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**LISTENING DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES IN AND OUT OF EFL
INSTRUCTIONAL SETTINGS**

Master's Thesis

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ЗМІСТ

ПЕРЕЛІК УМОВНИХ ПОЗНАЧЕНЬ	8
ВСТУП.....	9
РОЗДІЛ 1. РОЗУМІННЯ АУДІЮВАННЯ	11
1.1 Процес аудіювання	11
1.2 Типи процесів аудіювання.....	13
1.3 Типи аудіювання.....	15
РОЗДІЛ 2. ЯК ПОКРАЩИТИ РОЗУМІННЯ СЛУХАННЯ?	24
2.1 Новітні підходи до викладання англійської, як іноземної мови	24
2.2 Етапи аудіювання	34
2.2.1 Попереднє прослуховування	34
2.2.2 Під час прослуховування	36
2.2.3 Прослуховування.....	38
2.3 Міфи про аудіювання	40
2.4 Потенційні труднощі під час діяльності з аудіюванням.....	44
2.4.1 Відсутність попередніх знань.....	45
2.4.2 Проблеми, пов'язані зі слухачем	47
2.4.3 Проблеми, пов'язані з мовленням	51
2.4.4 Матеріальні проблеми.....	54
2.5 Стратегії розвитку розуміння на слух	62
РОЗДІЛ 3. РЕЗУЛЬТАТИ ДОСЛІДЖЕНЬ	69
3.1 Методологія дослідження.....	69
3.2 Учасники	71
3.3 Аналіз даних.....	71
3.3.1 Ставлення до навичок аудіювання.....	72
3.3.2 Ставлення до діяльності з аудіювання	74
3.3.3 Процедури розуміння на слух	77

3.3.4 Використання навчальних посібників під час діяльності з розуміння на слух	80
ВИСНОВКИ	85
СПИСОК ВИКОРИСТАНОЇ ЛІТЕРАТУРИ.....	89
РЕЗЮМЕ	96
ДОДАТКИ.....	101

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS.....	8
INTRODUCTION	9
PART 1. LISTENING COMPREHENSION	11
1.1 The Listening Process.....	11
1.2 Types of Listening Processes	13
1.3 Types of Listening	15
PART 2. HOW TO IMPROVE LISTENING COMPREHENSION?.....	24
2.1 Recent Approaches in EFL Teaching	24
2.2 Stages of Listening Activities	34
2.2.1 Pre-Listening	34
2.2.2 While-Listening.....	36
2.2.3 Post-Listening.....	38
2.3 Myths About Listening Comprehension.....	40
2.4 Potential Difficulties during Listening Comprehension Activities	44
2.4.1 Lack of Prior Knowledge	45
2.4.2 Listener Related Problems.....	47
2.4.3 Speech Related Problems	51
2.4.4 Material Related Problems	54
2.5 Strategies for Developing Listening Comprehension.....	62
PART 3. DISCUSSION AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS OF THE RESEARCH	69
3.1 Methodology of the Research.....	69
3.2 Participants	71
3.3 Data Analysis.....	71
3.3.1 Attitudes Towards the Listening Skill.....	72
3.3.2 Attitudes Towards Listening Comprehension Activities	74
3.3.3 Listening Comprehension Procedures.....	77

3.3.4 Usage of Coursebooks During Listening Comprehension

Activities.....	80
CONCLUSIONS	85
REFERENCES	89
SUMMARY IN UKRAINIAN.....	96
APPENDICES	101

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

L1-First Language

L2-Second Language

SL-Second Language

FL-Foreign Language

EFL-English as a Foreign Language

SIOP- Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol

VI- Vocabulary Instruction

RI- Repeated Input

TP- Topic Preparation

PQ- Previewing Questions

MALQ- Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire

KWL- Know/Want to Know/Learnt

INTRODUCTION

Listening comprehension is a very important part of the foreign language learning process. It is closely related to the development of reading, writing and especially speaking skills, since first we must understand what our interlocutor has to say in order to be able to respond to it, as it is suggested by Wilson (2008). Developing students' listening comprehension is not an easy task for an EFL teacher. During the completion of a task that develops listening skills, both students and teachers may face obstacles that can sabotage the development of the student's foreign language competence.

The *aim* of this research was to explore teachers' belief and techniques about listening comprehension. This topic was already examined by many famous scholars, such as Anderson A. and Lynch T. (1988), Vandergrift, L., & Tafaghodtari, M. (2010), Rost, M. (2011) and Davies, D., & Pearse, E. (2000) who investigated the listening process, Hien, T. V. (2015), Wilson, J. J. (2008) and Walker, N. (2014) made research on the difficulties and strategies in listening comprehension

The current study is a sequel to a previous one focused on school learners and their attitudes toward listening comprehension. While the previous research investigated the strategies for developing listening comprehension among primary and secondary EFL learners, this one tries to answer the question of what techniques for developing listening comprehension are used by teachers in EFL lessons, and whether these techniques are appropriate for the learners' language acquisition needs.

In order to gain the required information, a *structured questionnaire* was used, which consisted of 13 questions connected to the purposes and techniques of carrying out listening comprehension tasks in EFL classrooms. The questionnaire includes closed and open-ended questions, Linkert scale and discussion questions.

50 people were considered in this research. The respondents were selected from different locations within Transcarpathia. All of them teach English as a foreign language in a Hungarian speaking primary or secondary school.

This study is divided into *three* parts: introduction, three chapters and a conclusion. The first chapter deals with the *subject matter* of the thesis, the features and nuances of listening comprehension and the listening skill. It analyzes the listening process, different types of listening and listening processes. The second chapter gives answers for questions like how to teach and develop listening comprehension properly. Since listening is not an easily taught skill, some problems can always occur, such as lack of motivation, lack of prior knowledge, the content or the style of the listening material. The *object matter* of this study is to analyze how EFL learners and teachers try to overcome these obstacles, what techniques do they use and how effective they are.

The third chapter unfolds the results of the previous, learners-oriented research and provides a connection with the recent teacher-oriented one, which results are also shown and explained by the help of descriptive statistics and diagrams.

The main questions addressed in the study:

- what are the recent approaches when it comes to listening comprehension?
- how listening comprehension should be developed?
- what problems can occur during a listening comprehension activity?
- what are the learners and teachers attitude towards listening comprehension?

The findings of this research lay the basis for the *theoretical and practical value* of this study as comparing it with the findings of the learner-oriented research, it will become clear whether EFL teachers, their techniques, and listening comprehension activities meet the learners' requirements in the language learning process. The thesis can be used as a guideline for both EFL teachers and learners how to develop listening comprehension effectively.

PART 1

LISTENING COMPREHENSION

The ability to understand a spoken language is known as listening. Listening comprehension refers to the ability to understand spoken language, including identifying individual words, recognizing grammatical structures, and comprehending the overall meaning of a spoken message. It is a critical skill for language learners as it allows them to interact and communicate effectively with others in the target language. In order to develop listening comprehension skills, language learners need to practice listening to a variety of spoken materials, such as conversations, lectures, news broadcasts, and podcasts, and engage in activities that help them develop strategies for understanding spoken language. According to Vandergrift (2007), while listening comprehension is at the heart of language learning, it is the least understood and least researched skill. But listening is not at all an unimportant activity. It is a complex active process in which the student must discriminate sounds, comprehend vocabulary and grammatical structure, interpret stress and intonation, and contextualize it.

1.1 The Listening Process

Adults spend approximately 70% of their time communicating in some way. According to research, an average of 45% of this time is spent listening, 30% speaking, 16% reading, and 9% writing (Adler R., et al., 2001). That is a lot of listening time by any metric. As a result, it is clear that listening is extremely important in our lives. It is a critical mental ability that allows us to comprehend and participate in the world around us. According to Nasereddine (2010), listening skill refers to the ability of the student to understand what the speaker is saying and to see the hidden meaning underlying any spoken or recorded messages.

Based on these information we can divide the listening process into two parts: firstly the learner understands the speaker's grammar, vocabulary, and intonation,

then he is trying to interpret the speaker's hidden, implicit meaning. An advanced listener is one who can complete both tasks at the same time. Additionally, listening has frequently been regarded as a passive skill, implying that learners simply pick up or get this skill. The ability to notice and perceive what the speaker is trying to say by recognizing his accent, pronunciation, syntax, vocabulary, and grasping his meaning is indeed a conscious process which is called listening.

Author Joseph DeVito has divided the listening process into five stages: receiving, understanding, remembering, evaluating, and responding (DeVito, 2000).

Receiving is the conscious concentration on hearing a speaker's message, which takes place when we block out external sources in order to isolate the message and prevent the distracting influx of stimuli. We are still merely hearing the message at this point. The major tool used at this point in the listening process is the ear.

The next stage is *understanding*. It involves decoding symbols we have seen and heard, as well as analyzing their meaning. We need to evaluate the stimuli we have been exposed to. However, symbolic stimuli are not just words. They may take the form of visuals, such as a black cloth, or sounds, like applause. We must remain within the proper context and the contracted meaning in order to understand the message. For successful interpersonal communication, the listener must grasp the contracted meaning and the context assumed by the sender. The meaning associated with these symbols is a function of our past associations and of the context in which the symbols appear.

It is important to note that during the understanding stage, background knowledge is crucial, and learners must possess a number of skills, including general and local factual knowledge, socio-cultural and context knowledge.

The following step, *remembering*, is a crucial part of the listening process because it shows that the listener has not only taken in and understood the message but also stored it in the "storage bank" of the mind, ensuring that it will be preserved in our memory. But just as our attention is selective, so too is our memory; as time goes by, what we recall may be very different from what we actually heard or saw at that moment.

It is also worth mentioning that learners can improve their memory of a message by processing it meaningfully—in other words, by applying it in ways that are meaningful to them (Gluck, et al., 2008). Instead of simply repeating a new concept over and over, it is advisable to associate it with something in their personal life.

In the next stage, *evaluating*, the listener analyzes the message they have heard. At this stage of listening, listeners examine the proof, distinguish facts from opinion, and assess whether a message is biased or not. Unfortunately, prejudiced evaluations can occasionally arise from personal opinions. A foreign accent can be interesting or even exotic to some people, while being annoying or even frustrating to others. A learner may not even make an effort to focus on the message if they have a strong apathy against foreign accents. A successful listener pays attention to avoid starting this activity too soon, as doing so prevents them from focusing on the input, which can lead to the failure of the listening process.

Responding, sometimes referred to as feedback, is the final stage of the listening process. This stage requires the listener to complete the listening process through verbal or non-verbal feedback, as the speaker has no other way to determine if a message has been received. Therefore, sometimes it can be extremely complicated for teachers as they do not have the opportunity to check comprehension abilities.

1.2 Types of Listening Processes

Researchers usually use two models to describe the listening process. These are the bottom-up and the top-down model. The bottom-up model emphasizes the decoding of the smallest units, phonemes and syllables, to lead us towards the meaning (Wilson, 2008). Bottom-up model refers to the process of “using the information we have about sounds, word meanings, and discourse markers like first, then and after that to assemble our understanding of what we read or hear one step at a time” (Brown, 2006).

Brown (2006) defines top-down processing as the process of “using our prior knowledge and experiences; we know certain things about certain topics and situations and use that information to understand”. In other words, learners use their background knowledge in order to understand the meaning of the directed information. This may refer to general knowledge, knowledge of the speaker or context, or analogy (if the topic is familiar for learners, they can guess what they are going to hear next). In contrast to the bottom-up approach, which lies more on the sounds heard, the top-down model is partially based on the listener; much of comprehension depends on what occurs in the listener’s mind prior to even starting to listen.

Cahyono and Widiati (2009) and Flowerdew and Miller (2005) state that advanced listening skills are the results of blending listening process with the cognitive development. In that sense, in order to be effective listeners, learners should use both the bottom-up and top-down approaches while listening. As Brown (2006) suggests, “students must hear some sounds, hold them in their working memory long enough to connect them to each other and then interpret what they have just heard before something new comes along. At the same time, listeners are using their background knowledge to determine meaning with respect to prior knowledge and schemata”.

The mistakes being made by learners during listening comprehension can be explained through two different views. The first one suggests that mistakes in listening comprehension are the results of the bottom-up approach, and learners are simply misunderstanding individual vocabulary, while the second blames the top-down approach because learners listen to familiar topics and hear familiar vocabulary, but still make a great number of irrational conclusions about the content.

Recent research, however, indicates that top-down strategies are frequently blamed for mistakes in listening comprehension; for example, it is common for learners to be familiar with the topic, hear some familiar vocabulary, and make inconsiderate guesses about the content. It can be said with some certainty that learners use both processes simultaneously when they are doing a listening

comprehension. This concept is known as the interactive model, which is still an ongoing research area.

1.3 Types of Listening

As Wilson (2008) states the main purposes of human listening are information-gathering and pleasure, although there can be other reasons, such as empathy, assessment or criticism. The four types of listening we practice daily can be distinguished are: listening for gist, listening for specific information, listening in detail and inferential listening.

Gist is usually defined as the most essential pieces of information about a certain topic, or general knowledge without any specific details. In the context of language learning and instruction gist is referred to as the general message or meaning of a text in the context, whether it is in written or spoken form. In other words, when a learner tries to understand the message of a context even despite their disability to understand every single word or sentence, they are considered to be listening for gist. The learners are trying to recognize keywords, intonation, and other clues, which can lead them to unfold the meaning.

In some cases, finding the gist can be relatively easy as this is to be found at the beginning of the passage. However, when dealing with a more complex topic, such as medicine or technology listening for gist is not an effective technique. Professional terms found in articles like that are extremely difficult to guess from the context and it is necessary to listen to the whole text to understand its meaning.

It is typical in an EFL classroom during listening comprehension to ask the following gist questions: “What’s the subject of the passage?” “What problems are they discussing?” “What’s the main idea of the passage?” “What’s the purpose of the passage?”.

Listening for specific information often lies in finding particular details in the text, for instance, a name, a place, a profession, an object or a number. When learners listen for specific information, they are required to know exactly what they should be paying attention during the listening comprehension before they start the activity.

During an exam situation, to predict and anticipate the type of information that is needed to answer the question, being aware that the sentences learners listening could be paraphrased in the recording in a certain number of different ways are crucial. As learners listen to the recording, they need to recognize the required information, even if it is different from what they can see in the worksheet and especially pay attention at that moment. In some types of activities, listening for specific information also means to listen in order to determine whether the information is included in the text or not.

Listening for detail is usually described as the type of listening where we cannot let ourselves to ignore anything heard as we don't know exactly what pieces of information will be necessary to complete the task. Listening for detail is sometimes confused with listening for specific information as learners are searching for a specific detail in order to complete the task.

Wilson (2008) provides a perfect example for demonstrating the difference. As he suggests while listening to announcements in an airport, we ignore almost everything we hear because there is only one flight announcement relevant to us: our own. If there are 100 people in the departure lounge, some are listening for Barcelona, some for Exeter, others for Paris, a selection motivated by the listener's interests and needs. The skill of extracting the information we need requires an ability to ignore most of what we hear and focus only on what is relevant. This skill is what he calls selective listening.

Inferring is in some ways a thinking skill as we make deductions by trying to perceive the hidden message of what was actually stated. Inferring is closely linked to schema theory in that it requires a model in our mind of how the situation might unfold.

Every time we listen, we are forced to make assumptions to some extent. When someone says, "I took a book out of the library," we assume that they went up to the desk and checked out the book while presenting a library card or other form of identification. On a basic level, everyone makes assumptions like this. Without it, we would have to explain every little detail of each experience as if we were

speaking to Extraterrestrials, making the conversation terribly awkward. But how should we acquire inferring abilities and grasp the hidden meaning of a message? First of all, it is the circumstance that helps learners to draw a conclusion. Either something imperceptible remains unexpressed or there is a hidden message under the perceivable layer of the conversation. In other words, there is a 'gap' which the listener should fill in.

Reading theorists, who originally made narrative gaps prominent, claimed that these gaps force the reader to imagine or assist in the creation of the text. In fact, one of the things that make reading enjoyable for us is this "co-creation" of the text. As a result, gaps can be applied not only for reading but the listening process and communication as well.

According to Brown and Yule (1983) two types of listening can be distinguished: one-way listening and two-way, so-called interactional listening. These modes intersect with two of language's primary functions: transaction and interaction. The main objective of transaction is the conveyance of information, whereas interaction's primary function is the maintenance of social relations. While it is true that practically every communication includes components of both, in most cases one of the two goals is prominent.

It is undeniably true that one-way, transactional listening is essential, particularly in academic settings such as lectures and school lessons. This could be referred to as "listening to learn." Pedagogic discourse has distinct qualities, including dense cognitive content, a proclivity for decontextualization, formal language (more akin to writing), and the urge to do something with what has been heard, such as take notes on the topic. Other common examples of one-way listening are watching a movie or television or listening to the radio, where the aim is quite different. The language being listened to here is most usually of the spoken sort, though there can be a number of styles ranging from the more professional and planned to the more informal and spontaneous, such as a sports commentary.

In spite of the fact that the majority of our everyday listening is two-way, research studies and pedagogical publications have tended to stress one-way, non-

reciprocal listening. Nonetheless, there is an ongoing strain of research into how listeners adapt in interactive conversation, particularly as a result of work done by Lynch (1997).

Because it involves conversation or debate, two-way listening may be more correctly referred to as 'listening-and-speaking'. The listener's participation, or potential participation, in a speaking role has both costs and benefits: the costs include the requirement to respond appropriately, the time pressure in processing what is being said, and the risk of misinterpreting the interlocutor; the communicative benefits include the opportunity to get doubts cleared up right away and problems resolved.

The question of whether the listener is 'competent' to act to remedy problems as they arise raises the question of whether they feel 'entitled' to do so in the particular communication situation. There are four listener roles in conversation according to Bell's (1984) framework:

- Participant, someone who is being spoken to and has the same right to speak as everyone else there.
- Addressee, someone who is being addressed but has limited ability to respond.
- Auditors, people who are spoken to but are not obliged to answer.
- Over-hearer, a person who is not being addressed and has no right to speak.

These responsibilities differ between cultures and within cultures, and they represent norms rather than regulations.

Mobile phone usage appears to be changing listener roles, notably on public transportation. Lynch (2009) describes an event on a Scottish bus in which one person was shouting so loudly that an over-hearer felt 'entitled' to join the conversation, with the apparent support of the other over-hearers present.

Rost (2011) in contrast, defines six types of listening, which are: intensive, selective, interactive, extensive, responsive, and autonomous listening.

Intensive listening involves paying close attention to specific sounds, words, phrases, grammatical units, and pragmatic units. Although it may appear that focused listening is not required in most ordinary settings, proper perception is required for higher level comprehension and listening. In addition to its benefit in improving listening skills, intensive listening provides a pathway to language-focused learning, which is a key component of long-term language acquisition (Nation and Newton, 2009). As a result, including intensive listening in instruction, even if only as a tiny part of each learning session, is useful. Dictation, provoked repetition, shadowing, word spotting, error spotting, grammar processing, and mediation are all examples of focused listening practice.

Pure dictation, the transcription of the precise words that a speaker utters, is the typical intensive listening activity. Dictation is a concentrated educational approach since it requires processing phonology, vocabulary, grammar, and draws on the capacity to make precise conclusions from context.

In language teaching, *selective listening* refers to listening with a certain goal in mind, usually to gather information for a task. Selective listening is used colloquially to mean "attending to only what you want to hear" and "tuning out everything else." *Note-taking* is a good type of selective listening for longer texts than one-minute snippets. Note-taking is widely regarded as an important macro-skill in the lecture-listening comprehension process, a skill that frequently interacts with reading (when integrated with reading material accompanying the lecture), writing (the actual writing of the notes or subsequent writing based on the notes) and speaking. Note-taking is a popular selective listening task with high face validity (i.e., it is recognized as having practical utility in the real world) and psychological validity (i.e., learners recognize it as reflecting their listening skills). Instructors may adapt their note-taking requirements to increase students' selective listening abilities, such as writing down specific words or phrases, reproducing content on board in appropriate places in their notes, naming subjects, or labeling parts of their notes. Yet, as numerous researchers have emphasized, it is the preparation for notetaking,

as well as the follow-up reconstruction and review activities based on the learner's own notes, that encourages greater listening skill.

Listening in a collaborative dialogue is referred to as *interactive listening*. Collaborative conversation, in which learners interact with one another or with native speakers, is now widely recognized as an important way of language development and a measure of listening skills. Its potential benefits appear to be in 'forcing understandable output,' that is, driving the learner to formulate thoughts in the target language, and in 'forcing negotiation,' that is, leading the learner to grasp language that was previously unknown. Collaboration tasks typically require some level of negotiation and explanation of meaning in order to produce a result, while real-world communicative outcomes may be indirect and unexplained. To make difficulties obvious and objectives conveyed, activities for pedagogical purposes are frequently constructed to some extent. Text-task combinations that are frequently employed are information gaps for pair interaction and unclear narrative for reconstruction (Cullen, 2008).

Two-way collaboration tasks are commonly used in school settings to enhance interactive listening skills. The use of structured communicative activities that involve two-way communication increases listener control of dialogues, such as managing turn-taking and seeking feedback via clarification and confirmation checks. The key characteristics of an effective two-way collaborative task, according to Ellis (2002), are a primary focus on meaning (rather than language form), the learner selecting from a menu of linguistic resources required for task completion, and a meaningful outcome (which can be evaluated for correctness or appropriateness).

Extensive listening is defined as hearing for several minutes at a time in the target language, usually with the long-term goal of appreciating and understanding the content. Academic listening sheltered language instruction, and "listening for pleasure" are all examples of extensive listening. For an L2 learner to be effective with prolonged listening, the learner must have access to listening information that can be grasped pretty well on the first listen. It is critical to strive for high levels of

learner satisfaction and comprehension by providing any necessary preparation and additional support during the actual listening process (Camiciottoli, 2007). Integrating these support aspects into academic listening has been defined as 'sheltered instruction,' in which learners are literally shielded from being overwhelmed by too much information to absorb correctly. The *Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol* is a comprehensive system. The SIOP gives some basic rules to follow when conducting a listening comprehension activity, such as to ensure that students' subject objectives are properly established, to connect topics to students' prior knowledge and relevant experience, to provide several possibilities for interaction. Furthermore, oral language development should be included within the lesson and to ensure collaboration, it is advisable to use various grouping configurations. According to Brown et al. (2008), extensive listening is also beneficial for developing confidence and simply enjoying listening in the target language, as well as for experiencing 'knock-on effects' such as indirect pronunciation and intonation practice, and for providing rich content for projects and presentations.

Extensive listening is generally recommended for all students above the basic level (Wong & Waring, 2010). For learners with intermediate level of English, extensive listening should be an essential part of the language learning process. They should be involved in listening easy song and simplified lectures and watch easily understood television broadcasts with subtitles. Repeated listening play a significant role. In the case of advanced learners, extensive listening is a required activity. It involves mainly the same listening comprehension activities with slight differences. When watching any television broadcast, subtitles not only can be omitted, but advisable. If it is necessary for the comprehension, it can be present. Otherwise, advanced learners should rely on their auditory perception. The listening material should include lots of natural conversation, for example, radio and television interviews, variety shows, dramas, news shows.

Responsive listening is a type of listening practice in which the listener's response is the activity's purpose. In this type of activity, the listener's reaction is 'affective,' expressing an opinion or point of view, rather than 'informational,' providing facts based on what was heard. The concept of schemata and the activation of suitable background information for listening has piqued the interest of L2 pedagogy. Pre-listening activities are commonly used in training approaches to increase. Approaches for teaching academic listening include cultural and topic schemata directly into extended listening and recall. These strategies are congruent with conventional L1 teaching techniques for encouraging the use of schematic maps in the development of critical thinking and comprehension of long texts (Willingham, 2007).

A paused task is one systematic approach of employing ongoing listener response. Listening task design that uses short inputs, which are usually one or two minutes long and overt listener reaction has significant benefits for listening training. There are recognized short-term memory restrictions that develop after approximately sixty to ninety seconds of listening - for listeners of all ages and backgrounds (Cowan, 2005). Due to these constraints, one minute may be an ideal opportunity for new listening abilities and tactics should be acquired. As learners listen for an extended period of time, it is often unclear what mental activities they are engaged in. With extended listening activities, guided instruction and feedback become more challenging.

Autonomous listening is a self-directed listening exercise in which students pick what they listen to, seek feedback on their comprehension and respond in ways that they choose, and track their own development. Any natural language acquisition that does not involve teachers, classrooms, or online courses is, in effect, autonomous listening. Yet, within the autonomous listening paradigm, teachers can still affect their students' achievement, notably through training in a variety of listening and learning practices. There is substantial agreement among strategy training studies on the kind of tactics that are usually connected with successful listening. Five widely accepted successful techniques are:

- Predicting information or ideas prior to listening
- Inferring from incomplete information based on prior knowledge
- Monitoring one's own listening processes and relative success

while listening

- Clarifying areas of confusion
- Responding to what one has understood

In conclusion, the first chapter gives a detailed summary about what the listening process is and how many stages it consists of. Also, the different types of listening processes, such as bottom-up and top-down, which are shown and based on several literature and scholars' theories. Last, but not least, the chapter describes the different types of listening tasks which can be used during an EFL lesson.

PART 2

HOW TO IMPROVE LISTENING COMPREHENSION?

Listening comprehension is an essential skill for effective communication in any language. It involves understanding spoken language, which can be challenging for many learners. However, there are several strategies that learners can use to improve their listening comprehension. This chapter characterizes these strategies in a detailed way concerning their usage within and outside of an EFL classroom. By incorporating these strategies into their learning routine, learners can improve their listening comprehension skills and become more confident in their ability to understand spoken language.

2.1 Recent Approaches in EFL Teaching

For the most time, the teaching of SL/FL listening has focused on extracting meaning from texts while ignoring the need to educate learners how to listen. The emphasis of instruction was mostly on validating the outcomes of listening rather than building the learning processes necessary for successful understanding. Even when pre-listening activities were utilized to activate past knowledge, the emphasis was on prior understanding of the contents. Given the significance of learner awareness and control in learning, listening education should provide scaffolded learning experiences to assist listeners in discovering and practicing listening processes. Listening activities become little more than veiled forms of testing learners' existing listening abilities if they are not taught how to listen, which only helps to build anxiety about listening.

Bottom-up processing involves the perception of sounds and words in a voice stream. Listeners can use their prior knowledge to interpret material when they have enough perception of lexical information. The bottom-up method of teaching listening recognizes the importance of the acoustic signal and focuses on assisting students in developing critical perception abilities. *Word segmentation* is a

huge challenge for SL/FL listeners. Regular gaps that signify the beginning or end of words are not available to listeners. They must divide the stream of sound into meaningful pieces, and word boundaries are frequently difficult to determine. Even if they are familiar with a word, SL/FL listeners may not recognize it in concatenated speech. Language-specific word-segmentation abilities are learned early in infancy. These processes are so deeply embedded in the listener's processing system that they are used instinctively when hearing a new language, making listening to a rhythmically distinct language very challenging. This issue is exacerbated for low-proficiency listeners (Graham, 2006). Listening instruction must assist learners in overcoming these challenges so that they can identify words in a stream of sound, and research shows that this is doable. Cutler (2001) indicates that SL/FL listeners can suppress the natural tendency to use native language segmentation processes when listening to a new rhythmically dissimilar language. Stress and intonation are crucial clues for recognizing word boundaries, and there is some evidence that highlighting these aspects is beneficial to SL/FL listeners. Attending to pause-bounded units rather than syntactic cues can help listeners understand English regardless of their age or language background (Harley, 2000). Word boundaries placed before stressed syllables may assist in the identification of words in a stream of speech (Field, 2005). The use of word-onset (the first phonemes of a word) is also a reliable word-recognition approach, which is likely owing to the prosodic information preceding the word (Lindfield, Wingfield, & Goodglass, 1999). Finally, Sanders, Neville, and Waldorf (2002) discovered that 'late' learners may partition concatenated speech using lexical information and stress cues; nevertheless, the extent to which these SL/FL listeners can employ stress cues depends on their native language.

Word-segmentation skills can be developed by providing opportunities for SL/FL listeners to "accumulate and categorize acoustic, phonemic, syllabic, morphological, and lexical information" (Hulstijn, 2003, p. 422). Hulstijn describes a six-step process:

- listen to the oral text without reading the written version

- assess your level of comprehension
- replay the recording as needed
- check the written text
- recognize what you should have understood
- replay the recording until you understand it without written support

To develop word-segmentation skills, learners must be made aware of these phenomena, pay attention to them, and replay them during listening practice so they may figure them out for themselves.

Wilson (2003) suggests employing the dictogloss approach as a tool. Following listening, SL/FL listeners are instructed to identify variations between their reconstructed text and a written transcription of the original. This strategy has the potential to improve perceptual processing by forcing learners to focus on their listening problems, investigate the causes of their errors, and assess the significance of those errors.

Exact repetition and lowered speech rate have also been investigated as instructional approaches for SL/FL listening (Jensen & Vintner, 2003). The researchers concluded that listening perception training should be combined with regular listening activities that allow students to "engage in hypothesis work regarding all linguistic features" (p. 419), an approach that has been advocated by others (Hulstijn, 2001 and Wilson, 2003).

With the introduction of digital technology, the use of audio and video texts for individual listening practice and classroom education has increased. Learners can listen to any portion of text they want and save it to their computer for future reference. Learners can also listen to a wide variety of media broadcasts in and out of class using the most recent podcasting technologies, and save them for future review (Robin, 2007).

Top-down SL/FL listening instruction include educating students to reflect on the nature of listening and to self-regulate their comprehension processes. Its goal is to improve learners' metacognitive listening knowledge.

Flavell (1979) defines metacognitive knowledge as an individual's grasp of how various elements work and interact to influence the course and outcome of learning. It can help with successful self-direction and improve learning outcomes.

There are numerous approaches for learners to increase their metacognitive understanding about listening.

Listening diaries are a simple tool that both teachers and students can use. Diaries with particular questions can guide learners' reflections on specific listening events, allowing them to assess their performance and take positive measures to enhance their listening skills. Teachers can also incorporate process-oriented exercises into their listening sessions, which has been shown to be beneficial even with young students (Goh & Taib, 2006). Learners share personal observations recorded in their listening diaries in small groups and teacher-led conversations. These interactive talks might teach them new listening techniques.

When listening on their own, Liu and Goh (2006) urged students to apply a metacognitive guide. The students responded to prompt questions before and after listening exercises in order to prepare for listening, evaluate their performance, and plan their strategy for future listening. These research highlighted the value of top-down teaching approaches in which teachers enhance metacognitive processes and strategy use using scaffolded listening exercises.

Metacognitive knowledge is beneficial in developing quick word recognition ability because learners employ context and other compensatory mechanisms to make sense of a word's aural form (Vandergrift, 2006). As a result, it is generally believed that tactics for using compensatory mechanisms when hearing - contextual, visual or paralinguistic information, world knowledge, cultural information, and common sense - will affect the degree of listening success (Vandergrift, 2007).

Individual metacognitive reflections can be strengthened further by using introspective tools such as questionnaires. There are some evidence that using such

questionnaires may motivate listeners to utilize tactics they believe are useful (Zhang & Goh, 2006). The *Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire* (MALQ), a recently developed instrument, is based on research and theory regarding SL/FL listening, and its scores are highly connected to listening success (Vandergrift, 2006). The MALQ can be used by SL/FL listeners to assess their own comprehension of the listening process, teachers to diagnose students' awareness of those processes and researchers to track the development of metacognitive knowledge about listening as a result of listening process instruction.

Individual hearing can be aided by collaborative activities in which students concentrate on the nature and requirements of a listening activity. Activities that integrate the use of strategies during listening sessions allow students to experience these processes firsthand. Incorporating methods into a lecture sequence is one method (Liu & Goh, 2006).

This pedagogical approach fosters both top-down and bottom-up listening dimensions, as well as metacognitive knowledge of the processes that underpin successful SL/FL listening. The listener gains implicit knowledge of listening processes by organizing hypothesis development and verification and carefully applying past information to compensate for gaps in understanding. Furthermore, by matching all or parts of the text's aural and written forms, the listener becomes aware of form-meaning linkages and improves word-recognition skills. It is critical, however, that listeners are exposed to the written form only after they have participated in the cognitive processes that underpin real-life listening. Listeners risk acquiring an inefficient online translation approach to hearing if they are given access to the written form too early in the cycle.

Learners must practice with a range of listening activities that stimulate the metacognitive processes employed by experienced listeners on a regular and systematic basis; nonetheless, these tasks must be anchored in the same metacognitive cycle. While the teacher will have a larger role at first, scaffolding should be gradually removed so that students execute the work on their own and the

process becomes automatic. Before beginning the work, students may be asked to create a plan for their listening.

This pedagogical cycle is theoretically valid because it closely follows research findings indicating implicit learning through task performance (Johnston, 2006). It is also supported by empirical evidence. In a well controlled study over one semester, intermediate-level French learners who were coached through this process approach to listening outperformed learners in control classrooms (Vandergrift, 2007). To account for the mitigating effects of the teacher variable, both groups were taught using the same materials by the same teacher. The expectation that the experimental group's less skilled listeners would make bigger gains than their more competent listeners was also confirmed, suggesting that this type of guided listening exercise can assist less skilled listeners in particular.

Mareschal (2007) discovered that exposing a low-proficiency and a high-proficiency group of French learners to this listening pedagogy throughout an intensive eight-week language training improved their ability to manage listening processes. She was able to document how the listening training impacted the listeners' self-regulatory ability, strategy use, metacognitive knowledge, and listening success, particularly for the low-proficiency group, by analyzing data from a completed listening questionnaire (MALQ), stimulated recalls, diaries, and a final summative report. The aural-written verification step was especially beneficial to the low-proficiency group in terms of establishing auditory discrimination abilities and to the high-proficiency group in terms of more refined word identification skills.

Anderson (2009), however, proposes another model of language comprehension in cognitive psychology that differs from the existing framework of top-down and bottom-up processes. He divides language understanding into three stages: *perception*, *parsing*, and *utilization*. The first stage is the perceptual process that encodes the spoken message; the second stage is the parsing stage, which transforms the words in the message into a mental representation of the combined meaning of the words. Listeners participate in identifying constituent structure or a core phrase or unit in the surface structure of a sentence. The third stage is the

utilization stage, in which listeners employ their mental picture of the meaning of the text. They may respond if the sentence is a question, or they may obey if it is an instruction. These three steps must be partially arranged in time, but they also partially overlap. Listeners can infer from the first part of a statement while experiencing the second.

According to certain researches, listening support in tasks can improve learners' use of metacognitive strategies in listening comprehension. Chang and Read (2006) evaluated the influence of listening support on English as a foreign language (EFL) learners' listening performance. They discovered that different listening tasks influenced test takers' listening techniques as well as their listening performance to differing degrees. The results revealed that providing information on the topic was the most effective source of assistance, followed by repetition of the input. Vocabulary education was the least effective type of assistance. Listening assistance, metacognitive strategy utilization, and listening performance may all have a substantial link. The results suggest that previewing questions (PQ) had a bigger effect on strategy use than other types of help; PQ was more successful for higher level learners than lower level learners due to their differing reading skills. Repeated input (RI) was less helpful for learners with minimal linguistic experience. Topic preparation (TP) was beneficial for both higher and lower ability learners. Vocabulary instruction (VI) was the least effective for both.

Another significant cognitive issue is the role of L1 listening comprehension capacity. According to Vandergrift (2006), L1 listening ability and L2 proficiency might explain about 39% of the common variance in L2 listening ability, with L2 proficiency explaining about 25% and L1 listening ability explaining about 14%. The findings were identical to those observed in previous reading studies before the listening research. L2 proficiency and L1 listening abilities, in particular, play a role in good L2 listening. Because L2 listeners require not just L2 language competence but also metacognitive information related to L1 listening, the result appears to highlight the importance of metacognitive knowledge. As a result, current cognitive

research has demonstrated that allowing learners to activate metacognitive strategies as top-down processes is important.

Linguistic knowledge, whether implicit or explicit, is employed to interpret spoken English. While lexical knowledge is more explicit, prosody and grammar may be more implicit.

To start with, academics have been curious about how much lexical knowledge helps understanding. The amount of vocabulary knowledge required for good understanding of spoken text has been studied. According to Nation (2006), an 8,000-9,000 word-family vocabulary is required for dealing with written material and 6,000-7,000 families for dealing with spoken text, while the first 1,000+ proper nouns cover 78%-81% of written content and roughly 85% of spoken text. Clearly, spoken language employs slightly more high-frequency words than written language. Stahr (2009) also concluded that the data indicate that lexical coverage of 98% is required to adequately deal with the transient nature of spoken language. Learners who mastered the 5,000 word families that provide 98% lexical coverage scored 72.9% on the listening comprehension test. The comprehension test resulted in an 80% score for the 10,000 vocabulary level, which results in 99.27% lexical coverage of the text. When the same lexical coverage is provided, the score of a hearing comprehension exam is often lower than that of a reading comprehension test. This could be due to the fact that spoken language is acoustically real-time.

In addition, phonological modification and prosody have been explored as crucial factors in L2 learners' word perception. Much emphasis has been put on how the phonology of L1 constrains the perception of L2 at the phoneme level. According to the findings of Altenberg's (2005) study, learners are much worse than native speakers at using acoustic phonetic cues, and some types of stimuli are simpler for learners to detect than others. The data show that a variety of characteristics, including transfer and markedness, may be important in L2 segmentation performance.

However, stress and intonation patterns have received more attention. Even in quick speech, emphasis and intonation are neither indistinct or absent in English.

Listeners employ emphasis and intonation as essential indicators to understand text meaning. Speakers emphasize what they believe is significant, and the most important words are those that communicate the main meaning.

Although there is some evidence that there may be a substantial relationship between grammar and reading, the importance of grammar knowledge for listening has received less attention. Anderson (2009) states in cognitive psychology that understanding the structure of English assists us to grasp the meaning of a sentence throughout the comprehension process. According to Mecarty (2000), grammatical knowledge does not significantly help to either hearing or reading comprehension, but vocabulary knowledge plays a major role in L2 listening comprehension ability. VanPatten (1990) discovered that learners, particularly early stage learners, struggle to attend to both form and content while listening. Field (2008) concluded that function words were not paid attention to when individuals were listening, which appears fair given that function words were more relevant to grammatical understanding and content words were more relevant to lexical meaning. It may be impossible to separate lexical information from grammar knowledge since listeners may blend syntactic and semantic clues in reading the sentence.

Affective elements, in addition to cognitive and linguistic components, have a substantial impact on listening comprehension. Many studies have found that affective variables have a significant impact on student performance. Buck (2001) identified various challenges in listening comprehension tests, including unknown terminology, unfamiliar themes, fast speech rates, and unfamiliar accents.

Elkhafaifi's (2005) research investigated the impact of general foreign language learning anxiety on students' achievement in an Arabic course, as well as the impact of listening anxiety on students' listening comprehension. The findings suggest that foreign language learning anxiety and listening anxiety are distinct but related phenomena that both negatively associated with accomplishment. According to the study, reducing student anxiety and providing a less stressful classroom environment may assist students improve both their listening comprehension skills

and overall course performance. As a result, anxiety can readily disrupt the listening process, and listening tasks can also trigger listening anxiety.

Noro (2006) elucidates the nature of listening anxiety through a qualitative analysis of data collected through questionnaires and oral interviews with Japanese college students. He discovers that the main causes of listening difficulty are the tempo of speech, vocabulary, and pronunciation. Asking for help, guessing, comprehending the outline, and adjusting mindsets to pay attention to the next word or phrase or not worry too much are coping mechanisms in response to listening challenges. Irritation, lack of concentration, aversion, surrender, and loss of self-confidence are affective reactions to hearing challenges. Thus, L2 learners must be aware of the listening anxiety that results from difficulty in speech recognition and the necessity to employ coping techniques.

Recent research has concentrated on the relationship between listening tasks and listening anxiety. Chang & Read (2008) discovered that listening supports decreased students' anxiety during listening assessments. He examined the impact of four different types of listening support on minimizing the detrimental effects of listening anxiety on proficiency variables. The results showed that at higher competence levels, the VI group was considerably more apprehensive than the RI and TP groups, and at lower proficiency levels, the PQ and VI groups were significantly more nervous than the RI and TP divisions. The test results revealed that topic preparation and repeated input were more effective than offering vocabulary input or permitting question previews. After the test, participants stated four main reasons for their anxiety: first, most people reported only listening once, second, concern about the grade they would receive, third, concern that the test would be very difficult for them in comparison to other students in the class, and fourth, lack of confidence. Higher-proficiency students in the TP group and lower-proficiency students in the RI group reported reduced anxiety following the task; however, lower students in the PQ group was the only grouping that reported feeling more nervous after completing the exercise. In the other groups, there was no significant difference between pre-task and post-task anxiety. As a result of the

findings, different methods of listening support have different effects on learners' listening performance, and a metacognitive strategy is likely to be useful in reducing listening anxiety.

Another significant emotional issue in research is motivation, because listening is an active process that requires both conscious attention and involvement. There is some evidence indicating a link between motivation, the application of metacognitive strategies, and listening success. Students that had high levels of motivation tended to engage in more metacognitive listening activities. "Motivation and metacognition appear to be components of clusters of variables that contribute to variation in L2 listening" (Vandergrift, 2007, p. 196). Kemp's (2010) research on encouraging autonomous learning demonstrated how maintaining a listening diary encouraged learners to engage with and reflect on their experiences as potential learning circumstances. Listening to what learners want to listen to and strive to comprehend may drive them to use additional metacognitive skills and continue learning. He stated that keeping a listening diary allows students to see how their language development has improved by establishing schemata, metacognitive awareness, motivation, and involvement in comprehending.

2.2 Stages of Listening Activities

The structure of listening activities in language teaching can be divided into three stages: pre-listening, while-listening, and post-listening. Each stage serves a specific purpose and helps learners to develop different skills related to listening comprehension.

2.2.1 Pre-Listening

Pre-listening stage prepares learners for the listening activity by activating their prior knowledge, building their interest in the topic, and providing them with the necessary vocabulary and language structures. This stage provides pupils with an overview of what they will do before they begin listening. There are two

substages in the pre-listening stage. The first is to engage students' schemata, which helps them anticipate the content of the listening passage. According to Wilson (2008) there are six methods for engaging pupils' schemata; the first is brainstorming, which involves extracting and provoking a large number of ideas from the central one. The second method is to use pictures, which main purpose is to activate schemata that are related to the hearing passage. The third method is to use realia; Items, in general, evoke memories and associations that can inspire students' imaginations. Our schemata include these memories and associations. Realia can benefit all students, (although it is important to mention that visual learners benefit the most from realia activities) while it should be noted that younger pupils, in particular, like handling real objects. The fourth method is to use texts and words. Many times, in everyday life, we read before we listen: viewers and listeners study TV and radio guides or read film reviews before going to the movies; university students read assigned books before attending lectures. Texts can provide us with important information or inspire us to learn more about a subject. Brief reading texts can also be used as an introduction to the topic, to emphasize any problematic themes, or to provide a thought-provoking question.

The fifth category is contexts. Some situations, such as answering the phone or ordering in a restaurant, are known to most pupils in most countries, and this familiarity can be utilized to help predict the progression of, perhaps, a dialogue or a novel. These mental representations of common, normal situations are sometimes referred to as scripts. If the screenplay looks totally foreign to the pupils, it may be an opportunity to address cultural differences. A typical activity could be the teacher describing that the scenario is making a business phone call, for example. The students then predict how the call will proceed: it will begin with a speaker saying the name of the company and 'How can I assist you?' and so on. We might invite our pupils to attempt writing the dialogue first before listening. As a help to our pupils, we can present a flow chart detailing the functions of each turn. The activity is suited for any formulaic transactional interaction. Using learners' thoughts and opinions is the last activity category for engaging learners' schemata. Encouraging kids to think

about ideas or concepts do their own research, or educate other students is an excellent method to get them involved before they listen. These activities are especially appropriate for hearing passages regarding factual issues. The subject of the listening passage is given to the students, and they are then asked to write continually about this subject for a specific period of time. This exercise has the advantage of producing student-generated content, which has the potential for multiple offshoots such as peer correction, peer comparison, collaborative writing, and so on.

2.2.2 While-Listening

While-listening stage involves the actual listening activity, where learners listen to a spoken text or conversation and attempt to understand its meaning. While-listening activities may include multiple choice questions, true/false statements, gap-fill exercises, or summarizing.

There are two different viewpoints on how many times pupils should listen to the message: the first believes that only once, citing real-life communication in which the listener hears the message only once. The second point of view contends that pupils should be given numerous opportunities to hear the input in order to minimize their anxiety.

Students hear the extract several times because it may be difficult, lengthy, or boring to them. If the goal is to learn the language, messages might be repeated numerous times. As Wilson (2008) suggests the learners should hear the input only once, most often listening for gist, however there may be times when they need to listen for specific information or listen in detail. For this type of listening, Bingo is a perfect option. In this exercise, which is especially enjoyable for young learners, the teacher creates a list of terms on the board that appear throughout the listening passage. These should be content terms, such as nouns and verbs, rather than words like *of* or *and*. By working individually, students select and write down seven of these terms. Then they listen to the text. They put a tick whenever their words are mentioned in the passage. When they have ticked all seven phrases, they exclaim

Bingo! This activity is great for selective listening, but it prevents hearing for global meaning. As a result, it should be done only after initial listening has established the gist. Students verify their replies in groups or pairs. This is done to assure them and remove any doubts they may have. They then listen once more, either to double-check or to answer more thorough queries. It is critical that students be expected to perform different activities each time they listen (listening to check answers differs differently from listening to answer questions). Other aspects for the passage would include text's difficulty, duration, instructional focus, and potential for boredom. It's possible that pupils merely need to listen to the challenging section twice. If the emphasis is on close linguistic analysis, it may be required to repeat numerous times; if the emphasis is on listening for gist, it will not be. Hearing the same text three times is probably the maximum before boredom sets in. Furthermore, if a listener is still unable to interpret a word or phrase after three hearings, the problem is unlikely to be remedied by repeated exposure to the same tape. Teachers may consider chunking texts by splitting them into distinct chunks when dealing with long messages, for example. This can help learners in understanding better and avoid being overloaded.

During the *not her, not him* activity, each pupil is given ten to twelve images of people. Each image must be on its own piece of paper. The teacher then progressively describes one of the people without informing the students which one it is. As the narrative unfolds, the students are able to reject other candidates inferring who is not being detailed. They flip over the images that do not match the description. The activity requires some practice on the side of the teacher, with the key being to progressively expose knowledge.

If one is looking for a listening comprehension activity which combines the usage of speaking skill as well, listen and describe activity types would be a perfect choice. The teacher provides a story but frequently stops to urge the kids to write or describe it. For example, the teacher might say, "I was walking near my house when I met a girl." 'How did she appear?' The kids then write a one-line description of the person, such as she had green hair and huge hands' (from a young learners' class).

As a tool for pupils to generate words, the activity works well. Finally, the teacher should present the entire story without interruptions, as this creates a more protracted and engaging listening experience Wilson (2008).

A more advanced task could be to ask students to describe an average day in terms of time spent on activities. A student, for example, might say, "I sleep for eight hours." 'Of the remaining sixteen hours, I spend about two hours a day eating and about an hour traveling...', and so on. Their companion pays close attention and creates a pie chart representing the speaker's typical day. A pie chart is a circle that has been divided into pieces, much like a pie. The size of the slices, which are labeled sleeping, 'eating,' 'traveling,' and so on, is determined by the amount of time spent on each activity.

2.2.3 Post-Listening

The last, *post-listening* stage provides learners with an opportunity to reflect on the listening activity, consolidate their understanding of the spoken text, and develop their speaking, writing, or critical thinking skills. Post listening, according to Davis and Pearse (2000), is the stage in which students relate what they have heard to their own beliefs and experiences.

The entire class verifies answers, discusses challenges like as unfamiliar language, and replies to the passage's substance, generally orally but sometimes in writing. This can be done in plenary, in pairs, or in small groups. A last stage may involve 'mining' the tape for valuable material, such as a certain grammatical structure, lexicon, or conversation indicators. Post-listening activities may include discussion questions, writing a summary, creating a mind map, or role-playing. During the post-listening stage, there is now an emphasis on assisting students who are having difficulty and reflecting on performance. The post-listening stage arose as a result of the realization that listening produces valuable input that must be analyzed. Typical activities for post-listening stage involve reflecting oriented tasks. Classroom listening is viewed as diagnostic in this approach to post-listening work. Long term, we, like excellent doctors, give medicines - tactics, techniques, exposure

to more grammar, vocabulary, and discourse markers, and, most importantly, additional listening practice. We also learn what the pupils did not struggle with and how they arrived at their conclusions. Is their success due to skill growth, such as increased ability to recognize rapid speech or successful strategy use, or was it a fortuitous guess?

Checking and summarizing plays a crucial part in the post-listening stage. The answers to pre-set questions will most likely be the first thing our students discuss in pairs or small groups. Many students are too hesitant to speak in front of the class, and small groups are less intimidating, allowing more people to talk for longer periods of time. This stage not only cultivates confidence in students, but it also highlights any opposing interpretations of the input. In this form of post-listening exercise, the teacher's responsibility is to monitor the students' conversation, sometimes asking for textual support of their views, verifying or denying these concepts, and answering questions. Following group-work, the teacher will most likely solicit responses from the entire class. This is common practice in many classes that use a variation of Communicative Language Teaching, and comprehension questions are vital. But teachers should keep in mind that they appear in language classes and almost nowhere else. In student-centered teaching, we start with what the students have to contribute (Wilson, 2008). After a listening passage, we might ask, "What did you understand?" or "Work in pairs and summarize what you heard." Why might this be beneficial? To begin, it focuses on what the pupils accomplished. There are almost likely things they missed or didn't comprehend, but by starting with what they accomplished, we operate from strength rather than weakness. In addition, asking students to summarize indicates that they are doing something with the information, which is typical of most of the listening we do outside of the classroom. Finally, summarizing focuses on what is important - the gist - while allowing students to elaborate and add specifics as they recall them.

By following this framework, teachers can help learners to develop a range of listening comprehension skills, including activating prior knowledge, predicting, identifying key information, and synthesizing information from multiple sources.

2.3 Myths About Listening Comprehension

Wilson (2008) examines six myths about listening comprehension, specifically its teaching during the EFL lessons. According to the writer they may stem in the misunderstanding of general principles and cause confusion among EFL teacher resulting in an ineffective teaching process.

The first and most common misbelief about listening comprehension is teachers cannot teach learners how to listen. To some extent, this is correct. Listening is an internal ability that involves comparing what we hear to our expectations and knowledge. However, there are numerous things that teachers can do in order to help learners in developing their listening comprehension. They can provide students with ongoing exposure to suitable listening content through properly sequenced practice exercises that allow them to successfully listen and build confidence. They can also help pupils improve their listening skills by teaching them listening comprehension techniques.

In many cases listening is considered to be a passive skill. But listening indeed is not a passive activity. It is incredibly active, but all of the activity takes place in the mind. Listeners speculate, forecast, infer, criticize, and, most importantly, interpret. When we listen, we analyze an acoustic signal using a mental checklist of recognized, semi-recognizable, and unrecognizable sounds. However, if the acoustic signal is unclear, possibly due to background noise or the speaker's accent, we make a guess, utilizing context to guide our predictions. Participants in a study were asked to listen to a doctored audio. They heard words in which some starting sounds, such as the letter *d* in the word *date*, was intentionally replaced by a cough. After saying the sentences “Check the calendar and the ...ate.” and “Paint the fence and the ...ate.”, learners were asked whether they noticed the missing sounds during the speech. No one noticed the missing *d* or commented on the difficulties with filling in the gap caused by the coughs. Instead, the listeners simply imagined the words *date* and *gate* based on the context (Wilson, 2008). The study clearly shows that our prior knowledge can occasionally overwhelm the acoustic signal we perceive.

Listening is a real-time hypothesizing process. Learners speculate on the meaning of an utterance (a unit of speech, such as a phrase) as it is uttered. They may be able to confirm or amend our notion as the next speech is produced. And so it goes on. In some cases, our hypotheses are validated or refuted even before the sentence is finished. Furthermore, we have all completed someone else's sentence for them or had our own phrases completed for us at some point. This is prediction in action, depending on the speaker's knowledge, the context, and how language works. In terms of interpretation and inference, as listeners, we constantly 'fill gaps' by applying all we know about the issue and the power balance between speakers and listeners. People do not always say or mean what they say, but listeners attempt to glean the truth from what they hear. As Wilson (2008) expresses utterances do not exist in a vacuum; they are always embedded in a context - cultural, personal, or situational - and must be interpreted by the listener. This is why not every estate agent is a millionaire: listeners recognize context and listen critically.

Listening, then, is an activity that occurs on multiple levels at the same time, from comprehension of individual phonemes to awareness of intonation patterns that alert us to irony, sarcasm, rage, and delight. It is obvious that it is a receptive rather than a passive skill.

Another quite common misbelief is that learners understand native English speakers better than foreign English speakers. This assumption may be prevalent in multilingual classrooms, but it is less prevalent in monolingual ones. Students may understand each other better than a native speaker in monolingual courses. When confronted with challenging sounds, such as consonant clusters present in phrases such as through or synchronize, pupils with the same first language (L1) are more likely to deal with them in similar ways. In multilingual classes where the students' home languages may have no relation, a native speaker may be easier to comprehend since he or she speaks the form of English to which the pupils have largely been exposed. Of course, other factors such as a speaker's speaking pace, familiarity with and exposure to the target language, and sympathetic to the issues of second language (L2) listening all play a role. Furthermore, it must be acknowledged that

the majority of English interaction today occurs between non-native speakers who may have learned the language using a comparable curriculum and are thus familiar with similar structures.

Another point to mention is that the type of English our learners are exposed to naturally influences the listening work we do in the classroom; for example, if our learners are required to listen to English as it is spoken in India, there may be little sense in exposing them to varieties such as British or Australian English.

The theory which suggests that skills required to listen to a foreign language are the same as those required to listen to our home language is mostly correct according to Wilson (2008). However, he points out that there are some variances in how teachers put those talents to use. Learners may listen to their own language with half an ear, that is, without fully concentrating but still getting the message. This is significantly less prevalent when listening to a foreign language since, unless extremely adept, the listener must devote their complete attention to the message. Another distinction is the application of compensation techniques. L2 listeners, in general, must guess more than L1 listeners and rely more on context to compensate for deficiencies in their language knowledge.

It is quite common among EFL teachers to instruct pupils for listening to key words during a listening comprehension activity and avoid trying to understand every word of the material. Aside from formal speeches and other planned portions, speech frequently contains more words than are necessary. Redundancy is widespread when we repeat ourselves and say words such as *uh* and *er* to find the proper expression. Redundancy facilitates listening by allowing listeners to assimilate new information while ignoring what they already know - in reality, redundancy allows us to be inactive because we do not have to focus completely on every single word. Furthermore, many words, such as auxiliary verbs, articles, and prepositions, operate as the glue that keeps syntax together rather than as forceful transmitters of meaning; as a result, they demand a listener's attention considerably less than 'content words' such as nouns and main verb. While it is evident that certain types of words are more significant than others for understanding the heard material,

students cannot determine which words are crucial from meaning alone until they have attained a minimum level of competency in the language. It is likewise oversimplified to state that auxiliaries, articles, prepositions, and so on are irrelevant. In terms of phonology, there is a minor difference between “*Not enough data is available for the scientists*” and “*Not enough data is available of the scientists*”, but a significant difference in meaning.

The most important thing here is automaticity. Once pupils understand the fundamentals of grammar and vocabulary, they may stop listening to every word because they instantly recognize which words are important and which they can disregard. This is achieved in part because to the way stress works in English, with stressed content words being longer, louder, and of a different pitch than unstressed words. The knowledgeable listener instinctively disregards the, of, and an in favor of Bishop, Birmingham, purchased, and automobile (Wilson, 2008).

The last but not least misbelief is that students should not be permitted to read recorded scripts. The major reason against reading scripts while listening to recordings is that doing so might result in a 'divided attention' scenario, with the learner focused on the reading rather than the listening. This is a procedural problem. The script might be used as a tool for overcoming language or listening difficulties and validating - or otherwise - the students' opinions about what they heard at the end of the listening sequence (the students should have already heard the tape at least twice). Another major argument against scripts is that pupils will get reliant on them. Outside of the classroom, there are no grammar exercises, comprehension questions, pairings, gap-fills, or most of the other language instruction approaches and apparatus. English classes prepare students for real-world language usage; the class is not an end in itself.

Overall, it must be accepted that the script may be a great resource. It enables pupils to distinguish between the written and spoken forms of words. It also allows students to observe which words are swallowed. They can identify and recognize major grammatical elements, as well as concentrate on form. In other words, the script can serve as a beginning point for instruction.

2.4 Potential Difficulties during Listening Comprehension Activities

Listening comprehension can be challenging for many language learners. Some common difficulties that students face include vocabulary, pronunciation, speed, background noises, lack of focus, anxiety and cultural differences connected problems. This subpoint gives a detailed description about each of the above-mentioned causes and provides an explanation for them.

Over the past years, research has sought to identify the elements that contribute to a listening passage's difficulty or ease of comprehension. According to studies on listening in the study of second and foreign languages, it is one of the hardest abilities for language learners to master. Those who acquire English as a foreign language struggle greatly with listening comprehension since grammar, reading, and vocabulary are overemphasized. Based on extended literature reviews such as Rubin (1994) and Lynch (1998), Buck (2001) condensed the findings of researchers into the following list of factors that can make the listening comprehension more difficult:

Table 2.3 Factors affecting the listening comprehension (Buck, 2001)

Language
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Speed rate• Unfamiliar accent• Number of speakers• Similarity of voices• Use of less frequent vocabulary• Grammatical complexity• Embedded idea units• Complex pronoun reference
Explicitness
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Implicit ideas• Lack of redundancy
Organization
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Events narrated out of natural time order.• Examples preceding the point they illustrate.
Content

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Unfamiliar topics • Number of things and people referred to • Unclear indication of the relative importance of protagonists in the text • Shifting relationships between protagonists • Abstract content
Context
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of visual or other support
Task Characteristics
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Processing of more details. • Integration of information from different parts of the text. • Recall of gist (for example, writing a summary) rather than exact content. • Separation of fact from opinion. • Recall of non-central or irrelevant details. • A delayed response, rather than an immediate one.

2.4.1 Lack of Prior Knowledge

When students draw connections between what they are reading and listening to is called prior knowledge, which can also be identified as relevant background knowledge or just plain experience, their comprehension improves. The mental schemata, sometimes referred to as prior knowledge of the learners, are one part of language processing that improves comprehension when learning a language. According to Brown (2006), schemata—generalized mental representations of our experience—are ordered according to prior knowledge and are available to us to aid in the understanding of novel experiences. In order to determine whether prior knowledge affects students' listening and reading comprehension, it is vital in this research to look at this. One component of the cognitive model of language processing is the notion of prior knowledge. According to the idea, when we read or listen, we process the information both top-down and bottom-up.

Students require both bottom-up and top-down processing skills when listening. Learners must hear certain noises (bottom-up processing), keep them in working memory long enough (a few seconds) to connect them, and then interpret what they've just heard before hearing something new. Simultaneously, listeners use

background information (top-down processing) to determine meaning in relation to prior knowledge and schemata (Brown, 2006: 4).

Because the cognitive view of language learning considers hearing comprehension to be essentially the same as reading comprehension, educational techniques have been very similar: There are pre-listening, while-listening and post-listening activities in a normal class. However, teachers are aware that, contrary to popular belief, listening differs from reading. Students, for example, can quickly skim a text to gain a solid notion of what it's about, but listeners cannot. The language is hurling itself at them. Listening must be done in real time; there is no second opportunity unless the listener expressly requests repeat.

Prior knowledge has the potential to obstruct comprehension. This background of non-linguistic cues, according to Anderson and Lynch (1988), is critical in assisting pupils in understanding the target language. "Gaps in our knowledge of the L2 culture, of the associations and references available to native users, can present comprehension barriers" (Anderson & Lynch, 1988). The absence of the second type of knowledge complicates listening comprehension. It is linguistic understanding. In this scenario, listeners can plainly hear the message but are unable to comprehend it or are unfamiliar with the meaning of the term listened. This is owing to their low skill in the target language's grammar, syntax, phonology, and semantic aspects.

Anderson and Lynch (1988) suggest that pupils who have problems with their linguistic understanding skip the listening process. However, this is not the only factor that can inhibit students from comprehending the listening content. Many more issues are readily apparent:

- Inadequate exposure to listening materials since pupils would rather read than listen to a foreign language.
- The ability to hear. Students with physical disabilities, in this case, poor hearing, who are unable to participate, are unable to hear what is said. Environmental issues such as noise might also have an impact on them. There are times when background noises disrupt the playback of a tape. For

instance, people talking on the street, cars or any kind of public transport and anything else that gives out a sound.

It is crucial for EFL teachers to remember that activating students' stored knowledge structure (schemata) to improve understanding and building new schemata are far more significant than imparting new language system information. According to research, the accumulation of schemata helps most to efficient processing and retention of new hearing material, which becomes more challenging as pupils grow.

According to the linguistics there are two types of schemata involved in listening. Those are language schema and knowledge schema. Language schema refers to the phonological, lexical, syntactic, and grammatical knowledge that students have already mastered as the foundation for listening comprehension. Without effective storage of the four basic language knowledge, it is impossible to obtain satisfactory comprehension of the listening content. Many monologues from everyday life circumstances are used in the listening test. It is often assumed that in normal scenarios such as a hotel, restaurant, post office, hospital, book shop, library, airport, bank, and so on, the relationship between interlocutors and modes of communication are relatively fixed. Cognitive psychologists refer to this common knowledge schemata when it is assimilated and preserved in people's memories.

2.4.2 Listener Related Problems

Anderson and Lynch (1988) attempt to present the importance of attention in listening performance, demonstrating that the degree of the students' attention to the input influences successful listening comprehension. They state that learners "switch off consciously or unconsciously" in almost all circumstances. They explain that while pupils are experiencing listening comprehension, they try to hear speech word by word rather than focusing on the meaning itself. As a result, this psychological aspect can have a negative impact on listening, whether on perception or interpretation.

Schmidt-Atzert, Krumm, and Bühner (2008) distinguish between attention and concentration. They define attention as focus and the selection of specific stimuli to pay attention to. Concentration, on the other hand, necessitates keeping attention with intention over a lengthy period; in other words, it necessitates focused processing. The distinction between attention and concentration is still being debated. Concentration is required at every stage of concurrent processing: First, purpose is crucial to the listening process: The listener decides to pay attention. The listener then concentrates on specific auditory impulses while dismissing others. With the help of the selected aural and visual cues, the listener can distinguish context, source (speaker), and the (spoken) message. The spoken message is then deciphered by segmenting phonemes from a continuous stream of sound. The echoic memory handles this by retaining chunks of auditory data before they are syntactically and lexically parsed into a mental picture of what was heard. This procedure necessitates an immediate and ongoing interpretation of what is heard, as well as the storing of newly acquired information in working memory. Third, the mental representation of what was heard is supplemented with and compared to previously stored knowledge in the memory. This process is monitored by the long-term memory. Finally, what is heard is retained schematically in long-term memory. These many processing levels work in tandem, both bottom-up (from the phoneme level up) and top-down (using prior information) processing. Strong attention skills, in addition to concentration, are essential to keep up throughout sessions and are regarded as an important aspect of school preparedness. According to studies, children with attention deficit disorders are more likely to perform poorly in school (Lucia, & Schweitzer, 2009).

Nothing encourages daydreaming, falling asleep, or being distracted more than boredom. Students are far more inclined to pay attention if they know that the teacher may call on them or ask them to work on an exercise at any time. Lessons should be conducted at a level that meets the students' requirements. The ideal lesson combines knowledge that pupils are already acquainted with from a previous lesson with a selection of fresh content. Students should be able to connect the new

information to what they have already studied. Students will get a deeper understanding of the lesson's topic by finding connections and forming conclusions. As a result, student attention will be maintained while comprehension will improve.

Lessons should be developed utilizing a combination of aural, visual, and kinesthetic modalities to retain student concentration and take advantage of learning preferences. This will assist to avoid boredom and inattention, as well as boost pupil information retention. The material should be customized to the students' interests and requirements. English courses, for example, should include reasonable scenarios, including circumstances that are directly relevant to the students' life. While both professional and everyday vocabulary should be stressed, extra care should be taken to ensure that the terminology is not out of date. Furthermore, university students majoring in technical fields will frequently respond favorably to infrequent classes that are directly relevant to their subject of study.

Gardner (1985) studied the concept that people who want to integrate into a linguistic community will be highly motivated to learn the language and hence acquire high levels of proficiency. Indeed, a meta-analysis of Gardner's motivation study found a robust and consistent positive relationship between motivation and language achievement. Gardner's model proposed two orientations (clusters of reasons for learning a second language): an integrative orientation based on an interest in interacting with the L2 language group, and an instrumental orientation based on an interest in the more practical benefits of learning a new language, such as job advancement. Gardner's integrative component, whether integrative orientation, integrativeness, or integrative motive, is consistently cited in empirical studies as "explaining a significant portion of the variance in language learners' motivational disposition and motivated learning behavior" (Dörnyei 2003: 5).

The self-determination framework is made up of three motivational orientations that exist on a scale of increasing self-determination: amotivation, extrinsic motivation, and intrinsic motivation. According to Deci and Ryan (1995), different types of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation can be classed on a continuum based on how much of the motivation is self-determined or internalized inside the

learner. Firstly, learners who see no relationship between their acts and the consequences of their activities fall into the category of amotivation (AM), the least self-determined end of the spectrum. Demotivated language learners believe they are wasting their time studying the L2.

Keller (1983) defined motivation as the ability to choose which aspects of society provide them with positive reinforcement. Motivation is the decision that people make about what experiences or goals they will pursue or avoid, as well as the amount of effort they will put in in this regard. According to Brown (2007), motivation is often conceived of as an inner voice, urge, stimulus, emotion, or desire that propels or forces a person toward a specific action or job. Brown's perspective differs with Keller's perspective on motivation as a choice.

The outmost important step towards making our learners more motivated is to listen to their needs and interests. Teachers should make a habit of completing a survey at the beginning of the semester, paying attention to their learners about their interests, and thinking about activities based on the given interest types, planning opportunities for writing and speaking tasks centered on a freely chosen topic, and including figures or items from popular culture in sentences to practice grammar points. Furthermore, it is a great idea to allow students to collaborate with one another in pairs, small groups, and held an open class. At the same time, those learners who prefer working alone, should not be forced to cooperate with others as it can cause anxiety which jeopardizes the language learning process. These alternative techniques are ought to be changed on a regular basis, including getting outside every now and again.

Another quite common listener related problem is the cultural difference. Learners should be familiar with linguistic cultural information, which has a substantial impact on their comprehension. If the listening activity incorporates wholly diverse cultural resources, the learners may struggle with comprehension. Teachers must provide background information on the listening activities in advance (Azmi, Celik, Yidliz, & Tugrul, 2014). Certain concepts just do not exist in some cultures; therefore, some recordings' settings and surroundings may be

incomprehensible. In most of Africa, for example, Halloween is unheard of. A recording of gangs of ten-year-olds dressed in which costumes trick-or-treating their way through pumpkin-laden neighborhoods would thus make little sense in an African context. If the goal of the class was to gain new cultural information, the passage would be appropriate; but, if the goal was to practice listening, the passage would be totally inappropriate.

Students' cultural background information can influence their listening comprehension. Listening processes might be aided by a general awareness of the country's culture and history. Listeners can use pragmatic knowledge to make deductions and identify speakers' inferred meaning, according to Vandergrift (2007) and Walker (2014), and teachers should take this into account while teaching listening comprehension.

According to Lustig and Koester (2010), cultures have distinct communication patterns that limit effective listening if listeners are unaware of suitable language patterns. Understanding culture properly endows each word with the appropriate context and meaning. Knowing the sociocultural background of a language makes it easier to learn new idioms, vocabulary, and speaking ways. Furthermore, recognizing the function of culture is critical for effective communication with native speakers. It boosts interest and encourages foreign language thinking. Understanding native people's lifestyles personalizes the language, making it simpler to learn.

Knowing their counterpart's culture allows EFL learners to communicate effectively with native speakers. Instead of translating sentences formed in one's original language, one might think, say, and utilize relevant words in the foreign language within the proper context.

2.4.3 Speech Related Problems

Speech-related problems can be a major challenge for learners in listening comprehension. Some common speech-related problems that students may face are pronunciation, accent, and rate of speech.

According to Goh (1999), 66% of students rated a speaker's accent as one of the most important elements influencing listener understanding. Learners may have difficulty understanding spoken language if the speaker's pronunciation is different from what they are used to. This can include differences in accent, stress, and intonation. Unfamiliar accents, both native and non-native, can create major issues with listening comprehension, whereas familiarity with an accent improves listening comprehension. Students find it more difficult to understand rapid speech, such as that heard in BBC news headlines, than the speech speeds of, say, an adult speaking to a young kid. A bigger concern is the number of speakers. The more speakers there are, the more uncertainty there is, especially when there is no visual support for the students. Buck (2001) said that when listeners hear a new accent, such as Indian English, for the first time after exclusively learning American English, they would have critical listening issues. This will very probably disrupt the entire listening comprehension process, and an unusual accent makes comprehension difficult for the listeners. It is advisable to choose audio clips with British or American accent at first when our learners are new to the target language. As they become more advanced new accents can be adapted to the language learning process.

According to Bloomfield et al. (2010) and Walker (2014), one of the main challenges with listening comprehension is the pronunciation of words that differs from how they look in print. Because spoken language differs from written language in many ways, children may encounter challenges in recognizing words that make up oral speech. According to Vandergrift (2007) and Walker (2014), students should endeavor to determine which linguistic portion belongs to which word in addition to identifying the terms despite their unfamiliar pronunciation. Prosodic aspects of spoken language, such as where the stress falls, weak and strong forms of words, and intonation, all have an impact on oral text comprehension.

The amount of difficulty in comprehension is also discernible when the process is characterized by the speaker's invisibility. A visible speaker with many paralinguistic elements, non-verbal signs such as facial expressions, hand and body gestures, might improve student understanding since the student can perceive the

speaker's emotions. Whereas those pupils may suffer various limitations in their comprehension while dealing with audio recordings since visual cues that are essential for understanding the process have been absent. Setting the scene using images of the active players in the conversation might assist, especially assignments in which they arrange the photos as they listen, and utilizing video instead is a pleasant adjustment and a fantastic technique to make abilities like guessing vocabulary from context easier and more natural.

Speed might make listening passages more difficult to understand. Some speakers may speak too quickly for learners to understand, while others may speak too slowly, causing learners to lose focus or become bored. Students may struggle to grasp L2 terms if the speakers talk too quickly. Listeners are unable to alter the speed of speakers in this situation, which might cause serious issues with listening comprehension. There are certain limitations to successful listening comprehension, according to Underwood (1989). To begin with, listeners have no influence over the pace of speech. The most significant issue with listening comprehension is because listeners have little influence over how rapidly speakers speak. Secondly, listeners cannot have words repeated, which might cause serious problems for them. A recorded part cannot be replayed by students. Teachers decide what and when to repeat listening materials, and it is difficult for them to know whether their students understood what they had heard. Furthermore, listeners lack a native vocabulary. Speakers may choose words that the learners are unfamiliar with, which may cause them to pause and consider the meaning of that word for a few moments, which can result in missing the following section of the speech. Finally, listeners may lack contextual knowledge. Mutual knowledge and familiar texts can make communication easier for listeners. Listeners can occasionally understand the surface meaning of a piece, but they may struggle to appreciate the entire meaning of a section unless they are familiar with it.

When students struggle to keep up with a speaker, using closed captions or a transcript to reinforce listening can help learners. Even if students must listen without visual accompaniment on the exam, it is completely acceptable to start with

transcripts and gradually remove them throughout the year. Depending on the student or class, audio speed control can also be used to slow down or speed up the audio clip for greater listening comprehension. If a fairly good ESL student can slow down the text to extend processing time, they have a far better chance of passing the exam.

2.4.4 Material Related Problems

Some possible material related problems during listening comprehension activities may include unfamiliar vocabulary, background noise in the material or in the classroom, poor audio quality and complex sentence structures.

According to Azmi Bingol, Celik, Yidliz, and Tugrul Mart (2014), pupils can easily identify familiar words in listening readings. If kids understand the meaning of words, it can pique their interest and motivation, as well as improve their listening comprehension abilities. Many words have several meanings, and if they are not utilized correctly in their right situations, children will become confused. A listening text with numerous new vocabulary words and high-level grammatical structures will be challenging. Aside from grammar and vocabulary, another facet of level is complexity: long sentences full of noun phrases are difficult for students to absorb. Formality levels must also be addressed. Very informal texts with slang and/or imprecise articulation, as well as very formal texts, may pose problems. Formal English is often longer and more convoluted in its construction than 'neutral' English, and it employs a large number of Latin-derived vocabulary.

Given that vocabulary breadth is positively correlated with listening proficiency, learners with larger vocabulary sizes may acquire more words from aural input because they comprehend more of the input in the first place. This has been demonstrated in investigations of incidental learning by listening during video viewing. Rodgers (2013), on the other hand, discovered no influence of vocabulary knowledge on learning gains from television viewing among intermediate university English learners.

Although there have been obvious relationships documented between rich vocabulary and listening comprehension, they are generally smaller than those observed for reading. Despite the scarcity of studies particularly studying unfamiliar word processing in listening, research on listening methods in general gives some light on this topic. When listening to a challenging text, Graham and Macaro (2008) claimed that inferencing was unavoidable, and that good inferencing stemmed from the deployment of a set of techniques. Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari (2010) observed learners' greater capacity to infer the meaning of unfamiliar lexical items in a longitudinal study of the influence of metacognitive strategy education on L2 listening.

When compared to other skills, word knowledge predicts less variance in listening, and lower levels of vocabulary knowledge appear to be required for aural comprehension than for reading comprehension. When interpreting oral input, L2 listeners can and may have to rely on aspects other than language expertise, such as gesture, tone of voice, and facial expression. Consequently, higher vocabulary knowledge does not always imply better listening; for example, in a study of university-level English learners, van Zeeland and Schmitt (2013) discovered that higher levels of vocabulary knowledge generally led to higher levels of comprehension, but that there were also learners with lower levels of lexical knowledge but "adequate" comprehension. Bonk (2000) observed similar findings for Japanese university English learners, some of whom with lower levels of lexical knowledge obtained good comprehension just like others with higher levels of lexical knowledge. His research showed that at various levels of proficiency, good understanding is likely only if more than 90% of the terms in the text are familiar. Four listening sequences with increasing amounts of low-frequency language were created and played to 59 Japanese English learners. A dictation was used to assess familiarity with text vocabulary. A substantial link was discovered between understanding and familiarity with vocabulary. Good comprehension seldom occurred with text-lexis familiarity levels lower than 75 percent but occurred

frequently at 90 plus percent levels. This tendency was detected in learners with strong, medium, or low second-language listening proficiency' (Bonk, 2000: 14).

Nation (2006) discovered that a 6,000-7,000 word-family vocabulary was required to cover 98% of spoken texts. Webb and Rogers (2009) suggest that for 95% and 98% coverage of movies, respectively, knowledge of 3,000-4,000- and 5,000-10,000-word families (including proper nouns and marginal words) was necessary. It was discovered that knowledge of 2,000-4,000- and 5,000-9,000-word families (including proper nouns and marginal terms) was required for 95% and 98% coverage of television shows in another investigation.

Kelly (1991) examined a large sample of errors made by 38 advanced French English learners and a French-speaking English teacher. Participants had to transcribe and translate excerpts from BBC radio news programs. Lexical errors caused by unknown words/collocations or ignorance of a specific meaning in familiar lexical items were found to be more common than perceptual and syntactical errors. Kelly then classified all errors into two categories:

- errors that had a minor impact on comprehension
- errors that obscured the meaning significantly

Lexical mistakes accounted for 65.5% of instances with substantially poor comprehension.

The proper application of the inferencing method in hearing, like reading comprehension, should be influenced by text coverage. Vandergrift (2003, p. 495) identified four types of inferencing based on the knowledge sources used by L2 learners: linguistic inferencing (based on "known words in an utterance"), voice inferencing (based on "tone of voice and/or paralinguistics"), extra-linguistic inferencing (based on "background sounds and relationships between speakers in an oral text, material in the response sheet, or concrete situational referents"), and between parts (inferencing based on "information beyond the local sentence level").

When it comes to the role of passage length during listening comprehension activities, literature is extremely controversial. Several studies have found no link

between length and test item difficulty or other measures of understanding (Kostin, 2004 and Moyer, 2006). A few studies have discovered that length plays a significant influence, with longer passages being connected with more challenging comprehension questions. However, this research did not investigate the significance of length in reading and listening independently (Rupp, Garcia, & Jamieson, 2001), confounded length with the number of comprehension items, or discovered the effect only for learners with a higher level of skill (Carrell, et al., 2002). According to Azmi Bingol, Celik, Yidliz, and Tugrul Mart (2014), the level of pupils can have a big effect when they listen to extended parts and retain all knowledge. Lower-level kids struggle to listen for more than three minutes and finish the listening activities. Short listening passages allow learners to listen more easily and avoid fatigue.

There are various plausible explanations for the literature's mixed results. The first is that many research on its role do not directly change listening length. (Kostin, 2004; Moyer, 2006). Rather, these studies make use of existing test materials that have been coded for certain characteristics, which are then included in regression models that predict the difficulty of test items. This raises the likelihood that sections that vary in length also differed in other significant ways that influenced L2 listening comprehension. Other studies had design flaws that make interpreting their findings difficult: in Moyer (2006), all short passages were formal news reporting, while all longer parts were informal talks. The formality of the language used in the news reports may have rendered these passages more difficult for L2 listeners, canceling out any advantages of their shorter length. Furthermore, many studies assessing passage length look at a very narrow range of lengths (e.g., the passages in Kostin (2004) were all 20 seconds or less in length), which may not be adequate to find an effect. These concerns highlight the necessity for future research with experimentally altered materials in which a wide range of lengths is presented while other parameters (e.g., linguistic formality) are remained constant.

Another reason for the mismatch between research findings and perception is that length may not be the optimal factor for capturing the amount of information in

a passage in and of itself. Length can be confused with speech rate (if assessed in terms of time) or redundancy (if measured in terms of word number, or duration if the speech rate is constant). These factors must be considered because their effects on L2 listening comprehension contradict the predicted effect of length: a faster speech rate (resulting in a shorter length) should make listening more difficult; more information redundancy, which should increase length, should decrease listening comprehension difficulty. Furthermore, various measures of information amount may do a better job of controlling for these confounds as well as isolating the piece of the text that contains information.

Most students can only handle a certain amount of information. L2 listeners must process language while receiving additional language every time they listen. Even as we strive to comprehend what has been communicated, more information is continually flooding in. This is exhausting for students, who are constantly bombarded with information. The typical listening text in an elementary coursebook lasts for one minute. This reflects the difficulty of listening to a foreign language for extended periods of time. Students at a little higher level, on the other hand, require a balance of rigorous and extended listening.

Therefore, an appropriate text for a listening comprehension activity has the proper length with the proper lexical material. But unfortunately possessing these qualities cannot guarantee a successful language learning process. The listening material should have an appropriate context as well.

As it was mentioned before in this chapter (see p. 39) motivation plays a decisive part in the language learning process as learners pay attention to things that are relevant and interest to them. That is why taking into account learners' interest is far the most important factor when choosing a listening comprehension activity. Students will pay close attention if the subject matter is sustainably interesting and especially if they have a personal interest in it. Some teachers provide lists of subjects and subtopics for their classes to choose from in order to ensure that the listening materials they use in the classroom are intrinsically intriguing to their students. Narratives and extended debates are often dynamic; they flow, twist, and

turn. A lecture on quantum physics or a discussion of existentialism is abstract since it deals with concepts rather than concrete things.

Fixed or static speech acts are easy to understand as long as they are not overly technical. Some dynamic texts, particularly narratives, may also be rather straightforward in that they have a reasonably predictable structure; indeed, some writers believe that only seven tale plots exist. Abstract writings are more difficult since they need listeners to remember a multitude of concepts (Wilson, 2008). An excellent rule of thumb at lower levels is that the more predictable and recognizable the speech act, the easier it will be understood. Perhaps therefore low-level course-books prefer to emphasize practical exchanges like buying stamps at the post office or checking into a hotel.

When learners are engaged in listening comprehension, the volume of the recording can play an important role in your ability to understand what you are hearing. If the volume is too low, it can be difficult to hear the words clearly, which can make it challenging to comprehend the message. On the other hand, if the volume is too high, it can be overwhelming and distract you from understanding the message.

Much of the hearing input in many classrooms throughout the world is in the form of recorded materials. In such cases, the recording's quality is a key part of delivery. Professionally produced material is now recorded. The sound quality is normally good in a studio. Teachers who attempt to create their own listening material may discover that their recordings, which may have been recorded on old machines, include distortion, and lack clarity. The use of inefficient listening media, such as a broken tape, noises from inside or outside the classroom, and the use of poor equipment, can cause students to become confused and make mistakes during the English learning process or while taking the listening test. The quality of the listening devices and recorded components is critical because it can have a significant impact on the students' listening performance. Loud noises from outside or inside the classroom can cause pupils to lose attention on their listening materials. As a result, in order to achieve an optimal outcome in listening performance, the

usage of a language lab or sound-proof room for listening comprehension exercises is recommended in order to reduce extraneous noises from outside. Most of the time, damaged audio causes superfluous noises, and missing pieces might cause pupils to lose concentration in the middle of the listening process. According to Hien (2015), using low-quality recordings or audio can have a negative impact on students' listening comprehension skills. The equipment used by the teacher must be small and efficient in order to provide a comfortable learning environment for the kids. With the advancement of technology, the usage of educational media for listening that is impractical and difficult to access, such as CDs, tapes, and boom boxes, has become obsolete since there are so many other educational materials that do not require extra energy to access and can be accessed anywhere and at any time through applications or websites such as YouTube, Spotify, or Podcast.

Numerous studies have found that typical classroom acoustics do not meet American Speech-Language-Hearing Association or American National Standards Institute recommendations for unoccupied noise levels or reverberation times (Pugh, Miura, & Asahara, 2006). Noise and reverberant listening conditions significantly degrade the threshold or suprathreshold speech-recognition abilities of children with normal hearing in several studies that simulate typical classroom environments.

According to current study, speech-recognition abilities in noisy background do not always reflect how well youngsters comprehend complicated information (Valente et al., 2012). Valente and colleagues examined sentence recognition abilities in noise at a +10 dB and story comprehension in the exact same distortion at a +10 dB in two conditions in 40 adults and 50 children ages 8 to 12 years in one simulated classroom experiment. Both children and adults fared well on the sentence-recognition task (95% accurate), but children performed significantly worse than grownups on the comprehension tasks, with the worst child performance occurring in the class discussion condition.

In conclusion, although some obstacles such as lack of interest, knowledge or cultural differences can make the listening comprehension activities more difficult,

there is still some techniques that EFL teachers could follow and thus help their learners to deal with the task more effectively.

Listening activities should be designed to suit the needs of the students, and teachers should give real listening resources, such as everyday conversations, to help students better understand the natural speech made by native speakers. They should provide listening projects that raise learners' interest while also teaching them listening skills and techniques. These assignments not only assess pupils' listening comprehension but also encourage them to use a variety of listening techniques to receive the most value from their activities. A variety of information should be presented to pupils, such as lectures, radio news, films, TV plays, announcements, ordinary discussion, and interviews. The reason for this is not only the interest factor, but the diversity of accents that learners may encounter during the language learning process. Teachers should educate their pupils with pronunciation principles so that they can hear the various types of quick natural speech and replicate native speakers' pronunciation. Furthermore, they should help their learners become acquainted with the accents of various native speakers. Due to the fact that native speakers have distinct accents, pupils must be able to distinguish between American/British and other more difficult (Indian, Scottish, Japanese) accents.

Listening activities should be presented in order of complexity; in other words, listening activities should begin with extremely easy texts for lower-level students and progress to very complicated abstract materials for advanced learners. Background and linguistic knowledge should be taught simultaneously to EFL pupils when they listen to various listening materials. Teachers should provide them with the required feedback on their performance as it can encourage error correction, enhance motivation, and aid in the development of their confidence in listening activities. Teachers should assist their students in developing the necessary abilities of listening comprehension, such as listening for comprehending specific information, listening for key concepts, explanation and inference, and hearing for intended meaning, by assigning various assignments and activities. Teachers are ought to offer opportunities for students to acquire top-down and bottom-up

processing abilities because top-down activities encourage learners to discuss what they already know about the subject and bottom-up activities give them confidence in the knowledge of the elements of the language such as sounds, words, intonation, and grammatical structures.

Teachers should motivate their students for acquiring effective listening skills. Predicting, asking for clarification, and employing nonverbal signals are some ways for improving learners' listening comprehension. They should encourage their students to listen to music, documentaries, and news on the radio and television, as well as converse with native speakers in person or via the Internet, in order to develop and reinforce a healthy listening habit in themselves. To make these standards meet, EFL teachers should receive advanced speaking skill trainings. It is necessary to be aware of all the latest research findings about listening comprehension, to choose the listening comprehension activity wisely so it will not be too long nor too short, has the proper lexical and grammatical items and presents speakers possessing familiar accents. Good pronunciation during listening comprehension activities is tightly connected to good listening. This is the reason why teachers should have native-like and understandable pronunciation that can assist learners to become better listeners.

2.5 Strategies for Developing Listening Comprehension

Although there is no general agreement on what a strategy is, a number of authors, including O'Malley and Chamot (1990), agree that strategies consist of conscious, deliberate behavior that enhances learning and allows the learner to use information more efficiently.

Based on the literature on listening comprehension strategies three types can be distinguished. Those are cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies, and socio-affective strategies.

Cognitive strategies are concerned with comprehending and storing information in short-term or long-term memory for subsequent use. Comprehension begins with the received material, which is assessed as successive degrees of

formation and a decoding process. Cognitive strategy is a problem-solving method used by learners to deal with learning activities and facilitate information acquisition (Azmi Bingol, Celik, Yidliz, & Tugrul Mart, 2014). According to Abdalhamid (2012), cognitive strategies are related to learning activities and include direct usage or change of learning resources.

In listening, there are two types of cognitive strategies: bottom-up and top-down. Bottom-up tactics include word-for-word translation, adjusting the rhythm of speech, repeating the oral text, and focusing on prosodic aspects of the text. Forecasting, guessing, explaining, and visualization are all part of top-down methods. Top-down techniques are used by advanced learners more than by novices.

The listening strategies of college students studying Spanish were investigated using a think-aloud procedure. The findings of a quantitative investigation revealed that participants used more cognitive strategies than metacognitive techniques, and that females used more metacognitive strategies than males. According to the findings of a qualitative study, success in listening was related to aspects such as the use of multiple techniques, the ability and flexibility in adjusting strategies, stimulation, discipline, and adequate use of past knowledge.

According to (Wilson, 2008) metacognitive strategies are associated with learning in general and frequently provide long-term advantages. As an example, students may decide to listen to a BBC recording once a week as a plan for strengthening their listening skills. Holden (2004) and Azmi Bingol, Celik, Yidliz, and Tugrul Mart (2014) suggested that under this method, pupils are conscious while listening to the text. Learners using this technique learn how to plan, monitor, and evaluate the information gleaned through the listening section. According to Salataci (2002), using metacognitive strategies in the listening process boosts learners' self-confidence, motivation, and ability to complete the activities. According to Abdalhamid (2012), there are two types of metacognitive skill: understanding of cognition and cognition control. Knowledge of cognition is concerned with the learners' awareness of what is going on, whereas regulation of cognition is concerned with what learners should do in order to listen effectively.

Metacognitive strategies, according to Henner Stanchina (1987), played a crucial part in listening comprehension. She stated that skilled listeners can always explain what they hear by

- using prior knowledge and predictions to create theories on the text
- connecting new information with their ongoing predictions
- making deductions to fill comprehension gaps
- assessing their predictions
- improving their theories

The author maintained that good listeners may discover gaps in understanding and use their past knowledge to improve comprehension.

Socio-affective strategies are focused with the interaction of learners with other speakers and their approach towards learning. For example, students may practice a phone conversation in the second language with another student to gain confidence, or they could reward themselves with a cookie after they successfully finish a task in the target language. As stated by Gardner and MacIntyre (1993), affective methods are particularly important since the learning setting and learners' social-psychological elements are inextricably linked. There is a significant association between low anxiety and high listening performance: using emotive techniques makes listening easier and improves listening.

Good listeners employ multiple tactics concurrently and in accordance with the task at hand. This method Vandergrift (2003) calls 'orchestration'. They may listen to a radio broadcast on a regular basis (metacognitive), take notes on the essential points (cognitive), and then meet their fellow learners in the café and tell them all about it (socio-affective). The important thing to remember about strategies is that some of them can be taught. Teachers might emphasize the necessity of predicting in exam scenarios. What word (noun or adjective) will fill up the blank? What kind of data is lacking here? Students may be instructed to jot down relevant terms while listening to radio news headlines. One of the most essential things teachers can do to increase their pupils' listening competency is to encourage them

to be strategic about listening comprehension. But how can listening strategies be taught? The answer is really simple. In many circumstances, the first condition is for pupils to recognize that there is a problem with their skills and that they must take strategic action. The instructor (teacher) must next be able to demonstrate the technique that can help and demonstrate its effectiveness. Finally, the strategy must be repeatable; that is, it must be incorporated into the learners' knowledge for dealing with similar problems in the future. Many published materials now include ideas for strategy use, as educators have realized the importance of strategies. Indeed, a variety of techniques are frequently incorporated into the material in the form of rubrics. Many course-books, for example, include a post-listening rubric, 'Check your answers with a partner,' a socio-affective strategy that helps learners build their confidence.

Wilson (2008) provides some techniques for EFL teachers how to engage their learners for being conscious about their listening comprehension skill and development. Based on his research teachers should be ready and have a plan to achieve the desired goal with the listening task. It means that they should clarify what students will need to do with the material they hear by asking concept questions (questions that require students to demonstrate that they grasp ideas rather than simply recollect facts). These encourage students to verbalize what they need to do, removing any ambiguity. It should be done before the listening comprehension activity and can be applied at any type of listening material. Before the learners listen, they could talk about the topic and how the speaker could see it. This task can be done in pairs or groups. To pool knowledge of a topic, KWL (Know/Want to Know/Learnt) charts can be used. Learners can be provided titles and headlines about the listening material. They anticipate further content before listening to the recording. Just as in the case of the previous activity, it should be done before the listening comprehension task.

Using gap-fill exercise type (in which students fill in the blanks in a transcript) is also a good idea. Before listening, students can do the exercise. They can see how correct their guesses were as they listen. This can be done either before or after the

first listening. If the latter, it should be used to demonstrate which words naturally follow which others, rather than as a memory test. It is possible to accomplish this with any listening text that contains common collocations such as *take your time*, *make an effort*, *Happy Birthday*, idioms, or adjacency pairs like *'How are you?'*, *'All right, thanks.'* *'Thank you.'* or *'You're welcome.'*

During completing any type of listening activity, monitoring is out most important. EFL teachers should pause at regular intervals throughout listening to assess comprehension. Questions like, "Who said X?" Why? What is the subject? Should be given to check pupils achieved results and to see if their responses are sensible. This is taught during the while listening stage. The method should be presented only on rare occasions because it disrupts the listening experience and can frustrate children. It can be done with any listening material, particularly if students are listening for gist, but it works best with slightly longer passages.

If our learners are listening for specific details, it is essential to teach them how pick out information which is relevant to them, listen selectively and ignore irrelevant details in the listening material. The appropriate texts for listening for detail are train schedules, cinema listings information or announcements for example, which consists primarily of information that is irrelevant to the individual listener. Gap-fill tasks are ought to be used. The method can be taught when the while-listening task is being set up, as the teacher describes what the students must listen for. It can be reinforced during feedback following listening.

In listening for specific details activities, note-taking is extremely helpful. People can't remember specifics like phone numbers; therefore, they must practice writing information rapidly. In full phrases, teachers should ask students to identify crucial, emphasized vocabulary items. It is advisable for teachers to make 'Who/Where/What/Why' charts for your kids. They jot down notes in the columns. Note-taking systems only need to make sense to the person taking the notes as notes are essentially private aids for later recall. The method needs pre-listening coaching on how to take notes on and how to write it down. It also requires lengthy response after listening, as students compare their notes. The listening material should include

factual materials, such as news, topical discussions, lectures, and texts including information such as phone numbers and addresses. The strategy is extremely useful when preparing for exam situations.

It is quite common among teachers to ask their learners to listen only for key words during a listening comprehension activity. This strategy works well after the first listening, pointing out that the key words can help learners in understanding the message. Listening to songs can be a perfect opportunity for practicing this strategy. According to McBride (2009), the use of technology can encourage the extension of listening comprehension by presenting students with engaging content. Songs, TV serials, movies, and documentaries are examples of authentic materials, while videos, computers, and the Internet are examples of technology. Authentic materials and technology are inextricably linked since technology is required to run authentic materials.

Many studies have been conducted to investigate the effects of incorporating technology and authentic materials into classrooms on listening comprehension. Özgen (2008) investigated the effects of realistic videos with captions on listening comprehension. According to the findings of this study, learners who watched videos with captions scored much higher than those who watched films without captioning. Hayati and Mohmedi (2011) conducted research on the influence of subtitled videos on listening comprehension. The researchers divided the participants into three groups: L1 subtitled, L2 subtitled, and no subtitles. The group with English subtitles outperformed the other groups, according to the results.

Communicative language teaching emphasizes the role of communication during the language learning process, which can be applied during listening comprehension activities as well. Learners can check their answers with peer learners and evaluate their own or each other's results. It can be used as a post-listening activity and also useful for highlighting differences in interpretation. The strategy can be done with any kind of listening text or topic.

Conducting dictogloss activities is also a great opportunity to develop more skills at the same time. The teacher tells a story or a joke at full speed for several

times. EFL learners work in pairs or groups to reconstruct the story, gradually adding details. As the teacher presents the while-listening exercise, the strategy is outlined. After listening, the students assess their success with the technique.

Students need frequent and thorough training in these tactics, as well as opportunities to put them into practice, throughout their studies. This is an important aspect of the planning process. Some kids will undoubtedly use them already, but many will not. One issue is that some pupils object to being told how to learn. Teachers' tactics can be quite subtle. The ideal strategy is to do it, then focus briefly on what you accomplished before moving on without dragging the point out. Strategy training works best as a drip-feed procedure (little and often) rather than a flood, and if the process is repeated frequently enough, students will most likely begin to employ the correct techniques naturally, which is the goal of any learner training.

In conclusion, this part examines the recent approaches in developing listening comprehension at an EFL lesson, such as the usage of dictogloss, repetition, listening diaries, MALQ questionnaires and the importance of listening support. Furthermore, the three listening stages (pre-, while- and post-listening) are described in a detail way, together with six popular myths about listening comprehension. This chapter analyzes several potential difficulties that can be experienced both by the teacher or the EFL learners during the lesson and categorizes it into speaker, material, and listener related problem. Last, but not least, provides some techniques for developing listening comprehension.

PART 3

DISCUSSION AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS OF THE RESEARCH

In the third part of the thesis, the quantitative research will be presented in a detailed way with its methodology, participants and research results. As it was mentioned before, the aim of this research was to explore teachers' belief and techniques about listening comprehension.

The current study is a sequel to a previous one focused on school learners and their attitudes toward listening comprehension. While the previous research investigated the strategies for developing listening comprehension among primary and secondary EFL learners, this one tries to answer the question of what techniques for developing listening comprehension are used by teachers in EFL lessons, and whether these techniques are appropriate for the learners' language acquisition needs.

In order to gain the required information, a structured questionnaire was used, which will be described specifically in the subsequent parts. The result of the research will be presented with the help of diagrams and descriptive statistics.

3.1 Methodology of the Research

A structured questionnaire was used to collect the necessary information related to the purposes and methodologies of carrying out listening comprehension activities in EFL classroom. The questionnaire contains 13 closed and open-ended questions, as well as Linkert scale and rating questions. It consists of a total of four chapters.

In the first chapter we are collecting personal information that can determine the language teaching techniques of the interviewee. These are years of teaching experience and the location of the educational institution where our participants teach (whether it is a rural or an urban environment).

The next chapter examines the attitudes of EFL teachers towards listening comprehension activities and the listening skill. The participants are asked to indicate which skill is the most difficult to teach based on their teaching experience, then to pick which skill they think to be the most difficult for their learners. In the next two questions, respondents had to rank how much emphasis they place on teaching the four (listening, writing, speaking and reading) skills and how often do they conduct listening comprehension activities during EFL lessons.

This is followed by a discussion question, where respondents can express their opinion on what is the main aim of conducting listening activities in the EFL classroom, after that they are provided some different statements about listening comprehension activities, for which they can comment with the phrases "I rather agree", "I agree", "I rather disagree" and "I don't agree".

The main question of the third chapter is the usage of different strategies during conducting listening comprehension activities. The respondents had to enlist at least 4-5 methods in an open-ended question and justify their usage. Then they were required to indicate how often (always, usually, sometimes or never) they use different pre-, while-, and post-listening strategies during listening comprehension activities.

The last, fourth chapter focuses on the course-books and different aids used in the lesson. In the two questions provided, EFL teachers had to indicate the textbook they are using and how often. Then, within a ranking question, evaluate the listening tasks in the given course-book on a scale of 1-5, where 1 is the worst and 5 is the best. If the respondent chose option 1 or 2, thus was not satisfied with the quality of the listening tasks, he/she had to mention the reason for this in a discussion question.

The research process was conducted both, in person and online, in view of the continuous change in the form of education in Transcarpathia. The online questionnaire was carried out using Google Forms and was shared in different online

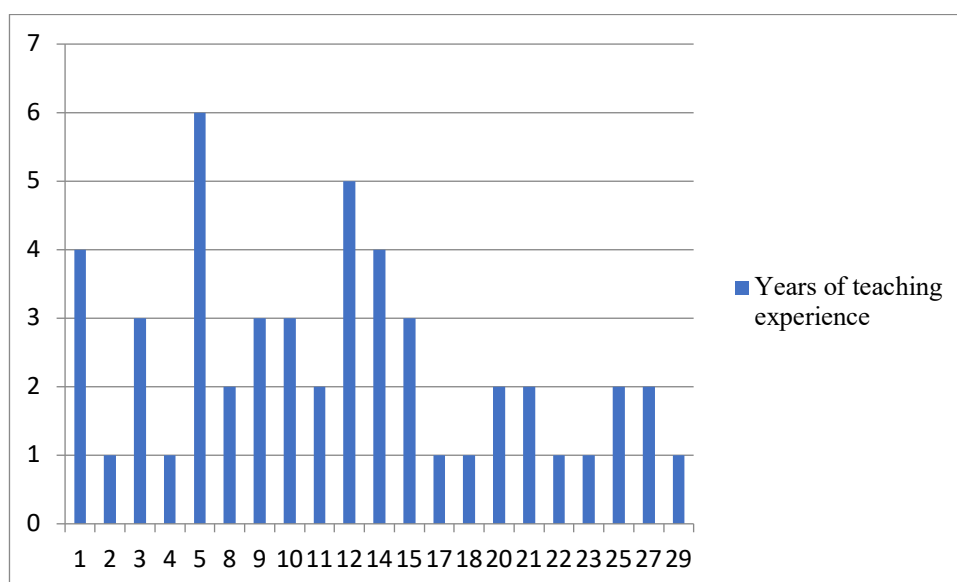
platforms for Transcarpathian EFL teachers. In case of face-to-face questioning, the respondents received the printed form of the questionnaire.

3.2 Participants

Altogether 50 people were considered in the research. The respondents were selected from different locations within Transcarpathia. All of them teach English as a foreign language in a Hungarian speaking primary or secondary school. We have managed to gather information from the schools of Verbőc, Nagydobrony, Karácsfalva, Munkács and Ungvár beside many other rural/ urban educational institutions.

In terms of their location, the vast majority (60 %) of respondents teach in a rural environment, while only 20 people (40%) work in urban places. Regarding their language teaching experience, answers vary from only 1 to 29 years spent in formal education. The respondents' years of teaching experience is summarized in diagram 3.2.

Diagram 3.2 Years of Teaching Experience



3.3 Data Analysis

In this part, the collected data will be presented in a detailed way in the form of diagrams or descriptive statistics. It will depict the EFL teachers' beliefs and

attitudes towards listening comprehension activities, also show what kind of techniques and materials they use during the lesson. The results will be compared with the previous learner-oriented research in order to get information whether EFL teachers' techniques suit the needs of EFL learners in the language learning process.

3.3.1 Attitudes Towards the Listening Skill

In the first question about EFL teachers' attitudes towards the listening skill participants were asked to indicate which skill is the most difficult to teach based on their teaching experience, then to pick which skill they think to be the most difficult for their learners.

Twenty people (40%) of 50 chose writing as the most difficult skill to teach, almost equally to speaking, which was chosen as the most difficult one by 18 people (36%). Only 11 respondents from 50 (22%) chose listening as the most difficult skill, which underpins the results of the previous research about the EFL learners. Based on learners answers it turned out that listening skill is not seen as the most difficult one (Bajusz, 2021). With only 2% (1 person) reading tends to be the most easily taught skill among the four.

The same results can be observed for the question „Which of the four skills is the most difficult for your learners?”. 46% (23 respondents) of EFL teachers believed that speaking skill is the most difficult to acquire for learners, which is followed by writing with 17 answers. 10 respondents see listening as the most difficult skill to acquire. Based on the answers reading is the most easily acquired skill, as no one choose this option.

EFL teachers gave a unanimous opinion on the difficulty level when it comes to skill development, indicating that speaking and writing require the lots of attention. The most obvious reason for this is that writing and speaking are active skills, which means that by practising them we use our knowledge about the target language. Reading and listening, on the other hand, passive skills. Learners just analyse the words they see or hear, but do not use them for creating individual thoughts.

Diagram 3.3.1 Difficulty level of skill development according to teachers

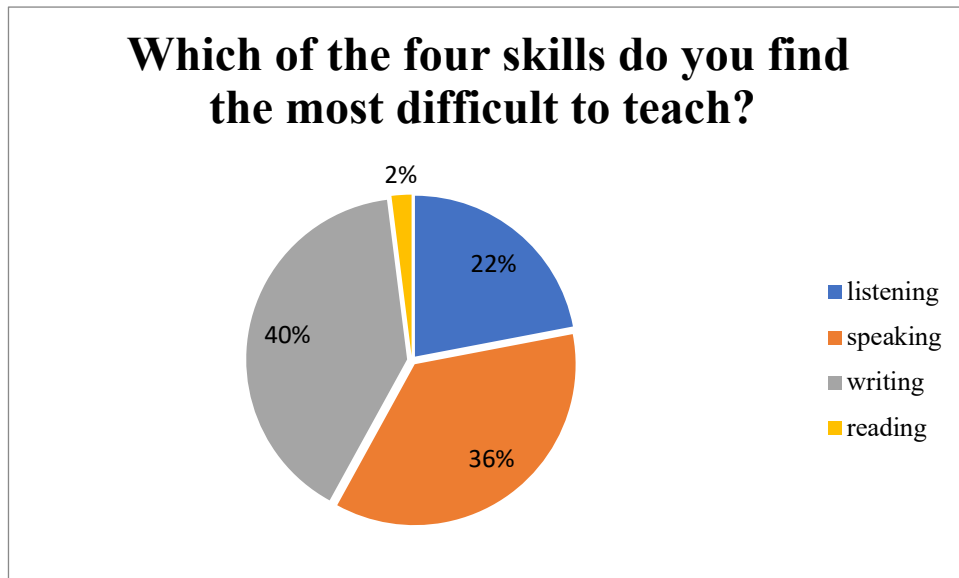
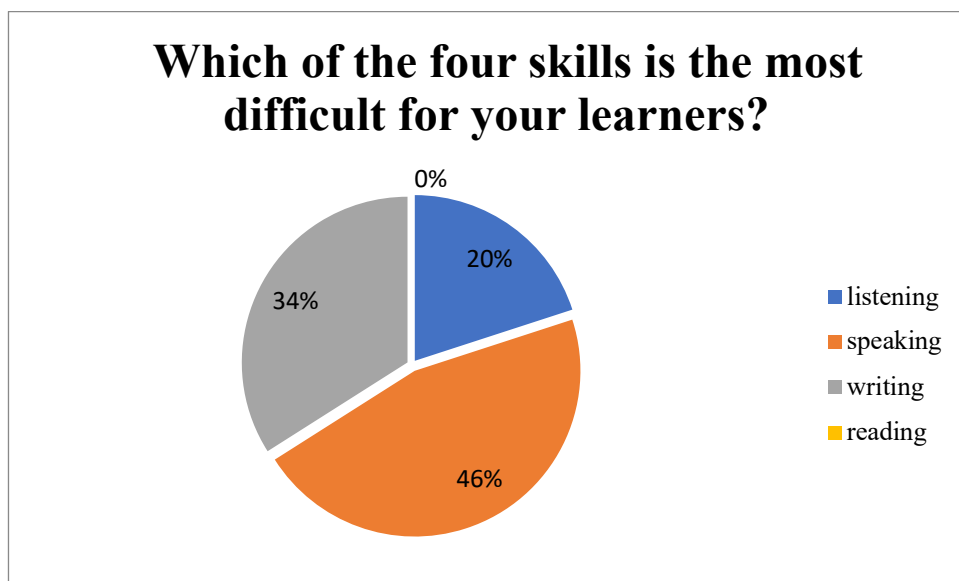


Diagram 3.3.1 Difficulty level of skill development according to learners

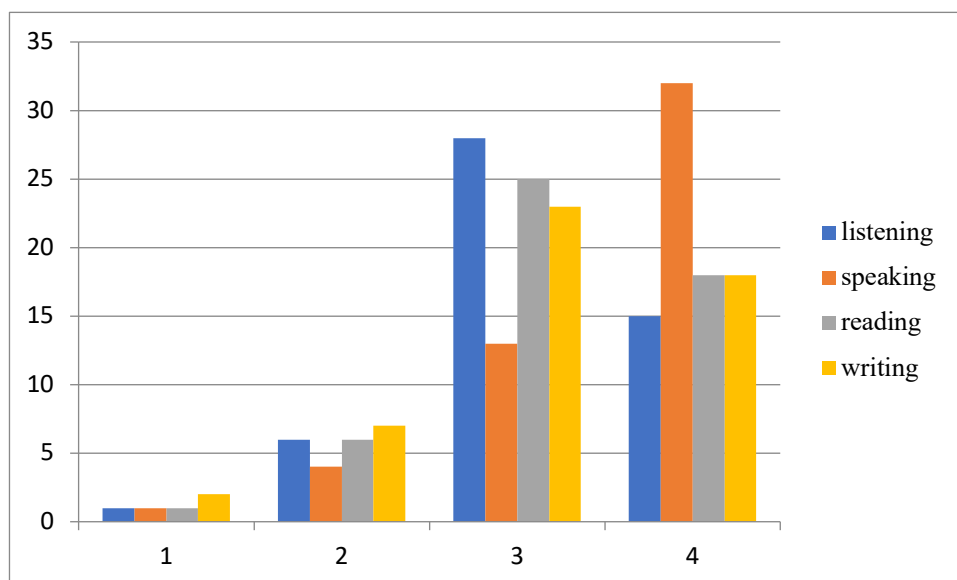


Regarding the importance of the listening comprehension activities EFL teachers gave controversial answers comparing to their choices in the previous two questions. They were asked how much emphasis they place on teaching the four skills and rank them based on the frequency using numbers 1 to 4, where 1 is the least emphasis and 4 is the most. Furthermore, we were interested how often they conduct listening comprehension activities in their EFL classes.

As it can be seen on Diagram 3.3.1, EFL teachers try to spend as much time on skill development as possible, as only a few percentages chose options 1 or 2. Most of them, however, (32 respondents from 50) place the most emphasis on speaking skill development during their lessons. It is followed by listening, which was chosen by 28 respondents. After these two comes reading with 25 answers and writing, which was indicated by 23 respondents.

These results show us that despite teachers think that writing is the most difficult skill to acquire and to teach, they tend to neglect it during their lessons. On the other hand, they try to develop speaking skills as many times as possible.

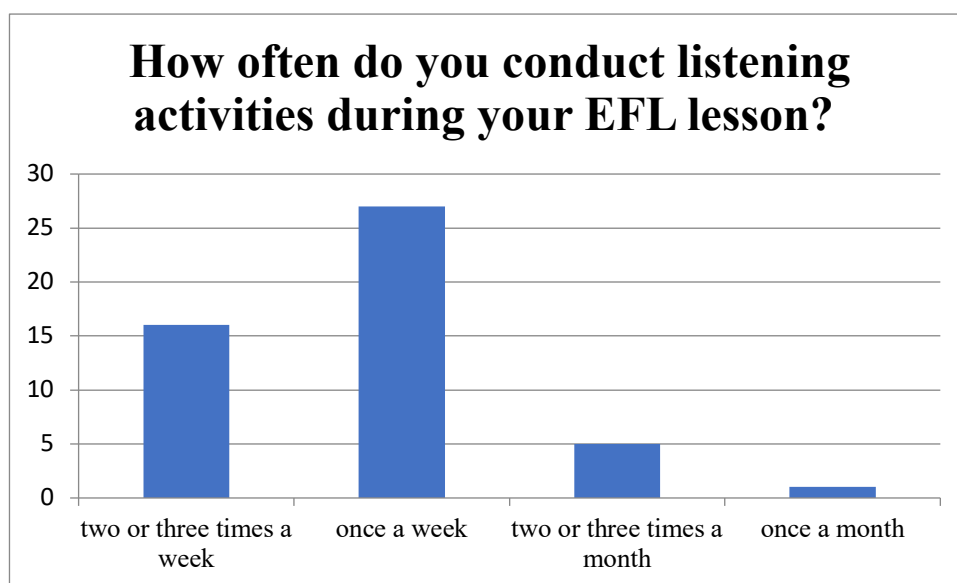
Diagram 3.3.1 Emphasis placed on skill development by EFL teachers



3.3.2 Attitudes Towards Listening Comprehension Activities

Furthermore, even though EFL teachers pointed out, that listening is not so difficult to teach or acquire as speaking, they place a lot of emphasis on them. Based on their answers, 55 % of EFL teachers conduct listening comprehension activities once in a week. This is the most common option both among teachers from rural and urban areas, but 16 respondents (30,6%) tries to pay more attention to listening and they conduct listening comprehension activities two or three times a week. Only 5 respondents spend time with these two or three times a month, and one person does it once in a month.

Diagram 3.3.2 Frequency of conducting listening comprehension activities by EFL teachers



Next, respondents could express their opinion on what is the main aim of conducting listening activities in the EFL classroom. The answers are presented based on their frequency of appearance:

- to develop student's listening skill
- to help them in understanding native speakers
- to develop learner's communicational skills
- to develop pronunciation
- to understand the content and the vocabulary of the passage
- to introduce them the culture of the United Kingdom
- to improve memory and enrich lexical knowledge

It can be seen from the results that most EFL teachers conduct listening comprehension activities because they want their learners to have advanced listening skill and to understand native speakers' real-life conversations. It means that language teachers are aware of their learners' language learning needs as it was shown in Bajusz (2021) that the most motivating factor for EFL learners to develop their listening skill is understanding native speakers. By hearing some typical, everyday phrases, listening comprehension activities can help in improving vocabulary and developing proper communicational skills with native speakers.

Next, respondents were provided some different statements about listening comprehension activities, for which they could comment with the phrases "I rather agree", "I agree", "I rather disagree" and "I don't agree". In the most cases, respondents answered with "I rather agree" and "I agree", which means that they are interested in developing their teaching techniques for the sake of the language learning process.

Most of the EFL teachers agree that during the listening comprehension activities, learners try to guess the meaning of an unfamiliar word from the context, or the vocabulary item preceding the unknown one. 24 respondents of 50 think that it is more important for learners to understand the listening material than to listen carefully to what is actually said. This is the main idea of the listening for gist technique. On the other hand, findings of Bajusz (2021) prove that almost half (43%) of EFL learners try to listen to every word during a listening comprehension activity.

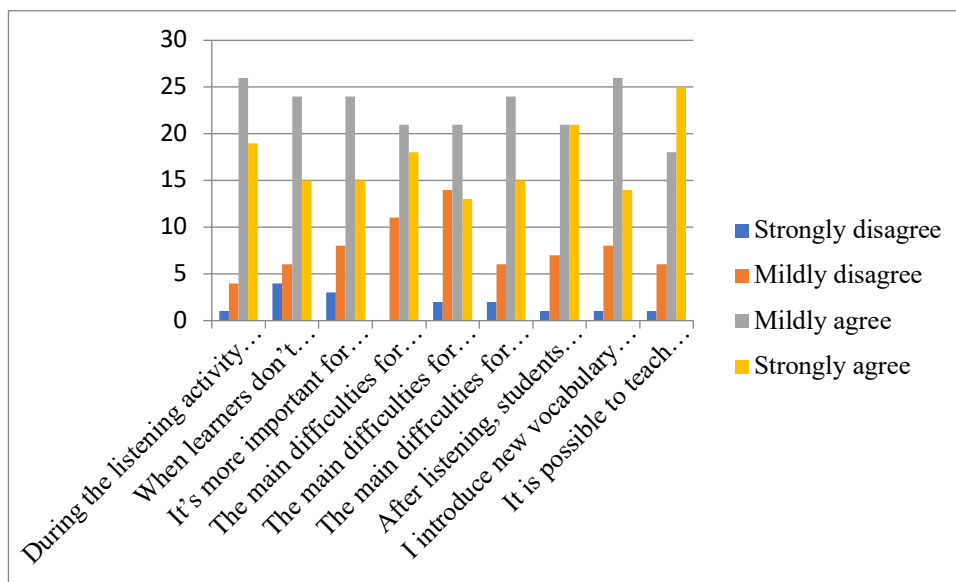
The main difficulty for learners during listening comprehension activities arise from the high speech rate, as 24 people of 50 picked this option as the most influencing factor. It is followed by the lack of background knowledge and vocabulary which was chosen as the primary obstacle by 21 respondents. These results are in concordance with the research findings of Bajusz (2021). Most of the EFL learners (69 respondents from 100) expressed that at the first place it is the high speech rate that makes listening comprehension activities difficult for them. The second most influencing factor is that the listening material is full of unfamiliar words, which means that learners usually lack the required lexical knowledge for completing the activities successfully.

Altogether 42 EFL teachers of 50 agreed or rather agreed that after completing the listening comprehension tasks learners should discuss how they completed and felt during the activity. It is outmost important as a lot of EFL learners struggle with listening anxiety. It is the psychological response of a person for listening task and mainly connected with fear of misunderstanding, inadequately processing, or not being able to adjust psychologically to the message. For preventing listening anxiety EFL teachers tend to introduce new vocabulary to learners before listening to the

material and completing the tasks. At least, this is what statistics show, as altogether 40 respondents of 50 agreed and rather agreed to the advantages of using this strategy.

43 of 50 respondents believe that it is possible to teach EFL learners how to listen more effectively. The given answers are summarized in the following diagram:

Diagram 3.3.2 Teachers beliefs about listening comprehension



3.3.3 Listening Comprehension Procedures

The main question of the third chapter is the usage of different techniques during conducting listening comprehension activities. In the first question of the chapter respondents had to enlist at least 4-5 techniques they use during listening comprehension activities in a discussion question and justify their usage. The answers will be presented based on the frequency of their appearance:

- to remind learners about the vocabulary linked to the topic in order to make it easier for them to understand the passage (20 respondents)
- to discuss the correct answers after listening to the material as a feedback (15 respondents)
- to look through the questions before listening and discuss the unfamiliar words in order to help in understanding the listening material (13 respondents)

- to encourage learners to try and find the key words during listening (11 respondents)
- to play the recording two or three times to ensure that learners understood the material (5 respondents)
- to ask learners to listen to the text carefully (5 respondents)
- to pause the listening material during listening (4 respondents)
- to ask questions about the main topic to help the students connect what they already know about the topic to the information mentioned in the listening material (2 respondents)
- to mention the purpose of the task (1 respondents)
- to teach while-listening techniques (1 respondent)

As it can be seen from the collected data, most EFL teachers pay attention to preparing their learners for the listening comprehension activity. They analyze the lexical content of the listening material and discuss the questions connected to the task just to make the listening process easier for the learners. Unfortunately, only one respondent mentioned the importance of teaching listening techniques to EFL learners as an individual option. Although listening to the material more than one time is essential for a successfully completed listening comprehension activity, there were only a few, who plays the listening material two, or even three times. On the other hand, teachers are aware of the importance of feedback, as discussing the correct answers after listening to the material is the third most common instruction they carry during a listening comprehension activity.

After asking about the usage of different techniques during listening comprehension activities, respondents were given ten most common techniques followed by EFL teachers and they had to indicate how often they use these procedures before, during and after listening comprehension activities. They could choose between options “never”, “sometimes”, “usually” and “always”.

22 respondents of 50 always remind their learners of the vocabulary linked to the listening material. 18 teachers do it usually, while 9 practices it sometimes, and 1 respondent never.

Before listening, 17 respondents usually ask pupils to discuss possible answers to the questions, while 12 do it always. 13 sometimes and 7 respondents never carry instructions like that. However, 28 respondents of 50 look through the questions before listening to make sure that everything is understandable for them, and no respondent choose the option “never” for this question. From the data, we can make a consequence that discussing the questions is more important for EFL teachers than discussing possible answers for them.

Half of the respondents usually ask their pupils to verify their predictions during the listening comprehension activities, while 12 people of 50 do it sometimes and only 7 chose option “always” for the question.

Most of the EFL teachers ask their learners to focus on key words during completing a listening activity, as altogether 41 respondents 50 do it always or sometimes on their lessons. No one from the teachers stated that they never ask their learners to do so. These results are underpinned by the next question where 21 respondents of 50 mentioned that they never ask their learners to listen to every word, the main aim is to understand the material. Altogether, 14 teachers admitted that they always or usually ask their learners to listen to every word while listening.

EFL teachers are not likely to stop the tape during a listening comprehension activity. Less than half of them (21 respondents) sometimes stop the listening material, 14 teachers do it usually and 13 always. The main reason for doing so is to give learners time for writing down their answers. The majority of them believe that pupils would have time to specify their answers during the time of the second listening, if they missed something.

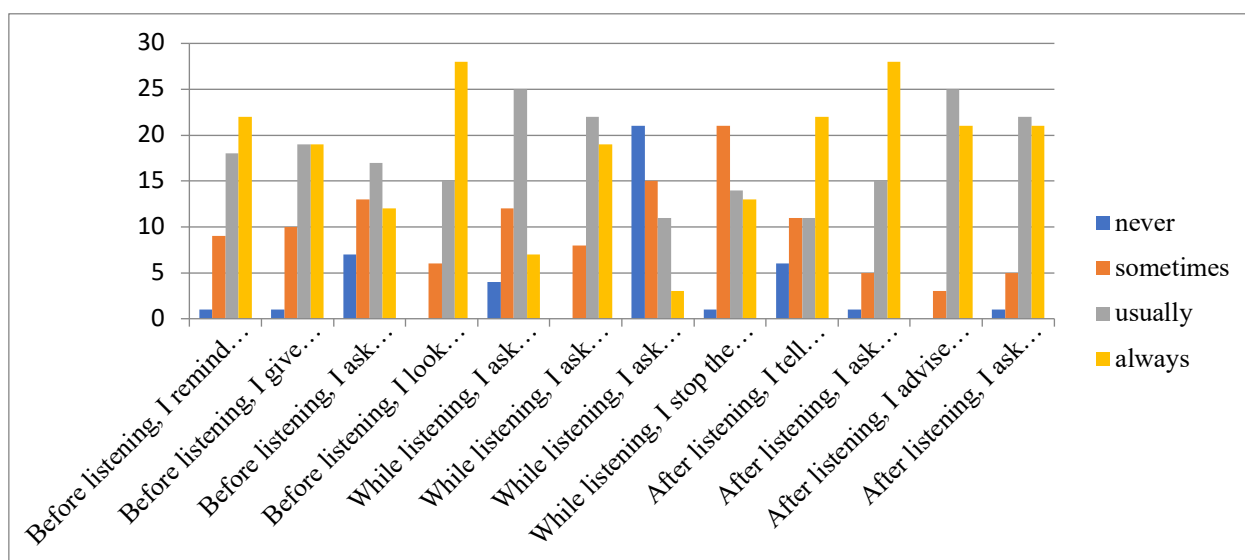
22 respondents of 50 always tell the correct answers to their learners after completing the listening comprehension activity and 28 of 50 always ask their learners what answers they wrote down. Once again, 22 of 50 does not follow this rule of telling the correct answers, as they chose options “sometimes” and “usually”

and 5 respondents do not even ask their learners about the answers they put down. Six teachers never tell the correct answers to their learners.

After listening, 46 respondents of 50 always or usually advise their learners how to deal with the difficulties next time and only 3 teachers do this sometimes. None of them chose the option “never” for this question.

Furthermore, after listening, EFL teachers tend to encourage their learners to express their answers in the target language so to improve their speaking skills at the same time. Based on the statistics, 43 respondents follow this habit always or usually, 5 people chose option “sometimes” and only one person never ask his/her learners to speak in English when expressing their answers.

Diagram 3.3.3 Teachers’ habits of using listening strategies during lessons



3.3.4 Usage of Coursebooks During Listening Comprehension Activities

The last chapter of the questionnaire focuses on the course-books and different aids used in the lesson. In the two questions provided, EFL teachers had to indicate the textbook they are using and how often. Then within a ranking question, evaluate the listening tasks in the given course-book on a scale of 1-5, where 1 is the worst and 5 is the best. If the respondent chose option 1 or 2, thus was not satisfied with the quality of the listening tasks, he/she had to mention the reason for this in a discussion question.

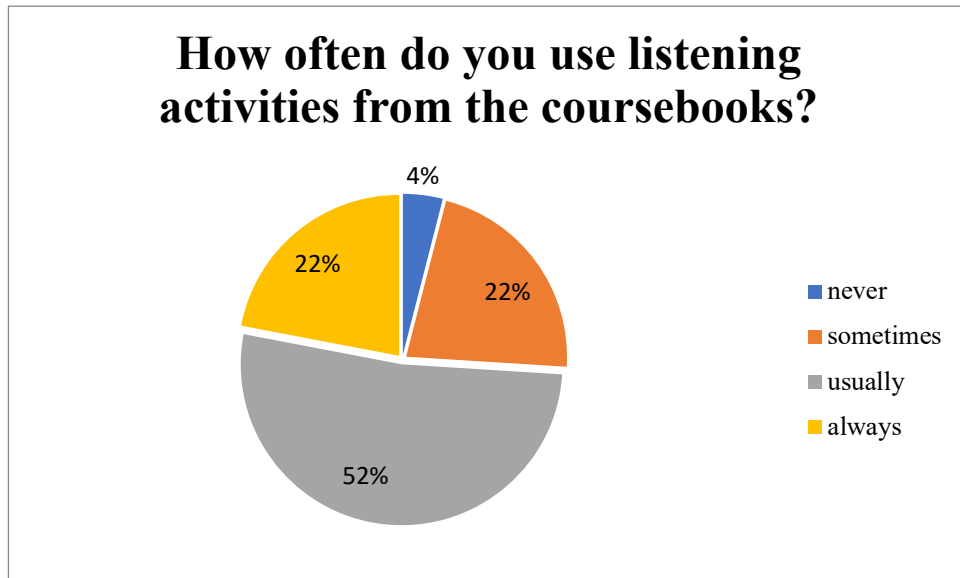
As the first question of the chapter, the respondents were asked to name the coursebook they use during their EFL lessons in a discussion question.

The most frequently used course-books among EFL teachers are “*English*” and “*English with Smiling Sam*” by O.Karpiuk, “*English*” and “*We learn English*” by A.M. Nesvit, “*Smart Junior*” by H.Q. Mitchell and “Quick Minds” by H.Puchta, G. Gerngross and P. L. Jones. However, EFL teachers working in urban environment mentioned more course-books, which can be explained with the fact that rural educational institutions are typically underfunded and have not so many opportunities for purchasing exercisebooks from foreign publishers. Obviously, books like *English*” and “*English with Smiling Sam*” by O.Karpiuk are equally used by teachers from urban educational institutions beside the followings: “*Wider World*” by B. Hastings and S. McKinley, “*Next Move*” by F. Beddall and J. Wildman, “*Roadmap*” series by L. Warwick and D. Williams, “*Solutions*” series by P. A. Davies, “*English File*” series by C. L.-Koenig, “*Fairyland*” and “*Access*” series by J. Dooley and V. Evans, or “*Start Up*” by K. Beatty. Both, teachers from urban and funded rural environment mentioned using coursebooks, such as “*New Headway*” by J. and L. Soars, “*Full Blast*” by H.Q. Mitchell, “*English Plus*” series by B. Wetz and D. Pye, “*Get 200*” by M. Roshinska and L. Edwards.

As the second question, we were interested how often EFL teachers use listening activities from the course-book they have during lessons. They were provided four options: “never”, “sometimes”, “usually” and “always”.

More than half (26 people) of the respondents usually do listening tasks from the course-books. Equally 22% (11 respondents) stated that they sometimes or usually use course-books for conducting listening comprehension activities and only 2 people admitted that they never do so. Both respondents explained that they do not use course-books when conducting listening activities, because they are too difficult for the designed age group.

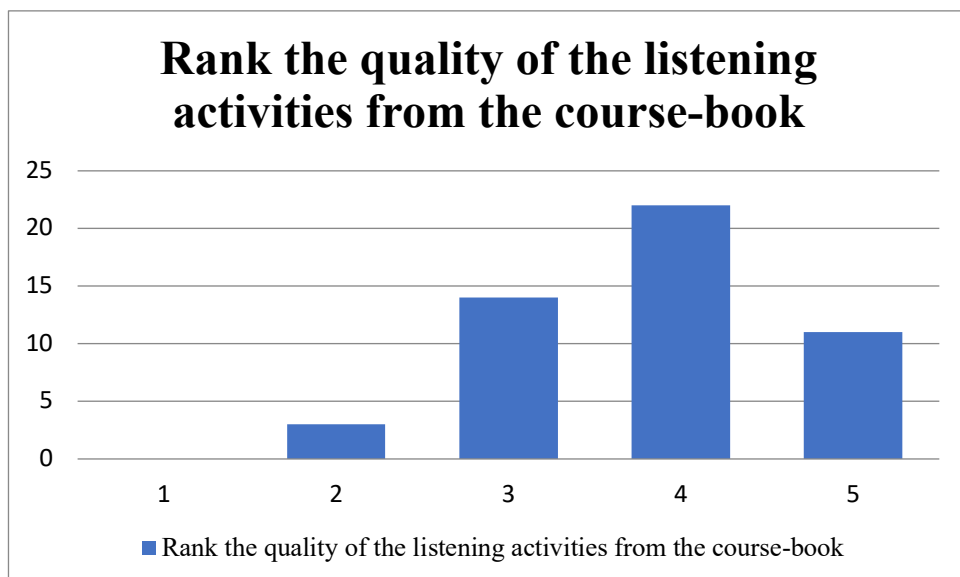
Diagram 3.3.4 Frequency of coursebook usage among EFL teachers



Next, respondents were asked to rank the quality of the listening activities from the course-books they use during the lessons on the scale of 1-5, where 1 is not effective at all and 5 is really effective. If respondents chose 1 or 2, they had to justify why they are not satisfied with the provided task in a discussion question.

Almost half (22) of EFL teachers described the quality of the listening tasks as a four, while 22% (11 respondents) were completely satisfied with the provided course-book tasks. Fourteen (28%) teachers remained neutral, as they ranked the tasks as a 3 from 5 and only three people were not satisfied with the aids, so they ranked them as a 2. Nobody from the respondents ranked the listening comprehension activities as a 1.

Diagram 3.3.4 The quality of the listening tasks according to EFL teachers



When the respondents were asked what they find to be the problem with course-book provided listening comprehension tasks, only seven EFL teachers admitted having some problems with the listening activities from the course-books. During their lessons they use course-books of H. Puchta, O. Karpiuk and A.M. Nesvit. These seven answers can be read below:

- The tasks and the listening material are not appropriate for the age group
- I don't use any foreign publishing houses
- Sometimes those activities are not really developing, because they're not interesting enough and too difficult for the pupils
- My pupils don't like them
- Quick speaking
- The course-book is not for teaching English
- Too difficult for the students to understand the material

Based on the respondents' answers, it can be observed that the main problem with listening materials and listening comprehension tasks provided by the course-books is that they are too difficult, whether the context or the lexical items, for the learners to understand.

In conclusion, the main aim of the third chapter is to present the research findings with the help of descriptive statistics and diagrams. Based on the answers of the respondents, there were some common points with the previous learner-oriented research concerning the EFL teachers' reasons why they conduct listening comprehension activities during their lessons or what teachers think to be the most difficult part of understanding a listening passage. On the other hand, we could experiences some differences as well. Most EFL teachers agree that during the listening comprehension activities learners try to guess the meaning of an unfamiliar world from the context, while the findings of Bajusz (2021) proved that almost half of EFL learners try to listen to every word during a listening comprehension activity. The main difficulty for learners during listening comprehension activities arise from

the high speech rate, which is followed by the lack of background knowledge and vocabulary. These results are in concordance with the research findings of Bajusz (2021).

CONCLUSION

The ability to hear spoken language, including identifying specific words, understanding grammatical structures, and comprehending the overall meaning of a spoken message, is referred to as listening comprehension. It is a complex active process that requires the pupil to differentiate sounds, comprehend vocabulary and grammatical structure, interpret stress and intonation, and contextualize it.

According to author Joseph DeVito (2000), the listening process is separated into five stages: receiving, understanding, remembering, evaluating, and responding. Receiving is the conscious focus on hearing a speaker's message that occurs when we block out external sources to isolate the message and prevent the distracting stream of inputs. The following stage is comprehension. It entails decoding and interpreting symbols that we have seen and heard. The next phase, remembering, is an important element of the listening process because it shows that the listener has not only taken in and absorbed the message, but has also stored it in the "storage bank" of the mind, ensuring that it will be remembered. In the next stage, *evaluating*, the listener analyzes the message they have heard, while responding, sometimes referred to as feedback, is the final stage of the listening process.

Based on the findings of Wilson (2008) the four types of listening we practice in EFL classroom can be distinguished as: listening for gist, listening for specific information, listening in detail and inferential listening. Gist is usually defined as the most essential pieces of information about a certain topic, or general knowledge without any specific details. The learners are trying to recognize keywords, intonation, and other clues, which can lead them to unfold the meaning. On the other hand, listening for specific information often lies in finding details in the text, for instance, a name, a place, a profession, an object, or a number. Listening for detail is sometimes confused with listening for specific information as learners are searching for a specific detail to complete the task. Inferring is in some ways a thinking skill as we make deductions by trying to perceive the hidden message of what was actually stated.

The most common problems with what EFL learners could face during listening comprehension activities are: lack of vocabulary, high speed rate, lack of background knowledge or interest, anxiety, bad quality of the listening material, and unfamiliar accents. However, there is still some techniques that EFL teachers could follow and thus help their learners to deal with the task more effectively.

Listening activities should be designed to suit the needs of the students, and teachers should give real listening resources, such as everyday conversations, to help students better understand the natural speech made by native speakers. A variety of information should be presented to pupils, such as lectures, radio news, films, TV plays, announcements, ordinary discussion, and interviews. The reason for this is not only the interest factor, but the diversity of accents that learners may encounter during the language learning process. Listening activities should be presented in order of complexity, which means that teachers should provide learners with more difficult tasks gradually. It is also essential to be an active part of the listening comprehension activity. EFL teachers should provide feedback for their learners and assist them after the activity. Teachers should motivate their students for acquiring effective listening skills. They should encourage their learners to listen to music, documentaries, and news on the radio and television, as well as converse with native speakers in person or via the Internet, to develop and reinforce a healthy listening habit in themselves.

The main purpose of this research was to examine whether EFL teachers meet these requirements during their EFL lessons and what techniques do they use for developing their learners' listening skill. In order to gain the required information, a structured questionnaire was used. The questionnaire contained 13 closed and open-ended questions, as well as Likert scale and rating questions. It consisted of a total of four chapters.

Altogether 50 people were considered in the research. The respondents were selected from different locations within Transcarpathia. All of them teach English as a foreign language in a Hungarian speaking primary or secondary school. In terms of their location, the vast majority (60 %) of respondents teach in a rural

environment, while only 20 people (40%) work in urban places. Regarding their language teaching experience, answers vary from only 1 to 29 years spent in formal education.

The results of the research are the following: 20 people (40%) of 50 chose writing as the most difficult skill to teach, almost equally to speaking, which was chosen as the most difficult one by 18 people (36%). Only 11 respondents from 50 (22%) chose listening as the most difficult skill, which underpins the results of the previous research about the EFL learners. Based on learners answers it turned out that listening skill is not seen as the most difficult one (Bajusz, 2021). With only 2% (1 person) reading tends to be the most easily taught skill among the four.

46% (23 respondents) of EFL teachers believed that speaking skill is the most difficult to acquire for learners, which is followed by writing with 17 answers. 10 respondents see listening as the most difficult skill to acquire. EFL teachers try to spend as much time on skill development as possible, as only a few percentages chose options 1 or 2. Most of them, however, place the most emphasis on speaking skill development during their lessons. It is followed by listening, which was chosen by 28 respondents. After these two comes reading with 25 answers and writing, which was indicated by 23 respondents.

55 % of EFL teachers conduct listening comprehension activities once in a week. This is the most common option both among teachers from rural and urban areas, but 16 respondents (30,6%) tries to pay more attention to listening and they conduct listening comprehension activities two or three times a week. Most EFL teachers conduct listening comprehension activities because they want their learners to have advanced listening skill and to understand native speakers' real-life conversations. It means that language teachers are aware of their learners' language learning needs as it was shown in Bajusz (2021) that the most motivating factor for EFL learners to develop their listening skill is understanding native speakers.

Most of the EFL teachers agree that during the listening comprehension activities, learners try to guess the meaning of an unfamiliar word from the context, or the vocabulary item preceding the unknown one. 24 respondents of 50 think that

it is more important for learners to understand the listening material than to listen carefully to what is actually said. This is the main idea of the listening for gist technique. On the other hand, findings of Bajusz (2021) prove that almost half (43%) of EFL learners try to listen to every word during a listening comprehension activity.

The main difficulty for learners during listening comprehension activities arise from the high speech rate, as 24 people of 50 picked this option as the most influencing factor. It is followed by the lack of background knowledge and vocabulary which was chosen as the primary obstacle by 21 respondents. These results are in concordance with the research findings of Bajusz (2021). 42 EFL teachers of 50 agreed that after completing the listening comprehension tasks learners should discuss how they completed and felt during the activity. 43 of 50 respondents believe that it is possible to teach EFL learners how to listen more effectively. Most EFL teachers pay attention to preparing their learners for the listening comprehension activity. Although listening to the material more than one time is essential for a successfully completed listening comprehension activity, there were only a few, who plays the listening material two, or even three times. On the other hand, teachers are aware of the importance of feedback, as discussing the correct answers after listening to the material is the third most common instruction, they carry during a listening comprehension activity.

More than half (26 people) of the respondents usually do listening comprehension tasks from the course-books. Equally 22% stated that they sometimes or usually use course-books for conducting listening comprehension activities and only 2 people admitted that they never do so. Almost half of EFL teachers described the quality of the listening tasks as of good quality. Fourteen teachers remained neutral and only three people were not satisfied with the aids. It can be observed from the respondents' answers that the main problem with listening materials and tasks provided by the course-books is that they are too difficult, whether the context or the lexical items, for the learners to understand.

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РЕЗЮМЕ

Здатність чути розмовну мову, включаючи визначення конкретних слів, розуміння граматичних структур і розуміння загального значення усного повідомлення, називається розумінням на слух. Це складний активний процес, який вимагає від учня диференціації звуків, розуміння лексики та граматичної структури, інтерпретації наголосу та інтонації та контекстуалізації.

За словами автора Джозефа ДеВіто (2000), процес слухання поділяється на п'ять етапів: отримання, розуміння, запам'ятовування, оцінка та відповідь. Отримання - це свідоме зосередженість на почутті повідомлення мовця, яка виникає, коли ми блокуємо зовнішні джерела, щоб ізолювати повідомлення та запобігти відволікаючому потоку входів. Наступний етап - осмислення. Вона тягне за собою розшифровку і інтерпретацію символів, які ми бачили і чули. Наступна фаза, запам'ятовування, є важливим елементом процесу слухання, оскільки вона показує, що слухач не тільки прийняв і ввібрав повідомлення, але й зберіг його в розумі, гарантуючи, що воно запам'ятається. На наступному етапі, оцінюючи, слухач аналізує почуте повідомлення, в той час як відповідь, іноді звана зворотним зв'язком, є завершальним етапом процесу прослуховування.

Виходячи з висновків Вілсона (2008), можна виділити чотири типи слухання, які ми практикуємо в класі англійської, як: прослуховування суті, прослуховування конкретної інформації, детальне прослуховування та висновок, як зазвичай визначається як найважливіша інформація з певної теми або загальні знання без будь-яких конкретних деталей. Учні намагаються розпізнати ключові слова, інтонацію та інші підказки, які можуть привести їх до розкриття значення. З іншого боку, прослуховування конкретної інформації часто полягає в пошуку деталей у тексті, наприклад, імені, місця, професії, об'єкта чи числа. Прослуховування деталей іноді плутають із прослуховуванням конкретної інформації, оскільки учні шукають певну деталь для виконання завдання. Висновок у певному сенсі є навичкою

мислення, оскільки ми робимо висновки, намагаючись сприйняти приховане повідомлення того, що було насправді сказано.

Найпоширеніші проблеми, з якими учні англійської можуть зіткнутися під час діяльності з розуміння на слух: брак словникового запасу, висока швидкість, відсутність базових знань або інтересу, тривога, погана якість матеріалу для аудіювання та незнайомі акценти. Проте все ще існують деякі прийоми, яких вчителі англійської мови можуть дотримуватися і таким чином допомогти своїм учням ефективніше впоратися із завданням.

Діяльність з аудіювання має бути розроблена відповідно до потреб учнів, а вчителі повинні надавати реальні ресурси для аудіювання, наприклад щоденні розмови, щоб допомогти учням краще зрозуміти природне мовлення носіїв мови. Учням слід надавати різноманітну інформацію, таку як лекції, радіоновини, фільми, телевізійні вистави, оголошення, звичайні дискусії та інтерв'ю. Причиною цього є не лише фактор інтересу, але й різноманітність акцентів, з якими учні можуть зіткнутися під час процесу вивчення мови. Діяльність з аудіювання має бути представлена в порядку складності, що означає, що вчителі повинні поступово давати учням складніші завдання. Також важливо брати активну участь у діяльності з розуміння на слух. Викладачі англійської мови повинні надавати зворотній зв'язок своїм учням і допомагати їм після вправи. Вчителі повинні мотивувати своїх учнів до набуття ефективних навичок слухання. Вони повинні заохочувати своїх учнів слухати музику, документальні фільми та новини на радіо та телебаченні, а також спілкуватися з носіями мови особисто або через Інтернет, щоб виробити та зміцнити в собі здорову звичку слухати.

Основною метою цього дослідження було перевірити, чи вчителі англійської мови відповідають цим вимогам під час своїх уроків англійської мови і які методи вони використовують для розвитку навичок слухання своїх учнів. Для отримання необхідної інформації була використана структурована анкета. Анкета містила 13 питань закритого та відкритого типу, а також

питання за шкалою Лінкерта та рейтингові питання. Загалом він складався з чотирьох розділів.

Всього в дослідженні взяли участь 50 осіб. Респонденти були відібрані з різних населених пунктів Закарпаття. Усі вони викладають англійську як іноземну в угорськомовній початковій чи середній школі. За місцем проживання переважна більшість (60 %) респондентів навчаються в сільській місцевості, а в містах працюють лише 20 осіб (40 %). Що стосується їхнього досвіду викладання мови, відповіді різняться від 1 до 29 років, проведених у формальній освіті.

Результати дослідження такі: 20 осіб (40%) із 50 вибрали письмо як найскладнішу навичку для навчання, майже стільки ж, скільки й говоріння, яке вибрали найскладнішим 18 осіб (36%). Лише 11 респондентів із 50 (22%) вибрали аудіювання як найскладнішу навичку, що підтверджує результати попереднього дослідження щодо учнів англійської мови. На основі відповідей учнів виявилось, що вміння слухати не вважається найскладнішим (Bajusz, 2021). Лише 2% (1 особа) читання, як правило, є найлегшою навичкою серед чотирьох.

46% (23 респонденти) вчителів англійської мови вважають, що навички мовлення є найважчими для учня, за якими йде письмо з 17 відповідями. 10 респондентів вважають слухання найскладнішою навичкою для набуття. Викладачі англійської мови намагаються приділяти якомога більше часу розвитку навичок, оскільки лише кілька відсотків обрали варіанти 1 або 2. Більшість із них, однак, приділяють найбільшу увагу розвитку розмовних навичок під час своїх уроків. Далі йде прослуховування, яке обрали 28 респондентів. Після цих двох іде читання з 25 відповідями та письмо, яке вказали 23 респонденти.

55 % викладачів англійської мови проводять вправи з розуміння на слух раз на тиждень. Це найпоширеніший варіант як серед вчителів із сільської місцевості, так і серед міських, але 16 респондентів (30,6%) намагаються приділяти більше уваги аудіюванню та проводять заняття з розуміння на слух

два-три рази на тиждень. Більшість викладачів англійської мови проводять вправи з розуміння на слух, тому що хочуть, щоб їхні учні володіли поглибленими навичками аудіювання та розуміли розмови носіїв мови в реальному житті. Це означає, що вчителі мов усвідомлюють потреби своїх учнів у вивченні мови, оскільки Баюс (2021) показав, що найбільш мотивуючим фактором для тих, хто вивчає англійської мови розвивати свої навички аудіювання, є розуміння носіїв мови.

Більшість викладачів англійської мови погоджуються, що під час діяльності з розуміння на слух учні намагаються вгадати значення незнайомого світу з контексту або словникового елемента, який стоїть перед невідомим. 24 респонденти з 50 вважають, що учням важливіше зрозуміти прослуханий матеріал, ніж уважно слухати те, що насправді сказано. Це основна ідея техніки аудіювання суті. З іншого боку, висновки Баюс (2021) доводять, що майже половина (43%) тих, хто вивчає англійської мови, намагається слухати кожне слово під час діяльності з розуміння на слух.

Основні труднощі для учнів під час діяльності з розуміння на слух виникають через високий темп мовлення, оскільки 24 людини з 50 вибрали цей варіант як найбільш впливовий фактор. Далі йде відсутність базових знань і словникового запасу, які 21 респондент обрали як основну перешкоду. Ці результати узгоджуються з результатами дослідження Баюс (2021). 42 вчителі англійської мови з 50 погодилися, що після виконання завдань на розуміння на слух учні повинні обговорити, як вони виконали та як почувалися під час вправи. 43 із 50 респондентів вважають, що можна ефективніше навчити учнів англійської мови слухати. Більшість вчителів англійської мови приділяють увагу підготовці своїх учнів до діяльності з розуміння на слух. Хоча прослуховування матеріалу більше одного разу є важливим для успішного завершення вправи з розуміння на слух, було лише кілька тих, хто відтворює прослуханий матеріал два або навіть три рази. З іншого боку, вчителі усвідомлюють важливість зворотного зв'язку, оскільки обговорення правильних відповідей після прослуховування матеріалу є третьою за

поширеністю інструкцією, яку вони виконують під час діяльності з розуміння на слух.

Більше половини (26 осіб) респондентів зазвичай виконують завдання на розуміння на слух з підручників. Так само 22% заявили, що іноді або зазвичай використовують підручники для проведення вправ з розуміння на слух, і лише 2 людини визнали, що ніколи цього не роблять. Майже половина вчителів англійської мови оцінили якість завдань з аудіювання як хорошу. Чотирнадцять вчителів залишилися нейтральними і лише троє не були задоволені посібниками. З відповідей респондентів можна помітити, що основна проблема з матеріалами для аудіювання та завданнями, які містяться в підручниках, полягає в тому, що вони надто складні, чи то контекст, чи то лексичні одиниці, для розуміння учнями.

APPENDICES

Questionnaire

My name is Boglárka Bajusz and I am studying at the Ferenc Rákóczi II Transcarpathian Hungarian College of Higher Education. This questionnaire serves as a research for the thesis "*LISTENING DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES IN AND OUT OF EFL INSTRUCTIONAL SETTINGS*". The subjects of the investigation are the common beliefs and procedures used by EFL teachers in primary and secondary schools. The questionnaire is anonymous.

Thank you in advance!

I. Personal Questions

1. Years of teaching experience. Write the number in the gap below.

.....

2. What type of school do you teach in? Circle the answer.

- a) rural b) urban

II. Attitudes toward the listening skill

1. Which of the four skills do you find the most difficult to teach? Circle the answer.

- a) listening
b) speaking
c) writing
d) reading

2. Which of the four skills is the most difficult for YOUR LEARNERS? Circle the answer.

- a) listening
b) speaking
c) writing
d) reading

3. How much emphasis do you place on teaching the following skills? Rank them based on the frequency. (1-least emphasis, 4- the most emphasis)

Listening

Speaking

Writing

Reading

4. How often do you conduct listening activities during your EFL lesson?

Circle the appropriate answer.

- a) two or three times a week
- b) once a week
- c) two or three times a month
- d) once a month
- e) Other option:

5. According to you, what is the main aim of conducting listening activities in the EFL classroom? Write your answer in the gap below. You can mention more than one purpose.

.....

6. How do you agree with the following statements about EFL learners? Write the answers based on your teaching experience. Put an X to the appropriate answer.

	Strongly disagree	Mildly disagree	Mildly agree	Strongly agree
During the listening activity learners try to guess the meaning of an unfamiliar word from the context				
When learners don't understand a word they guess its meaning from the words that precede the unknown one				

It's more important for learners to understand the passage than to listen carefully to what is actually said				
The main difficulties for learners in listening arise from their lack of vocabulary.				
The main difficulties for learners in listening arise from the fast speed speaking of the speaker				
The main difficulties for learners in listening arise from lack of background knowledge about the topic of the passage.				
After listening, students should discuss how they completed and felt about the listening activity.				
I introduce new vocabulary to learners orally in connected speech.				
It is possible to teach learners how to listen more effectively.				

III. Listening activity procedures

1. Enlist 4-5 most important instructions that you follow when conducting listening activities. Write down the procedures to the column and justify their usage.

Procedure	Justification

2. How often do you use these procedures before, during and after listening comprehension activities? Put an X to the appropriate answer.

	Never	Sometimes	Usually	Always
Before listening, I remind learners of vocabulary linked to the topic				
Before listening, I give pupils vocabulary items that will be used in the passage				
Before listening, I ask pupils to discuss possible answers to the questions				
Before listening, I look through the questions with the learners to make sure that everything is understandable.				
While listening, I ask pupils to verify their predictions				
While listening, I ask pupils to focus on key words				
While listening, I ask pupils to concentrate on every word				

While listening, I stop the tape to give time for pupils to write down their answers.				
After listening, I tell learners what the correct answers are				
After listening, I ask learners what answers they put				
After listening, I advise learners how to deal with difficulties next time				
After listening, I ask learners to answer using target language words/phrases				
After listening, I ask learners to answer using target language words/phrases				
After listening, I ask learners to answer using target language words/phrases				

IV Usage of exercisebooks for developing listening skill

1. Name the exercise book that you are working from during your lessons.

Write your answer below to the gap.

.....

2. How often do you use listening activities from the textbook? If your answer is NEVER, justify your answer.

- a) always
- b) usually
- c) sometimes

d) never, because:

.....

3. Rank the quality of the listening activities from the textbook (1- not effective at all, 5- really effective). If you choose 1-2, justify the problem below the numbers.

1 2 3 4 5

.....