

**Ahmed Draia University – Adrar**

**Faculty of Arts and Languages**

**Department of English Language and Literature**



**The Effectiveness of Teaching Listening  
Comprehension in line with Listening  
Strategies Awareness and Use**

**Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the  
Requirements for a Master's Degree in Linguistics and  
Didactics.**

**Presented by:**

Manal Bouchikhi.

**Supervised by:**

Prof. Bachir Bouhania

**Board of Examiners**

Mr./ Omari Mohamed.

Chairman

Prof./ Bouhania Bachir.

Supervisor and Rapporteur

Dr./ Lahmar Mohamed.

Examiner

**Academic Year: 2019/ 2020.**

# **Dedication**

---

**I dedicate this work to my dear parents and brothers for their endless support and love through my whole journey to reach this level. I also dedicate this work to my cousin and soul mate Ali, thank you for always being there for me.**

# Acknowledgments

---

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my supervisor Prof. Bachir Bouhania for his invaluable guidance, continuous support, and never-ending patience throughout the preparation of my dissertation.

It is impossible to adequately thank Miss Omayma Kerthiou for her help without which this work would not have been completed.

I would like also to thank all my teachers at the English department whose assistance and encouragement have sustained me throughout my university studies.

My sincere thanks go to the teachers and students of Hakkoumi El-Eid secondary school for their participation in this study.

Finally, my special thanks are extended to all my friends; particularly, Linda, Ibtissam, Akila, Souad, Karima, Khadija, Zahira, Rabab, and Maroua; your friendship has always made things better.

## **Abstract**

Teaching our students how to listen effectively is crucial. Therefore, the main goal of this study is to reveal to what extent teachers and students a) realize the listening skill's importance in TEFL, b) are aware and use listening strategies, c) and face difficulties in their listening courses. To this end, a Likert scale questionnaire was handed to a total of 76 students of 3rd year secondary school, and 4 teachers were interviewed. The results indicate that our participants recognize the importance of listening, yet they are not very aware of its significance (i.e. the reason behind having listening courses). Additionally, the awareness of listening strategies among the participants is missing; however, students tend to use such strategies to a limited extent. Also, students face a number of problems while listening. It was concluded that, in order to overcome their listening problems, students have an obvious need to be taught how to listen i.e. taught how to use listening strategies; thus, teachers are the first who need to have a solid theoretical and practical background about listening strategies through instructional training. It was also recommended to teachers to change some of their rigid practices regarding listening lessons to attract students' intention and engage them in listening tasks.

**Key words:** listening skill, teaching listening comprehension, listening strategies.

# Table of Contents

---

<b>Dedication.....</b>	<b>I</b>
<b>Acknowledgments.....</b>	<b>II</b>
<b>Abstract .....</b>	<b>III</b>
<b>Table of Contents .....</b>	<b>IV</b>
<b>List of Abbreviations .....</b>	<b>X</b>
<b>List of Tables .....</b>	<b>XI</b>
<b>List of Figures.....</b>	<b>XII</b>
<b>General Introduction.....</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>1. CHAPTER ONE :.....</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>Basic Definitions and Background on Listening Skill .....</b>	<b>5</b>
1.1. What Is Listening? .....	6
1.2. Models of listening.....	9
1.2.1. Communication Theory Model.....	9
1.2.2. Information Processing Model.....	11
1.2.3. Social/ Contextual Model .....	13
1.2.4. Situated Action Model.....	13
1.3. Types of listening.....	14
1.3.1. One-way Listening .....	14
1.3.2. Two-way Listening .....	16
1.4. Processes of Listening.....	17

1.4.1. Bottom-up Processing .....	18
1.4.2. Top-down Processing .....	19
1.5. Listening Sub-skills.....	20
1.6. Listening Comprehension Strategies.....	24
1.6.1. Meta-cognitive Strategy .....	25
1.6.2. Cognitive Strategy.....	25
1.6.3. Social/affective Strategy.....	26
<b>2. CHAPTER TWO:.....</b>	<b>28</b>
<b>Listening: An Academic Context Perspective (English as a Foreign Language) .....</b>	<b>28</b>
2.1. Role and Importance of Listening in Learning EFL .....	29
2.2. Teaching Listening Comprehension.....	31
2.2.1. Definition of Listening Comprehension .....	31
2.2.2. Listening Comprehension Components.....	32
2.2.3. The Pre-listening Stage.....	33
2.2.4. The While Listening Stage .....	34
2.2.5. The Post Listening Stage .....	34
2.3. Listening comprehension problems .....	37
2.3.1. Problems related to the listener .....	37
2.3.2. Problems related to the message .....	39
2.3.3. Problems related to the speaker.....	42
2.3.4. Problems related to the physical setting .....	43
2.4. Planning a listening lesson .....	43
2.5. Laboratory based teaching.....	45

2.5.1. Language laboratory.....	45
2.5.2. Advantages of language laboratories regarding listening.....	46
2.6. Assessing listening.....	46
2.6.1. Definition of assessment.....	47
2.6.2. Listening assessment.....	48
<b>3. CHAPTER THREE:.....</b>	<b>50</b>
<b>Research Methodology and Design.....</b>	<b>50</b>
3.1. The research design.....	51
3.2. The participants.....	52
3.3. The research instruments.....	52
3.4. The research procedure.....	53
<b>4. CHAPTER FOUR:.....</b>	<b>54</b>
<b>Results.....</b>	<b>54</b>
4.1. Data analysis.....	55
4.1.1. Students' questionnaire analysis.....	55
❖ Students' perception of listening skill.....	55
❖ Teaching listening techniques used in the classroom.....	58
❖ Listening strategies use by students.....	65
❖ Listening difficulties.....	70
4.1.2. Teachers' interview.....	72
❖ The background.....	72
❖ Listening importance.....	73

❖ Teaching listening .....	73
❖ Listening assessment .....	74
❖ Suggestions .....	75
4.2. Data discussion .....	76
4.2.1. Discussion of students and teachers perception of listening importance.....	77
4.2.2. Discussion of students & teachers listening strategies use & awareness.....	78
4.2.3. Discussion of listening difficulties faced by students .....	79
4.3. Pedagogical implications of the study.....	80
4.4. Limitations of the study.....	81
4.5. Suggestions for further research .....	82
<b>General Conclusion .....</b>	<b>83</b>
<b>References.....</b>	<b>85</b>
<b>Appendices.....</b>	<b>88</b>
المخلص .....	91
<b>Résumé.....</b>	<b>92</b>



# List of Abbreviations

---

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ELT: English Language Teaching

LC: Listening Comprehension

L2: Second Language

# List of Tables

---

1. Table 1.1/ Micro Skills Clusters in Listening Comprehension .....	24
2. Table 1.2/ Listening Strategies.....	27
3. Table 2.1/ Early Listening Lessons Format.....	36
4. Table 2.2/ Current Listening Lessons Format.....	36
5. Table 2.3/ Source of Difficulty in S/F Language Listening .....	38
6. Table 2.4/ a General Framework for Planning a Listening Lesson.....	44
7. Table 4.1/ Students' Interest towards Listening Lessons.....	58
8. Table 4.2/ Students' Exposure to English outside the Classroom.....	59
9. Table 4.3/ Audio-visual Aids Use in Teaching Listening.....	60
10. Table 4.4/ Variance of Listening Tasks Used by Teachers.....	61
11. Table 4.5/ Use of Different Listening Material.....	63
12. Table 4.6/ Integration of Informal Language in Listening Material.....	64
13. Table 4.7/ Frequency of Evaluating Students' Listening Comprehension.....	65
14. Table 4.8/ Frequency of Provision of Instructions on "how to listen".....	66
15. Table 4.9/ Meta-cognitive Listening Strategy Use by Students.....	68
16. Table 4.10/ Cognitive Listening Strategy Use by Students.....	69
17. Table 4.11/ Socio-affective Listening Strategy Use by Students.....	71
18. Table 4.12/ Listening Problems Faced by Students.....	73

# List of Figures

---

1. Figure 1.1/ Shannon-Weaver Communication Model.....	9
2. Figure 1.2/ Information Processing Model.....	12
3. Figure 4.1/ Students' Interest towards Listening Lessons.....	58
4. Figure 4.2/ Students' Perception of Listening Skill.....	59
5. Figure 4.3/ Audio-visual Aids Use in Teaching Listening.....	60
6. Figure 4.4/ Variance of Listening Tasks Used by Teachers.....	61
7. Figure 4.5/ Use of Different Listening Material.....	62
8. Figure 4.6/ Integration of Informal Language in Listening Material.....	63
9. Figure 4.7/ Frequency of Evaluating Students' Listening Comprehension.....	64
10. Figure 4.8/ Frequency of Provision of Instructions on "how to listen".....	65
11. Figure 4.9/ Frequency of Teaching Techniques Use in Listening Lessons.....	66
12. Figure 4.10/ Meta-cognitive Listening Strategy Use by Students.....	67
13. Figure 4.11/ Cognitive Listening Strategy Use by Students.....	68
14. Figure 4.12/ Socio-affective Listening Strategy Use by Students.....	70
15. Figure 4.13/ the Use of Listening Strategies Use by Students.....	71
16. Figure 4.14/ Frequency of Facing Listening Problems by students.....	72

## General Introduction

How we acquire a language has always been a question that puzzles linguistics scholars and creates discords in academia. Although it was considered the least important aspect of language learning, in the last few decades theories of language comprehension have recognized the primacy of listening in the comprehension process, the retention of information in mind, and the acquisition of second language competence. Consciously or unconsciously, listening takes up a majority of language input in one's daily life and it usually happens before speaking in second language acquisition.

### *Background of the study*

Like other areas of teaching and learning languages, research has led to some changes in teaching listening comprehension as a component of teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL). There is a growing interest in strategy-based instruction of the four skills, especially the receptive skills, reading and listening. Field (2002) complains that although theories tend to favor strategy-based instruction of listening comprehension, teachers in general still tend to test listening rather than teach it. Field adds that practicing a great deal of listening should be supported by teaching learners "how to listen." Some research has revealed that strategy-based instruction for second language (L2) listening comprehension has benefits for the learner (Thompson & Rubin, as cited by Chamot, 1995). Research has also shown that good listeners use a wide variety of strategies (Goh, 1998; O'Malley, Chamot, & Küpper, 1989). Some scholars such as Mendelsohn (1994), Chamot (1995), Rubin (1995), and Oxford (1990) agree that it is helpful to listeners to be trained in listening strategies because they help them to tackle difficult listening tasks in real life situations.

Although research shows that teaching learners listening comprehension strategies is helpful and incorporating strategy instruction into language courses requires some changes in the design of the particular course, it is unknown what English teachers and students in Algerian secondary schools think about listening comprehension strategies and whether they address those strategies in the classroom or not. Teachers' attitudes toward teaching listening comprehension and the difficulties that students face while listening are also unknown.

#### *Statement of the problem*

According to Rost (1991), listening is an active process that needs special attention in language teaching and learning. Coping with such new perspective of listening requires teachers to develop deeper knowledge about foreign language listening and students' listening development. As a result, this study brings to light some neglected aspects of listening with the aim of highlighting particular problems faced by students. Additionally, as Richards (1996) states, teachers should be at the core of language teaching studies, allowing for the exploration of teaching from the inside. Although it is recognized that the teacher is the key factor in the teaching process, there are few studies on teacher practices in general. Thus, this study focuses on teachers' practices regarding teaching listening generally and listening strategies precisely.

#### *Research questions and hypotheses*

The current study will address the following questions:

1. How do English teachers and students of 3<sup>rd</sup> year secondary school perceive listening importance?
2. To what extent do English teachers and students of 3<sup>rd</sup> year secondary school use listening strategies and are they aware of them?
3. What difficulties are students of 3<sup>rd</sup> year secondary school likely to face?

This study aims to prove or disprove these hypotheses:

1. Teachers and students may perceive listening as an important skill, yet students do not find it interesting because of the teachers' dependence on the rigid instructions and the text book's tedious topics that do not catch students' attention.
2. English teachers do not teach listening strategies, and students use these strategies to a limited extent due to both limited knowledge and awareness about them.
3. Some of the difficulties likely to be faced by students of secondary school 3<sup>rd</sup> year are: unsuccessful vocabulary recognition due to speed of speech, lack of familiarity with casual informal language, and noise.

*Significance of the study*

Listening comprehension as an independent and essential component of language learning has come into focus after a significant debate in the second and foreign language literature about its importance. Nowadays, after the emergence of communicative and strategy-based approaches to language teaching and learning, teaching listening has gained its rightful status, and listening strategies have come into practice. Rost (2002) suggests that listening strategies enable learners to complete tasks which are above their current processing abilities. As a result, this will motivate them to learn more. Thus, teachers should enrich their students' knowledge about listening strategies and encourage them to be as strategic as possible while achieving their language learning goals.

This study surveys teachers and students' perception of listening importance and their awareness and use regarding listening strategies in addition to listening difficulties usually faced by students. The results of this study are meant to show the extent to which listening is valued and whether those strategies are known and used. More precisely, this study provides the English teachers with knowledge needed to make listening more effective in the FL learning process. Furthermore, educational theorists and teacher trainers

may gain insights from the actual practices of teachers and students that will be revealed by this study and compare between theory and practice and question the reasons behind any difference.

Generally, it is hoped that this study will provide a basis for a chain of systematic studies concerning listening comprehension instruction in the educational system in Algeria.

# **1. CHAPTER**

## **ONE :**

# **Basic Definitions and Background on Listening Skill**



This chapter presents information on the theories and research on which the methodology and hypotheses of this study are based. It is divided into six interrelated sections. Section 1 discusses the general definition of listening and its nature and features as a unique skill. Section 2 provides different views describing the models of listening. Then section 3 tackles the types of listening, while section 4 provides an explanation of the listening processes. Later on, section 5 clarifies the different sub-skills integrated in listening. Finally, section 6 introduces the strategies used by listeners in listening comprehension.

### **1.1. What Is Listening?**

Learning a second or foreign language requires the four fundamental skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing which are a set of capabilities that allow a learner to comprehend and produce proper language.

In the early stages, the first language development is dependent on listening where the child is exposed to the language extensively. Similarly, in second or foreign language learning, listening has a very important role. It has been claimed that over 50 percent of the time that students spend functioning in a foreign language will be devoted to listening (Nunan, 1998). Yet, listening is the most overlooked of the four skills.

After being neglected for many years, listening first hit the spot light in the late 1970s when many researchers highlighted its significance. The active nature of the process of listening as a bundle of processes was presented as a new view of this skill opposing the purely passive one where listeners do nothing but register the message they received.

The first attempt in this field was by James Asher's (1977) work on Total Physical Response. His work was based on his observation of children learning their first language; consequently, he noted that children listen a lot before they speak and their listening usually goes hand in hand with physical responses (grabbing, moving, looking ...). Asher

aimed to come up with a method that provides a stress-free atmosphere unlike what language classes were like: anxious, overly self-conscious, and defensive students.

In the Total Physical Response (TPR) classroom, students did a lot of listening and acting directed by the instructions of the teacher who used the imperative mood (commands). This mood made learners relax: *Open the window, Close the door, Pick up the book, Give it to John*, (more complex syntax) *Walk quickly to the door and hit it*, (interrogatives) *Where is the book? Who is John?* (Students pointed to the book or to John); especially that no verbal responses were necessary. As a result, students were at ease to set out verbal responses to questions. However, as any other method, TPR had its limitations; it was highly effective with beginners, but it lost its advantage when learners advanced in their competence.

Postovsky's (1978) Delayed Oral Method also emphasized that there should be a silent period before the production stage in language learning. He found confirming results to this view by comparing two groups of Russian learners. The first group received instruction that required intensive oral production on the part of learners, whereas the second group received intensive exposure to aural materials. At the end of the treatment, the second group performed better than the first one not only on the listening skill, but also on the speaking skill.

Later on, much of second and foreign language literature focused on listening as a major area of concern, and it has been now subjected to research for more than four decades. However, a total agreement on listening definition has never been reached among language researchers.

According to Morley (1972), listening demands a set of abilities. First, the ability to recognize and distinguish between similar speech sounds or words. Second, the ability to identify grammar forms in speech. And finally the ability of holding the information until

the connection between what has been heard and its meaning is constructed. Goss (1982) defined listening as a mental process in which the listeners attempt to construct a meaning out of the information received from the speakers. Thomlison (1984) views listening as the ability to recognize and understand what others are telling (pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, and meaning). Bowen, Madsen, and Hilferty (1985) demonstrated that while listening, listeners pass through two steps to achieve comprehension. First, they separate sounds to form meaningful words. Then, they recognize to which lexical and syntactic unit every sound belongs.

Accordingly, the point that all the previous researchers agreed about was that listening is not a single process but a combination of a number of related processes that require cognitive effort. Researchers exceeded the traditional view of listening -as just receiving the message- to a more complex one where listeners should have a mental ability that allow them to interpret what they hear in the presence of: rich prosody (stress, intonation, rhythm, loudness and more), characteristics of natural fast speech (assimilation), and the frequent need of processing and responding almost immediately. Obviously, reaching the comprehension in our language (mother tongue) also happens after going through the same processes; however, we are not conscious of these processes in our language unlike when listening in the foreign one.

The foundation of the International Listening Association (ILA) in 1979 in Minneapolis, Minnesota, USA by Ralph Galen Nichols (who later was called the 'Father of the Field of Listening' in the USA) , the establishment of the International Journal of Listening in the 1980s, and the acknowledgement of the definition of "listening" in the 1990s(Listening: the process of receiving, constructing meaning from, and responding to spoken and/or nonverbal messages (Purdy & Borisoff, 1997:6)) all indicate the establishment of "listening" as a research field. This field consists of different areas like

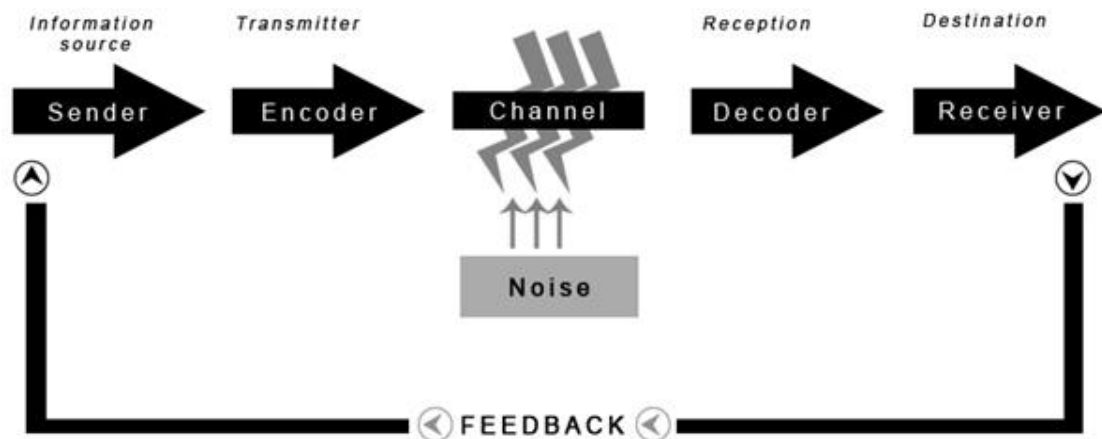
health, business, education, communication and social sciences, with the participation of researchers from a variety of disciplines.

## 1.2. Models of listening

Along the last half-century, many attempts were carried out to explain how people manage to make sense of what they hear. As a result, a number of sequential models of comprehension developed, reflecting contemporary knowledge, concerns, and technology.

### 1.2.1. Communication Theory Model

Communication Theory (CT) or the Mathematical Theory of Communication is a linear model of communication that explains how messages are sent and received. It was presented by the mathematician Claude Shannon and the electrical engineer Warren Weaver in 1948. The Shannon-Weaver model was originally proposed for technological communication, such as through telephone communications, to become more efficient.



**Figure 1:** Shannon-Weaver Model of Communication (Shannon & Weaver, 1949)

However, it has been widely used in multiple different areas of communication. The Shannon-Weaver theory included seven components organized in a linear style:

- The sender (information source): the person (or object, or thing) who has the information to begin with. They decide on the message, to whom, and through which channel. They can send the message in different ways (spoken, written, body language).

- The encoder (transmitter): the machine (or person) which converts the message into signals that can be sent from sender to receiver. Shannon's model was originally created to describe the communication through equipment such as the telephone which encode our words using codes like binary digits or radio waves; however, the encoder can also be a person that turns an idea into spoken words, written words, or sign language to communicate an idea to someone.

- The channel: the medium used to send the message

- Noise: something internal (making a mistake in spelling a word) or external (something out of sender or receiver control impedes the message) interrupts the transmission of the message. This element is crucial to those using this theory in terms of trying to improve the quality of the message through minimizing the causes of noise.

- The decoder (reception): a reverse process of encoding where the signals are converted to a message. Shannon and Weaver made this model in reference to communication that happens through devices like telephones. So, in this model, there usually needs to be a device that decodes a message from binary digits or waves back into a format that can be understood by the receiver. In direct communication between people there may still be a need for decoding. For example, you might need to decode a secret message, turn written words into

something that makes sense in your mind by reading them out loud, or you may need to interpret (decode) the meaning behind a picture that was sent to you.

- The receiver (destination): the end-point of Shannon and Weaver's original linear framework. This is the step where the person finally gets the message, or what was left of it after accounting for noise.
- The feedback: The 'feedback' step was not originally proposed by Shannon and Weaver in 1948. Weaver came up with the feedback step in response to criticism of the linear nature of the approach. It is the response that the receiver gives to the sender to end up the communication.

Despite the fact that CT did not reflect the comprehension of human beings, it stimulated addressing the idea that comprehension "could not be characterized in terms of straightforward reception of a message" (Lynch and Mandelson, 2012: 181). As a result, terms such as: 'transmission', 'signal', 'reception', and 'noise' were used while describing human communication.

### **1.2.2. Information Processing Model**

By the late 1950s, the high development of computing research gave birth to the term of Artificial Intelligence (AI). Eventually, computers became able to perform tasks that require human intelligence (visual perception, translation between languages, speech recognition, and decision-making).

Lead by George A. Miller and Noam Chomsky (1956), cognitive psychologists presented the Information Processing Model (IPM), which is a framework that explains and describes mental processes linking it to how computers work, or in other words using computers as a way of figuring out how the human mind handles information which was known as 'the computer analogy'. Concepts such as: input, output, and processing were

applied on: how the human mind takes in information (input device), how it organizes and stores information (processing unit), and how it retrieves information whenever needed (output device). However, the finite capacity of the human being to attend to complex multiple tasks simultaneously made that last seen as a limited processor.

Donald Broadbent and others in the 1950's adopted a model of the brain as a limited capacity information processing system, through which external input is transmitted as shown in the figure below.



**Figure 2:** Information Processing Model (Donald Broadbent, 1958)

In this model, the input processes are concerned with analyzing the stimuli; while the storage processes cover everything that happens to stimuli internally in the brain and can include coding and manipulation of the stimuli; and the output processes are responsible for preparing an appropriate response to a stimulus.

There are two other models to the Information Processing theory: “Perception, Parsing and Utilization” (Anderson, 1985) and “Identify, Search, File and Use” (Brown, 1995). All the previous models imply stages of understanding; however, the serial nature of them has been a critical point. Taking ‘listening’ as an example, listeners use parallel processing (some or all processes involved in a cognitive task(s) occur at the same time) to achieve real-time processing. This entails using the bottom-up and top-down processes when listening.

### **1.2.3. Social/ Contextual Model**

As a result to the cognitive revolution of the 1960s and opposing the behaviourism views, the social-constructivism view of language hit the spot light. Linguists such as Van Lier (1996) viewed ‘the context’ as a primary factor that affects comprehension; eventually, he emphasized the role of interaction in listening comprehension and argued against the use of computing terms (input, output, processor) because they deny the active nature of the listener in the middle of an interactional space.

In contrast to CT and IPM, the social/ contextual model sees that comprehension occurs in the interactional space between human beings and not just in their individual heads. In other words, comprehension is a process of constructing meanings through communication in a social context. In this concern, the Russian psychologist Lev Vygotsky (1896-1934) introduced constructivism through socio-constructivist perspective where he emphasized that learning in general is based on context through which the interaction with others occurs. Consequently, listening as a means of learning and as a crucial element in communication cannot be extracted of the socio-contextual setting.

### **1.2.4. Situated Action Model**

An alternative to information processing models is a result of the critics of the traditional cognitive sciences that viewed the human mind as a processing mechanism which can be studied in the same way as a machine. Developed by the British anthropologist Lucy Suchman, the Situated Action theory is focused on context and culture, rather than the individual. It argues that humans try to understand with the aim of doing things in particular situations, rather than to archive information in memory (as information processing approaches assume). Stated another way, it puts less emphasis on memory and more emphasis on direct perception and action.



In this model, the daily interaction between humans is oriented towards the future action, for example, *where to shop for fresh food*. More precisely, it argues that knowledge, thinking, and learning are situated (or located) in experience. The importance of context to these theories is paramount, including the unique contribution of the environment to knowledge, thinking, and learning. Applying this view to comprehension, the situated action model states that comprehension occurs associated with understanding the context; in other words, listening comprehension can be successful only when highlighting the importance of context and social interaction as determinants of this comprehension.

The four mentioned models are of a complementary nature and are not mutually exclusive. Thus, when investigating the various tasks of listening, the different elements needed for a successful listening are best explained using a combination of these models.

### **1.3. Types of listening**

After tackling the theories that attempted to explain how people comprehend what they listen to, it is highly important to discuss listening from another perspective which emphasizes the intention of the listener while listening; namely, the types of listening.

As a suitable starting point for dealing with listening types, it is important to consider how listening is generally divided to: One-way listening and two-way listening. These two types intersect with the language functions: ‘transaction’ and ‘interaction’ (Brown and Yule, 1983).

#### **1.3.1. One-way Listening**

The traditional conventional views of listening associate one-way listening with the transactional function of language (linked to the transfer of information), and this can be

seen in the exclusive use of monologues (one speaker uses spoken language for any length of time E.g. speeches, lectures, news broadcasts) in older listening materials while teaching listening to foreign language learners. In fact, this type may be related to first language acquisition; infants cannot talk but during listening, they store the input in their brains, and at the right time, they will speak their first word.

As it is primarily used to acquire information, one-way listening has an important role in English language learning; thus, teachers and material developers may arrange various one-way listening tasks to meet learners' needs and interests. TPR (see page1 'what is listening') is a typical approach to integrate one-way listening in foreign language learning in the way that highlights the active listening without using any communicative response but rather a physical one. This helps students to overcome their anxiety while learning a foreign language.

One-way listening should not be described as a passive attitude because listeners in this type try actively to perceive and interpret the meaning of the aural input, and they are involved in discriminating, identifying, guessing, anticipating, interpreting, and organizing by making use of their prior knowledge and language knowledge and the contextual clues.

Accordingly, in an EFL setting the unidirectional listening can be realized through two methods: intensive and extensive listening.

For intensive listening, students are supposed to understand what they hear completely including every word, sentence, paragraph, and text aiming for the development of a range of listening skills; yet, it poses a high demand on students to work at all levels of language (sounds, words, sentences, paragraphs) which require a considerable cognitive ability and amount of time. As a technique, Harmer (1998) suggests that the best aid for intensive listening in an EFL classroom is audio tape because it allows learners to listen quantitatively and qualitatively as much as the case requires.

As for extensive listening, it occurs in a situation where the teacher encourages students to choose for themselves what they listen to, using their own materials for the purpose of pleasure and language improvement. It usually takes place outside the classroom and it is done for its own sake (self-directed learning), this does not mean that the teacher is not interested in this type at all, but he may be attributed the general guidance in the process. Consequently, different situations require different types of listening; in the classroom situation, students can improve their listening abilities and gain valuable input by being engaged in the listening process through a combination of extensive and intensive listening. (Harmer, 1998)

### **1.3.2. Two-way Listening**

Listening importance in foreign language teaching and learning has been reflected in the shift towards interaction-based acquisition. Two-way listening in contrast to one-way listening is linked to the interactional function of language where the aim is to maintain the social relations. This type of listening is usually termed 'listening and speaking' due to the involvement of dialogue or discussion.

While involved in such type of listening, the likelihood of listeners' ability to resolve problems of the time pressure in processing what is being heard, the requirement to respond appropriately and –very often- immediately, and the risk of misunderstanding the speaker raised the matter of the listeners to be 'entitled' (i.e. having as much importance and attention as a speaker despite the fact that the listener does not produce language yet he is processing it) a in a specific communicative setting. According to Bell's (1984) framework, there are four listeners' roles:

- ❖ Participant: someone who is being spoken to and has the same speaking rights as others present.

- ❖ Addressee: someone who is being spoken to but has limited rights to speak.
- ❖ Auditor: someone who is being spoken to but is not expected to respond.
- ❖ Over-hearer: someone who is not being spoken to and has no right to speak.

Interactive listening is highly communicative, involving interaction with a participant/ speaker. Accordingly, in an EFL setting, a communicative approach to listening attempts to let the learners work out meaning in groups. It allows them to listen collaboratively and figure out the language that they do not know by using the language that they do know. In this way, by incorporating traditional listening and group work activities, they achieve not only listening to an aural text, but also listening to each other.

As a result, achieving a high level of comprehension can occur only by integrating both types of listening where students feel less anxious to be involved in the process of learning via listening.

#### **1.4. Processes of Listening**

Listeners tend to use different methods to comprehend; more precisely, the brain makes meaning out of all the clues available. In the listening comprehension process; listeners need two types of knowledge: linguistic and non- linguistic knowledge. Thus, the schemata of listeners are actively integrated.

A schema is a data structure for showing the general concepts stored in memory; that is, an abstract textual structure used by the listener to understand the discourse. The listener uses linguistic and situational cues to extract schemata; it is then a guiding structure in comprehension where the conformity between the input

and the schemata results in understanding the input. (Pourhosein. A and Banou Sabouri. N, 2016)

Linguistic knowledge is summed up in the structure of a language which groups its terms. It consists of "phonology, lexis, syntax and discourse structure"; while the non-linguistic knowledge contains all the clues that contribute into meaning such as "topic, context, general knowledge about the world and how it works" (Buck, 2001 as cited in Yat-sen. S and Luxin. G, 2017).

As a result, the contribution of the two types of knowledge throughout the different processes of listening is well demonstrated in the following: bottom-up and top-down processing.

#### **1.4.1. Bottom-up Processing**

The language system is constructed in an explicit order from the lowest level (the phoneme) to the highest level (the discourse); accordingly, this view is also applied to listening in the bottom-up processing. In this processing the listener's comprehension is based on processing and sequencing linguistic elements; where phonemic units are connected to form words, words are connected to form phrases, phrases are connected to form sentences, and sentences form complete meaningful text. Put another way, "Listeners assume that acoustic input is first decoded into phonemes, and then this is used to identify individual words, then processing continues on to the next higher stage, the syntactic level followed by an analysis of semantic content to arrive at a literal understanding of the basic linguistic meaning. Finally, the listener interprets that literal meaning in terms of communicative situation to understand what the speaker means" (Buck, 2001, as cited in Yat-sen. S and Luxin. G, 2017)

Listeners, applying this processing, are required to pay attention to every exact data of the input to achieve successful comprehension as Anderson & Mandelson (1988) call it 'listener as a tape recorder'. In other words, listeners construct the meaning from bottom to top using a language-focused listening.

#### **1.4.2. Top-down Processing**

On the other hand, the top-down processing implies the meaning-focused listening where the listeners can understand the meaning of a text without decoding all its elements. This means that they use their: prior knowledge, their content schemata (knowledge of different topics gained from experience), and their rhetorical schemata (knowledge of structure and organization of discourse genres).

In this holistic process, listeners use what they know to predict what the speaker says by formulating hypothesis and confirm, correct or add to them using parts of the message. (Nation, I. S. P and Newton. J, 2009)

In the middle of this processing, listeners actively use some strategies such as predicting and inferencing. Predicting is used when information is partially heard or understood; differently, inferencing is used at a higher level where everything is understood, yet there is meaning to the listening passage that surpasses the comprehension of each of the utterances. This last strategy can be thought of as "listening between the lines" (Lynch & Mandelson, 2010, 185)

As a conclusion, the successful and effective listening comprehension is only achieved by the use of a combination of both processes of listening- which is called the interactive process-; therefore, listeners have to enhance their ability and competency to integrate information gathered via the two.

## 1.5. Listening Sub-skills

With the understanding that listening is not a monolithic skill but a complex of processes, it is logical to consider that achieving listening comprehension requires a number of sub-skills. Not long ago, the notion of sub-skills has gained importance in the field of teaching listening. Through his seminal article, Richards (1983) was among the first to introduce 'listening taxonomies' which he classified into two categories: conversational listening skills (CL) and academic listening skills (AL).

Richards listed **33 micro skills for CL:**

1. Ability to retain chunks of language of different lengths for short periods.
2. ability to discriminate among the distinctive sounds of the target language
3. ability to recognize the stress patterns of words
4. ability to recognize the rhythmic structure of English
5. ability to recognize the functions of stress and intonation to signal the information structure of utterances
6. ability to identify words in stressed and unstressed positions
7. ability to recognize reduced forms of words
8. ability to distinguish word boundaries
9. ability to recognize typical word order patterns in the target language
10. ability to recognize vocabulary used in core conversational topics (high frequency)
11. ability to detect key words (i.e., those which identify topics and propositions)
12. ability to guess the meanings of words from the contexts in which they occur
13. ability to recognize grammatical word classes (parts of speech)
14. ability to recognize major syntactic patterns and devices
15. ability to recognize cohesive devices in spoken discourse
16. ability to recognize elliptical forms of grammatical units and sentences

17. ability to detect sentence constituents
18. ability to distinguish between major and minor constituents
19. ability to detect meanings expressed in differing grammatical forms/sentence types  
(i.e., that a particular meaning may be expressed in different ways)
20. ability to recognize the communicative functions of utterances (speech acts),  
according to situations, participants, goals (pragmatic competence)
21. ability to reconstruct or infer situations, goals, participants, procedures
22. ability to use real world knowledge and experience to work out purposes, goals,  
settings, procedures
23. ability to predict outcomes from events described
24. ability to infer links and connections between events
25. ability to deduce causes and effects from events
26. ability to distinguish between literal and implied meanings
27. ability to identify and reconstruct topics and coherent structure from ongoing  
discourse involving two or more speakers
28. ability to recognize markers of coherence in discourse, and to detect such relations  
as main idea, supporting idea, given information, new information, generalization,  
exemplification
29. ability to process speech at different rates
30. ability to process speech containing pauses, errors, corrections
31. ability to make use of facial, paralinguistic, and other clues to work out meanings
32. ability to adjust listening strategies to different kinds of listener purposes and goals
33. ability to signal comprehension or lack of comprehension, verbally and non-  
verbally.(Richards. 1983: 219-239)

Richards listed **18 micro-skills of AL:**



1. ability to identify purpose and scope of lecture
2. ability to identify topic of lecture and follow topic development
3. ability to identify relationships among units within discourse (e.g., major ideas, generalizations, hypotheses, supporting ideas, examples)
4. ability to identify role of discourse markers in signalling structure of a lecture (e.g., conjunctions, adverbs, gambits, routines)
5. ability to infer relationships (e.g., cause, effect, conclusion)
6. ability to recognize key lexical items related to subject/topic
7. ability to deduce meanings of words from context
8. ability to recognize markers of cohesion
9. ability to recognize function of intonation to signal information structure (e.g., pitch, volume, pace, key)
10. ability to detect attitude of speaker toward subject matter
11. ability to follow different modes of lecturing: spoken, audio, audio-visual
12. ability to follow lecture despite differences in accent and speed
13. familiarity with different styles of lecturing: formal, conversational, read, unplanned
14. familiarity with different registers: written vs. Colloquial
15. ability to recognize irrelevant matter: jokes, digressions, meanderings
16. ability to recognize function of non-verbal cues as markers of emphasis and attitude
17. knowledge of classroom conventions (e.g., turn-taking, clarification requests)
18. ability to recognize instructional learner tasks (e.g., warnings, suggestions, recommendations, advice, instructions) .(Reichards. 1983: 219-239)

Being called taxonomies is an implication that the relationship between the micro-skills is hierarchical; that is to say, the successful use of some depends on the success of

the others; for example, one can hardly deduce the meaning of a word (CL micro-skill 12) until they have distinguished its boundaries, for instance, recognized its phonological form from the rest of the speech stream (CL micro-skill 8). Moreover, CL micro-skills are required for AL, but not vice versa.

Richards' taxonomies were later reshaped by Rost (1990) in 'clusters' where he classified skills into: 'enabling skills' (those used to perceive and interpret what the speaker is saying) and 'enacting skills' (those used to respond appropriately to the message). Rost's clusters of micro-skills are shown in the following Table 1.

The analyses of listening sub-skills have been very beneficial for teachers to distinguish components and types of listening, in addition to highlighting the need for specific abilities while listening. As Rost pointed out, "his proposal for clustered practice reflected wider doubts as to whether learning a complex skill can be effective by step-by-step practice of its components, and whether learners can re-synthesize them in actual use." (Lynch & Mandelson, 2010, 185)

	<b>Perception</b>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Recognizing prominence within utterances, including:</li> <li>▪ Discriminating sounds in words, especially phonemic contrasts</li> <li>▪ Discriminating strong and weak forms, phonetic change at word boundaries</li> <li>▪ Identifying use of stress and pitch (information units, emphasis, etc.)</li> </ul>
<b>Enabling skills</b>	<b>Interpretation</b>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Formulating content sense of an utterance, including</li> <li>▪ Deducing the meaning of unfamiliar words</li> <li>▪ Inferring implicit information</li> <li>▪ Inferring links between propositions</li> <li>▪ Formulating a conceptual framework linking utterances, including</li> <li>▪ Recognizing discourse markers (clarifying, contrasting)</li> <li>▪ Constructing a theme over a stretch of discourse</li> <li>▪ Predicting content</li> <li>▪ Identifying elements that help to form an overall schema</li> <li>▪ Maintaining and updating the context</li> <li>▪ Interpreting (possible) speaker intentions, including</li> <li>▪ Identifying an ‘interpersonal frame’ speaker-to-hearer</li> <li>▪ Monitoring changes in prosody and establishing (in)consistencies</li> <li>▪ Noting contradictions, inadequate information, ambiguities</li> <li>▪ Differentiating between fact and opinion</li> </ul>
<b>Enacting skills</b>	<b>Response</b>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Making an appropriate response (based on 1-4 above), including</li> <li>▪ Selecting key points for the current task</li> <li>▪ Transcoding information into written form (notes)</li> <li>▪ Identifying which points need clarification</li> <li>▪ Integrating information with that from other sources</li> <li>▪ Providing appropriate feedback to the speaker</li> </ul>

**Table 1** Micro-skills clusters in listening comprehension (adapted from Rost 1990: 152-3)

## 1.6. Listening Comprehension Strategies

The research over 1980s and 1990s in strategy use in order to facilitate language learning led to the development of strategy-based approach in language learning. This approach emphasized the processes and actions that are consciously deployed by language learners to help them learn or use a language effectively.

Led by O'Malley and Chamot (1990), the learning strategies were classified into: meta-cognitive, cognitive, and social/affective strategies. More precisely, in listening, a view supported by Vandergrift (1997), people are not aware of how they listen in their first language; therefore, L2 learners need only to make conscious use of the strategies they unconsciously use in their first language.

### **1.6.1. Meta-cognitive Strategy**

The meta-cognitive strategies refer to the actions that learners use consciously while listening to a spoken text attentively. They deal with knowing about learning. For example, for meta-cognitive planning strategies, listeners would clarify the objectives of an anticipated listening activity and attend to particular aspects of the aural language input or situational details that facilitate the comprehension of aural input. In other words, using meta-cognitive strategies is to make a plan for learning, think about the occurring learning process, monitor the production and comprehension dynamically, and evaluate the learning in the end of an activity. Stated another way, meta-cognitive strategies are those used to manage, plan and evaluate the use of cognitive strategy. Baker and Brown (1984) identified two types of meta-cognitive ability: knowledge of cognition (i.e., knowing what) and regulation of cognition (i.e., knowing how). The first type is concerned with the learners' awareness of what is going on, and the second type relates to what learners should do to listen effectively.

### **1.6.2. Cognitive Strategy**

The cognitive strategies are separate learning activities and they are basically activities that are used by learners in order to understand the linguistic input and get knowledge. For example, when a learner finds a difficult word in a text and infers the meaning of that word from the context, in fact he used the cognitive strategy. In addition,

cognitive strategies are problem-solving techniques that learners use to handle the learning tasks and facilitate the acquisition of knowledge or skill.

According to O'Malley and Chamot (1990), cognitive strategies are strategies that "reflect mental manipulation of tasks", such as practicing and analyzing, enable learners to understand and produce new language by many different ways; moreover, there are two types of cognitive strategies mentioned earlier: bottom-up and top-down processes.

### **1.6.3. Social/affective Strategy**

Social/affective strategy refers to strategies that learners use to learn by interaction. Vandergrift (2003) defined socio-affective strategies as the techniques listeners employ to collaborate with others, to verify understanding, or to lower anxiety. **Table2** presents the listening strategies identified by different researchers in L2 contexts:

Cognitive	Meta-cognitive	Social/affective
<p><b>Predicting/ inferencing</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ From the text</li> <li>▪ From the voice</li> <li>▪ From the body language</li> <li>▪ Between discourse parts</li> </ul> <p><b>Elaboration</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• From personal experience</li> <li>• From world knowledge</li> <li>• From academic learning</li> <li>• From imagination</li> </ul> <p><b>Contextualization</b></p> <p><b>Imagery</b></p> <p><b>Summarization</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Mental</li> <li>• Physical (notes)</li> </ul> <p><b>Translation</b></p> <p><b>Repetition</b></p> <p><b>Transfer from other language(s)</b></p> <p><b>Deduction</b></p> <p><b>Fixation</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Stopping to think about spelling</li> <li>• Stopping to think about meaning</li> <li>• Stopping to memorize</li> </ul>	<p><b>Planning</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Advance organization</li> <li>▪ Self-management</li> </ul> <p><b>Comprehension monitoring</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Confirming comprehension</li> <li>• Identifying words not understood</li> </ul> <p><b>Directed attention</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Concentrating</li> <li>• Persevering despite problems</li> </ul> <p><b>Selective attention</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Listening for familiar words</li> <li>• Listening for the overall message</li> <li>• Noticing the information structure</li> <li>• Noticing repetition and reformulation</li> <li>• Listening to specific parts</li> </ul> <p><b>Evaluation</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Checking interpretation against predictions</li> <li>• Checking interpretation against knowledge</li> <li>• Checking interpretation against context</li> </ul>	<p><b>Questioning</b> (two-way tasks)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Asking for clarification</li> <li>▪ Asking for repetition</li> <li>▪ Using comprehension check</li> </ul> <p><b>Cooperation</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Working with other learners</li> </ul> <p><b>Anxiety reduction</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Encouraging yourself</li> <li>• Comparing yourself with others</li> <li>• Focusing on success</li> </ul> <p><b>Relaxation</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Using physical techniques</li> <li>• Using visualization</li> </ul>

**Table 2** listening strategies (based on Goh 2002; Vandergrift 2003; and Yang 2004)

**2. CHAPTER TWO:**

**Listening: An Academic**

**Context Perspective**

**(English as a Foreign**

**Language)**





pass through the silent period where they only store the language before they actually speak.

Additionally, the need to achieve understanding in the classroom setting pushes learners to interact to get access for comprehension. Therefore, listening is considered an impetus, not an obstacle, to learning through interaction.

Moreover, when talking about listening, we address the short-term memory of the human brain. Not surprisingly, in a foreign language, the short-term memory is even shorter; thus, listening is vital to overcome this problem. While listening, the brain processes information through ‘segmenting’ it into small chunks to be stored easily in short-term memory. This segmentation is done based on our knowledge of rules for how the language system is constructed; however, in a foreign language, when we are not familiar with the segmentation rules for how language is spoken, our short-term memory has to store all the words individually which creates an overload on the short-term memory. Consequently, listening helps becoming familiar with those rules, and due to the unconsciousness of learning these rules, getting lots of listening practice is a way of obtaining this familiarity with language segmentation. An illustration to this is a personal experience with Turkish language, where the learning happened unconsciously, not learning only vocabulary, but also segmentation and grammar rules just through an intensive practice of listening.

Furthermore, according to Rost (2001) and Kurita (2012), a major difference between more successful and less successful learners is related to their ability to use listening as an instrument of learning because listening comprehension provides the appropriate situation for the acquisition and expansion of other language skills.

Finally, since listening is used very frequently by learners as a means of learning at all phases of instruction, learners’ self-reliance in it will motivate them to engage into spoken

English. In other words, the exposure to listening provides the anxiety-free setting for learners to learn and prepare them for moving to the next stage of producing the language.

To conclude, “no model of second language acquisition does not avail itself of input in trying to explain how learners create second language grammars.” (Gass, 1997, p. 1)

## **2.2. Teaching Listening Comprehension**

The increased awareness of the importance of listening in learning a second or foreign language paved the way for many improvements in teaching listening. More precisely, teachers are now getting more aware of the stages of a listening lesson; therefore, listening lessons are getting more beneficial and effective.

As a perfect point to start with, we need to clarify what is ‘listening comprehension’ and what are its components, then an explanation of the listening lesson stages is next.

### **2.2.1. Definition of Listening Comprehension**

There are different definitions of the term “listening comprehension.” Listening comprehension is the different processes of understanding the spoken language. These include knowing speech sounds, comprehending the meaning of individual words, and understanding the syntax of sentences (Nadig, 2013as cited in Pourhosein Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2016). According to Hamouda (2013), listening comprehension refers to the understanding of what the listener has heard and it is his/her ability to repeat the text despite the fact that the listener may repeat the sounds without real comprehension. O’Malley, Chamot, and Kupper (1989as cited in Pourhossein Gilakjani & Ahmadi, 2011)said that listening comprehension is an active process in which the listener constructs meaning through using cues from contextual information and from existing knowledge, while relying upon numerous strategic resources to perform the task requirement.

### **2.2.2. Listening Comprehension Components**

According to Chastain (1988), listening comprehension is divided into four components, and reaching comprehension cannot be done except by reaching these four components. The first is the ability to differentiate all sounds, intonation patterns and voice qualities in the second language, and to distinguish between them and the same sounds in the native language.

The second is the understanding of the whole message uttered by a speaker. Rivers (1981) said that the understanding of spoken messages depends on comprehension of semantic meaning, moving from what one comprehends in the sound sequence with respect to the knowledge of syntax only when the meaning is not understandable.

The third is the ability to hold that message in one's auditory memory until it can be processed. To develop the learners' auditory memory, teachers should know that they hear as much language as possible. This means that most of the class time should be carried out in the language being taught, and the speed of presentation and difficulty level of the content must be adjusted to the learners. Furthermore, language activities that are comprehensible increase auditory memory; the significant point here is the idea of improvement from the simpler to the more intricate sentences should be slow and continuous. (Chastain, 1988)

Comprehension is the speech reception at the syntactic, lexical, pragmatic, and discourse levels. Thus the last component is comprehension. It involves different steps. The first step is to establish the context because real language happens within a communicative framework and the listener should know the framework to recreate the speaker's message. The second step is to activate related background knowledge and use it to predict the ideas the message may have. The third step is to anticipate the general content of the message. Skilled listening requires that listeners look ahead in anticipation

of what is coming. They are checking the received material as opposed to trying to make an unexpected and immediate interpretation (Kaspar, 1984). The fourth step is to sample the important meaning carrying components of the material; that is to say, listeners should expend more energy to understand material about unfamiliar topics and they rely more on linguistic clues to make up for their lack of background knowledge. The last step is to use the samples to confirm or reject the formerly made anticipations. When the samples are in line with listeners' anticipations, they accept them as being correct. When the samples do not comply with their anticipations, they should reconsider either their anticipation or the material as they look for making the message meaningful. (Kaspar, 1984)

In conclusion, all what has been mentioned above tackled the process of comprehension within every individual listener; however, the next sections will tackle how teachers manage to guide students to achieve comprehension in the classroom.

### **2.2.3. The Pre-listening Stage**

The importance of pre-listening is manifested in its preparatory nature where the purpose of this stage is to prepare the students for the listening material; more precisely, to provide a general idea about the topic in order to direct students' concentration and cognitive effort toward a specific topic.

Thus, the teacher in this stage is required to stimulate students' schemata by discussing the topic of the listening material and its significance. Some techniques like pre-teaching of vocabulary, prediction or guessing tasks are recommended in such stage.

In other words, the listening process cannot be effective if it was not preceded by some sort of warm-ups that do not just make students ready cognitively, but also make them motivated excited to listen and comprehend the text.

### **2.2.4. The While Listening Stage**

After the students get prepared for the listening, they get exposed to the listening material in this stage. In addition to the cognitive processes that learners go through while listening, a number of activities guided by the teacher are also done in this stage in order to give the opportunity for students to grasp as much as possible from the listening text.

Examples of such activities can be:

- True or false statements to discover the extent of students' comprehension.
- Summarizing the key points got from the listening material.
- Filling in the blanks of pre-handed small paragraphs about the topic.
- Chronological ordering of events already given (unordered) by the teacher.

Each of the previous activities are done in the time of listening to allow the teacher to know the extent to which students comprehend the listening material and eventually decide how many times they need to re-listen and what activities can be done in the next stage to enrich their understanding or overcome their listening problems.

### **2.2.5. The Post Listening Stage**

As mentioned earlier, this stage is meant to highlight the listening difficulties and try to create solutions for them. As a final stage, the activities employed in this phase should develop students' understanding of the topic precisely and develop their listening strategies generally. That is to say, the teacher should devote this stage for more general aims of the listening course.

The activities of post listening should be directed to simulate the productive ability of students where they use the information they receive through listening to produce either a written or spoken form of expression. From another angle, the productivity of students in this last stage is a clear clue for teachers to know how well their students achieve comprehension and what reasons contribute in the lack of it.

Some of the activities that may be included in this stage are:

- Summarizing the whole passage in an accurate paragraph(s).
- Engaging in group discussions about agreement or disagreement on the topic.
- Acting out the listening text (if a conversation or short story)
- Using the new vocabulary in correct well formed sentences.
- Recognizing what were the mistakes that blocked the comprehension in order to avoid them in next courses.

According to John Field (2008), the format of listening lessons has changed over the years. Tables 3 and 4 below show this change:

<b>Pre-listening</b>	Pre-teach vocabulary ‘to ensure maximum understanding’
<b>While listening</b>	Extensive listening followed by general questions on context Intensive listening followed by detailed comprehension questions
<b>Post-listening</b>	Teach any new vocabulary Analyze language (e.g. Why did the speaker use the Present Simple here?) Paused play. Students listen and repeat

**Table 3** early listening lesson formats (adapted from Field (2008))

<b>Pre-listening</b>	Establish context Create motivation for listening Pre-teach only critical vocabulary
<b>Extensive listening</b>	General questions on context and attitude of speakers
<b>Intensive listening</b>	Pre-set questions Intensive listening Checking answers to questions
<b>Post-listening</b>	Functional language in listening passage Learners infer the meaning of unknown words from the sentences Final play; learners look at transcript

**Table 4** Current listening lesson format (adapted from Field (2008))

As tables 3, 4 illustrate, there are three parts in a usual listening lesson: pre-listening, while listening and post-listening. Pre-listening part, which involves tasks such as activating previous knowledge of the learners and teaching vocabulary, prepares students for the tasks that they are going to do while listening (Richards, 2005). When current format of a listening lesson is compared with the early format of a listening lesson, teaching unknown vocabulary items shows difference. Field (2008) presents several reasons for not teaching all unknown words. Firstly, it is time consuming to teach unknown words. Field (2008) argues that the time spent for teaching unknown vocabulary can be used for listening to the text again. Secondly, it is not like real-life listening since students will encounter different words and try to understand them at the time of speaking. Last but not least, by teaching all the words in a text without considering their importance in the text, teachers divert students' attention to form rather than meaning and that is why Field (2008) suggests teaching only critical words which are highly important for students in order to understand the listening text.

In the while-listening part of the lesson, learners do activities such as listening for gist, and sequencing that help them to comprehend the text. Although there are no changes in extensive listening, as can be seen in Table 4, the structure of the activities has been changed by making them more guided in order to help students follow the texts.

The last part of the listening lesson is post-listening, which can be used for practicing the previously learned grammar items. There are many examples of the expressions and language functions in the dialogues that people use in their life such as offering, refusing, apologizing. Since it is difficult to teach these expressions separate from a context, listening passages can be used to draw students' attention to those features during the post-listening part. Also, the post-listening part gives students a chance to state their opinions about a topic. (Yıldırım. S., Yıldırım. Ö, 2016).

### **2.3. Listening comprehension problems**

It has always been an issue for EFL learners to make sense of what they hear in English due to the spoken English features complex. Moreover, studies conducted on listening in the field of foreign language learning revealed that the overemphasis on grammar, vocabulary and reading is the reason why EFL learners have serious problems in listening comprehension.

The problems faced by listeners while trying to comprehend the listening materials in the classroom can be divided into four sections, problems related to the listener, the message, the speaker and the physical setting.

#### **2.3.1. Problems related to the listener**

- **Lack of concentration and attention**

Everyone might lose consciousness even for a brief moment, and this cut in concentration may lead to lack of comprehension. For EFL listeners, it is more likely to



happen because the cut in the flow of information is mostly because of the lack of linguistic or non-linguistic knowledge related to English language.

According to Anderson and Lynch, (1988) reaching a full comprehension of a listening passage requires listeners' attention to every single feature of speech because each one of them provides a single information that contribute in the overall meaning of the text (see table5). The complexity of the spoken English features put a high pressure on the listener; as a result, in almost cases learners "switch off" consciously or unconsciously.

<b>Input characteristics</b>				
<b>language</b>	<b>explicit ness</b>	<b>organiza tion</b>	<b>content</b>	<b>cont ext</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Speech rate.</li> <li>• Unfamiliar accent.</li> <li>• Number of speakers.</li> <li>• Similarity of voices.</li> <li>• Use of less frequent vocabulary.</li> <li>• Grammatical complexity.</li> <li>• Embedded idea units.</li> <li>• Complex pronoun reference.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Implicit ideas.</li> <li>• Lack of redundancy.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Events narrated out of natural time order.</li> <li>• Examples preceding the point they illustrate.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Unfamiliar topics.</li> <li>• Number of things and people referred to.</li> <li>• Unclear indication of the relative importance of protagonists in the text.</li> <li>• Shifting relationships between protagonists.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lack of visual or other support.</li> </ul>

**Table 5** Source of difficulty in S/F language listening (adapted from Buck 2001: 149-151).

- **Lack of prior knowledge and proficiency**

As mentioned earlier, listening comprehension demands the presence of two types of knowledge: the linguistic and the non-linguistic one, and any lack of these will block the process of comprehension.

The non-linguistic lack of knowledge is presented in the absence of reference in schemata which makes it difficult to draw meanings for what we hear. Anderson and

Lynch define this lack as “gaps in our knowledge of L2 culture, of the associations and references available to native users” (Anderson, Lynch, 1988, 35). In other words, having prior knowledge about the target language is crucial in order to understand the different cultural clues by which we reach the whole comprehension of a text.

On the other hand, the lack in linguistic knowledge is what we call the lack of proficiency where students cannot recognize syntactic and lexical units or sentences’ structure which eventually makes them unable to understand the meaning of listening material. The linguistic knowledge is crucial for it is the first step of comprehension stages, as Anderson (1985) clarified; there are three stages of listening comprehension: perceptual processing, parsing, and utilization. First, listeners use their linguistic knowledge to recognize the meaningful units in the flow, and then store these units in short term memory, and finally match the units with their extant knowledge to accomplish comprehension. Beginners will pay more attention to linguistic details, while for listeners with higher language proficiency, the processes gradually become simultaneous and automatic and they will put more effort in the comprehension of the context.

### **2.3.2. Problems related to the message**

Any oral passage as a part of spoken language has different characteristics that strongly influence the processing of speech; so, foreign language learners need to pay special attention to such factors in order to reach comprehension.

Adapted from several sources (Dunkel, 1991; Flowerdew & Miller, 2005; Richards, 1983; Ur, 1984), there are eight factors that are considered as obstacles that make listening difficult for ESL/EFL learners.

- **Clustering**

As language learners associate words with their meanings; later on, they break down speech into groups of words which are called clusters. According to Brown’s

“Teaching by Principles”, clustering helps students pick out and comprehend manageable chunks of words rather than trying to understand an entire passage.

- **Redundancy**

The spoken language is marked by the great amount of redundancy it contains, and it is easily noticed in conversations with the rephrasings, repetitions, elaborations and the use of “I mean” and “you know” within sentences. Listeners may be confused while hearing such repetitions thinking that every new sentence or phrase will necessarily contain new information, yet they will overcome this confusion by training, and will learn to take the advantage of redundancies that provide more time for processing the oral passage.

- **Reduced forms**

In addition to redundancies, the spoken English also contains reduced forms. This reduction can be phonological (“didju?” for “did you”), morphological (contractions: “I’m” for “I am”, “won’t” for “will not”), syntactic (answer ellipsis like “the crossword.” For the question “what have you been trying to accomplish?”), or pragmatic (“Mom! Phone!”)

These types of reduction cause ambiguities for EFL learners who were not used to such forms and were most of the time exposed to the full formal forms of English.

- **Performance variables**

Speakers in unplanned discourse fall in pauses, hesitations, and corrections. Unlike native listeners, who are naturally used from very young ages to exclude such performance variables, EFL listeners lack this ability.

Notice the following excerpt of a sportsman talking about his game:

“But, uh—I also—to go with this of course if you’re playing well—if you’re well then you get uptight about your game. You get keyed up and it’s easy to concentrate. You know

you're playing well and you know . . . in with a chance then it's easier, much easier to—to you know get in there and—and start to . . . you don't have to think about it. I mean it's gotta be automatic.”

Necessarily, learners have to be trained to listen for meaning in the middle of these distracting variables, and to be exposed to such casual speech so that the comprehension process becomes automatic.

- **Colloquial Language**

Being exposed only to standard written English, EFL learners get surprised when dealing with colloquial language that contains: idioms, slangs, reduced forms, cultural clues, etc. Learners must encounter more as much colloquialisms as formal English in order to avoid the confusion and misinterpretation of speech.

- **Rate of delivery**

Unlike reading, when listening learners cannot always stop and re-listen; however, as Jack Richards (1983) points out, the number and length of pauses used by a speaker are more crucial to comprehension than sheer speed. Eventually, the view that native speakers speak too fast is to be coped with after a great deal of training and exposure to casual native language.

- **Stress, rhythm, and intonation**

Classified as a stress-timed language (the interval between two stressed syllables is equal) and opposed to syllable-timed languages, English speech can be hard to either process or produce especially for learners whose mother language is not stress-timed.

In a stress-timed language, the times between each two stressed syllables is generally the same; that would mean also that some syllables would have to be said very quickly if there were several between two stresses, and some would be said slowly if there were few between two stresses.

The product of sentence stress and what happens to the words and sounds between the stresses are what we call the natural rhythm of speech. Additionally, intonation patterns are crucial for identifying questions, sentences, and emphasis as well as understanding indirect messages like: praise, endearment, insult, sarcasm, etc.

- **Interaction**

As clarified in the previous chapter, listening is not a passive process of just receiving a message but a two-way process of receiving the message and giving feedback. Learners need to engage the process of comprehension through interaction; more precisely, “conversation is especially subject to all the rules of interaction: negotiation; clarification, attending signals, turn-taking, topic nomination, maintenance, and termination.” (Brown, 2007)

So, teaching listening must expose students to chains of listening and responding where they negotiate meaning and realise that being good listeners demands to be good responders too.

### **2.3.3. Problems related to the speaker**

In an EFL teaching setting, the speaker is either the teacher or someone in the audio tape, in both cases the language is usually formal English. The lack of exposure to casual daily native speakers’ speech put students into confusion while listening to native speakers and lead to misunderstanding or the whole absence of understanding.

Moreover, a very important factor that influences a great portion of comprehension is the visibility of the speaker; unfortunately, most of the times EFL teachers rely only on audio recordings in their listening courses. The audio recordings deny all the visual features that may add a great deal in the meaning of the text. It is preferable for EFL

learners to replace the audio tapes with videos that include the paralinguistic features that may provide another chance for understanding through non-verbal language.

#### **2.3.4. Problems related to the physical setting**

The physical setting of teaching can directly affect the whole process of learning. The classroom noises whether noise in the recordings or environmental one may prevent the learner to listen well or break down their attention/ concentration. So, the teacher should be very careful when choosing the listening materials in addition to make sure that the equipment is of high quality

#### **2.4. Planning a listening lesson**

The main goal of teaching listening is to enable learners to cope with the natural listening situations that they are most likely to encounter in real life. However, the majority of listening materials provided in the course-book still consists of pre-written discourse, without a visible speaker, followed by comprehension questions. For the sake of overcoming the problems listed earlier, planning is the right path to do so.

A general framework for planning a listening lesson is presented in the following table:

<b>Stages</b>	<b>Steps</b>
Setting the context	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Introducing the theme of the listening topic with one or two general questions that take from 3 to 4 minutes no more.</li> </ul>
Pre-listening task	<p>A warm up for the listening task.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Motivating students by digging to their interests.</li> <li>• Contextualizing: through a prediction task.</li> <li>• Preparing: through introducing vocabulary words.</li> </ul>
1 <sup>st</sup> listening	<p>Listening for the overall picture.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Checking students' previous predictions.</li> <li>• Answering some very simple true/false questions.</li> </ul>
2 <sup>nd</sup> listening	<p>A more detailed understanding of the text.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Answering more detailed questions.</li> <li>• Predict deeper subtle interpretations to the text.</li> <li>• Spend more time on discussion.</li> <li>• A focus on the pronunciation of words that students struggle with.</li> </ul>
Post-listening	<p>The following reaction to the content of the text.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Discussion of agreement or disagreement.</li> <li>• A reuse of the information that have been heard.</li> <li>• A focus on linguistic features of the text (e.g. verb forms from a script of the listening text)</li> </ul>
Follow up	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Switch over to another skill such as speaking or writing.</li> <li>• Ask students to do presentations related to the listening topic.</li> </ul>

**Table 6** A general framework for planning a listening lesson

Eventually, as a result of years of research and practice in teaching listening comprehension, a number of practical principles, that help teachers to create their own techniques and activities, were pointed out by Brown (2007).

1. Include a focus on listening in an integrated-skills course i.e. each skill deserves special focus in appropriate doses.

2. Use techniques that are essentially motivating i.e. take into consideration: the schemata, the experiences, the goals, and the interests of students when designing lessons.

3. Use authentic language and contexts i.e. make students ready to engage in listening activities by using real world situations and casual language to show the relevance of listening lessons to their communicative goals.

4. Attentively consider the form of listeners' responses i.e. because it cannot be externally observed, comprehension can only be inferred

5. Encourage the development of listening strategies i.e. develop students' strategic competence through teaching them 'how to listen' by using listening strategies (see chapter I)

6. Include both bottom-up and top-down techniques i.e. guide students to operate from both directions because both can offer clues to meaning of spoken discourse (see chapter I)

And finally, some other practical tips include:

- Do not just use recordings.
- Use your own talk as a listening material.
- Bring visitors.
- Focus on your reading-aloud skills.
- Make sure to include a varied sample of listening texts.
- Do not overload by asking students to do too much.
- Do not pre-teach too much vocabulary.

## **2.5. Laboratory based teaching**

### **2.5.1. Language laboratory**

Listening is one of the skills that can enormously benefit from technology. The language laboratory is one of the most perfect ways for teaching listening because it covers



all the aspects of teaching such complicated immeasurable skill. Language laboratory can be defined as a space equipped with audio-visual aids for the sake of learning a foreign language.

### **2.5.2. Advantages of language laboratories regarding listening**

This modern teaching material facilitates the process of learning for students and provides a significant source of language input. Among its advantages are the following:

- It is very practical for teachers i.e. it helps them to efficiently exploit time to reach the lesson objectives in an organized manner.
- The use of varied sources of input that include different accents and provide different situations.
- The self evaluation makes students discover their mistakes and correct them themselves which makes the learning more valued and motivating and consequently more effective.
- It facilitates the communication between teacher and students and reduces anxiety among students through the private nature of the learning process.
- The personalized attention that every students get through teacher's check motivates students to learn faster.
- It provides a sense of discretion to the students to decide how many times they need to listen to finally take the responsibility to either understand or discover the difficulties that made understanding impossible.

### **2.6. Assessing listening**

Typically, teachers do some pre-listening and then have students listen to the text and perform a variety of post-listening tasks. Teachers evaluate students' comprehension based on the correctness of their responses and proceed to the next activity. Here, the focus

on the results is implied, that is, the product of listening in the form of correct answers. This approach tests students' listening comprehension, informing them that they failed at certain points, but does little to teach them how to listen, that is, to help them understand what went wrong with their listening and how it could be repaired. The diagnostic approach, on the other hand, allows teachers and students to attend to listening difficulties and practice strategies to diminish them (Field, 2008).

### **2.6.1. Definition of assessment**

Assessment, in education, refers to an ongoing pedagogical process that includes a wide variety of methods or tools that educators use to evaluate, measure, and document the academic readiness, learning progress, skill acquisition, or educational needs of students. It can be informal, that is, unplanned, spontaneous, and without specific scoring or grading formats (e.g. students responses in a listening lesson are implicitly judged by the teacher). It also can be formal which is more deliberate and usually has conventionalized feedback (e.g. tests).

Other assessment types are: formative and summative ones. The formative assessments are in-process evaluations of student learning that are typically administered multiple times during a unit, course, or academic program. The general purpose of formative assessment is to give educators in-process feedback about what students are learning or not learning so that instructional approaches, teaching materials, and academic support can be modified accordingly. Formative assessments are usually not scored or graded, and they may take a variety of forms, from more formal quizzes and assignments to informal questioning techniques and in-class discussions with students.

While the summative assessments are used to evaluate student learning at the conclusion of a specific instructional period—typically at the end of a unit, course, semester, program, or school year. Summative assessments are typically scored and graded

tests, assignments, or projects that are used to determine whether students have learned what they were expected to learn during the defined instructional period.

To sum up, formative assessments are commonly said to be for learning because educators use the results to modify and improve teaching techniques during an instructional period, while summative assessments are said to be of learning because they evaluate academic achievement at the conclusion of an instructional period. Or as assessment expert Paul Black put it, “When the cook tastes the soup, that’s formative assessment; when the customer tastes the soup, that’s summative assessment.” (Buck, 2001)

### **2.6.2. Listening assessment**

Listening is one of the most challenging skills to assess because it is unobservable; in other words, teachers cannot observe or measure the process or the product of listening comprehension, they can only infer in determining comprehension, and that is where the challenge of assessing listening lies in.

According to Brown (2007), the two taxonomies of: types of listening (intensive, extensive, responsive, selective) and micro-/macro-skills of listening are essential to valid and reliable assessment of students’ listening comprehension ability.

The following list of sample tasks provided by Brown (2007) illustrates what assessment tasks, item formats are commonly used at different levels.

#### 1. Intensive listening tasks

- Distinguishing phonemic pairs (*grass-glass; leave-live*)
- Distinguishing morphological pairs (*miss-missed*)
- Distinguishing stress patterns (*I can go; I can’t go*)
- Paraphrase recognition (*I come from Algeria; I am Algerian*)
- Repetition (S repeats a word)

## 2. Responsive listening tasks

- Question (*what time is it?*—multiple choice MC response)
- Question (*what time is it?*—open-ended response)
- Simple discourse sequences (*Hello, Nice weather, Tough test*)

## 3. Selective listening tasks

- Listening cloze (Ss fill in blanks)
- Verbal information transfer (Ss give MC verbal response)
- Picture-cued information transfer (Ss choose a picture)
- Chart completion (Ss fill in a grid)
- Sentence repetition (Ss repeat stimulus sentences)

## 4. Extensive listening tasks

- Dictation (Ss listen [usually 3 times] and write a paragraph)
- Dialogue (Ss hear dialogue—MC comprehension questions)
- Dialogue (Ss hear dialogue—open-ended response)
- Lecture (Ss take notes, summarize, list main points, etc.)
- Interpretive tasks (Ss hear a poem—interpret meaning)
- Stories, narratives (Ss retell a story)

Using the above tasks provide some assessment possibilities in listening comprehension.

**3. CHAPTER**

**THREE:**

**Research**

**Methodology and**

**Design**

The aim of the study is to find out the extent to which listening strategies are taught, and the particular difficulties that students face while listening to English in the classroom. The study also aims to reveal how English teachers perceive the importance of listening in teaching EFL. It is hoped that insights gained about the status of listening and its strategies in teaching EFL will lead to improvements in instructional practices for the benefit of students in the future.

The study addresses the following research questions:

1. How secondary school (3<sup>rd</sup> year) English teachers perceive the importance of listening lessons and what are the techniques they use to teach listening comprehension?
2. To what extent do English teachers teach listening strategies and to what extent do students of secondary school (3<sup>rd</sup> year) use listening strategies and processes, and are they aware of them?
3. What are the difficulties that English students face in listening comprehension lessons?

In this chapter, we present the methodological procedures for this study. First, the research design is explained; then, the participants, the data collection instruments, the data collection procedures are all described.

### **3.1. The research design**

The research study used a descriptive method because it attempts to describe the existing nature of important aspects that occur in the classroom. The research was conducted to investigate the effectiveness of teaching listening attached to whether or not the use of listening strategies is estimated. To achieve this goal, a mixed methods approach was employed, that is a quantitative and qualitative approach. The quantitative approach

was used in students' Likert scale questionnaire about the listening lessons course and its difficulties, while the qualitative approach was employed in teachers' interviews asking them how they manage to: prepare, teach, and assess students' listening skills.

The data from students' answers was statistically and graphically represented, while teachers' answers were clearly stated.

### **3.2. The participants**

A total of 76 students and 4 teachers participated in this study. The students were all from Hakkoumi El-Eid secondary school, 3<sup>rd</sup> year level from all the streams, and the teachers were all the same level English teachers.

### **3.3. The research instruments**

In order to gather data from participants, a survey using Likert scale questionnaires was accomplished, in addition to interviewing teachers using semi-structured interviews.

Students' questionnaire was of Likert-scale type containing 4 points: always, often, rarely, and never; they have the advantage that they do not expect a simple yes/ no answer from the respondent, but rather allow for degrees of opinion which means that the data can be analyzed with relative ease. In addition, offering anonymity on self-administered questionnaires should further reduce social pressure, and thus may likewise reduce social desirability bias. Paulhus (1984) found that more desirable personality characteristics were reported when people were asked to write their names, addresses and telephone numbers on their questionnaire than when they were not told to put identifying information on the questionnaire.

Students' questionnaire contains a total of 20 statements about the topic. These statements focused mainly on the awareness of students towards listening importance and listening strategies. They were also asked about their problems in listening comprehension.

Teachers' interviews were semi-structured in order to get the opportunity to further explore their responses and to discuss comfortably about the topic.

### **3.4. The research procedure**

The procedure to collect the data was divided into five steps.

First, a preliminary survey was done as a start point. This survey was held in all Adrar city secondary schools beside two secondary schools from Saida state; its aim was to prove the hypothesis by which this research started. This hypothesis stated that the majority of 3<sup>rd</sup> year (secondary school) students do not understand much of what their teachers say when they speak in English in the classroom; in other words, students' listening comprehension (after 7 years of studying English at school) is very weak. Indeed, the results of this survey have shown that 86% of the participants do comprehend less than 25% of their teachers' speech.

After that, a written request was handed to first the General Secretary of the Directorate of Education in Adrar, then to the director of Hakkoumi El-Eid secondary school in order to get the permission to conduct the study. After getting the approval, the selected participants received an explanation of the nature of the study and their role in it. They were told that their participation would be helpful in identifying the difficulties they have in listening comprehension and consequently what could be done to overcome these difficulties. Next, the purpose of each question was explained orally to the participants. The last step was to give the questionnaire to the participants and wait the necessary time to collect them.



# 4. CHAPTER

FOUR:

Results.

This chapter is devoted to the results of this study; more precisely, it will state the data analysis accurately in different ways; after that, it will provide interpretations of those findings. Finally, a number of implications of the study will be highlighted in addition to the limitations and suggestions for further research.

#### **4.1. Data analysis**

Data analysis is an important stage of the research process. It is the process of inspecting, transforming and modelling data with a goal of highlighting useful information, suggesting conclusions and supporting decision making. According to Cohen et al (2007), “Data analysis is a body of methods that help to describe facts, detect patterns, develop explanation, and test hypotheses. It is used in all of the sciences”. The data obtained from students’ questionnaire were highly important and enabled the researcher to get a good result of the research problem.

##### **4.1.1. Students’ questionnaire analysis**

###### **❖ Students’ perception of listening skill**

- **The importance of listening**

The students were asked whether listening is important in their learning process or not. The results were that all of them claim that it is important.

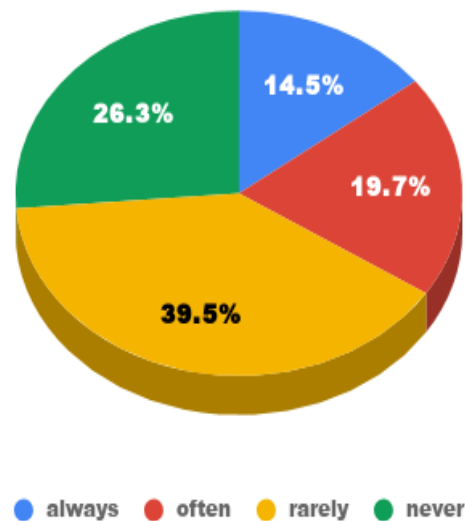
- **Students’ interest towards listening lessons**

The students were asked whether they find listening lessons interesting or not. The results were that only 15% of the population said listening lessons were always interesting, and 20% said they were often interesting, while the majority 39% said they were rarely interesting, followed by 26% who said they were never interesting. These results are shown in the following table and pie chart.

Answers	Frequency	Percentage
Always	11	15%
Often	15	20%
Rarely	30	39%
Never	20	26%
Total	76	100%

**Table 7** students' interest towards listening lessons

**students' interest towards listening lessons**



**Figure 3:** students' interest towards listening lessons

- **Exposure to English listening**

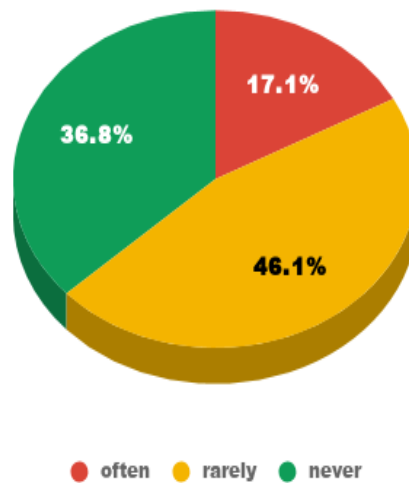
The students were asked whether they listen to English outside the classroom. Not surprisingly, the results have shown that the majority 46% of students rarely listen to English outside the classroom, and 37% never listened to English outside the classroom; while the rest 17% often do.

The results are illustrated in the following table and pie chart:

Answers	Frequency	Percentage
Always	00	00%
Often	13	17%
Rarely	35	46%
Never	28	37%
Total	76	100%

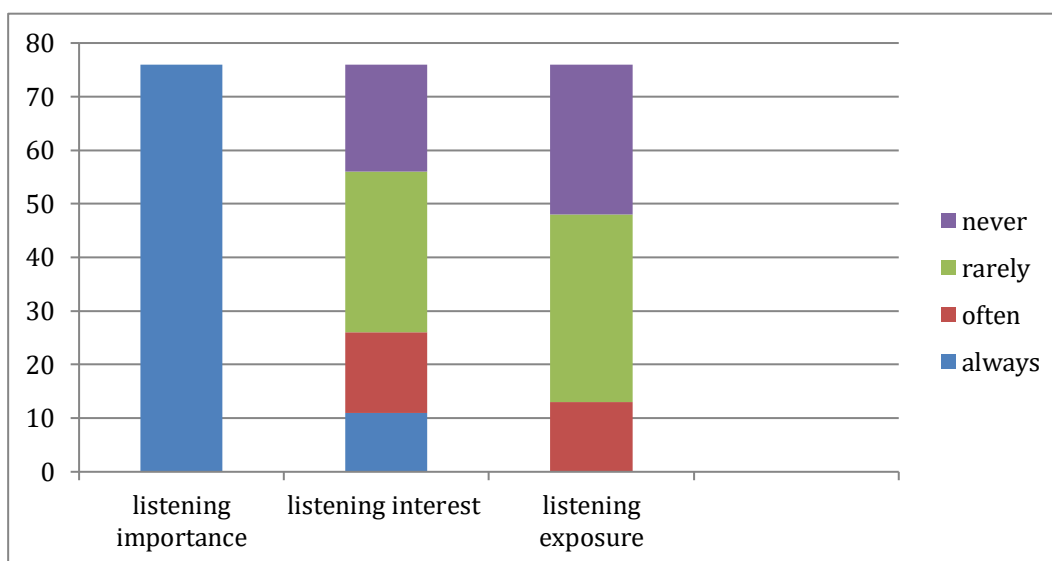
**Table 8** students' exposure to listening to English outside the classroom

**students' exposure to English listening outside the classroom**



**Figure 4:** students' exposure to English listening outside the classroom.

For understanding this section of the questionnaire well, the following diagram represents a combination of the previous data:



**Figure 5:** students' perception of listening skill

### ❖ Teaching listening techniques used in the classroom

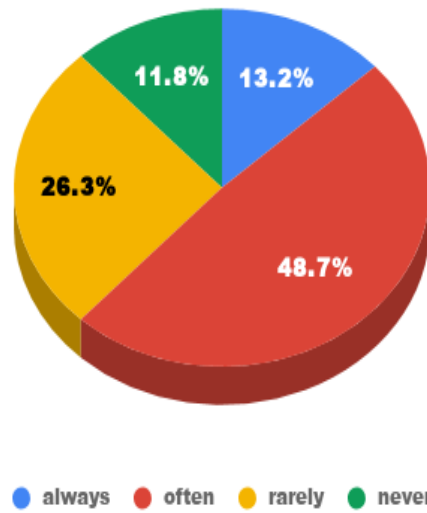
- **Audio-visual aids use:**

The students were asked if their teachers use audio-visual aids in the listening course. The majority 49% of the population claimed that their teachers often use the visual-aids, and 13% said they always use audio-visuales; whereas 26% of students said they were rarely using the aids and just 12% of them said they were never using them. This data is represented in the following table and pie chart:

Answers	Frequency	Percentage
Always	10	13%
Often	37	49%
Rarely	20	26%
Never	09	12%
Total	76	100%

**Table 9** audio-visual aids use in teaching listening.

**Audio-visual aids use in teaching listening**



**Figure 6:** audio-visual aids use in teaching listening in the classroom.

- **Variance of listening tasks in the classroom:**

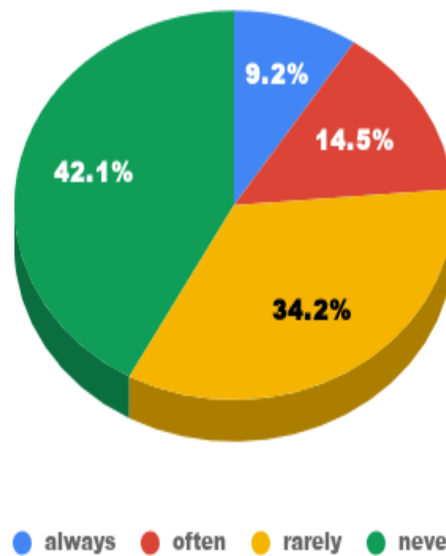
The students were asked if their teachers use different tasks in the listening lesson or they rely on the same tasks each session. The results have revealed that the majority 42% answered that the teachers never use different tasks and they stick to one kind of tasks, and 34% said rarely; while 15% said often and the rest 9% said teachers always use different tasks.

The following table and pie chart represent these answers clearly:

Answers	Frequency	Percentage
Always	07	09%
Often	11	15%
Rarely	26	34%
Never	32	42%
Total	76	100%

**Table 10** variance of listening tasks used by teachers.

### Variance of listening tasks used by teachers



**Figure 7:** use of different tasks in listening lessons.

- **Diversification in the listening material (use of: songs, stories, films scripts)**

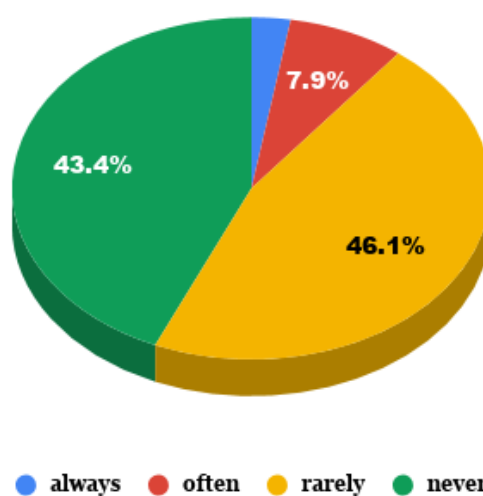
To see if there is diversification in the listening materials, we asked students if their teachers have ever used songs, stories, movies as a listening material. The answers were that 46% of the students said that their teachers rarely use such types of material, and 43% said they never do; on the other hand, 8% said they often use such listening material and only 3% said they always do.

The following table and pie chart show these results:

Answers	Frequency	Percentage
Always	02	03%
Often	06	08%
Rarely	35	46%
Never	33	43%
Total	76	100%

**Table 11** the use of different listening materials.

**The use of different listening material in the classroom**



**Figure 8:** the use of different listening material in the class.

- **Integration of informal language in the listening material**

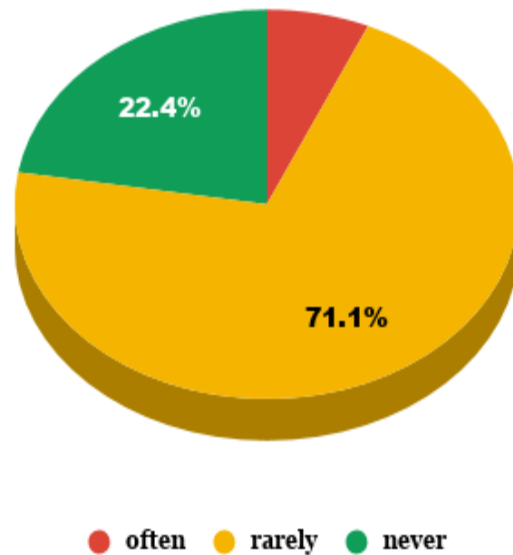
The students were asked whether their teachers integrate informal language in the listening material or not. The wide majority 71% of the students have claimed that their teachers rarely integrate informal language in the listening material, and next is 22% of the students who said that they never do so, while 7% said they often integrate it. The following table and pie chart illustrate this data more clearly:



Answers	Frequency	Percentage
Always	00	00%
Often	05	07%
Rarely	54	71%
Never	17	22%
Total	76	100%

**Table 12** integration of informal language in the listening material

**The integration of informal language in the listening material**



**Figure 9:** frequency of integrating informal language in listening material.

- **Evaluation of students' listening comprehension**

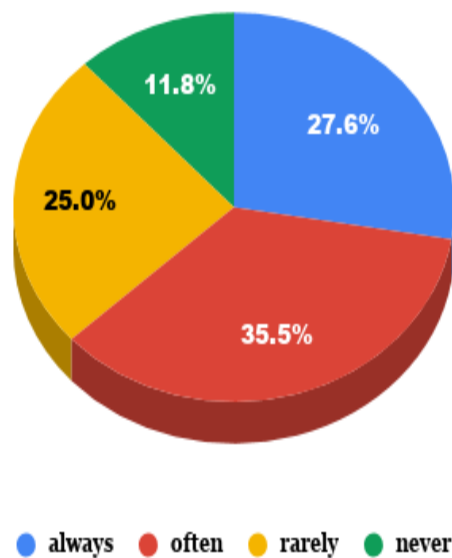
Students were asked if their teachers evaluate their comprehension in the listening lessons. The majority 35% said that teachers often evaluate their comprehension, and 28% said they always do; while 25% said they rarely

evaluate their comprehension and the rest 12% said they never do. The following table and pie chart show these results well:

Answers	Frequency	Percentage
Always	21	28%
Often	27	35%
Rarely	19	25%
Never	09	12%
Total	76	100%

**Table 13** frequency of evaluating students' listening comprehension

**The evaluation of students' listening comprehension**



**Figure 10:** frequency of evaluation students' LC.

- **The provision of instructions on “how to listen” by teachers**

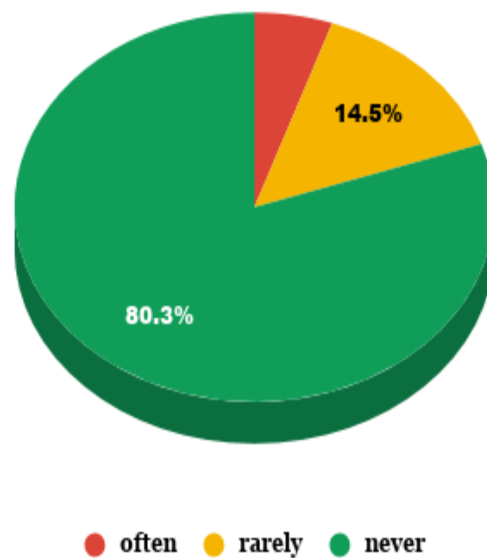
We asked students if they got any instructions about how to listen from their teachers in the listening courses. The results revealed that the overwhelming

majority 80% said their teachers never provide such instructions, and 15% said they rarely do; while the rest 5% said they often do so. The following table and pie chart represent these answers:

Answers	Frequency	Percentage
Always	00	00%
Often	04	05%
Rarely	11	15%
Never	61	80%
Total	76	100%

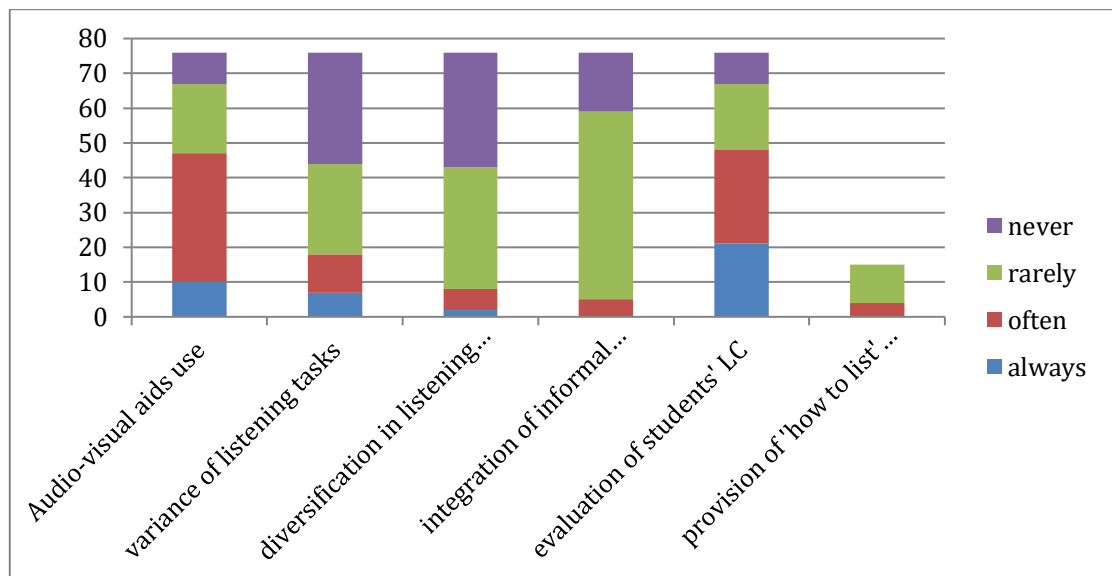
**Table 14** frequency of the provision of instructions on “how to listen”

**The provision of instructions on "how to listen" by teachers**



**Figure 11:** the frequency of providing instructions on “how to listen”

The following diagram illustrates this section clearly:



**Figure 12:** frequency of teaching techniques use in a listening lesson.

### ❖ Listening strategies use by students

To discover whether students do use listening strategies (even if they are not aware of them) we asked them a couple of questions related to each strategy.

#### • Meta-cognitive strategies use

For the meta-cognitive strategies, we presented them the following two statements:

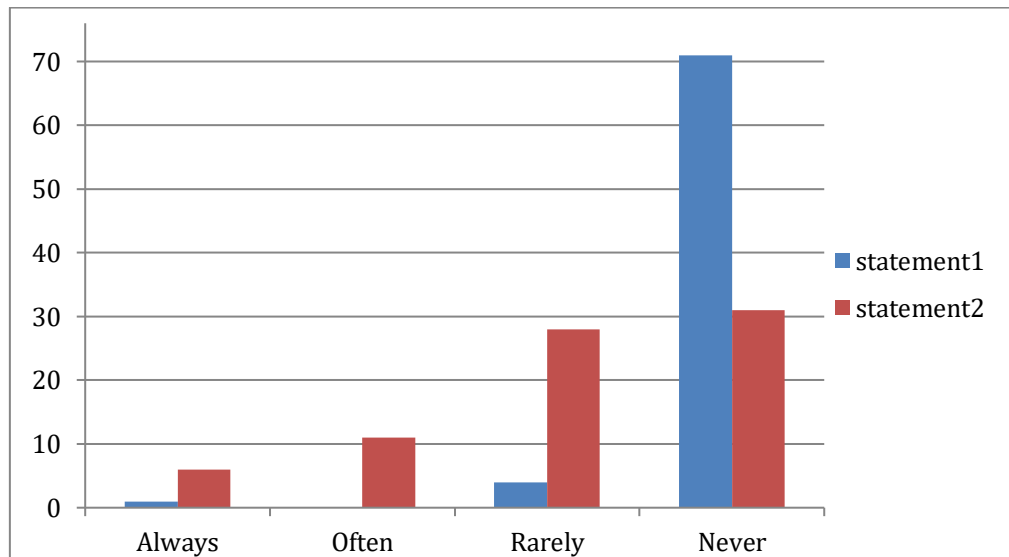
- 1) “Before listening, I have a plan on how to listen in my head”. The results were that almost all of the students 94% never had a plan about how to listen beforehand, and 5% rarely did; while only 1% always had a plan.
- 2) “When listening I have an objective in my head for listening”. The results were that the majority 41% said they never have an objective for listening in their heads, and 37% of them said they rarely do; whereas

14% said they often have objectives of listening, and 8% claimed they always do.

The following table and diagram better show this data:

Answers	Statement 1)		Statement 2)	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Always	01	01%	06	08%
Often	00	00%	11	14%
Rarely	04	05%	28	37%
Never	71	94%	31	41%
Total	76	100%	76	100%

**Table 15** meta-cognitive listening strategy use by students (statement1&2)



**Figure 13:** data of both statements on meta-cognitive use.

- **Cognitive strategies use**

For the cognitive strategies, we presented the following three statements:

- 1) “While listening, when I do not understand a word I infer its meaning from the context”. The results revealed that the majority (51% ) of the students always do this strategy and 26% of them often do it; 15% of the students

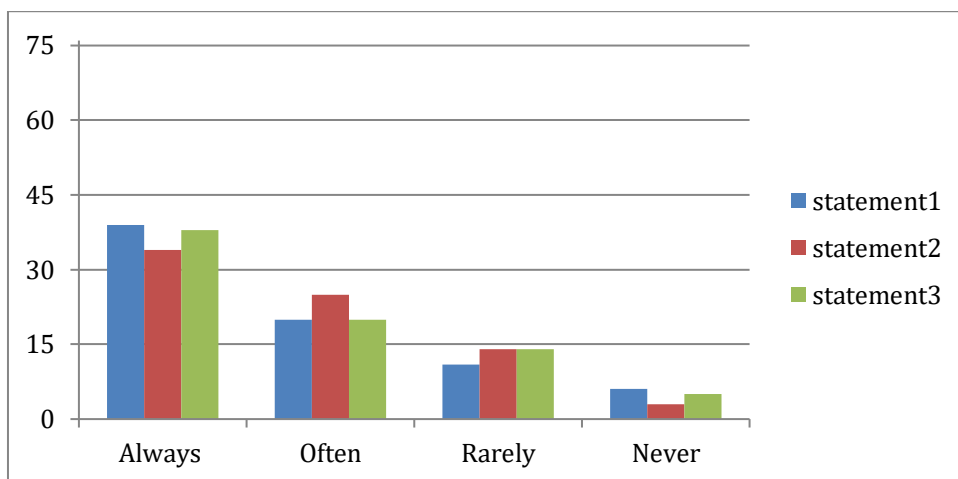
said they rarely use this strategy to achieve comprehension, while 8% never use it.

- 2) “When listening, I focus on the meaning of every word to understand the whole text”. The data collected revealed that 45% of students always focus on every word’s meaning, and 33% of them often do this; whereas 18% of them rarely do this strategy, and only 4% of them never use it.
  
- 3) “I use my knowledge and personal experience to help me understand the topic”. The students’ answers were that half of the participants 50% said they always use this technique, and 26% of them said they often do; while 19% said they rarely use such strategy, and the left 5% said they never do so.

The following table and diagram better illustrate these results:

Answers	Statement 1)		Statement 2)		Statement 3)	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Always	39	51%	34	45%	38	50%
Often	20	26%	25	33%	20	26%
Rarely	11	15%	14	18%	14	19%
Never	06	08%	03	4%	04	05%
Total	76	100%	76	100%	76	100%

**Table 16** the cognitive listening strategy use by students (statements 1, 2, 3)



**Figure 14:** frequency of listening cognitive strategies use

- **Socio-affective strategies use**

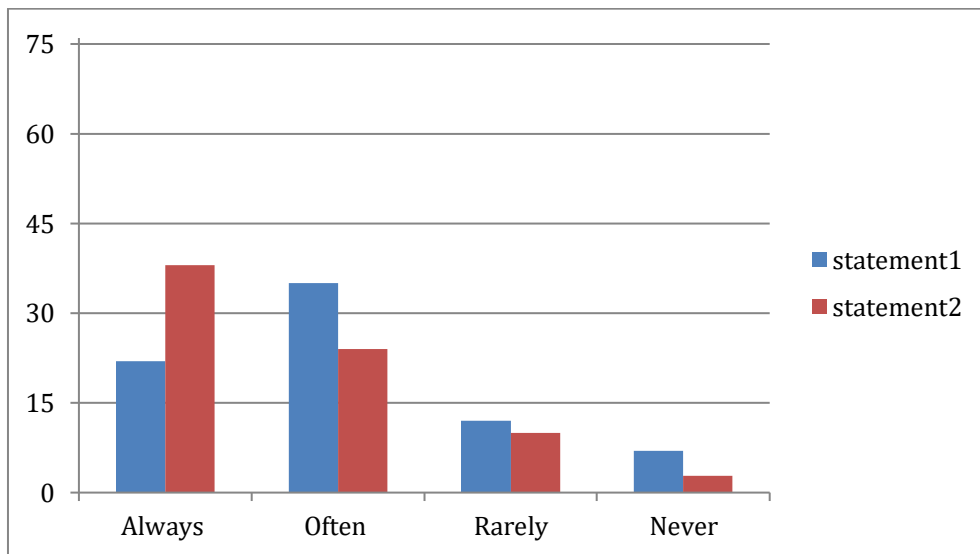
For socio-affective strategies, the following two statements were designed:

- 1) “I try not to feel nervous or anxious when I listen to English in the classroom”. 46% of the students said they rarely try to do so, and 29% of them said they always do; while 16% said they rarely try to do so, and 9% never do it.
- 2) “I verify my understanding with other students”. 50% of the population claimed that they always check their understanding with others, and 32% said they often do this; while 13% said they rarely use this technique, and only 5% never do this.

The following table and diagram sum the data related to this listening strategy:

Answers	Statement 1)		Statement 2)	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Always	22	29%	38	50%
Often	35	46%	24	32%
Rarely	12	16%	10	13%
Never	07	09%	04	05%
Total	76	100%	76	100%

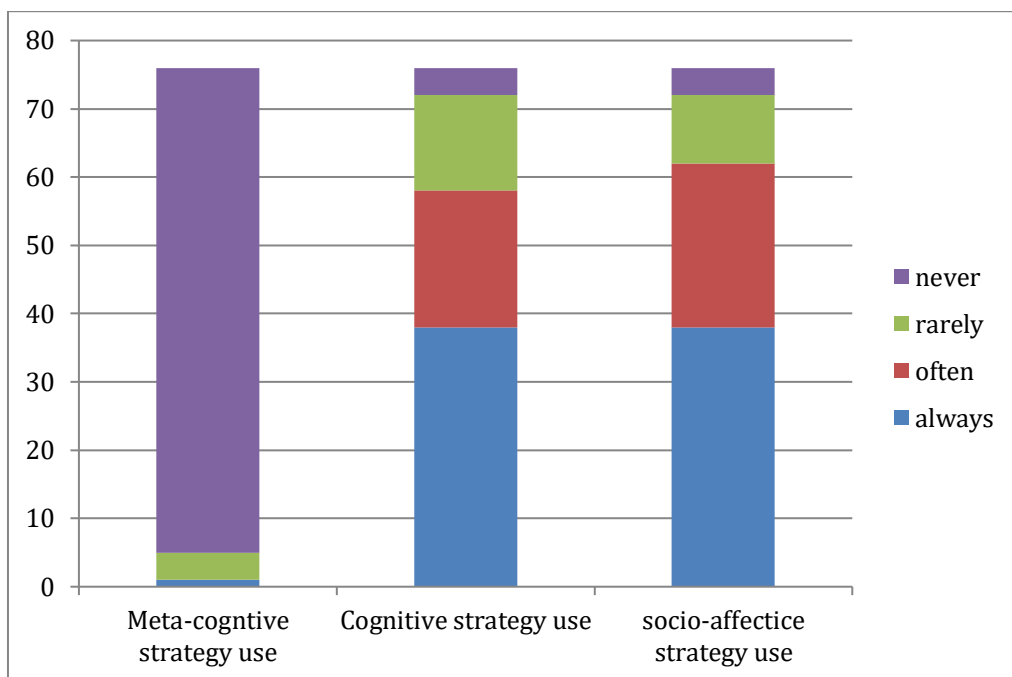
**Table 17** frequency of socio-affective listening strategy use



**Figure 15:** frequency of socio-affective listening strategy use

The following diagram illustrates the use of the three strategies by students:





**Figure 16:** the use of the listening strategies by students

As we notice in the diagram, the students tend to use both the cognitive and the socio-affective listening strategies to achieve comprehension; however, the meta-cognitive strategies are never or very rarely used.

### ❖ Listening difficulties

- **Speech delivery rate**

“When listening, speakers talking so fast make it difficult for me to understand”. Students’ majority 50% said this often happens to them, and 38% said this always happens to them when listening; while 8% said this is rare to happen and 4% said this never happened with them.

- **Speakers’ invisibility**

“When listening, because the speaker is invisible, it is it difficult for me to understand”. The results were that 64% claimed that this is always the reason why

they do not understand, and 17% said this is often the reason; while 10% said it was rarely the reason, and 9% said it never was the reason of their lack of comprehension.

- **Redundancy**

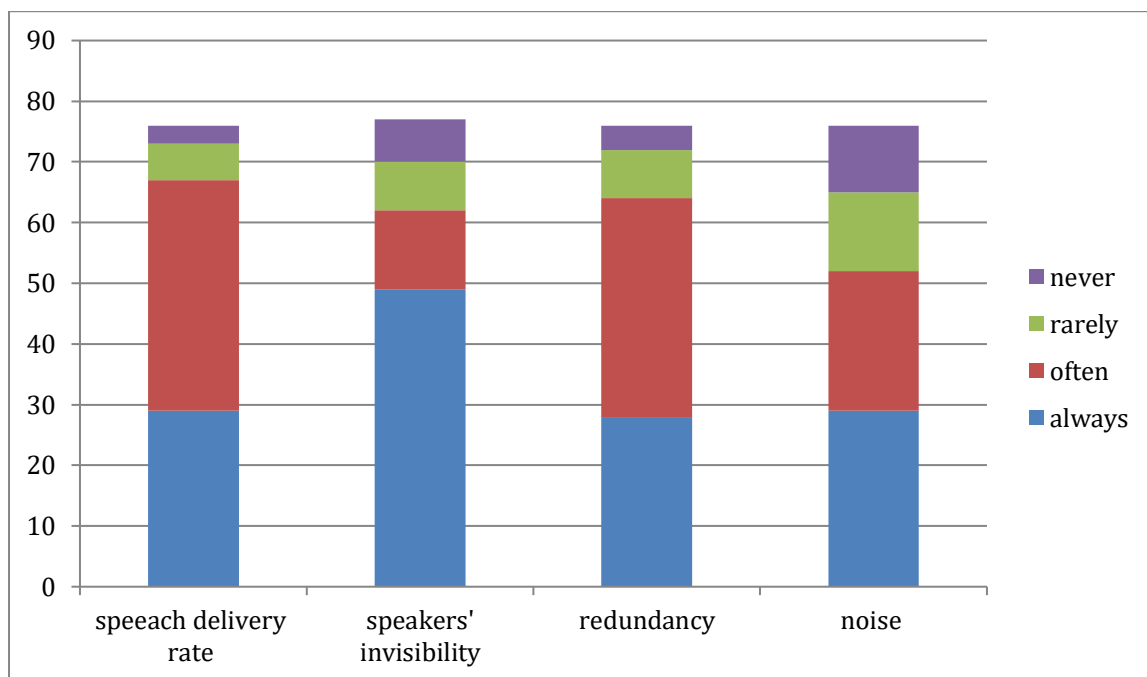
“When listening, due to much repeated words, I get confused about the meaning of text”. Students’ answers showed that 47% of them often get confused because of redundancy, and 37% always do; whereas 11% rarely get confused with redundancy, and 5% never do.

- **Noise**

“When listening, the noise existing in the classroom or in the material itself makes it hard for me to focus; therefore, I do not fully comprehend the text”. The results revealed that 38% of the students always face this problem, and 30% often do; while 17% rarely face this issue, and 15% never do.

Answers	Speech delivery rate		Speakers’ invisibility		Redundancy		Noise	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Always	29	38%	49	64%	28	37%	29	38%
Often	38	50%	13	17%	36	47%	23	30%
Rarely	06	08%	08	10%	08	11%	13	17%
Never	03	04%	07	09%	04	05%	11	15%
Total	76	100%	76	100%	76	100%	76	100%

**Table 18** the listening problems faced by students



**Figure 17:** frequency of facing listening problems by students.

#### **4.1.2. Teachers' interview**

The interview was the second research tool used in this work to gather data about teaching listening comprehension and its effectiveness in line with using listening strategies. Throughout the interviews, the researcher wanted to find out if the listening skill is given the importance it deserves or it is neglected in the teaching process, and how teachers deal with this basic skill.

The interview mainly consisted of four parts; each part needed at least two questions to deeply understand teachers' opinions.

##### **❖ The background**

Teachers were asked about the time they have spent teaching English; answers were distinct where two of them have been teaching English for 11 years, one for 8 years, and the last for 1 year. Certainly, the diversity in teachers' experiences will add more value to interviews' results.

The researcher later asked the teachers whether they received any training regarding teaching listening. All answers were negative; none of the teachers received training of teaching listening.

#### ❖ **Listening importance**

We asked the interviewees if they consider listening an important skill that enhances students English. All of them strongly agreed using “certainly, absolutely, of course”, and when asked why, three of them said: “because you cannot learn a language if you are not exposed to it”, and the last teacher claimed that “listening teaches them how to pronounce well and stimulate their thinking capacity”

#### ❖ **Teaching listening**

Teachers were asked about their methods and techniques in teaching listening starting from the preparation stage, teaching stage, to the assessment. All of them claimed that preparing for a listening lesson always takes them about one hour to two hours; while the listening lessons topics are decided usually by following the program.

After that, teachers were asked if they had any idea about listening strategies, and as assumed none of them ever heard of it. More specific question was posed next: “do you give any instructions on ‘how to listen’ to your students?” the answers were:

- “yes, I ask them to take notes, or to focus on the main idea”
- “yes, I always ask them to listen for gist”
- “No, I just ask them to concentrate very well to be able to answer the questions after listening”
- “No, I do not”

To highlight a crucial aspect that is usually overlooked, the researcher asked the teachers whether they integrated the informal casual language in their listening materials. Their responses were all negative, and when asked about the reason behind this, two of them claimed that this was not in the program, while one of them said it may not be helpful for the learners because they needed to learn formal English, and the last one justified this saying that students may get confused when hearing informal language.

When we asked teachers about students' interest towards listening lessons, they responded claiming that they feel that students get bored because the topics do not interest them.

Later, we asked teachers if they provide the chance for interaction among students themselves after listening; their answers were all positive.

We also asked them if they give the students the chance to choose the listening topic; their responses were all negative!

After that, teachers were asked whether the school in which they work provides the material necessary for the listening course; all answers were negative. Then we asked them what material they use; their answers were "my own PC and speakers"

#### ❖ **Listening assessment**

Teachers were asked how they assess students in a listening lesson; their answers were:

- Doing comprehension tasks.
- Answering comprehension questions.
- Summarizing.

We also asked them how well students comprehend the listening text; their answers were:

- So limited.
- Not so much.
- Less than the half of it.
- Not very well.

When asked “why?” teachers responses were all pointing that students do not care about listening and consider it additional. Teachers also claimed that students give more importance to grammar lessons because the exam will not contain any listening tasks.

#### ❖ **Suggestions**

Teachers’ suggestions were as follow:

- Integrate more interesting topics in the program.
- Give listening value by passing a listening test each trimester.

As a result, the researcher grasped from all the interviews that the listening skill is almost neglected despite the awareness of its importance; thus, teachers after a period of 11 years still have the same problems regarding listening course. In other words, as long as listening is neglected, students will always face the same problems and their learning process will always be obstructed.

### **5.1. Conclusion**

This chapter has presented the findings of the analysis of data obtained from students’ questionnaires and teachers' interviews about their practices and perceptions regarding listening and its strategies, and the difficulties likely

to arise in English listening comprehension lessons. The results reveal that unlike meta-cognitive strategies, cognitive and socio-affective strategies are to some extent used by students and teachers. Yet, both students and teachers are not really aware of these strategies and their effectiveness in listening comprehension. Furthermore, the real perception of listening as a crucial skill is still absent among students due to the least attention paid either by teachers or by students themselves to listening. This negligence of listening is the main reason behind the existence of the same problems for years among students.

In the next section, the findings of this study will be discussed. It will also reveal implications and limitations of the study and suggestions for future research.

#### **4.2. Data discussion**

In this section, to be more accurate in our investigation, we are going to discuss the questionnaire analysis and the interviews data and to support our research with some suggestions that may solve teaching listening problems and contribute in the improvement of students' listening skills and hence their English.

This study investigated the effectiveness of teaching listening comprehension in line with listening strategies awareness and use among EFL learners, and the problems likely to arise in the listening comprehension lessons. The study was motivated by previous findings showing that proficient listeners use more strategies than less proficient listeners (e.g. O'Malley, 1989). The study was, therefore, an attempt to: first, find out how students perceive listening importance; second, whether teachers and students are aware of such strategies or not.

#### **4.2.1. Discussion of students and teachers perception of listening importance**

There is no doubt among teachers and students that listening is important in foreign language learning; however, this skill is almost neglected in the classroom because of the lack of motivation and enticement towards listening. As shown in the data analysis section, 66% of the students rarely or never find listening lessons interesting which justifies why listening is neglected. This neglect is also demonstrated in the practice of listening to English outside the classroom with 83% of the students rarely or never do so. Moreover, as clarified in the data analysis, 76% of the students claimed that their teachers rarely or never use different tasks which mean that along the whole year the teachers stick to one kind of tasks and this of course will lead students to get bored with the listening lessons sooner or later. Additionally, 89% of the students revealed that teachers never vary listening material (e.g. songs, stories, films scripts) which can be used to attract learners' attention and concentration and get rid of the boring fixed nature of listening materials. Finally, 93% of the students stated that teachers rarely or never integrate informal casual speech in listening material. As a result, the absence of real-life situations simulation does not provide the authentic nature to listening materials for students, thus, students (consciously or unconsciously) think that the listening lessons are useless i.e. they do not know what the objective behind having these lessons is which eventually makes them lose the interest in such lessons.

Teachers added that the reason behind students' carelessness towards listening is the poorly chosen topics which make them bored and do not attract their attention; besides, they know that listening is important but they do not really know why they should give listening importance or why they should make efforts to improve their listening skill.



Consequently, the results support our first hypothesis; indeed, teachers and students perceive listening as an important skill, yet students do not find it interesting because of the teachers' dependence on the rigid instructions and the text book's tedious topics that do not catch students' attention in addition to students ignorance of the objectives of listening lessons and their implications in real life.

#### **4.2.2. Discussion of students and teachers listening strategies use and awareness**

Data analysis has revealed many aspects of this part of the investigation. To measure teachers and students awareness of listening strategies, they were asked if they have any sort of knowledge about them. Surprisingly, all the teachers participated in the study (who have a great deal of experience on the field) have no clue what are listening strategies. Obviously, teachers focus on grammar and vocabulary lessons; so, they do not really spend time on enriching their knowledge about teaching listening.

When asked about the instruction they provide on "how to listen" in the classroom, teachers' instructions were so simple and random because they are not based on a theoretical background of listening strategies.

Concerning students, they were asked indirectly about using listening strategies through a numbers of statements that express some techniques of these strategies. The results were that our participants tend to some extent to use cognitive and socio-affective listening strategies, while they do not have this tendency towards meta-cognitive strategies. 58% of students always or often use some cognitive strategies versus 42% who do not, and 59% of them always or often use some socio-affective strategies versus 41% who do not. While 75% of them never or rarely use meta-cognitive strategies. The tendency towards cognitive and socio-affective strategies use shows that students have the problem solving way of thinking; however, they are not well informed or taught how to improve it. On the

other hand, the absence of meta-cognitive strategies use is naturally due to the lack of strategy-based learning awareness. Moreover, according to O'Malley (1989), proficient listeners use more meta-cognitive strategies than less proficient listeners.

Our second hypothesis was proven. Truly, English teachers do not teach listening strategies, and students use these strategies to a limited extent due to both limited knowledge and awareness about them.

### **4.2.3. Discussion of listening difficulties faced by students**

The results revealed that students do find listening comprehension difficult. 88% of the students always or often find that speech delivery rate form a problem while listening; they all find speakers in the listening material talking fast. This ensures that students were not exposed enough to the fast speech patterns and casual language to be able to recognize vocabulary and comprehend the text. Furthermore, 81% of the participants find the invisibility of the speaker in the listening material the reason of listening comprehension difficulty. As mentioned in the previous chapter, the speaker's invisibility hides the paralinguistic clues of speech which deprives a great portion of comprehension; still, there are many ways to overcome this problem (see previous chapter).

One other difficulty is the confusion that redundancy cause when listening. 84% of the students get lost when they hear a number of repeated words in the same listening text. Generally speaking, redundancies are a part of the casual speech; therefore, this confusion occurs only because students are not used to hear such kind of speech. When we asked teachers why they do not integrate such kind of speech they answered that it is not helpful; however, the results show the opposite.

The last problem we examined with students was noise. Results revealed that 68% of the students usually cannot focus because of noise existing either in the classroom or in the listening material itself. When asked about the equipment used in the listening course,

the teachers claimed that the school they work in do not provide them with the necessary material; so, teachers are obliged to provide the equipment by themselves. The inability of teachers to provide high quality equipments for the listening lessons is the reason why students struggle to focus while listening; yet, teachers are not the one to blame because this is the school's duty. Speaking about the setting noise, teachers need to prepare the setting for the listening process by controlling students' noise; however, noise can occur outside the classroom and affect students' concentration.

### **4.3. Pedagogical implications of the study**

The current study focused on an important part of the EFL teaching process which is the teaching of listening comprehension; therefore, it offers a number of implications for classroom teaching. First, as revealed by the results, the participants (students & teachers) of this study were not familiar with the listening strategies; this might be a reflection of a lack of the theoretical knowledge about listening strategies instructions and use.

Consequently, program designers should include units targeting these strategies and how they help in listening comprehension in listening courses. Moreover, teacher trainers should offer listening strategy instructions training. As mentioned by Mendelsohn (1995), strategy-based instruction should be considered as a whole rather than in discrete pieces. Therefore, increasing teachers' awareness about these missing strategies may only be possible by providing them with extensive strategy-based listening instruction training.

The results also showed that students' carelessness in listening lessons is due to their ignorance of the purpose behind having such lessons and their implications to real life settings. Therefore, teachers should always highlight the purpose behind every listening course, and use more authentic listening materials in addition to using diverse listening texts and tasks in order to avoid boredom.

The study then revealed that students, after 7 years of having listening courses, still face a number of difficulties while listening, speech delivery rate, speakers' invisibility, redundancy, and noise are some of these difficulties. Thus, students should be more exposed to casual language to get used to its features. Furthermore, teachers should use visual aids to cover the paralinguistic features of speech, and the educational institutions should provide equipment for this reason.

Additionally, as mentioned in the previous chapter, language laboratories are very beneficial in teaching listening; so, if listening is truly valued, such laboratories are crucial for the learning process at the early stages of English learning. Algerian ministry of education should think seriously about this recommendation because the most frequent problems in the learning of foreign languages are on the level of communication; therefore, providing learners with such laboratories in the middle school level is a very useful addition that will enhance the forming of input of EFL which later will enhance the communicative competence of learners.

#### **4.4. Limitations of the study**

This study had a number of limitations that could have contributed in a way or another in the results. First, the sample of this research was the 3<sup>rd</sup> year of Hakkoumi EL-Eid secondary school students and teachers; although it is possible to get a general picture of the present situation of listening strategy instruction and the difficulties likely to arise in listening comprehension lessons, the results of the study cannot be generalized to other secondary schools all-over Algeria.

Second, the study employed only a questionnaire as a data collection tool for students which means that students' answers were not confirmed by any other means (observation/ listening test) because of the country health status in the pandemic period that caused a shortage in time.

Third, the study was intended to survey all the secondary schools in Adrar; however, the permission approval process has been a serious problem for accomplishing this goal, so the decision makers should consider the facilitation of this process to help researchers conduct studies that contribute to enhancing foreign languages learning process.

#### **4.5. Suggestions for further research**

The initial motivation of this study was the lack of research carried out on listening teaching and listening strategies; hence, it is necessary to conduct further studies related to this area of research. A comparing study to the current one might be a good option to offer a more general picture on teaching listening comprehension in Algeria. The same study could also be expanded to include a wider variety of data-collection devices or participants. In addition, classroom observations would be useful to investigate whether the participants actually use the strategies that they report using in listening course. It is also necessary to find out the perceptions of other parties like program administrators and coordinators, curriculum developers, materials developers, and teacher trainers concerning the same questions. Moreover, future research might compare the situation of listening strategy instruction beforehand after providing training on listening strategy instruction to teachers (if achieved). Finally, teaching listening is a broad area of research that needs to be investigated; some of these aspects were briefly mentioned in chapter II and need to be broadened and examined.

## **General Conclusion**

In our mother tongue acquisition, we spent much of our early time as children listening to the language produced by our family members. In the foreign language learning scope, listening is also the first step to be taken because only through listening we can get the FL input to eventually produce this language. However, the literature tackling this aspect of FL learning was lacking until recently.

This work was done to highlight the importance and significance of listening in learning English as a foreign language and to provide possible ways that make teaching listening more effective and useful. In the theoretical part of this work, the relevant literature was considered. The first chapter of this dissertation provided a detailed discussion of listening by tackling its importance, its models, its types, its sub-skills, its processes, and its strategies. The second chapter was devoted to listening in the academic setting highlighting all the different stages of conducting a listening lesson.

In the practical part, the analysis of students' questionnaire and teachers' interview was carried out in addition to the study results and discussion. The findings elicited from the research questions provide an overall picture on how listening is perceived and implemented in the classroom. In light of the study results and the readings done to enrich this work, we can conclude that our research questions were fully answered, yet the conclusions cannot be generalized until further researches are accomplished.

Through this work, we highlighted neglected aspects of teaching listening that deeply affect the English learning process, and directed the attention to such aspects for further research and for decision makers to change what need to be changed regarding teaching listening in the Algerian system of education because we truly believe that as listening is vital in daily life it is vital in language learning too; in other words, "the most

basic of human needs is the need to understand and be understood, and the best way to understand people is to listen to them.” (Ralph.G.Nichols,1980, p.2)

## References

- Anderson, A. & Lynch, T. (1988), *Listening*, New York: Oxford University.
- Anderson, J. R. (1982). *Acquisition of cognitive skill*. Psychological Review.
- Asher, J. J. (1969). The total physical response approach to second language learning. *Modern language Journal*, 58, 23-32. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/322091>
- Bloomfield, A. et al. ( 2011). *What makes listening difficult: Factors affecting second language listening comprehension*. University of Maryland Center for Advanced Study of Language.
- Buck, G. (2001), *Assessing listening*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Buck, G. (1995). How to become a good listening teacher. In D. J. Mendelsohn & J. Rubin (Eds.), *A guide for the teaching of second language listening* (pp. 113-131). San Diego: Dominic.
- Brown, G. (1992) *Listening to Spoken English*. London: Longman Press.
- Brown, G., & Yule, G. (1983). *Teaching the spoken language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Brown, G. (1995). Dimensions of difficulty in listening comprehension. In D. J. Mendelsohn & J. Rubin (Eds.), *A guide for the teaching of second language listening* (pp. 59-73). San Diego: Dominic.
- Brown, H.D. (2007). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy*. New York: Pearson Education.
- Chamot, A. U. (1995). Learning strategies and listening comprehension. In D. J. Mendelsohn & J. Rubin (Eds.), *A guide for the teaching of second language listening* (pp. 13-30). San Diego: Dominic.
- Chastain, K. (1971). *Developing second- language skills: Theory and practice*. Chicago: Rand McNally College Publishing.
- Cohen, A. D. (2000). *The learners' side of ESL: Where do styles, strategies, and tasks meet?* Paper presented at the Southeast TESOL Meeting. Miami, Florida. doi: 10.1515/iral. 2003.013
- Field, J. (2002). The changing face of listening. In J. Richards & W.A. Renandya (Eds.), *Methodology in language teaching: An anthology of current practice* (pp. 243-247). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Field, J. (2008). *Listening in the language classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University.
- Goh, C. C. M. (1998). How ESL learners with different listening abilities use comprehension strategies and tactics. *Language Teaching Research*, 2, 124-147.
- Goss, B. (1982). Listening as information processing. *Communication Quarterly*, 30, 304-307. Retrieved from <http://0-ww.tandf.co.uk.catalog.library.colostate.edu/journals/titles/01463373.asp>
- Hamouda, A. (2012). Listening comprehension problems – voices from the Classroom. *Language in India*, 12(8), 1-49. Retrieved from



- <http://www.languageinindia.com/aug2012/arafatlisteningproblemsfinal.pdf>.
- Harmer, J. (1998). *How to teach English: An introduction to the practice of English teaching*. London: Longman.
- Harmer, J. 2001. *The Practice of English Language Teaching*. London: Longman.
- Krashen, S.D. (1985). *The input Hypothesis: Issue and Implications*. London: Longman.
- Luxin, G & Sun, Y.T. (2017). A Review of the theories and principles of teaching listening. *Studies in English Language Teaching*, 6(1). doi:10.22158/selt.v6n1p35
- Lynch, T. (1988). Theoretical perspectives on listening. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 18, 3-19. doi: 10.1017/S0267190500003457
- Lynch, T. 1997. Life in the slow lane: observations of a limited L2 listener. *System*, 25, 23, 385 – 398.
- Mendelsohn, D. (1994). *Learning to listen*. San Diego: Dominie.
- Morley, J. (1972). *Improving aural comprehension*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.
- Morley, J. (1984). *Listening and language learning in ESL: developing self-study activities for listening comprehension*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, Inc.
- Nation, I. S. P., and Newton, J. (2009). *Teaching ESL/EFL listening and speaking*. New York: Routledge.
- Nunan, D. (2002). Listening in language learning. In J. Richards & W.A. Renandya (Eds.), *Methodology in language teaching: An anthology of current practice* (pp. 238-242). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- O'Malley, J. M., & Chamot, A. U. (1990). *Learning strategies in second language acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Oxford, R. L. (1990). *Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
- Peterson, P.W. (2012). Skills and Strategies for Proficient Listening. In C. Marianne (Ed.), *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Languages* (pp. 87-100). Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
- Pourhosein, G.A & Banousabouri, N. (2016). Learners' listening comprehension difficulties in English language learning. *English Language Teaching*, 9(6).doi: 10.5539/elt.v9n6p123
- Postovsky, Valerian A. (1978). Delayed oral practice. In Blair, Robert (Ed.), *Innovative approaches to language teaching* (pp.76-77). Rowley, Mass: Newbury House.
- Richards, J. C. (1983). Listening comprehension: Approach, design, procedure. *TESOL Quarterly*, 17, 219-239.
- Richards, J. C. (2008). *Teaching Listening and Speaking: From Theory to Practice*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Rost, M. (1990). *Listening in language learning*. London: Longman.
- Rost, M. (1991). *Listening in action*. New York: Prentice Hall.

- Rost, M. (2001). Listening. In R. Carter & D. Nunan (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to teaching English to speakers of other languages* (pp. 7-13). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Rost, M. (2002). *Teaching and researching listening*. Harlow: Pearson Education.
- Rubin, J. (1975). What the good language learner can teach us. *TESOL Quarterly* 9(1), 41-51.
- Rubin, J., (1988). *Improving foreign language listening comprehension*. Washington DC: US Department of Education.
- Schmitt, N. (2010). *An Introduction to Applied Linguistics*. London: Hodder Education.
- Thomlison, T. Dean. "Relational listening: theoretical and practical considerations." Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the 5th International Listening Association, 1984.
- Thompson, I., & Rubin, J. (1996). Can strategy instruction improve listening comprehension? *Foreign Language Annals*, 29, 331-341. doi: 10.1111/j.1944-9720.1996.tb01246.x
- Ur, P. (2012). *A Course in Language Teaching: Practice and Theory*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Vandergrift, L. (1997). The strategies of second language (French) listeners. *Foreign Language Annals*, 30, 387-409. doi: 10.1111/j.1944-9720.1997.tb02362.x
- Vandergrift, L. (2003). Orchestrating strategy use: Towards a model of the skilled L2 listener. *Language learning*, 53, 461- 491. doi: 10.1111/1467-9922.00232

## Appendices

### Appendix A

#### Students' Questionnaire

Statements	Always	Often	Rarely	Never
1. I find listening lessons important.				
2. I find listening lessons interesting.				
3. I listen to English outside the classroom.				
4. The teacher uses audio-visual aids.				
5. The teacher uses different tasks of listening.				
6. The teacher has used songs, stories, or films scripts as listening material.				
7. The teacher integrates informal language in the listening material.				
8. The teacher evaluates our comprehension of the listening material.				
9. The teacher provides instructions on “how to listen”.				
10. Before listening, I have a plan on how to listen.				
11. When listening, I have an objective in my head for listening.				
12. When I do not understand a word I infer its meaning from the context.				
13. When listening, I focus on the meaning of every word to understand the whole text.				
14. I use my knowledge and personal experiences to help me understand the topic.				
15. I try not to feel nervous when I listen to English in the classroom.				
16. I verify my understanding with other students.				
17. When listening, speakers talking so fast make it difficult for me to understand.				
18. When listening, it is difficult to understand because the speaker is invisible.				
19. When listening, it is difficult to understand because I get confused due to much of repeated words.				
20. When listening, it is difficult to understand because the pronunciation is not clear due to the noise existing in the classroom or the material itself.				

## Appendix B

### The questions of the interview:

#### ❖ Background

1. For how many years you have been teaching English?
2. Have you received any training regarding teaching listening?

#### ❖ Listening importance

1. Do you consider listening an important skill that enhances students English? Why?

#### ❖ Teaching listening

1. Do you prepare for listening lessons?
2. How much time does it take you to do so?
3. Do you rigidly follow the program when it comes to listening topics? What are the alternatives?
4. Do you have an idea about listening strategies? Explain.
5. Do you integrate informal language in the listening material? Why?
6. Are students interested in listening lessons? Why?
7. Do you provide any chance for interaction in the post-listening stage?
8. Does the school administration provide equipment for listening lessons? What are the alternatives?

#### ❖ Listening assessment

1. How do you assess students' listening comprehension?
2. How well do students comprehend the listening text? Why?

❖ Suggestions

1. Do you have any suggestions regarding the topic?

## الملخص

بقدر أهمية الاستماع فإن تعليم تلامذتنا كيف يستمعون بكفاءة أكثر أهمية. وبالتالي الهدف الأساسي لهذه الدراسة هو اكتشاف لأي مدى أساتذة وتلاميذ اللغة الانجليزية (1) يدركون أهمية الاستماع في تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية (2) يعون ويستعملون استراتيجيات الاستماع (3) يواجهون صعوبات أثناء حصص الاستماع. لأجل هذه الغاية، تم توزيع استمارات ذات مقياس ليكرت على 76 طالب سنة ثالثة من التعليم الثانوي وتم مقابلة 4 أساتذة لنفس المستوى. النتائج بينت أن المشتركين في الدراسة يعترفون بأهمية الاستماع إلا أنهم لا يدركون المغزى منه. بالإضافة إلى هذا، الوعي بوجود استراتيجيات خاصة بالاستماع غائب لدى الطلبة والأساتذة إلا أن التلاميذ يميلون إلى استعمال هذه الاستراتيجيات إلى مدى محدود. كذلك، التلاميذ يواجهون عددا من الصعوبات أثناء الاستماع. تم الختام بأنه من اجل تجاوز هذه الصعوبات، هناك حاجة ماسة لأن يتم تعليم التلاميذ كيف يستمعون، بمعنى آخر، تعليمهم كيف يستعملون استراتيجيات الاستماع. وعليه فإن الأساتذة مطالبون بامتلاك خلفية نظرية وتطبيقية صلبة حول استراتيجيات الاستماع من خلال تدريب تعليمي. وهم مطالبون أيضا بتغيير بعض من الممارسات الثابتة بخصوص دروس الاستماع من أجل جذب التلاميذ للانخراط في تطبيقات الاستماع.

كلمات مفتاحية: مهارة الاستماع، تعليم الاستماع، استراتيجيات الاستماع.

## Résumé

Autant écouter est vital, mais enseigner à nos élèves comment écouter efficacement est crucial. Par conséquent, l'objectif principal de cette étude est de révéler dans quelle mesure les enseignants et les étudiants a) réalisent l'importance de la capacité d'écoute dans TEFL, b) sont conscients et utilisent des stratégies d'écoute, c) rencontrent des difficultés dans le cours d'écoute. À cette fin, un questionnaire à l'échelle de Likert a été remis à un total de 76 élèves de 3e année du secondaire et 4 enseignants ont été interrogés. Les résultats indiquent que nos participants reconnaissent l'importance de l'écoute, mais ils ne sont pas très conscients de son importance. De plus, la connaissance des stratégies d'écoute parmi les participants fait défaut; cependant, les élèves ont tendance à utiliser de telles stratégies dans une mesure limitée. De plus, les élèves font face à un certain nombre de problèmes lorsqu'ils écoutent. Il a été conclu que, pour surmonter leurs problèmes d'écoute, les élèves ont un besoin évident d'apprendre à écouter, c'est-à-dire à utiliser des stratégies d'écoute; ainsi, les enseignants sont les premiers à avoir besoin d'une solide formation théorique et pratique sur les stratégies d'écoute grâce à la formation pédagogique. Il a également été recommandé aux enseignants de modifier certaines de leurs pratiques rigides concernant les leçons d'écoute pour inciter les élèves à s'engager dans des tâches d'écoute.

Mots clés : capacité d'écoute, enseignement de la compréhension orale, stratégies d'écoute.