



T.C. ANADOLU ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ

A COMPARATIVE STUDY ON
THE LISTENING PERFORMANCE
OF UNIVERSITY STUDENTS
LEARNING ENGLISH AS A
FOREIGN LANGUAGE

(Yüksek Lisans Tezi)

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ABSTRACT

This comparative and diagnostic study foregrounds the significance of listening comprehension in foreign language teaching / learning and attempts to lay the background necessary for further research by examining the listening comprehension performance of the university students learning English as a foreign language.

In the first chapter the relationship between language, communication and listening comprehension is discussed.

The second chapter covers the implications about listening: the definition of listening, the listening process and listening and other skills.

Chapter three provides a historical review of the literature of how listening has been treated in language teaching programs by different teaching methodologies.

The research method is presented in Chapter four, and the fifth Chapter includes statistical analysis of the data.

Finally, in the last chapter discussion and suggestions for further study are included.

ÖZET

Dinleme anlama yetisinin dil öğretimi ve öğreni-
mindeki önemini vurgulayan bu çalışmayla, Üniversite öğrencilerinin bu alandaki becerilerini karşılaştırarak etken faktörler gözlenip daha ilerideki çalışmalara temel sağlayacak öneriler getirilmektedir.

Birinci bölümde dil, iletişim süreci ve dinleme yetisi arasındaki ilişki ele alınmıştır.

İkinci bölüm dinleme yetisinin tanımı, dinleme sürecinin aşamaları ve dinleme ile diğer dil yetileri arasındaki ilişkiyi ele almıştır.

Üçüncü bölümde dinleme anlama yetisinin dil öğretimindeki yerine ilişkin tarihsel bir tarama yapılmıştır.

Dördüncü , beşinci ve altıncı bölümler de ise sırasıyla yöntem, bulgular ve analiz, yorum ve öneriler yer almıştır.

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INTRODUCTION

Traditional approaches to language teaching often insisted that speaking and grammar play a fundamental role in learning a new language. In other words knowing a language was believed to be closely related to correct pronunciation and mastery of the target language grammar regardless of the major function of language: communication. (Winitz, 1981: ix)

However, it has been agreed later that over emphasis on drills and mechanical production exercises does not always guarantee success in achieving a good command of the language being learned. On the other hand this type of language instruction discourages the development of communicative abilities. With this in view more innovative approaches describe the main objective of language teaching as providing the learners with fluency in communication. That is to say, a shift from a thorough concentration on the structure of the target language to the use of the language has begun to appear in language classrooms recently (Widdowson, 1979:57)

In order to establish perfect or nearly perfect

(oral) communication As Broughten states (1980:53) - along with speaking, listening, also, need be present in language teaching programs. The first logical step in achieving oral fluency or occuracy, he goes on, is to consider learner's ability to listen since it would not be possible to produce the language before getting enough aural input to produce it.

Considering these, the present study would like to concentrate on comprehension of the spoken language which is necessary in oral communication since it constitutes the decoding process of the communication chain.

CHAPTER I

INTERRELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LANGUAGE COMMUNICATION AND LISTENING COMPREHENSION

1.1: The Definition of Language

Even though it is not possible to write every single definition for what language is, a selected few will be beneficial to look at.

One definition which is taken from a dictionary describes language as follows:

" A language is a system of communication which consists of a set of sounds and written symbols which are used by the people of a particular country or region for talking or writing in. "
(Collins Cobuild English Language Dictionary, 1987: 809).

In his "Language and Linguistics" Lyons (1981:3ff) cites a number of definitions which were formerly put forward by several well known linguists - providing a more linguistic conception of language:

- i) "Language is a purely human and noninstinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of voluntarily produced symbols." (Sapir, 1921).
- ii) "Language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which a social group cooperates." (Block and Trager, 1942).
- iii) "Language is the institution where by humans communicate and interact with each other by means of habitually used oral, auditory arbitrary symbols. " (Hall, 1986).

Needless to say, implications about the nature of language are not limited by the given four definitions. Numerous other arguments and suggestions from different scholars - are likely to be encountered throughout the theoretical literature concerning language.

However, it might be observed that despite the differences in their attitudes toward language, most of these linguists, in one way or another, make some statement about, to quote Herbert Clark's phrase, "the fundamental function of, language: communication."

As, Dubin and Olshtain (1977:51) pointed out language is used as a tool of communication; thus, to know a language means to communicate in that language. This leads to the conclusion that in their attempts to teach a language - in our case, English as a Foreign Language - teachers try to enable their students to communicate in that language. That is to say, the teaching of a language can be considered to be equal to the teaching of how to communicate in that language. In accordance with this idea, Paulston (1976:58) stated that "... communicative competence is the objective of language teaching. It is the production of speakers competent to communicate in the target language."

1.2. Comprehension as a Part of Communication

Having determined the ability to communicate as being the ultimate goal of language teaching circles, it would be relevant at this point to consider what it means to communicate in a particular language.

From the author's learning experience, the most common tendency in the act of communication - which is described as exchange of ideas by Mukbil Ertunç (1976:3)- was observed to be the superiority of oral performance. Nevertheless, the belief that competence in speaking the target language would be sufficient enough for one to communi-

cate in that language can not, most of the time, go any further from causing an absolute failure unless he is equally competent in comprehending what he hears.

This synthesis of various real learning experiences appear to be consistent with the following statement:

"Speaking does not of itself constitute communication unless what is being said is comprehended by another person." (Rivers, 1981:151).

In light of the linguistic and psychological studies, communication models were developed by a number of researchers. Despite the slight differences among these communication models, all shared almost the same elements in common but with different priority order and with different name attachment.

Generally three basic elements are said to be involved in communication process: a speaker, a listener and a signalling system. Both the speaker - who starts the communication and tries to get his message across - and the listener - who receives the signal - take part in communication process. (Clark and Clark 1977:25).

In, his definition of the communication system

Weaver (1972) prefers to replace the terms "speaker" and "hearer" by "information source" and "destination" respectively. According to his model, the process requires other elements like a transmitter (encoding), a channel and a receiver (decoding).

Barker's (1971:19) communication model consists of the following: encoding process, transmission process, the message, channels, communication climate, interference, reception process, decoding process; listener and feedback. He underlines the significance of feedback from listener to speaker when he says that "without feedback the cycle is not complete."

It has now been apparent that communication is not only based on the production of language; it also involves "interpersonal responsiveness" which requires both oral performance and aural comprehension (Paulston, 1976:56). Thus, if the aim of communication is to be achieved, teaching the comprehension of spoken language is of great importance. (Rivers, 1981:151).

1.3. Background of the Listening Skill

1.3.1. Listening as a Neglected Skill

Not until the late sixties and early seventies

listening skill began, to be recognized in language teaching programs, but still not as fully as the other two skills, reading and writing. (Brown, 1977:1) Before that period comprehension of the spoken language was not described as a distinct skill separate from pronunciation and grammar; therefore, the text books lacked the topic or if not involved pronunciation practice rather than more comprehension type of exercises. Because the segments, the word stress, the intonation of sentences were described as being the distinctive feature of the spoken language, students' problems in aural comprehension were believed to be due to failure in decoding the above mentioned elements. Therefore, students were exposed to a teaching methodology which involved exercises concerning the identification of segments, word stress, and intonation meaning. (Paulston & Bruder, 1976:127) (Brown, 1977:liff).

This, type of inappropriate or inadequate listening had been present in the direct method classrooms as well. Being quite far from listening for understanding, it was rather listening for oral production. (Nord, 1981) (Joan Harley 1980 : 7).

Another consideration for why listening was ignored until recently was the lack of theoretical knowledge about the nature of listening (Paulston & Bruder, 1976:

128) Snow and Perkins (1979:51) drew attention to the same fact stating that there was lack of understanding the complexity of the listening skill. Since it had long been considered as being a passive behavior, along with reading it was doomed to be an undervalued skill until now.

The neglect may also have stemmed from the analogy made between the native language and the second language. Acquisition of the first language requires no skill building; and this feature was attributed to the second language learning process as well. Thus, it was estimated that the teaching of listening - as one of the four skills - was not necessary in a second language. (Coakly Wolvin, 1986:14).

One other reason for the ignorance is the belief that ability to comprehend the spoken language is the automatic outcome of one's good command in the grammar, reading and writing of a new language (Douglas Mc Keating, 1981:57).

1.3.2. Recognition of Listening as an Essential and Frequently Used Skill

As Schwartz stated (1981), by the development of communication via mass media, people tend to listen as twice as the time they spend to use other language skills.

(Cited in Coakly and Wolvin, 1986:11).

Apart from the media people also listen to each other in order to communicate. The earliest study was held in 1926 by Rankin showed that 42.1 percent of the communication time was devoted to listening where as 31.9 per cent to speaking, 15 per cent to reading and 11 per cent to writing. The implication that listening is the most frequently employed skill of all the communicative abilities was confirmed by the investigations of other scholars: Weindrauch and swanda in 1975, werner in 1975. (Coakly and Wolvin, 1986:12). In 1978 Rivers and Temperly noted the percentage as 45 % listening in contrast with 30 % speaking. 16 % reading and 9 % writing. These numbers are from a pre - television, pre - talking picture and pre - dictaphone era. (Rivers Temperly, 1978:62). Similar to the above data Horley stated the average time spent in communicating to be 50 % listening 25 % speaking, 15 % reading and 10 % writing. (Horley, 1980 : 7).

In addition to the daily language use, studies investigating the percentage of time people from different professions spent in communication were also conducted by different scholars. After studying with house wives in 1957 Breither came to a conclusion that they spent 48 % of their communication time for listening,

35 % for speaking, 10 % for reading and 7 % for writing (Barker, 1971:3).

Twenty five research studies concerning success in bussiness life were reported by Di Salvo in 1984. He found that "Listening was rated as a super critical skill needed by people in the work force." (Coakly and Wduin, 1986:12).

The role of listening was confirmed by another study conducted by Bird (1954) with dieticians. He concluded that listening is the most important verbal communication skill in their job (Cited in Barker, 1971:4).

Research results showed that school children spend more time listening in the classroom than teachers realize. The fact that primary school students are required to listen 57.5 % of their classroom time was stated in his work by wilt (1950). The amount of time spent in listening by secondary school students was found to have been increased (Markgray, 1966). Another research with college women this time, was conducd by Bird in 1953. The students said that listening consumed nuch of their communication time with a portion of 42 %. Not less that 90 % of the class time in high schools and colleges was reported to be spent in listening to discussions and lectures by Taylor in 1964 (Cited in Coakly and Wolvin 1986:13).

In light of the evidence that listening is a basic skill in both the classroom and daily life; it seems clear that it would be beneficial for the language students to use listening skills in order to meet their communicative needs.

Petrie (1961) viewed listening as an ability which is important to the development of other language skills. According to him this was one reason to include listening in school curriculum. The second reason was the more frequent application of listening in the classroom than any other verbal communication. Thirdly, he stated that "listening is not a very efficient means of learning, therefore additional training is needed in order to help students more efficiently through listening" (Cited in Barker, 1971:5).

More recent experiments administered by Gary (1981), Nord (1980) and Postovski (1974) came to a conclusion that receptive skills especially listening should precede productive skills in language learning. This evidence helps to show the role of listening in learning process. (Cited in Winitz, 1981:XIV).

Barker (1971) summarizes the reasons for "why to listen" in his book "Listening Behavior". According to him "listening is the primary process through which

language is learned". He states that it helps students to learn the pronunciation of words, and that it enables the learner to evaluate strong and weak points in a message. He also argues about its contribution to improve learners' confidence (Barker, 1971:8).

Even though the research results vary slightly depending upon the groups studied, they all contribute to the idea of listening being the heart of communication. Thus, listening was considered to play a central role in academic achievement, in business success, in human communication and even in international understanding.

The centrality of listening in verbal communication motivated the present author to undertake this task. Through actual learning experiences, she was convinced that the lack of fully satisfactory comprehension of conversations in a new language is enough to make the learner feel discouraged when he is faced with different accents of the native speakers and their speed of delivery which does not sound a bit like his teachers.

Considering these, the present study would like to concentrate on this under valued language skill.

1.4. Purpose of the study

This study is designed to compare the differences in subjects' ability to comprehend spoken language, and to discover the factors affecting better performance in listening comprehension.

The following points will be examined throughout the study:

1. Is there a significant difference between the control group and the experimental group in
 - i) Subjects' overall performance in the pre test as a whole
 - ii) Subjects' performance in each test type in the pre test.
2. Is there a significant difference within the control group between
 - i) Subjects' overall performance in the pre and post tests
 - ii) Subjects' performance in each test type of the pre and post tests.
3. Is there a significant difference within the experimental group between
 - i) Subjects' overall performance in the pre

and post tests

ii) Subjects' performance in each test type
of the pre and post tests

4. Is there a significant difference between
the control group and the experimental group in

i) Subjects' overall performance in the post
test as a whole

ii) Subjects' performance in each test type
in the post test

5. Is there a significant difference between the
control group and the experimental group in

i) Subjects' overall performance in the
independent test as a whole

ii) Subjects' performance in each test type
in the independent test.

1.5. Limitations of the Study

In this study twenty Preparatory School students at the Open Faculty and twenty teacher trainees at the Faculty of Education were selected to constitute the experimental samples.

For the testing purposes a pre and post tests were used each including four different test types: dictation I, dictation II, True/False and Recall. Additionally an independent listening test, which consisted of dictation III, dictation IV and a standardized TOEFL listening test, was administered.

Environmental factors--such as, the quality of the material used, physical conditions of the classrooms, psychological state of the subjects--were not taken into consideration.

1.6. Methodological Assumptions

In this study it is assumed that the students had the same type of instructions in their other courses, and that physically they do not have any kind of hearing impairment.

CHAPTER II

LISTENING - THE LISTENING PROCESS- LISTENING AND OTHER SKILLS

2.1. The Definition of Listening

Scholars who held studies in psycholinguistics, linguistics and phonetics considered the listening process as one dealing with speech sounds. According to Rankin (1926) it is "the ability to understand spoken language." Paralleling this notion, Ralph Nichols (1948) defined listening as "the attachment of meaning to aural symbols" (cited in Coakly and Wolvin 1986:14) In "Understanding Oral Communication" Fausti and Mc Glone (1972:80) summarizes Nichols' and his colleagues' findings about the nature of listening. They maintain that Nichols draws a distinction between listening and hearing.

According to him the phrase "aural understanding" is a good substitute for "listening". By this explanation he emphasizes the interpretation aspect of listening. Unlike hearing, a rapid and automatic activity, which he considers to be a prerequisite for listening, listening involves more than the perception of sound through ears. All the senses as well as mental activity are employed in the listening activity.

This view aligns well with the definition of listening suggested by Lewis (1958). He characterized listening as "the process of hearing, identifying, understanding and interpreting spoken language (cited in Coakley and Wolvin 1986:14).

Johnson (1951) and Hampleman (1958) drew attention to another aspect in the definition: "respond". Thus, Johnson (1951) changed the statement as "the ability to understand and RESPOND effectively to oral communication". Hampleman (1958) expanded the definition further to "the act of giving attention to the spoken word, not only in hearing symbols, but in the REACTING with understanding" (cited in Barker, 1971:16 ff).

The situational factor was taken into consideration by Brown, Carlsen and Still (1955). Brown viewed the listening process as "the aural assimilation of spoken

symbols in face - to - face speaker - audience situations, with both oral and visual cues present." (cited in Barker, 1971:17). It is clearly apparent from Still's (1955) description of listening that he assimilated the idea of absolute existence of a speaker: "... a capacity of an individual to understand spoken language in the presence of a speaker (cited in Coakley and Wolvin 1986: 14). A similar remark was made by Larry L. Barker. He regarded listening as an activity which takes place, primarily, in face - to - face situations. (Barker, 1971: 17). However, with the development of mass media listening is no longer an activity which takes place in a face to face context only.

The fact that we do not try to hear everything but only a selected certain features convinced the scholars to add this consideration to the definition. As Jones (cited in Barker, 1956:17) noted, listening is "... a selective process by which sounds communicated by some source are received, critically interpreted and acted upon by a purposful listener." Barker, expanding his above mentional definition, described listening as "... the selective process of attending to, hearing, understanding, and remembering aural symbols." Notable in this definition listening is composed of four, what he considers as, separate but interrelated processes: attention, hearing, understanding and remembering.

(Barker, 1971:17)

Fausti and Mc Glone (1972:80) took listening to be the destination role in the communication process. In other words, it constitutes the decoding phase of the communication process which means the interpretation of audible and visible messages.

Snow and Perkins, discussing the notion of being an active process, argues that listening is "a very active and integrative language skill involving a grasp of phonological complexities as well as performance factors typical only of speech such as rate of speech, clarity of intonation and pronunciation, hesitation, pauses." (Snow and Perkins, 1979:51)

The same has been mentioned by Rivers and Temperly (1978:63) According to them, "listening is not a passive but an active process of constructing a message from a stream of sounds with what one knows of the phonological, semantic, and syntactic potentialities of the language." Slightly different from the above definition, Rivers drew attention to the creativeness of listening of listening in 1981. She stated that listening is neither a passive nor a receptive skill as has been described in earlier times. It is a creative skill during which

we shape the raw material and we create a meaning which is in the mind of the speaker (Rivers, 1981:160).

This view was supported by Bowen, Madsen and Hilferty (1985 : 73) , who supplied the following definition: "... a listener is far from being passive as he receives, analyzes and interprets the oral signals that come his way, recreating the message of the speaker."

Bridges, Sinha and Walkerdine (1983:116) looked at the phenomenon in a way that few scholars before them had. They expressed an interesting point in their article "The Development of Comprehension" when they said, "the context of communication is of critical importance in determining the interpretation that a listener places upon a speaker's utterance." Paralleling this view they provided a new explanation in the area. They argued that the listening process means more than involving the meaning decoded and acted upon. According to them it is "to understand what is entailed by the relationship between message, intention and context"

To summarize, this historical review of definitions of the listening process concludes that it is a communication behavior which occurs internally, within the listener. It is a distinct communication activity

including the process of receiving, attending to and assigning meaning to aural stimuli. (Coakley and Wolvin 1986:15).

2.2. The Process of Listening Comprehension

Clark and Clark define the listening process at two levels: Construction and Utilization. The former is responsible for the perception of sounds and meaning attachment whereas the latter for helping the listener decide what to do with the stimuli (Clark and Clark 1977: 45).

The auditory reception of the stimulus involving the hearing mechanism is the initial activity in the construction process. The sound enters the middle ear then vibrates the tympanic membrane before it finally goes through the inner ear and to the brain. After passing through the auditory channels the vocal message reaches the short term memory system of the listener where it is held for a while. At this moment the listener is thoroughly concentrated on the message for a very limited period as short as 20 to 60 seconds. (Coakley and Wolvin, 1986: 15 ff).

What the listener tries to do next is to interpret

the speaker's message. This includes the classification of words, their order and their grouping. After analyzing the surface structure, comes the interpretation of the underlying representation which constitutes one of the backstones of comprehension process. As the listener hears the words, he builds up the propositions and their interrelations (Richards, 1985:186).

The final stage after meaning is assigned to the message is to give a response to it which can either be internal or external. Internal response is achieved when pieces of information is stored in the long term memory to be recalled later. Since the long term memory works with meaning not the form, what we remember later is the gist of the message not the whole structure of the stimulus. External response, on the other hand, is what we send to the speaker as feedback (Wing, 1986:17).

Following is Clark and Clark's outline of the whole process involved in listening comprehension:

- 1) "The listener takes in raw speech" and holds an image of it in short term memory.
- 2) An attempt is made to organize what was heard in constituents, identifying their content and function.

- 3) As constituents are identified, they are used to construct propositions, grouping the propositions together to form a coherent message.
- 4) Once the listener has identified and reconstructed the propositional meanings, these are held in long - term memory, and the form in which the message was originally received is deleted "(1977:49).

So far has been discussed the comprehension of the first language. But there is also the process of comprehending a foreign language stimuli, Rivers discusses two levels of comprehending a foreign language, At the first level which is called the recognition level, students first perceive utterances as a stream of undifferentiated sounds. This is replaced gradually by recognition of some regularity in the noise. Later they can identify words and phrases, structure, verb groups, simple expressions. However, this is not enough for comprehension since a full comprehension process requires a selection of what is crucial for the particular situation where the utterance is heard. Thus, the next level is called the selection level. Now students have the capacity of recognizing the important elements which determine the message. Their capacity of recollection,

however, is limited since they are occupied with the task of recognition and selection. Therefore, they may very often fail to remember what they have comprehended.

(Rivers, 1981:158)

It is apparent from Rivers' discussion that stages involved in the comprehension process are likely to take longer when it is a foreign language to comprehend rather than one's native language. Since the individuals do not have a good command of the language they are more likely to make mistakes and to come across words or phrases they do not understand at all. The limited short term memory may cause difficulties in retaining what is heard. Not enough familiarity with the target language as a whole makes it harder to employ certain listening techniques like prediction and selection (Abbot and Wingard, 1981:63).

2.3. Listening and Other Skills

As has been stated before listening constitutes one of the four communicative abilities. According to Lundsten (1970) the order of acquiring the four language skills is listening, speaking, reading and finally writing. This reveals that, since one first starts with listening, this has direct or indirect influence on his ability to speak, read and write. This dependency is stated as

follows:

" ... speech development is derived from one's immitation of others' sounds, reading development is heavily contingent upon auditory discrimination ability as well as ability to recode letters as sounds and writing development is greatly affected by listening vocabulary, which according to Armstrong (1953), exceeds visual vocabulary untill the age of twelve." (Coakley and Wolvin 1986 : 54).

The fact that there is a relationship between the listening and speaking skill is quite apparent if one remembers that there two make up essential parts of the to tal communication process. This interdependency between the two skills - although one is receptive (1) and the other is productive (2) - is well illustrated by Dubin and olshtain . (1977 : 56). They state that these oral skills are utilized interchangably in the communication process. In order to send a message sender uses the listening skill in order to receive that message. They carry on saying that these reciprocal skills reinforce each other. One who starts with the role of being a speaker, also needs to shift his role to be listener in order to get the feedback from the listener. This

mutual reinforcement between the listening and the speaking skills is explained as follows. (Dubin and Olstain, 1977 : 57).

" You begin to hear it better after you have tried to say it; you say it better after you have learned to hear it."

As far as the relationship between the reading and the listening skills is concerned, these two have many in common. Although they differ in the type of stimuli they are exposed to - reading having visual stimuli with full and well organized sentences; listening having aural stimuli with unstructured and redundant sentences, topic shifts, pauses, intonation, pitch, stress etc. - they constitute the decoding process of communication. Both of these so - called receptive skills go through the same set of cognitive processes, but they differ in the physical acts involved: listening requires hearing while reading requires seeing. As Wing (1986) puts forward "Both reach a level of comprehension through recall and retention." Thus, they can be said to be affected by the teaching of and learning about the other.

Although the writing skill seems to have nothing

to do with the listening skill since it is an expressive skill making use of written symbols there still is some kind of relationship between the two as well. As Wing noted - referring to Lundsteen (1979) - "... writers engage in inner speech, and thus listen to themselves as composing ideas." (Coakley and Wolvin, 1986 : 53).

Having mentioned the relationship between listening and other language skills, it would be relevant at this point to talk about the teaching of these skills.

After audiolingualism which gave considerable attention only to oral skills - listening and speaking - simultaneous representation of all four skills began to be involved in language teaching programs. However, years later comprehension based approaches (3) have been developed. These approaches are originated from the fact that speaking, reading and writing are dependent directly or indirectly on listening. The centrality of listening in the development of the other three language skills became to be consistent with research conducted in conjunction with several comprehension based approaches. One of the most striking of all is Nord's (1981) findings. He found that proficiency in listening comprehension is transferrable

to other language skills. Students who have taken intensive listening comprehension training with no systematic training of other language skills developed each equally. (Coakley and Wolvin, 1986 : 53).

FOOTNOTES

- (1) Skill used by the receiver.(Widdowson, 1978))
- (2) Skill used by the sender. (Widdowson, 1978)
- (3) These will be dealt with in detail in Chapter II.

CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE CONCERNING LISTENING SKILL IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

The present chapter will cover how listening skill has been treated in language classrooms by reviewing the literature of different teaching methodologies. However, not all of the philosophies utilized in language teaching circles are intended to be dealt with. Rather only those that give attention to listening, and those which are labelled as "input methods" (1) will be outlined in order to keep consistency with the overall concern of the present study.

3.1. The Direct Method

3.1.1. Background

After the so - called Grammer Translation Method with it's emphasis on grammar, translation and thus written work, there appeared an increasing demand for oral communication toward the mid - nineteen century. Hence, new trends in language teaching were developed - like "natural" or "oral" method (2) which would then provide the basis for the Direct Method. (Rivers, 1981: 32).

As the name implies the Direct Method advocated learning a new language through " direct association of words and phrases with objects and actions, without the use of native language by teacher or students" (Rivers, 1981: 32).

The method, which aimed at enabling the students to think in the target language, strongly emphasized the oral proficiency by letting speech precede other skills.

3.1.2. Classroom Application

The Direct Method restricted the use of native language in classroom. Everything was organized and carried out through the target language. This emphasis on the oral production of the target language arose the need for correct pronunciation. Accordingly, an introductory period during which students were taught the sound system of the target language was included in the syllabus of a direct method language course (Rivers, 1981:33).

After this early training of sounds, an ordinary course began with the teaching of simple vocabulary and actions. Since use of students' native language was not tolerated, it was preferable for direct method teacher to teach first the words and phrases for objects in the classroom and for actions that can be performed. When these expressions were internalized by students, they were ready to go on with the common situations and settings of everyday life. In cases where words couldn't be explained by concrete representation, the teacher had to apply other techniques like miming, sketching, manipulating objects of given detailed explanations in the target language (Rivers, 1981: 34).

Along with correct pronunciation, correct grammar was also emphasized. In order to keep the study of grammar at a more functional level, supporters of the Direct Method preferred to teach it inductively. They suggested a question and answer type of practice for the teaching of oral communication skills. (Rivers, 1981: 34).

3.2. Aural - Oral Approach (Audiolingualism)

3.2.1. Background

A structural linguist, Fries (1939) differed from the founders of the Direct Method, for he believed that exposure to a foreign language without analyzing its grammar was futile for the learner. According to Fries and his colleagues grammar is of primary importance and thus should get more credit. Bearing these factors in mind a new philosophy was developed by American linguists known as the Structural Approach or alternatively the Aural - Oral Approach which would later be labelled as the Audio - Lingual Approach by Brooks (cited in Richards, and Rodgers, 1986: 44) (cited in Rivers, 1981: 36).

The teaching materials and classroom techniques for audio - lingual courses were developed with the guidance of the research results in structural linguistics.

It was revealed that language was identified with speech. This was why oral skills were emphasized in audiolingualism. Bearing the role of grammar in mind; speech was approached through structure (Rivers, 1981: 43).

Another important consideration resulted from research studies was that language is a set of habits. Searching for an answer to the question how habits are acquired, early exponents of audiolingualism were influenced by the behavioristic theory of Skinner. Rivers outlines Skinner's conditioning theory as: " habits are established when reward or reinforcement follow immediately on the occurrence of act." (Rivers, 1981: 41).

In accordance with the theory, whenever the students provided correct response to the stimuli they were reinforced.

3.2.2. Classroom Application

The following quotation taken from an audiolingual course book might provide a clear idea about the order of teaching the four skills:

" The Student must be trained adequately in all four basic skills: understanding, speaking,

reading and writing.

Nothing should be spoken before it has been heard.

Nothing should be read before it has been spoken.

Nothing should be written before it has been read."

(Alexander, 1967:xii)

However, it should be noted that they were all applied to the teaching process to develop oral fluency. Therefore, course material was usually presented in the spoken form. Speaking skills were considered to be the ability to perceive and produce accurately the phonological features of the target language. As the other branch of oral skills, listening was described as training in aural discrimination of basic sound patterns (Richards and Rodgers, 1986:53).

At early stages language used in everyday situations was taught. This was replaced by more literary forms of expression at more advanced levels. No matter what the students' level was, listening and speaking were used to a great extent by continual practice in audio - lingual courses (Rivers, 1981: 40).

At the beginning of a lesson a dialogue was presented. Students first listened to the dialogue either from the teacher or from the tape. As mentioned,

they were required to identify the sounds and the intonation of the phrase until the correct and fluent mastery was achieved. They were then allowed to pass on to learning something new.

During the dialogue presentation, students were asked to study together, first participating in choral work, then in halves of the class, then in rows and finally as individuals. After a dialogue has been learned thoroughly, a new dialogue similar to the students' own situations was developed and acted out by the students. (Rivers, 1981:44).

At the next step pattern drills were presented in order to give students practice in using the structures in wider contexts. They performed the activity using the same classroom technique used in dialogue presentation (Rivers, 1981: 44).

When it came to the teaching of reading and writing students were asked to read and write what they had already studied orally before, however, at more advanced levels; The complexity of the text was increased. Even at this stage listening and speaking were not neglected since there was always an opportunity for oral discussions and listening to recordings of the texts studied (Richards

and Rodgers, 1986:53).

In conclusion it can be said that the Audio - lingual approach, by which grammar is taught inductively, oral production is meant to be accurate pronunciation and grammar, and the ability to respond quickly and accurately in speech situations - like a native speaker. In achieving the goal teaching points are determined by contrastive analysis. It can be observed that there is a tendency to manipulate language and disregard content. (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 60).

3.3. Cognitive (Code) Learning

3.3.1. Background

In sixties both the language description and the underlying learning theory of the previous approach were challenged by Noam Chomsky, a linguist at MIT. He brought a new breath to the area when he said (1966):

"... language is not a habit structure. Ordinary linguistic behavior characteristically involves innovation, formation of new sentences and patterns in accordance with rules of great abstractness and intricacy" (cited in Richards

and Rodgers, 1986: 59).

Notable in the above quotation is that he proposed a new theory as an alternative to Skinner's behaviorist attitude to language learning. Unlike behaviorists he characterized human language behavior as "creative" rather than "imitative". He argued that new sentences are neither learned by imitation nor by repetition; they are formed via the so - called "competence" (Richards and Rodgers, 1959: 59).

Additionally he outlined a new theory concerning the foreign language learning process. Pointing out the mental properties that are utilized in language use and language learning, he stated that "these fundamental properties of language drive from innate aspects of the mind and from how humans process experience through language." (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 59 ff).

Since audio - lingual courses failed to achieve the expected positive results, there was a close interest in the newly developed theory: Cognitive Code Learning.

3.3.2. Classroom Application

Although the goal was to enable the student to be

involved in the activity in audio - lingual syllabuses, far from being active, students were, in fact, exposed to the task of mechanical drill repetitions. Cognitive - code learning, on the other hand, stresses activating the mental powers of students by forcing them to think in the target language and generate appropriate sentences. Underlying idea was that using the language would soon improve students communicative competence. (Newton 1979: 21).

The role of being a facilitator rather than a figure of authority was attributed to the teacher by the theorists; and he was encouraged to use audio - visual aids, stories and other means in the courses during which contextualization and meaning were of great importance (Prator and Murcia, 1979: 4).

Unlike the proponents of the Direct Method, Cognitive learning theorists thought that it was a waste of time to try to produce native like speakers: Thus, the teaching of pronunciation was demphasized. The significance of comprehension, however, especially aural comprehension was indicated strongly. Focal attention was on comprehension of grammatical concepts which were presented deductively, and production of meaning ful messages. (Rivers, 1981: 49).

Carroll, Jakubovist (1970) and Lugton (1971) took much interest in the cognitive learning theory; however, no methodological concern was developed along with this view of learning (Cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986:60)

In the period during which audiolingualism began to loose its popularity, a different attitude toward language teaching methodology was emerged. The idea of making the secand language learning process like the first language acquisition process was proposed and innovative language teaching proposals - like Total Physical Response. Silent way, Counselling learning and the Natural Approach - were developed (Rodgers and Richards, 1986: 60).

Unlike the former methodology requiring early production of the language being learned, this insisted on the priority of aural comprehension in learning a particular language. They are originated from the experimental evidence that before the production stage - as Tripp (1970) posits - come perception, storage, organization of autput and motor autput. Hebb, Lambert and Thucker (1971) supports Tripp stating that "speech depends on the prior perception." (cited in Winitz, 1981: XI) .

This led some scholars to develop an alternative second language teaching methodology which will then be labelled as "Comprehension Approach." Advocates of this innovation argue that learners should not be required to produce the target language until they feel themselves ready to do so. In the initial phase they must internalize how the language works through extensive exposure to verbal stimuli. Not that conversation is discouraged but aural comprehension is believed to facilitate fluency in language. (Winitz, 1981: Xiii).

Laboratory and classroom studies conducted by Asher, (1981) Winitz and Reeds, (1975) Ingram, Nord (1975) and Postousky (1974) evidenced that emphasis on aural comprehension training improves the learner's linguistic competence (cited in Winitz, 1981: 49).

In the present study only one of the above mentioned new trends will be considered in detail since it has attracted a wider interest than the others: The Natural Approach.

3.4. The Natural Approach

3.4.1. Background

In 1977 Tracy Terrel presented a new philosophy

of language teaching labelled as the Natural Approach. This philosophy was developed from the principles of the traditional approach: the natural method. In order to form a theoretical basis for the Natural Approach Terrell incorporated with Stephen Krashen whose theories about second language acquisition added very much to the popularity of the approach. (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 128).

Although both the Natural Approach and the earlier Direct Method were derived from the naturalistic principles, they differed from each other in the way of application. The emphasis was on the use of language in communicative situations without interference of the native language. This was one of the considerations shared by the two methods. Another common feature was the ignorance of grammar and grammatical explanations (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 128 ff).

However the distinguishing factor was that one emphasized the "input" whereas the other "output". The Natural Approach did not require students to produce the language before "a period of attention to what they hear" indicating the central role of comprehension in learning process (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 129).

3.4.2. Classroom Application:

The attempt in the Natural Approach was to provide language learners with situations similar to first language acquisition situations. For that reason, the Natural Approach teacher let his students communicate freely with their classmates in the classroom. This is an inductive approach since no explicit learning is applied. Uncconscious learning is considered to be a type which is the closest to acquisition. (Rivers, 1981 : 53).

In order for the learning process to be more natural, learners should feel themselves as comfortable and relaxed as they were when they acquired their first language - in contrast with the traditional student model who was usually anxious and tense in the classroom. As Krashen suggests this is only achieved by keeping the affective factors at minimum. According to him students' success is closely related not only to low anxiety but also to motivation and self - confidence as well. Krashen's affective filter hypothesis brought a new view of language teacher. He is "... someone who can provide input and help make it comprehensible in a low anxiety situation" (Krashen, 1982: 9ff).

Now it will be useful to consider the Input

Hypothesis. Here the starting point is the question how we acquire a language. Krashen argues that children first go for meaning - understanding - and then they acquire structure. The hypothesis involves four main issues that are summarized by Krashen in his "Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition" in the following way:

- 1) The input hypothesis relates to acquisition, not learning.
- 2) We acquire by understanding language that contains structure a bit beyond our current level of competence ($i + I$). This is done with the help of context or extra - linguistic information.
- 3) When communication is successful, when the input is understood and there is enough of it, acquisition will be provided automatically.
- 4) Production ability emerges; it is not taught directly." (Krashen, 1982: 21 - 22).

Although the hypothesis suggests a graded presentation of structure, as in audiolingualism, Krashen and Terrell states that explicit analysis of grammar by the teacher or learner or in language teaching materials is not necessary, for this will be a learning process rather than an acquisition process. (Richards and

Rodgers, 1986: 131 ff).

Acquisition of a wide vocabulary rather than complex grammatical patterns is emphasized in order to facilitate both comprehension and production of the messages (Rivers, 1981: 54).

2.3.5. A Critical Review of the Methods in the Way They Looked Upon Listening Comprehension

Methods utilized in language teaching can be classified into two main groups according to their concentration on certain areas of language: expressive and receptive (input) methods or to quote Asher "left hemispheric" and "right hemispheric" (3) methods respectively. The so called Direct Method and Audiolingual method are two of the former methodological classes. Although the employment of listening was first realized during the period of direct method and then the following audiolingual method, these methods were organized around talking, reading and writing from the beginning. Since the main focus was on speaking skills, listening did not serve for its own rights. Far from listening skill building for comprehension, it was regarded as a key to oral fluency.

On the other hand, listening to foreign language material for comprehension is first emphasized along with the cognitive code learning.

Similarly right hemispheric or input methods are aware of the fact that how significant is understanding spoken language for learning that language. These methods do not force early production in the second language, but students are given opportunities to acquire the grammar by acquiring an understanding of the language. The comprehension approach differs significantly from other methods in the value placed on speaking exercises. Drills and preplanned or artificially developed dialogues and conversations are not used. The belief is that fluency in oral communication will develop as the result of learning to understand a language - just as in the case of first language acquisition.

Justifying this the comparative research studies showed that input methods which focus on supplying comprehension create better results.

It might be concluded, after the above discussion, that listening, in fact, existed in the language curriculum:
First, in the form of listening in order to repeat.

Then, listening for comprehension during the 70s
Finally, listening to learn a language during the
80s (Joan Hoarley; 1980:7).

FOOTNOTES

- (1) A movement in foreign language teaching - sometimes referred to as the Comprehension Approach - which emphasizes developing comprehension skills. (Winitz, 1981: Xii)
- (2) A movement in foreign language teaching which aims at making classroom learning more like the native language learning through oral practice (Rodgers and Richards, 1986)
- (3) "With left hemispheric methods, the speech areas of the brain tend to be isolated from the areas that give language its meaning whereas with right hemispheric methods they do not." (cited in Winitz, 1981: 142).

CHAPTER IV

THE RESEARCH METHOD

4.1. Research Design

This comparative study is designed to investigate the factors that influence / contribute to the subjects' performance in listening comprehension.

In order to answer the questions raised in chapter I the performance of both control and experimental group subjects on listening comprehension tests was calculated. As a testing procedure, a listening comprehension test composed of two separate dictation tests, a true /false test and a recall test was used. The same test was administered as a pre - test at the beginning of Fall semester 1987 and as a post test in

three months' time at the end of the semester. Additionally, an independent listening comprehension test - consisting of two dictation tests and one standardized TOEFL listening comprehension test - was used.

These tests were given to the first year English teacher trainees at the Faculty of Education and Preparatory School students at the Open Faculty.

4.2. Selection of Subjects

Subject who participated in this study were drawn from a population of 225 students studying at Anadolu University, Eskişehir. At the very beginning they were given a standard placement test to determine their level of proficiency in the target language. This was to ensure that the sample group of subjects randomly chosen among the whole population, did not vary in terms of their English level.

At this point it should be noted that eventhough the ultimate academic aims of the students participating in this study is not the same they were all subject to similar cirriculums with few variations.

4.2.1. Experimental Group

Experimental group consisted of twenty Preparatory School students studying at the Open Faculty of Anadolu University, Eskişehir. They were exposed to a systematic four hour classroom training in listening comprehension every week. Moreover, they had native speakers of English as their instructors which enabled them to be familiar with different accents of English language such as Irish, British American, Scottish.

4.2.2. Control Group

Control Group was composed of twenty teacher trainees studying at the Faculty of Education of Anadolu University, Eskişehir. Unlike the experimental group subjects, they did not have any systematic classroom training in listening comprehension - apart from their regular language courses. Also they were not exposed to a variety of native English accents like the experimental group.

4.3. Testing Procedure

The material used for the testing purposes was taken from a listening comprehension practice book

People Today, which was not used as a text book by either groups. The reason to choose this book was that it contained no passages full of jargon but rather included comprehension passages about general topics. Also the level of the book was compatible with the subjects' English level. Length of the passages were quite appropriate to be included in such an experiment. They were neither too short - so easy to handle - nor too long - so boring to follow.

A TOEFL listening comprehension test was used as one part of the independent listening test simply because it was a standardized objective test used for testing the listening comprehension performance.

The contributors to the dictation tests were selected from the English language instructors in the two faculties. Both native and non - native teachers took part in the dictation.

4.3.1. Data Collection

4.3.1.1. The Pre Test

The pre - test was administered in the fall of 1987 at the very beginning of the first semester. Forty

experimental sample subjects were tested in terms of their competence in listening comprehension. The purpose was to see whether there was a difference between the two groups at the beginning of the experiment.

The test included four different test types: True/False test , Recall test , Dictation test (Dictation I and Dictation II).

4.3.1.1.1. True/False Test

This test is designed to measure the subjects' ability to cope with immediate response situations. They were asked to identify whether the given ten statements were true or false according to the news item they were listening from a tape at that moment.

4.3.1.1.2. Recall Test

In this section subjects were required to answer six questions about the same news item used in the True / False section. However, in answering the questions they were prevented from looking at the answers given in the previous section. The reason was that some questions in this section were similar to that of in the True / False section.

4.3.1.1.3. Dictation Test

Two dictation tests were administered in this section.

Both dictations were delivered at normal colloquial speed. In the transcription phase the word groups heard at normal speed were kept long enough to challenge subjects' short term memory; but by pausing long enough after each to avoid turning it into speed writing test.

4.3.1.1.3.1. Dictation One

The first dictation test was presented through a tape recarder. It was a passage of 126 words.

4.3.1.1.3.2. Dictation Two

The second dictation test was heard from one of the subjects' teachers with whom they would study throughout the semester. It consisted of 137 words.

4.3.1.2. The Post Test

Both groups were given a repeat of the pre - test under equal conditions after a three month exposure to

the target language in order to determine if there is a difference between the scores obtained from the both tests.

The post test and the pretest were identical. In other words the post test included the same type of tests as well as the same questions in the pre test mentioned above.

4.3.1.3. Independent Listening Test

This test was designed to check the results of the pre and post tests and to see previous exposure to different accents influences the subjects' performance in listening comprehension.

The test included three test types : Dictation Three, Dictation IV and a TOEFL listening test.

4.3.1.3.1. Dictation Tests

In this section, dictation tests were delivered by two native speakers of English who have not taught or met by the subjects previously. That is, the subjects were not familiar with the speakers' accents.

Dictation III which consisted of 173 words was presented by a speaker with an Irish accent. Dictation IV, on the other hand, was dictated by a speaker with, an American accent. This test included 183 words.

4.3.1.3.2. TOEFL Test

Twenty multiple choice listening comprehension questions were used in this section. The test divided into two parts: Part A and Part B

For each question in Part A subjects heard a short sentence. Each sentence was spoken just one time. They were asked to decide which of the four choices is closest in meaning to the sentence they heard.

In Part B they listened to short conversations between two speakers. At the end of each conversation, a third person asked a question about what was said. Each conversation was heard just once, Subjects are required, in this part, to decide which of the four choices is the best answer to the question they heard.

It should be noted that all of the instructions were carried out in English.

4.3.2. Data Analysis

Subjects' performance in listening comprehension was compared analyzing the raw scores taken from both the individual sections of the pre and post tests and independent test and the tests as a whole. That is to say, along with the scorers showing the experimental and control group subjects' performance in each section of the test, average of these scores showing their overall performance on the test as a whole were compared.

In order to obtain the raw scores of the subjects, the number of correct items in each test type were counted, and the total number was used to find the correct percentage. In the next step where the subjects' overall performance was to be determined, the four scores on the test were added and then divided by four to find the average score for the test as a whole. Then, these scores were compared.

CHAPTER V

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

The present chapter will cover the statistical analysis of the scores obtained from the pre - test, the post test and the independent test. As mentioned in the previous chapter the scores were calculated, first, in terms of the subjects' performance in the four types of test as a whole and next in terms of their performance in each test type. That is to say, subjects' average scores in the tests as a whole were compared in the first phase and their scores taken from - each test type in the next. Two different t - test formulas were used for analyzing the data: t - test for independent samples in between group calculations and t - test for correlated samples in within group calculations. The

t - values were determined according to the 0.05 significance level.

5.1. Comparison of the Pre Test Results Between the Control and the Experimental Group

5.1.1. Subjects' Overall Performance in the Pre Test

In order to determine if there is a difference between the overall performance of the control group and the experimental Group Subjects in the pre test as a whole the following null hypothesis was tested:

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the overall performance of the control group and the experimental group in the Pre Test.

The results are shown in Table I:

	n	\bar{x}	SD	t	critical value	level of significance
CONTROL GROUP	20	55.04	8.37	0.0392	2.0211	0.05 p
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	20	55.25	8.59			

Table I. The Results of the t - Test Showing the Difference Between the Control Group and the Experimental

Group in their Overall Performance in the Pre Test.

As can be observed in Table I. the subjects did not vary significantly in their average scores with the t - value being $t = 0.0392 < t_t = 2.0211$. Thus, we fail to reject the null hypothesis.

5.1.2. Subjects' Performance in Each Test Type Individually

The reason why to compare the results taken from each test type is to determine how the subjects did perform in different situations.

5.1.2.1. Subjects' Performance in Dictation I

In order to see how the control and the experimental groups handle a listening task that involves a tape the following null hypothesis was tested.

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the control group and the experimental group in Dictation I in the pre test.

Results are displayed in Table II:

	n	\bar{x}	SD	t	critical level of value	significance
CONTROL GROUP	20	43.29	8.07			
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	20	43.57	7.87	0.0606	< 2.0211	0.05 p

Table II. The Results of t - test showing the difference between the Control Group and the Experimental Group in Dictation one in the Pre Test.

Table II where the t - value is $t = 0.0606 < t_t = 2.0211$ reveals that the difference between the two groups in Dictation I of the pre test is not significant. As was the case with table I we fail to reject the null hypothesis stated above.

5.1.2.2. Subjects' Performance in Dictation II

Unlike in Dictation I, in this version of the test the subjects were exposed to a face to face listening task. The following null hypothesis was tested to see the difference between the two groups:

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the control group and the experimental group

in Dictation II in the pre - test.

Results obtained are stated in Table III:

	n	\bar{x}	SD	t	critical level of value	level of significance
CONTROL GROUP	20	66.62	9.56			
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	20	66.15	8.28	-0.0801	2.1211	0.05 p

Table III. The results of the t - test showing the difference between the Control Group and the Experimental Group in Dictation Two in the Pre Test.

The t - value for the above table is $t = -0.0801 < t_{\alpha} = 2.0211$ which shows that subjects' performance did not vary significantly. Therefore, we again fail to reject the null hypothesis.

5.1.2.3. Subjects' Performance in True / False Test

In the next step subjects' performance in immediate response situations was to be compared. In order to determine if the two groups vary in that the following null hypothesis was tested.

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the control and the experimental group in True / False in the pre - test.

In Table IV are shown the results:

	n	\bar{x}	SD	t	critical level of value	significance
CONTROL GROUP	20	62	9.18	1.2725	2.0211	0.05 p
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	20	69	8.13			

Table IV. The Results of the t - test showing the difference Between the Control Group and the Experimental Group in True / False in the Pre - Test.

Just like the tables II and III, table .IV does not show a significant difference between the two groups, either. The t - value is $t = 1.2725 < t_t = 2.0211$, thus we fail to reject the null hypothesis.

5.1.2.4. Subjects' Performance in Recall Test

Finally, in order to compare the subjects' performance in recall test - which will give us an idea

about their memory retention - the below stated null hypothesis was tested:

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the control group and the experimental group in Recall in the Pre Test.

Results are put on Table V:

	n	\bar{x}	SD	t	p	level of significance
CONTROL GROUP	20	44.14	9.59			
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	20	42.46	12.09			
				-0.1890	< 2.0211	0.05 p

Table V. The Results of the t - test showing the difference Between the Control Group and the Experimental Group in Recall in the Pre - Test.

As table V illustrates the t - value showing the difference between the two groups is $t = -0.1890 < t_t = 2.0211$. Like in all four situations above, we fail to reject the null hypothesis since the difference is not significant.

5.2. Comparison of the Pre and the Post Test Results

Within the Control Group and the Experimental Group

5.2.1. Results of the Control Group

5.2.1.1. Subjects' Overall Performance in the Pre and Post Tests

In order to determine if the control group subjects' overall performance in listening comprehension has changed or not during the given period of time, a within group comparison was made to test the following null hypothesis:

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the subjects' over all performance in the pre and the post tests within the Control Group.

Below are shown the results:

	n	\bar{d}	SE	t	critical value	level of significance
PRE TEST- POST TEST	20	3.05	1.7095	1.7841	< 2.0930	0.05 p

Table VI. Results of the t - Test Showing the difference Between the subjects' overall performance in

Pre Test and the Post Test within the Control Group.

The above table illustrates that the t - value indicating subjects overall performance in the tests as a whole is $t = 1.7841 < t_t = 2.0930$. Since this reveals no significant difference, we fail to reject the hypothesis.

5.2.1.2. Subjects' Performance in Each Test Type in the Pre and the Post Tests.

The results taken from each test type both in the Pre Test and the Post Test were compared within the Control Group in order to determine if the duration of exposure to the language being learned influences / contributes the subjects performance in each situation.

5.2.1.2.1. Subjects' Performance in Dictation I

To compare the control group subjects' ability to cope with a listening test that involves a tape, the below stated null hypothesis was tested:

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the subjects' performance in dictation I in

the pre and the post tests within the Control Group.

Results are shown in table VII:

	n	\bar{d}	SE	t	critical level of value	significance
PRE TEST	20	0.98	1.9651	0.4987	< 2.0930	0.05 p
POST TEST						

Table VII. The Results of the t - test showing the difference between the Pre Test and the Post Test in Dictation one within the Control Group.

The t - value which is $t = 0.4987 < 2.0930$ shows that this is not a significant difference between the results of the two tests. Consequently, we fail to reject the null hypothesis.

5.2.1.2.2. Subjects' Performance in Dictation II

Performance of the control group subjects in a face - to - face listening task - which was involved in both the pre and post tests - was compared by testing the following null hypothesis:

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the subjects' performance in dictation II in the Pre and Post Test within the control group.

Results are included in Table VIII:

	n	\bar{d}	SE	t	critical level of value	significance
PRE TEST	20	4.42	3.3606	-1.3153	< 2.0930	0.05 p
POST TEST						

Table VIII. The Results of the t - Test Showing the Difference Between the Pre Test and the Post Test in Dictation Two within the Control Group.

As can be seen in the above table the t - value is $t = -1.3153 < t_t = 2.0930$. Thus we fail to reject the null hypothesis.

5.2.1.2.3. Subjects' Performance in True / False

In this phase subjects' performance in immediate response situations was compared within the control group test the following null hypothesis was tested:

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the subjects' performance in True / False in the Pre and Post Test within the Control Group.

Results are indicated in Table IX:

	n	\bar{d}	SE	t	critical value	level of significance
PRE TEST	20	10.50	4.1343	2.5398	> 2.0930	0.05 p
POST TEST						

Table IX. The Results of t - Test showing the Difference Between the Pre Test and the Post Test in True / False within the Control Group.

Unlike tables 6 and 7, table 8 reveals a significant difference between the subjects' performance in the Pre and Post Tests with the t - value being $t = 2.5398 > t_t = 2.0930$. Consequently, we reject the null hypothesis.

5.2.1.2.4. Subjects Performance in Recall

In order to see the difference in the subjects' memory retention within three months' time, the Pre and Post Test results in recall test was compared to

test the following null hypothesis:

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the subjects' performance in Recall in the Pre and the post test within the control control group.

Below are shown the results:

	n	\bar{d}	SE	t	critical value	level of significance
PRE TEST	20	2.50	2.1868	1.1432	< 2.0930	0.05 p
POST TEST						

Table X. The Results of the T - Test Showing the Difference Between the Pre Test and the Post Test in Recall within the Control Group.

The t - value for table X is $t = 1.1432 < t_t = 2.0930$ which signals no significant difference between the two tests within the control group. Thus, we fail to reject the null hypothesis.

5.2.2. Results of the Experimental Group

5.2.2.1. Subjects' Overall Performance in the Pre and Post Tests

In order to determine if the experimental group subjects' overall performance in the pre and post tests has changed or not during the three months' time, a within group comparison was made. The following null hypothesis was tested:

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the subjects' overall performance in the pre and the post test within the experimental group.

Results are as follows:

	n	\bar{d}	SE	t	critical value	level of significance
PRE TEST						
POST TEST	20	11.65	1.7987	6.4767	> 2.0930	0.05 p

Table XI. The results of the t - test showing the Difference in overall performance of the subjects in the Pre and Post Tests.

The t - value for table XI which is $t = 6.4767 > t_t = 2.0930$ shows a significant difference in overall performance of the subjects in the Pre and Post Tests. Consequently , we reject the null hypothesis.

5.2.2.2. Subjects' Performance in Each Test Type in the Pre and Post Test

The results taken from each test type both in the pre test and the post test were compared within the experimental group in order to determine if the duration of exposure to the target language influence / contribute the subjects' performance in each situation.

5.2.2.2.1, Subjects' Performance in Dictation I

To compare the experimental group subjects ability to cope with a listening task that involves a tape, the below stated null hypothesis was tested:

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the subjects' performance in Dictation I in the pre and post tests within the experimental group.

Results are shown in Table XII:

	n	\bar{d}	SE	t	critical value	level of significance
PRE TEST	20	13.09	1.95	6.6917	> 2.0930	0.05 p
POST TEST						

Table XII. The Results of the t - Test Showing the Difference Between the Pre Test and the Post Test in Dictation One within the Experimental Group.

The t - value which is $t = 6.6917 > t_t = 2.0930$ shows that there is a significant difference between the results of the two tests. Thus, we reject the null hypothesis.

5.2.2.2.2. Subjects' Performance in Dictation II

Performance of the expermental group subjects in a face - to - face listening test - which was involved in both the pre and post tests - was compared to test the following null hypothesis:

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the subjects' performance in dictation II in the pre and post tests within the experimental group.

Results are included in Table XIII:

	n	\bar{d}	SE	t	critical value	level of significance
PRE TEST	20	21.47	2.45	8.7583	2.0930	0.05 p
POST TEST						

Table XIII. The Results of the t - Test Showing the Difference Between the Pre Test and the Post Test in Dictation Two within the Experimental Group.

Table XII where the t - value is shown as $t = 8.7583 > t_t = 2.0930$ shows a significant difference between the performance in dictation two in the Pre Test and in the Post Test. This finding rejects the null hypothesis stated above.

5.2.2.2.3. Subjects' Performance in True / False

In this test subjects' performance in immediate response situations was compared within the experimental group and the below stated null hypothesis was tested:

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the subjects' performance in True /

False in the pre and the post test within the experimental group.

Results are indicated in table XIV:

	n	\bar{d}	SE	t	critical value	level of significance
PRE TEST	20	9.50	4.19	2.2633	2.0930	0.05 p
POST TEST						

Table XIV. The Results of the t - Test Showing the Difference Between the Pre Test and the Post Test in True False within the Experimental Group.

Table XIV , in which the t - value is $t = 2.2633 > t_t = 2.0930$, reveals that there is a significant difference within the Experimental Group between their prior and post performance in the same test namely the true / false test. Thus, we reject the null hypothesis.

5.2.2.2.4. Subjects' Performance in Recall

In order to see the difference in the subjects' memory retention within three months' time, the pre and

post test results in recall test was compared to test the following hypothesis:

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the subjects' performance in recall in the pre and post tests within the experimental group.

Below are shown the results:

	n	\bar{d}	SE	t	critical value	level of significance
PRE TEST	20	2.49	3.87	0.6435	< 2.0930	0.05 p
POST TEST						

Table XV. The Results of the t - Test Showing the Difference Between the Pre Test and the Post Test in Recall within the Experimental Group.

In contrast with the results obtained from tables 11, 12 and 13, table 14, which shows the t - value as $t = 0.6435 < t_t = 2.0930$, does not indicate a significant difference between the performance of the experimental subjects in Recall section of the Pre and Post Tests. For that reason we fail to reject the null hypothesis.

5.3. Comparison of the Post Test Results between the Control Group and the Experimental Group

Performance of the control group and the experimental group subjects in the Post Test was compared in order to determine if the difference between the two groups is significant or not.

5.3.1. Subjects' Overall Performance in the Post Test

The overall performance of the control group and the experimental group subjects in the post test as a whole was compared to test the following null hypothesis:

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the overall performance of the control group and the experimental group in the post test.

Table XVI includes the results:

	n	\bar{x}	SD	t	critical level of value significance
CONTROL GROUP	20	58.95	7.82	2.0874 > 2.0211	0.05 p
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	20	66.89	7.40		

Table XVI. The Results of the t - Test showing the Difference Between the Control Group and the Experimental Group in their overall performance in the Post Test.

The t - value for table XV which is $t = 2.0874$ >
 $t_t = 2.0211$ shows that the difference between the performance of the two groups is significant. Thus, we reject the null hypothesis stated above.

5.3.2. Subjects' Performance in Each Test Type Individually

The results obtained from each test type in the post test were compared in order to see how the subjects did perform in different situations.

5.3.2.1. Subjects' Performance in Dictation I

In order to determine the significance of the difference between the two groups in a listening task that involves a tape the following null hypothesis was tested:

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the control group and the

experimental group in Dictation I in the post test.

Results are displayed in table XVII:

	n	\bar{x}	SD	t	critical level of value	significance
CONTROL GROUP	20	44.27	8.2			
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	20	56.66	7.20	2.8417	> 2.0211	0.05 p

Table XVII. The results of the t - Test Showing the Difference between the Control Group and the Experimental Group in Dictation one in the Post Test.

The above table showing the t - value as $t = 2.8417 > t_c = 2.0211$ indicates that there is a significant difference between the Control Group and the Experimental Group in Dictation one in the Past Test. Thus, we reject the null hypothesis.

5.3.2.2. Subjects' Performance in Dictation II.

In order to determine if there is a significant difference between the two groups in coping with a

face - to - face listening task the below null hypothesis was tested:

H_0 : There will be no significant difference
Between the control group and the
experimental group in Dictation II in the
post test.

Results obtained are stated in Table XVIII:

	n	\bar{x}	SD	t	critical value	level of significance
CONTROL GROUP	20	62.20	8.08			
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	20	87.12	5.53	6.7250	> 2.0211	0.05 p

Table XVIII. The Results of the t - Test showing the Difference Between the Control Group and the Experimental Group in Dictation Two in the Post Test.

Table 17 where the t - value is shown as $t = 6.7250 > t_t = 2.0211$ shows a significant difference between the performance of the two groups in dictation two in the Post Test. This finding rejects the Null hypothesis.

5.3.2.3. Subjects' Performance in True False Test

In this phase subjects' performance in immediate response situations was compared to determine if the two groups vary significantly from one another. The following null hypothesis was tested:

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the control group and the experimental group in true / false in the post test.

In Table XIX are shown the results:

	n	\bar{x}	SD	t	critical value	level of significance
CONTROL GROUP	20	72.50	7.83			
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	20	78.50	7.30	1.4364	< 2.0211	0.05 p

Table XIX. The Results of the t - Test Showing the Difference Between the Control Group and the Experimental Group in True / False in the Post Test.

Different from the findings shown in tables 16 and 17 , Table 18 does not reveal a significant

difference between the two groups with the t - value being $t = 1.4364 < t_t = 2.0211$. Accordingly we fail to reject the null hypothesis.

5.3.2.4. Subjects' Performance in Recall Test

Finally, in order to compare the subjects' memory retention the below stated null hypothesis was tested:

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the control group and the experimental group in Recall in the post test.

Results are put on table XX:

	n	\bar{x}	SD	t	critical level of value significance
CONTROL GROUP	20	46.64	9.94	-0.1991	< 2.0211 0.05 p
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	20	44.96	11.46		

Table XX. The Results of the t - Test Showing the Difference Between the Control Group and the Experimental Group in Recall in the Post Test.

Identical to the finding in Table 18 , Table 19 , which shows the t - value as $t = -0.1991 < t_t = 2.0211$,

does not indicate a significant difference between the two groups. Thus, we fail to reject the null hypothesis.

5.4. Comparison of the Independent Test Results Between the Control Group and the Experimental Group

5.4.1. Subjects' Overall Performance in the Independent Test

As was the case with the pre and post tests, the subjects' overall performance in all test types of the independent test as a whole was compared to test the following hypothesis:

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the overall performance of the control group and the experimental group in the independent test.

In table XXI are presented the results:

	n	\bar{x}	SD	t	critical level of value significance
CONTROL GROUP	20	37.98	7.09	2.3220	> 1.6839 0.05 p
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	20	49.39	9.09		

Table XXI. The Results of the t - Test Showing the Difference Between the overall performance of the Control Group and the Experimental Group in the Independent Test.

Findings stated in table XXI suggest that there is a significant difference between the overall performance of the two groups in the Independent Test. The t - value is $t = 2.3220 > t_t = 1.6839$.

5.4.2. Subjects' Performance in Each Test Type Individually

Results obtained from each test type in the independent test were compared in order to determine how the subjects did perform in different situations.

5.2.2.1. Subjects' Performance in Dictation III

To test the following null hypothesis , the subjects' reaction to an Irish speaker in a face - to - face situation was compared:

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the control group and the experimental group in Dictation III in the independent test.

The following results were found:

	n	\bar{x}	SD	t	critical level of value significance
CONTROL GROUP	20	44.48	7.67		
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	20	54.24	9.45	1.7751	$1.7751 > 1.6839$ 0.05 p

Table XXII. The Results of the t - Test Showing the Difference Between the Experimental Group and the Control Group in dictatin III of the Independent Test.

The t - value for Table XXII - which is $t = 1.7751 > t_t = 1.6839$ illustrates a significant difference between the two groups rejecting the null hypothesis.

5.2.2.2. Subjects' Performance in Dictation IV

The experimental group and the control group subjects reaction to an American speaker in a face - to - face situation was compared to test the following null hypothesis:

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the control and the experimental

group in dictation IV in the independent test.

The following results were obtained:

	n	\bar{x}	SD	t	critical level of value	significance
CONTROL GROUP	20	43.05	7.86			
				1.7572	> 1.6839	0.05 p
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	20	52.49	9.19			

Table XXIII. The Results of the t - test Showing the Difference Between the Experimental Group and the Control Group in Dictation IV of the Independent Test.

As can be seen from the above table, we reject the null hypothesis since the t - value is $t = 1.7572 > t_t = 1.6839$.

5.2.2.3. Subjects' Performance in the TOEFL Listening Test

At this very final step subjects were given a standardized test, and the following hypothesis was tested:

H_0 : There will be no significant difference between the control group and the experimental group in TOEFL test in independent test.

Results are included in Table XXIV:

	n	\bar{x}	SD	t	critical value	level of significance
CONTROL GROUP	20	27.00	7.22			
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP	20	41.50	9.08	2.8962	> 1.6839	0.05 p

Table XXIV. The Results of the t - Test Showing the Difference Between the Experimental Group and the Control Group in TOEFL test of the Independent Test.

Table XXIV in which the t - value is indicated as $t = 2.8962 > t_t = 1.6839$ shows a significant difference between the performance of the two groups in TOEFL Test.

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION AND SUGGESTIONS

6.1. Discussion

The listening performance of the control group and the experimental group subjects was compared regarding their average scores taken from all test types in each testing session, and their scores obtained from individual test types.

To start with, the subjects of both groups who were at the beginning of their university program were given a pre test in order to determine their performance in listening comprehension. This was a prerequisite to avoid having non - homogeneous groups at the beginning. When the overall performance of the control group and

the experimental group in the pre test was compared, it was found that the difference between the two groups in understanding the spoken word was not significant (Table I). This indicates that the two groups were compatible at the very beginning in terms of their proficiency in listening comprehension.

On order to verify and also to find out if there were any deviations from the overall performance scores, the subjects' performance in each individual test type of the pre test was compared. Both the control and the experimental subjects performed almost equally in dictation I , dictation II , true / false and recall tests. (Tables II , III , IV , V). As it was explained in chapter four each test type was to check a different type of listening skill. Listening from a tape and from a teacher in a face to face listening situation were the aim of dictation I and dictation II respectively while the true false test required immediate response and the recall memory retention. Since the t - scores compared between these tests showed no significant difference, it is not wrong to assume that both the experimental and the control group could not, at the initial level, show any naticable performance an these listening skills.

Within three months' time the subjects who were geared solely to English language training were given the same test in order to find out the difference a - three - month exposure to the language being learned would make on the students' performance in listening comprehension.

The overall t - values of the post test scores between the control and the experimental group was compared. This between group comparison indicated quite a significant improvement in favor of the experimental group. (Table XVI.) This result shows that the subjects of the experimental group improved their listening comprehension far better than the subjects of the control group.

In order to find out whether the individual test scores were in accordance with the overall scores, each t - value for the different test types were also compared. (Tables XVII , XVIII , XIX , XX). The initial belief that all individual scores would improve for the experimental group was soon disproved by this between group comparison. While the t - values of the dictation I and dictation II showed significant improvement; the true / false and recall test t - values in comparison was non - significant. This global observation gives

the impression that the improvement seen in the experimental group stemmed from the amelioration in the dictation I and dictation II tests since there was no significant difference for the other two.

The comparison made in all accounts of the pre - test and the post test showed results in favor of the experimental group. However, this by no means indicate that there was no improvement in the listening comprehension of the students in the control group. In order to clarify the uncertainty, within group calculations of the pre and post tests were conducted for both groups. As expected, for the experimental group the overall comparison between the two tests showed significant difference, thus, verifying that the experimental group indeed improved in listening (Table VI).

The same type of within group comparison was conducted for each individual test type. With the exception of the recall test, again all t - values were in favor of the experimental group. (Tables, XII, XIII , XIV , XV).

As for the control group, eventhough the initial expectation were for an improvement between the pre and the post test, results however revealed no significant

difference (Table VII , VIII , XIX , X)

When the scores for each type was compared the only significant improvement in the post test was observed in the true / false test while the scores for the rest remained almost identical to the ones of the pre - test.

These between group and within group comparisons, when considered pedagogical point of view, presents certain interesting points. Unlike the initial belief that the duration of exposure to the target language would improve the listening ability, the findings show that this was true only for the experimental group while time seemed to remain an ineffective factor for the control group.

A similar belief was formed concerning the speaker. It was thought that being familiar to the speaker would make listening comprehension better. To test this, dictation II was given by a teacher to whom they were exposed to at all times during these three months. Eventhough both the control an the experimental groups were subjected to the similar test, the familiarity with the teacher only seemed to be effective for the experimental group.

One other interesting outcome was resulted from the comparison of the true / false scores. Eventhough there was no significant improvement on any level in the control group, the scores for this particular test created a significant difference. This unlikely result brings the conclusion that in a true / false test the chance factor must also be taken in to account. Therefore, for future studies, the validity of true / false tests should be reconsidered.

The recall test was the only type of listening test where there seemed to be no improvements. This might stem from the fact that the skill required for a recall test is more difficult to develop than the skill required for a dictation or a true / false test. True enough, when the cognitive requirements of these tests are compared one notable difference is the memory span that they require. While a short term memory is good for a dictation or a true / false exercise, a recall test requires longer memory spans.

This implies that after a - three - month training in the target language long term memory has not yet been formed.

Besides the pre and the post test, independent

tests were given at the same time on the post test which consisted of two dictations and a standardized TOEFL listening test. The dictations were delivered by an Irish speaker of English and an English speaker from the southern U.S. Both speakers were not encountered by the students in each group. That is to say, the students were totally unfamiliar with the speakers. Results reveal that the experimental group scored higher than the control group scored higher than the control group on both dictation tests (Tables XXII , XXII). The subjects of the experimental group were also significantly successful in the standardized TOEFL test as well (Table XXIV). Accordingly, when the overall scores were compared, results were again in favor of the experimental group.

These findings suggest that the experimental group who had face - to - face instructions from native speakers of English speaking with different accents were better equipped to handle an unfamiliar accent whereas the control group lacking in similar classroom training could not perform so well.

The overall success of the experimental group was also substantiated by the better performance they have shown in the standardized TOEFL test.

"What made the experimental group more successful?" Is the question that comes to mind after all the test scores are compared. When the variance of condition between these groups are compared, the exposure to native accents and a specific 4-hour- course designed for listening comprehension seem to be the only notable difference. This observation emphasizes the significance of a direct classroom training in listening comprehension. It seems that in such a course students are trained to listen whereas in a general English course the students do not really learn to listen since the emphasis is multi - faced - . Their listening skills may improve as a side effect of the course. Results also show that exposure to a variety of native accents facilitate / contribute understanding the spoken language.

6.2. Suggestions for Further Study

1. Listening materials used in this study were at the same style. Alternatively a similar study can be carried out using listening materials at different styles.
2. In order to further verify the results of the present study number of test items and subjects can be increased.
3. Since the true - false and Recall test types did not reveal consistent results the validity of that type

of questions for testing listening comprehension need be tested through a further experiment.

4. Usually, the listeners are better equipped to handle material which is in their line of interest or on a subject in which they are familiar with. This also needs to be observed by a further study.

5. A methodological study which searches for different techniques leading to a more successful and efficient listening can be carried out.

APPANDIX A - PRE TEST AND POST TEST

LISTEN

I. TRUE/FALSE

1. Bobby Lane was struck by a car.
2. The accident happened in the morning.
3. The driver of the car didn't stop.
4. Bobby ran in front of the car.
5. Witnesses saw the accident.
6. Bobby was riding his bicycle.
7. The police found Bobby lying in the street.
8. Mr. Osborne waited for the police and ambulance to arrive.
9. Bobby was taken home in an ambulance.
10. The police did not charge Osborne.

II. RECALL: Answer the following questions based on what you remember.

1. When was Bobby Lane struck by a car?
2. Why didn't Ralph Osborne have time to stop?
3. How did witnesses describe the accident?
4. Where did Officer Milhaus find Bobby?
5. What was Bobby's condition?
6. Where was Bobby taken?

III.

PART A

1. (A) Go directly to the post office when class is over.
(B) Let's first straighten up the classroom and then go to the post office.
(C) That's the most direct way to the past office from our class.
(D) The post office is straight ahead of the classroom building.
2. (A) I don't think that algebra is hard.
(B) I like algebra better than geometry.
(C) Geometry isn't difficult for me.
(D) Geometry is easier for me than algebra.
3. (A) Greg believed he could do it alone.
(B) Greg thought he'd cut himself.
(C) Greg thought he was selfish.
(D) Greg alone believed it could be done.
4. (A) After it rained, he washed his car.
(B) He was unable to wash his car because it was raining.
(C) It began to rain right after he washed his car.
(D) He had to finish washing his car in the rain.
5. (A) Don't make noise in the kitchen.
(B) You may not cook here.
(C) They were quiet when they ate.
(D) These are homemade cookies.

6. (A) You should call Margaret soon.
(B) Margaret will be better later on.
(C) It's too late to call on Margaret now.
(D) Margaret is the best person to tell.
7. (A) He never walks to the library at night.
(B) There is only one librarian here at night.
(C) The library is the only place to study.
(D) He never works in the library in the daytime.
8. (A) How was your dinner?
(B) Please have dinner with us.
(C) We had dinner together.
(D) Will there be four of us for dinner?
9. (A) Jerry dislikes the clothes he has.
(B) Jerry doesn't like doing his laundry.
(C) Jerry hates to take showers.
(D) Jerry's clothes don't need ironing.
10. (A) Debbie checked with her son's doctor.
(B) Debbie sent her son for a checkup.
(C) Debbie paid her son's doctor.
(D) Debbie wrote a note to the doctor's son.

PART B

11. (A) In a department store.
(B) In a bank.
(C) At a tourist bureau.
(D) At a hotel.

12. (A) Eat before seeing the movie.
(B) See the movie immediately.
(C) Get the first theater seat.
(D) Stay in town for a while.
13. (A) The winter has just begun.
(B) Once it starts, it'll snow a lot.
(C) They're ready for the snow.
(D) It has been snowing for some time.
14. (A) Traveling a lot.
(B) Getting a lot of exercise.
(C) Working too hard.
(D) Waiting for the train.
15. (A) He can't find his new building.
(B) He had a bigger apartment before.
(C) He's not accustomed to the large building.
(D) He's having a hard time finding an apartment.
16. (A) Find the trouble.
(B) Carry the parts outside.
(C) Practice working together.
(D) Follow the directions.
17. (A) He fixes bicycles
(B) He raises sheep.
(C) He sells chairs.
(D) He's gardener.
18. (A) It doesn't matter which color the man chooses.
(B) It's difficult decision.

- (C) She doesn't like either color.
 - (D) The man should choose a different room.
19. (A) She'd like the store to send it to her.
- (B) It will arrive next week.
 - (C) It must be wrapped quickly.
 - (D) She'll take it with her to save trouble.
20. (A) They want to go downtown.
- (B) He wants to go to the park, but she doesn't.
 - (C) He doesn't know where to park the car.
 - (D) He wants to find out the locaiton of the park.

APANDIX C - SCRIPT FOR PRE AND POST TESTS

I. TRUE/FALSE AND RECAL

Janesport, Aug. 15

The police reported that yesterday at about four o'clock in the afternoon, Bobby Lage, age 12, was struck by a car near the intersection of Poplar and Chestnut Streets. Ralph Osborne, the driver of the car, said that Bobby suddenly ran in front of his car and he didn't have time to stop.

Witnesses of the accident said that young Lane was chasing a ball, darted out into the street, and ran into the left front fender of the Osborne station wagon.

Office Mulhaus, who investigated the accident, found the boy lying in the street in front of the car and Osborne anxiously standing by, waiting for the police and ambulance to arrive. Office Milhaus said that the boy was still conscious but dazed. He did not think that the boy was seriously injured. The boy was taken by ambulance to Mercy Hospital where his condition was reported as good.

Osborne was not charged by the police.

II. DICTATION I

The Warren family has gathered around the piano tonight to sing songs and enjoy an evening of family fun. They have a family sing-along nearly every month. They enjoy singing.

Usually, Mr. Warren plays the piano. Mrs. Warren sings soprano and the children Kenneth and Carrie, join in enthusiastically.

Kenneth hopes to study music as a career. He's 12 years

old now, but he already plays the piano and clarinet quite well.

Carrie, who is 10, wants to be an airplane pilot. She also knows how to play the piano, but she doesn't like to practice every day, as her mother insists.

Mr. Warren is an engineer and music is his hobby. The Warren family is a happy one. They enjoy doing things together.

III. DICTATION II

"We need some milk and bread," Carl's wife said. "Can you go to the store for me?" Carl replied: Sure thing. I'm on my way."

He left the house, got into his car, and started down the street when he suddenly remembered that he had left his billfold at home. He didn't have any money. So he turned around and went back. His wife met him at the door and silently handed him his billfold. She had seen it lying on the table.

When he got to the store, Carl got out of the car and tried the door. It was locked. At first Carl was a little annoyed. Then he saw the sign: CLOSED TEMPORARILY DUE TO DEATH IN THE FAMILY.

He got back in the car and went to find a store that was open.

APPANDIX D - SCRIPT FOR THE INDEPENDENT TEST

I. DICTATION III

After Monica left the office, she hurried down to the parking garage where her car was parked. As she searched in her purse for her car keys, she suddenly remembered that she had forgotten to lock the files where confidential reports were kept. She knew that if her boss Mr. Henry found out that she had not locked the files, she could be fired.

She turned and hurried back inside, waited impatiently for the elevator, and was glad that the trip to the seventh floor went without delay.

As she hurried down the now dimly lit hall toward the offices of The Henry Company, she noticed that there was a light in Mr. Henry's office.

"Strange," she thought to herself, "I'm sure I turned all the lights out."

Then she saw it. A man's shadow fell briefly across the glass of the door of the office and the lights went out.

"Oh, no," she murmured to herself, her heart rising in her throat. "It must be a thief. What shall I do?"

II. DICTATION IV

Mary Lee had not heard from her mother in over a month and she was worried. Normally, her mother wrote her every week or so, but more than four weeks had passed and there was no letter from home.

"Not that I'm afraid that anything serious has happened," Mary Lee thought to herself, "but I like to be sure that everything is all right at home. After all, Mother is getting along in years and I'm her only

daughter." (Mary Lee's father had died five years ago and her mother lived alone, although her two older brothers lived in the same town.)

Mary Lee decided that the only to do was to call home that evening, after she got off from work. Her budget was a little tight this month because of high utility bills, but she felt that she could afford a 10-minute call home.

"After all, it's nearly 2,000 miles home and a long distance phone call is a lot cheaper than air fare! I'll do it! I'll call home tonight when long distance rates are lower," she mur-mured to herself.

III. TOEFL LISTENING TEST

PART A

Directions: For each question in Part A, you will hear a short sentence. Each sentence will be spoken just one time. The sentences you hear will not be written out for you. Therefore, you must listen carefully to understand what the speaker says.

After you hear a sentence, read the four choices in your test book, marked (A), (B), (C), and (D), and decide which one is closest in meaning to the sentence you heard. Then, on your answer sheet, find the number of the question and fill in the space that corresponds to the letter of the answer you have chosen. Fill in the space so that the letter inside the oval cannot be seen.

Instructions

1. After class go straight to the post office.
2. Geometry is hard for me but algebra is karder.
3. Greg thought he could do it himself.
4. No sooner had he finished washing his car then it started to rain.
5. Cooking is not allowed in this dormitory.
6. You'd better call Margaret before it gets too late.

7. He works in the library only at night.
8. How about joining us for dinner.
9. Jerry hates washing and ironing his own clothes.
10. Debby wrote a check for her son's doctor bill.

PART B

Directions: In Part B you will hear short conversations between two speakers. At the end of each conversation, a third person will ask a question about what was said. You will hear each conversation and question about it just one time. Therefore, you must listen carefully to understand what each speaker says. After you hear a conversation and the question about it, read the four possible answers in your test book and decide which one is the best answer to the question you heard. Then, on your answer sheet, find the number of the question and fill in the space that corresponds to the letter of answer you have chosen.

11. "Good morning, may I help you"
 "Yes. I'd like to cash these travellers' cheques first and then open a savings account"
 Question: Where does this conversation probably take place?
12. "We really must go to the new movie in town."
 "Let's eat first."
 Question: What does the man want to do?
13. "I think it's starting to snow"
 "Starting to snow- The ground's already covered."
 Question: What does the woman mean?
14. "John seems to have lost a lot of weight recently."
 "Yes. He's been training hard with the soccer team."
 Question: What has John been doing?
15. "How do you find your new apartment?"
 "Well, it's quite nice really although I'm having a hard time getting used to such a big building."
 Question: What's the man's problem?

16. "Have you ever put one of these together before?"

"No, never."

"But I think if we carry out these instructions exactly, we won't have any trouble."

Question: What is it important for them to do?

17. "The front tyre is flat and the seat needs to be raised."

"Why not take it to Mr. Smith?"

Question: What kind of work does Mr. Smith probably do?

18. "I haven't decided which color to paint my room, white or yellow."

"Isn't easy to choose, is it?"

Question: What does the woman mean?

19. "If you'd like to take the package with you Miss , it won't take long to wrop."

"There is no rush. Could you please have it delivered this week?"

Question: What does the woman mean?

20. "The map shows that this street goes down town."

"Yes, but what we want to know is how to get to the park."

Question: What does the man mean?

APPENDIX E - DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES

CONTROL GROUP (PRE TEST)

Number of Subjects	Dictation I	Dictation II	True/false	Recall
1	52.6	68.5	90	66.6
2	30.3	72.1	20	33.3
3	49.4	70.6	90	66.6
4	62.1	96.9	60	50
5	57.3	82.3	80	50
6	44.6	69.9	70	50
7	35.9	34.1	50	33.3
8	76.4	69.9	70	83.3
9	42.3	88.2	30	-0-
10	54.2	88.2	80	66.6
11	28.0	48.7	50	50
12	54.2	93.3	80	50
13	41.5	80.1	60	33.3
14	38.3	80.9	50	33.3
15	53.4	78.7	70	50
16	24.0	44.4	50	-0-
17	17.6	37.8	80	33.3
18	43.0	55.3	70	66.6
19	42.3	48.7	50	33.3
20	18.4	23.9	40	33.3

CONTROL GROUP (POST TEST)

Number of Subjects	Dictation I	Dictation II	True/False	Recall
1	59.5	67.8	90	50
2	40.4	61.3	80	50
3	63.4	84.6	70	83.3
4	46.8	70.8	80	66.6
5	61.1	89.7	80	50
6	30.1	52.5	80	50
7	25.3	33.5	80	33.3
8	71.4	78.1	80	83.3
9	36.5	56.2	70	-0-
10	55.5	58.3	100	66.6
11	44.4	56.2	80	66.6
12	53.1	72.2	70	50
13	38.8	70.0	70	33.3
14	51.5	63.5	60	50
15	57.1	83.9	70	33.3
16	20.6	50.0	50	-0-
17	18.2	46.7	80	33.3
18	43.6	53.2	70	66.6
19	47.5	56.2	50	33.3
20	20.6	39.4	40	33.3

APPENDIX F - DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES

EXPERIMENTAL GROUP (PRE TEST)

Number of Subjects	Dictation I	Dictation II	True/False	Recall
1	65.3	79.6	100	100
2	38.4	80.4	50	16.6
3	35.2	56.3	90	33.3
4	25.9	54.8	60	33.3
5	37.8	59.2	80	33.3
6	37.0	65.0	70	16.6
7	30.7	35.1	60	16.6
8	30.7	62.1	60	-0-
9	47.3	78.2	70	-0-
10	58.4	84.7	70	66.6
11	68.0	89.8	80	100
12	40.2	61.4	80	66.6
13	54.5	81.8	90	83.3
14	29.9	54.1	70	33.3
15	63.2	73.8	80	83.3
16	24.3	65.0	50	-0-
17	62.4	89.8	70	83.3
18	27.5	38.7	50	33.3
19	50.5	62.1	50	33.3
20	44.2	51.2	50	16.6

EXPERIMENTAL GROUP (POST TEST)

Number of Subjects	Dictation I	Dictation II	True/False	Recall
1	74.6	94.8	90	100
2	38.8	95.6	80	16.6
3	61.1	84.6	60	16.6
4	50	83.2	60	16.6
5	53.9	77.3	70	33.3
6	50.7	85.4	80	-0-
7	41.2	75.1	70	16.6
8	50.7	80.2	80	16.6
9	61.1	93.4	70	50
10	59.5	92.7	70	83.3
11	71.4	98.5	90	83.3
12	42.8	81.0	70	66.6
13	73.8	94.1	70	100
14	59.5	85.4	100	33.3
15	64.2	95.6	100	66.6
16	37.3	78.1	80	16.6
17	69.8	95.6	100	83.3
18	42.8	83.9	80	33.3
19	63.4	89.0	80	50
20	66.6	89.0	70	33.3

APPENDIX G - DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES

CONTROL GROUP (INDEPENDENT TEST)

Number of Subjects	Dictation I	Dictation II	True/False
1	52.3	56.4	25
2	50.0	55.6	15
3	61.0	56.4	40
4	62.2	64.5	45
5	66.2	69.9	30
6	37.3	38.1	20
7	22.3	26.7	20
8	48.3	52.1	30
9	37.3	35.9	-0-
10	49.0	46.1	40
11	55.0	29.4	35
12	43.1	40.2	45
13	52.3	38.6	30
14	37.3	45.1	25
15	50.0	53.7	35
16	40.8	21.3	10
17	11.3	27.8	25
18	30.9	42.9	30
19	48.9	42.9	30
20	34.0	17.5	10

APPENDIX H - DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES

EXPERIMENTAL GROUP (INDEPENDENT TEST)

Number of Subjects	Dictation I	Dictation II	True/False
1	85.9	78.3	85
2	61.4	60.5	35
3	39.6	35.1	20
4	54.7	55.1	60
5	42.5	48.1	30
6	35.6	32.9	20
7	32.7	40.5	25
8	37.9	40.5	35
9	73.7	65.9	40
10	50.0	34.5	35
11	85.9	84.3	70
12	37.3	30.2	30
13	84.7	88.1	75
14	52.3	54.0	45
15	72.6	70.2	60
16	31.0	36.7	20
17	90.5	82.1	45
18	37.9	33.5	30
19	40.1	41.6	35
20	38.5	37.8	35

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