub-skills in training learners in classroom was low and recommended that teachers and learners of English language should increase the priority of listening in class. Makembo’s study focused more on teacher-learner perception of listening skills in English language classroom interaction. This particular study was concerned about the influence of the instructional process on teaching and acquisition of listening skills in Kiswahili language. However, Makembo’s study is similar to this study because they both assumed the Top-down theory about language teaching.

Hardman et al. (2005) reporting a study in the Journal of Educational Review, investigated the nature of classroom interaction and discourse in primary schools during the National Literacy Strategy (NLS) and reported that although NLS was encouraging teachers to involve pupils with special educational needs (SENs), the classroom discourse was dominated by teacher explanations and sequences of questions and answers that did not provide sufficient opportunities for all pupils to offer and develop their own ideas. The foregoing study is similar to the present study in the sense that both are concerned with language skills. However, they differ in the
sense that Hardman (2005) studied interaction among primary school pupils with special educational needs while the present study studied secondary school students.

Murunga (2006) Studying factors that affect students’ achievement in poetry in Kiswahili, observed that students develop a negative attitude towards this genre of literature because of the tendency of teachers of Kiswahili to neglect the use of listening skills in the initial stages of poetry lessons. Murunga’s study discloses that not many teachers of Kiswahili give learners an opportunity listen in the classroom. Murunga’s study gives an insight to the current study especially in looking at the order in which the four primary Kiswahili language skills should be used in the classroom. However, the study does not propose various instructional strategies that may be used by teachers of Kiswahili.

Underscoring the relationship between content and instructional strategies, Omulando (2009) conducted a study in Kakamega Central to establish language strategies in the instruction of English language in secondary schools in Kenya and while seeking to establish how content being covered determined the nature of language learning strategies used by learners; no lesson was observed in listening skills. This study differs from that of Omulando (2009) in the sense that its main concern is the instructional strategies in teaching and learning of listening skills in Kiswahili, but the two studies are similar in the sense that they are both based on educational theories and language learning theories. Though Omulando’s study was concerned with strategies in the instruction of English language, some of the findings arrived at formed a good basis for this study.
2.9 Knowledge Gap

Studies reviewed in this chapter have touched on the relationship between listening and other language skills (Stitch et al., 1974), the importance of listening in classroom instruction (Coakley & Wolvin, 1991). Makembo (2005) and Omulando (2009) investigated listening skills: teacher-learner perception of listening and the relationship between content and instructional strategies in secondary schools respectively. Karani (1996) conducted a study to investigate oral communication in Kiswahili classes. Ipara (2003) investigated oral questioning in the pedagogy of Kiswahili grammar. However, none of these studies was concerned with pedagogy of listening skills. Most studies have focussed on attitudes, classroom interaction, methodology and instructional materials and how they affect learning. However, they failed to look into listening and speaking skills. More so, no known study has traced the influence of the instructional process on the teaching and acquisition of listening skills in Kiswahili language. A study that is closely related to the present study was conducted by Bojana (2000) concerning the effect of listening instruction on the development of listening skills of university students of English in Yugoslavia. No known study has been conducted to investigate the influence of the instructional process on acquisition of listening skills in Kiswahili language, which is the main concern of this study.
2.10 Summary

This chapter has outlined and discussed various literature reviewed and studies related to different facets of the teaching and acquisition of listening skills. The literature discussed in this chapter sets the background necessary to examine listening skills in Kiswahili and the influence of the instructional process on the teaching and acquisition of these skills. This chapter has further given an overview of related studies whose findings inform the present study. The literature reviewed focused on pertinent issues in pedagogy of listening skills including: planning for instruction, pre-listening, during and post-listening activities, a sequence that is presented by Wills (1981) and Underwood (1989). Chapter Three deals with research design and methodology.
CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a number of related aspects of research design and methodology that enabled the researcher to undertake the study. These include the study design, study area, the study population, sampling procedures, and research instruments. In addition are the research procedures, validity and reliability of research instruments as well as data analysis. Briefly highlighted are problems encountered during data collection and analysis.

3.2 The study methodology

These are approaches to inquiry (Mertens, 1998; Creswell, 2009). In educational research, methodology refers to techniques, tools, procedures or instruments applied for searching for knowledge and understanding (Myers, 2002). These are used in data gathering and as a basis for influence and interpretation, for explanation production (Cohen et al., 2000; Mingers, 2001; Benbasat & Zmud, 1999). This study adapted a qualitative research approach, qualitative research is based on empiricism, this approach follows an unstructured, flexible and open approach to enquiry that aims to describe than measure. Qualitative methods are generally supported by the interpretive paradigm which uses naturalistic approaches to inductively and holistically understand human experience in context-specific settings. This approach tries to understand and explain phenomena, rather than search for external causes or fundamental laws (Cohen and Manion, 1994). This approach was deemed most appropriate for this particular study because of the nature of the research problem.
The alternative quantitative methodology was not used because it does not adequately describe and interpret the research problem as it is framed to investigate “why” and “how” of decision making. Qualitative inquiry helped to fully describe why and how teachers and students apply certain activities in the teaching and acquisition of listening skills in Kiswahili classrooms. This was from the researchers’ as well as respondents’ perspective.

This study having taken a qualitative approach, a variety and diversity of methods were used to study all aspects of the phenomena to be investigated (Gall et al., 2003). Data sources in this study included direct observation, a semi-structured interview and focus group discussion. A direct observation was generally interested in individuals and social behaviour and the material environment (the classroom). A semi-structured interview was used in this study; items in the interview guide were modified depending on the situation. Such flexible multiple methods of data collection helped the researcher to know precisely how and why teachers and students behave the way they do in Kiswahili language classrooms.

Data analysis in this study was done by coding and organizing data into themes and concepts from which grounded theories and generalizations were formulated (Myers, 2002). Unlike the quantitative approach, qualitative methods try to discover new hypotheses rather than testing hypotheses deductively derived from known theories. These were useful in exploring the phenomena being investigated in this study and also helped to give an intensive description “thick description” from different perspectives.
3.2.1 Philosophical Paradigm

Creswell (2007) defines the term philosophical paradigm as looking at the world and interpreting what is studied. Understanding the philosophical paradigm underlying a research is very important in qualitative research as it has an influence on the research process (Rubin and Rubin, 2005). In this study, the two considerations in stating the philosophical paradigm are ontology and epistemology.

3.2.2 Ontology

This study being qualitative in nature adopted a relativist view. Relativists believe that there is no single viewpoint of the world and that reality depends on the individual’s perceptions and experiences, not what is perceived, but what is interpreted by the individual. Relativists hold that what is interpreted by individuals depends on human understanding that is influenced by their history, Social, cultural upbringing and contexts, they construct and interpret situations as they interact.

3.2.3 Epistemology

Epistemology is the nature of rules and principles by which a researcher decides how a research phenomenon can be studied. This depends on how a researcher views the world (Klenke, 2008.). This study having taken a qualitative approach, the researchers’ epistemological paradigm is interpretivism often combined with social constructivism (Creswell, 2011; Walliman, 2005). This approach was deemed most suitable for this particular study because of the nature of research problem. By using this approach, the researcher tries to understand and explain a phenomenon rather than search for external causes and fundamental laws (Cohen and Manion, 1994; Creswell 2011).
The researcher chose a constructivist worldview since in this situation the researcher sought to establish the meaning of the phenomenon under study from the view of participants (Creswell, 2011). One key element of collecting data in this study was through observing respondents’ behaviors as they engaged in their activities. Being a qualitative in nature, it was undertaken without any preconceived hypotheses that characterize quantitative research. Inductive reasoning was stressed, where the researcher sought to develop hypotheses from observations, then a grounded theory was arrived at (Jerry and Jack, 1996) such grounded theories are considered the best at explaining observed phenomena, understanding relationships and drawing inferences about future activities. The ontological orientation in this study was relativism, while the epistemological paradigm was interpretivism/constructivism.

3.3 The Study Design

A study design is a master plan that specifies the methods and procedures for collecting and analyzing the needed information. These are the procedures used by researchers to explore relationships between variables to form subjects into groups, administer measures, apply treatment conditions and analyze data. (Borg & Gall, 1993; Zikmund et al., 2010; Creswell, 2011).

The research design used in this study was qualitative survey. The specific methods for collecting data employed were; interviews, focus group discussions and observation. Creswell (2011) explains that qualitative research is a means of exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to social or human problems in the same vein, Kumar (2011: 104) asserts that “…the main focus in qualitative research is to understand, explain, explore, discover and clarify situations, feelings, perceptions, attitudes, values, beliefs and experiences of a group of people.”
Since the present study purposed to unearth, describe and interpret the existing conditions and classroom practices with the aim of comparing them with the set standards, it was designed as a descriptive survey. It was a survey in the sense that instead of studying the whole population which of course would have been a practical impossibility, data was collected from a small sample. In many instances, surveys collect evidence from a small sample of people selected from the universe (Creswell, 2011). From the sample we then contend that conclusions inferred from the sample can be the same ones we could get from the whole universe. This is based on the assumption that the sample was drawn from the population, therefore shares similar characteristics. The survey was cross sectional in that different categories of respondents were studied at the same time. The purpose of a survey is to learn about characteristics of an entire group of interest by examining a subset of that group. The present study set out to investigate the influence of the instructional process on teaching and acquisition of listening skills in Kiswahili language. Two sets of semi-structured interview schedules were used to augment data collected by means of observation and tape-recording.

Cohen and Manion (1980) argue that the intention of a descriptive survey is to collect data at a particular point in time and use it to describe the nature of the existing conditions. Kerlinger (1983) also observes that descriptive surveys are useful for educational fact-finding and provide a great deal of information which is accurate. He further states that it facilitates collection of views, attitudes and suggestions for the improvement of an educational practice. The appropriateness of this design rests in the nature of this study. Such a design helped in focusing on the current classroom procedures: including analysis, classification and interpretation of data descriptively.
Thus it is suitable for investigating the instructional process. The instruments that were used in this study also lend themselves well to this type of design.

3.4 The Study Area

The study was carried out in Wareng’ district, Uasin Gishu county. This district was recently curved out of the larger Uasin Gishu district. The district has two (2) divisions namely Kesses and Kapsaret and five (5) zones, namely; Kesses, Cheptiret, Timboroa, Tulwet and Kapsaret. The district boarders Eldoret North district in the north, Nandi South district, in the south, Nandi North district in the west and Eldoret East district in the east.

The selection of this study area was because of three main reasons. Foremost, because very little known research in listening skills particularly in the area of teaching Kiswahili has been done in this district. Secondly, like many other parts of the country, the districts’ performance in Kiswahili subject at national examination level has been worrying (KNEC reports, 2007 to 2010) and this is why the district was selected for this study. Thirdly, this district was selected because it has various school types; this enabled the researcher to obtain a balanced representation of the characteristics and conditions likely to give a true representation of the variables in this study.

3.5 Study Population

Population refers to the universe of the study. Koul (1992) and Zikmund et al. (2010) define population as any collection of specific groups of human beings or of non-human entities such as objects, educational institutions, time units, geographical area,
prices of wheat or salaries drawn by individuals; a list of elements from which a sample may be drawn.

In this study, the study population was all Form Two students and teachers of Kiswahili in Kenya, the accessible population was form two students in Wareng’ district and their teachers of Kiswahili. Form Two students were deemed appropriate for they are a class in the middle in the current secondary school system in Kenya, therefore most of the basic listening skills are presumed to have been acquired at this level and should therefore be applied explicitly in the lessons. This leaves out Form Three and Form Four to be mainly revision of work of earlier learnt topics (KIE, 2002).

3.6 Sampling Procedures and Sample
Sampling involves using a portion of a population to make conclusions about the whole population (Zikmund et al., 2010). Since it is not possible to involve the whole population in the study, only a representative sample was used. Gay (1992: 55) notes that “…a researcher selects a sample due to various limitations that make it difficult to research into the whole population.” For this reason, small groups were drawn from the population to participate in the study. This was used as a means of providing reliable and detailed information and to save time, effort and finance (Koul, 1992).

Therefore, the sample population included Form Two learners and their respective teachers of Kiswahili from a total of 41 secondary schools in Wareng’ district. The teachers used were those that taught the Form Two classes that were selected. The nature of the population was necessitated by the fact that the instructional process involves teaching and acquisition of knowledge and skills. Sampling decisions were
made in accordance with the research interpretive framework and realistically by practicalities and logistics (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

Two opposing philosophies underpin the selection of sampling units in quantitative and qualitative research. This study used a non-probability sampling design where units were selected at the discretion of the researcher (Koul, 1992; Kumar, 2011). Since the main aim in qualitative enquiries is to explore the diversity, sample size and sampling strategy do not play a significant role in the selection of a sample because, if selected carefully, diversity can be extensively and accurately described on the basis of information obtained from one individual (Kumar, 2011). Thus the researcher did not have a sample size in mind. Data collection was not based upon a predetermined sample size; this distinguishes this study from a quantitative one. Thus, the researcher rather than being guided by desire to select a random sample; was guided by judgment as to who was likely to provide the “best” information that would help the researcher to understand the problem. (Kumar, 2011; Creswell, 2011).

The researcher employed purposive sampling techniques. The main consideration that directed purposive sampling was the researchers’ ease of accessing the sample population. The people with relevant characteristics were asked to participate in the study and the process continued until a data saturation point was reached. The advantage of this design is that it guarantees the inclusion of the types of respondents and sites needed, it gives the researcher some idea of the population characteristics in a short time and low non-response rate since it is entirely the researchers’ responsibility to choose the sample elements (Moser, et al., 1979; Kumar, 2011). The researcher purposively chose Form Two teachers and learners from the sampled
schools to participate in the study until a data saturation point was reached (Peter, 2003; Kumar, 2011).

The concept of saturation point in qualitative research is reached when data is collected up to a point when no new information or only negligible information is emerging. It is this saturation stage that determined the sample size for this study. Since data saturation point is highly subjective, the researcher decided to have attained this point after holding thirteen (13) Focus Group discussions with Form Two students, thirteen (13) interview sessions with Form Two teachers of Kiswahili and observing thirteen (13) Form Two Kiswahili lessons. The researcher purposively sampled these schools based on two categories; one, based on learners’ cognitive abilities, in that at least one school from the provincial and district category was selected. Secondly, other schools were selected based on whether they were girls’, boys’ or mixed schools. This is in line with the advice offered by Gerring (2007) that in case of a fairly heterogeneous population, all the variables under study will be represented. Kitzinger (1994) also recommends such heterogeneous group membership which supports qualitative research as it aims for a wide diversity of views.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Division</th>
<th>Target population</th>
<th>sample size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Schools</td>
<td>Students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kesses Division</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>3680</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kapsaret</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>2600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>6280</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: (Wareng’ District QUASO Statistical Data, 2010)
3.8 Research Variables

A variable is anything that varies or changes from one instance to another (Zikmund et al., 2010). Research variables can further be classified as independent and dependent variables. Dependent variables are those that depend upon or are a consequence of the other variable, while the variable that is antecedent to the dependent variable is termed as the independent variable. The sections developed in the interview guides and observation schedule were according to the independent variables as reflected in the objectives of the study.

The study derived its variables from the influence of the instructional process on the teaching and acquisition of listening skills. The following were considered to be independent variables:

1. The types of instructional strategies employed when teaching listening skills.
2. The challenges that teachers and students experience when selecting and using these strategies.

The instructional process in teaching of listening skills was considered as the dependent variable because it is affected by the independent variables mentioned above. The extraneous variables were controlled by being held constant.

3.9 Research Tools

Research tools are the instruments of collecting data from the sample. Qualitative data collection techniques were used in this study. They included: a Focus Group Discussion (FGD) guide, one-on-one interview schedule and observation schedule. Three instruments were used in this study because no one instrument can elicit data sufficient enough to make valid and reliable conclusions and no single method is perfect. In research, such a practice is referred to as triangulation; using more than one
source of data to substantiate a researcher’s conclusion (Jerry et al., 1996; Cozby, 2001; Creswell, 2011). Robson (1993:383) expressing the validity of triangulation says that triangulation:

“Is an indispensable tool in real world inquiry...It provides a means of testing one source of information against other sources...
If there is a discrepancy, its’ investigation may help in explaining the phenomenon of interest... the by products... are useful as its primary purpose is validating information. It improves the quality of data and in consequence the accuracy of findings.”

The use of triangulation allowed the researcher to capture a more complete, holistic and contextual portrayal and helped to reveal the varied dimensions to the phenomena under investigation. It is also valuable because of the increased quality control achieved by combining methods, theories and data sources (Denzin et al., 2005). Denzin et al. (2005) classified triangulation into four types: data, investigator, method and theory. This study considered data, methodological and theoretical triangulation. In using triangulation, bias was minimized and validity enhanced. The selection of these tools was guided by the nature of data to be collected, time available for the study as well as objectives of the study. All the instruments used in this study were designed for this research.

3.9.1 Focus Group Discussion Guide

According to Cozby (2001:144), “… a Focus Group Discussion (FGD) is an unstructured, free-flowing interview with a small group of people.” This tool is different from a one-on-one interview in the sense that FGDs enable the researcher to
gather information from several respondents in one session. Kumar (2011:127) further explains that “…it is a form of strategy in qualitative research in which attitudes, perceptions or opinions towards an issue are explored through a free and open discussion between members of a group and the researcher.”

A FGD guide was developed to gather data related to the respondents’ opinion about the teaching and acquisition of listening skills in Kiswahili language. The researcher was mainly concerned with views, opinions, perceptions and what really happens in Kiswahili language classrooms. The FGD guide for form two students was designed to collect data on various themes of the study. Firstly, were items on the pre-requisite knowledge about listening skills students have, secondly, there were questions on how teachers introduce listening lessons, thirdly students were to provide information on the sequence of activities that take place during lesson presentation. The other themes in the FGD guide outline information on feedback and types of exercises teachers give learners.

Some items in the FGD guide for Form Two students were designed to ascertain the frequency of lessons and listening sub-skills (See Appendix I). They focused on teaching and acquisition of listening skills. It was expected that the range of data that was to be generated through the social interaction of members in the groups would be deeper and richer than that obtained from one-on-one interviews. These provided information about a range of ideas and feelings that the form two students have about the teaching and acquisition of listening skills in Kiswahili language as well as illuminating the differences in perspectives between the groups and individuals. It is expected that for using FGDs, diverse views about the topic under study were generated.
The items in the FGD guide were both structured and unstructured. This was to capture a wide range of data from the respondents while unstructured items elicited responses that would never have been imagined by the researcher but proved to be of value to the study (NKPa, 1997). Group interviews such as these are good at raising unexpected issues for exploration and in this study; they enabled the researcher to get results relatively fast since they enabled the researcher to gather information from several respondents in one session. This research methodology was valuable for generating a lot of data and for revealing information that would have been more difficult to elicit with one-on-one interviews. It provided opportunities for students in the groups to respond to questions that were not asked and to expound on their responses, options that are not available in alternative research formats. A focus group discussion has the advantage of less fear among participants of the interviewer evaluating the individual because of the group setting. It also allows respondents to piggyback off each others’ ideas: a comment by an individual often triggers a chain of responses from other participants (Cozby, 2001).

Ten (10) form two students from 13 purposively selected secondary schools were invited to participate in the FGDs, in one session per school. They were invited to answer questions and give comments on certain statements and issues. These respondents were selected according to certain characteristics they had in common that could benefit the study, particularly their level as they were all in form two. They were selected for this group because they are best equipped to discuss the issue being explored. Like one-on-one interviews, the results of FGDs were presented descriptively supported by quotations from the participants (Krueger, 2003; Lasey, 2000). Non-verbal communication also added a value dimension to the construction and analysis of data.
The researcher maximized participation by obtaining an agreed date from the participants well in advance of the interviews and reminded them a few days before they started. The researcher was the facilitator of the FGDs, the facilitator asked questions and also made comments which were intended to lead the respondent towards giving data to meet objectives of the study and also to avoid the groups getting off the topic or wandering in their conversation. Though these group discussions generated large amounts of data, it was reduced by addressing the initial goal of this particular study, in this case, purpose drove the analysis. Discussion notes were made immediately after every group discussion. Besides the FGD, the researcher used observation.

### 3.9.2 Observation Schedule

Observation is a purposeful, systematic and selective way of watching and listening to an interaction or phenomenon as it takes place (Kumar, 2011). An observation schedule was used to collect data during actual teacher-student use of listening skills in Kiswahili language classrooms (*See appendix III*). This was necessary to verify responses from the FGDs and one-on-one interviews. Tape recording was used as a method of recording data in order to enable the researcher concentrate fully on what was going on in the classroom. The researcher combined two methods of recording data during observation; writing field notes and tape recording. Tape recording freed the researcher from having to write everything, taking detailed notes would have led to the researcher missing out on some of the classroom interactions (Hucker, 2005 & Kumar, 2011).

The researcher observed and audio-taped a 40 minutes lesson in 13 purposively sampled schools. The researcher stopped observing lessons after the thirteenth
observation since no new information was being seen or heard. It was vital to observe teachers and learners to precisely capture data which would not have been expected by the researcher. All teacher-learner interactions were recorded to analyze the use of listening skills. This instrument enabled the researcher to enter the world of the respondents in order to learn and experience how they learn, as well as the challenges teachers face when selecting instructional strategies.

Lier (1988) suggests that it is the responsibility of researchers of second language (L2) learning and language teachers themselves to collect data as an important step towards improving the teaching and the learning process in this area globally. This is why the researcher used this instrument to investigate the influence of the instructional process on the teaching and acquisition of listening skills in Kiswahili language classrooms.

Creswell (2011), Nachmias and Nachmias (2006) and Kasomo (2006) observe that it enables the researcher to collect data first hand, thereby preventing contamination of the factors standing between the researcher and the object of research, observation draws on the direct evidence of the eye to witness events first hand. It is based on the premise that, for certain purposes, it is best to observe what actually happens. This method bridges the gap between what people say they do and what they actually do. This schedule was designed to describe what teachers do rather than rating how well they do it (Derrick and Ray, 1978). This was aimed at revealing a contrast between what teachers say they do and what they actually do during the actual teaching in the classroom (Koul, 1992).

By using observation, subjective bias is eliminated and if done accurately, the information obtained under this method relates to what is currently happening: It is
not complicated by either the past behavior or future interventions or attitudes. The observer in this study adopted Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) system for classroom interaction analysis but it was modified to suit the present study. In this system there are three moves; teacher initiation, learner response and teacher follow up. What was investigated in the sampled classrooms are the listening skills and sub-skills the teachers employed during their initiation and what moves they took in the follow up session and also investigated were those moves the learners take during the learner response session.

A systematic non-participant observation method that is normally linked with the production of qualitative data was used. The whole purpose of using a checklist was to minimize or possibly eliminate the variations that would have arisen from data based on individual perceptions of events and situations. The protocol consisted a prepared list of items, it helped in systematically recording the presence of a specified behavior or condition (Dwivedi, 1997), and it also helped in drawing the attention of the observer to target behavior or items which were thought by the researcher to be relevant to the problem being studied. This enabled the researcher to record data quickly and systematically. Observation of the lessons enabled the researcher to establish the paralinguistic features, instructional materials and teacher-learner activities during the listening sessions.

To reduce the hawthorn effect (change in behavior of persons attributed to their being observed), the researcher sat at the back of the classroom. This limited eye contact with learners. The researcher listened, observed classroom instruction and interaction during the lessons. In addition, tape recording was done. This served to enhance accuracy of data collection. Listening and noting down presentations and interruptions
can be too demanding, therefore, to eliminate chances of some being left out, tape recording came in handy so that it would be replayed by the researcher later at leisure.

Behaviors had been listed in the observation checklist and examples given where necessary. The observer’s role was passive; observing without intervening in any way. Behaviors were structured in a controlled situation like a classroom, focus was mainly on specific patterns and only those on the predefined observation protocol were recorded. Recording of observation data was done simultaneously with the occurrence of phenomena observed.

3.9.3 One-on-One Interview Schedule

An interview is a process of communication or interaction in which the interviewee gives the needed information verbally in a face-to-face situation (Koul, 1992). It provides an opportunity for the interviewer to question thoroughly certain areas of inquiry. Hucker, (2005: 111) is of the view that “…though interviews take longer to carry out than questionnaires, they make it possible for the researcher to explore issues in more depth if a good rapport develops as they can draw out reasons and explanations in a way that questionnaires cannot.” Interviews also allow the researcher to rephrase questions and ask additional ones to clarify responses and secure more valid results (Jerry et al., 1996; Creswell, 2011).

A semi-structured interview schedule was prepared for teachers of Form Two (See appendix II), this is according to Borg (2006) who recommends the use of a semi-structured interview schedules for a qualitative research, as they help to develop a rapport that is fundamental in the quality of an investigation. This was adopted because of its’ capacity to enable the researcher to probe for more information from respondents. According to Nachmias and Nachmias (2006), “…this kind of interview
enables the respondents to relate their experiences, describe whatever events seem significant to them, to provide their own definitions of situations and to reveal their opinions and attitudes as they see fit.” Items in the interview schedule were used to gauge whether the form two teachers of Kiswahili teach listening skills, instructional materials they commonly use, whether they attended in-service courses, if they were prepared to teach listening skills while at college as well as the challenges encountered when choosing and using instructional strategies while teaching listening skills and ways of overcoming these challenges.

The interviewer recorded the responses by note taking. The interviews were done after observation. This exercise was necessary in order to triangulate data gathered from direct observation and Focus Group Discussions and interviews as part of the validity process by cross checking how what respondents professed correlates or differs with actual actions in the classroom. Consistency of respondents’ responses was evaluated by restating some questions in slightly different forms at a later time in the interview (Best & Kahn, 1992). The teachers observed were the same ones to be interviewed. The data collected through interviews was used to supplement and verify data gathered by the other tools, in order to provide a comprehensive view of teacher-learner use of listening skills in actual Kiswahili language classrooms. This tool has the advantage of yielding higher response rates mainly because it is difficult for a subject to completely refuse to answer questions or ignore the interviewer (Mugenda and Mugenda 1999). It was an individual interview in form of direct personal investigation. It involved the use of a set of predetermined questions and a highly standardized technique of recording.
3.10 Authenticity and Dependability of Research Instruments

One of the areas of difference between quantitative and qualitative research is in the use of and importance given to the concepts of validity and reliability (Kumar, 2011).

3.10.1 Authenticity of the research instruments

Validity in the broader sense is the extent to which an instrument measures what it is supposed to measure. Frankel and Wallen (2000: 139) say that “…it is the appropriateness, meaningfulness and usefulness in the specific inferences researchers make based on the data they collect.” Moser and Kalton (1992:355) describe validity as: “the success of the scale in measuring what it sets out to measure.”

It refers to the extent to which a data collection tool produces information that is not only relevant but free from systematic errors: that is, it must produce valid information (Koul, 1992:122). Validity is the most critical criterion that indicates the degree to which an instrument measures what it is supposed to measure (Kothari, 2009). In other words, research instruments are valid if they measure what they purport to measure, that is; fulfilling the function for which they are being used for. This being a qualitative study, getting another person’s views/perceptions and triangulation of data sources was used to enhance validity (Brudenell, 2004, Creswell, 2009).

Guba and Lincoln (2005) writing in this area have suggested a framework of criteria for an inquiry in the constructivism paradigm. These are trustworthiness and authenticity, since qualitative researchers do not use the terms validity and reliability, instead they are concerned about trustworthiness of their research, this study used the terms trustworthiness/authenticity. Trustworthiness in qualitative research is ensuring
that the research process is truthful, careful and vigorous (On’gondo, Jwan & Barasa, 2009).

3.10.1.1 Content Authenticity

In research, content authenticity refers to the degree to which a research instrument measures what it should measure (Kasomo, 2006). Zikmund et al. (2010) writing in this area, define it as the degree to which a measure covers the breath of the domain of interest (Zikmund et al., 2010; Walliman, 2005; Stacks et al., 1999). This is proof that the items/questions are representative of the skills, or characteristics that they were intended to measure. Content authenticity of items in the research instruments to be used in this study was established by relying upon judgment of subject and test specialists in the department of Curriculum, Instruction and Educational Media in the School of Education, Moi University. They were a representative sample of the skills and traits that comprise the area to be measured in relation to instructional objectives and actual subject matter studied, individually and as a whole (Koul, 1992).

Content authenticity was done to ensure that the full content of the variables was represented; that the instruments used in the study covered all aspects defined in this study (Ary et al., 1985; Ruane, 2005). It has to do with; the representativeness of knowledge and skills covered by the test items to the large domain of knowledge and skills (Amin, 2004). When the researcher consulted these specialists, each of them examined the research instruments. Modifications and adjustments were made on the basis of their comments.
3.10.2 Dependability of Research Instruments

In the framework suggested by Guba et al. (2005), dependability is similar to the concept of reliability in quantitative research. It is concerned with whether we could obtain the same results if we could observe the same thing twice (Trochim & Donnelly, 2000; Kumar, 2011). If a new researcher followed the same procedures described by the earlier researcher to conduct a study and arrives at similar findings and conclusions, the methodology can be said to be dependable or reliable (Yin, 2003). As qualitative research advocates flexibility and freedom, to ascertain the level of dependability, the researcher kept an extensive and detailed record of the process in the test and retest scores.

To ascertain dependability of instruments used in this study, a pilot study was carried out before the actual research (Taber, 2007). This was done after obtaining a research permit from the office of the president and clearance from the Wareng’ District Education Officer. A pilot study is a small scale research project that collects data from respondents similar to those to be used in the actual study (Zikmund et al., 2010). Data was collected from three pilot schools from the neighboring Eldoret East district. Findings from the pilot study were not used in the actual research. They only laid a framework for testing for reliability.

The pilot study was carried out in the months of June/July 2011. In the study, form two students from three secondary schools, and form two teachers of Kiswahili all from Eldoret East district were used. The pilot area bore characteristics similar to those of the actual study area. An interview schedule for form two teachers, a focus group discussion guide and an observation schedule were used for piloting.
Croll (1986) says that a pilot study is necessary because, a researcher embarking on classroom research for the first time will find it valuable to spend some time in classrooms using one or more established systems. The purpose of the pilot study was to prepare the researcher for the main study in the following areas: Piloting provided the researcher with ideas, approaches and clues not foreseen before the pilot study, such clues and approaches helped in arriving at clear-cut findings, it permitted a thorough check of the planned statistical and analytical procedures and determination of their adequacy and hence helped in making alterations where necessary. This helped the researcher in gaining experience in the overall field organization and management. Piloting was done to provide an opportunity of finding out whether respondents had the same understanding of the items, thus offering the required information, it was also done to find out whether there were any problems related to the layout, content, language and relation of items in the instruments to the objectives of the study (Kumar, 2011).

The pilot study helped the researcher in discovering some limitations. It was discovered during the piloting that the number of items in the two sets of interview schedules needed to be increased in order to cover a wide range of aspects and listening sub-skills, during piloting, the researcher felt the interview guides needed to be increased in order to cover a wide range of aspects and listening sub-skills, it is during piloting that the researcher felt the one-on-one interview guide needed to be semi-structured to enhance authenticity and dependability. This experience thus helped the researcher to refine the instruments by improving clarity, relevance, flow and sequencing in order to come up with an organized plan for the main study. Stratified sampling and simple random sampling techniques were used to select the pilot schools from the neighboring Eldoret East district. These techniques were
appropriate for through them, the researcher reached out for the sample considered to bear characteristics of interest to the study. One mixed secondary school, one boys’ secondary school and a girls’ secondary school were selected for this purpose. The pilot sample’s similarity with those of the main study lay in the fact that both were mainly Form Two students and Form Two teachers of Kiswahili.

Test-retest method was employed to determine the dependability of instruments in the pilot study. The same individuals were measured at two points in time at an interval of fourteen days. A Correlation was calculated to determine the relationship between the test score and the retest score (Cozby, 2001:79). The closer a correlation is to 1.00, the stronger the relationship. The responses were split half and the correlation co-efficient \((\text{Pearson } r)\) between the scores of the responses from the instruments administered on these two occasions were used to calculate the reliability co-efficient which yielded a correlation index \(r = 0.60\). This was found high enough to judge the reliability of the instruments to be used in this study (Berthoud, 2000; Cohen & Manion, 2000).

In describing dependability in this study, the researcher described how the following were ensured:

1. Responses are consistent across variables if the instruments are administered a second time.
2. Individuals do not vary in their responses.
3. Errors made during administration or scoring of the instruments are eliminated.

The correlation coefficient obtained was high, the instruments were therefore said to be dependable. Dependability was checked to ensure the extent to which these instruments elicited the same response every time they were used.
3.11.2 Data collection procedures

Data collection was conducted between July/August, 2011. First, the researcher obtained a research permit from the National Council for Science and Technology (Appendix vii) then sought for permission from the District Education Officer in Wareng’ district before visiting all schools enlisted for the study to request for permission to conduct research. The dates that would be convenient were set and timetable schedules for Form Two Kiswahili lessons to be observed collected. The researcher also informed the respondents about the purpose of the study. Confidentiality was assured. The researcher informed the respondents that this would be purely an educational research and none of their names would be mentioned anywhere. FGDs were conducted after classes so as not to interfere with the school routine. The researcher was the sole administrator of the research instruments. Finally, the instruments were triangulated to establish corroboration of information gathered.
3.12 Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations have to do with the researcher ensuring ethical checks. These involve specific procedures to safeguard the respondents. The researcher provided the subjects with information on: the purpose, relevance and usefulness of the study, any benefits of the study to the respondents (Sarantakos, 2005) and the importance of subject cooperation, the extent of privacy and confidentiality. These were clearly specified in the cover letters for the research. The major ethical problem in this study was privacy and confidentiality of respondents and sites for research thus: the identity of respondents was as much as possible kept confidential; they had a right to remain anonymous now that their individual identities were not a salient feature in the study. This was achieved by using numbers assigned to every lesson observed rather than using their names. The researcher also sought for informed consent from every respondent used in the study and ensured they participated voluntarily (Hucker, 2005; Best & Kahn, 1992). Since this study involved prolonged observation and interviewing in the sampled schools, the researcher was cognizant of their impact. To minimize the intrusion on the flow of activities in the school, all interviews and FGDs were conducted after classes (Creswell, 2011).

3.13 Problems of Data Collection

The researcher encountered various problems while collecting data: In most schools, classroom observation as a means of data collection posed evident challenges. Most teachers appeared reluctant to be observed and the researcher had to take time establishing a rapport with them first by assuring them of confidentiality. Secondly, they were guaranteed that the observation was purely an educational research and thus was not an evaluation of their performance. The presence of an ‘intruder’ in class also posed some limitations as in some cases, learners kept looking at the researcher and
the tape recording gadget despite the fact that the researcher had been introduced to the class. In some incidences, teachers admitted that their learners had participated more than they usually do. In two schools, the researcher arrived late because it was a rainy season and the roads to these particular schools were impassable, this necessitated the researcher to make extra visits, which was costly in terms of time and finances. In one of the schools, the rain pounded heavily on the tin roofed classroom during the lesson that most of the presentations were inaccessible.

3.14 Data Analysis

This involved ordering, structuring and giving meaning to the mass of data collected (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003). Data from the three instruments was handled separately, in this study, the first step was for the researcher to transcribe data from the interviews and audio-tapes as suggested by Dornyei (2007), then, the information was analyzed and data grouped according to its’ relevance to the objectives of the study. Qualitative data facilitated in answering the “how” and “why” questions by providing explanations and sometimes generating new questions. The analysis started from the field and continued until the end of the research. Yin (2003) asserts that qualitative researchers ought to analyze data by looking at it, assigning categories and coding emerging issues into relevant to the research questions. It involved a process of data editing, coding, classification, tabulation and using percentages in order to identify key themes and sub-themes, combined with listening to recorded material.

Part of the data from FGDs, direct observation and one-on-one interviews was analyzed and interpreted in the field or at the point of interaction with the respondents. Such interpretation of data was guided by the conceptual framework which provided several themes that guided the critical analysis of the views of the
respondents in order to make inferences and draw conclusions. The data collected was expected to answer questions regarding the influence of the instructional process on the teaching and acquisition of listening skills in Kiswahili language classrooms. Rather than measure, much of the data was interpreted from the researcher’s point of view. In analysis of such qualitative data in this particular study, the following elements were taken into account:

(a) Reducing the data by condensing the information collected by the three instruments systematically to make it more manageable.

(b) Data collected was structured in terms of themes, patterns and interrelations.

(c) Extended data was converted into more manageable forms such as summaries, charts and frequency tables.

Data was been analyzed using descriptive statistical methods. Frequency tables, percentages, graphs and charts have been used. Finally, all the data was interpreted, analyzed and discussed according to themes and conclusions made. Meaning was derived from a comparison of the findings with information gleaned from the literature or theories.

3.15 Summary

This chapter has focused on the various details concerning research design and methodology that the study employed. Details on specific study area and population have been given. Details about each research tool and how it was administered to obtain data have been given. Data analysis and ethical considerations have been presented. Data generated has been presented, interpreted, discussed and the conclusion made in chapters Four and Five.
CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter brings forth the findings of an investigation of the influence of the instructional process on the teaching and acquisition of listening skills in Kiswahili language in Kenya. Responses were obtained from an interview schedule, a focus group discussion guide and an observation schedule. The three instruments were used complementarily, that is, each served to complement and to verify the information obtained from the others. One reason for using the observation schedule was to find out whether what teachers say they do is actualized in the classroom. This study drew its basic information from the Communicative Language Theory and the Top-down theory. The study sample was drawn from Form Two students and their respective teachers of Kiswahili from Wareng’ district. The data, which was collected to establish how teachers align the three basic steps of the instructional process and how this alignment influences how learners acquire listening skills in Kiswahili language, is presented using frequency tables, graphs and percentages for purposes of illustrations. The investigation was guided by the following objectives:

a) To examine the types of instructional strategies that are used in the teaching and acquisition of listening skills in Kiswahili language.
b) To determine how the various strategies are used in Kiswahili language classrooms.

c) To determine how the strategies employed influence the teaching and acquisition of listening skills.

d) To establish the challenges that teachers and students encounter when selecting and using listening strategies.

The concern of this study was to investigate the instructional process for teaching listening skills from planning to evaluation in an attempt to determine its influence on the teaching and acquisition of listening skills.

4.2 Background Information on Schools, Teachers and Students.

The study was conducted in 13 secondary schools in Wareng District of Uasin Gishu County. Form Two students in the selected schools and their teachers of Kiswahili participated in the study. The school types, teachers and students data are shown in tables 4.1, 4.2, 4.3, 4.4, 4.5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4.1: Background Information on Teachers and Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results reveal that the study involved 13 teachers of different genders with 6 (47%) male teachers and 7(53%) female teachers. As shown in the Table 4.1, 130 students participated in the study. Their gender distribution was as follows: 70(54%)
boys and 60(46%) girls. As indicated in the findings, there are both male and female students and teachers were represented in the study.

As shown from the findings, the study involved 4(31%) mixed schools, 3(23%) girls’ schools, and 6(46%) boys schools. A majority of the respondents came from boys’ schools as most schools in the area of study are boys’ schools. See Table 4.2. This shows that sample was fairly heterogeneous, thus all the variables in the study were represented (Gerring, 2007). Heterogeneous group membership supports qualitative research that aims for a wide diversity of views (Kitzinger, 1994).

Table 4.2: Types of Schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of school</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mixed</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>13</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.3: Students’ Data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of school</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mixed</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>130</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There are various aspects that influence how a teacher handles the instructional process; among them is the teacher’s experience and professional training. The teachers in this study had different teaching experiences. As indicated in table 4.4 above, 30% of the teachers had worked for less than 3 years, 16% between 4-6 years, 16% had worked for 11 years and above as most of the teachers had work experience of 7 and 10 years (38%). Table 4.4 has this information. According to the TSC code of regulations act (1999), any teacher who has taught for two years or above is considered experienced. Therefore, for this study, all teachers of Kiswahili who had taught for two years and above were considered experienced.

Although competence in the development and use of teaching approaches, methods and techniques (skills) is developed during teacher training programs, these may also be acquired through experience; the process of long association with teaching (Kafu, 2010). Since a vast majority of teachers (70%) in this study had a four year teaching experience and above, it is expected that such exposures enable them to develop new and perhaps innovative approaches, methods and techniques of teaching listening skills.

**Table 4.4: Teachers’ Teaching Experience**

N=13

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Length of service</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>0-3 years</th>
<th>4-6years</th>
<th>7-10years</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td></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>6</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The qualification and characteristics of teachers of Kiswahili can influence acquisition of listening skills. Depending on how the teacher handles the strategies, learners will either acquire the skills or make errors in listening.

Majority of the teachers in the study 12(92%) had college level of training. Out of the 13 teachers, 9(69%) were graduates with 3(23%) having post graduate qualifications. As shown in table 4.5, 23% of the teachers had degrees with another 3(23%) having post graduate diploma in education. Only 1(8%) was untrained and none of these teachers had a diploma in education. The findings show that a majority of the teachers had graduate qualifications. In order for teachers to possess the subject-matter competence (mastery) they must have attained an appropriate level of school education. This explains why teachers’ academic qualifications are crucial for effective design and development of instruction (Kafu, 2010). Findings revealed that majority 12(92%) of teachers of Kiswahili in this study were trained. These teachers could be the best placed to interpret and implement the Kiswahili language syllabus. This is on the premise that any teacher planning to conduct the instructional process should be professionally trained so as to be equipped with professional skills of identifying, selecting, developing and managing all the components of the process of planning for instruction (Kafu, 2010).
### Table 4.5: Teachers’ Professional Qualifications

N=13

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualification</th>
<th>Males Frequency</th>
<th>Males Percentage</th>
<th>Females Frequency</th>
<th>Females Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Med /M Phil</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bed</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PGDE</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. Edu</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Untrained</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From each of the thirteen schools that participated in this study, ten form two students were brought together at one time and were invited to answer questions and give comments pertaining teaching and learning of listening skills. This section presents discussion results on various themes of the study. Some question items were designed to measure learners’ and teachers’ pre-requisite knowledge about listening and how their teachers incorporated listening activities. To find out the strategies used for teaching listening skills, students’ opinions were sought. This was necessary in order to establish whether they encourage the acquisition of listening skills. This is because the acquisition of listening skills depends on how teachers present content in class.

### 4.2 Teaching of Listening Skills

Teachers interviewed in this study were asked to rate listening skills among other Kiswahili language skills namely: writing, reading, speaking and grammar/language use. Teachers had different views about the most important language skill. Only 1(8%) of the teachers rated listening as the most important while 2(15%) teachers rated it second to writing while the other 10(77%) rated it fifth after reading, writing, speaking and grammar/language use. This question was asked to establish the specific
beliefs teachers had about listening skills. These views could be a pointer to teacher’s inclination when teaching Kiswahili language skills.

Furthermore, in response to question 2 in the interview guide 9(69%) of the teachers indicated that they enjoyed teaching and reading, 2(15%) indicated they enjoyed teaching Grammar/language use while remaining two (15%) indicated they enjoyed teaching listening and speaking. This was corroborated by responses by learners during the FGDs as they indicated that the Kiswahili language skills most commonly taught by their teachers were: reading 53(41%) followed by writing 37(29%), grammar/language use 26(20%) speaking and listening 14(11%).

Teachers had varied views about whether listening is acquired automatically or needed to be developed. Figure 4.1 has that information.

**Figure 4.1: Views Concerning Whether Listening is Acquired Automatically or Should be Developed**
Given that most 9(69%) teachers indicated that listening is acquired automatically, this may be a pointer to the reason why most of them observed in class made little effort to use various strategies to enhance acquisition of listening skills. These findings compel the researcher to suggest that majority of teachers in the study had a low opinion on listening skills. Such views were corroborated by teachers’ approach to teaching as observed during Kiswahili lessons.

Students who were invited to participate in the FGDs were required to indicate Kiswahili language skills that are commonly taught by their teachers. (9%) of the students mentioned speaking, (86%) mentioned writing, (96%) mentioned reading (13%) mentioned listening whereas (53%) attested to the fact that their teachers commonly taught grammar and language use. The skills commonly taught are reading (96%) and writing (86%).

4.2.1 Theme 1: Planning for Instruction

In the instructional process, Planning is the only sure way to ensure educational objectives are achieved (Rosenshine et al., 2007; Mager, 1968). This study presumes
that a teacher who plans communicates effectively, logically and presents the right content. This is why this study found it necessary to construct items that would elicit responses from teachers concerning the nature of planning for instruction they did. In the interview schedule for teachers (IST) and the observation schedule, items in the observation schedule were structured to obtain information pertaining to this.

Question item number 3a in the IST sought to establish whether teachers included listening in their schemes of work. In response to this, all teachers interviewed said they did. Question item number 4a in the same instrument further inquired of the teachers whether they lesson planned for listening lessons, 6(46%) of the 13 teachers said they did, leaving 7(54%) out of 13 as being those who do not lesson plan for such lessons. These findings indicate that teachers in the study were aware of the importance of planning for instruction. However, this contradicts observation notes made during observation that revealed that none of the thirteen teachers observed had a lesson plan for lessons they taught.

So it is surprising to find that despite the fact that teachers are aware of the importance of lesson plans, they actually do not prepare them. All teachers observed in this study had no lesson plan. For further probing about planning, question item number 3b was helpful, it was concerned with planning and where those who lesson planned got lesson objectives. Of those who said they lesson planned, 6(46%) said they got lesson objectives from course/textbooks. This study also revealed that although teachers said they included listening in their schemes of work, they do not follow what is planned for in their schemes of work in the course of teaching.
Section B in the observation schedule made a further inquiry about the nature of planning for listening that is done beforehand in the schemes of work and lesson plans. This is based on the assumption that since most 12(92%) of the teachers were trained and therefore should be able to state lesson objectives clearly in their schemes of work and lesson plans. Majority 13(100%) of teachers went to class without written objectives to guide the lessons; this explains why some activities in class were conducted haphazardly. However, none of the lessons observed had listening as an objective for teaching. Lack of clearly stated objectives as established by this study, this probably explains why teachers observed in the classroom had no clearly designed class activities.

Some teachers argued that they did not need to state objectives for listening in the schemes of work as all they needed were comprehension questions to be answered by students after a listening session. Failure to clearly state objectives in the schemes of work and lesson plans affects teacher effectiveness and thus hampers students’ acquisition of listening skills as objectives are important in forming the basis for determining the effectiveness of instruction and expected learner behavior. The fact that teachers are aware of the need to have lesson objectives but do not write them for purposes of teaching listening points to the fact that there could be reasons for not lesson planning. Lack of writing objectives can affect the instructional process because objectives give order to lesson presentation and mode of evaluation (Kafu, 2010).

Section A of the classroom observation schedule (OS) was used to generate data on whether teachers stated modes of assessment in their schemes of work and lesson plans. 7(54%) out of 13 teachers did not include assessment procedures in their schemes of work. This was supported by evidence from observation notes. From
observation, the researcher established that all teachers observed used the question answer mode for evaluating listening. This could be interpreted to mean that there is no prior planning for the type of assessment procedures to be used in class while assessing students’ listening competency.

4.2.2 Theme 2: Types of Instructional Strategies Used for Teaching Listening

The strategies used in teaching listening skills definitely have a great influence on how they are acquired. During classroom instruction, it is important for teachers and learners to use a variety of sub-skills for better instruction and acquisition of listening skills. Such activities should be consciously organized and executed. On this account, during the classroom observation sessions, 13 teachers were observed in a classroom situation to determine the type of instructional procedures they employed and the influence of these strategies on the teaching and acquisition of listening skills. The frequency of occurrence of teachers’ use of such strategies is supported by the Top-down theory (Mendelsohn, 1995) as outlined in chapter 1 of this study. Results are summarized in Table 4.6.

Questions items in the IST and students’ FGD guide were also used to investigate various strategies used by teachers. It is the assumption of this study that developing listening abilities cannot be left to chance. Active listening experiences should be structured into daily Kiswahili language activities since students can only learn to value listening when it is given a prominent role in the Kiswahili language classroom, and this can only happen when it is meaningfully integrated with the speaking, writing and reading experiences. This study found it necessary to investigate how various listening micro-skills are used by teachers and learners. Jack and Richard (1985) describes listening competency as being comprised of a set of “micro-skills”. These
are skills effective listeners employ when trying to make sense of aural input. Table 4.6 provides a summary of this.

**Table 4.6: Teachers' Use of Listening Sub-skills**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-skill/Strategy</th>
<th>No of teachers using it</th>
<th>Total no. of occurrence</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arousing learners' expectation</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directing learner listening</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selection of authentic texts</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provision of conducive environment for listening</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attending behavior</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher activities</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involving learners in activities</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provision for wait time</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Checking learners understanding</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focusing listening</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of visuals</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regulated rate of speech</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Students' opinions about whether their teachers specified what they should listen for before lesson presentation was also sought. This was important because in order for students to become more affective listeners, they should be helped to keep the purpose of listening in mind: question item number 2 of the FGD guide was used to obtain data on whether teachers specify lesson objectives for listening. Data revealed that a very small percentage of teachers 45(35%) tell students the objectives of the lesson. Such can be interpreted to mean that the learners are inadequately prepared to listen. Arousing learners' expectations occurred 4 times involving (5%) of the learners. This skill was also concerned with drawing attention when asking questions and calling attention to items to be listened to. Directing listening concerned itself with directing teacher and other learners' listening by use of sentence connectors. It occurred two
times by (9%) of the learners. The usage of this skill was quite low. Learners’ use of discourse markers that aid in showing direction, presentation of ideas and suggestion of sequence was quite low.

Students also gave their opinions about the types of texts they listened to. It was important to establish whether they listened to a variety of texts or not because success in training learners to listen depends on the quality and variety of texts provided. To this, only 27(21%) of the students agreed while the majority 103(79%) disagreed, to the fact that they listened to a variety of texts. Students were also required to specify what they commonly listened to in class. Figure 4.2 illustrates this.

Figure 4.2 Use of Language Strategies
The students were asked to note the most commonly used strategies by teachers of Kiswahili to make learning of listening skills interesting. As shown in Figure 4.2, most teachers 94(72%) did not use dictation as only 36(28%) indicated to use this strategy in class. According to students who participated in this study, narration by students as a strategy is also not widely used by teachers, as only 42(32%) agreed as a majority 88(68%) disagreed. Descriptions given by the teachers are widely used as indicated by 94(72%) while only 36(28%) do not use them. Brain storming is also not commonly used by teachers, as only 27(21%) of the students noted its use against a majority 103(79%) who indicated not to be subjected to it by their teachers. Role playing as strategy of instruction in Kiswahili is not used at all by the teachers in the schools which participated in the study, as shown in the findings, as all the students
130(100%) indicated not to be subjected to this strategy. Dictation (28%) and brainstorming (21%) were the least used.

Arousing learner expectation as a listening sub-skill was sought. It involved directing learner listening and use of learners’ prior knowledge. During these observations, the skill of directing learner listening occurred 7 times involving only 4(31%) out of 13 teachers. This skill is mainly concerned with the teacher telling the learner the purpose for listening. The use of discourse markers like: *firstly, one point, again, another thing, however* etc to serve as a means of directing the learner about what is being said by the speaker.

In order to establish how environment influences teaching and acquisition of listening skills, items in the OS solicited for such information. The number of teachers who were keen on using this strategy was 6(46%). In two of the lessons observed, (*lesson 3 and 9*) there was background noise when teaching was going on. In one instance (*lesson 3*) there was a land mower on the field, it made it almost impossible for anyone to hear what was being said. In the second instance (*lesson 9*) the students in the next classes were very noisy and no interventions were made by the teachers concerned. As a result, many of the learners in these two classes were unable to concentrate on what the speakers were presenting due to noisy environments that caused distraction. Furthermore, some teachers; (*lesson 2 and 7*) interjected whenever learners tried to present their ideas. The study results show that majority of the teachers did not make an effort to ensure the environment was conducive for listening. Such did not encourage effective interaction, when questions were asked; most students remained silent after such interruptions, or gave wrong responses. However, teachers in *lesson 6* and *lesson 2* created conducive environments for learners by
giving directions on where to find information, allowing them opportunity to respond to questions and pin-point pictures. When questions were asked during these two lessons, most learners gave the correct responses.

Question items in the FGD guide solicited information on challenges that students encounter while listening. Results show that background noise was enlisted as a challenge by a vast majority (58%) of respondents. This served to corroborate observation notes made in this study that indicated that distraction was caused by a land mower (lesson 3).

The skill of attending behavior occurred 21(54%) times and involved 13 teachers. In this study, this skill is concerned with giving attention to the speaker/learner and the use of non-verbal cues to indicate listening. Although all teachers 13(100%) in this study gave attention to the speaker (learner) it only occurred 21 times, such attention only lasted for a short time. It was noted that when learners were making presentations, reading or giving a response, some teachers were either reading or referring to reference books, looking at other learners or worse still, some interjecting when learners were speaking. For example, the teacher recorded in lesson 7 kept on interjecting as follows:

**Student:** *Ninaona, Maghani ni hadith …*

**Teacher:** *Kemboi, huwezi kutuambia hivyo!* (Kemboi, you cannot tell us that!). *Haya, endelea tu.* (Anyway, just go on).

**Student:** (Silence).

Such interruptions caused learners either to remain silent or give irrelevant responses as they diminished their intrinsic motivation. Of the 13 lessons observed, only two teachers used non-verbal cues to indicate to the learners speaking that they were being listened to. Only two teachers used encouraging comments and cues that they were
listening to learners’ responses. This is contrary to the position maintained by Staton (1996) who observes that one way of stimulating listening skills is by being a good listener as a teacher as students do what their teachers do.

However there was overwhelming attention to the visual stimuli (98%) when the teacher in lesson 6 used pictures in class. When the pictures were displayed on the chalkboard, all learners’ attention was focused on them. They also responded to questions posed after the presentation better than learners observed in other classrooms. This can be interpreted to mean that attending behavior plays a crucial role in listening.

In this study teacher-learner activities were investigated to aid in obtaining information from teachers and learners about the sequence of lesson presentation. This study mainly focused on the sequence of listening activities. Involving learners in activities was also investigated. This study revealed that 8(62%) teachers involved learners in activities with a frequency of 23 times in a total of 13 lessons observed. Given that each lesson lasted an average of 40 minutes, such learners’ involvement is minimal. However the learners’ main activities were listening and answering comprehension questions either orally or in writing. Such an approach doesn’t encourage learners to use different listening skills and strategies to achieve better understanding. Such an approach is testing learners in listening contrary to training them how to listen. Thus, these findings then were a reflection of the instructional practices used by teachers of Kiswahili in Kenyan secondary schools.

An inquiry was also made from teachers about the common sequence in which they present lessons. Questions items number 9 and 10 of the interview schedule for teachers solicited information on the sequence of lesson presentation and activities
students engage in during listening sessions. Responses by teachers on the order of presentation during listening activities indicated that 8(62%) of the teachers said they refer students to a passage in the course book, ask students to read passages aloud in turns, summarize and then give them questions to answer. However, only 5(38%) said they review students’ previous knowledge on the topic, help learners to become conscious of the purpose of upcoming input, involve them in carefully designed listening activities, made a summary and provided feedback on learners’ performance. This is the expected sequence for better listening.

Learners’ activities occurred 183 times involving all learners. These included asking/answering questions, speech work and writing. There was no use of role playing, debates and language games. Learners were mainly involved in listening to teacher talk, speech work, answering questions and writing. Most teachers tended to construct activities that either left the learners out or made them remain passive. When the skill of fully involving learners in pinpointing pictures that suited description was used in lesson 6, learners portrayed a better understanding of content through actions like answering questions posed, offering information and using clarifying statements e.g. “in what way can…, “do you mean …”

It was noted that teachers of Kiswahili use various activities in class to start off lessons. As shown in Figure 4.3, a majority (86%) of the teachers, indicated they asked questions to start off class presentations. However it is shown that most of the teachers (58%) did not use story telling in class as a means of jogging previous knowledge of learners in class. Demonstrations/role playing were also not used by many of the teachers as noted; only (2%) agreed as most (98%) of the teachers indicated not to use this strategy. However, though (2%) indicated they use role-
playing, observation notes pointed out that none of the 13 teachers observed in class used this sub-skill. This finding can be interpreted to indicate that learners are inadequately prepared for incoming data as only questioning was the predominant means of reviewing previous knowledge.

**Figure 4.3 Means by Which Teachers Commonly Start off Lessons**

This study also investigated how the teachers prepared learners for listening. Only 17 students (13%) indicated that teachers prepared them by stating objectives of the lesson, 82(63%) indicated that teachers delivered content straight away, 49(38%) indicated that teachers referred to their past experiences as 53(41%) indicated that teachers prepared them by referring to what they had learnt in previous lessons. The fact that (63%) of teachers delivered presentations without incorporating pre-listening tasks points to the fact that either teachers have limited awareness about a variety of advance organizers available for teaching listening or they don’t value introductory
pre-listening activities. Inadequate use of such activities could be certainly one of the hindrances to acquisition of listening skills.

From observation, the use of learners’ prior knowledge in order to help them incorporate what they were hearing to what they already knew about the input was sought. All 13(100%) teachers had indicated use of previous knowledge during interview while observation notes indicated otherwise. This is an indication that although teachers of Kiswahili are aware of the desirable sequence while teaching listening, they do not practice it in class: such teachers ignore the subtle features of introduction. Such a practice could partly be attributed to unpreparedness of teachers. This skill occurred only 4 times as used by 3(23%) out of 13 teachers. This skill is important for linking what students hear in the classroom to any prior knowledge they have and on this basis, make predictions and inferences essential for comprehension. Given that most learners’ prior knowledge was not activated from schemata (Mendelssohn, 1995). This skill was not sufficiently utilized.

Table 4.7 Means Used to Make Listening Interesting.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Agreement</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Disagreement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>


The study sought to find out from students about the various means that could be used by teachers of Kiswahili to make listening interesting. On the use of media, a majority 93(72%) of the learners agreed, 37(29%) were undecided while none disagreed. As indicated in the findings (Table 4:7) a majority of the learners acknowledge the role media plays in enhancing acquisition of listening skills. This is in line with what Groenewegen et al. (2008) advices; that in teaching listening skills, both auditory awareness and visual observation are important in enhancing understanding. On the use of a variety of activities during lessons, most (96%) of the learners agreed they did. However on the use of a variety of instructional methods, all the students were noted to be in support of the use of a variety of instructional approaches to engage learners in meaningful activities. Use of prior knowledge was noted by most learners (86%) in the schools which participated in the study. (14%) were undecided as none disagreed. Results clearly point to the fact that in most cases, teachers of Kiswahili do not use learners’ prior knowledge and therefore cannot provide a link between learner’s previous knowledge of Kiswahili concepts and the new material. Majority (91%) of the learners indicated provision of feedback which is necessary for learning. As indicated in the findings, this is one of the most widely used strategies to make learning interesting and it ensures mastery of the concepts. Learners also indicated
that to make listening interesting, they should be helped by teachers to narrow down their attention on relevant parts during the lesson. All the teachers 13(100%) interviewed in this study agreed that they help their learners to narrow down their attention on relevant parts which is meant to make learning meaningful.

Focusing listening was concerned with helping learners to concentrate their attention on important ideas. This involved having the speaker repeat information or particular details. This skill was sought for because it is helpful in assisting the learners to focus on particular details to be comprehended. This skill was used only 18 times involving 7(54%) teachers. Some teachers observed tended to repeat phrases rather than information. For example one teacher kept repeating waona… (You see…). One lesson observed (lesson 2) involved the teacher focusing learners’ attention to important areas like referring learners to a specific stanza of the song (lullaby) that was being studied in class. This helped the learners focus on what they were required to listen to, thus lessening the load of listening for learners. When questions were asked most of them were ready to respond and responses of those who were picked upon to answer questions were satisfactory.

Arousing learner expectation as a listening sub-skill was sought. It involved directing learner listening and use of learners’ prior knowledge. During these observations, the skill of directing learner listening occurred 7 times involving only 4(31%) out of 13 teachers. This skill is mainly concerned with the teacher telling the learner the purpose for listening. The use of discourse markers like: firstly, one point, again, another thing, however etc to serve as a means of directing the learner about what is being said by the speaker.
Some teachers started the lessons by calling students’ attention to specific chapters or scenes, for instance: “we are going to do chapter eleven today” on referring to chapter eleven, there is a lot of information in this chapter mentioned, it is worthwhile to note that beginning a lesson by making learners focus on chapter eleven means nothing. Learners need to be given a specific objective for listening, not making them focus on chapters or scenes in course or set books because they contain a lot of information.

Failure to provide for wait-time can be an impediment to listening. This is because students have varying rates in processing and organizing information, so they may require time to enable them think and reflect on what they hear. Students interviewed in this study were asked whether they were provided with time to enable them reflect on what they listened to, 37(29%) students attested to this as 93(71%) students disputed. This implied that most teachers ignored the skill of provision of wait-time: use of pauses and moderate pace when presentations were being made in class.

Teachers’ ability to provide enough time to enable learners think and reflect on what has been said/asked was sought. It occurred 18 times involving 6(46%) teachers. Teachers and other speakers in the class were expected to pause and check their pace after/when asking a question or presenting an idea. Data collected by means of FGDs corroborated this as it revealed that majority of students (62%) said their teachers of Kiswahili did not provide them with time to enable them reflect on what they listen to. This coupled with data collected from the observation schedule attests to the fact that poor listening among secondary school students could be attributed to teachers’ inability to provide wait-time. Strong (1993) suggests that one of the most effective
tools a speaker has is *no sound at all*. Use of pauses makes all eyes and ears focus on the speaker.

Teaching and learning resources for listening were also investigated. The findings of this study revealed that the use of visuals and other teaching aids occurred 28 times in the 13 lessons observed involving all 13 teachers (100%). All the teachers used the text/course books and the chalkboard at least once.

The teacher in *lesson 6* used picture cuttings from newspapers. When this resource was used, learners portrayed a better understanding of content through actions like offering information enthusiastically and answering questions asked by the teacher. All teachers used text/course books and the chalkboard at least once during the lessons. Learners’ use of visuals and non-verbal cues to support listening rarely occurred during classroom observation, (21%). The use of gestures, eye contact, eyebrows, hands and pauses to support verbal presentation was quite low.

Effective active listening requires that the listener takes an active role. Students involved in the FGDs stated how they showed that they were actively listening during Kiswahili lessons. Table 4.9 has this information.

Question item 6 in the FGD guide was designed to provide information on how students showed that they were actively listening during Kiswahili lessons. A summary of these responses is presented in Table 4.11.

**Table 4.8 Students’ Means of Showing Active Listening**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Means</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Looking at the speaker</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nodding</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asking questions</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The nature of responses given by students was interesting because these impressions made during the FDGs are contrary to information in the observation notes taken in the classroom in the course of observation which showed that apart from some learners looking at the speakers, occasionally answering questions and sitting up straight to show active listening, the other means were not evident.

The Results indicate that all students 130(100%) looked at the speaker to indicate active listening, while 90(70%) showed active listening by asking questions, 63(49%) used non-verbal cues to indicate listening while 70(54%) paraphrased content. This could imply that majority of learners in this study had an understanding of the importance of attending behavior to promote listening. However, very few students asked questions, used non-verbal cues or did any paraphrasing of content as outlined above to show active listening during classroom observation. Attending behavior manifested by students included provision of cues that they were listening or had understood the teachers’ or other speakers’ talk. Also investigated was the student’s sitting posture and attention paid to the speaker or visuals presented in class. Very few learners looked at the speakers most of the time, some were reading or looking at other materials like their exercise books or looking out of the window rather than paying attention to the speaker.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Means to show active</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Answering questions</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sitting up</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Note taking</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using clarifying statements</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table: 4.9 Active Listening
### Listening

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Looking at the speaker</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asking questions</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Giving non-verbal cues</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paraphrasing content</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regulated rate of speech by the learners was also investigated. This skill called for correct pronunciation, intonation, volume and stress. Most learners spoke too fast while others were inaudible. This consequently made their speech unclear. Regulated rate of speech in this study was mainly concerned with audibility, intonation, stress and pronunciation, which occurred only 22 times involving all the 13 teachers (100%) observed. Pronunciation of some words was quite confusing. One teacher in lesson 2 who was referring to a literature book said “… hasa Tanya hana hutu” causing a misrepresentation of the reality that Tanya a main character in *kifo kisimani* a play by Kithaka wa Mberia is humane. Mispronouncing *ana utu* (is kind) to sound *hana hutu* (is not kind) distorted the intended idea. Other terms that were distorted were: *ua/huwa* (always) *awesi/hawezi* (cannot) and *thakathaka/takataka* (rubbish). Such distortions caused lack of clarity of ideas that were being presented. Some teachers also lacked control over speed at which they spoke and it was also evident that students were not able to get things repeated.

Attending behavior was also investigated. Inadequate provision of cues that learners were listening or had understood the teachers’ and other learners’ talk and student’s
sitting posture was investigated. This skill also involved looking at the speaker and visual stimuli provided in the classroom. Learners’ ability to focus on the speaker was low as some learners were reading other materials, looking out of the window rather than paying attention to the speaker, pictures or chalkboard. The sub-skill that was used most was attending behavior the learners that used most sub-skills seemed to answer/respond to questions asked in class.

In this study, it was also important to establish how teachers checked learners’ understanding since it revealed whether instructional objectives had been achieved or not. Findings in this study, revealed that all 13(100%) teachers checked learners’ understanding, of these, (73%) were found to use the question-answer method using verbal stimuli as a means of evaluating learners’ understanding, (37%) used dictation while 62% used multiple choices while none used jumbled pictures and cloze exercises. However most of the questions that were asked orally by teachers were closed ended and therefore could either be answered by a YES or NO. For instance, they posed questions such as: “does everyone understand?” or “are there any questions?” the chorus responses to these questions made by learners were sometimes made unconsciously. Basically, evaluation begins when teachers begin to plan; however, basing on the findings of this study, none of the 13 teachers observed had prepared a lesson plan. This probably explains why teachers had limited options when making decisions on how to determine whether or not progress was being made towards achievement of stated objectives.

Effective communication requires a means of providing feedback in order to ascertain understanding of input and modification of messages to improve understanding. The study found it necessary to find out whether teachers allowed learners to react to what
they listened to, 91 students who represented (70%) agreed as 39(30%) disagreed. When probed further on how they often react to what they listen to, most of them mentioned answering questions posed by their teachers orally. This was confirmed during lesson observation sessions. From this, it became evident that most teachers only gauged learners’ listening abilities in Kiswahili language through posing comprehension questions.

4.2.3. Theme 3: Challenges Experienced When Selecting and Using Listening Strategies

In this study, it was necessary to establish some of the challenges students and teachers encountered when selecting and using these strategies. This become necessary since it could reveal some of the obstacles they encountered in the course of teaching and acquisition of listening skills.

Students gave several perceived constraints that hinder listening. This study sought to establish these as they could influence how learners acquired these skills. Findings indicate that speed at which speakers spoke, inability to get things repeated, volume and accent of the speaker and distracting noise from the background were the major challenges to their listening. Generally these challenges either originated from speaker/teacher or environment as very few students saw their inability to concentrate or lack of knowledge of the topic being presented as major constraints.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Challenges</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Background noise distracts</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.10: Challenges Learners Experience while Listening
As found in the study, a majority 75(58%) of the students indicated that background noise distracts them from listening during Kiswahili lessons. This affects learning as it makes the learners not to concentrate during the lessons. The speed at which the speaker speaks also interferes with learners’ attention during Kiswahili lessons. A majority 93(72%) of the students noted interference to listening that emanates from the pace at which teachers teach in the classroom. Also noted was that: in most cases, students are not able to get things repeated for them to understand 90(69%) of the students noted that their teachers neglect this important aspect as far as teaching listening skills is concerned. 69(53%) of the students also mentioned limited vocabulary as a challenge. Limited vocabulary was noted by (53%) of the students, which is an indication of the existence of an impediment to their understanding of concepts that are taught in class. On the inability to concentrate in class as a challenge to the acquisition of listening skills by learners, a majority 79(61%) of the students disputed this claim. However, as indicated in the findings, another 81(62%) of the students noted that the volume and accent of the speaker affects them negatively.
during listening. This impedes their listening and this makes them not to understand content during the Kiswahili lessons. More so, lack of knowledge about the topic was noted by some 32(25%) of the students. However 98(75%) of the students disputed this claim.

Teachers in the study enumerated challenges they encounter in the course of selecting and using instructional strategies for teaching listening skills. They mentioned lack of resource materials to facilitate the strategies, lack of adequate guidance from course books on listening procedures and lack of adequate time for teaching all the language skills. This study sought to establish the challenges that teachers of Kiswahili experienced when selecting and using various strategies to teach listening skills. Teachers who participated in this study ranked the challenges from the most prevalent (ranked 1) to the least prevalent (ranked 6). Table 4.11 shows this.

Deciding on the nature and types of activities to be used was noted to be a challenge by (92.3%) of the teachers, Deciding about objectives that the lessons would foster was noted by (92.3%), Deciding on how to monitor progress (85%), Preparation of teaching/learning materials (77%), Ensuring a conducive learning environment (46.2%) and the problem of integrating language and literature was noted as a challenge by (46.2%). The information in Table 4.11 shows that the challenges were ranked from the most prevalent to the least prevalent.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Challenges</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Deciding on the nature and types of activities to be used</td>
<td>12 (92.3%)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>(100)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.11 Challenges Teachers Face When Selecting and Using Listening Strategies
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Activities to Be Used</th>
<th>Response Count (%)</th>
<th>Expected Response Count</th>
<th>Total Response Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Deciding about objectives that the lesson will foster</td>
<td>12 (92.3%)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13 (100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deciding on how to monitor/assess progress</td>
<td>11 (84.6%)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13 (100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preparation of teaching/learning materials to be used</td>
<td>10 (76.9%)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13 (100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ensuring the environment is conducive</td>
<td>6 (46.2%)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13 (100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem of integrating language and literature</td>
<td>6 (46.2%)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>13 (100)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.3 Discussion

The discussion in this section is presented based on constructivism. This is based on the fact that knowledge is always changing, it should always be constructed to suit the times and situations within which it is in use. This being an interpretive inquiry, the researcher made an interpretation of what was seen, heard and understood by keeping a focus on learning the meaning that teachers of Kiswahili language hold about the teaching and learning of listening skills.

Discussions made in this study are grounded within the epistemology of social constructivism. The goal was to rely as much as possible on meaning derived from teachers’ and learners’ views of the situation being studied but not the meaning brought by the researcher (Creswell, 2011).

4.3.1 Teaching Listening

The first objective of the study was to; **examine the instructional strategies used in teaching of listening skills in Kiswahili.**

Teachers who participated in the study were asked to rate listening among other Kiswahili language skills. They had different views about the most important skill. Listening was rated as the least important skill as only 1(8%) out of 13 teachers rated it as the most important while 2(15%) of the teachers rated it second to reading, writing, speaking and grammar/language use. A further look at teachers’ preference when teaching language skills in Kiswahili revealed that most 9(69%) of the teachers preferred teaching reading while only 2(15%) indicated they preferred teaching listening. This corroborates what Wilkinson et al. (1974) in Groenewegen et al. (2008) ascertains that the ability to listen and to listen with understanding might well have been taken too much granted. Yet Groenewegen et al. (2008) further argues that as much as the listening skill is important in delivery of the school curriculum, not much
attention appears to be given to it in language teaching. It was necessary to inquire of this to be a measure of the importance teachers attach to listening and also on the premise that awareness about the importance of listening skills enables teachers to make an effort to develop them (Groenewegen et al., 2008).

This corroborates what Wilkinson et al. (1974) in Groenewegen et al. (2008) ascertains that the ability to listen and to listen with understanding might well have been taken too much granted. Yet Groenewegen et al. (2008) further argues that as much as the listening skill is important in delivery of the school curriculum, not much attention appears to be given to it in language teaching.

In this study, majority used a minimum number of strategies that were being investigated. Teachers who rated the listening skills first or second also used more of the sub-skills. Teachers’ attitude towards this skill affected the way they taught it. This could also imply that some teachers are not aware of how listening is developed. These findings seem to corroborate other observations concerning teaching language skills (Groenewegen et al., 2008; Omulando, 2009) that teachers of language focus more on reading and writing at the expense of the other skills. This study sought to establish this because research has shown that teachers of second languages downplay listening skills (Mendelssohn 1995; Underwood, 1989; Bwire and Vikiru, 2005).

Results further revealed that though most teachers of Kiswahili know the importance of planning for instruction, they do not actually follow what they planned for in their schemes of work in their schemes of work while teaching listening, and none of the teachers observed had a lesson plan. This implies that the aim of these teachers is not to help learners to acquire listening skills but to finish the syllabus. In this case, the
Ministry of Education and the Kenya institute of curriculum development need to pay special attention to this and one sure way is by taking teachers of Kiswahili through induction programs on how to effectively plan for instruction. This is a worrying trend since lesson planning serves to contextualize teaching and learning activities in order to lend enjoyment to the exercise. It enables teachers to select appropriate materials and activities, outlines sequence of activities that ensure logical lesson development and presentation. It also directs the teacher on how and when to assess effectiveness of the instructional process (Kafu, 2010).

Regarding where the teachers got the lesson objectives, of those who said they lesson planned, majority 6(46%) indicated that they got lesson objectives from course books. These findings serve to corroborate what Brown (1992) observes that although lesson planning is probably the most important element in instructional design, most and even experienced teachers often neglect it. The fact that teachers got lesson objectives from course books was found wanting since what is usually written in Kiswahili language course books may not be a true reflection of the expectations of the syllabus. It should be noted that most course books do not contain vital information like lesson objectives, the mode of teaching, materials, evaluation and teacher-learner activities.

It is therefore worrying that teachers depend on course books. Such revelation reflects the issue that teachers have a limited awareness of the importance of setting precise objectives. The interpretation from these responses is that most teachers of Kiswahili language do not have a precise goal for listening in mind as they go to class. Setting goals enables the teacher structure activities and effectively measure learning outcomes. Probably this explains why most of the teachers appeared not to have planned for appropriate activities and means of carrying out evaluation. Gagne
and Briggs in Kafu (2010) also argue that objectives serve as guidelines for instruction and for designing measures of students’ performance. The same argument is endorsed by MOE (2000) and Mukasa (2001).

Results further revealed that majority 7(54%) of the teachers did not include assessment procedures for listening sessions in their schemes of work. Such massive failure to plan for evaluation could be reason why teachers fail to use a variety of modes of evaluation available to them. Evaluation in class helps to modify students’ behavior; it enables designers (teachers) to determine their competence (Kafu, 2010). Lack of definite evaluation procedures during listening could lead to poor acquisition of this skill.

4.3.2 Types of Instructional Strategies used for Teaching Listening

The second objective of this study was to: determine the strategies used in Kiswahili language classrooms to teach listening. In line with this objective, the third objective of this study was to: determine how the strategies employed influence the teaching and acquisition of listening skills.

One of the strategies investigated in this study was the use of learners’ prior knowledge. During interview, all the thirteen teachers had indicated the value of activating prior knowledge from the schemata. However, only 3(23%) of them used this strategy during observation. This skill was studied based on the assumption that students listen better by relating incoming input to already existing knowledge. Such an approach enables listeners to link what they hear to prior knowledge they have and on this basis make hypothesis, predictions and inferences, (Wills, 1981; Anderson & Lynch, 1988; Underwood, 1989).
Baker and Westup (2000) also mention that before listening in L₁, people usually already know something about what they are listening to; using the skill of prediction based upon their previous knowledge or interest in the subject. This assertion is in line with the Top-down theory that forms the basis of this study; it advocates for the utilization of schematic knowledge. The purpose of before-listening activities is to help learners of Kiswahili language get motivated to listen. This is further corroborated by Ausubel (1968) in Otunga Odeo & Barasa (2011) who maintains that learning begins with what the learner knows. For learners to acquire listening skills there has to be a concerted effort to explore varied ways available for activating the top-down approach to listening-reviewing what the learner already knows about the topic is useful. Rummelhart (1980) argues for the “expectative driven processing” when a listener hears one word, it calls up everything on the individuals’ mind about that word thus causing some expectation. Kafu (2010) also notes that the knowledge possessed by the students always serves as the host for the new knowledge to be acquired and suggests that this can be achieved using appropriate media resources or posing suitable questions.

Data revealed that a reasonable number (67%) of teachers did not activate students’ prior knowledge. Such an approach may not be sufficient and is not the way to approach listening tasks in language acquisition. Teachers of L₂ are not expected to approach listening predominantly from bottom-up instead; they should use “listener as active hypothesis builder” which is a top-down approach to listening rather than “listener as tape recorder” (Rummelhart 1980). The researcher expected nearly all teachers to be equipped with this skill given the academic qualification of teachers who participated in this study. There are two main possible explanations to such limited use of prior knowledge. One could be that teachers are unprepared and once
they reach the classroom, most of what they do is done haphazardly; they hardly prepare for pre-listening activities. The other possible explanation could be that such teachers were not exposed to a variety of advance organizers during training to acquaint them on possible innovative strategies for training learners to listen. Inadequate activation of prior knowledge related to incoming data can be a hindrance to effective listening (Bruce and Weil, 1992).

Activation of prior knowledge is also referred to as schema activation. This study results reveal that the learners whose schema was activated responded more positively to learning tasks. However, most of such activation during lesson observation was mainly done through asking questions, while role playing was the least employed for schema activation (Figure 4.3).

Regarding whether teachers specified what students should listen for well in advance, Data revealed that only 2(16%) of the teachers helped the students to keep the purpose of listening in mind. Thus, data generated by this question item revealed that a high percentage of teachers have limited awareness in the use and role of advance organizers available for teaching listening skills. When learners are not told the purpose for listening, they fail to know the specific information they need to listen for. None of the teachers observed specified the pre-listening tasks to the learners, and as a result of limited use of the skill, the learners tended to narrate details that were irrelevant to the questions they were being asked which is an over burdening exercise (Underwood, 1989; Wolvin & Coakley, 1993). Several writers maintain that pre-listening tasks are helpful in preparing learners to listen. (Koslove & white, 1979; Ausubel 1980; Wills 1981) they recommend a mixture of activities to be adopted to enhance of student’s existing knowledge of the topic at hand as Rummelhart (1980) refers to this as “expectative driven processing”.
Arousing learners’ expectation as a listening sub-skill was sought. The use of this skill by teachers and learners during presentation of ideas in the classroom was minimal (23%). In instances where it was used, it was either limited or misused. Subsequently, some learners could not adequately respond to questions asked by the teachers while other learners could not respond at all to questions posed after a presentation. Discourse markers help the presenter of information announce each point and each of these cues serves as an invitation to listeners who have wandering minds to join other listeners; an indication that a new point is about to be made (Strong, 1993).

Teacher talk is the most commonly used strategy by teachers in the schools that participated in this study. This is indicated in the findings as a majority 121(93%) of the students affirmed this. On whether passages are read by other students, a majority 115(88%) of the students noted this, only 15(12%) indicated not to be subjected to this strategy. This was also confirmed during observation in the classroom where teacher talk and listening to passages read by other students was pre-dominant. This is a pointer to the fact that dictation and brain storming were the least used in teaching listening while role playing was not used at all. This data in figure 4.1 depicts a situation where many teachers of Kiswahili deny learners opportunity to language in interaction. This could be the reason why a number of them appeared bored and this was evidenced when they kept quite when asked questions or gave wrong responses. These findings show that the most commonly used strategies are mainly from the teachers, this disadvantages the learners. There are other useful means that could be used to get learners motivated to listen, they include: brainstorming, discussion and use of visual stimuli (Baker et al; 2000).
Furthermore, a majority of (58%) of students enlisted background noise as a distraction when listening. This served to corroborate observation notes that indicated that in lesson 3, distraction was caused by a land mower. It was also noted that when learners were making presentations, some teachers were not paying attention, some even interjected when learners were speaking lesson 7. Such interruptions caused learners to either keep quite or give irrelevant responses when called upon to answer questions. The impact of environment on instruction is well documented (Dale, 1972; Erickson, 1968; Kafu, 2010). A deprived or less stimulating learning environment tends to have adverse effect on instruction; while on the other hand, a rich and endowed one stimulates learners. This fact makes it imperative that a teacher of Kiswahili language appropriately develops and manages the learning environment so as to facilitate acquisition of listening skills.

As regards teaching and learning resources, only a few teachers made an effort to use other forms of visual stimuli apart from the chalkboard and course/set books. This was the situation despite the fact that these teachers had acknowledged during interview sessions that media enhances language teaching and learning. This finding is in line with what Wanjiku (2002) reviewed in chapter 2 of this study established. Effective language learning can be enhanced through the use of teaching and learning resources. In support of the foregoing, Farrant (2006) talking about the role of visual aids asserts that a lesson begun by showing something of interest gets off to a good start because it focuses the attention of the pupils and stimulates their interest.

Much dependence on the text book could be attributed to poor training as Beeby (1985) and Perrot (1982) also asserts that poorly trained teachers cling only to what they know: the text book while better trained and experienced teachers tend to be creative, innovative and they easily improvise teaching strategies inexperienced
teachers on the other hand rely on traditional methods that may not suit the purpose at
the time.

The text book, pictures, tape recordings, resource persons and the chalkboard were the
only visuals and means available to help learners comprehend the presentations. In
only one out of 13 lessons (lesson 5) did the teacher use tape recorded presentations
while in another (lesson 8) the teacher invited a resource person. The presence of a
resource person in class positively influenced the learners ability to participate in class
and recall what had been taught, it also appeared to have a positive impact on the way
the teacher functioned in that class (lesson 8). This particular teacher's presentation
seemed to be easy, more interesting and meaningful to the learners.

Reports about the impact of instructional resources in on the instructional process
indicate that they help hold the learners attention and interest, challenge and help the
learner recall, analyze and synthesize what needs to be learnt. They also influence the
way teachers function in class (Wilkins, 1982; Miller, 1990). Such emphasis on the
effectiveness of the use of instructional resources in teaching and learning has also
been noted by Kafu (2010) who agrees that learning resources determine the kind of
learning environment for students, the type of teaching approaches /methods/
techniques and other strategies to employ in instruction. A similar position is
maintained by Petty (2004) when underscoring the importance resources in
instruction. Petty (2004) also notes that they aid conceptualization as many concepts
or ideas are better understood visually rather than verbally.

It was apparent that non-verbal cues (gestures and facial expressions) that were used
by the resource person formed part of how learners understood what the speaker was
presenting. These are important since real-life listening, listeners are often exposed to para-linguistic clues like facial expression and gestures (MoE, 1992). Aggarwal (2007) also points out that the sense of hearing is stimulated naturally by visual presentation and non-verbal forms like facial expressions and gestures that essential in explaining words and sentences. On the other hand, lesson 3 though accompanied with a tape recording, rather than facilitating learning, it directly impinged on students’ ability to comprehend input. For example, the teacher in lesson 3 was teaching emerging issues and was specifically teaching utandawazi (globalization). Part of the presentation was extracted from the transcripts. It went as follows:

**Teachers: Mnajua utandawazi?** (do you understand what globalization is all about?)

**Learners: (Silence)**

**Teacher:** Kila mtu anajua utandawazi… (Everyone knows about globalization) sasa sikiza tepu hii, ina makala kuhusu utandawazi (now listen to this tape recording, it has information about globalization).

**Tape:** *(Plays for about 18 minutes)*

**Teachers:** Mmesikia? (Have you heard?)

**Learners:** Ndiyo! (Chorus: yes!)

**Teacher:** Sawa, haya andika majibu kwa maswali yafuatayo vitabuni (Now answer the following questions in your note books: writes questions on the chalkboard).

Such tapes can be good for teaching listening, but what the teacher in lesson 3 was doing was playing the tape and testing listening without teaching the learner how to become a competent listener. The learners here did not know exactly what to expect from the tape, as they were not given the specific objective for listening. They passively listened to the tape recording. Many of the learners seemed tired partly because the topic was not comprehensible and motivating given their level, neither
did the teacher make them conscious of the purpose of the upcoming listening input. As a result, learners were basically passive listeners throughout the lesson. Since the topic seemed to be unfamiliar to the learners, Most of them gave wrong responses when called upon to answer questions.

Another skill that was sought for was regulated rate of speech that was partly concerned with pronunciation. It was evident that pronunciation of words by some teachers was quite confusing. During observation, lesson 2, lack of clarity of speech (input) was an impediment to comprehension in this class, this is based on the argument that since comprehensible input is a factor in language acquisition, it follows that incomprehensible input therefore impedes language acquisition. (Krashen, 1987). Such performance is contrary to what Groenwegen et al. (2008) advocate for; that when teaching listening, the teachers’ own performance as a speaker is of utmost importance because learners model on their speaking in terms of pronunciation, pitch, volume, stress and intonation. In this particular class, lesson 2, the teachers’ inaccurate pronunciation distorted meaning for the learner as the learners offered distorted responses when called upon to do so.

Selection of authentic texts was also investigated in this study; this was only evident 6 times involving 6 out of 13 teachers (46%). Focusing on this skill was important basing on the argument that it is in the pre-listening phase that learners are motivated to listen. So in selecting listening texts, teachers must be sensitive to learners’ level and interests so as to effect motivation. Staton (1996) suggests that in order to stimulate listening, learners should be provided with opportunities to listen and interpret various sounds and pieces of information. Such pieces should be appropriate for their comprehension level. Texts to be listened to in the classroom need to be
interesting and designed tasks should arouse their curiosity: Variety and variance is the key in selecting such texts. The teacher should therefore expose learners to a variety of authentic real life listening situations that learners are likely to encounter in their lives. This is corroborated by Harmer (1995) who asserts that in the choice of texts for students to listen to, the teacher must consider why and when they listen to something since a student who fails to acquire readiness to listen cannot comprehend well what she/he listens to.

Another important skill that was investigated was attending behavior. Although all teachers gave attention to the learner, it only occurred 21 times, such occurrence is negligible. It was evident from this study that learners’ use of attending behavior to indicate active listening was low, although results from the FGDs indicated that students were aware of the features of and used active listening, the reverse was true. From observation notes, learners did not use non-verbal cues, they failed to paraphrase content, sit up or look at the speaker/visual presentation most of the time.

Ayot and Patel (1987) state that the syllabus gives areas to be studied but it does not tell the teacher what kind of activities he/she should engage his students in when transmitting knowledge. This gives the teacher a chance to be more creative in his approach to the subject. According to this study, teachers’ failure to carefully design teaching/learning activities is one of the causes of poor acquisition of listening skills. A variety of interactive activities are useful in making every learner make something of incoming input. This is why Farrant (2006) advices that teachers should as much as possible engage learners in activity learning in developing skills and understanding. Farrant adds that efficient learning depends on well chosen and managed activities because children learn best by doing and find interest and enjoyment in activity.
The success of any language lesson or other subjects largely depends on the interaction between the teacher and learner in the classroom. This is in line with the interactive theory (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1974) discussed in chapter two of this study. This study’s theme was mainly concerned with the transaction exchange between the teacher and the learner focusing on those activities the teachers of Kiswahili initiated. Results indicated that learners’ involvement in activities that foster listening was minimal. Consequently, it was observed that as a result of such minimal learners’ involvement, feedback from the learners was feeble making them inactive participants. It was apparent that teacher/learner activities had not been carefully designed and teachers seemed to have difficulties when deciding on the nature and type of activities to be used in class. The researcher could not establish whether this was due to some teachers having too limited an idea of what activity is or whether they were afraid to use them lest they lost control over the class. Task-based exercises like role playing and labeling which were not utilized by teachers observed in this study could be helpful, teachers of Kiswahili need to create new environments in the classroom by encouraging learners to engage in such activities that foster communicative competence. Communicative methods work best if the teacher uses realistic activities based on situations which students experience in their lives including everyday materials (Baker and Westup, 2000).

Generally, teachers and learners did not exactly know what activities to engage in. As a result, there was minimal learners’ involvement and feedback. Teachers’ activities during listening lessons were also haphazard. These could be attributed to failure by teachers to carefully design activities beforehand, most teachers observed depicted difficulties when deciding on the nature and type of activities to be used in class. These were characterized by traditional classroom listening practices that often took
the form of listening comprehension in which one person read as others listened and gave the answers. This is in contrast with task-oriented listening activities that foster acquisition of listening skills. Teachers and learners in this study did not know how to use most of the strategies investigated in this study to enhance the teaching and acquisition of listening in Kiswahili language. This could be the reason why student’ acquisition of listening skills has remained elusive.

However, a few teachers presented lessons in a manner to facilitate listening: to encourage listening in the classroom. Lesson 6 went as follows; the teacher stuck five pictures cut out from newspapers on the chalk board with numbers above them. The teacher started describing the five pictures one by one as students were required to pinpoint the number of the picture that was being described. As a result every student sat upright and showed eagerness to participate in the lesson. This practice is highly recommended in modern approaches to language teaching. Such an approach makes the learner the focal point in the instructional process as they are availed with opportunities to discover knowledge.

This corroborates what Gathumbi and Masembe (2005:x) advocate for, they emphasize that integration of various teaching techniques has been known to hold the keys into various teaching activities from a variety of teaching methods helps learners learn better and also makes learning more interesting. Underwood (1989) also suggests that the use of task-based exercises can encourage learners to use different kinds of listening skills and strategies.
4.3.3 Challenges Experienced When Selecting and Using Listening Strategies

The forth objective of this study was to: **determine the challenges that teachers and students experience when selecting and using these strategies.**

As found in the study, a 75(58%) of the students indicated that background noise distracts them from listening during Kiswahili lessons. This affects learning as it makes the learners not to concentrate during the lessons. The speed at which the speaker presents information also interferes with learners’ attention during Kiswahili lessons. A majority 93(72%) of the students noted interference to listening that emanates from the pace at which teachers teach in the classroom. Also noted was that: in most cases, students are not able to get things repeated for them to understand 90(69%) of the students noted that their teachers neglect this important aspect as far as teaching listening skills is concerned. 69(53%) of the students also mentioned limited vocabulary as a challenge. Limited vocabulary was noted by (53%) of the students, which is an indication of the existence of an impediment to their understanding of concepts that are taught in class. On the inability to concentrate in class as a challenge to the acquisition of listening skills by learners, 79(61%) of the students disputed this claim. However, as indicated in the findings, another 81(62%) of the students noted that the volume and accent of the speaker affects them negatively during listening. This impedes their listening and this makes them not to understand content during the Kiswahili lessons. More so, lack of knowledge about the topic was noted as a challenge when listening by some 32(25%) of the students. However 98(75%) of the students disputed this claim.

Most (92.3%) of the teachers interviewed agreed that deciding on the nature and types of activities to be used in the classroom and deciding about the objectives that the lesson will foster (92.3%) were the most prevalent when selecting and using listening
strategies. These challenges were evident during observation as most lessons observed depicted that teachers had not adequately prepared for pre-listening activities which are very crucial when teaching listening. This is contrary to recommendations that a mixture of activities to be adopted when teaching listening to enhance students’ existing knowledge of the topic at hand (Ausubel, 1980; Wills, 1981; Farrant, 2006; Baker & Westup, 2000). This challenge could be addressed by ensuring that teachers incorporate task-based activities in the instructional process.

In addition, failure to decide and stipulate the objectives of the lesson tends to be an overburdening exercise to students as they may fail to know the specific information they need to listen for (Wolvin & Coakley, 1993). In addition, lack of written objectives can affect the instructional process because they give order to lesson presentation, activities and mode of evaluation (Kafu, 2010).

With regard to preparation of teaching/learning materials for teaching listening, (76.9%) of the teachers indicated that it was a challenge. Teachers seemed to be aware of the vital role played by these resources in the instructional process. It is the assumption of this study that every qualified teacher of Kiswahili should be able to identify and prepare relevant instructional resources for teaching listening. Resources are useful since they aid to determine the kind of learning environment for students, the types of teaching approaches and other strategies for instruction (Kafu, 2010:31). Teachers (46.2%) also mentioned that they experienced challenges of integrating language and literature. Most lessons observed in this study were also a confirmation of this. Findings of this study show that teachers of Kiswahili find it hard to merge language and literature when teaching listening. Ensuring a conducive environment for teaching and learning was another challenge as (46.2%) of the teachers indicated
so. A deprived environment tends to have a negative influence on instruction (Dale, 1972). This fact makes it imperative that the teacher of Kiswahili ensures that the learning environment is conducive so as to facilitate acquisition of listening skills.

4.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented analysis, interpretation and discussion of data in the light of the four research objectives, theoretical framework and literature review. Data presentation was done by frequency tables, figures and descriptions. Chapter five outlines a summary of the major findings, conclusions and recommendations. It also puts forth some suggestions for further research.
CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of the findings, draws some conclusions from the findings and offers suggestions for further research. The major concern of this study was to assess the influence of the instructional process on the teaching and acquisition of listening skills in Kiswahili language.

The study was guided by the following objectives:

1) To establish the types of instructional strategies used in the teaching and acquisition of listening skills in Kiswahili language.

2) To determine how the strategies are used in Kiswahili language classrooms.

3) To determine how the strategies employed influence the teaching and acquisition of listening skills.

4) To establish the challenges teachers and students experience when selecting and using listening strategies.

5.2 Summary of findings

This study was set to investigate the influence of the instructional process on the teaching and acquisition of listening skills in Kiswahili language in Kenya. This is because of the critical role listening plays in the acquisition of Kiswahili language and other subjects in the Kenyan curriculum. Hence: the need to teach it properly. The summary of findings of this study is done by outlining the summary of the findings of each study objective. The following major findings were realized:

The first objective was to examine the types of instructional strategies used in the teaching and acquisition of listening skills in Kiswahili language. In line with this,
the second objective was to **determine how the strategies are used in Kiswahili language classrooms**. Results show that teachers and students were aware of the strategies available for use but they did not use them adequately. This study revealed that though teacher’s responses in the interview indicated that they always prepare for listening in the schemes of work, notes from observation indicated otherwise as very few teachers in the study had prepared for listening skills in the schemes of work. Furthermore none of the teachers in the study had a lesson plan. Teachers of Kiswahili do not adequately prepare for instruction of listening skills. They do not prepare lesson plans for every listening session and that although they included listening in their schemes of work, the lesson objectives were not clearly stated, most of them do not derive their objectives from the syllabus, instead, they are guided by various course books available.

In teaching listening, most teachers are confined to using the course book as the main resource. This study also established that teachers do not do prior planning for pre-listening, while listening and after listening tasks thus making the teaching of listening skills in Kiswahili language haphazard. This study also established that the most common technique used by teachers is listening comprehension. This study also showed that what students listened to was mainly from the teacher, not learner negotiated.

This study also revealed that teachers’ and learners’ use of listening strategies during instruction was low. Therefore there is need for teachers of Kiswahili to consider using a variety of listening strategies available for use, like role-playing, brainstorming, story telling and dictations in order to enhance learners’ ability to
listen. Listening is a crucial skill and therefore teachers of Kiswahili should make a deliberate effort to enhance its’ teaching and acquisition.

The third objective was to determine how the strategies employed influence the teaching and acquisition of listening skills. The study established that the use of listening sub-skills was rather low. Students whose teachers employed a variety of the strategies investigated in the study were more active and responded better to questions/presentations made in the classroom compared to students whose teachers employed the least or no listening sub-skills. These results could be an implication that listening skills play a key role in the acquisition of Kiswahili language.

The fourth objective was to establish the challenges that teachers and students experience when selecting and using listening skills. Learners perceived the following to be the challenges they encounter when using various strategies in order to facilitate listening: speed at which spoke, inability to get things repeated and the volume\accent of speakers as some of the constraints that hinder listening. Teachers enlisted: deciding on the nature and type of activities to be used, deciding about objectives that the lesson will foster, deciding on how to monitor progress, preparation of teaching and learning materials ensuring a conducive atmosphere and integrating language and literature as some of the challenges they experienced when selecting and using these strategies.

5.3 Conclusions
This being an interpretive inquiry the researcher made an interpretation of what was seen and heard. In so doing, the researcher kept a focus on learning the meaning that
teachers and learners of Kiswahili held about listening. In this study, teachers and learners of this language are viewed as constructivists in the sense that they are able to construct the nature of knowledge available to them with the aim of making the teaching and acquisition of listening skills successful.

5.4. Recommendations

In order to improve pedagogy of listening skills, some of the recommendations made by the present study are:

1. Conscious effort should be made to improve the use of listening skills at all levels of education: starting at primary, secondary and university by encouraging teachers and learners to use different kinds of listening skills and strategies to achieve better instruction and understanding.

2. Effort should be made by course book designers to concentrate on non-examinable skills like speaking and listening. They should give advice/direction on their teaching and learning activities more explicitly. Publishers should produce books that cater for listening skills; books that give more guidance on listening norms.

3. Teachers should adequately plan for instruction for all lessons and skills. If this is taken care of, then issues pertaining to the use of advance organizers, teaching-learning activities, objective setting and evaluation of listening competency among learners will be taken care of. Findings in this study prompt adjustments to the range of methods commonly used in teaching listening in Kiswahili language.

4. Teachers of Kiswahili should design class activities that foster communicative competence. Activities that let learners focus on meaning
as opposed to formal features. A collection of role playing exercises, games and other communicative classroom activities. The teachers should not heavily rely on reading at the expense of telling/narrating stories when teaching listening.

5. There is need to develop teachers of Kiswahili as a resource, to ensure quality teaching of Kiswahili. Therefore all teachers of Kiswahili need to undergo regular post-training induction and in-servicing, these programs should consider all Kiswahili language skills rather than emphasizing writing and reading skills. When this is done, emphasis should be laid on the key aspects of the instructional process. These teachers also need to be introduced to KLNs in their planning, teaching and assessment. In-service assists teachers to become aware of the language, learning processes that go on in their classrooms and in this way create a link between theory and practice. Since teachers of Kiswahili require both pedagogical and linguistic competence; Both pre-service and in-service teacher education modalities requiring practice and active participation to refine skills and prepare the teacher for the active role of classroom teaching must be well planned for so that teachers of Kiswahili are availed with opportunities to reflect upon and improve their practice. Such should be carried out from time to time to expand their teaching capabilities.

6. Teachers should not rely on course books for teaching listening, teachers’ own collection for listening can be helpful: articles on topical issues, internet materials, radio broadcasts, advertisement and even recordings from popular world service programs like the BBC that are relevant to the learners’ level of cognition. Once such a collection is made, they need to
be graded according to the themes they illustrate. They also have to be made available for students to listen to.

7. Secondary schools should invest more funds in purchasing relevant instructional resources. Listening in Kiswahili language classrooms should not be an activity that is divorced from visual communication. What learners see forms a part of the comprehension experience and body language also forms a large part of the comprehension process. Learning theorists have long held that images enhance comprehension storage and recall of information (Pavio, 1965). In the language classroom, use of visual material of all kinds has been a predominant tool for instruction for quite some time. Pictures, slides, drawings etc serve many roles in language learning activities. In listening skills development, activities that focus learners’ attention simultaneously on visuals and accompanying aural input support comprehension and contribute to higher levels of learner motivation.

8. Teacher talk should not be the primary delivery mode since it leaves learners out. Other modes can be helpful in teaching listening; these can involve demonstrations, audio-visual, delivery guest speakers, observations, computer delivery, reading, guided learner activities etc.

9. One of the least used teaching techniques was dictation. This study recommends that as much as dictations may be rejected by some teachers as being old-fashioned, they are very valuable, in fact teaching listening skills in Kiswahili language should include the best of “old-fashioned” techniques applied in a modern and effective way, dictations are a bridge
between spoken and written language and when pronounced correctly, they are a useful tool for teaching listening.

10. Since cassette recorders are common place in many parts of Kenya today, cassette tapes can be availed to students for home loan. Such need not be under the direct control of the teacher. Listening can also be done at students’ own time in a language laboratory that is particularly useful in providing listening rather than speaking practice.

11. Practical lessons in teaching listening skills should be stressed during teacher training programs.

12. There is need to create achievement benchmarks in the skill of listening. The setting of such benchmarks and their use will allow all stakeholders, Kiswahili language education practitioners and especially teachers to verify the learners’ achievement in Kiswahili literacy and use the feedback to adjust teaching and learning. This study recommends a multi-dimensional approach to be used to teach Kiswahili both in primary and secondary schools for the purpose of getting learners access both content and skill. Such an approach will help the learners to acquire and retain content and communication skills.

13. The KNEC should periodically set model in-class tests for listening accompanied by marking schemes. At a later stage, KNEC could on the basis of experience gained in the use of such tests consider whether it will be logistically viable to incorporate successful features into the national examination.
5.5 Suggestions for Further Research

Based on the findings and conclusions in this study, some suggestions have been made for further research by prospective researchers:

1. A study on the approach to teaching listening skills in primary schools should be conducted given that the skill is considered important for learners at this stage.

2. A study should be conducted in teacher training institutions to determine the effectiveness of teacher education programs in preparing teachers of Kiswahili in the teaching of listening skills.

3. A study needs to be conducted in the use of teaching and learning resources in support of the development of listening skills, logistical problems and learning effectiveness.
REFERENCES


Hyslop, N. B, Tone, B. (1988). “Listening: Are we teaching it, and if is so, How?” Erick Digest No. 3 (online).


Dear Student,

I am carrying out a study on the influence of the instructional process on the teaching and acquisition of listening skills in Kiswahili language. You as a Form Two student and your school have been chosen to participate in this study. Thank you very much for agreeing to help out with this research. Your opinions are very important. In a Focus Group Discussion; you can disagree with each other or just comment. We do ask that just one person to talk at a time because of the researcher having to take notes. Nothing you say in this discussion will be associated with you or your school as this is just an easy way for us to get people together for a discussion on listening.

Some of you have listened to instructions on how to take medicine at the hospital or listened to religious sermons and speeches at political rallies.

Today we are going to talk about listening in Kiswahili language classrooms. Before we start, does anybody have a question about this research?
SECTION A: BIODATA

Write in the spaces provided or tick [✓] as appropriate

a) School number: _____

b) Type of school:
   i) Mixed [  ]
   ii) Girls [  ]
   iii) Boys [  ]

SECTION B:

1. The following Kiswahili language skills are the most commonly taught by your teacher of Kiswahili.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skill</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Speaking</td>
<td>[   ]</td>
<td>[   ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Writing</td>
<td>[   ]</td>
<td>[   ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Reading</td>
<td>[   ]</td>
<td>[   ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) Listening</td>
<td>[   ]</td>
<td>[   ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) Grammar and language use</td>
<td>[   ]</td>
<td>[   ]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Does your teacher specify what you should listen for before a presentation?
   Yes [  ] No [  ]

3. a) Do you listen to a variety of texts in class?
   Yes [  ]
   No [  ]
b) Which ones among the following do you commonly listen to?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(i) Dictation</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ii) Narration by students</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iii) Descriptions given by the teacher</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iv) Brain storming sessions</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(v) Role playing</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(vi) Teacher talk</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(vii) Passages read by other students</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. a) Does your teacher of Kiswahili allow you to react to what you listen to?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Which among the following challenges do you encounter when listening during Kiswahili lessons?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(i) Background noise distracts me from listening during Kiswahili lessons</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ii) Speed at which the speaker speaks</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iii) Not able to get things repeated</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iv) Limited vocabulary</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(v) Inability to concentrate</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(vi) Volume and accent of the speaker</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(vii) Lack of knowledge of the topic</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6. Briefly state how you show that you are actively listening during Kiswahili lessons.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(i) Looking at the speaker</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ii) Nodding</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iii) Asking/Answering Questions</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iv) Sitting up straight</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(v) Note taking</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(vi) Using clarifying statements</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7. Do you think you are provided with time to enable you reflect on what you have listened to?

Yes [ ]

No [ ]

8. Describe briefly the specific ways your teacher prepares you for listening.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i) Teacher tells us objectives of the lesson</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii) Teacher starts straight away</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iii) Teacher refers to past experiences</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iv) Teacher refers to what we learnt in previous lessons</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9. Which of the following activities does your teacher of Kiswahili commonly use to attract your attention?
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(i)</th>
<th>Asking questions</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(ii)</td>
<td>Story telling</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iii)</td>
<td>Demonstrations/role playing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iv)</td>
<td>Kiswahili language games</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(v)</td>
<td>Just starts the lesson</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10. You have come to the end of the interview, which the following means do you think can be used by your teacher of Kiswahili to make listening interesting. Tick [✓] as appropriate.

- Strongly Agree [SA]
- Agree [A]
- Undecided [U]
- Disagree [D]
- Strongly Disagree [SD]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(i)</th>
<th>Use of teaching/learning materials</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>U</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(ii)</td>
<td>Use of various activities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iii)</td>
<td>Variety of teaching methods</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iv)</td>
<td>Use of prior knowledge</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(v)</td>
<td>Providing feedback</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(vi)</td>
<td>Help learners to narrow down their attention on relevant parts</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Thank you very much in helping in this study)
APPENDIX II: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR FORM TWO TEACHERS OF KISWAHILI

Date: ______

School No: ______

Introduction

Dear Teacher,

I am carrying out a study on the influence of the instructional process on the teaching and acquisition of listening skills in Kiswahili language in Kenya. You as a teacher of Kiswahili and your school have been chosen to participate in this study through the following interview. Your response during the interview will be treated with a lot of confidentiality.

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

a) School type
   i) Girls [ ]
   ii) Boys [ ]
   iii) Mixed [ ]

b) Teaching experience

0-3 years [ ]
4-6 years [ ]
7-10 years [ ]
11 and above years [ ]
c) Qualification

M.a/M.phil/D.phil [ ]
B.ed [ ]
PGDE [ ]
D.Edu [ ]
Untrained [ ]

SECTION B:

1. Rate Kiswahili language skills from the most important to the least important.
   i) ______________________________
   ii) ______________________________
   iii) ______________________________
   iv) ______________________________
   v) ______________________________

2. Which one of the following skills do you enjoy teaching most?
   i) Speaking [ ]
   ii) Listening [ ]
   iii) Grammar and language use [ ]
   iv) Writing [ ]
   v) Reading [ ]
3. a) Do you include listening in your schemes of work?

b) If no, why

c) Do you prepare lesson plan for listening lessons?

d) If yes, where do you get lesson objectives?

e) If no, what guides you during teaching?

4. Do you think listening is acquired by students automatically or it is a skill that should be developed?

5. Does students’ lack of competency in listening weaken their performance in Kiswahili subject?

6. How often do you use instructional materials to teach listening?
   i) Often [ ]
   ii) Rarely [ ]
   iii) I don’t use them [ ]
7. Which instructional resources do you use when training students to listen?
   i. ................................................
   ii. ................................................
   iii. .............................................
   iv. .............................................
   v. .............................................

8. What is the common sequence in which you present lessons in listening skills?
   i) .............................................
   ii) .............................................
   iii) .............................................
   iv) .............................................
   v) .............................................

9. State some activities your students engage in during listening sessions.
   i) .............................................
   ii) .............................................
   iii) .............................................
   iv) .............................................
   v) .............................................

10. Do you ever have things repeated for your students during listening?
    ................................................................................................................
    ................................................................................................................
    ................................................................................................................
11. How do you set your students for the purpose for listening?
   i) ..............................................
   ii) ..............................................
   iii) ..............................................
   iv) ..............................................
   v) ..............................................

12. In what situations do you find listening difficult for students?
   i) ..............................................
   ii) ..............................................
   iii) ..............................................
   iv) ..............................................

13. How do you check whether your students have understood what they listen to in class?
   i) ..............................................
   ii) ..............................................
   iii) ..............................................

14. a) Do you believe assessment of listening skills should form part of Kiswahili subject at K.C.S.E?
   b) If Yes/No, why do you think so?

15. Suggest ways in which the teaching of listening skills can be improved.
   i. ..............................................
   ii. ..............................................
   iii. ..............................................
   iv. ..............................................
16. What are some of the challenges you encounter in the course of selecting
and using instructional strategies for teaching listening skills.

i) ................................................

ii) .............................................

iii) .........................................

iv) .............................................

(Thank you for giving your views, thanks for your time spent during the
interview)
APPENDIX III: OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

Lesson No: ........................................... Date......................................

Time: Start............................................. Stop......................................

Topic: ...........................................................................................................

No. of Students.................................................................

SECTION A: PLANNING FOR TEACHING

The researcher will observe and record by ticking [✓] availability or crossing (X) for inavailability.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Planning for listening before hand</th>
<th>Objectives for listening clearly stated</th>
<th>Objectives for listening not clearly stated</th>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Mode of Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stated</td>
<td>Not stated</td>
<td>Stated</td>
<td>Not stated</td>
<td>Mode:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i) Schemes of Work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>i)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii) Lesson Plan</td>
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SECTION B: LISTENING STRATEGY/SUB-SKILL
The researcher will observe and record by ticking [✓] or crossing (x) strategies and sub-skills used by teachers and students to prepare for and sustain listening in class.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy/sub skill</th>
<th>Available</th>
<th>Not available</th>
<th>Effectively used/applied</th>
<th>Not effectively used/applied</th>
<th>Effect</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Use of learner prior knowledge</td>
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<td>Directing learner listening; telling them purpose for listening, use of discourse markers.</td>
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<td>Selection of authentic texts: is content within intellectual/maturational range of the learner?</td>
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<td>Student’s/teachers’ fluency/diction</td>
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<td>Provision of conducive environment for listening e.g.</td>
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<td>1. Noise interference</td>
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<td>2. Lively</td>
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<td>3. Tense</td>
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<td>Attending behavior</td>
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<td>Giving attention to speaker, sitting posture, non verbal cues note taking etc.</td>
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<td>Regulated rate of speech e.g volume intonation,</td>
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<td><strong>Provision of clues that learners are actively listening</strong></td>
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<td>----------------------------------------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Teacher activities</strong></td>
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<td>e.g.</td>
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<td>1. Asking questions</td>
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<td>2. Preteaching key words</td>
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<td>3. Writing important points/vocabulary on the white/black board.</td>
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<td>4. Making a presentation.</td>
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<td><strong>Use of visuals</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Focusing listening</strong></td>
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<td>(e.g. calling for attention, repeating ideas etc.)</td>
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<td><strong>Involving learners in activities to promote good listening e.g.</strong></td>
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<td>1. Role playing/dramatization</td>
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<td>2. Debates</td>
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<td>3. Discussion/brainstorming</td>
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<td>1. Arousing learner expectation (e.g. drawing attention when asking questions). Calling attention to important items to be listened to.</td>
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<td>2. Providing learner wait time (use of pauses during instruction, interruptions)</td>
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<td>3. Checking learner understanding e.g. using:</td>
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<tr>
<td>1. Language games</td>
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<td>2. Dictation</td>
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<td>3. Cloze exercises</td>
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<td>4. Blank filling</td>
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<td>5. Multiple choices/True/False, Yes/No questions</td>
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<td>6. Jumbled pictures</td>
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<td>7. Question answer using verbal stimuli</td>
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APPENDIX IV: LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

Moi University,
Department of Curriculum,
Instruction and Educational Media,
P.O. Box 3900,
Eldoret.

THE PRINCIPAL,
____________________ SEC. SCHOOL,
P.O. Box ____________________

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: INTENTION TO COLLECT DATA FROM YOUR SCHOOL:
INFLUENCE OF THE INSTRUCTIONAL PROCESS ON THE TEACHING AND ACQUISITION OF LISTENING SKILLS IN KISWAHILI LANGUAGE IN KENYA.

Your school has been selected, to participate in the above mentioned study. The study will involve Form Two students, in a Focus Group Discussion. Form Two teachers of Kiswahili will be interviewed and observed in the classroom in a 40 minutes lesson. Their participation and opinions are very important.

By giving honest views towards the subject, the respondents will be contributing towards designing a practical policy on this important issue. The researcher will be visiting you very soon to plan on the logistics involved to make the study a success.

Be assured that the information that will be provided will be treated with utmost confidentiality and will be used for no other purpose beside the study.

Yours truly,
The Researcher,

FELICITY MURUNGA,
D. PHIL STUDENT,
APPENDIX V: LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

REQUEST FOR PARTICIPATION OF RESPONDENTS

Moi University,
Department of Curriculum,
Instruction and Educational Media,
P.O. Box 3900,
Eldoret.

Dear Sir/Madam,
I am a Doctor of Philosophy student at Moi University conducting a research on the topic: *Influence of the Instructional Process on the Teaching and Acquisition of Listening Skills in Kiswahili Language in Kenya.*

To enable me succeed in this study, you are kindly requested to allow your students to participate in a Focus Group Discussion, allow your class to be observed and attend a one-on-one interview with the researcher. Your opinions and participation are important. All information collected in the course of this study will be treated with confidentiality and shall only be considered as an academic exercise. Your name shall not be quoted anywhere.

Thank you.
Yours sincerely,

FELICITY MURUNGA.
APPENDIX VII: RESEARCH PERMIT

PAGE 2

THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT:

Prof./Dr./Mr./Mrs./Miss/Institution
Felicity Murunga
of (Address)Moi University
P.O BOX 3900, Eldoret

has been permitted to conduct research in

Location
Warang’ District
Rift Valley Province

on the topic: Influence of the instructional process on the teaching & acquisition of listening skills in Kiswahili language in Kenya.

for a period ending 31st December 2012

Applicant’s Signature

Secretary
National Council for Science and Technology

PAGE 3

Research Permit No.NCST/RR/12/1/SS011/1160
Date of issue 7th September 2011
Fee received KShs.2000

CONDITIONS

1. You must report to the District Commissioner and the District Education Officer of the area before embarking on your research. Failure to do that may lead to the cancellation of your permit.
2. Government Officers will not be interviewed without prior appointment.
3. No questionnaire will be used unless it has been approved.
4. Excavation, filming and collection of biological specimens are subject to further permission from the relevant Government Ministries.
5. You are required to submit at least two(2)/four(4) bound copies of your final report for Kenyans and non-Kenyans respectively.
6. The Government of Kenya reserves the right to modify the conditions of this permit including its cancellation without notice.

GPK605853nmt10/2011

(REPUBLIC OF KENYA)

RESEARCH CLEARANCE PERMIT

(CONDITIONS— see back page)