

University of Zawia



Faculty of Arts

Postgraduate Studies and Training Center

Department of English

Applied Linguistics

Factors Influencing the Libyan EFL Students' Listening Comprehension

**A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of
Masters of Arts in Applied Linguistics**

Submitted by:

Dareen Ali Abdullah Zenbil

Supervised by:

Dr. Mohsen Ali

Academic Year: 2021

ABSTRACT

This study investigated the factors influencing Libyan students in listening comprehension as a subject in the department of English at Zawai University. The main objective of the current study is to explore in-depth the understanding of how Libyan college students in EFL context face listening difficulties. The study included 40 students selected from the first year in the department of English and also 30 teachers from the same department as well. To carry out the study, the researcher used two instruments for data collection; a questionnaire for teachers and a listening comprehension test for the students. The test was administered with the students in the college lab and the teachers received their questionnaire either in the department or during lectures.

The results of the listening test revealed that the students lack some cognitive skills and strategies such as retrieving and recognition and substitution strategy. In terms of the teachers' questionnaire, the results revealed that the teachers face many problems in teaching listening such as lack of authentic materials, lack of equipments or teaching aids, dependence on ready-made materials, difficulty of communication in English in the classroom and need for teachers' training.

The study recommends the teachers to teach students planning strategies by preparing them for what they will hear and what they are expected to do. To help students plan for listening, teachers should provide a purpose for listening so that students become aware of the specific information they need to listen for. Students can then anticipate what they might hear. Moreover; students also need to monitor their comprehension as they listen; teachers therefore, should allow students listen to the text for several times, and allow them to work in pairs or in groups so that the students can compare notes between each listening and verify selected details of the text.

DEDICATION

I would like to express my gratitude to my darling parents, my lovely sisters and brothers for creating an enabling environment and inspiring encouragement throughout the period of this project work.

I would also like to thank my husband for his patience and support from the beginning of this journey.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, my highest indebtedness goes to Allah, the Almighty who is the master designer and sustainer of all effort in this work. May His name be eternally praised I am unreservedly most grateful to my amiable supervisor and Head of the English Department, Dr. Mohsen Abubakar for his tolerance, meticulousness, and expeditiousness. I continue to lack words to express my profound gratitude to him. I would like to thank the center of research and higher education especially Dr. Abdussalam Saleh Tantani for his encouragement and assistance. I am also thankful for the department of English language in the College of Arts at Zawia University for allowing me carrying out my research study.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	I
Dedication	II
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	III
TABLE OF CONTENTS	IV
LIST OF TABLES	VI
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	VII
CHAPETR ONE: INTRODUCTION	
1.0. Introduction	1
1.1. Background of the Study	1
1.2. Aims of the Study	2
1.3. Research Questions	2
1.4. Statement of the Problem	2
1.5. Significance of the Study	3
1.6. Outline of the Study	4
CHAPETR TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW	
2.0. Introduction	5
2.1. Definition of Listening	5
2.2. The Nature of Listening	6
2.3. Listening Comprehension Strategies	7
2.3.1. Cognitive Strategies	8
2.3.2. Meta-cognitive Strategies	9
2.3.3. Socio-Affective Strategies	10
2.4. Listening Skills	11
2.5. Potential Problems in Listening	13
2.6. Teaching Listening Comprehension	15
2.7. Stages of Listening Lessons	17
2.8. Problems of Teaching Listening	20
2.9. Related studies and Previous Research	23
2.10. Summary of the chapter	30

CHAPETR THREE: METHODOLOGY

3.0.	Introduction	31
3.1.	Research Design	31
3.2.	Participants	31
3.3.	Instruments	31
3.3.1.	Listening Test	32
3.3.2.	Teachers' Questionnaire	32
3.4.	Sampling and Procedures	33
3.5.	Procedures of the Study	34
3.6.	Ethical Consideration in the Study	35
3.7.	Summary of the chapter	35

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.0	Introduction	37
4.1.	Analysis of the Questionnaire	37
4.2.	Discussion of Teachers' Questionnaire	42
4.3.	Analysis of the Test	52
4.4.	Discussion of the Listening Test	52
4.5.	Summary of the chapter	58

CHAPETR FIVE: CONCLUSION

5.1.	Conclusion	59
5.2.	Implication and recommendations	61
5.3.	Limitations of the study	62
5.4.	Suggestion for further research	62

REFERENCES	63
-------------------------	----

APPENDICES	79
-------------------------	----

Appendix A: students' listening test

Appendix B: teachers' questionnaire

LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1: Background Information Part	38
Table 4.2: The Years of Teaching Experience	38
Table 4.3 Approach to Teaching Listening	39
Table 4.4: Kinds of Materials Used in Teaching	39
Table 4.5: Frequencies of Part II Results.....	40
Table 4.6: Potential Problems in the Listening Classroom.....	41
Table: 4.7: Results of the Test	52

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ESL: English as a Second Language

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0. Introduction

It is obvious that listening comprehension is an essential skill to be acquired, and should not be taken into consideration in the second language teaching and learning environment. In order to deter listening comprehension from being treated like the ‘Cinderella’ skill, as Nunan (2002) calls it, listening comprehension should be given importance and attention in the classroom, and this should be done from the early beginning and throughout the students’ stages of learning. However, Rost, (2002) argues that it should not be treated as a by-product skill in the learning environment because effective listening needs as much attention and mental activity as other skills. Moreover, students’ listening ability must be at the center of teaching practice, and it is the area in which teachers need to concentrate on their own techniques of teaching that help them to teach students in order to overcome their difficulty in listening. However, listening strategies are rarely applied in the classroom, nor are they taught correctly. Learners cannot develop a better listening skill and become effective listeners unless the teachers rely mostly on listening proactive in the classroom (Cartwright, 2014)

1.1. Background of the Study

According to previous literature on the study of language, EFL learners have serious problems in English listening comprehension. The learners’ difficulties are due to the fact that universities pay more attention to English grammar, reading and vocabulary. Listening and speaking skills are not important parts of many course books or curricula and teachers do not seem to pay attention to these skills while designing their lessons. Most teachers

take it for granted and believe that it will develop naturally within the process of language learning. Persulesy (1988:50) states that one of the reasons for the opinion that listening is a skill that tends to be neglected is the feeling among language teachers that this skill is automatically acquired by the learner as he/she learns to speak the language. Most teachers also assume listening is synonymous to breathing automatic (Thomas and Dyer, 2007). Another reason why this skill is not given serious attention is the fact that incompetence in it is easy to hide through nodding and shaking of the head, which may give the impression of understanding, even there is none. Still another factor is that audio-lingual courses give the impression that they are teaching listening when in fact they are teaching other skills.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

The researcher observed that many students performed poorly in listening. They are unable to comprehend natural spoken English delivered at normal speed because they do not understand the spoken content of the lessons. Frequently; such students lose all confidence as foreign language practitioners and they have difficulty in maintaining concentration for a long time. This problem was noticed even by other instructors who were offering the same course to different groups.

1.3. Aims of the Study

This study aims at:

1. Helping Libyan students' to pay more attention to the importance of studying listening comprehension.
2. Identifying kinds of listening comprehension problems encountered by English students at Zawia University.

1.4. Research Questions

The present study seeks to answer the following research questions:

Q1. Do Libyan students at Zawia University/ college of Arts face problems in listening comprehension?

Q2. What are the main strategies do teachers and students use to overcome listening problems?

Q3. What is teachers' perception about teaching listening and the importance of improving listening skill?

1.5. Significance of the Study

Awareness of the factors that contribute to the problems EFL learners encounter in listening comprehension would benefit the following groups:

1. Learners to identify their difficulties of listening comprehension to ascertain what further learning strategies are necessary. Learners need to be aware of the factors which contribute to their difficulties in listening; when listeners know something about their own problems, they will be able to improve their listening practices and become better listeners.
2. EFL teachers to have a better understanding of their students' listening difficulties and examine their own teaching methods to improve students' listening comprehension. Knowing why some of the problems occur will naturally place teachers in a better position to guide their learners in ways of overcoming some of their listening difficulties. It is also hoped that the findings about students' listening difficulties can provide English teachers with some guidelines for material evaluation and selection.
3. Syllabus designers and materials writers to make further improvements in the teaching materials and help students develop their listening comprehension skills.
4. Researchers who are interested in classroom research to use the findings as a basis for further study in the area.

1.6. Outline of the Study

This dissertation consists of five chapters and they are organized as follows:

- Chapter one: it presents introduction and background of the study. It also introduces the statement of the problem, aims of the study, research questions and. It also clarifies the significance as well.
- Chapter two: it presents a theoretical survey of listening comprehension problems and other topics related to the main theme of the study. It also introduces some relevant previous studies.
- Chapter three: it presents the research design of the study and the methods used to collect the data. The chapter also presents the procedures of conducting the study.
- Chapter four: it presents the analysis and the discussion of the data obtained from the test and the questionnaire.
- Chapter five: it presents a brief summary of the study along with some recommendations for helping students improve listening and some suggestions for further research, implications and limitation.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0. Introduction

Listening comprehension is a very difficult skill that almost all EFL/ESL learners complain about. It is considered a big challenge for learners because listening task needs strong English background as any listening dialogue consists of a variety of vocabulary and complex structures. Research on SLA proves that there are some factors that influence on listening comprehension such as noise, lack of exposure to English, lack of English background or topical background. There are also physical factors such as listening deficiency and anxiety. These factors results in serious problems that make listening impossible. In this chapter reviews factors that affect listening comprehension and their related problems, strategies of listening, teaching of listening and previous studies.

2.1. Definition of Listening

Listening is defined as the ability to identify and understand what other people say during their conversation. This involves understanding a speaker's accent and pronunciation, his grammar and his vocabulary (Howatt and Dakin, 1974).Listening plays an important role in second language for several reasons. Rost(1994) pointed out that if you cannot hear well, you will find it hard to communicate or perhaps you cannot pass your listening test or examination for instance.It should be noted that learners' perception of their listening problems can affect their comprehension both positively and negatively (Wenelen, 1986).

In order to help students get improved with their listening skills, they need to find out their listening problems which cause difficulties to them. According to Yangan (1994;

p.76), the main factors that influence listening comprehension skill are: the speaker, the listeners and the physical setting. It is important for the speaker (teacher) to know or identify what the listener (student) is looking for also; the teacher should create a good impression towards his students in order to attract their attention to what he is saying. The teacher must behave respectfully and acknowledge the presence of his student. In addition, the teacher's speech should be meaningful and well formulated in order to have a good listener. Lack of focus and expressing thoughts randomly can lead learners to drift away from the main topic and fail to hold their attention.

2.2. The Nature of Listening

According to Howatt and Dakin (1974) listening is the ability to identify and understand what other people are saying. This process includes understanding a speaker's accent or pronunciation, the speaker's grammar and vocabulary, and finally comprehension of meaning. In this view, Underwood (1993:p.1) defines listening as "an activity of paying attention to and trying to get meaning from something we hear". Nunan (1991: pp.17-18) pointed out that in order to develop appropriate approaches in teaching listening skills, it is first necessary to understand the nature of listening. For many years and until recently the nature of listening was neglected by applied linguists, and it was often assumed that listening skills could be acquired through exposure to English but not really taught.

Although there is a traditional labeling for reading and listening as "passive" skills, Littlewood (1981:66) states "listening is not passive activity", listening is part of an active and complex communicative process. Linguists believe that a listener is an important part of the listening process who is involved in guessing, anticipating, checking, interpreting, interacting and organizing by associating and accommodating their prior knowledge of

meaning and form. Comprehending spoken language is a complex process in which the listener constructs a meaning out of the information provided by the speaker. In other words, prior knowledge and background information may help learners understand the speaker's message.

In addition, Brown and Yule (1983:55) indicate that "most foreign learners will not acquire a comfortable ability to listen and understand the foreign language as spoken by native speakers if they only listen to their teachers and classmates and feedback from their own spoken production". Moreover, teachers must actively discover the nature and process of listening comprehension and study the theory and methodology of listening comprehension in order to develop listening teaching outcomes and make students understand that listening comprehension is a crucial aspect of English learning.

2.3. Listening Comprehension Strategies

Early research in second language listening research had an interest in a theory that being merely exposed to comprehensible input that would improve listening skills and promote language acquisition, and it paid much attention to the processing of this input (Krashen, 1985). Second language listening research recently has, however, shifted to concentrate on how learners utilize this input. Second language listening research has been increasingly directed to clarifying listener's mental processes and identifying facilitative strategies (Mendelsohn, 1995; Thompson & Robin, 1996; Vandergrift, 1999).

The interest in listening comprehension strategies has evolved in a number of studies (O'Malley, Chamot & Walker, 1987; Oxford & Crookall, 1989; Wenden & Robin, 1987). For example, Oxford (1990) defined language learning strategies as the techniques that learners manipulate to improve the use of the target language information. O'Malley and Chamot (1989) categorize strategies into two groups: cognitive, meta-cognitive and socio-

affective. However, all these strategies are determined by the learners' proficiency which is one of the main factors that determine the choice of a strategy (Conrad, 1985; O'Malley & Kupper, 1990; Rost & Ross, 1991). Moreover; skilled learners were found to use more strategies than their less skilled counterparts.

2.3.1. Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive strategies are defined as problem-solving procedures that learners use to handle the learning tasks and facilitate the acquisition of knowledge or skill (Derry & Murphy, 1986). Cognitive strategies are more directly related to a learning task and involve direct manipulation or transformation of the learning materials (Brown and Palincsar, 1982; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990). Language learners use cognitive strategies to help them process, store and recall new information (Goh, 1998, p. 124).

Cognitive strategies include two broad types have been the subject of second language listening research: bottom- up and top-down. Bottom-up strategies include word-for- word translation, adjusting the rate of speech, repeating the oral text, and focusing on prosodic features of the text. Top-down strategies, on the other hand, include predicting, inferencing, elaborating and visualization. Previous research has revealed that advanced learners employ more top-down strategies than beginners such (Clark, 1980; Conrad, 1985; Tsui & Fullilove, 1998; O'Malley, Chamot, & Kupper, 1989). Among the cognitive strategies, four strategies will be analyzed here. The first cognitive strategy, trying to comprehend without translating, is used when the listener attempts to understand the L2 input without translating to the L1. This strategy is useful because oftentimes, many words do not have equivalents in one of the languages, tendering the comprehension process more difficult. This strategy, therefore, directs the listener's attention to the meaning and structure of the target language. The second cognitive strategy is focusing on the main

words to understand the new words. The listener creates meaning by applying his/ her knowledge of words from the target language to sentences. This strategy is very useful, especially for beginning listeners, who rely on their small vocabulary repertoire to build their comprehension. The third cognitive strategy is relying on the main idea to comprehend the whole text. This strategy helps the listeners locate the theme first and details later on. One of the techniques that this strategy involves is skimming. The learner who uses this strategy locates the main idea quickly and understands the L2 aural input very rapidly. The fourth cognitive strategy is guessing the meaning by relying on any clues (contextual or linguistic). Listeners use this strategy when they do not know all the words, or they do not understand the overall meaning of the sentence. Both native and non-native speakers use this strategy either when they have not listened well enough or when the meaning is not clear (Abdalhamid, 2012).

2.3.2. Meta-Cognitive Strategies

Meta-cognitive strategies are management techniques employed by learners to have control over their learning through planning, monitoring, evaluating, and modifying (Rubin, 1987). For example, for meta-cognitive planning strategies, listeners would clarify the objectives of an anticipated listening activity and attend to particular aspects of the aural language input or situational details that facilitate the comprehension of aural input.

According to Oxford (1990), the conscious use of meta-cognitive strategies helps learners get back their focus when they lose it. However, learners do not use meta-cognitive strategies very frequently despite the importance of self-monitoring and self-evaluation. Baker and Brown (1984) identified two types of meta-cognitive ability: knowledge of cognition (i.e., knowing what) and regulation of cognition (i.e., knowing how). The first type is concerned with the learners' awareness of what is going on, and the

second type relates to what learners should do to listen effectively. Vandergrift (2003) found that skilled listeners used twice as many meta-cognitive strategies as their less-skilled counterparts. Among the meta-cognitive strategies, two strategies will be analyzed here. Focusing on what the speaker is saying is a strategy that enables the listener to focus his/ her attention on the speaker's message without being distracted by any distractors. This strategy is very useful in participating in the classroom, watching TV, listening to the radio, or talking to other people.

The second meta-cognitive strategy is deciding in advance what to pay attention to. Listeners employ selective attention as a technique to facilitate the comprehension process. For example, some listeners choose to focus on pronunciation and accents as a way to understand the spoken language with different accents. However, focusing too much on accents can have a negative impact on comprehension because it can be a distracter, leading to misunderstanding (ibid).

2.3.3. Socio-Affective Strategies

The last category of strategies is socio-affective, which encompasses the attempts to create and promote positive emotional reactions and attitudes towards language learning (Chamot & O'Malley, 1987). Vandergrift (2003) defined socio-affective strategies as the techniques listeners employ to collaborate with others, to verify understanding, or to lower anxiety. According to Gardner & MacIntyre (1992, 1993), the affective strategies used to control learning experiences are very important because the learning context and learners' social-psychological factors (i.e., how learners feel about the learning experience) are directly related. Aneiro (1989) found a significant correlation between low anxiety and high listening performance, which suggests that using affective strategies could facilitate and enhance listening. O'Malley & Chamot (1987) found that among the four strategies of

management, cognitive strategies, social strategies, affective strategies in listening comprehension, social and affective strategies influenced the learning context immediately.

2.4. Listening skills

The use of effective listening can help teachers facilitate the teaching process and help students to understand the language input they are receiving. Therefore; listening skills can be classified by how the listener processes the input. Richards (2005:24-27) explains the bottom –up, the top-down and the interactive as models of the listening process, while Harmer (2002, p.288) uses intensive and extensive listening for bottom–up and top-down. Buck (2001, p.2) emphasizes that bottom up view sees language comprehension as a process of passing through some consecutive stages and the output of each stage becomes the input for the next higher stage. He also explains some problems which are related to this view of language compression and illustrates the importance of understanding the meaning of a word before decoding its sound; whereas; the top-down view sees many different types of knowledge involved in understanding language as not applied in any fixed order.

In Brief, bottom up listening skills or bottom-up processing refers to the decoding process, the direct decoding of language into meaningful units, from sound waves through the air, in through our ears and into our brain where meaning is decoded. To do this, students need to know the code, how the sounds work and how they string together and how the codes can change in different ways when they are strung together, and most students have never been taught how English changes when it is strung together in sentences.

On the other hand, top-down skills, or top-down processing refers to who we use our world knowledge to attribute meaning to language input; how our knowledge of social

convention helps us understand meaning (Buck, 2001). The teachers should teach these skills in their classes. Brown (2006:3) assumes that students obviously need both bottom-up and top-down processing skills in listening as well. Students must hear some sounds (bottom-up processing) hold them in their working memory long enough (a few seconds) to connect them to each other and then interpret what they have just heard before something new comes along. At the same time, they will use their background knowledge (top-down processing) in order to determine meaning with respect to prior knowledge.

Rivers (1981) summarized that many language learners consider listening to the target language is still the most difficult tasks, also it is perhaps the most neglected skill in second language teaching. This neglect comes from the objectives of much language teaching in situations where the students are not likely to be exposed to listen to our ignorance about the nature of the process of listening comprehension. Many teachers have no knowledge about the theories of teaching listening and what or how to teach students to comprehend what other people said. In language teaching, listening comprehension used to be thought of as a passive skill. Discussions prior to 1970 rarely consider listening comprehension as a skill to be taught in its own right, separate from pronunciation and grammar.

According to Morley's guidelines (2001) which based on her work experience in the classroom, she provided a general set of principles for teaching listening:

- The main goals of listening comprehension skills should be carefully stated. These goals should suit with both teacher and students.
- Listening comprehension lessons should be formed and constructed with careful step by step planning, on other words listening tasks progress from simple to more complex one.

- The immediate or direct feedback on students' performance helps to keep interest and motivation.

In Morley's terms (2001, p.71) "listening is receiving, receiving requires thinking, and thinking requires memory; there is no way to separate listening, thinking, remembering". The techniques and strategies that teachers use during the listening class will suggest the range of items students need to practice on. Thus, students will be aware of unfamiliar words and new vocabulary will be controlled. Morley also suggested that the number of times students need to listen to the task depends on the length and difficulty of what they hear or listen to during the class and always on the students' proficiency. If the task can be completed during the listening, and the listening is relatively easy, once is enough, but if the students must recall or find facts in order to answer questions after having listened, they may need to hear the passage more than once.

However, the most effective listeners are able to project all four levels at the same time. That is, they demonstrate that they are paying attention and making an effort to understand and evaluate what they are hearing and they complete the process by demonstrating through their responses their level of comprehension and interest in what the speaker is saying. Listening and understanding the others is not always an easy task, but a good listener doesn't merely remain silent. He/she asks questions these questions must clearly be motivated by curiosity about the speakers' views.

2.5. Potential Problems in Listening

Regarding listening problems, Underwood (1989, p.45) outlines seven potential problems that could hinder listening comprehension. First, the speed of delivery is beyond the control of listeners. Underwood says, "Many language learners believe that the greatest difficulty with listening comprehension, as opposed to reading comprehension, is that

listener cannot control how quickly a speaker speaks” (Underwood, 1989, p.16). Second, it is not always possible for learners to have words repeated. This is a major problem in learning situations. In the classroom, it is the teacher who decides whether or not a recording or a section of recording needs to be replayed. It is “hard for the teacher to judge whether or not the students have understood any particular section of what they have heard” (Underwood, 1989, p.17).

Third, the small size of the learner vocabulary frequently impedes listening comprehension. The speaker does not always use words the listener knows. Sometimes when listeners encounter a new word, they stop to figure out the meaning of that word, and they therefore, miss the next part of the speech. Fourth, listeners may not recognize the signals that the speaker is using to move from one point to another, give an example, or repeat a point. Discourse markers which are utilized in formal situations (i.e., firstly, and after that) are relatively clear to listeners. However, in informal situations, signals such as gestures, increased loudness, or a clear change of pitch are very ambiguous, especially to L2 learners. Fifth, it can be very challenging for listeners to concentrate in a foreign language. It is generally known that in listening, even a slight break or a wander in attention can impede comprehension. When the topic of the listening passage is interesting, it can be easier for listeners to concentrate and follow the passage; however, students sometimes feel that listening is very challenging even when they are interesting in the topic because it requires a lot of effort to figure out the meaning intended by the speaker.

Sixth, learning habits emphasized in the classroom such as a desire to understand the meaning of every word. Teachers oftentimes want students to understand every word they encounter while listening by pronouncing and repeating words clearly and carefully, and by speaking slowly and so forth. As a result, students tend to feel worried when they fail to

recognize what a particular word means and may further be discouraged by the failure. Students should therefore, be instructed to tolerate incompleteness and vagueness of understanding. Seventh and last, comprehension problems arise when students lack contextual knowledge. Even if students can understand the main idea of the text, they may still find it difficult to comprehend the whole meaning of the text. Listeners from different cultural backgrounds can also misinterpret nonverbal cues such as facial expressions, gestures, or tone of voice.

In order to overcome these listening comprehension problems, learners need to develop techniques known as “listening strategies. These strategies are mental processes that enable learners comprehend the aural text despite their lack of knowledge. Listening strategies include inferring, elaboration, and regulating and monitoring comprehension, and they are discussed in detail in the next section.

2.6. Teaching Listening Comprehension

The Knowledge of listening features, like any other skill, is an important factor for effective teaching; yet, it is not sufficient enough. Listening materials used for L2 listening comprehension instruction should reflect the features of real-life spoken language (Alonso, 2013). For example, by using everyday dialogues or listening texts extracted from radio and TV programs. Therefore, classroom materials need to be authentic and reflective of real-life listening situations. When materials are not reflective of authentic language (e.g., recordings of a written text onto a tape), they hardly represent any real-life listening situations. Written materials for listening help readers with formal-transactional speech exercises to improve their level (Ur, 1984). Lectures, which are thought to be highly reflective of transactional speech (Brown & Yule, 1983), represent an important listening genre because they are also a part of real-life listening (Ur, as cited by Timson, 1996).

Richards (as cited by Timson, 1996) also states that lectures are essential for the process of language learning, and thus shouldn't be given for advanced learners, because all different levels of learners need classrooms to learn.

Field (2002) claimed that Authentic materials can be used with beginners of learners, because it helps in creating a mixture between authentic materials and pedagogical prepared listening materials, authentic materials are examples from the real life, and pedagogical materials are designed according to the purpose of the text book (Ridgway, 2000). Using authentic materials does not necessarily mean using reallife listening texts in the classroom. Authentic texts should be adapted but teachers in terms of cognitive load and task demand instead of just simplifying the language of the text (Field, 2002). Adapting texts might is easy because it helps the students to respond to the all of physical task demands, such as marking places on a map by listening tasks.

The teacher's role is to spot the light on the characteristics of real-life speech are very important for learners as they students with exercises representing as many of its features as possible. According to Lam (2002) learners should be aware of the nature of real-life speech. They also need to be aware of time-creating devices (e.g., "um," "urh," and "eh"), facilitation devices (e.g., "you know," "I mean," and "well"), and compensation devices (e.g., redundant or repeated words, discourse markers, and other visual clues) inherent in spoken language. To support, teachers need to conceive awareness-raising exercises, such as comparing extracts of written and spoken texts, converting written texts to spoken texts or vice versa. So that teachers can provide students with skills-enabling exercises. These exercises may include having students identify these points: time-creating, facilitation, and compensation devices while listening to authentic listening texts, producing their own texts, and integrating listening with other skills, especially with speaking.

It is also necessary to inform learners about the different purposes for listening. As mentioned earlier, in real-life listening situations, people usually have a reason for listening beyond understanding what is being heard, such as finding something or getting directions. Therefore, learners should be informed about what they are going to listen to. Such information helps learners to activate relevant schemata and enhance anticipation (Ur, 1996). Setting a task before listening may also create a purpose that is similar to real-life aims. Pre-set tasks enable the listener to listen selectively for specific information (p. 108). Students can focus on interactional aspects, such as listening for tone of voice and for mood only if it is also appropriated to note that these activities do not need to be transactional. There may also be some listening situations where there is no clear purpose other than relaxation or entertainment, such as listening to stories and films. Such activities may still be motivating for learners.

Response is another feature of real-life listening tasks. This feature should also be reflected in classroom listening activities using real life situations. The listener usually responds to the speaker at different intervals throughout the task of listening, whereas in class, learners are usually required to respond to the text at the very end (Ur, 1996). Teachers should also consider the difficulty level of tasks before using listening materials in the classroom (ibid).

2.7. Stages of Listening Lessons

The general outline of an effective listening lesson is said to include three stages: pre-listening, listening, and post-listening. Field (2002) defined the standard format of a listening lesson as the most suitable stage in which to provide students with background information is the pre-listening stage. This stage consists of teaching critical words and engaging students in pre-listening activities. Field suggests that teachers encourage

guessing the meanings of unknown words from context instead of teaching the critical words before listening, which was not a common practice in traditional classrooms.

For pre-listening activities, teachers should aim to provide sufficient context to match the degree of contextualization that would be available in real life and to motivate students. Teachers should be conscious about the length of time that they devote to the pre-listening stage, since there is a danger of shortening the time for actual listening practice if the pre-listening stage is too long, because the pre-listening stage is critical for activating personal schemata and engaging the students in the flow of the lesson. Tasks might also be employed before listening in order to provide a purpose for listening and a context for comprehension (Buck, 1995). The provision of a purpose for listening enables learners to listen selectively as in real life.

For the during-listening stage, Field (2002) distinguishes between extensive and intensive listening. Extensive listening can be defined as listening to a text without focusing on details and just listening, with the aim of understanding something worth hearing. In intensive listening, on the other hand, the listener aims to pick up detailed information (Rixon, 1986). Rost (1991, p.12) further divides listening into the types, which can take place in the during-listening stage:

1. Supply short responses to the speaker using attentive listening
2. Intensive listening focuses students' attention on language forms. It should focus on specific contrasts of grammatical, lexical, or phonological forms in contexts for such activities.
3. Selective listening can be used to help learners identify a purpose and to learn to attend to specific information provided in the text.
4. Interactive listening provides learners with activities to assume active roles in the listening process, even when they are in the listener's role. Teachers should make sure

that the input of the activity matches the proficiency level of the students so that they will be able to prepare students for these activities, (Rost, 1991).

To this end, 'cognitive load' principles are worth attention by teachers, because the cognitive load principle asserts that the more complex the number and distinguishability of referents, spatial, temporal and informational relations, and causal and intentional inferences become more difficult the text becomes for learners to comprehend (Brown, 1995). It is important to prepare tasks for listening practice, particularly for the during-listening stage. Tasks should increase the degree of attention paid to meaning rather than form, thus ensuring that listening is a communicative information-gap activity (Buck, 1995).

The third stage of a listening lesson, the post-listening stage, may be where teachers highlight important functional language that students have been exposed to in the during-listening stage. Listening can be used as a way of supporting grammar as be one teaching technique, but it is not the only one. In the post-listening stage, the teacher can ask students to give the meanings of new or unknown words from the given context. This can be done by writing the target words on the board, replaying or reading the sentences containing them, and asking the learners to work out their meanings. This stage should also include checking answers to listening comprehension activities (Field, 2002). In addition, post-listening may be a good stage in which it integrates listening with other language skills. Apart from these three stages of a typical L2 listening lesson, the general tendency among teachers, which has been proven ineffective, is to test listening rather than teach it. What happens in such settings is that teachers only have the students listen to the passage and ask them to answer comprehension questions (Ur, 1984). However; task-based instructions are priority rather than question-based (Maley & Moulding, as cited by Morley, 1995)

since question-based activities do not allow learners to use the information in a meaningful way (Morley, 1995).

In addition, listening to the text and answering comprehension questions represents only a limited example of non-interactive, one-way listening. Therefore, this type of listening exercise may only be appropriate for “low-level listening-and responding-behavior, at a discrete-point “bottom-up” level of cognitive processing” (Morley, 1995). Field (2002) suggests a balanced approach to this issue. He suggests that it is not inappropriate to assess the amount of understanding that has been achieved, but that teachers often use the results of the exercises which are checked in the classroom incorrectly.

Adopting a view of wrong answers as identifiers of students’ listening difficulties is an essential role that teachers should care about (Field, 2002). When teachers acknowledge the difficulties that students face, they can provide them with micro-listening exercises to help them overcome these difficulties. Teachers can make use of the listening-skill taxonomies offered by Richards (1983) and exercises to practice these sub-skills (Peterson, 2001; Rost, 1990; Ur 1984). It should also be borne in mind that learners need class exercises for both bottom-up and top-down processing goals at all proficiency level(Peterson, 2001).

2.8. Problems of Teaching Listening

Although ESL listening comprehension problems are mentioned many times in the listening comprehension literature (Brown, 1995; Higgins, 1996; Lonsdale, 1996; McNeill, 1996; Thompson, 1995; Ur, 1996), only few writers mentioned the dilemmas that teachers face. These teacher-difficulties may arise either as a result of learner difficulties or as a result of other aspects of listening comprehension. Ur (1996) discussed the difficulties of

teaching listening comprehension. Ur separates the difficulties of teaching L2 listening comprehension into three groups: practical problems related to listening texts, practical problems related to listening tasks, and problems related to ongoing listener response.

Problems related to listening texts that are used for teaching L2 listening comprehension might arise from the person who reads or improvises them. If the texts are ready-made for students, they may not meet particular need. In addition, if the teacher is not a native speaker of English, he or she may not model real-life spoken language completely. Yet, many teachers feel unconfident about providing a good enough model for their students to listen to. Also, there is a danger of exposing learners only to the voice of the teacher, thus depriving them of the chance to hear different voices and accents. As a result of these problems of non-native teachers of English, many teachers rely on tape-recordings, or they read aloud the texts written to be read. Ur (1996) modeling L2 spoken language can be maintained by many non-native teachers of English. However, they are distressed about speaking in the L2.

Other problems with listening materials may arise (Ur, 1996). A problem with most listening materials seems to be their being tape-recorded since they do not include the visual elements which are present in most real-life listening situations. They also do not provide sufficient direct speaker-listener interaction which takes place in most of real-life listening situations. To compensate for these missing features, teachers may employ video for the teaching of listening comprehension, they may act out the listening texts in the classroom, or they may have students act them out.

An exposure to listening texts may be accompanied with problems. Based on the fact that most of the time listeners hear real-life speech only once, teachers might provide students with a single exposure to the listening texts. However, when learners listen to the text only once, that means depriving them of the chance for further practice and better

performance. To reflect the features of real-life listening in the classroom is a difficult goal to achieve. In real life, the listener usually has a purpose and expectations in mind before listening. The best way to solve this dilemma and transport these features into the classroom might be assigning tasks before listening, as mentioned earlier in discussions of pre, during, and post listening instruction. Listening tasks, which require students to draw or mark a picture, diagram, map, or even a written text, are examples of tasks. Such tasks may help learners to succeed as well as increasing learner interest and motivation. Ellis (2003) categorizes listening tasks as reciprocal and non-reciprocal in terms of the opportunity provided to the learner to interact. Ellis exemplifies the non-reciprocal tasks with two types of listening tasks, namely listen-and-do tasks and academic listening tasks. For example, another real-life task for learners is the academic task, which requires their understanding by taking notes (Ur, as cited by Timson, 1996).

Tasks, particularly those with a visual focus, provide a solution to the problematic issue of setting a purpose or expectations about listening texts. What is problematic about setting a purpose or expectations is that teachers generally tend not to give hints before listening since they want their students to comprehend the text with the help of their general world knowledge. As a result, teachers should pay attention to setting a purpose before listening either by assigning pre-set tasks or using other techniques (e.g., providing extra visual materials, or asking preview questions Oxford, 1990) otherwise they should ensure that the activity is still interesting enough for listening (e.g., listening to stories or watching films) even without a pre-set task other than comprehension itself.

As mentioned earlier, naturally occurring responses are another feature of real-life listening (Ur, 1996). In the classroom, however, it is impractical to hear and monitor the responses of the class together. Thus, most classroom responses to listening texts occur in the form of physical actions or movements, like writing down the answers, or drawing

pictures. The tasks may be more difficult for listeners to achieve if the listening material includes too many physical responses. Learners may feel frustrated and unconfident about listening comprehension. Teachers may avoid the failure caused by texts that are overloaded in terms of the physical response they require from the learners. Teachers may do the exercises themselves before the class and adapt the tasks perfectly as possible. Focusing on developing strategic listeners is one solution to the difficulties associated with teaching listening (Mendelsohn, 1995; Rubin, 1995). Students need to be aware of how strategic listeners act when understanding is imperfect. Teachers can model listening strategies by, for example, having their students write down the words they understand; make inferences about these words; listen again and revise their inferences; then check them against what the speaker says next.

2.9. Related Studies and Previous Research

Different studies about the use of listening strategies by learners have been carried out. Vandergrift (1999) stated that meta-cognitive strategies lead to less efficient learners utilized cognitive and memory strategies most frequently and social strategies least frequently which lead to listening achievement when they deal with cognitive strategies. The more efficient learners often applied strategies. They used top-down and meta-cognitive strategies which are related to learners' listening skill. Chulim (2008) performed a study about exploring the utilization of listening strategies by students in five Mexican universities. The findings indicated that the most frequent use of strategies was emphasizing on particular information, while taking notes and previous knowledge. There were not any significant differences among universities in the use of listening strategies.

Vandergrift (1997) examined the listening strategies of high school French students at different course levels using a structured interview. Students at all levels used meta-cognitive, cognitive, and socio-affective strategies. The results obtained from this study

indicated that cognitive strategies were the largest percentage of strategies followed by meta-cognitive strategies which increased by proficiency level. Females were more interested in meta-cognitive strategies than males. Awareness of meta-cognitive in listening comprehension has been repeatedly emphasized. According to Vandergrift, Goh, Mareschal, and Tafaghodtari (2006) and Al-Alwan, Asassfeh, and Al-Shboul (2013), students with high levels of meta-cognitive consciousness are better at processing and keeping new information and learners can practice and strengthen what they have learned. Anderson (1991) stated that meta-cognitive strategies have a substantial role in developing learners' skills.

Anderson (2003) and Al-Alwan, Asassfeh, and Al-Shboul (2013) represented that meta-cognitive strategies activate thinking by guiding and improve the learners' learning performance. They emphasized the positive effect of listening strategies on the learners' listening performance. Yang (2009) and Al-Alwan, Asassfeh, and Al-Shboul (2013) stressed the significant role of meta-cognitive strategies in helping learners to undertake the listening activity to be more effectively and to distinguish successful learners from unsuccessful ones.

Coskun (2010) and Al-Alwan, Asassfeh, and Al-Shboul (2013) performed a study to investigate the effect of meta-cognitive listening strategy training program on listening comprehension. The findings represented that the experimental group had a significantly higher performance and meta-cognitive strategy training can be used in the listening classes to further the listening process. Twenty-eight Iranian EFL listeners participated in a strategy-based approach study. It was utilized to four listening lessons to improve listeners' comprehension of IELTS listening texts. The results displayed that less-skilled listeners indicate higher improvement than more-skilled ones on the IELTS listening tests.

This shows the significant role of meta-cognitive instruction to help learners to develop their listening skill (Bozorgian, 2012).

According to Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001) and Al-Alwan, Asassfeh, and Al-Shboul (2013), meta-cognitive strategies are used to plan and perform suitable actions to get a specific aim. They continued that meta-cognitive strategies manage the whole learning process. Yesilyurt (2013) declared that meta-cognitive strategies are stronger in predictors of L2 proficiency. According to Vandergrift, Goh, Mareschal, and Tafaghodtari (2006), meta-cognitive strategies help language learners to understand the awareness levels of strategies and to organize and manage the listening comprehension processes.

Vandergrift (2003) stated that using meta-cognitive strategies results in better listening performance. Goh (2002) stressed that more skilled listeners showed a higher level of consciousness of their listening difficulties. Vandergrift (2007) found an essential relationship between meta-cognitive instruction and listening performance. Lui (2008) examined the relationship between the use of listening strategy and listening ability of Taiwanese university students. The results indicated a positive and significant relationship between listening proficiency and strategy use. Proficient listeners had higher meta-cognitive, cognitive, and socio-affective awareness.

A study was done by Mohseny and Raeisi (2009) about the relationship between language proficiency of Iranian EFL learners and their listening strategy use. Statistical analysis revealed a significant positive relationship between proficiency level and listening strategy use. Cognitive strategies were the most frequent among learners.

Another study was done by Bidabadi and Yamat (2011) about the relationship between listening strategies used by 92 Iranian EFL students and their listening proficiency. Learners used meta-cognitive strategies more often. A significant positive relationship was

found between learners' listening strategies and their listening proficiency, so it's clear that meta-cognitive strategies help EFL learners to learn language better.

Tavakoli, Shahraki, and Rezazadeh (2012) examined the relationship between meta-cognitive awareness of proficient and less proficient Iranian learners and their performance on the listening part of IELTS. The findings showed that meta-cognitive awareness had a positive relationship with the learners' listening performance. The impact of meta-cognitive instruction on learners' awareness of listening strategies, listening comprehension, and oral proficiency was examined by Rahimi and Katal (2012). According to the obtained results, higher gains were obtained by learners who had proposed meta-cognitive instruction in meta-cognitive awareness and speaking proficiency than those who received conventionally listening instructions without training.

Hamouda (2013) investigated listening comprehension problems encountered by Saudi students in the EL listening classroom at Qassim University. 60 students who took the listening course in 2012/13 were selected for the purpose of the study. Data was gathered by means of questionnaires and interviews. The results of the study showed that accent, pronunciation, speed of speech, insufficient vocabulary, different accent of speakers, lack of concentration, anxiety, and bad quality of recording were the major listening comprehension problems encountered by EFL Saudi learners. Understanding students' difficulties may enable EFL teachers to help students develop effective learning strategies and ultimately improve their English listening abilities. Suggestions were made for solving the problems regarding how teachers can help their students overcome listening comprehension problems. The results of this study may also be useful for those who are interested in this field.

Higgins (1995) studied Omani students' dilemmas in listening comprehension and found that the factors which facilitate listening are speech rate, vocabulary, and

pronunciation. After examining 81 Arabic speakers learning English as a foreign language for academic purposes and their perceived LC problems, a study conducted by Hasan (2000) showed that ‘unfamiliar words’, ‘difficult and advanced grammatical structures’, and ‘the length of the spoken text’ are the most important factors for listening problems. Yagang (1994) attributes the difficulty of listening comprehension to four sources: the message, the speaker, the listener and the physical setting.

Boyle (1984) also classified the factors influencing listening comprehension and directly related them to EFL listening into four inter-relating categories: listener, speaker, medium and environment factors. Aside from these, Chang, Chang, &Kuo (1995) pointed out five major listening difficulties facing learners of listening: speed, a cluster of sounds difficult for segmentation, obsession with the Chinese translation, association of sounds with words and meanings, and idiomatic expressions. Teng (2002) identified four listening factors, which were similar to Boyle’s (1984) classification; they were stimulus factors, speaker factors, and context and listener factors. She indicated that “EFL proficiency” was the most important listener factor for EFL listening problems. It may directly result from implies that students’ difficulties are deficiently related to linguistic knowledge. However, Goh (2000) indicated that the most common problem was “quickly forget what is heard (parsing).” Similarly, in Sun’s study (2002, p.7), the most difficulty in listening for Taiwan’s students was “forget the meaning of the word (perception).”

Asmawati (2017) investigated the problems encountered the students from three factors; Listening material, listeners' factor, and physical setting. Descriptive method was used to analyze the obtained data and to find the solution about the problems. The research was conducted in State Islamic University of Alauddin Makassar. The population of this study was second semester students of English Education Department of Tarbiyah and Teaching Faculty Academic year 2016/2017. There were Thirty Seven students as the

subjects of the study. Data were gathered by questionnaire and interview. The result of analyzing students' difficulties toward listening comprehension showed that listening is very difficult skill for students who study foreign language. Three factors influenced the students' listening; listening material, listener factor, and physical setting. Therefore, accents, pronunciation, speed of speech, insufficient vocabulary, lack of concentration, and bad quality of recording were the major problems encountered by students' of English. Understanding students' difficulties enable the lecturer to help the students developing the effective learning strategies and ultimately improve their listening. Solutions to overcome the problems were: the teacher should adapt and improve listening material, activate students' vocabulary, give the students variety of accent while practice listening in language laboratory, improve their pronunciation by training from native speakers, building students' knowledge about the topic, give some strategies in listening, and always motivate students.

Abidin et al., (2013) in his research, used a qualitative method to collect data from three Chinese students taking English Listening Comprehension (ELC) in University Science Malaysian (USM). The study is related to the problems encountered by Chinese students in ELC learning. The interview was conducted to investigate students' perspective through questions concerning the problems of the Chinese students in their ELC self-learning process, in three steps, which include the pre-listening, while listening and post-listening. Findings from this study revealed that the main problem faced by the Chinese students is the lack of prior knowledge in English vocabulary, the differences in the accent of the native speakers prohibit the proper understanding of the listening content, the short span of concentration, and the learning habits of Chinese students were discussed as the problems of the ELC learning.

Anadapong (2011) in his research entitled a study of English listening problems and listening proficiency of business at Bangkok University. This study was conducted with thirty of business student at Bangkok University with the aim investigating their English listening problem and listening proficiency. Questionnaire, IELTS test, and Interview were used in this study us tools to collect data. As a result, the data were analyzed by using SPSS. The results of the study revealed that the students' that main reason caused listening problem is the listening text. However, the factors that mostly caused listening problems were lack of practicing listening skill and lack of exposure to different kinds of listening materials.

Yousif (2006) in his research, mentioned that difficulties of listening comprehension problems of first year students listening to lectures in a FL subject matter classroom. Regarding this issue, data were collected regarding the lecture comprehension difficulties of these students by means of a short open-ended questionnaire and interview. The subjects of the study were 50 first-year students majoring in English in their second semester at Almajmah College of Education. They were admitted to the English department on the merit of acquiring 80% or more on the school certificate examination. The analyzed data provided a guide of linguistic, conceptual, discourse, auditory, environmental and psychological variables that hinder the effectiveness of comprehension. The results of the study had inferences for both EFL teachers and the subject matter of lecturers in the particular setting in which it was conducted. They discussed several obstacles that impact comprehension. Several obstacles were discussed, as they impact the comprehension ability, and they are divided into three main areas; listener factors, speaker factors, and text factors.

2.10. Summary of the Chapter

This chapter gave a background about listening skill which show how different researchers define listening, describe the nature of listening and the strategies that they used such as cognitive strategies, meta-cognitive strategies and socio-affective strategies. The stages of listening lessons also took place in this chapter. Moreover, the problems and the difficulties of teaching listening were discussed as well. Finally, different studies and previous research have been taken into account in this chapter.

CHAPTER THREE METHODOLOGY

3.0. Introduction

This chapter describes the research methodology used in this research. It shows the research design and the sample of the study. The methods of data collection, their validity and reliability are also provided. Moreover, the pilot study and ethical issues in the study are considered. Procedures and preparing the data for analysis are dealt with in this chapter.

3.1. Research Design

This chapter describes the participants, methods and the procedures for conducting the current study. It also presents the instruments of data collection and data analysis. Given the complexity of this field of research, a pilot study was conducted to test the instruments and confirm their procedures. The present study is quantitative research as its findings were all numerical and have been obtained from a questionnaire and a test. There were 30 Libyan English teachers selected randomly to participate in this study. They are asked to complete a Likert-scaled questionnaire as a first step of the study. Then, there were also 40 Libyan students studying in the department of English at Zawia University to take part in a listening test. A quantitative analysis was conducted in this study and the data collected from the listening test and the questionnaire was analyzed by using three statistical procedures.

3.2. Data Collection Instruments

The researcher used two instruments for data collection; a questionnaire and a listening test. The questionnaire was assigned for the teachers and it was given to the teachers prior

to the test administration in order to know about the students' problems in listening before we test them while the listening test is designed for the students only to test their listening abilities.

3.2.1. Teachers' Questionnaire

First of all it is important to define questionnaires. A questionnaire is defined as a data gathering tool designed to meet specific, required information. It can collect data more than any other instrument because all the participants receive the same questions in the same form (Kothari: 2004). It involves a set of questions that are addressed to the research informants for data collection purposes. In this regard, Dornyei (2007) stated that the popularity of questionnaires is due to the fact that they are relatively easy to construct, extremely versatile and uniquely capable of gathering a large amount of information quickly in a form that is readily accessible. Therefore, the questionnaire used in this study is comprised of three parts, a background information part, teachers' current practice part and potential listening difficulties part. Part (1) consists of 5 items, part (2) consists of 10 items and part (3) consists of 8 items. The purpose of the questionnaire is to elicit the teachers' perceptions about the strategies that they follow in teaching listening and about the most frequent problems that their students face in listening comprehension. The type of the questionnaire is a structured questionnaire designed on Likert scale (See appendix B).

3.2.2. Listening Test

The listening test is used to find out the listening ability of the students (See Appendix A). The listening test also served as a listening input on which participants could reflect with regard to their mental strategies. Since this study is concerned with factors hindering listening comprehension in the academic setting, the listening test constructed for this study comprised of "*a morning briefing in a company*" that was taken from the British Council website. The briefing is only 2 minutes and 23 seconds long. It was made sure that

the listening task does not contain any technical terminology that could make the comprehension overly challenging to the participants.

3.3. Pilot Study

To test the reliability and the validity of the instruments that the researchers had used in the study, a pilot study was carried out. A small-scale pilot study was conducted to test and confirm the teachers' questionnaire and the listening test. The purpose of the pilot study was basically to make sure that the level of the texts difficulty is not too far beyond or below the comprehension level of the listeners and to address the reliability of the listening questionnaire accordingly. Therefore, the pilot study was conducted in the college lab.

To test the validity of the test, two students from the department of English participated in the pilot study. The English proficiency of the EFL learners who participated in the pilot study was very similar to the levels of proficiency of the target participants in the main study. The same procedures to be followed in the main study were observed in the pilot study. The listening task was played on a CD player twice. In the first listening, participants were asked to take notes, which they later used to help them answer the questions. Then, they were administered the questions and allotted five minutes to answer the questions. After that, they listened to the same lecture and answered the questions that they had not been able to answer using their notes from the first listen. To test the validity and reliability of the questionnaire, five students answered the questionnaire and commented on the questionnaire items in terms of structure, content, ambiguity and coherence.

Having done the pilot study, the researcher could predict the deficiencies of the questionnaire items, which ones need rewriting and those to be omitted. The piloting of the

listening test helped the researcher know if there would be any technical problem with the audio or the content to be listened for in terms of difficult accent or speed of recording.

3.4. Sampling and Procedures

A total of 40 students and 30 teachers were asked to participate in this study. The participants are all native speakers of Arabic who had been learning English prior to the university stage. They are selected randomly from the first year (first and second semester) in the department of English at Zawia University/ College of Arts and they are mixed gender and their ages ranging between 17-18 years old. The participants also include 30 teachers of English who were asked to share their knowledge and experience by answering the questionnaire designed for them.

3.5. Procedures of the Study

The data was collected in a group setting with varied number of participants in each session. The first session, conducted at 9 am in 11/22/2019, was at the college lab, and there were 12 participants in this session. The second session was also conducted in the same lab at around 12 pm in 12/02/2018. Seven students administered the tests in this session. Later on that day and in the same location, a third session was held in which 11 students participated. The last session was conducted five days later in the lab in which 10 students completed the listening test. Although the experiment was conducted in several sessions, the same instruments and procedures were used in each session. Each session lasted for about 7 minutes. The recorded briefing was played on a CD player twice, and a set of questions related to the briefing were administered in each session. In the first listening, participants were asked to take notes which they were later allowed to use to answer the questions. Upon finishing the first listening, the students administered the

comprehension questions related to the first lecture, and they were allocated five minutes to go over the questions and answer them using the collected notes. The students were then asked to listen to the same task for the second time and answer the questions they had not been able to answer using their notes from the first listen.

Furthermore; the distribution of the questionnaire took three days before the test was conducted. The researcher already arranged with the teachers on the questionnaires during lecture therefore, they received their copies of the questionnaire and submitted them back to the researcher within three days. All the teachers were responsive and understanding for the importance of paying attention to the questionnaire. At last, the researcher collected the questionnaire copies and analyzed them statistically.

3.6. Ethical Consideration in the Study

This study deals with human respondents, certain ethical issues were addressed. Among the significant ethical issues that were considered in the research process were consent and confidentiality. In order to secure the consent of the selected participants, the researcher relayed all important details of the study, including its aim and purpose. For maintaining confidentiality, the researcher utilized anonymity technique for the names of the participants, by mentioning a specific letter for each employee. By explaining these important details, the participants were able to understand the importance of their role in the completion of the research. The participants were also advised that they could withdraw from the study even during the actual process.

3.7. Summary of the Chapter

This chapter has outlined the methodological part of this research. It has described the methods which have been used in this study. It discussed the research design, population and the sample of the study. Data collection instruments in addition to the methodological

issues such as validity and reliability were also discussed. Additionally, the pilot study, the procedures of data collection, and some ethical issues were also considered. Finally, the summary of this chapter was presented.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.0. Introduction

This chapter presents the findings obtained through the analysis of teachers' questionnaire and also through the students' listening test. The type of the data gained from the test is quantitative. Accordingly, the researcher analyzed the students' errors and put them under classes or in categories because it is an important stage in data analysis that allows reviewing the errors. Then, the researcher counted the frequency of each type or class of the error. Finally, the researcher calculated the percentage of each frequency by using a formula for calculating the frequency of errors adapted from (Alfiyani, 2013) and then presented the percentages in tables. For the teachers' questionnaire, the type of the obtained data is quantitative and the researcher calculated the percentage of each question by using SPSS and then the results have been presented in tables.

4.1. Analysis of Teachers' Questionnaire

Part one of the questionnaire, which solicited background information about participants, was analyzed to determine frequencies. Part two, which aimed to find out instructors' current practices in regards to listening strategies and their perceptions of the usefulness of listening strategies. The results obtained from the analysis of questionnaire responses were presented in three sections in this chapter. The last section presented an analysis of items in part three of the questionnaire, which aimed to explore the difficulties that instructors face while teaching L2 listening comprehension.

4.1.1. Background Information of Participants

The questions in Part (I) of the questionnaire aimed to discover background information about the participants. This part included 4 questions. For all questions in this part, frequencies and percentages were calculated. The results of the analysis of the questions in Part I will be presented here following the order of the questions.

Table 4.1: background information part

Level of Students	Frequency	Percentage
Upper-intermediate	5	16.6%
Intermediate	16	53.3%
Advanced	4	13.3%
Beginner	5	16.6%
Total	30	100%

The results show that almost half of participants, 5 out of 30 (16.6%), teach students at upper-intermediate level. Sixteen of the participants (53.3%) teach students who are at the intermediate level, whereas 4 of them (13.3%) teach students at the advanced level. Only 5 participants out of 30 teach students at the beginner level.

Table 4.2: the range of years of teaching experience among participants

Years of Teaching Experience	Frequency	Percent
0-4	3	10%
5-8	13	43.3%
9-12	8	26.6%
13	6	20%
Total: 30 teachers	30	100%

The second question of the background information part of the questionnaire was about the teaching experience of the participants. Approximately the majority of the participants were almost equally distributed among three of the four options: 0-4 years (10%), 5-8 years (43.3%), and 9-12 or more years (26.6%). Only 6 of 30 participants (20%) indicated having taught 13 years. The largest number of participants indicated 5-8 years of teaching experience.

Table 4.3: shows Approach to Teaching Listening

Approach to Teaching Listening	Frequency	Percent
As a discrete-skill	11	36.6%
As an integrated-skill	19	63.3%
Total	30	100%

Question 3 of the background information part of the questionnaire aimed to determine whether the participants taught listening comprehension as a discrete skill or if they integrated it with other skills. As displayed in Table 4.3, only 11 of the 30 participants (36.6%) indicated teaching listening as a discrete skill, whereas the majority, namely 19 of the 30 participants (63.3%), indicated integrating listening comprehension with other skills.

Table 4.4: Kinds of Materials Used for Teaching Listening Comprehension

Instructional Material(s) Used for Teaching Listening Comprehension	Frequency	Percent
Textbook with audio tape only	9	30%
Teacher-produced materials	7	23.3%
Textbook with audio tapes and videos	6	20%
Other materials	0	0%
Textbook with video only	8	26.7%
Textbook without audio tapes and videos	0	0%

Table 4.4 presents the kinds of instructional materials that the participants use for teaching L2 listening comprehension. The majority of the participants (30%) reported using a textbook with audio tape only, which indicates that most of the listening comprehension classes are carried out with the help of audio materials. Seven of the 30 participants (23.3%), reported using teacher produced materials. This result suggests that many participants, even though they are not native speakers, feel confident preparing listening materials. Forty-three of the participants (34%) indicated using a textbook with audio tapes and videos and they also indicated that video is also considered a viable way of teaching listening comprehension, although it is not very commonly used. Eighteen of the

participants (14%) reported using other materials (shown in Table 4.5). Six participants (5%) indicated using a textbook with video only, whereas only one of the participants (1%) indicated using a textbook without audio tapes and videos.

4.1.2. Part II, Teachers' Current Practices

The second part of the questionnaire investigated participants current practices related to listening strategy instruction and their perceptions of listening strategies. There were 10 Likert-type items in this part. For each question, frequencies and percentages were calculated. It was more clearly seen whether there is an overemphasis or lack of emphasis on the integration of a group of strategies into listening instruction. The findings for all questions in part II of the questionnaire were found to be significant or highly significant. Although the questionnaire results indicate whether there is a concentration of responses on specific response options, they do not reflect where the responses are concentrated.

Table 4.5: Frequencies of part II results

Q.	always	%	often	%	sometimes	%	never	%
1	8	26.6%	7	23.3%	11	36.6%	4	13.3%
2	7	23.3%	7	23.3%	13	43.3%	3	10%
3	6	20%	12	40%	9	30%	3	10%
4	9	30%	13	43.3%	6	20%	2	6.6%
5	10	33.3%	5	16.6%	8	26.6%	7	23.3%
6	23	76.6%	0	00%	4	13.3%	3	10%
7	4	13.3%	13	43.3%	11	36.6%	2	6.6%
8	5	16.6%	14	46.6%	6	20%	5	16.6%
9	11	36.6%	8	26.6%	7	23.3%	4	13.3%
10	8	26.6%	6	20%	12	40%	4	13.3%

1. Ask my students to produce their own sentences using the new words they hear.
2. I have my students practice sounds (pronunciation and intonation).
3. I have my students listen to a text more than once.
4. I teach related vocabulary before listening.
5. I encourage my students to be positive about listening classes.
6. I ask my students to create a mental image of the new words they hear.

7. I have my students listen and write down most of what they hear.
8. I teach my students how to request clarification or verification in social interactions.
9. I have my students answer comprehension questions after they listen.
10. I stop the tape and ask my students to guess what is coming next.

4.1.3. Part III: Potential Problems in Listening Classroom

The third part of the questionnaire (with 9 questions) aimed to discover the difficulties that participants face in listening comprehension lessons. For every item in Part III of the questionnaire, frequencies and percentages were calculated as well.

Table 4.6: potential problems in the listening classroom

Q.	always	%	often	%	sometimes	%	never	%
1	7	23.3%	8	26.6%	11	36.6%	4	13.3%
2	17	56.6%	5	16.6%	8	26.6%	0	00%
3	16	53.3%	7	23.3%	7	23.3%	0	00%
4	12	40%	14	46.6%	4	13.3%	0	00%
5	12	40%	10	33.3%	6	20%	2	6.6%
6	8	26.6%	8	26.6%	9	30%	5	16.6%
7	5	16.6%	11	36.6%	7	23.3%	7	23.3%
8	8	26.6%	9	30%	8	26.6%	5	16.6%
9	7	23.3%	9	30%	11	36.6%	3	10%

1. My students are bored in listening classes.
2. My students find the listening materials difficult
3. I feel unconfident preparing listening materials by myself.
4. I do not have enough equipment (e.g., tape-recorders or videos).
5. I need to have a richer repertoire of listening activities.
6. I need in-service training for teaching listening strategies
7. I find it difficult to speak English in class.
8. The listening materials that I use are not authentic.
9. I am dependent on ready-made materials.

4.2. Discussion of Teachers' Questionnaire

This questionnaire was meant to investigate teachers' practices and perceptions regarding listening difficulties likely to arise in English listening comprehension lessons. The thirty instructors of English working Zawia University/College of Arts in Libya participated in the study. For this study, this questionnaire was used as the data-collection tool. The questionnaire also explored the factors that affect on in English listening comprehension tasks. The responses to the questionnaire were analyzed using quantitative data-analysis methods.

The first part of the questionnaire aimed to solicit background information about the participants. The results of the background information part of the questionnaire shows that almost 53.3% of participants teach at intermediate level. Participants have varying years of teaching experience, with a 43.3% of teachers who have teaching experience 5-8 years. About 63.3% of the participants indicated integrating listening comprehension with other skills in their classes. This result is highly consistent with the fact that for more naturalistic practice of listening, integrating it with other skills is necessary (Oxford, 1990). It may also be a result of the general tendency towards more communicative methodologies.

Most of the participants' listening lessons depend on audio-tapes. Video, which should be considered a powerful tool for listening comprehension because of the visual support it provides (Rubin, 1995), is also identified as a resource for teaching listening comprehension. However, the percentage of participants who indicated using textbook with audio-tapes is 30%, whereas 23.3% of teachers using produced materials and 26.7% of the teachers using textbook with video as tools to teaching listening comprehension. When the importance of visual clues for listening comprehension is considered, this percentage reveals low usage. This result is particularly interesting for an EFL context

where most teachers are not native speakers. In EFL contexts, many non-native teachers of English do not feel confident to prepare listening materials even though they are competent enough to prepare their own materials (Ur, 1996). Yet this study reveals that many of the participants feel confident to prepare their own listening comprehension materials.

The second part of the questionnaire investigates teachers' current listening strategy practices and their perceptions of listening strategies. It was seen that participants integrated various listening strategies into instruction to various extents. The results of item (1) reveal that 36.6% of the teachers encourage their students to produce new words they hear. Encouraging learners to listen more and pay attention to, listening activities or even outside the classroom will help them build their own vocabulary base and strengthen their listening ability. According to Hennings (1992) "to listen is not just to hear; it is the active construction of meaning from all the signals - verbal and nonverbal - a speaker is sending" (p.3). Therefore, teachers ought to make learners aware of the importance of being engaged while actively listening (Naunan, D., 2001) and encourage them to actively develop their own listening skills (Goh & Taib, 2006). A solution to this is to share and teach them how to employ active listening strategies, reminding them that they are still involved in the learning process even when they are silent.

Item (2) results show that 43.3% of the teachers ask their students to practice pronunciation and intonation and this will work properly in repetition drills when learners repeat words after speaker through a CD. In this case, learners will listen carefully and repeat intentionally which in turn will result in improving listening and speaking skills at once. According to Lund (1991), one of the problems in listening is that learners are forced to comprehend in real time what they are listening to without the support of a written text, for instance. Although, phonetic variations could still prevent listening comprehension if learners are not able to recognize the words and attribute meaning to them.

The results of item (3 and 4) also show that the teachers make their students listen to an audio script more than once to emphasize listening and to give them more chance to listen intensively to get the right pronunciation and to learn new vocabulary. To improve listening, teachers need to teach their students follow some important steps in order to develop their listening skills. According to Nunan, (2002: p.23) listening is a six-staged process, consisting of hearing, attending, understanding, remembering, evaluating and responding. These stages occur in sequence and rapid succession. As language teachers we should also make sure that learners are aware that despite their best effort, at times, they will still encounter some difficulties and challenges as improving listening is a process that requires time and practice and that they are not expected to understand every word each time that they are asked to do listening activities.

In item (5), the teachers reported that they encourage their students to be very positive about listening tasks because this will help them build self-confidence and get rid of their fears and overcome their difficulties. According to Ellis and Brewster (2014), the objective is to focus learners' attention not only on what they learn but also how they learn as a means to encourage them to become aware of how to develop their own strategies when it comes to learning, leading them to become more positive and independent learners. This can be achieved if teachers support students' understanding more effectively, in other words, if they manage to steer learners' attention to specific points of activities that actively support their understanding and guide their attention to specific parts of what they listen to (Brewster, Ellis & Girard, 2002).

In item (6), teachers stated that they encourage their students create mental image for any word they listen because this will help them link the word of the real world to the listening task through cognitive strategies such as imagination. The role of imagery in making sense of text has its theoretical roots in the work of Allan Paivio and his colleagues

(Paivio & Clark, 1991; Paivio, 1971, 1983, 1986; Sadoski, & Goetz, 1991). Research on mental imagery demonstrates that comprehension of text is enhanced when students are prompted or taught to use mental imagery. For example, learners who were instructed to create mental images of events in sentences learned two to three times as much as learners who read aloud the sentences repeatedly (Anderson, 2003). When children are taught to generate mental images as they read or listen, they experience greater recall and enhanced abilities to draw inferences and make predictions (Gambrell, 1981; Gambrell & Bales, 1986; Pressley, 1976; Sadoski, 1983, 1985).

Besides, imagination, the teachers stated that they ask their students to take notes as indicated in item (7) while listening because this strategy will help them remember what they heard especially in completion tasks. In the literature, the studies addressing various benefits of note-taking during listening are mostly seen in higher education contexts. When the learners do not take down notes, their attention span is 10 to 15 minutes, but thanks to note-taking, extending this period and increasing the interest and motivation level of the listeners might help them understand better. Therefore, learners should be encouraged to acquire note-taking skills (Howe, 2001). In a study by Carrell, Dunkel, Mollaun (2002) on note-taking, the participants believed that they felt comfortable and relieved when they were allowed to take notes during lessons; they also noted that it was useful to answer the questions related to the course content and it was easier for them to remember what they learned. Similarly, various researchers stressed that note-taking improves learning and facilitates recalling (Kneale, 1998; Laidlaw, Skok, & McLaughlin, 1993; Ayer & Milson, 1993; Davis & Hult, 1997; Kiewra, 2002; Boyle, & Weishaar, 2001; Titsworth & Kiewra, 2004; Bonner & Holliday, 2006). If one thinks that note-taking is the act of writing down the material by shortening it in certain ways unique to the listener, it means that this activity is oversimplified (Piolat et al., 2004: 306). In fact, note-taking is a process that

necessitates cognitive processing; it is composed of several steps; that is, listening, comprehension, analysis, selection and writing in the form of notes (Ozbay, 2005: 88). As it is clear from these lines, note-taking while listening renders listeners more active by involving them in higher-order cognitive skills such as evaluation, interpretation, decision-making and summarizing.

In item (8), the teachers state that they teach their students to socialize themselves when they ask for clarification if they miss a word or do not hear well. Asking for repetition and clarification in listening and speaking activities can shift the students from school situation to the real world when taking turns and communication take place. Learners can treat listening as a kind of group work where they are able to negotiate with the person providing the input. This can allow for negotiation to occur during the activity. In note-taking activities learners can work in pairs to take notes, and if the lecturer provides time for learners to discuss the input with each other at points during the lecture this can help those who are getting left behind keep up with what's going on (Nation and Newton, 2008).

Other strategies are mentioned by the teachers in item (9) such as answering comprehension questions after students listen to listening task. This activity will help the students retrieve what they heard already and activate their schemata. The activation of learners' background knowledge is closely related to learners' language proficiency on EFL learners' listening comprehension (Chiang & Dunkel, 1992; Field, 2004; Keshavars & Babai, 2001; Vandergrift, 2007). For instance, Keshavars and Babai (2001) reported that proficient language learners were more capable of revising their schema when their schema did not match the data by effectively using bottom-up information. By implication, less proficient language learners were less capable to utilize bottom-up information, and hence, relied more on contextual and co-contextual support for interpretation in listening.

However, due to insufficient linguistic ability, they may over-rely or over-generalize their topic knowledge, thus leading to a mismatch between what they hear and what they know (Tusi & Fullilove, 1998; Young, 1997). However, for a long time, listening instruction emphasized the importance of practice in achieving comprehension. Students were presented with text after text in the hope that extended exposure would improve listening comprehension with little or no analysis of how this comprehension was achieved. This method is called the product approach to listening. The emphasis on the product of instruction assumes that the listener receives the message and produces a single possible response to demonstrate her understanding (Field, 2008). It means that successful comprehension is determined by correct answers to questions and fill-in-the-blank exercises. The wrong answers indicate that the listener's comprehension failed at some point; the teacher would address the language and meaning mistakes but not the processes that lead to misunderstanding, so the student may well have the same difficulty in a similar listening situation.

Finally, in the last item (10), the teachers stated that they stop the tape recording during listening tasks to encourage the students guess and predict what is coming next. When teachers ask students to make predictions, discuss the main idea of the text, or summarize it, the primary concern is how well they understand what they hear. Teachers teach students strategies to facilitate comprehension and tell them not to cling to every word but to try to derive meaning from what they recognize. This approach encourages learners to rely on familiar language and provides little opportunity to boost linguistic development. It equates listening with listening comprehension, overlooking the important role listening plays in language acquisition (Richards, 2008: 87). Additionally, students could perform more productive activities requiring use of target forms from the text, such as reading transcripts aloud, sentence completion, dialogue practice, and role-playing. As

learners work with transcripts and use the language in speaking activities, they master the forms they have heard. Extending listening instruction to develop students' abilities to understand oral speech and to acquire sound patterns, vocabulary, and grammar reflects the multifaceted nature of the listening process.

Overall, through the questionnaire, it can be seen that the teachers make their students follow high cognitive strategies such as retrieving, remembering, guessing, predicting and imagination. They also ask their students to use language for communicative purpose when they as for repetition and clarification. Other activities are emphasized as well such as practicing pronunciation and taking notes.

The third part of the questionnaire aimed to discover the difficulties that participants face in listening comprehension lessons. The results of item (1) reveal that 36.6% of the teachers stated that their students are bored in listening classes. This is because in formal educational environments, the quality of student listening affects learning considerably. Students who are uninterested in a lesson listen reluctantly, wanting time to pass quickly and the class to end as soon as possible. In such situations, students become passive and, though appearing to be listening, will not use listening strategies that promote productive and permanent learning. By contrast, when students willingly participate in lessons by listening to instructors, asking questions, and holding discussions, they practice active listening that allows them to achieve more productive and more permanent learning.

Behavior and classroom management are the two variables that have the greatest impact on student learning (Marzano & Marzano, 2003). If teachers get an adequate classroom management, they will be able to set effective rules that help them to control the classroom, in that way students will be permanently under teacher's authority. (Stewart, 1997) agreed, "Behavior Management and classroom control are central to stimulating learning". By that Stewart is telling that teachers who keep control in their classroom are

capable to catch the attention of their students to succeed in the teaching and learning process.

In item (2), 56.6% of the teachers reported that their students find the listening material difficult. There were some difficulties faced by the student such as the lack of vocabulary, understanding structure, unable to comprehend natural spoken, lose confidence, maintaining concentration, bad recording. As Hamouda (2013) stated that factors causing students listening comprehension problem are categorized into different sources including problems related to the listening text, listening problems related to task and activities, listeners problems related to the listener and teacher's methodology. Thus, it was the way to find out the students' difficulties from three main areas: listener factors, listening material and physical setting. Also, it became guidance for the teacher to overcome listening comprehension.

The results of item (3 and 9) revealed that participants are both dependent on ready-made materials but are confident to prepare listening materials by them. One reason for this contradiction may be that the teachers prefer to bring taped-materials to the classroom instead of preparing new listening materials for classroom use. Time considerations and rigidly endorsed course syllabi may represent other plausible reasons for this discrepancy. To help the students understand mental and emotional processes in their learning, instructors aided with appropriate teaching materials can guide them in discovering important aspects of the listening process. Related to the previous study on the listening material development for English students, some studies had been carried out. The study of development research in junior and senior high school levels were conducted. First, a development research by Rosyidah (2002) focused on the objective of developing the prototype of listening materials for the teaching of English at senior high school. The results suggest outline of listening materials of pre-listening, whilst-listening, and post-

listening activities. Second, Zaenuri (2008) conducted a study on developing English as a foreign language listening materials for the students of Islamic junior high school. The finding was the product of listening materials. The final product is in the form of CD recorded materials, an instructor's guide, and a students' worksheet. Meanwhile, at university level, some studies had been conducted such as by Adnan (2014). The study focused on listening material development and on investigating the problems and challenges of doing development research which centered on developing the listening materials. Additionally, with different skill, in speaking skill, Fauzan (2014) carried out the research on developing EFL speaking materials for Islamic university students.

The results of item (4) show 46.6% of the teachers do not have equipments to teach listening. This result is disappointing because listening comprehension should be an important skill objective in the department (Benson, 1994). As Hamouda (2013) stated that factors causing students listening comprehension problem are categorized into different sources including problems related to the listening text, listening problems related to task and activities, listeners problems related to the listener and teachers' methodology and lack of equipments such as audio-visual aids. Any listening classroom or language lab should be well-equipped in order to achieve the course goals.

The participants in item (5) (almost 40%) reported that they need to have a richer repertoire of listening activities and, in item (6) 30% of the teachers need in-service training on listening strategies. These views may reflect the belief that most strategies are embedded in discrete activities and that in-service training is a too long and tiring task for adding more activities to one's repertoire. These results also indicate having problems regarding student boredom in listening lessons. Indeed, this may also be an extension of the need for a richer repertoire of listening activities. That is to say, student boredom may be a result of a narrow range of repeated activities.

In item (7) 36.6% of the teachers find it difficult to speak English in the classroom. In this regard, Ur (1996) mentions that most non-native teachers of English are fairly competent in modeling real-life spoken English. Ur adds that many non-native teachers do not feel confident to speak English in class. They think their speech does not reflect the features of real-life spoken English. The lack of English use by teachers during instruction can partly be explained by the number of English teachers that have not been specially trained to teach English. Research has suggested that the teacher's formal training plays a role in determining the amount of target language use during instruction (Duff & Polo, 1990). Regardless of poorly qualified English instructors in EFL settings, English teachers have other reasons for having difficulties using the target language during instructions. The results showed that more than half the teachers had difficulties explaining grammar and grammatical concepts, explaining vocabulary and talking to certain students in the L2.

Teachers claim that they often avoid explaining something complicated in English and therefore resort to using the L1, for example when explaining an activity. Additionally, English teachers report often using Arabic when managing the classroom and disciplining students. Also 30% indicated in item (8) that the listening materials that they use are not authentic. These results reveal that the teachers do not face a lot of problems with adaptation of listening tasks, or authenticity of listening materials. Establishing a purpose for listening might be included as a part of pre-listening activities that are available in the mandatory materials the participants use. Participants' comments on authenticity and task adaptation might vary along a wide spectrum ranging from simple to complex. Thus, for instance, even having students listen to the same text more than once might be considered as adapting the listening task.

To sum up, the teachers in this study face many problems in teaching listening such as lack of authentic materials, lack of equipments or teaching aids, dependence on ready-

made materials, difficulty of communication in English in the classroom and need for teachers' training.

4.3. Analysis of the Test

The listening test was conducted to find out the students listening comprehension problems and the factors that cause these problems. The results of the test revealed that the students have some listening comprehension problems such as lack of concentration and attention and anxiety, problems with speed of the speaking pitch or tone, and finally difficulty in understanding the accent. There are also problems related to false strategies adapted by the students while listening.

Table: 4.7: Results of the test

items	correct	%	incorrect	%
1 The briefing will be short this morning	17	42.5%	23	57.5%
2 The new head of the department is starting this week	11	27.5%	29	72.5%
3 The car park will be closed for improvements.	33	82.5%	07	17.5%
4 If you arrive first thing in the morning, you should park your car on Brown Street.	13	32.5%	27	67.5%
5 There will be no parking after 6 p.m.	03	7.5%	37	92.5%
6 can only pay the credit and debit cards in the canteen	18	45%	22	55%

This table above shows the number of correct answers and incorrect answers along with the percentages. As can be seen in the table, the percentages of incorrect answers outweigh the percentages of the correct ones. This confirms that students of English at Zawia University, College of Arts do face listening comprehension problems due to some affective factors that should be discussed in the next section.

4.4. Discussion of the Listening Test

This study investigated the problems of listening comprehension faced by EFL learners in Zawia University/College of Arts in Libya. The study was motivated by

previous findings showing that EFL learners of English encounter difficulties in understanding and comprehending listening tasks. The study was, therefore, an attempt to find out whether such findings could be confirmed in a different listening situation such as a test with EFL learners from an Arabic linguistic background.

While listening to listening task, the learners in this study (participants) appeared to struggle in comprehending the listening task and that is because of the speaker accent, loss of concentration and anxiety. Moreover, the students seemed to use inappropriate strategies while listening to the recording tape. These strategies included taking useless notes and over thinking about the meaning of each word they hear. These findings concur with the findings of other studies that investigated listening comprehension strategy use (e.g., Mendelsohn, 1995; Thompson & Robin, 1996; Vandergrift, 1999).). The results also showed that lack of using cognitive strategies were the factor that contributed the most to listening comprehension problems.

The following extract is the script of the listening test:

“Hi, everyone; I know you’re all busy so I’ll keep this briefing quick. I have some important information about a change in the management team. As you already know, our head of department, James Watson, is leaving his position at the end of this week. His replacement is starting at the end of the next month. In the meantime, we’ll continue with our projects as usual.

I have two more quick points. Firstly, there will be some improvements made to the staff car park next month for a few weeks. It will be closed during that time.

Don’t worry, we’ve found a solution. We can use the local church car park until our own one is ready. If you arrive before 8.30 a.m., please use our small car park on Brown Street, and if you arrive after that, you should go directly to the church car park. It’s only a five-

minute walk away. But they need it in the evenings, so you have to leave before 6 p.m.

Sorry about that – I know how much you all love working late!

The other thing I wanted to tell you about is that the canteen has now introduced a cashless payment system. So, you can't use cash for payments any more. You can pay directly with your Smartphone or you can pay using your company ID card. The total amount put on your company ID card comes off your salary at the end of each month.

OK. That's it? Are there any questions? ”www.britishcouncil.org/learnenglish (British Council; 2019)

As it can be seen in the script above, all the underlined sentences are the answers of the test questions. However; most of the questions were more or less difficult for the students. For example; in question (1) “*The briefing will be short this morning*”, the results show that 23 (57.5 %) students out of 40 their answers were incorrect while 17 (42.5%) answered the question correctly. That is because this question was very easy and did not contain any complex words. It can be seen that the students use substitution strategy by replacing the word “quick” by “short”. These findings reveal that students have the awareness to think about an appropriate action plan to complete the listening tasks and they can monitor themselves. This is good as it reveals they are to a certain extent capable to taking some ownership of their learning. Nevertheless, substitution is their least frequently used listening comprehension strategies.

In question (2) “*The new head of the department is starting this week*”; the results show that 29 students out of 40 (72.5 %) their answers were incorrect while 11 (27.5%) their answers were correct. In this question; the students were supposed to replace the word *start* by the word *leave* but because of anxiety or confusion they missed the correct key word. They might have used inappropriate strategy in which they focused on the adverb “this week” rather on the verb “leave”. In most of the literature on language leaning

anxiety, listening comprehension (LC) anxiety has begun to surface as a problematic area for students. Krashen (in Young 1992) acknowledged that, although speaking is cited as the most anxiety-producing skill, LC is also “highly anxiety provoking if it is incomprehensible” (168).

According to Scarcella and Oxford (1992), listening anxiety occurs when students feel they are faced with a task that is too difficult or unfamiliar to them. This anxiety is exacerbated if the listeners are under the false impression that they must understand every word they hear. As a result, the anxiety that arises during the listening process often springs from what Joiner (1986) calls a negative “listening self-concept,” that is, a low level of self-confidence in the area of listening Bloomfield et al. (2011) also claim that it is crucial to be mindful that listeners’ anxiety impacts their ability to understand what they can hear, especially young learners who tend to succumb to distractions sometimes and are unable to focus their attention for long periods of time on the same activity, which makes it even more challenging for them to listen effectively. Therefore, we must try to maximize our students’ learning ability in class through listening (Rivers, 1981) as this skill is the first phase that connects language with meaning.

In question (3), “*The car park will be closed for improvements*”; (33) students gave the correct answer; that is (82.5%) and this is because the sentence starts with a transition word “first” which plays as an indicator for the students referring to a coming information. It is important to mention that depending on the purpose for listening, learners may use top-down or bottom-up process more than another (Vandegrift, 2004). In other words, both processes usually happen together in real-life listening. Ur (1996) discussed the difficulties of teaching listening comprehension. Ur separates the difficulties of teaching L2 listening comprehension into three groups: practical problems related to listening texts, practical problems related to listening tasks, and problems related to

ongoing listener response. According to Flowerdew and Miller (2005), advanced listening skills are the results of combining listening process with the cognitive development. In that sense, in order to be effective listeners, students should use both bottom-up and top-down processing in listening. That is, “students must hear some sounds (bottom-up processing), hold them in their working memory long enough (a few seconds) to connect them to each other and then interpret what they’ve just heard before something new comes along (Brown, 2006, p. 3).

The results of question (4) “*If you arrive first thing in the morning, you should park your car on Brown Street*”; revealed that (27) of the students (67.5%) gave incorrect answer that is because there is no clue in the question item referring to the exact time of the car park opening hours whereas in the script there is a time (8:30 a.m.). Also, the speaker gave extra details using if conditional in case the car park is closed. These extra details made the students get confused to decide the right answer. Comprehension involves perception, parsing, and utilization. Perceptual processing is the encoding of the auditory or written message and it includes chunking phonemes from the continuous speech. A person pays particular attention to input and the sounds are kept in memory. While the input is in memory, the analysis of the language code begins and encoding process changes the input into meaningful representations (Anderson, 1995 as cited in Gilakjani & Ahmadi, 2011).

In the parsing process, words are changed into the mental representation of the combined meaning of words. Proposition is the main unit of listening comprehension. In parsing, a meaning-based representation of the original words can be kept in short-term memory and this representation is an abstraction of the original word sequences that can multiply the original sequences or their planned meaning. Listeners can have some difficulties in comprehending spoken language by native speakers if they are not familiar

with the rules for segmentation (Anderson, 1985 as cited in Pourhose in Gilakjani & Ahmadi, 2011). Memory span for target language input is shorter than for native language input. Complex input materials can be difficult to understand in a second language because they require combining of parsed segments in comprehension process and put an extra burden on short-term memory which can already be burdened with un-encoded parts of the new input (Call, 1985 as cited in Gilakjani & Ahmadi, 2011).

The same thing happened in question (5) “*There will be no parking after 6 p.m.*” which a continuation to the same instructions given by the speaker in the briefing. The results show that (37) students (92.5%) gave incorrect response. The word “before 6 in the script and after 6 in the test” made it difficult to students to retrieve such short details. According to Rost (1991) as cited in (Teng; 2002, p.73), nature of the input refers to dialect, speech rate, length, background, prepositional density, and amount of redundancy. Those factors have a negative impact on listener test takers. Chen and Cheng (2007) investigated listening difficulties of 51 civil engineering students enrolled in the two-year junior college program at a technical college. The data were based on three listening exams the students took during two semesters of a general English course and a survey conducted at the end of the course.

According to students’ responses, fast, natural native-sounding speech, limited vocabulary capacity to understand the message, speakers’ habitual expression of spoken English such as accent, stress, linking, and omitting of sounds, and insufficient knowledge or cultural differences were four major listening problems.

Finally, in the last question (6) “*You can only pay the credit and debit cards in the canteen*”; the results show that (22) students (55%) provided incorrect answers whereas (18) student (45%) gave correct answers. The structure of the question is different from the structure of the same information in the script and this is what made the students give

incorrect answer. Generally, the students are familiar with direct questions whose answers are right away in front of their eyes in the text. As a result, they could not figure out the right answer when the structure has been changed. The students' problems in the listening test can be contributed to lack of cognitive skills such as recognition of different structures with keeping the same information, retrieving short details and substitution. Cognitive strategies are problem-solving techniques that learners use to handle the learning tasks and facilitate the acquisition of knowledge or skill. This handling of learning tasks and acquisition of knowledge, manifested in behaviors such guessing the overall meaning of the text using the main idea or elaborating on new information using one's personal knowledge and experience appears to lead to greater success in listening comprehension as suggested by the results in this study (Stanchina, 1987). The present study also revealed that the students use significantly more top-down strategies (i.e. guessing the meaning from the context, and using the main idea to guess the meaning of the new words). However, these results are consistent with previous findings (e.g., Vandergrift, 1996; Taguchi, 2001).

4.5. Summary of the Chapter

This chapter presented the data analysis and discussion of both teachers' questionnaire and students' test. All the results that are collected were presented in tables which contain frequencies with their percentages. The discussion included what the researcher has found and other researchers in the related literature found as well.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0. Conclusion

This research study investigated the factors that hindering students of English listening comprehension in Zawia University, College of Arts. It also surveyed teachers' practices and perceptions regarding listening strategies, and their perceptions of difficulties likely to arise in English listening comprehension lessons. The study revealed that teachers generally employ at least two-thirds of listening strategies mentioned in the literature in the classroom. On the other hand, there are some commonly mentioned strategies that are not regularly employed. Most notable are a lack of emphasis on social and cognitive strategies. There is a need to increase the teachers' awareness of these strategies. It would also be better to provide teachers with more complete training on listening strategy instruction. The results of the study revealed that the participants believe that their students find the listening materials difficult; the participants are dependent on ready-made listening materials; and they need to have a richer repertoire of listening activities.

The results showed that the teachers encounter some difficulties when teaching listening comprehension. The participants mentioned the need for a richer repertoire of listening activities. They might think that more listening activities will solve their problem. However, without a good theoretical foundation, expanding the repertoire of activities would not make much change in the current situation. Thus, teacher trainers in ELT programs may want to incorporate units about listening strategies into their teacher training courses. Or language program administrators might organize in-service training that focus on needed theoretical foundations. The majority of the participants reported that their students find the listening materials difficult and that the participants are dependent

on ready-made listening materials. On the other hand, the majority of participants do not perceive themselves as being unconfident preparing listening materials by themselves. Therefore, the results of these two items seem to be contradictory; participants are both dependent on ready-made materials but confident to prepare listening materials by themselves. One reason for this pseudo contradiction may be that the teachers refer to bringing various taped-materials to the classroom instead of preparing listening materials. It might also be a result of the fact that the instructors do not prepare listening materials themselves because of the extra effort and time they need to put in it.

It is also interesting to note that the participants indicated not having difficulties in adapting listening tasks. In this case, they might be able to find a solution to the problem that their students find the listening materials difficult since the difficulty of tasks rather than texts should be adapted (Field, 2002). This result also revealed that the participants indeed do not have control over the materials and they are actually dependent on ready-made materials. Because the participants have problems related to materials and activities, program administrators and teacher trainers should provide teachers with a richer repertoire of listening activities and with solutions to overcome the problems of their dependency on ready-made materials. To overcome the problem of dependency on ready-made materials, teachers should consider using their own speech and peer speech as a way of providing exposure to second language listening. The problem that students find the listening materials difficult may also be overcome by a richer repertoire of listening activities, by having a thorough control over the materials (e.g., adapting the level of tasks and texts), and by teaching listening strategies. As long as students are concerned, the study revealed that the students in Zawia University, College of Arts encounter problems in listening to audio scripts either in lab or even outside the classroom. Consequently, the

study suggests the following tips for teaching listening and to help the students overcome their problems in listening:

5.1. Recommendations and Implications

This study offers a number of implications for classroom teaching and ESL/ EFL teachers.

1. ESL/ EFL learners at beginning levels should be made aware of cognitive strategies and instructed to make use of them to improve their listening comprehension.
2. ESL/EFL teachers should teach their students how to listen, to reflect on the process of listening and focus on using the meta-cognitive strategies of planning and monitoring.
3. Teachers can teach students planning strategies by preparing them for what they will hear and what they are expected to do. To help students plan for listening, teachers should provide a purpose for listening so that students become aware of the specific information they need to listen for. Students can then anticipate what they might hear.
4. Students also need to monitor their comprehension as they listen; teachers therefore, should allow students listen to the text for several times, and allow them to work in pairs or in groups so that the students can compare notes between each listening and verify selected details of the text.
5. ESL/ EFL teachers should incorporate more top-down cognitive processing skills in their listening comprehension class.
6. Teachers, therefore, should always provide background knowledge about the topic of listening and activate the students' schemata so that students can make connection between the topic of listening and their personal experience.

7. ESL/EFL teachers should always encourage students to actively participate in the listening text and make inferences from the listening text.
8. Also, ESL/ EFL teachers should pay less attention to practice at the word level or grammatical structure (bottom-up skills) in listening practice.

5.2. Limitations of the Study

The study only employed a questionnaire and a listening as a data-collection device. Thus, data consisted solely of teachers' reported perceptions. The study was limited because participants' reports were not confirmed by any other forms of data collection (e.g., observations or interviews).

This study had several limitations that could have contributed to the fairly few significant results found. The sample size is the first limitation to be pointed out in this study. For further study, in order to obtain a more reliable model, increasing the number of participants might yield better and more reliable results.

5.3. Suggestion for Further Research

As revealed by the results, although many teachers and students indicated being familiar with listening strategies, most of them do not integrate at least one-third of targeted listening strategies into instruction. This might be a reflection of a lack of theoretical knowledge about listening strategy instruction or a lack of familiarity with knowing how to teach certain listening strategies. It is also possible that they do not consider the strategies as useful for their students.

Exploration of listening comprehension strategy use in relation to gender, background knowledge, ELL' s native language, or age offers an array of possibilities for future research. Any follow up study to the current research should consider the limitations of this study and improve the procedures employed to collect data for this study.

REFERENCES

- Abdelgadir, Y. A. (2006) Listening Comprehension Difficulties as Perceived Almajmah, Saudi Arabia. *Journal of King Soud University*. Volume 19, Language and Translation, pp.35-47
- Abidin, Z. (2013).English Listening Comprehension Problems of Students from China Learning English in Malaysia. *ESL JOURNAL* vol.13 April, 2013
- Adnan, A. (2014). *Assigning Students to listen to English News*. In Proceeding of Seminar of English Language Teaching (SELT). English Department, FBS. Universita Negeri Padang.
- Al-Alwanl, A., Asassfeh, S., & Al-Shboul, Y. (2013) EFL Learners' Listening Comprehension and Awareness of Metacognitive Strategies: How Are They Related? *International Education Studies*; Vol. 6, No. 9; 201
- Alonso, R. S. (2013) *The importance of teaching listening and speaking skills*. MÁSTER Dpto. Didáctica de la Lengua y la Literatura Facultad de Educación.
- Anadapong, S. (2011) *A study of English Listening Problems and Listening Proficiency of Bussines Students at Bangkok*. Thammasat University, Bangkok
- Anderson, J.R. (1995). *Cognitive psychology and its implications*. New York: W.H. Freeman.
- Anderson, N. (2003). Metacognitive reading strategies increase L2 performance. *The Language Teacher*, 27, 20-22.
- Anderson, R., C. (1985) *Becoming a Nation of Readers: The Report of the Commission on Reading*. Illinois Univ., Urbana. Center for the Study of Reading.; National Academy of Education, Washington, D.C.

- Aneiro, S. (1989). The influence of receiver apprehension in foreign language learners listening comprehension among Puerto Rican college students. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). New York University: New York.
- Ayer W. & Milson J. (1993). The effect of note-taking and underlining on achievement in middle school life science. *Journal of Instructional Psychology*, 20(2), 91-95.
- Bacon, S. M. (1992a). The Relationship between Gender, Comprehension, Processing Strategies, and Cognitive and Affective Response in Foreign Language Learning. *Modern language Journal*, 76, 160-178.
- Bacon, S. M. (1992b). Phases of listening to Authentic Input in Spanish: A descriptive study. *Foreign Language Annals*, 25 (4), 317-334.
- Bacon, S. M., & Swaffar, J (1993). *Reading and Listening Comprehension: Perspectives on research and implications for practice*. In A. H. Omaggio (Ed.), *Research in language learning: Principles, processes, and prospects*. Lincoln Wood (pp. 124-145). IL: National Textbook.
- Baker, L., & Brown, A. L. (1984). *Meta-cognitive Skills and Reading*. In P. David (Ed.), *Handbook of reading research* (pp. 353-394). New York: Longman.
- Benson, M. J. (1994). *Lecture Listening in an Ethnographic Perspective*. In J. Flowerdew (Ed.), *Academic listening* (pp. 181-198). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Bloomfield, A., Wayland, S., Rhoades, E., & A Linck, J. (2011). What makes listening difficult? Factors affecting second language listening comprehension. <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/277788621> b
- Bonner J.M. & Holliday W.G. (2006). How college science students engage in note-taking strategies. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 43(8), 786-818.

- Boyle J.R. & Weishaar M. (2001). "The Effects of Strategic Note-taking on The Recall and Comprehension of Lecture Information for High School Students With Learning Disabilities". *Learning Disabilities: Research & Practice*, 16(3), 133-.
- Boyle, J. P. (1987). Sex Difference in Listening Vocabulary. *Language Learning* 37. 273- 284.
- Boyle, J. P. (1984). Factors Affecting Listening Comprehension. *ELT Journal* 38, 34-38.
- Bozorgian, H. (2012). Meta-cognitive Instruction Does Improve Listening Comprehension. International Scholarly Research Network, 1-6.
- Brewster, J., Ellis, G., & Girard, D. (2002). *The primary English teacher's guide*. (New edition). Harlow: Longman.
- Brown, A. L., & A. S. Palinscar. (1982). *Introducing strategic learning from texts by means of informed self-control training*. Topics in Learning and Learning Disabilities, 2, 1-17.
- Brown, D. (1994). *Teaching by Principles*. An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy. USA: Prentice Hall Regent
- Brown, G. (1995). *Dimensions of difficulty in listening comprehension*. In D. J. Mendelsohn & J. Rubin (Eds.), *A guide for the teaching of second language listening* (pp. 59-73). San Diego: Dominic.
- Brown, G., & Yule, G. (1983). *Teaching the spoken language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Brown, J. D. (2006). *Perspectives on teaching connected speech to second language speakers*. Honolulu: University of Hawai'i Press.
- Buck, G. (1995). *How to become a good listening teacher*. In D. J. Mendelsohn & J. Rubin (Eds.), *A guide for the teaching of second language listening* (pp. 113-131). San Diego: Dominic.

- Buck, G. (2001). *Assessing listening*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Call, M. (1985) Auditory short-term memory, listening comprehension, and the input hypothesis. *TESOL Quarterly*, 19, 765-81
- Carrell, P. L., Dunkel, P. A., & Mollaun, P. (2002). The effects of note-taking, lecture length and topic on the listening component of the TOEFL 2000. (TOEFL Monograph Series No. MS-23). Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service.
- Chamot, A. U., & O'Malley, J. M. (1987). The Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach: A Bridge to the Mainstream. *TESOL Quarterly*, 21, 227-249.
- Chang, Y.L., Chang, T.S., &Kuo, C.H. (1995). Listening Difficulties and Learner Strategies of Nonnative Speakers. The ninth Conference on English Teaching and Learning in the Republic of China (pp.145-158). Taipei: Crane.
- Cheng, Y. P. and Chen, S. W (2007). An investigation of listening difficulties encountered by EFL students in senior high schools. Unpublished master's thesis, National Chuanghua University of Education, Changhua, Taiwan
- Chiang, C. S., & Dunkel, P. (1992). The effect of speech modification, prior knowledge, and listening proficiency on EFL lecture learning. *TESOL Quarterly*, 26(2), 345–374.
- Chulim, F. (2008). *The use of Listening Learning Strategies by Lengua Inglesa Students in Five Mexican Universities*. Memorias del IV Foro Nacional de Estudios en Lenguas. 469-479
- Clark, M. (1980). The Short Circuit Hypothesis of ESL Reading. *The Modern Language Journal*. 64, 203-209.
- Conrad, L. (1985): Semantic Versus Syntactic Cues in Listening Comprehension. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 7, 59-72.

- Coskun, A. (2010). The Effect of Meta-cognitive Strategy Training on the Listening Performance of Beginner Students. *Novitas-ROYAL (Research on Youth and Language)*, 4(1), 35-50.
- Darti, AndiAsmawati (2017). Analyzing Students' Difficulties towards Listening Comprehension. Volume 3, Number 02, (*English Teaching*). Fourth Pan-Asian Conference (pp. 518-525). Taipei, Taiwan: Crane.
- Davis M. &Hult R.E. (1997). Effects of writing summaries as a generative learning activity during note-taking. *Teaching of Psychology*, 24(1), 47-49.
- Derry, S. J., & Murphy, D. A. (1986). Designing Systems That Train Learning Ability: From Theory to Practice. *Review of Educational Research*, 56, 1-39.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research Methods in Applied Linguistics: Quantitative, Qualitative, and Mixed Methodologies*. New York, N.Y: Oxford University Press.
- Duff P, Polio C (1990) How much foreign language is there in the foreign language classroom? *The Modern Language Journal* 74(2): 154–66
- Ellis, G., & Brewster, J. (2014). *Tell it Again! The new storytelling handbook for primary teachers*.
- Ellis, R. (2003). *Task-Based Language Learning and Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press
- Field, J. (2002). *The Changing Face of Listening*. In J. Richards & W.A. Renandya (Eds.), *Methodology in language teaching: An anthology of current practice* (pp. 243-247). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Field, J. (2004). *An insight into listeners' problems: too much bottom-up or too much top-down*. *System*, 32, 363–377.
- Field, J. (2008). *Listening in the Language Classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Flowerdew, J. and Miller, L. (2005). The teaching of academic listening comprehension and the question of authenticity. *English for Specific Purposes*, 16(1), 27–46.
- Gambrell, L. B. (1981). Induced mental imagery and the text performance of first and third graders. In J. A. Niles & L. A. Harris (Eds.), *New inquiries in reading research and instruction. (Thirty-first Yearbook of the National Reading Conference, pp. 131- 135)*. Rochester, NY: National Reading Conference.
- Gambrell, L. B., & Bales, R. (1986). Mental imagery and the comprehension monitoring performance of fourth and fifth-grade poor readers. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 11, 454-464.
- Gardner, R.C., & MacIntyre, P. D. (1992). A Student's Contributions to Second Language Learning. Part I: Cognitive variables. *Language Teaching*, 22, 211-220
- Goh, C. (1998). How ESL Learners with Different Listening Abilities Use Comprehension Strategies and Tactics. *Language Teaching Research*, 2, 124-147
- Goh, C. (2000). A Cognitive Perspective on Language Learners' Listening Comprehension Problems. *System*, 28, No. 1
- Goh, C., & Taib, Y. (2006). Meta-cognitive instruction in listening for young learners. *ELT Journal*, 60, 222–232.
- Graham, S., Santos, D., & Vanderplank, R. (2008). Listening Comprehension and Strategy Use: a longitudinal exploration. *System*. 36, 52-68
- Howatt, A. and J. Dakin. 1974. *Language laboratory materials*, ed. J. P. B. Allen, S. P. B. Allen, and S. P. Corder.
- Hamouda, A. (2013). An Investigation of Listening Comprehension Problems Encountered by Saudi Students in the EL Listening Classroom. *International Journal of Academic Research in Progressive Education and Development*

- Hansan, A. (2000). Learners' Perceptions of Listening Comprehension Problems. *Language. Culture and Curriculum*, 13, 137-152
- Harmer, J. (2002). *The Practice of English Language Teaching*. Longman
- Hennings, D.G. (1992). *Beyond the Read Aloud: To Read through Listening and Reflecting on Literature*. Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation.
- Higgins, J. M. D. (1995). *Students' Listening Difficulties: The Contribution of Speech Rate*. In C. Zaher (Ed.), *Proceedings of the third EFL skills conference: New directions in listening* (pp. 65-75). Cairo: The American University in Cairo.
- Howe M.J.A (2001). *OđrenmePsikolojisi (1.Basim)*. Istanbul: Alfa Yayinlari,
- James M. Clark, and Allan Paivio. (1991). Dual Coding Theory and Education. *Educational Psychology Review*, VoL 3, No. 3
- Jeffrey P. Dorman Jill M. Aldridge Barry J. Fraser (2006). *Using students' assessment of classroom environment to develop a typology of secondary school classrooms*. *International Education Journal*, 2006, 7(7), 906-915
- Keshavarz, M. H., & Babai, E. (2001). Incompatibility of schema with input in listening comprehension. *Indian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 27 (1), 57- 83
- Kiewra K.A. (2002). "How Classroom Teachers Can Help Students Learn and Teach Them How to Learn" . *Theory into Practice*, 41, 71.
- Kneale P. E. (1998). Note-taking for geography students. *Journal of Geography in Higher Education*, 22(3), 427-433.
- Kotharti, C. R., (2004). *Research Methodology: Methods & Techniques*. New Delhi New age interactional (P) Ltd., 2nd rev.
- Krashen, S. (1985). *The Input Hypothesis: Issues and Implications*. London: Longman.

- Krashen, S. (1992). *Fundamentals of language education*. Chicago: SRA McGraw-Hill.
- Krashen, S. D. (1987). *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 1982-1982). New York.
- Krashen, S. D., Terrell, T. D., Ehrman, M. E., & Herzog, M. (1984). A Theoretical Basis for Teaching the Receptive Skills. *Foreign Language Annals*, 17, 261-275
- Laidlaw E.N., Skok R.L. & McLaughlin T.F. (1993). The effects of note-taking and self-questioning on quiz performance. *Science Education*, 77(1), 75-82.
- Lam, W. Y. K. (2002). Raising students' Awareness of the Features of Real-World Listening Input. *Foreign Language Annals*, 11, 241-265
- Linse, C. T. (2005). *Practical English language teaching: Young learners*. New York: McGraw Hill ESL/ELT
- Liu, X.L., (2006). Improving Second Language Listening: Awareness and involvement.
- Lonsdale, R. (1996). *International Student Listening Problems in a British Institution of a Higher Education*. In C. Zaher (Ed.), *Proceedings of the third EFL skills conference: New directions in listening* (pp. 44-54). Cairo: The American University in Cairo.
- Lui, H. J. (2008). A Study of Interrelationship between Listening Strategy Use, Listening Proficiency Levels, and Listening Style. *ARECLS*, 5, 84-204
- Lund, R. J. (1991). A comparison of second language listening and reading comprehension. *The Modern Language Journal*, 75, 196-204.
- Marzano, R. J. Marzano, J. S., (2003). *Classroom management that works*. Alexandria, VA: ASCD.
- McNeill, A. (1996). *Some formal obstacles to grasping meaning in spoken English*. In C. Zaher (Ed.), *Proceedings of the third EFL skills conference: New directions in listening* (pp. 80-88). Cairo: The American University in Cairo.

- Mendelsohn, D. (1994). *Learning to Listen*. San Diego: Dominie.
- Mendelsohn, D. (1995). Applying Learning Strategies in the Second/Foreign Language Listening Comprehension Lesson. In D. J. Mendelsohn & J. Rubin (Eds.). *A Guide for the Teaching of Second Language Listening* (pp. 132-150). San Diego: Dominie
- Mohseny, A., & Raeisi, N. (2009). The Relationship between Language Proficiency of EFL Students and Their Strategy Use in Listening Comprehension. *TEFLL*, 1(4), 111-132.
- Morley, J. (1972). *Improving Aural Comprehension*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.
- Morley, J. (1991). *Listening and language learning in ESL: Developing Self-Study Activities for Listening Comprehension*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, Inc.
- Morley, J. (1995). *Academic listening comprehension instruction: Models, principles, and practices*. In D. J. Mendelsohn & J. Rubin (Eds.), *A guide for the teaching of second language listening* (pp. 186-218). San Diego: Dominie.
- Morley, J. (2001). *Aural Comprehension Instruction: Principles and practices*. In Marianne Celce O'Malley, J. M., Chamot, A. U. (1989). *Learning Strategies in Second Language Acquisition*. *Applied Linguistics*, 10, 4, 418-437
- Nation, L. S. P. & Newton, J. (2008). *Teaching ESL/EFL listening and speaking*. London: Routledge.
- Nunan, D. (1991). *Language teaching methodology*. Hemel Hempstead, Herts.: Prentice Hal
- Nunan, D. (2002). *Listening in language learning*. In J. Richards & W.A. Renandya (Eds.), *Methodology in language teaching: An anthology of current practice* (pp. 238-242). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- O'Malley, J. M., & Chamot, A. U. (1990). *Learning strategies in second language acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- O'Malley, J. M., Chamot, A. U., & Walker, C. (1987). Some applications of cognitive theory to second language acquisition. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 9, 287-306
- O'Malley, J. M., Chamot, A. U., & Kupper, L. (1989). Listening comprehension strategies in second language acquisition. *Applied Linguistics*, 29, 331-341
- Oxford, R. & Crookall, D. (1989). Research on language learning strategies: Methods, findings, and instructional issues. *The Modern Language Journal*, 73, 404-419
- Oxford, R. L. (1990). *Language Learning Strategies: What every teacher should know*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle
- Paivio, A. (1971). *Imagery and Verbal Processes*, Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, New York (Reprinted 1979, Erlbaum, Hillsdale, New Jersey).
- Paivio, A. & Clark, J. M. (1991). Dual Coding Theory and Education. *Education psychology review* 3(3) 149-120.
- Paivio, A. (1983b). *The empirical case for dual coding theory*. In Yuille, J. C. (ed.), *Imagery, Memory and Cognition: Essays in Honor of Allan Paivio*, Erlbaum, Hillsdale, New Jersey, pp. 307-332.
- Paivio, A. (1986). *Mental Representations: A Dual-Coding Approach*, Oxford University Press, New York.
- Persulesy, G.H. 1988. *Listening improvements Exercises for Students of English*. Jakarta.
- Peterson, P. W. (2001). Skills and Strategies for Proficient Listening. In M. Celce-Richards, J. C. (1993). *Listening comprehension: Approach, design, procedure*. *TESOL Quarterly*, 17, 219-239.

- Piolat, A., Olive, T., & Kellogg, R. T. (2004). Cognitive effort during note taking. *Applied Cognitive Psychology*, 19(3), 291–312.
- PourhosseinGilakjani, A., &Ahmadi, M. R. (2011). *A Study of Factors Affecting EFL Learners' English Listening Comprehension and the Strategies for Improvement*. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 2(5), 977- 988.
- Pressley, G. M. (1976). Mental imagery helps eight-year-olds remember what they read. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 68, 355-359.
- Rahimi, M., &Katal, M. (2012). The role of meta-cognitive listening strategies awareness and podcast use readiness in using podcasting for learning English as a foreign language. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 31, 73-81.
- Richards, J. (2008). Materials development and research – Making the connection. *RELC Journal*, 37(1), 5–26.
- Richards, J. C. (1983). Listening comprehension: Approach, design, procedure. *TESOL Quarterly*, 17, 219-239.
- Richards, J. C. (1996). Teachers' Maxims in Language Teaching. *TESOL Quarterly* 30, 281-296.
- Richards, J. C. (2005). *The Language Teaching Matrix*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ridgway, T. (2000). Listening Strategies: I beg your pardon? *ELT Journal* 54, 179-185.
- Rivers, W. M. (1981). *Teaching Foreign Language skills*. 2nd ed. Chicago and London: The University of Chicago Press.
- Rixon, S. (1986). *Developing Listening Skills*. London: Macmillan.
- Rost, M. (1990). *Listening in Language Learning*. London: Longman.
- Rost, M. (1991). *Listening in Action*. New York: Prentice Hall.

- Rost, M. (2001). Listening. In R. Carter & D. Nunan (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to teaching English to speakers of other languages* (pp. 7-13). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Rost, M. (2002). *Teaching and Researching Listening*. London: Longman.
- Rost, M., & Ross, S. (1991). Learner Use of Strategies in Interaction: Typology and Teachability. *Language Learning*, 41, 235- 273
- Rosyidah, A. (2002). *Developing listening materials for teaching English at MAN Malang 1*. Unpublished Thesis. Malang: State University of Malang.
- Rubin, J. (1987). *An Overview to a Guide for the Teaching of Second Language Listening*. In D.J. Mendelsohn, & J. Rubin (Eds.). A guide for the teaching of second language listening (pp. 7-11). San Diego: Dominie.
- Rubin, J. (1995). *The Contribution of Video to the Development of Competence in Listening*. In D.J. Thompson, I. (1995). Assessment of second/foreign language listening comprehension. In D.J. Mendelsohn, & J. Rubin (Eds.), A guide for the teaching of second language listening (pp. 31-58). San Diego: Dominie.
- Sadoski, M. (1983). An exploratory study of the relationships between reported imagery and the comprehension and recall of a story. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 19: 110-123.
- Sadoski, M. (1985). The natural use of imagery in story comprehension and recall: Replication and extension. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 20: 658-667
- Sadoski, M., and Goetz, E. T. (1985). *Relationships between affect, imagery, and importance ratings for segments of a story*. In Niles, J. A., and Lalik, R. (eds.), *Issues in Literacy: A Research Perspective*, 34th Yearbook of the National Reading Conference, National Reading Conference, Washington, D.C., pp. 180-185

- Scarcella, R. & Oxford, R. (1992). *The Tapestry of Language Learning: The Individual in the Communicative Classroom*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
- Shang, H. (2008). Listening Strategy Use and Linguistic Patterns in Listening Comprehension by EFL Learners. *THE INTL. JOURNAL OF LISTENING*, 22(1), 29–45
- Sheorey, R., & Mokhtari, K. (2001). Differences in the metacognitive awareness of reading strategies among native and non-native readers. *System*, 29(4), 431-449
- Stanchina, H., C. (1987). Autonomy as Meta-cognitive Awareness: Suggestions for training self-monitoring of listening comprehension. *MdangesPgdagogiques* 17. *Universite de Nancy 2: CRAPEL*, 69-84
- Stewart, M. David.(2006). Film English: Using Films to Teach English. *Electronic Journal of English Education*.
- Sun, K. C. (2002). Investigation of English listening difficulties of Taiwan students. Selected Papers from the Eleventh International Symposium on English Teaching/Fourth Pan Asian Conference (pp. 526-533). Taipei, Taiwan: Crane
- Taguchi, N. (2001). Comprehending implied meaning as a foreign language. *The Modern Language Journal*, 89, 543–562.
- Taguchi, N. (2002). L2 learners' strategic mental processes during a listening test. *JALT Journal*, (23), 26- 31
- Taguchi, N. (2002). L2 learners' strategic mental processes during a listening test. *JALT Journal*, (23), 26- 31
- Tang, C. M. & Chaw, L. Y. (2013), *Readiness for blended learning: Understanding attitude of university students*. *International Journal of Cyber Society and Education*, 6, 2, 79-100

- Tavakoli, M., Shahraki, S., & Rezazadeh, M. (2012). The Relationship between Meta-cognitive Awareness and EFL Listening Performance: Focusing on IELTS Higher and Lower Scorers. *The Journal of Language Teaching and Learning*, 2, 24-37
- Teng, H. C. (2002). *An investigation of EFL listening difficulties for Taiwanese students*. Selected Papers from the Eleventh International Symposium on English Teaching/Fourth Pan Asian Conference (pp. 526-533). Taipei, Taiwan: Crane
- Thomas, I and Dyer, B. (2007). *The Problem of Poor Listening Skills*. faculty.weber.edu/
- Thompson, I. (1995). *Assessment of Second/Foreign Language Listening Comprehension*. In D.J. Mendelsohn, & J. Rubin (Eds.), *A guide for the teaching of second language listening* (pp. 31-58). San Diego: Dominie.
- Thompson, I., & Rubin, J. (1996). Can strategy instruction improve listening comprehension? *Foreign Language Annals*, 29, 331-342.
- Timson, S. (1996). Teaching Lecture Comprehension and Note-taking in EAP Courses. In C. Zaher (Ed.), *Proceedings of the third EFL skills conference: New directions in listening* (pp. 109-119). Cairo: The American University in Cairo.
- Titsworth B.S. & Kiewra K.A. (2004). Spoken Organizational Lecture Cues and Student Note Taking as Facilitators of Student Learning. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 29(4), 447-461
- Tsui, A. & Fullilove, J. (1998). Bottom-up or top-down processing as a discriminator of L2 listening performance. *Applied Linguistics*, 19, 432-451. doi: 10.1093/applin/19.4.432
- Underwood, M. (1989). *Teaching Listening*. London: Longman.
- Ur, P. (1984). *Teaching Listening Comprehension*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Ur, P. (1996). *A course in Language Teaching: Practice and theory*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Vandergrift, L. (1996). The Comprehension Strategies of Second Language (*French*) Listeners: A Descriptive Study. *Foreign Language Annals*, 30(3), 387-409
- Vandergrift, L. (1997). The strategies of second language (French) listeners. *Foreign Language Annals*, 30, 387-409
- Vandergrift, L. (1997b). The Comprehension Strategies of Second Language (*French*) learners: A descriptive study. *Foreign Language Annals*, 30, 3, 387-409
- Vandergrift, L. (1998). Successful and less successful learners in French: What are the strategy differences: *The French Review*, 71, 370-395
- Vandergrift, L. (1999). Facilitating second language listening comprehension: Acquiring successful strategies. *ELT Journal*, 53, 168-173
- Vandergrift, L. (2003). Orchestrating strategy use: Towards a model of the skilled L2 listener. *Language learning*, 53, 461- 491
- Vandergrift, L. (2007). Recent developments in second and foreign language listening comprehension research. *Language Teaching*, 40(3), 191-210.
- Vandergrift, L. (2007). Relationships among motivation orientations, meta-cognitive awareness and proficiency in L2 listening. *Applied linguistics*, 26, 70-89
- Wenden, A., & Rubin, J. (1987). *Learner strategies in language learning*. New York: Prentice Hall.
- Yagang, F. (1994) *Listening: Problems and solutions*. In T. Kral (ed.) *Teacher Development: Making the Right Moves*. Washington, DC: English Language Programs Division, USIA.

- Yesilyurt, E. (2013). An analysis of teacher candidates' usage level of meta-cognitive learning strategies: Sample of a university in Turkey. *Educational Research and Reviews*, 8(6), 218-225.
- Ying-hui, H. (2009). An investigation into the task features affecting EFL listening comprehension test performance. *The Asian EFL Journal Quarterly*, 8(2), 33-54.
- Young, M. Y. C. (1997). A serial ordering of listening comprehension strategies used by advanced ESL learners in Hong Kong. *Asian Journal of English Language Teaching*, 7, 35-53.
- Zaenuri, M. (2008). Developing EFL listening materials for the students of the seventh grade of MTs negeri Mojokerto. Unpublished Thesis. Malang: State University of Malang.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1

Dear student

This test is designed to examine your listening comprehension. The answers that you will provide will help me in completing my MA thesis. Please feel free to answer the questions.

Listen to a morning briefing to practice and improve your listening skills. Are the following sentences true or false?

1. The briefing will be short this morning. True() false ()
2. The new head of the department is starting this week. True () false ()
3. The car park will be closed for improvements.
4. If you arrive first thing in the morning, you should park your car on Brown Street.
True () false ()
5. There will be no parking after 6 p.m. True () false ()
6. You can only pay the credit and debit cards in the canteen. True () false ()

listening test

Listen to a morning briefing to practice and improve your listening skills. Are the following sentences true or false?

1. The briefing will be short this morning. True () false ()
2. The new head of the department is starting this week. True () false ()
3. The car park will be closed for improvements.
4. If you arrive first thing in the morning, you should park your car on Brown Street. True () false ()
5. There will be no parking after 6 p.m. True () false ()
6. You can only pay the credit and debit cards in the canteen. True () false ()

Appendix 2: TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear respondents;

I appreciate your participation in this study. All I ask is that you complete this three-part questionnaire and hand it to your department secretary. I am requesting that you not include your name so that I can maintain strict confidentiality and complete anonymity throughout the data collection and reporting stages of my study. I will assume that your completion of the questionnaire grants permission to use the data given for my study and any report derived from it. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact me.

Thank you in advance for your help and cooperation.

PART I: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Please answer the questions below. Indicate your answers with a tick (/).

1. This academic year, I am teaching listening to students who are at the following level.

(Please check **only one** response. Check the level that you either teach most or the one that you understand the best.):

beginning intermediate upper-intermediate advanced

2. How many years have you taught English?

0-4 years 5-8 years 9-12 years 13 or more years

3. Are you currently teaching listening as a discrete skill or integrated with other skills?

As a discrete skill Integrated with other skills

4. What kinds of listening materials are you using this academic term? (Check all that apply.)

Textbook with audio tapes and videos

Textbook without audio tapes and videos

Textbook with audiotape only

Textbook with video only

Teacher-produced materials

Other (Please specify):

PART II: PRACTICES OF LISTENING STRATEGIES

Please read each statement while considering your listening lessons. Respond to each statement and tick (/) for one response

CURRENT PRACTICES: Always, Often, Sometimes, Never

Questions	always	often	sometimes	never
1. Ask my students to produce their own sentences using the new words they hear.				
2. I have my students practice sounds (pronunciation and intonation).				
3. I have my students listen to a text more than once.				
4. I teach related vocabulary before listening.				
5. I encourage my students to be positive about listening classes.				
6. I ask my students to create a mental image of the new words they hear				
7. I have my students listen and write down most of what they hear				
8. I teach my students how to request clarification or verification in social interactions.				
9. I have my students answer comprehension questions after they listen.				
10. I stop the tape and ask my students to guess what is coming next.				

PART III: POTENTIAL PROBLEMS IN THE LISTENING CLASSROOM

Please read each statement while thinking about your listening lessons. To what extent do the statements represent a problem for you? Indicate your response with a tick (/).

Questions	always	often	sometimes	never
1. My students are bored in listening classes.				
2. My students find the listening materials difficult				
3. I feel unconfident preparing listening materials by myself.				
4. I do not have enough equipment (e.g., tape-recorders or videos).				
5. I need to have a richer repertoire of listening activities.				
6. I need in-service training for teaching listening strategies				
7. I find it difficult to speak English in class.				
8. I find it difficult to adapt listening tasks.				
9. The listening materials that I use are not authentic.				
10. I am dependent on ready-made materials.				